

Restarting tourism, travel and hospitality

Christou, Evangelos (Ed.); Fotiadis, Anestis (Ed.)

Veröffentlichungsversion / Published Version

Sammelwerk / collection

Empfohlene Zitierung / Suggested Citation:

Christou, E., & Fotiadis, A. (Eds.). (2022). *Restarting tourism, travel and hospitality*. Sindos: International Hellenic University, School of Economics and Business. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6428312>

Nutzungsbedingungen:

Dieser Text wird unter einer CC BY-NC-ND Lizenz (Namensnennung-Nicht-kommerziell-Keine Bearbeitung) zur Verfügung gestellt. Nähere Auskünfte zu den CC-Lizenzen finden Sie hier:

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/deed.de>

Terms of use:

This document is made available under a CC BY-NC-ND Licence (Attribution-Non Commercial-NoDerivatives). For more information see:

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0>

RESTARTING TOURISM, TRAVEL AND HOSPITALITY



EDITED BY

EVANGELOS CHISTOU & ANESTIS FOTIADIS

ISBN: 978-618-5630-05-8



INTERNATIONAL
HELLENIC
UNIVERSITY

Restarting tourism, travel and hospitality

Edited by

Evangelos Christou & Anestis Fotiadis



First published 2022

by the School of Economics and Business, International Hellenic University

P.O. Box 141, 574 00 Sindos

Greece

Authors of papers published in *this Book* hold the copyright of their paper without restrictions. Work published here is licensed under an [Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International Licence](#).

According to this, you are free to copy, distribute, display and perform the work in any media or form, as long as you give the original author(s) credit, do not use this work for commercial purposes, and do not alter, transform, or build upon this work.

For any reuse or distribution, you must make clear to others the license terms of this work.

Any of these conditions can be waived if you get permission from the copyright holders. Nothing in this license impairs or restricts the authors' rights.

A catalogue record for this book has been requested

DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.6428312

ISBN: 978-618-5630-05-8



Contents

Editorial	xii
The Post COVID-19 Scenario: Towards a New Model of Tourism Governance?	1
1. Introduction	1
2. Literature review.....	3
3. The three axes of post-viral tourism governance	5
4. Conclusions	7
The Relationship Between Social Loafing and Knowledge Management.....	11
1. Introduction	11
2. Literature Review	12
3. Research Methodology.....	13
4. Findings and Analysis	14
5. Discussion	15
6. Conclusions	15
Tourist entrepreneurs' experiences of co-operation with university students for Sustainable Destination Development	19
1. Introduction	19
2. Theoretical perspectives.....	19
3. Research methodology.....	21
4. Analysis and findings.....	22
5. Conclusions	25
A Spatial Perspective Guiding the Specialization in Local Tourism: Case Study Bogotá-Colombia	28
1.Introduction	28
2.Literature review.....	29
3. Research methodology.....	30
4. Findings and analysis.....	31
The role of local administrations in the reactivation of tourism. The new Community-based Tourism offer in Medellín, Colombia.	39
1. Introduction	39
2. Methodology.....	40
3.Tourism as the basis of economic development	40
4. Community -Based Tourism as strategy for the reactivation of the tourism sector in Medellín, Colombia. .	43

5. From the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and community tourism.....	43
6. Medellín as a tourist destination through community initiatives.	45
Impact of Covid-19 Pandemic on Tourism in Turkey	47
1. Introduction	47
2. Tourism Statistical Figures.....	48
3. Economic Impacts on Turkish Economy	49
4. Impact of Covid 19 from the aspect of Tourism Professionals	51
5. Conclusion and Discussion.....	53
Innovation in tourism as a strategy for blue tourism development in Albania.....	57
1.Introduction	57
2.Literature review.....	58
3.Research methodology.....	59
4.Findings and analysis.....	60
5. Discussion	62
6. Conclusions	63
Exploratory Study on Wine Tourism of Karnataka	66
1.Introduction	66
2.Literature review.....	67
3.Research methodology.....	67
4.findings and analysis	68
5.Conclusions	74
Tourist Behaviours at Covid-19 Pandemic	78
1. Introduction	78
2. Research Methodology.....	79
3. Findings.....	79
4. Discussion	82
5. Conclusions	83
The Relationship Between Employee Complaints and Workplace Mobbing.....	87
1. Introduction	87
2.Literature review.....	87
3.Research methodology.....	89
4.Findings and analysis.....	90
5. Discussion	91
6.Conclusions	91

Do going green concept and csr activities influence on financial performance? Empirical Evidence from SME Hotels in Sri Lanka.	94
1.Introduction	94
2.Literature review.....	95
3.Research methodology.....	97
4.Findings and analysis.....	97
5. Discussion	102
6.Conclusions	102
Tourism and urban conservation in historic centres: The case of Chania	107
1.Introduction	107
2.Literature Review	107
3.The case study.....	108
4.Research Methodology	110
5. Conclusions	115
Dark tourism in Thessaloniki: the chances of cemetery and ghost tourism	117
1.Introduction	117
2. Literature review.....	117
3. Literature review.....	120
4.Conclusion	122
Analyse the Recruitment and Selection Theories and Practical Implications of Civil Service Sector	125
1.Introduction	125
2.Literature review.....	126
3.Research methodology.....	128
4.Findings and analysis.....	128
5.Conclusions	130
6.Recommendations	131
COVID-19 pandemic and tourism: The impact of health risk perception and intolerance of uncertainty on travel intentions	134
1. Introduction	134
2. Theoretical framework	135
3. Method	137
4. Results	140
5. Discussion	141
6. Conclusion.....	142
Determinants of MICE Tourism Promotion in Sri Lanka: A Management Perspective	150

1. Introduction	150
2. Literature review	151
3. Research Methodology	152
4. Findings and Analysis	152
5. Discussion	157
6. Conclusion	157
Benchmarking e-tourism	161
1. Introduction	161
2. Literature review	163
3. Conceptual framework	164
4. Data visualization	166
5. Discussion	167
6. Conclusions	168
Trends of Tourism Taxation in Developing Economies During the Coronavirus Crisis	173
1. Introduction	173
2. Literature review	175
3. Research methodology	176
4. Findings and analysis	177
5. Discussion and conclusions	182
An Extended Attitudinal Loyalty Modeling of Roots Tourism in China: The Mediating Role of Sense of Sacredness and Belonging	187
1. Introduction	187
2. literature review	189
3. Research methodology	191
4. Findings and analysis	192
5. Discussion	194
6. Conclusions	194
Cross-border Tourism between Greece and Albania	198
1. Introduction	198
2. Transportation and road tourism	198
3. Cross-border tourism in Greece	199
4. Research methodology	202
5. Research results	203
6. Discussion and conclusions	207
7. Suggestions for the development of tourist traffic from Albania	207

Gender and age differences in destination image evaluation: The case of Drama, Greece	211
1.Introduction	212
2.Literature Review	213
3.Research Methodology	213
4.Findings and Analysis	214
5.Discussion	216
6.Conclusions	217
A two-sided analysis of the effects of technological changes in the hospitality service experience	221
1. Introduction	221
2. Literature Review	221
3. Research Methodology.....	224
5.Findings and Analysis	227
6. Discussion	231
7. Conclusions	232
Tourism & Unidentified Cultural Heritage in Thessaloniki. Bulgarians, Serbs, Russians, Romanians	237
1.Introduction	237
2.Literature review.....	238
3.Research methodology.....	240
4.Findings and analysis.....	241
5. Discussion	243
6. Conclusions	243
7. Proposals - Suggested Routes.	244
Drought Tourism: Adopting Tourism for Water Scarcity.....	248
1. Introduction	248
2. Literature Review	249
3. Research Methodology.....	251
4. Discussion, Conclusion and Limitations.....	251
The negative impact of the COVID-19 crisis on the activities of Czech mini-breweries.....	258
1.Introduction	258
2.Literature review.....	259
3.Research methodology.....	259
4.Findings and analysis.....	260
5.Discussion	261
6.Conclusions	264

Travel behaviour of vegetarians and vegans: Investigation and marketing proposals to facilitate the development of vegan food tourism.....	268
1.Introduction.....	268
2.Literature review	269
3.Research questions and hypotheses	270
4.Methodology	271
5.Results	271
6.Discussion	274
7.Conclusions	275
Sustainable Food Approach and the All-Inclusive System Paradox	278
1.Introduction.....	278
2.Literature Review.....	279
3.Research Methodology	282
4.Result and Discussion.....	282
5.Conclusions	283

This book is dedicated to COVID-19 victims and their families

About the editors

Evangelos Christou is Professor of Tourism Marketing and Dean of the School of Economics & Business at the International Hellenic University. Since 2020 he is a member of the Governing Board of the International Hellenic University. He was educated in Britain, and he has a Doctorate in Heritage Tourism Marketing from Aberystwyth University in Wales and a Master's in Business Administration (MBA) from the same university, a Postgraduate Diploma in Management from Leicester University, a Postgraduate Diploma in Marketing from the Chartered Institute of Marketing, and a Bachelor of Arts in Hospitality Management from Anglia Ruskin University. He is the Director of the MSc in Tourism Management and of MSc in Management of Education Units, as well as the Director of TourLab Research Laboratory specializing on research in tourism and services, at the International Hellenic University in Greece. His published and research work includes over 150 refereed journal and conference papers, 6 books, 4 monographs, and participation in numerous funded national and international research projects.

Evangelos Christou is Editor-in-Chief of the Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing, an international refereed full open-access scientific journal, available at: www.jthsm.gr. He has long academic and teaching experience both in Greece (at the University of the Aegean, the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, and the Democritus University of Thrace), as well as abroad (at the University of Bolzano in Italy, at Universite de Lyon III and at Institut Paul Bocuse in France, and at National Chia-Yi University of Taiwan among others). His research and consulting interests include: image and branding of tourism destinations and tourism enterprises, heritage tourism, wine tourism, and e-marketing. He has extensive research and consulting experience on tourism in Greece, the United Kingdom and the United Arab Emirates. He has served as President of EuroCHRIE (European Council on Hotel, Restaurant & Institutional Education) and as a member of the Board of Directors of International CHRIE. Evangelos Christou has received awards by the United Nations' World Tourism Organization, as well as the EuroCHRIE's Life-Achievement award. He has been awarded the status of Chartered Marketer by the Chartered Institute of Marketing of the United Kingdom.

Anestis K. Fotiadis, PhD, is a Full Professor at Zayed University, College of Business, Department of Management, Abu Dhabi, UAE. He studied Business Administration at Moscow University of Commerce (BSc, 1998), holds one MSc on IT in Business Administration (MSc 2002) and one on Tourism Business Administration (MSc, 2005). He holds a Ph.D. (2009) in International Business Administration from the University of Pecs in Hungary. He has delivered lectures both at the undergraduate and the postgraduate level as a tenured faculty in universities in Greece and Taiwan before he joined Zayed University. More of that he worked several years as the head of IT and research development for the public sector in Greece.

His main area of research is associated with tourism management, event management, hospitality management and sustainable development. Lately, he is working on smart tourism, neuroscience and halal tourism research. He has published more than 40 research papers in international academic journals such as Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management, Journal of Business Research, International Journal of Hospitality Management, along with several books and book chapters. He is a member of multiple scientific associations and a reviewer for top tier international journals. More of that he is the Associate Editor of Journal of Tourism, Heritage and Service Marketing and the co-organizer of Tourman Series Conferences.

Editorial

Evangelos Christou¹ & Anestis Fotiadis²

¹ International Hellenic University, Greece
ORCHID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1950-5012>
Email: echristou@ihu.gr

² Zayed University, United Arab Emirates
ORCHID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8806-7987>
Email: anestis.fotiadis@zu.ac.ae

Throughout a number of decades, the tourism and hospitality industries have been sensitive to and affected by external and internal factors, such as uncertainties, challenges, crises, and pandemics. A sudden and unexpected crisis (e.g., natural, financial, or health related) could have a negative effect on tourism and worsen the performance of hospitality-related businesses. One of the most significant among these are pandemics and disease outbreaks that have played a major role in social and economic change in recent decades. Tourism and hospitality industries suffered heavy damages as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic (Maditinos, Vassiliadis, Tzavlopoulos, & Vassiliadis, 2021). Worldwide, closing borders, reducing travel of tourists, and reducing visitor demand resulted in a serious decline in the tourism sector due to COVID-19. Despite the evolution of other epidemic outbreaks such as SARS, Ebola, and H1N1, the Coronavirus (COVID-19) has remained one of the deadliest outbreaks thus far (Fotiadis, Polyzos, & Huan, 2021). There is no doubt that a systemic global healthcare crisis as well as a financial crisis are all signs of an upcoming global economic downturn (Del Chiappa, Bregoli, & Fotiadis, 2021). Countries across the globe have taken drastic measures to stop the spread of COVID-19 by locking down entire countries or the most affected cities, as well as denying entry into their borders, resulting in a huge hit to the global tourism industry, especially for the travel and hospitality segment (Polyzos, Samitas, & Spyridou, 2020). In response to the COVID-19 outbreak, many tourism destinations have temporarily halted operations as travel bans, lockdown measures, and cancelled bookings result (Fotiadis, Woodside, Del Chiappa, Séraphin, & Hansen, 2021).

There has been a significant negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism sector in developing countries, as tourism plays a significant role in the economy. First of all, the pandemic has had a direct effect on the entire economy and society due to its health consequences as well as the measures taken to reduce its consequences. A second important aspect of this pandemic is that it has impacted the tourism sector in particular, which is crucial for economic growth and job creation. Third, the negative impacts of COVID-19 on the tourism sector are transmitted to many other economic sectors since tourism is interconnected with many other economic sectors. For this reason, researchers and policymakers are highly interested in these impacts. In order to counteract the negative economic impacts of COVID-19, differential information on these impacts is essential for the formulation of measures and policy decisions. It is likely that information such as this could contribute to economic growth and reduce poverty in a number of developing countries, which are susceptible to any economic shocks.

The pandemic seems to experience different phases. In phase one there was a plethora of studies that tried to investigate when the pandemic will end and what might be the impacts. Most of these studies failed to forecast the future and it was clear for the academic community that COVID-19 will change the way we operate forever. As everyone was anticipating for a solution, several pharmaceutical companies manage to

produce vaccines and several countries implemented vaccination programmes which gave hope to travel and hospitality stakeholders leading to phase two. Summer 2021 was in some countries quite successful based on current conditions and big event began such as Olympic games in Tokyo, Japan and Expo 2020 in Dubai, UAE. In this second phase of the pandemic several researchers examined which factors affected tourists regarding destinations that dealt successfully with the pandemic. More of that there was a huge number of studies that focused on how social media affect perception or how face news, twites and other parameters are affecting tourists. As there is a debate lately on people who believe in vaccines, people that believe in vaccines, but they don't trust the COVID-19 vaccines, and people who doesn't believe in vaccines, there are new topics for academic discussion in phase three.

References

- Del Chiappa, G., Bregoli, I., & Fotiadis, A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on the Italian accommodation sector and related response actions: A supply-perspective using a mixed method approach. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 7(1), 13-22.
- Fotiadis, A., Polyzos, S., & Huan, T.-C. T. C. (2021). The good, the bad and the ugly on COVID-19 tourism recovery. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 87. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2020.103117
- Fotiadis, A. K., Woodside, A. G., Del Chiappa, G., Séraphin, H., & Hansen, H. O. (2021). Novel coronavirus and tourism: coping, recovery, and regeneration issues. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 46(2), 144-147. doi:10.1080/02508281.2021.1919422
- Maditinos, Z., Vassiliadis, C., Tzavlopoulos, Y., & Vassiliadis, S. A. (2021). Sports events and the COVID-19 pandemic: assessing runners' intentions for future participation in running events – evidence from Greece. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 46(2), 276-287. doi:10.1080/02508281.2020.1847422
- Polyzos, S., Samitas, A., & Spyridou, A. E. (2020). Tourism demand and the COVID-19 pandemic: an LSTM approach. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 1-13. doi:10.1080/02508281.2020.1777053

Contributors

Aikaterini Vassilikopoulou	Hellenic Open University, Greece
Albattat Ahmad	Management and Science University, Shah Alam, Malaysia
Alexander Balzan	Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, Spain
Alfonso Vargas-Sánchez	University of Huelva, Spain
Ali Sukru Cetinkaya	Selcuk University, Turkey
Ana Carolina Arboleda-Gallo	Universidad Rey Juan Carlos, Spain
Anastasiya Golets	University of Brasilia, Brazil
Anette Oxenswärdh	Uppsala University, Sweden
Aristeidis Chatzipoulidis	International Hellenic University, Greece
Besarta Vladi	Barleti University, Albania
Despina Dimelli	Technical University of Crete, Greece
Dhananjaya Nawarathana	Uva Wellassa University of Sri Lanka
Eleni Dinaki	University of the Aegean Greece
Evangelia Zoi Bara	International Hellenic University, Greece
Ferdous Azam	Management and Science University, Shah Alam, Malaysia
Gabriela Antořová	Czech Technical University in Prague
George Kokkinis	International Hellenic University, Greece
Georgia Zouni	University of Piraeus, Greece
Gözdegül Başer	Antalya Bilim University, Turkey
Handan Özçelik Bozkurt1	Sinop University, Turkey
Helena Costa	University of Brasilia, Brazil
Helmuth Yesid Arias Gómez	Czech Technical University in Prague
Ifigeneia Mylona	International Hellenic University, Greece
Irene (Eirini) Kamenidou	International Hellenic University, Greece
Jéssica Farias	University of Brasilia, Brazil
Jonathan Osuoha	Institute of Hospitality Management in Prague, Czech Republic

Josef Vacl	University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic
Kalogirou Christina	University of Thessaly Greece
Kejda Nuhu	Barleti University, Albania
Kitti Hiezl	University of Pannonia, Hungary
Lubomír Kmeco	University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic
Maduranga Kulathunga	Uva Wellassa University, Sri Lanka
Maria I. Klouvidaki	Hellenic Open University, Greece
Meltem Caber	Akdeniz University, Turkey
Monika Klímová	University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic
Muna Fathmath	Management and Science University, Shah Alam, Malaysia
Ömer Saraç	Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Turkey
Orhan Batman	Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Turkey
Panagiota Kefala	International Hellenic University, Greece
Prasanna Kumar J.P. Ramaiah	University of Applied Sciences, India
Ronaldo Pilati	University of Brasilia, Brazil
Ruwan Ranasinghe	Uva Wellassa University, Sri Lanka
Sathika Dias Dahanayake	Uva Wellassa University, Sri Lanka
Shirley Consuelo Honajzrová Banús	Institute of Hospitality Management in Prague, Czech Republic
Spyridon Mamalis	International Hellenic University, Greece
Stavros Pavlidis	International Hellenic University, Greece
Szilvia Kardos	Eötvös Loránd University, Hungary
Tahir Albayrak	Akdeniz University, Turkey
Tao Huang	Capital University of Economics and Business, China

Thashneem Thaqseen Bhanu Ramaiah	University of Applied Sciences, India
Theodoros Kargidis	International Hellenic University, Greece
Thushan Hansaka	Uva Wellassa University of Sri Lanka
Vahit Oğuz Kiper	Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Turkey
Velissariou Efstathios	University of Thessaly Greece
Yang Zhang	Macau University of Science and Technology, China

The Post COVID-19 Scenario: Towards a New Model of Tourism Governance?

Alfonso Vargas-Sánchez

University of Huelva, Spain

ORCID: 0000-0003-0588-8654

Email address: vargas@ehu.es

Abstract

Science shows us that there is a very close relationship between chaos and order so that one leads to the other following an endless process. Therefore, if chaos provoked by the COVID-19 pandemic is the prelude to a new order, this means that a window of opportunity is open to rethink the tourism industry and rebuild it from a new vision more aligned with the major challenges of humanity. It can be hoped that the demonstrated resilience of this economic activity will once again become evident, but also a change in the behaviour of governments, tourists and operators in the sector. On the foundations of the lessons that should have been learnt from this crisis, it is critical to be able to find new ways of acting that respond to the challenges of a reality altered by the disaster of the already mentioned pandemic. In this sense, it is argued that those new ways (with inertias to reverse and actions to explore) should be framed within a new model of tourism governance built on three main pillars: new core values, enhanced management capabilities, and a renewed alliance with society.

Keywords: *Destination management organization; Organizational learning; Post covid-19 tourism; Tourism governance.*

1. Introduction

Science shows us that there is a very close relationship between chaos and order so that one leads to the other following an endless process. Therefore, if the chaos brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic is the prelude to a new order, this means that a window of opportunity is open to rethink the tourism industry and rebuild it from a vision more aligned with the great challenges of humanity: environmental, social, technological... It can be hoped that the demonstrated resilience of this economic activity will once again become evident, but also that a change in the behaviour of governments, tourists and operators in the sector will take place. In this sense, if governments and people change their relationship with tourism, companies and destinations will be forced to change their strategies. Even within the tourism supply chain itself, new balances could emerge, because of bankruptcies, mergers, acquisitions, new alliances... For example, the union of hoteliers against certain practices of some Online Travel Agencies can alter the relationship of forces in the distribution channels.

Concerning the strategic approach that would be required to face this new situation, and putting the previous example in a more general context, the following four ideas about what is expected from the strategy today should be particularly helpful (Pérez and Pérez-Ferrant, 2018).

- A proactive rather than reactive focus.
- Better (easier and more controllable) to change oneself (improve our products and services, etc.) than to try to change others.
- Better to transform the relationships than to try to change others.
- Articulation and cooperation rather than confrontation.

Overall, under these circumstances, the greatest enemy is uncertainty and, to deal with this, the evaluation of the possible post-pandemic scenarios is advisable. In this line, it is not unreasonable to think that in the travel and tourism sector there will be a before and after the current pandemic which will lead to the need for finding new ways of acting

to match the challenges of an industry that, to some extent, will have changed as a result of the COVID-19 disaster. To justify this assertion, a decalogue of reasons can be found in Table 1.

Table 1: Why the COVID-19 crisis will represent a before and after. Decalogue of reasons.

TOURISM	
BEFORE (FROM)	AFTER (TO)
More Liberalisation	More Control (sanitary, capacity, distancing, etc.)
More Globalisation	More Regionalisation
Dynamism	Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity, Ambiguity (VUCA)
Competition (rivalry)	Hyper-Competition
Creativity	Extreme Creativity
Flexibility & Agility	Extreme Flexibility & Agility
3 Ps Model of Governance (Public-Private Partnership)	4 Ps Model of Governance (Public-Private-People Partnership)
Experience	Regenerative Experience (of body and soul)
Physical Socialisation	Socialisation with a reinforced virtual layer
Digitisation	Robotisation and Artificial Intelligence

Source: own elaboration.

Based on the fact that, in such a VUCA world, learning capacity is the only source of sustainable competitive advantage (with its consequent translation in terms of agile and flexible responsiveness), in the search for the abovementioned new ways of acting some key points will be the lessons learnt during this crisis. Although we do not yet know how long the pandemic and its effects will last, some examples of lessons that should already have been extracted follow:

- The importance of early detection of warning signals (even if they are weak) about phenomena with a high potential impact on tourist flows and a high level of urgency in the response. In other words, a proactive culture that encourages in-depth analysis of these signals and the development of prevention protocols and contingency plans.
- Everything is interrelated. It is not enough to think about the actions (ours and those of others), but, in a hyper-connected world, we must pay special attention to interactions. Today, more than ever, it is necessary to have a global and systemic vision of tourism.
- Each problem has its particular context, with its corresponding dynamics, from which it cannot be separated when proposing solutions. Therefore, solutions must accept the problem with its complexity, which requires studying it within its specific context. The inertia to apply a generic recipe should be quarantined.
- At critical moments companies must behave, more than ever, as good corporate citizens, helping their employees, customers, suppliers and, in general, the community of which they are part. It is a question of solidarity, but also of reputation, brand credibility and building organisations based on values that strengthen the bonds with their stakeholders.
- As manager of a tourism company or destination, it is better to have a strategy than to act without it, since the latter option would represent abandoning ourselves to fatalism and giving up influencing our future. However, this cannot be based anymore only on tourist promotion, but also on the management and reconfiguration of its offer according to the new social panorama derived from the COVID-19 catastrophe. Nor can it be founded on the past business and governance patterns as if nothing had happened (and changed), but on a renovated approach anchored in an industry culture invigorated by the values of data, cooperation, resilience... In fact, “resilient communities possess the ability to act collectively and thereby exceed what they can achieve as individuals” (Ghaderi et al., 2015, 401).

A framework for the formulation of this strategy is displayed in Table 2, with some recommendations in terms of inertias to reverse and actions to explore.

Table 2: Strategy formulation.

WHAT TO AVOID (inertias to reverse)	WHAT TO DO (actions to explore)
1. The inertia towards a promotion-based approach.	1. Systematically manage based on data (data-driven logic).
2. The inertia of "business as usual".	2. Track tech developments and embrace the smart tourism model.
3. The inertia of "governance as usual".	3. A new success metric, beyond the traditional quantitative indicators of growth (visitors, overnights, etc.).
4. The (cultural) inertia towards division and non-sharing (data, ideas ...).	4. Market diversification to become more resilient.
5. The inertia of letting ourselves be led by fatalism.	5. Cultivate the concept of restorative and regenerative tourism.

Source: own elaboration.

Within this panorama, the purpose of the present paper is to propose some key guidelines for the re-calibration of tourism governance in the emergent context of post-viral challenges.

The rest of this document is organised as follows: the next section covers the literature review in the intersection between tourism governance and the COVID-19 disaster. The main axes of post-viral tourism governance are then discussed. This work ends with the conclusions reached.

2. Literature review

As stated by Xiang et al. (2020), "many thought leaders have argued that the pandemic's impact is far-reaching and will change many facets of our economy and, perhaps more important, how we live and travel in the years to come" (p. 4). For Matiza (2020): "The global tourism industry faces a multifaceted challenge from both the tourism demand (perceived health, social, psychological risk) and supply-side (massive fiscal deficits, job losses, business liquidation, human capital depletion). As such, the recovery of the travel and tourism industry requires a concerted multi-stakeholder approach to address both tourism demand and supply aspects" (p. 5). In this line, Becken and Hughey (2013) recommend a multi-stakeholder approach for effective integration of tourism and government structures to mitigate health and other risks associated with this activity; and for Carr (2020), "COVID-19 has negatively democratized health risks" (p. 492).

According to Brouder (2020), "there is a potential path that leads us to transformation in tourism if sufficient institutional innovation occurs on both the demand and supply side of tourism and if new paths also emerge. This would require a huge leap of faith on the part of destination regions as they prepare to come out of the crisis and it would also require a change in collective tourist behaviour, unlike anything we have seen before ... Whether that leads to a radical transformation of the tourism sector remains to be seen but the imprint it will leave on both the demand and supply of tourism will have long-term, incremental impacts for years to come and ultimately move us closer towards the transformation of tourism" (p. 488).

Specifically, Streimikiene et al. (2021) also anticipate changes in tourists' interests, which will include greater demand for sustainable products. To this, it can be added that (Spalding, Burke, & Fyall, 2021): "In a post-COVID world, changes to travel and tourism are inevitable and will likely be driven by a combination of consumer choice, destination availability and regulatory change" (p. 127).

For Carr (2020), the COVID-19 crisis recovery requires flexible, nimble and socially responsive governance approaches. In this respect, this author emphasises the importance of the incorporation of local communities' values in the process of tourism revitalisation. Renaud (2020) also criticises the marginalization of local stakeholders and defends that now they "have an opportunity to decide what is best for their own communities, rather than having these decisions imposed on them from more powerful actors. Local stakeholders will have to fill the vacuum this pandemic leaves, circumscribing the ambitions of the mass tourism industry and so preventing a return to the old 'normal'." (p. 687).

In this regard, Karzen and Demonja (2020) advocate in favour of participatory governance, which increases ‘collective ownership’ within communities and “can help to foster democratic participation and social cohesion, enhance accountability and transparency of public resource investments, and help build public trust in policy decisions” (p. 664). This position stresses the importance of social innovation, that is: “giving members of the community an active role in directing their own destinies” (p. 664).

The case of Sardinia (Italy) is paradigmatic of a sound strategic approach, as it is harnessing the pandemic as an opportunity to reposition itself as a smart and safe destination, starting from the implementation of organisational and governance structures linked to a coordination function among the various government bodies and private actors involved in tourism processes (Mariotti et al., 2020).

In this line, Vargas-Sánchez (2020b) proposes three fundamental changes in the roles played by Destination Marketing/Management Organisations (DMOs): from marketer to orchestrator of operators in the destination; from an intermediary in the value chain to the facilitator of opportunities for its members; from a brand promoter to the intelligence promoter and strategic mind of the destination. At the European level, the Council of the European Union (2021) recommends the implementation of “innovative instruments to modernise tourism business models and destination management...” (p. 8).

That strategic mind should lead to a deep analysis of the resilience capability to deal with crisis times and determine how to improve it, although, as pointed out by Barbhuiya and Chatterjee (2020), resilience does not necessarily mean a lack of vulnerability and vice versa. Authors such as Seville et al. (2008) conceptualise resilience as the “ability to survive or even thrive in times of crisis” (p. 18), and Ghaderi et al. (2015) state that a tourist destination resilience is bolstered when the government, private industry, social groups and others cooperate in devising and executing a disaster recovery plan.

Cellini and Cuccia (2015) describe resilience as how complex systems (enterprises, groups of enterprises, economic sectors, and territories) respond to adverse shocks. Therefore, it is aimed to understand why these entities react differently to the same exogenous shock, and which features or strategies are most suited to minimise the adverse impacts and to obtain a quick recovery. This has also been applied to hotels (Brown et al., 2019): “disaster resilience of hotels describes the organisations’ ability to withstand and recover from a disaster” (p. 108).

In the case of tourism, an example of resilience applicable to the current crisis would be the ability to substitute international with domestic tourism (even regional and local) during the pandemic period. Its importance has been underlined by Barbhuiya and Chatterjee (2020), who consider resilience one of the key factors that enable a socio-ecological system to be sustainable in the long run, and support Prayag’s (2018) point of view in the sense that, in the sphere of tourism, there is a need to shift from a crisis management perspective to a resilience perspective.

The interplay between resilience and governance has also been raised in the literature, although very scarcely. Thereby, as stated by Luthe and Wyss (2016), “limited research has been undertaken concerning tourism and resilience from a network governance point of view” (p. 27), with their findings linking higher resilience with “a more flexible and diverse governance structure, more centralized steering of fast collective action, and improved innovative capacity” (p. 27). More precisely, quoting the works by Folke et al. (2005), Manring (2007) and Ernstson et al. (2010), they state that “a tourism governance structure with the aim of supporting resilience has to meet two fundamental criteria, or governance modes: (1) allow the preparation for disturbance via creating and maintaining the necessary level of diversity to plan for change while simultaneously enhancing decentralized processes of social learning and (2) allow the response to disturbance by the creation and maintenance of flexibility and by means of more centralized collective action. Flexibility allows for the implementation of short-term adaptation processes to imminent external challenges. In contrast to short-term shocks, long-term adaptation to more subtle changes implies learning processes and innovation, which call for the interaction of diverse actors throughout the system” (p. 27).

Moreover, Barbhuiya and Chatterjee (2020) refer to adaptive governance and community participation among the mechanisms identified to increase resilience. Following this rationale, the already mentioned research carried out by Luthe and Wyss (2016) proposes “the development of new ties to improve overall collaboration” (p. 27), that is to increase network density, as a way of raising the resilience of the governance structure. In the same line, R-Toubes et al. (2020) state that “to achieve long-term recovery, policymakers and other stakeholders ... must work together to create more agile and adaptable forms of local, national and global governance and risk management” (p. 100619); and for this aim, these authors propose the concept of “liquid destination”, based on fostering collaborative networks to facilitate information and knowledge flow; that is, a more proactive structure with the ability to quickly adapt to different circumstances to create more agile forms of local, national and global governance and risk management.

3. The three axes of post-viral tourism governance

Beyond the impact of the COVID-19, the strategies of destinations and companies in post-viral tourism should take into account other fundamental vectors of change that, in conjunction with the legacy of the pandemic, are to converge causing a profound reconfiguration of the tourism activity. Specifically, the technological revolution and the current challenges of sustainability (with particular attention to the adaptation to -and mitigation of- climate change and the application of the principles of the circular economy).

About the latter, Jones and Comfort (2020) echo some voices that have seen the COVID-19 crisis as a test for climate change and a strong focus on sustainability, taking tourism into a new era. Nevertheless, despite the proactiveness of some organisations, it would not be realistic to expect a spontaneous evolution towards such a strong focus. In this line, institutional theory advocates that the level of pressure from the institutional environment is determinant (Di Maggio and Powell, 1983), concerning its three types of forces: coercive (regulatory framework), normative (values and standards encouraged, for instance, by business associations), and mimetic (cognitive dimension; that is, the following of practices considered as successful or benchmarks). A high level of institutional pressure would lead to a situation of progressive and increasing isomorphism in the sector, but its low intensity would justify a heteromorphic panorama, with companies and destinations addressing sustainability issues differently. It is also relevant to note that, according to this theory, obtaining social legitimacy from (tourism) stakeholders is a previous step for reaching better organisational performance.

Together with this external factor, the internal dimension of the organisational culture, in reference to its proactive or reactive character towards sustainability issues, would determine four possible scenarios, as shown in Table 3. This internal factor frames this analysis within the resource-based view of the firm, which is nowadays the most frequently used theory in strategic management.

Table 3: Sustainability, new normal or old normal?

		External Dimension:	
		Level of Pressure from the Institutional Environment	
		HIGH	LOW
Internal Dimension: Organisational Culture	PROACTIVE	(1) Fast pace towards a new normality	(2) Social legitimacy gainers
	REACTIVE	(3) Social legitimacy laggards	(4) Old-normality driven organisations
Zone		Isomorphism	Heteromorphism

Source: own elaboration.

Consistently, it is expected that the combination of a high level of institutional pressure and a proactive organisational culture could lead to a fast pace of change towards a strong focus on sustainability issues, which would represent the face of the new normality in this domain. On the opposite side of this spectrum is found the scenario that would result from the coexistence of reactive corporate cultures and an institutional environment that exerts a relatively low pressure to reinforce the sustainability focus of the industry, characterised, therefore, by organisations driven by the old (pre-pandemic) normality.

In between, social legitimacy gainers and social legitimacy laggards are found. The latter because of their cultural reluctance to move forward despite the pressure from external forces towards a stronger sustainability focus; and the former because of their proactive (anticipatory) culture that stimulate advances in that field, despite the relatively low-intensity pressure from the existing institutional forces to make further progress in that direction.

Concerning the upcoming tech revolution, which advances very fast and with a phenomenal disruptive potential derived from the convergence of a series of technologies (such as Artificial Intelligence, Robotics, Sensors, 5G, Internet of Things, Brain-Computer Interfaces, Augmented Reality, Virtual Reality, Blockchain, 3D Printing, Autonomous Transport Vehicles, etc.), new tourism experiences will emerge. Their designs, contents and modes of enjoyment will lead to a truly new competitive landscape, with new resources and capabilities at the heart of any successful strategic architecture. Table 4 synthesizes the expected changes in the so-called machine age.

Table 4: Tourism experiences in the machine age

PRE-PANDEMIC / FROM	POST-PANDEMIC / TO
Change in WHO designs them	
Individuals	Artificial + Crowd Intelligence
Change in WHAT kind of content	
Passive	Active
Real Life	Fully-Immersive Virtual Reality World
Standard	Personal
Change in WHERE to experience the content	
Here	Here, There, and Everywhere

Source: adapted from Diamandis & Kotler (2020, chapter 7).

Finally, the legacy of the COVID-19 pandemic deserves some remarks in this section. The uncertainty concerning the new landscape caused by this disaster can easily lead to confusion and paralysis. To avoid this trouble, the ways of acting to address the new challenges (inertias to reverse and actions to explore) listed in Table 2 should be framed within a new model of tourism governance built on three main pillars, summarised in Table 5: new core values, enhancement of management capabilities, and a new alliance with society.

Table 5: Tourism governance evolution.

CORE VALUES	ENHANCEMENT OF MANAGEMENT CAPABILITIES	A NEW ALLIANCE WITH SOCIETY
*Intellectual humility. *Solidarity with the community. *Centrality of people.	*Anti-crisis contingency plans. *Community management. *Technology / Knowledge. *Diversification.	*Public-private-people partnership.

Source: own elaboration.

Although, in general, public-private partnerships (the so-called 3 Ps model) have represented significant progress in tourism governance, the need to establish a new alliance with society is more necessary than ever in the current scenario of tourism reconstruction: in fact, this alliance should be part of that reconstruction process. The pandemic should help to recover the centrality of local communities and their expectations, given them a more active role in the definition of the future of tourism in their destinations. To reverse the tourism-phobia path, which was unleashed before the pandemic, into a feeling of tourism-*philia*, the implication and complicity of local communities are more than desirable. Tourism should be developed with local people, not for them and without their intervention because, as stated by Karzen and Demonja (2020), the role of local communities is key.

As part of the learning process stimulated by the pandemic -ideally double-loop learning, as established by Argyris and Schön (1996)¹ - the post-viral era requires destinations' enhancement of managerial capabilities in several fields, including:

- The development of a more proactive approach to crisis management and the readiness of contingency plans, with a particular focus on health and safety issues (Sharfuddin, 2020).

¹ Double-loop learning implies the need to carry out a restructuring of strategies and organisational assumptions, discarding old ways of doing things and adopting new ones. In contrast, single-loop learning is achieved when members of the organisation detect and correct defects in it without inquiring into its premises and basic rules.

- The management of communities in line with participatory governance, involving the ‘civil society’ and encouraging hybrid collaborations between public and private, formal and informal, for-profit and non-profit organisations (Karzen and Demonja, 2020).
- A technological update for more effective knowledge management and decision making, with a clear backing of the smart tourism paradigm and citizen-centric governance (Meijer and Rodríguez-Bolivar, 2016).
- The search for resilience also with the support of a more diversified customer base (Vargas-Sánchez, 2020a).

Moreover, the renovated importance of certain values cannot be absent in that process of learning: the already mentioned centrality of people together with the creation of more solid bonds with local communities to gain social legitimacy and support. Doses of humbleness should also be injected into the daily basis of the governance action, since the pandemic has reminded us how fragile we still are and how limited our capacity of controlling the results of our decisions is in very complex systems such as the tourism sector.

4. Conclusions

A recent study carried out by Tercero-Tuda (2020) on tourism resilience in 14 countries -in alphabetical order: China, Egypt, France, Haiti, India, Indonesia, Japan, Maldives, Spain, Thailand, Tunisia, UK, USA and Yemen- during the period 2000-2018 concludes that the recovery periods of international tourism can vary from almost immediate recovery to 5 years, although this is affected by the type of crisis (economic, political, terrorist, biological or a natural disaster). Specifically, in disease cases, the statistics show (Global Rescue & World Travel & Tourism Council, 2019) that they “had average recovery times of 19.4 months, with a range between 10 and 34.9 months” (p. 9).

However, the COVID-19 disaster represents an unprecedented test for tourism resilience (the return from zero), and precisely because of this singular character, to predict the recovery length is still mere speculation: past crises can hardly serve as points of reference. Nonetheless, there are signals (some with more consensus than others as to their intensity and repercussion) that the post-viral world will be different in many ways, and tourism will not be an exception in that transformation (Vargas-Sánchez, 2020a), as detailed in Table 1.

Undoubtedly, tourism will continue, but, among other changes, visa rules for visitors will tighten in most countries, requiring a sort of immunity passport or risk-free (vaccination) certificate (Sharfuddin, 2020). In Renaud’s words (2020): “Probably the only certainty for the tourism industry, and indeed for all human activities, is that nothing will be like it was in the pre-COVID-19 era ... Returning to the pre-COVID-19 status quo will only perpetuate an intolerable situation in terms of sustainable tourism” (p. 687). In this new scenario, tourism governance should evolve to enable a response according to the nature and magnitude of the challenge faced, although the inertia of the growth machine that had to stop suddenly will act to resume the pre-pandemic model. It is noticeable that, very often, the main interest of tourism operators when envisaging the future is about when the pre-COVID-19 figures will be reached and overcome, with no other significant concerns.

In this respect, the concept of the Growth Machine, formulated by Molotch (1976), displays an overview of the social dynamics that settle in a place, as a result of different perspectives that emerge among the local actors with interests in the future land use in that place. Thus, the identification of the existence and strength of the growth machine in a destination, as well as of the consequences that this may have for the sustainability of that place, is a key factor to understand the expected tourism stakeholders' reactions after the pandemic.

Nevertheless, it is fair to recognise that the inertias of the past often prevent the necessary changes: in this case, new governance for a new time. New tourism governance...

- ...guided by new core values (intellectual humility, solidarity with the community, centrality of people);
- ...with enhanced management capabilities (particularly in crisis management and learning systems);
- ...based on a new alliance with society (public-private-people partnership);
- ...for the creation of a more resilient industry, for example through its diversification in time and place (markets of origin and destinations);
- ...for a new tourism narrative in the post-viral scenario.

The new narrative proposed would be rooted in the following evolution (Table 6), guided to overcome traditional criticisms and to stimulate the industry reconstruction under a more solid reputational base:

Table 6: Tourism narrative.

FROM	TO
Tourism as a business	Tourism as rather more than just a business (1)
Body wellness	Integral wellness (body and soul) (2)
Predator of natural resources	Restorative and regenerative tourism (3)
Labour intensive activity	Technology intensive activity (4)

- (1) "...in the way it influences, affects and especially contributes to the construction management and growth of populations, societies, the environment, politics, reputations, innovation, welfare and so on" (Pérez & Pérez-Ferrant, 2018, p. 205).
- (2) Able to build a deeper meaning of tourism linked to the inner (spiritual) side of people.
- (3) A tourism sector that integrates the principles of the circular economy into its operations and is aligned with the efforts to mitigate the effects of climate change within the framework of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (particularly number 12 -responsible consumption and production- and number 13 - climate action).
- (4) Also labour intensive, but with technology endowments that lead to higher levels of qualification, productivity and value-added.

Source: own elaboration.

In the post-viral era, it seems that the following trends will affect the tourism industry and impinge on its governance:

- *A greater importance of hygiene, safety and health.
- *More technology endowment and involvement of knowledge agents (smart tourism).
- *The search for less crowded destinations, favouring a certain dispersion of tourist flows.
- *The extra support gained by the cause of sustainability, particularly in its environmental dimension.
- *More collaboration among tourism actors (both private and public).
- *More and better training (on crisis management, new technological tools, etc.).
- *Socialisation and experiences with a reinforced virtual layer.

In short, the conclusions reached here have been supported in both the legacy of the COVID-19 pandemic (considered as a turning point) and two key global drivers for change that have been accelerated because of this disaster: the ongoing tech revolution (known as industry 4.0) and the search for a more eco-sustainable tourism economy. All these elements are inserted within a new strategic approach fed by the concept of strategy as it is commonly understood today as well as by the impacts of all the three referred factors, leading to several lessons and recommendations in terms of the evolution of tourism governance and DMOs' roles.

A big great question mark is whether this 'war' against the SARS-CoV2 is going to leave companies and even governments with enough financial muscle to face the change in the model brought about by tighter sustainability demands and the technological revolution which is underway and that advances faster than we usually think; or perhaps competitive pressure will speed it up. In any case, the response will be uneven, just like the vaccination speeds at the world level, with winners and losers as well as a clear risk of widening the imbalances in the planet.

References

- Argyris, C., & Schön, D.A. (1996). *Organizational Learning II: Theory, Method, and Practice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Becken, S., & Hughey, K.F.D. (2013). Linking tourism into emergency management structures to enhance disaster risk reduction. *Tourism Management*, 36, 77-85.
- Barbhuiya, M.R., & Chatterjee, D. (2020). Vulnerability and resilience of the tourism sector in India: Effects of natural disasters and internal conflict. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 33, 100616.
- Brouder, P. (2020). Reset redux: possible evolutionary pathways towards the transformation of tourism in a COVID-19 world. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 484-490.
- Brown, N.A., Rovins, J.E., Feldmann-Jensen, S., Orchiston, C., & Johnston, D. (2019). Measuring disaster resilience within the hotel sector: An exploratory survey of Wellington and Hawke's Bay, New Zealand hotel staff and managers. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 33, 108-121.
- Carr, A. (2020). COVID-19, indigenous peoples and tourism: a view from New Zealand. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 491-502.
- Cellini, R., & Cuccia, T. (2015). The economic resilience of tourism industry in Italy: What the 'great recession' data show. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 16, 346-356.
- Council of the European Union (2021). Tourism in Europe for the next decade: sustainable, resilient, digital, global and social. Retrieved from <https://www.consilium.europa.eu/media/49960/st08881-en21.pdf> (last access: May 31, 2021).
- Di Maggio, P., & Powell, W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48(2), 147-160.
- Diamandis, P.H., & Kotler, S. (2020). *The future is faster than you think. How converging technologies are transforming business, industries, and our lives*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Ernstson, H., Barthel, S., Andersson, E., & Borgström, S.T. (2010). Scale-crossing brokers and network governance of urban ecosystem services: the case of Stockholm. *Ecology and Society*, 15(4), 28.
- Folke, C., Hahn, T., Olsson, P., & Norberg, J. (2005). Adaptive governance of social-ecological systems. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 30, 441-473.
- Del Chiappa, G., Bregoli, I., & Fotiadis, A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on the Italian accommodation sector and related response actions: A supply-perspective using a mixed method approach. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 7(1), 13-22.
- Ghaderi, Z., Som, A.P.M., & Henderson, J.C. (2015). When Disaster Strikes: The Thai Floods of 2011 and Tourism Industry Response and Resilience. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(4), 399-415.
- Global Rescue & World Travel and Tourism Council (2019). *Crisis Readiness: Are You Prepared and Resilient to Safeguard Your People and Destinations?* Retrieved from https://www.globalrescue.com/grmkt_resources/pdfs/Crisis-Readiness-Final.pdf (last access: November 20, 2020).
- Jones, P., & Comfort, D. (2020). The COVID-19 crisis and sustainability in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(10), 3037-3050.
- Karzen, M., & Demonja, D. (2020). Importance of Storytelling: How to Create More Resilient Cultural Heritage? *Nova prisutnost*, 18(3), 653-668.
- Luthe, T., & Wyss, R. (2016). Resilience to climate change in a cross-scale tourism governance context: a combined quantitative-qualitative network analysis. *Ecology and Society*, 21(1), 27.
- Manring, S.L. (2007). Creating and managing interorganizational learning networks to achieve sustainable ecosystem management. *Organization and Environment*, 20(3), 325-346.

- Mariotti, G., Camerada, M.V., & Lampreu, S. (2020). Covid-19 e turismo Sardegna: opportunità e prospettive di sviluppo turistico. *Documenti Geografici*, 1, 579-591.
- Matiza, T. (2020). Post-COVID-19 crisis travel behaviour: towards mitigating the effects of perceived risk. *Journal of Tourism Futures*. Advance online publication, <https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-04-2020-0063>
- Meijer, A., & Rodríguez-Bolívar (2016). Governing the smart city: a review of the literature on smart urban governance. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 82(2) 392-408.
- Molotch, H. (1976). The city as growth machine. *American Journal of Sociology*, 82(2), 309-332.
- Pérez, R.A., & Pérez-Ferrant, A. (2018). Towards a new strategic paradigm. In L. Moutinho, & A. Vargas-Sánchez (Eds.), *Strategic Management in Tourism* (pp. 196-212). Boston, MA: CABI.
- Prayag, G. (2018). Symbiotic relationship or not? Understanding resilience and crisis management in tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, 133-135.
- R.-Toubes, D., Araújo-Vila, N., & Fraiz-Brea, J.A. (2020). Be water my friend: Building a liquid destination through collaborative networks. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 33, 100619.
- Renaud, L. (2020). Reconsidering global mobility – distancing from mass cruise tourism in the aftermath of COVID-19. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 679-689.
- Seville, E., Brunsdon, D., Dantas, A., Le Masurier, J., Wilkinson, S., & Vargo, J. (2008). Organisational resilience: Researching the reality of New Zealand organisations. *Journal of Business Continuity & Emergency Planning*, 2(3), 258-266.
- Sharfuddin, S. (2020). The world after Covid-19. *The Round Table*, 109(3), 247-257.
- Spalding, M., Burke, L., & Fyall, A. (2021). Covid-19: Implications for nature and tourism. *Anatolia*, 32(1), 126-127.
- Streimikiene, D., Svagzdiene, B., Jasinskas, E., & Simanavicius, A. (2021). Sustainable tourism development and competitiveness: The systematic literature review. *Sustainable Development*, 29, 259–271.
- Tercero-Tuda, N. (2020). *La estacionariedad y la resiliencia del turismo: cómo actúan las economías en función de su perfil y del suceso crítico*. (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Huelva & International University of Andalusia.
- Vargas-Sánchez, A. (2020a). Estrategias de destinos y empresas en el mercado turístico pos-COVID-19. In M. Simancas Cruz, R. Hernández Martín, & N. Padrón Fumero (Eds.), *Turismo pos-COVID-19. Reflexiones, retos y oportunidades* (pp. 147-160). La Laguna: Cátedra de Turismo Caja Canarias-Ashotel de la Universidad de La Laguna.
- Vargas-Sánchez, A. (2020b). COVID-19 crisis: a new model of tourism governance for a new time. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Trends*, 12(6), 691-699.
- Xiang, Z., Fesenmaier, D.R., & Werthner, H. (2020). Knowledge Creation in Information Technology and Tourism: A Critical Reflection and an Outlook for the Future. *Journal of Travel Research*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287520933669>

The Relationship Between Social Loafing and Knowledge Management

Ali Sukru Cetinkaya

Selcuk University, Turkey

ORCID: 0000-0001-8815-7165

Email address: alisukru@outlook.com

Abstract

The need for effective knowledge management has been more strongly felt in organizations as the types of activities, the number of employees, and the production or service capacity increase. While working collectively, individual members of the group may push the work off on to other members or act in a way that will create a benefit to themselves. Such social loafing behaviors can be disclosed in organizations by applying effective knowledge management systems. This empirically designed research investigated the relationship between social loafing and knowledge management. Survey data were collected from 219 randomly selected employees working in service organizations operating in Sanliurfa in Turkey. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, and Structural Equation Modeling path analysis techniques. The results revealed a significant yet negative relationship between social loafing and knowledge management. It has been statistically demonstrated that as the effectiveness of knowledge management in organizations increases, so does social loafing behavior. When there is a lack of control in workplaces where employees work collaboratively, social loafing is more likely to occur. Social loafing behaviors in organizations can be eliminated or reduced by implementing proper knowledge management practices. According to the research findings, when individual performance is tracked by running an efficient knowledge management system and the performance of an individual member of a team is compared to the established standards, social loafing behaviors decrease.

Keywords: Social Loafing, Knowledge Management, Service Industry

1. Introduction

Groups and teams are indispensable to organizations. In order for a group doing collective work to reach its targets, all team members should contribute effectively and efficiently. However, there is no exact way to measure the individual's share of the overall contribution of the team. This uncertainty enables team members to perform less for the group works (Zhu, Singh, & Wang, 2019). This type way of making social loafing deteriorates teamworking spirit, decreases team performance, and drives to organizational loss at the end (Yurdakul & Öneren, 2021). Thus, social loafing is a problem in organizations that hinders team productivity (Alnuaimi Omar, Robert, & Maruping Likoebe, 2010).

Knowledge is one of the most critical resources to keep the competitive advantages of organizations (Jiang et al., 2019; Manesh, Pellegrini, Marzi, & Dabic, 2021). It is stated in the literature that almost 99% of the organization's work is knowledge based (Herlina et al., 2020; Rhee & Choi, 2017). Moreover, knowledge from both inside and external environment of the organization generates value for businesses (Rot & Sobinska, 2020). Organizations that manage their knowledge assets effectively perform comparatively better than those who do not do so (Cabrilo & Dahms, 2018; Shujahat et al., 2019).

Past research mainly looked at the determinants of social loafing, consequences of social loafing, and measures to address social loafing in groups (Zhu et al., 2019). Similarly, past research on knowledge management mainly focused on all or a particular components of knowledge management process. However, very little attention has been given on the relationship between social loafing and knowledge management. Thus, this research aimed to investigate the relationship between social loafing and knowledge management.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Social Loafing

Group work or team working is popular in businesses (Luo, Marnburg, Øgaard, & Okumus, 2021). Team working is encouraged in organizations to get the benefit of the synergy that it creates. However, members of the teams may not contribute to the works of the team as much as expected. Social loafing is one of the main reasons for this result. Social loafing behavior is the tendency of individuals to withhold contributions in a team setting (Alnuaimi Omar et al., 2010; Shih & Wang, 2016)

Social loafing is identified when an individual in a team puts less effort into work than an individual who works independently (Shih & Wang, 2016; Şarkaya & Tanriogen, 2019; Zhu et al., 2019). This is also known as the Ringelmann effect that is described as the tendency for individuals to exercise less effort when working collectively as opposed to working individually (Chang, Hou, Wang, Cui, & Zhang, 2020; Hou & Zhang, 2021; Tok, 2019).

Individuals can play the role of social loafing behavior in two ways: free riders and suckers. Free riders are those who get the benefit of team outcomes although they make less contributions to group assignments or show little commitment to the group's collective goals, (Luo et al., 2021; Şarkaya & Tanriogen, 2019). Similarly, the sucker effect is a phenomenon in which individuals reduce their personal effort in a group work because of their expectation that others will think negatively of them for working too hard or contributing much (Vveinhardt & Banikonytė, 2017).

There are several theories explaining social loafing, like social loafing theory, social impact theory, output equity theory, the matching-to-standard theory, the absence of evaluation apprehension theory, and social exchange theory (Alnuaimi Omar et al., 2010). Social loafing theory proposes that group size has an impact on individual effort (Xu, Wang, & Wang, 2020), while social impact theory states that team interactions are important on social loafing. The output equity theory emphasizes that team members adjust their level of output to the level they perceive other members are producing. The matching-to-standard theory proposes that the lack of standards explains the reason for social loafing. The absence of evaluation apprehension theory considers task simplicity and identifiability of performance in the pooled output. Social exchange theory considers the reward expectation of the team members (Chang et al., 2020).

There are individual and organizational factors that are affecting social loafing behaviors (Yurdakul & Öneren, 2021). Organizational reasons and organizational facilitating conditions for social loafing can be listed as the lack of evaluation of one's contribution, organizational injustice, lack of leadership and supervision, perceived lack of personal influence over group outcomes, lack of social control, ineffective motivation system, and increase in team size (Alnuaimi Omar et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2020; Vveinhardt & Banikonytė, 2017). On the other hand, personal traits, a weak relationship between employees, perceived loafing by other group members, low level of striving for good results, low level of cohesion of the group, an individualistic orientation, and perception of tasks are individual reasons stimulating team members for social loafing (Zhu et al., 2019).

Social loafing is considered a type of social disease that has negative consequences for individuals, institutions, and societies (Zhu et al., 2019). Because social loafing lowers employees' motivation, cohesiveness, satisfaction, team efficiency, productivity, and team performance (Shih & Wang, 2016).

2.2 Knowledge Management

Knowledge is the state of knowing concepts, principles, insights, and facts about things (Herlina et al., 2020). It is a dynamic process for both individuals and organizations to create, acquire, share, codify, and use information (Herlina et al., 2020; Shujahat et al., 2019). Knowledge is classified in two groups based on the ease of coding and transferring: tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge (Abubakar, Elrehail, Alatailat, & Elci, 2019). Tacit knowledge is deeply rooted into the system within the organization while explicit knowledge is easily transferable and coded. The tacit knowledge is rather challenging to capture, communicate, or share. Because it concerns the personal skills of employees, and represents both the pool of expertise and efforts of networks and alliances. Those are hands-on skills, experiences, best practices, know-how, and many more (Herlina et al., 2020; Santoro, Thrassou, Bresciani, & Giudice, 2021).

Knowledge management is a range of activities to identify, preserve, disseminate and support explicit and implicit knowledge for the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization (Abubakar et al., 2019; Cabrilo & Dahms, 2018; Manesh et al., 2021; Rot & Sobinska, 2020). Knowledge management enables firms to create value from its intangible assets, such as transforming knowledge resources into capabilities (Dezi, Ferraris, Papa, & Vrontis, 2021; Santoro et al., 2021). Knowledge management systems, including IT infrastructures, data warehouses, expertise, organizational

routines, managerial procedures, and strategies, facilitate the creation and transfer of knowledge in organizations (Santoro et al., 2021).

There are various theories to help understand the concept of knowledge management from different perspectives, like social exchange theory, knowledge-based theory, knowledge-worker productivity theory, contingency theory, and dynamic capabilities theory. According to the social exchange theory, individuals involved in exchange relationships based on anticipated costs and benefits (Rhee & Choi, 2017). The knowledge-based theory claims that there are processes of creation, transfer, and application of the knowledge, that are valuable, non-imitable, and rare in organizations. Knowledge-worker productivity theory proposes that organizations that manage their knowledge assets effectively perform comparatively better than those who do not do so. Knowledge management impacts on knowledge-worker productivity through knowledge-orientation, autonomy, innovation, continuous learning and teaching, and treatment of knowledge-worker as an asset (Shujahat et al., 2019). Contingency theory proposes that task characteristics, organizational knowledge characteristics, and environmental characteristics determine what knowledge management processes are appropriate for the organization to apply (Sensuse, Riswanto, & Pratama, 2020). Dynamic capabilities theory indicates that firms must build, integrate, and reconfigure internal and external knowledge and competences to compete. Dynamic capabilities enable firms to scan the emerging needs of various stakeholders and to reconfigure the existing functional competencies for business sustainability (Santoro et al., 2021).

Knowledge management environment (structure, culture, and technology) and knowledge management processes are influencing factors in organizations for developing, stimulating, creating, sharing and protecting knowledge (Abubakar et al., 2019; Shujahat et al., 2019). The structure identifies formalization, centralization or decentralization, and specialization of the organization. Culture, which is the set of people norms, beliefs, values, procedures and meanings shared by members of an organization, forms the way people behave in the organization. Information technology enables communication, collaborative learning, knowledge seeking and sharing (Abubakar et al., 2019)..

Knowledge management is a process that includes the steps of creation, identification, capture, storage, development, transfer, application, and measurement of the knowledge (Abubakar et al., 2019; Adnan, Hasani, & Sensuse, 2020; Malingkas & Ce, 2020; Shujahat et al., 2019). Knowledge creation is the ability of an organization to formulate knowledge through socialization, combination, externalization, and internationalization. Knowledge capture is the creation of new content and replacement of existing ones. Knowledge storage is about having mechanism to store and retrieve knowledge when needed. Knowledge sharing is the process of transferring knowledge between individuals, groups or organizations using various means or communication channels. Knowledge application is the use of knowledge in tasks, problem solving, and decision-making to accomplish goals in the organization. Knowledge measurement is the evaluation of the impact of knowledge management to the knowledge goals (Abubakar et al., 2019; Malingkas & Ce, 2020; Shujahat et al., 2019).

Individual members in a team are more likely to conduct social loafing when there is a lack of identifiability or evaluation of individual behavior. In collective works, reduced identifiability enables members to hide or to lost in the crowd (Jiang et al., 2019; Liden, Wayne, Jaworski, & Bennett, 2004). Knowledge measurement can be considered a solution to eliminate or reduce the social loafing. Integrating knowledge systems and technology as part of the task and establishing clear task standards can dissolve this problem. A well-structured knowledge system can record all types of transactions of the group work and performance level of individual team members. These transaction records and performance assessments in return may make individual team members accountable for their level of performance, and decrease social loafing. It was observed that there were limited researches in the literature explaining the impact of social loafing on the knowledge management. Thus, the following hypothesis was proposed in this research:

H₁: Social loafing has an impact on knowledge management at workplaces.

3. Research Methodology

This is an empirically designed research. Survey data were collected by using a questionnaire form having three parts: the measure for the social loafing, the measure for the knowledge management, and demographic characteristics of the participants. Both measures were 5-point Linkert type scales ranged from “1 = strongly disagree ” to “5 = strongly agree”.

The measure for the social loafing was adapted from the research of Biroğlu (2018). This measure was consisted of 12 items originally. However, one item was eliminated due to low correlation coefficient value. Cronbach’s Alpha reliability of this measure revealed that the internal consistency of the items of the measure was acceptable, $\alpha = 0.86$

(11 items). The measure for knowledge management was adapted from the research of (Konuskan, 2015). This measure consisted of 24 items originally. Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis for this measure depicted that the internal consistency of the items of the measure was very good, $\alpha = 0.90$ (24 items).

Population of the research was organizations operating in service industry. The sampling framework of the research was the employees working in the service-oriented organizations (health organizations (59.82%), construction firms (16.44%), and tourism and hospitality enterprises (10.96%)) operating in Sanliurfa province in Turkey. A total of 300 questionnaires were delivered to the randomly selected employees and 219 of them were considered valid for analysis. This amount of data was assessed adequate to make a generalization as it was suggested that at least five valid returns is required per variable (Hox & Bechger, 2006). Exploratory factor analysis results also confirmed that sample size was adequate to conduct the analysis.

Expert recommendations were demanded from four experts actively working in the target industry and academicians from the research field to ensure the surface validity of the questionnaire. A pilot study was conducted to test the preliminary construct validity of the measures. By analyzing 40 valid pilot data, some items were rephrased to clarify the meaning of the items of both measures.

4. Findings and Analysis

Data were analyzed by employing descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, and Structural Equation Modeling path analysis.

The analysis of the demographic characteristics revealed that the majority of the respondents were male (64.84%), at the age groups of 25-34 (45.66%), had experience at the current workplace 1-3 years (53.88%), working as a health staff (35.46%) at health organizations (59.82%).

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted for the measure of the social loafing. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy revealed that the sample was factorable (KMO = 0.887). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity had a significant result ($\chi^2 = 793.638$; $df = 55$; $p < 001$), indicating that the factor analysis can be applied for this measure. Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed using "direct oblimin" rotation with the principal component analysis method in 5 iterations. The exploratory factor analysis generated two components that explained 53.19% of the total variance. Further analysis was conducted with the compound variables named pushing work off onto others and self-benefit.

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted for the measure of the knowledge management. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy depicted that the sample was factorable (KMO = 0.867). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity had a significant result ($\chi^2 = 2180.464$; $df = 276$; $p < 001$), indicating that the factor analysis can be applied for this measure. Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed using "direct oblimin" rotation with the principal component analysis method in 16 iterations. The exploratory factor analysis generated five components that explained 59.87% of the total variance. Further analysis was conducted with the compound variables named knowledge management awareness, information record keeping, information sharing, access to information, and employee know-how.

A correlation analysis was performed to determine the status of the relationships among all compound variables. The results revealed that the self-benefit component of the measure of social loafing had no relationship with the information record keeping, information sharing, and access to information components of the measure of knowledge management. All other relations among components had low to moderate significant relationships, ranging from $r = -0.012$ to $r = 0.856$. A multicollinearity test was also conducted to detect if there was any collinearity issue among those relationships. Both tolerance (>0.2) and VIF results (<5) were within the accepted thresholds (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2013).

A Structural Equation Modeling path analysis was executed to test the research hypothesis. This analysis provides practical results when there are multiple components in the exogenous and endogenous latent variables (Hair, Anderson, Black, & Babin, 2016). Results of path analysis indicated a perfect model fit (Chi Square = 14.340; $df = 13$; $p = 0.350$) by having the scores of NFI (Normal Fit Index) = 0.968; CFI (Comparative Fit Index) = 0.997; IFI (Incremental Fit Index) = 0.997; RMSEA = 0.022; and $X^2/df = 1.103$ (Figure 1).

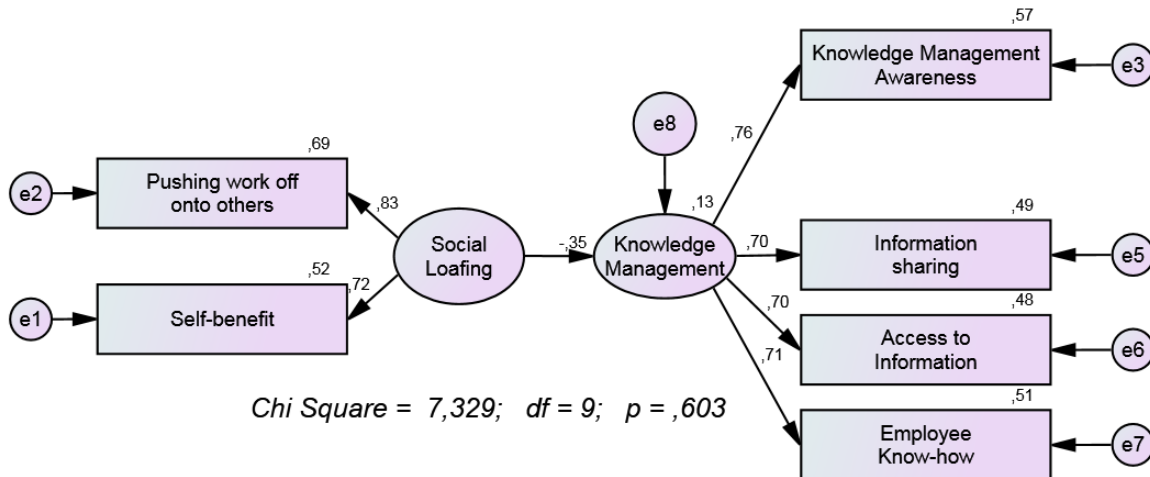


Figure 1. Structural Equation Modeling Path Analysis

The results revealed a significant negative relationship between social loafing and knowledge management ($R^2 = -0.36$; $p < 0.05$). It was statistically proven that social loafing behavior decreases as the effectiveness of knowledge management in organizations increases. The results of the Structural Equation Modeling path analysis depicted that the proposed research hypothesis (H_1) was supported.

5. Discussion

This study shed light on the relationship between social loafing behavior and knowledge management in service-oriented organizations. This is one of the rare researches, to the best of my knowledge, investigating this relationship. Past research investigated mainly other aspects of the variables and their relationships with other concepts. For instance, Shiue, Chiu, and Chang (2010) investigated social loafing behavior in the online context. Researchers found that in online communities, strengthening social ties would decrease the amount of social loafing behavior. In the same vein, this research also proved that effective knowledge management will decrease social loafing behavior. As Shujahat et al. (2019) point out that when knowledge is used effectively by the workers for individual and group works, it results in tasks efficiency.

Suleiman and Watson (2008) investigated in their research the occurrence of social loafing in technology-supported teams. Researcher found that social loafing is measurable only when participants are provided self-feedback. The result of the current research is in parallel with this finding. Current research evidenced that knowledge management systems help to identify task performance of team members, and this leads to making less or no social loafing in collective works.

6. Conclusions

This research was investigated the relationship between social loafing behavior and knowledge management in service organizations. The findings revealed a statistically significant negative relationship between social loafing behavior and knowledge management. In other words, when knowledge management is applied efficiently in organizations, it is most likely that social loafing behavior will decrease. Because, knowledge management enables managers or supervisors to get the track of task performance of each individual member in a group or team.

Research findings suggest that management in organizations should first clearly define the organizational goals and the tasks of each team member. In other words, individual team members should be held accountable for the tasks assigned to them. Then, an effective knowledge management system should be established in the organization to keep the track of the performance of each team member. When a knowledge system and information technology become a natural part of a job, every transaction made by every team member can be recorded. This identifiability, in turn, will aid in comparing individual team members' performance to the established standards. Once employees get aware of

being tracked by the knowledge management system, employees will engage in less or no social loafing behavior in the organization.

There are some limitations to this study that point to future research opportunities. This study was quantitative in nature. Future studies can be designed qualitatively to gain a thorough understanding of the concept. This study was carried out in Sanliurfa in Turkey. To determine the effect of cultural differences on the research subject, similar research can be conducted in other regions or countries with a larger sample size.

References

- Abubakar, A. M., Elrehail, H., Alatailat, M. A., and Elci, A. (2019). Knowledge management, decision-making style and organizational performance. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*, 4(2), 104-114. doi:10.1016/j.jik.2017.07.003
- Adnan, H. R., Hasani, L. M., and Sensuse, D. I. (2020, 15-16 Sept. 2020). *Exploring Knowledge Management Practices in Military RnD Agency: An Indonesian Case Study*. Paper presented at the 2020 3rd International Conference on Computer and Informatics Engineering (IC2IE).
- Alnuaimi Omar, A., Robert, L. P. J., and Maruping Likoebe, M. (2010). Team Size, Dispersion, and Social Loafing in Technology-Supported Teams: A Perspective on the Theory of Moral Disengagement. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 27(1), 203-230. doi:10.2753/MIS0742-1222270109
- Biroğlu, E. (2018). *The relationship between organizational cynicism and social loafing: A study on hotel establishments*. (Master Thesis), Balıkesir University, Graduate School of Tourism Management, Balıkesir.
- Cabrilo, S., and Dahms, S. (2018). How strategic knowledge management drives intellectual capital to superior innovation and market performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 22(3), 621-648. doi:10.1108/jkm-07-2017-0309
- Chang, Y., Hou, R.-J., Wang, K., Cui, A. P., and Zhang, C.-B. (2020). Effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on social loafing in online travel communities. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 109, 106360. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2020.106360>
- Dezi, L., Ferraris, A., Papa, A., and Vrontis, D. (2021). The Role of External Embeddedness and Knowledge Management as Antecedents of Ambidexterity and Performances in Italian SMEs. *Ieee Transactions on Engineering Management*, 68(2), 360-369. doi:10.1109/TEM.2019.2916378
- Hair, J., Anderson, R., Black, B., and Babin, B. (2016). *Multivariate Data Analysis*: Pearson Education.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., Anderson, R., and Tatham, R. (2013). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Essex, England. In: Pearson Education Limited.
- Herlina, M. G., Saputra, N., Lasmy, Sudrajat, D., Syahchari, D. H., and Saroso, H. (2020, 13-14 Aug. 2020). *Fine-tuning Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Knowledge Management Behaviour in the Higher Education*. Paper presented at the 2020 International Conference on Information Management and Technology (ICIMTech).
- Hou, R., and Zhang, C. (2021). Reducing social loafing in online brand communities: Insights from social exchange theory. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 49(5), 1-10. doi:10.2224/sbp.10190
- Hox, J. J., and Bechger, T. M. (2006). An Introduction to Structural Equation Modeling. *Family Science Review*, 354-373.
- Jiang, S., Zhang, X., Cheng, Y., Xu, D., Ordoñez De Pablos, P., and Wang, X. (2019). Dynamic impact of social network on knowledge contribution loafing in mobile collaboration: a hidden Markov model. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 23(9), 1901-1920. doi:10.1108/JKM-10-2018-0641
- Konuşkan, Ö. (2015). *Information management and human resources management in sense of information management*. (Master Thesis), Karabük University and Sakarya University (Joint Program), Graduate School of Industrial Engineering, Karabük.

- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Jaworski, R. A., and Bennett, N. (2004). Social loafing: A field investigation. *Journal of Management*, 30(2), 285-304.
- Luo, Z., Marnburg, E., Øgaard, T., and Okumus, F. (2021). Exploring antecedents of social loafing in students' group work: A mixed-methods approach. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 28, 100314. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2021.100314>
- Malingkas, D. E. Y., and Ce, W. (2020, 13-14 Aug. 2020). *Knowledge Management using Gamification in Consulting Firms*. Paper presented at the 2020 International Conference on Information Management and Technology (ICIMTech).
- Manesh, M. F., Pellegrini, M. M., Marzi, G., and Dabic, M. (2021). Knowledge Management in the Fourth Industrial Revolution: Mapping the Literature and Scoping Future Avenues. *Ieee Transactions on Engineering Management*, 68(1), 289-300. doi:10.1109/TEM.2019.2963489
- Rhee, Y. W., and Choi, J. N. (2017). Knowledge management behavior and individual creativity: Goal orientations as antecedents and in-group social status as moderating contingency. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 38(6), 813-832. doi:10.1002/job.2168
- Rot, A., and Sobinska, M. (2020, 16-18 Sept. 2020). *Challenges for Knowledge Management in Digital Business Models*. Paper presented at the 2020 10th International Conference on Advanced Computer Information Technologies (ACIT).
- Santoro, G., Thrassou, A., Bresciani, S., and Giudice, M. D. (2021). Do Knowledge Management and Dynamic Capabilities Affect Ambidextrous Entrepreneurial Intensity and Firms' Performance? *Ieee Transactions on Engineering Management*, 68(2), 378-386. doi:10.1109/TEM.2019.2907874
- Sensuse, D. I., Riswanto, and Pratama, P. B. (2020, 13-14 Aug. 2020). *Knowledge Management Solutions Development in Governmental Organization*. Paper presented at the 2020 International Conference on Information Management and Technology (ICIMTech).
- Shih, C., and Wang, Y. (2016, 6-8 July 2016). *Can Workplace Friendship Reduce Social Loafing?* Paper presented at the 2016 10th International Conference on Innovative Mobile and Internet Services in Ubiquitous Computing (IMIS).
- Shiue, Y.-C., Chiu, C.-M., and Chang, C.-C. (2010). Exploring and mitigating social loafing in online communities. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 26(4), 768-777.
- Shujahat, M., Sousa, M. J., Hussain, S., Nawaz, F., Wang, M., and Umer, M. (2019). Translating the impact of knowledge management processes into knowledge-based innovation: The neglected and mediating role of knowledge-worker productivity. *Journal of Business Research*, 94, 442-450. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.11.001
- Suleiman, J., and Watson, R. T. (2008). Social loafing in technology-supported teams. *Computer Supported Cooperative Work (CSCW)*, 17(4), 291-309.
- Şarkaya, S. S., and Tanriogen, Z. M. (2019). A two-way perspective on social loafing and organizational cynicism. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 14(18), 678-687.
- Tok, T. N. (2019). Relationship between Personality Features And Social Loafing Behaviors. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 8(1), 55-77.
- Vveinhardt, J., and Banikonytė, J. (2017). Managerial Solutions that Increase the Effect of Group Synergy and Reduce Social Loafing. *Management of Organizations: Systematic Research*(78), 109-129. doi:10.1515/mosr-2017-0019
- Xu, X. a., Wang, L., and Wang, L. (2020). Social facilitation or social loafing – threshold effect of group size on customer's complaint intention. *Journal of Contemporary Marketing Science*, 3(2), 243-263. doi:10.1108/JCMARS-12-2019-0049
- Yurdakul, G., and Öneren, M. (2021). The Relationship Between Social Loafing and Work Alienation: An Empirical Analysis. *Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 19(39), 179-202. doi:10.35408/comuybd.724154

Zhu, M., Singh, S., and Wang, H. (2019). Perceptions of social loafing during the process of group development. *International Journal of Organization Theory & Behavior*, 22(4), 350-368. doi:10.1108/IJOTB-04-2018-0049

Tourist entrepreneurs' experiences of co-operation with university students for Sustainable Destination Development

Anette Oxenswärdh

Uppsala University, Sweden

Orchid: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9690-2620>

E-mail: anette.oxenswardh@angstrom.uu.se

Abstract

This study describes tourist entrepreneurs' experiences of cooperation with university students solving the entrepreneurs' practical challenges for Sustainable Development. Eleven destination entrepreneurs on the island of Gotland, Sweden, responded to an online survey that contained questions about their challenges offered to the students, experiences over the cooperation with the students, and solutions to the students' challenges. The questionnaire included questions on how entrepreneurs experienced the suggestions and how they were planning their implementation. Also, questions over sustainability issues were brought up. The implication of the study is that destination entrepreneurs are optimistic about using university students in change approaches. Also, the students fill the gap for the needs of theoretical and practical knowledge of the challenges. The exchange of knowledge, not least in sustainability matters, is of great importance to both parties and promotes learning. Entrepreneurs need reciprocity in relationships and collaboration with universities. They need to be confirmed as essential and valuable resources and committed as actors in developing destinations. The study results show the importance of paying more attention to the role of small entrepreneurs in the development of destinations and their work of sustainability. Cooperation between universities and entrepreneurs should be nuanced by highlighting these entrepreneurs' practical needs.

Keywords: Cooperation, Destination development, Entrepreneurs, Sustainability, Value creation

1. Introduction

In today's knowledge societies, entrepreneurs are constantly confronted with complex problems that involve the design of innovative solutions toward sustainable development. There is a need to create contextualised knowledge for all entrepreneurs' challenging situations, not at least within the tourist sector. Education and cooperation towards creative problem solving and learning are needed. According to the latest data from the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), the downfall of global tourism was dropping by 74 per cent caused by the Covid-19 pandemic. Due to an unprecedented fall in demand and widespread travel restrictions, destinations worldwide welcomed one billion fewer international arrivals in 2020 than in the previous year (UNWTO, 2021). The tourism industry has run into financial difficulties. Many of them fight for their survival (Gössling, Scott, and Hall, (2020). Innovative solutions are needed not only for survival but also for sustainability. At the national level and locally, the tourism industry has received financial support during the pandemic worldwide. However, minor tourist entrepreneurs have received little or no support (UNWTO, 2021). This situation is even the case in Sweden and on the island of Gotland, one of the major tourist destinations in Scandinavia, having many small entrepreneurs working with the tourist industry. Uppsala University at the Campus Gotland gives an international master's Destination Development course. One of the courses in this program is called Teams in Multidisciplinary projects. Within this course, students are offered the possibility of getting practical experience by co-operating with tourist entrepreneurs on the island and trying to solve their challenges.

This research paper aims to study how some destination entrepreneurs experience cooperation offered by students studying destination development. In addition to this introductory section, this article is structured in four more sections: Theoretical perspectives, Methods, Results, and Analyse and Discussion.

2. Theoretical perspectives

The study is based on the following theoretical processes, essential for collaboration and problem solving: communication, learning (both individual and group learning), and meaning- and sense-making to understand the collaboration between student teams and entrepreneurs.

2.1 Cooperation

The universities operate in the middle of the societies they are part of. The demands from society for increased cooperation have led to the university's mission transformation. Academic knowledge can be considered to impact and benefit societies and, at the same time, inspire the renewal of education and research (UFV, 2019). In recent years, many universities have intensified their collaboration with the rest of society and created models for collaboration between higher education institutions and students. This is the case also at the Uppsala University, where educations have, to a large extent, expanded internships close to the business for the students. Several studies witness the importance of an interdisciplinary approach when involving students in cooperation with external partners. Real-life cooperation is developing for both the students and their partners. (Clark, 1996; Bromme, 2006; Oxenswårdh, 2020; Oxenswårdh and Persson-Fischier, 2020)

As a way, teamwork and a co-operating tool have been studied by scholars extensively from a range of perspectives. Educational institutions also have a responsibility to guide students to work effectively in teams because organisational performance depends on group synergies rather than individual contributions (Rousseau, Aube, and Savoie, 2006). There are a set of skills and competencies needed to be a team worker. Three areas of knowledge are essential: affective, cognitive, and behavioural. The affective dimension comprises satisfaction with the team, viability, cohesion, and identification with the team. The cognitive dimension includes learning and innovation. The behavioural dimension captures concepts of quality and quantity of work and the achievement of objectives (Humphrey, Karam, and Morgeson, 2010).

Learning is a natural part of teamwork also within a practical setting. Learning and group processes are interdependent and interwoven. Nevertheless, teamwork is a complex multidimensional competency (Oxenswårdh and Persson-Fischier, 2020). Communication skills in any group constellation are of importance. The essential features of teamwork are goal setting, problem-solving, and conflict resolution.

The diversity of the group members or team members is widely recognised as a success factor. The heterogeneous groups with various skills promote creativity in problem-solving; each group/team member

2.2 Learning

Learning is the process of acquiring new understanding, knowledge, behaviours, skills, values, attitudes, and preferences. The nature and processes involved in learning have been studied in many fields. Research in different fields has led to identifying various sorts of learning. Roughly, learning is often described as both an individual and a collective process, preferably in balance. There are different types of joint learning. Collective, collaborative and co-operative learning are terms often used in the context of joint learning processes. Collaborative learning can be considered a form of joint learning, where the starting point is that all learning is based on social activities. Collaborative learning is when at least two people learn something together (Bruffee 1993; Dillenbourg et al. 1999). Collaborative learning activities can include collaborative writing, group projects, joint problem-solving, debates, study teams, and other activities. The approach is closely related to co-operative learning, which is the instructional use of small groups so that individuals work together to maximise their own and each other's learning (Johnson et al., 2008).

Collective learning again presupposes the interactive and communicative actions through which members of a team identify and understand the team's tasks and develop action options for how they should be performed. Ohlsson (1996) notes that collective learning shapes how the individual perceives their practical work and thereby shapes the potential of individual experience. It is crucial for collective learning that the experiences are described in the collective so that the community can jointly problematise and reflect on the experience (Dixon 1994; Granberg 1996; Ohlsson 1996; Wilhelmson 1998). Ohlsson (1996) points out the dynamic learning character and the ongoing co-constructing of borders, such as the permissible and the impermissible, can be perceived as a condition for learning processes. There is a critical, emancipatory dimension of awareness rising of these unconscious learning conditions. If the individual is unaware of its potential and limitations, they cannot respond fully to promote learning. The difference between collaborative and collective learning is still vague.

Nevertheless, according to Granberg and Ohlsson (2016), this difference can consist of that in collaborative learning, a group of individuals is trying to learn something together but without specifying or clarifying the social context. However, in collective learning, it is decisive to try to achieve a common understanding. Sustainability competencies by Brundiers and Wiek (2011) and collective learning seem to be compatible. Collective learning can then be seen as one of the tools and an arena for acquiring this knowledge and skills.

2.3 Co-creation of values

Sustainability can be seen as a value we co-create in groups and teams. The creation or co-creation of values are two concepts that are often used in business and management literature and research. Today's consumers can be regarded as co-producers, creating meaning for the products, and at the same time, their consumption can be seen as an identification marker. Furthermore, this process adds sense to the product and makes the active customers participants in the product experience. This, again, transforms consumers into co-creators of values. (Bergman & Klefsjö, 2012). The relationship between the customer and the product provider can also be transferred to describe the relationship between entrepreneurs and students in this study. In this relationship, the project owner, the entrepreneur, invites the students into the learning process, offering them real-life challenges and continuously following up on the process. This co-creation of values emerges in practice, including processes of both individual and collective art. Both meaning-making and sense-making are seen as processes involved within the interaction between members of the team/group. Meaning-making is described in psychology as a process through which people construe, understand, or make sense of life events, relationships, and themselves (Ingelzi, 2000).

The process of meaning-making helps retain, reaffirm, revise or replace elements of a person's orienting system towards more nuanced, complex, and valuable (e.g., Gillies, Neimeyer, and Milman, 2014). The term is widely used in constructivist approaches and educational psychology (Ingelzi 2000; Mortimer and Scott 2003). One way value can be created between entrepreneurs and students is in the pursuit of sustainability. Value creation can lead to more viable solutions and practices in tourism, thus contributing to the development of a sustainable society. This does not happen without participation in collective and collaborative learning, where both meaning and sense-making occur, and knowledge sharing and learning occur.

3. Research methodology

3.1 The context investigated

This paper discusses the entrepreneurs' experiences over the co-operation with student teams in the course "Projects in multidisciplinary teams" that is part of an international master programme in Sustainable destination development at Uppsala University, campus Gotland, and took place in the spring semesters of 2020 and 2021. The programme uses a pedagogy of ESD, Education for Sustainable Development, in which learning by doing together is emphasised (Wiek et al., 2011; Lotz-Sisitka et al., 2015). The co-operation is crucial, as sustainable solutions are a collective effort. The United Nations Sustainable Development Goal, number 17, Partnership for sustainable development, indicates the importance of different stakeholders and sectors of society working together. (REF) The study programme has three specialisations: Entrepreneurship, Nature-based tourism, and Heritage politics. Apart from these different specialisations, the course Projects in Multidisciplinary teams mixed the students from these different tracks into teams. In this course, students worked with sustainability challenges that local actors face in destination development at Gotland, which are offered by companies, organisations, and public authorities. The students solved these challenges in groups of 3 to 5 within 11 groups/teams, using their different competencies and creating heterogeneous teams. One of the expected learning outcomes was to use heterogeneity in the group when solving the problem. The students in this study had their origin in 28 different countries. The course was structured around the Design Thinking model, which ultimately served as a methodological tool for the students dealing with the challenges of entrepreneurs. Design thinking as a method and a model has lately spread into many disciplines. Design thinking begins with principles that frame a way to see the problem or challenge. It has a multi- or interdisciplinary character through problem-solving and demands synthesising knowledge from various sources (Cross, 2007; Pink, 2006; Simon, 2016).

3.2 Data collection

This qualitative study focuses on some entrepreneurs and their experiences with co-operation with university students. Entrepreneurs were chosen among the participants involved in the course at Uppsala University, Campus Gotland, called Projects in Multidisciplinary Teams, in 2020 and 2021. All entrepreneurs are practising their businesses at Gotland in Sweden. The course aims at promoting problem-solving, innovation approach, and collaboration by students working in teams and using design thinking as a method. The number of entrepreneurs invited to the study was 17. The results of this study consist of responses from eleven entrepreneurs. In table 1., the entrepreneurs and their assignments/challenges/problems offered to the students are presented.

3.3 Entrepreneur and their assignments/problems/challenges

- Farmer, tourist entrepreneur: To help create a package for the farm's visit with the sustainability theme.

- Advisor, project manager, consultant: To get help with find development potential and to internationalize the business with the help of social media
- Business manager and property developer Transform motorhome camping into sustainable clamping.
- Priest, Church of Sweden: To develop the pilgrimage route
- A representative for the local community: How to create commitment among the villagers and develop tourism
- County Administrative Board: Development of a new national park
- Digital developer: Develop a mobile tool (CRM) for lifestyle entrepreneurs
- Tourist and event entrepreneur: Production of compostable disposable material for restaurant operations
- BnB entrepreneur: Develop courses for other BnB entrepreneurs in sustainable housing
- Event developer (historical events): To expand the event outside the capital of the island
- Organiser for Harvest festival: To provide more knowledge to consumers of Gotlandic farmers and their products, sustainable food production

Primary data collection for this study took place between Feb-March 2021. The secondary data collections consist of documents over the course. An interquest (a hybrid over the interview and inquiry) was sent digitally to participants. The interquest was composed of five sections, each containing related questions: 1. The background, consisting of, in total, five questions. 2. Collaboration with the students, sex questions. 3. The challenge offered to the students, consisting of sixteen questions. 4. Questions about sustainability (general questions about sustainability and how participants have been implementing sustainable solutions in their businesses, sustainability and the future (what owners wish to develop regarding sustainability in their businesses, Etc.), in total, five questions. Data analysis was made by using the theoretical concepts presented in the section on Theoretical perspectives. In the following, the results and analysis are presented using the inquiry structure. The study is limited to a small number of respondents and their reflections on their experiences with the students and does not claim statistically significant results.

4. Analysis and findings

4.1 Background and motivation

The responses show that most entrepreneurs in this study are women and have a university degree; the majority of them have a bachelor's degree. The majority of them are in the age range of 40 to 60 years old. Many contractors seem to have several jobs and entrepreneurship that are tourist-related. They can be called bricoleurs. Bricoleurs are innovative entrepreneurs who create value in environments with scarce resources (Baker and Nelson, 2005). The concept of entrepreneurial bricolage was introduced by Lévi-Strauss (1966) and can be defined as "making do by applying combinations of the resources at hand to new problems and opportunities" (Baker and Nelson, 2005). Also, Oxenswärdh (2020) highlights these entrepreneurs and their ways of combining several professions and activities to support themselves. Since they are often micro-entrepreneurs, they need to seek knowledge from the outside. This may explain their willingness to participate in collaborative projects with the university.

Entrepreneurs explain the choice of these challenges as they need to get others' eyes on their problems or opportunities. All challenges were linked to developing sustainable solutions in these companies. Entrepreneurs in the study regard that the students at the university have the latest knowledge in the field, and several of them have been involved during both years of the course and have good experiences of this collaboration with the students. They experience the students as innovative and creative.

"It is in our interest that find products that are good for the environment in the long term and can also be included in our supply chain from serving to the soil. Therefore, we wanted expert help to find the right kind of material that works for our business.

4.2 Collaboration with the students during the project

Due to the ongoing pandemic (Covid 19), contact between entrepreneurs and students, during the course 2020, just before the pandemic, made communication between the parties in projects significantly different from 2021. At that time, communication was primarily handled through physical visits. The pandemic has caused that several different

ways of communicating have been applied in the projects. It has often been a combination of digital media and on-site visits without direct contact with the contractors.

Entrepreneurs have experienced collaboration as very satisfactory. Here are some of the statements:

- "Very inspiring. Knowledgeable, responsive, committed people. Easy to work with."
- "Very efficient and clear communication from start to finish."
- "An incredible commitment was felt throughout the group. Also, they all seemed to work well together as a group."
- "The collaboration went very well, thanks to the regular meetings. The students could agree on ideas, and we could correct misunderstandings."

As can be deduced from the respondents' statements, the students' collaboration has been perceived as satisfactory.

The communication seems to have worked well despite the ongoing pandemic. Entrepreneurs experience no problems communicating, primarily digitally, with the students. From the contractors' statements, it is also possible to read how student teams have succeeded in their work.

Teamwork performance depends on group synergies rather than individual contributions (Rousseau, Aube, and Savoie, 2006) include competencies needed to work well together. All these competencies: the affective, cognitive, and behavioural dimensions, seem to be functioning well within these teams (Humphrey, Karam, and Morgeson, 2010). The diversity of the members of the team promote creativity in problem-solving. (Haslett, and Ruebush, 1999; Schultz, 1999; Sunwolf, and Seibold, 1999). Entrepreneurs themselves can also be considered members of these teams in continual contact with the teams by communicating and functioning as active counterparts, giving further information, and putting questions.

We want to collaborate more to become a lab for Uppsala university with the opportunity for experimental development and test a lot, in different projects, with customers and users in sustainable development and tourism and where we can have students as part of the projects. "It has been very friendly and professional!"

Entrepreneurs are willing to collaborate with Uppsala university, preferably in several courses and areas of expertise. They express their willingness and need to help develop their businesses and, not least, in improving sustainable solutions.

4.3 Challenges offered and solutions suggested

Challenges offered to the entrepreneurs by the students varied a lot (see table 1 for details). The common denominator was that they all dealt with the hospitality industry and strived for sustainability solutions in their companies. Entrepreneurs seem to need new ideas, new solutions to practical problems in their businesses. They stated that they trusted students to offer the latest knowledge on sustainable issues by being creative and inventive within problem-solving. The solutions varied in nature and were perceived as very interesting and rewarding by the problem owners; in the following, some entrepreneurs' reflections on experiences over the suggested solutions with student co-operation.

- "I found co-operation as a very positive experience. Already the way to reformulate the questions/challenges provided valuable insights."
- "There was a long list of both concrete solutions and concept structures. The design and matrix thinking was advantageous. The input was given both current working methods for developing the trail, possible concerns, and prototype proposals for inspirational material."
- "It has been a very positive experience and much information in a short time. They gave us time to do that we did not have time ourselves, so it helps incredibly to get help to do such marketing research."
- "We have not had time to delve into the issue; that is why we thought that students with fresh ideas could give us new perspectives, which they did. They also linked to the 17 sustainability goals that we have not highlighted and linked to the project."

It was often practical things and a lack of time that stood in entrepreneurs' development initiatives. As bricoleurs with several different ways of earning a living, they seem to have a shortage of time and effort in developing their

businesses. This makes it also difficult for these entrepreneurs to create networks. Collaboration with the students can be a source of knowledge for these entrepreneurs. Learning takes place here on several levels. Collaboration with the students enables individual learning for the entrepreneurs and collaborative and collective learning. Different parts of the collaboration process seem to require different kinds of learning.

The students used, as their tool, a model of Design Thinking, which includes various phases where information is obtained from the contractors in round turns to ensure sufficient background facts and additional facts during the process to be able to provide a solution to the problem. This type of learning is similar to that of collaborative learning, where both parties are learning together: students get new knowledge and problem owners by reshaping their experiences over their practice (Bruffee 1993; Dillenbourg et al. 1999). Collective learning occurs as well in collaboration between the student teams and problem owners. It is decisive for collective learning that parties' can form a consensus on future solutions and strategies to achieve them (Granberg and Ohlsson 2016). At the same time, parties do create value for each other. Process of meaning-making and sense-making, connected with learning processes, help the parties retain, reaffirm, revise or replace elements of their orienting system towards more nuanced, complex, and valuable knowledge and practice (Gillies, Neimeyer, and Milman, 2014).

Most of the contractors who participated in the course year 2020 have already implemented proposed solutions in their operations, others are about to do so, and only one of 11 contractors has not intended to do so. The manner of implementation of these proposed solutions varies between contractors. Some of them intend to introduce the changes step by step based on needs and financial resources.

The most important lessons for entrepreneurs, from the students' solution proposals and collaboration process, were as follows:

- "The students gave me a different perspective, primarily based on foreign visitors' expectations."
- "I found that it is difficult to design new things alone. These student groups surprised me with their creativity."
- "I learned that there are other solutions than the obvious ones."

4.4 Sustainability and entrepreneurs in the study

Entrepreneurs in this study seem to be aware of sustainability and define the concept as an ecological, economic, social, and cultural aspiration to act within our planet's framework. However, they have applied mainly solutions to varying degrees in their companies, primarily due to their different organisational nature. Some talk about different certifications they are already applying in their companies; others refer to the global environmental goals they want to break down on a practical level. Some describe the practical measures they have already taken in their operations. Again, some others link sustainability goals to their business goals to strengthen competitiveness. A part of the measures is quite concrete.

- "We are re-cycling. We inform our guests about sustainable living and behaviours. We have a charging hybrid car and plans to invest in solar cells."
- "We have environmental hosts, projects for waste management and water saving, we are nudging towards visitor groups."
- "I eat locally produced food."

Increasing sustainability thinking on the island, the following measures are proposed by contractors:

- "Offer much more personal service, accommodation, guidance, food culture, etc., spread it over the whole island."
- "Simplify and work for climate-smart transports."
- "Happy positive people want to share themselves and their environment. Protect the fragile places that exist and create oases for those who want modern, hip environments. Development and new fashions are created, and even those who like this must have their needs met."
- "Learn from each other, collaborate more and use our local raw materials. Create relationships between us as hosts and visitors."
- "Live as you learn!"

These answers show that entrepreneurs have a positive spirit of progress. They are committed to the environment and want to take care of their island. According to the respondents, the visiting guests can also be trained in sustainability issues. These entrepreneurs' knowledge deficiencies are primarily in need of continued competence development. They consider themselves quite aware of sustainable issues but want to learn more and be updated on sustainability issues. Some others recall the importance of updating their knowledge of the public, municipal and regional rules and regulations that are constantly changing.

- "There are many rules for building standards, nature conservation, etc. that you would need ongoing information about when rules are constantly changing."

5. Conclusions

This study investigated how some small destination entrepreneurs experienced co-operation with the student teams studying destination development at Uppsala University, campus Gotland. The questionnaire was sent to 17 entrepreneurs who had offered their challenges to the students in 2020 and 2021. Eleven entrepreneurs answered the questionnaire. This may mean that some of the entrepreneurs invited to the study were not satisfied with the university course's collaboration. However, there may, of course, be other reasons for them not participating in the survey. According to the results of this study, the students' involvement in this co-operation can be considered beneficial both to students and entrepreneurs. Both parties had the chance to be engaged in the co-creation process, enacting the collaborative (social) dimensions of new knowledge construction. Entrepreneurs and respondents in this study can be classified as so-called life-stylers and bricoleurs. Their commitment, not only as a participant in this study, but also participation in the course of Projects in Multidisciplinary Teams; but most of all, their commitment to solving sustainable problems by offering challenges to the student teams in their businesses, has been investigated in this study.

Collaboration between local societies and higher education institutions is something societies have been striving for, to a greater extent, in the last decades. These collaboration demands at the universities are also expressed in different policy documents. Nevertheless, collaboration has often worked only on university terms unilaterally. Besides, it has often been a matter of using different companies and business organisations to collect data for students in different subjects and as sources for researchers in their research. Seemingly, there has not been much genuine co-operation with equal conditions, giving and taking, i.e., reciprocity between the parties. The study shows that this type of collaboration is vital for entrepreneurs and can be achieved through careful planning in dialogue with universities. Destination entrepreneurs need new knowledge and support, not least in sustainability issues.

Nevertheless, there is also a great need among university students to apply their theoretical knowledge in practice. Starting cooperation with companies, having their practical problems and challenges in focus, can open the door to favourable co-operation between the parties. This also enables research initiatives for university teachers. This presupposes a dialogue in which both parties meet on equal terms. The condition here is reciprocity.

By entrepreneurs offering their challenges for students to solve, collaboration takes place. Then different value-creating processes emerge. Understanding and learning processes, both the individual and the collective, becomes activated by all parties. Thus, the challenge functions as an engine that drives the process by creating new questions and solutions. This, in turn, seems to increase the entrepreneurs' understanding of the value of change. At the same time, they become confirmed as active actors in destination development. This creates value also for their businesses. These destination entrepreneurs, bricoleurs and life-stylers, will be a fundamental group for the entire development of destinations as they, with their different areas of activity and dedication, can spread knowledge about sustainability further in the local society. The critical issue here is confirmation of their essential role in destination development.

These small entrepreneurs, life-stylers, and bricoleurs seem to understand the importance of sustainability issues. Their ability to spread knowledge and about sustainability should not be underestimated. This power or ability should be better noticed and further developed. Entrepreneurs testify to their loneliness as small entrepreneurs without large companies with resources for consulting assistance, etc., for solving sustainability challenges. They need training in networking with other entrepreneurs to be able to find practical solutions to their problems. The great asset here is their commitment.

References

- Baker, T., & Nelson, R. E. (2005). Creating something from nothing: Resource construction through entrepreneurial bricolage. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 50(3), 329- 366. <https://doi.org/10.2189/asqu.2005.50.3.329>
- Bergman, B. & Klefsjö, B. (2012). *Kvalitet från behov till användning*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Brown, T. *Change by Design: How Design Thinking Transforms Organisations and Inspires Innovation*; HarperCollins: New York, NY, USA, 2009.
- Bruffee, K. (1993). Collaborative Learning. *Organisational Change Management: A*. pp. 28- 51. The Johns Hopkins University Press. Baltimore.
- Chai, C.S.; Koh, J.H.L.; Tsai, C.-C. A review of technological pedagogical content knowledge. *Educ. Technol. Soc.* 2013, 16, 31–51.
- Gillies, J., Neimeyer, R.A. and Milman, E. 2014, The meaning of loss codebook: construction of a system for analysing meanings made in bereavement. *Death Studies* 38:207–216. Copyright # Taylor & Francis Group, LLC ISSN: 0748-1187 print=1091-7683 online. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07481187.2013.829367>
- Cross, N. *Designerly Ways of Knowing*; Birkhauser: Boston, MA, USA, 2007.
- Dillenbourg, P. (1999). *Collaborative Learning: Cognitive and Computational Approaches*. Advances in Learning and Instruction Series, New York. Elsevier Science Inc., NY.
- Granberg, O. and Ohlsson, J. eds., 2016. *Kollektivt lärande i arbetslivet*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., and Hall, C.M., (2020). Pandemics, tourism and global change: a rapid assessment of Covid-19 *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 2021, VOL. 29, NO. 1, 1–20 <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1758708>.
- Haslett, B. B., and Ruebush, J. "What Differences Do Individual Differences in Groups Make?: The Effects of Individuals, Culture, and Group Composition," in *The Handbook of Group Communication Theory and Research*, ed. Lawrence R. Frey. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 1999, p. 133.
- Humphrey, S. E., Karam, E. P., & Morgeson, F. P. (2010). Towards a typology of team effectiveness: A meta-analytic review. 25th Annual Meeting of the society for industrial and Organisational Psychology. Atlanta, GA.
- Kimbell, L. Rethinking design thinking: Part, I. *Des. Cult.* 2011, 3, 285–306.
- Kurokawa, T. Design thinking education at universities and graduate schools. *Sci. Technol. Trends Q. Rev.* 2013, 46, 50–62.
- Lévi-Strauss, C. (1966). *The Savage Mind*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press
- Lotz-Sisitka, Heila, Wals, E.J. Arjen, Kronlid, David, McGarry, Dylan, *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, 2015, 15, 73-80.
- Oxenswärdh, A.(2020). Micro-business entrepreneurs and bricoleurs on their way towards sustainable practice – implications for learning processes. *Studia Periegetica* no. 4(32)/2020 DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.6596
- Pink, D.H. *A Whole New Mind: Why Right-Brainers Will Rule the Future*; Riverhead: New York, NY, USA, 2006.
- Rousseau, V., Aube, C., & Savoie, A. Teamwork behaviours: A review and an integration of frameworks. *Small-Group Research* 2006, 37(5), 540–570.
- Schultz, B. G. Improving group communication performance: An overview of diagnosis and intervention. In L. R. Frey (Ed.), *Handbook of group communication theory and research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.,1999, pp. 371-394.
- Simon, H. *The Sciences of The Artificial*, 3rd ed.; MIT Press: Cambridge, MA, USA, 2016.
- Sunwolf, and Seibold, D. R. The impact of formal procedures on group processes, members, and task outcomes. In L. R. Frey (Ed.), *Handbook of group communication theory and research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. 1999, pp. 395-431.
- The World Tourism Organization. (2021). *International arrivals*.

<https://www.unwto.org/news/2020-worst-year-in-tourism-history-with-1-billion-fewer-international-arrivals>.
Nedladdat från hemsidan 19/3 2021.

Wiek, Arnim, Withycombe, Lauren, Redman, L. Charles. Key competencies in sustainability: a reference framework for academic program development. Sustainable Science 2011, published online: 19 May 2011.

Wolfe, A. All Power to the Choice Architects: A Liberal Critique of Libertarian Paternalism. 2009. Available online: http://newamerica.net/publications/policy/all_power_to_the_choice_architects (accessed on 30 March 2020).

UNWTO (2021): WORST YEAR IN TOURISM HISTORY WITH 1 BILLION FEWER

Zhao, Y. World Class Learners: Educating Creative and Entrepreneurial Students; Corwin: Thousand Oaks, CA, USA, 2012.

A Spatial Perspective Guiding the Specialization in Local Tourism: Case Study Bogotá-Colombia

Helmuth Yesid Arias Gómez¹ Gabriela Antořová²

¹Czech Technical University in Prague. Masaryk Institute of Advanced Studies. Czech Republic

ORCID: 0000-0003-0107-8611

E-mail address: ariashel@cvut.cz

²Czech Technical University in Prague. Masaryk Institute of Advanced Studies. . Czech Republic

ORCID: 0000-0001-5330-679X

E-mail address: Gabriela.Antosova@cvut.cz

Abstract

The article aims at incorporating the spatial reference of a set of tourism spots and at proposing a zonal specialization of tourism activities intended to suit concrete historical and urban endowments present in the Bogotá City boroughs. The spatial analysis recognizes agents' behavior encompassing human decisions, taking into account distances, social interaction and final spatial equilibria. The maps illustrate spatial positions of different agents and facilities the identification of optimal displacements in order to minimize the costs in terms of time and pollution. The visual methodology emphasizes the spatial specialization of different areas coherently with the local assets and the visitor's preferences. The analysis focuses on the Bogotá's tourism cores. The methodology will render a spatial distribution of tourism inventory and the most suitable way to deepen any thematic specialization. The results might guide the tourism and territorial planning overlapping sustainably the tourism development, the urban physical expansion and the urban economic growth. The results might be incorporated into the public policy discussions. Furthermore, the findings can inspire specific strategies for planning the local growth of economic activities and the sustainable promotion of specific industries, respecting the urban environment and the idiosyncratic endowments of each borough.

Keywords: Spatial Analysis, Urban Tourism, Geographic Information Systems

1.Introduction

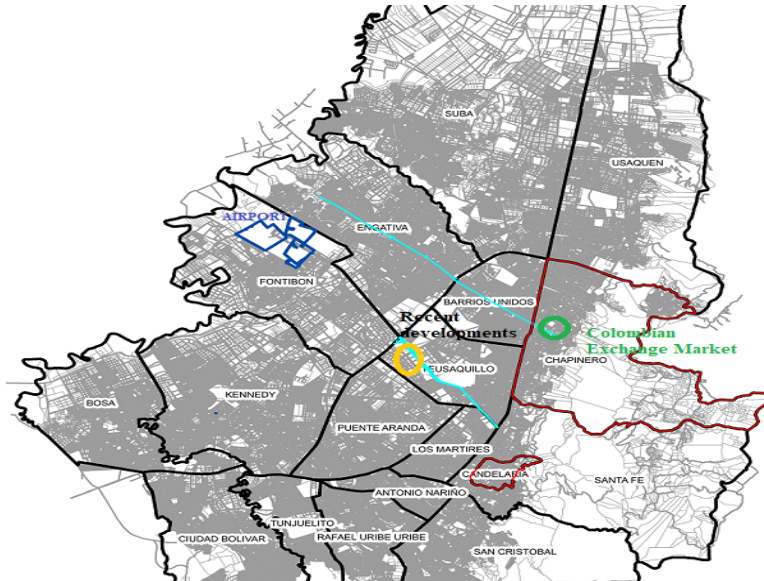
The economic exploitation of tourism activities has diverse implications on employment and the environment. But if the focus is urban tourism, the spatial dimension and the occupation of territory become crucial elements, mainly for policymakers and planners. In fact, the historical monuments can hardly be replicated elsewhere; therefore, the original locations retain their invaluable meaning, and precisely around them a set of genuine tourism activities blossoms. Other kinds of tourism attractions can emerge spontaneously alongside the modernization of physical infrastructures and the urban social evolution (supermarkets, technological parks, amusement parks, modern buildings and facilities).

The scattered spatial distribution of the old and new attractions clears the way for a zonal specialization of tourism activities, coherently with the trends in urban planning. In this vein, a specific specialization can be identified in particular areas of the city in order to avoid unnecessary movements and a waste of time.

In this article we explore the analysis of a specialized supply of services depending on the zones implicated in the tourism development (Amir, Ghapar, Jamal, and Ahmad, 2015). Bogotá is a clear example of this zonal arrangement due to the specific development of market services prompted by the physical change in the city. For the visualization of this kind of specialization some maps will be overlapped and the visual approach will be complemented by general trends dictated by the urban regulations pertaining to the urban planning. This kind of a specialized spatial profile in urban tourism activities has been yet performed by the market itself.

Map 1

Bogotá: Location of the Candelaria, Santa Fé and Chapinero Boroughs



Source: Own elaboration based on IDECA layers.

2.Literature review

Taming the urban expansion of Bogotá is a complex task keeping in mind the actual urban structure and the clear scarcity of available space in the city. As will be elaborated further, the urban territory is under pressure because the space is near to be exhausted and the availability of new land to build on is severely scarce. Several official documents report this kind of troubles and constraints. The Bogotá's Mayor Office recognized various facts related to the urban evolution and the outright strategies in terms of territorial planning in several documents.

Nowadays the open strategy in terms of territorial planning includes identification and promotion of 'centralities' (centralidades) as local points of economic development spontaneously emerged away from the urban hard core as a result of a natural evolution of the city (Alcaldía Mayor de Bogotá, 2017). This kind of spatial decentralization phenomena demonstrates some advantages. Firstly, the proximity of residential areas and employment agglomerations intensity (Lederman et al., 2007) allow deploying a more sustainable urban arrangement in terms of environmental impacts and secondly, it can contribute to a higher economic efficiency due to a closer proximity of the home and the workplace. This view can be encompassed in theoretical developments in terms of employment subcenters within the frame of a polycentric city (Brakmann, Garretsen, and van Marrewijk, 2009; Brueckner, 2011; Bederiana and Evis, 2012; McCann, 2013).

This kind of spontaneous phenomena has occurred in the western and southern parts of the city with a recent flourish of economic activities in contrast with other peripheral zones that yet remain stagnant and are affected by weak economic dynamics and a low density of business and activities. An apparent economic development can be identified in the surroundings of the Bogotá's Airport and along the avenue connecting it with the downtown. This sort of economic decentralization pursues a more balanced spatial development, spatially diversifying the urban economic potential.

In this context, the main focal point in Bogotá has traditionally been the historical core where the tourism activities have mainly developed (La Candelaria and Santa Fé boroughs). As shown on the map 1, Bogotá is divided into 20 boroughs (localidades), including the rural territory of Sumapaz. Here for our purposes, the focus will be placed on a few of them, mainly Candelaria, Santa Fé and Chapinero, properly highlighted on the map.

Most of the historical monuments are situated in Candelaria, and there the original Hispanic legacy is more preserved. Santafé refers to broader space but also several monuments are located there. We selected Chapinero due to the recent trends in urban development with the proliferation of a variety of services (education, restaurants, business, etc.), the other reason we consider in its northern area, a financial sector developed, with the Colombian Exchange Market

(BVC) having its venues there. Unleashing a parallel banking sector and speculative financial services development, thus contributing to an important increase in tourism facilities with a glamorous and exclusive profile.

When comparing these three areas, we can recognize the differentiated tourism specialization of each borough, considering that the downtown area (Candelaria) has tended to specialize in cultural and historical tourism and the northern part pertaining to Chapinero gravitates around the supply of financial services, suggesting a clear specialization in high profile and services that are more attractive. In the article below, we will defend the idea that by concentrating the interest of tourists spatially according to their purposes, the city can promote tailored services to the customer profile in a sustainable way.

3. Research methodology

The analyzed unit comprises the boroughs in Bogotá that excel as an important core of tourist activities (culture, sport, business, shopping, education, health, etc.). The methodology will render a spatial distribution of tourism inventory and the most suitable way to deepen the specialization of the particular borough. The subsequent discussion will address the actual exploitation of the urban tourism and will identify some unexhausted opportunities that should be fully tapped into. Amidst this context, some visitor profiles can be suggested according to the quality of incoming tourists, depending on their personal traits and characteristics.

The public policy discussion can integrate results of the article within the promotion of sustainable economic activities. Furthermore, the findings can inspire specific strategies for planning the local growth of economic activities and the sustainable promotion of specific industries, respecting the urban environment and the idiosyncratic endowments of each borough. On a scientific level, the purpose of the article is to apply disruptive methodologies based on a spatial analysis for inspiring a set of public policies focused on urban planning and the promotion of the tourism industry. This methodology was replicated on an international level, with the previous stock of spatially georeferenced information.

To propose the specific specialization of each borough, we will apply a visual and spatial methodology supported by the Geographic Information Systems (GIS) approach. The purpose is to identify the geographical location (Krugman, 1993a; 1993b) of tourism endowments to highlight the tourism spots that can be more properly exploited, according to the local specialization of each area. The source of geographical layers is the Colombian Geographical Office (IGAC) and, particularly for the local information the Bogotá cartographic system (IDECA). This institution made the georeferencing positioning of the hotels and tourism attractions across the city.

The advantage of this visual methodology is clear. The spatial rendering of the dispersion of tourism attractions, assets and facilities provides details about distances, proximities and accessibility. This visual information is crucial for designing tailored tourism routes and itineraries in a crowded city with an important lag in modernization of urban infrastructures.

Upon deploying the concrete tourism attractions, we will proceed to connect the visual information with the set of regulations and principles guiding the territorial planning and the connection with the development of tourism attractions. This analytical effort is relevant for achieving a coherent proposal for tourism planning nested in a more general frame of territorial planning.

The approach will exploit the opportunities provided by the spatial analysis as a technique to recognize the agent's behavior. This set of tourism services must be coherent with the inventory of attractions, public goods, and cultural and historic monuments. Subsequently, each borough focused on enticing one specific profile of visitors and therefore, this approach can guide a tourism promotion strategy, following the identification of the idiosyncratic attraction in the zone.

The GIS methodology stands out as a powerful technique for visualizing socio-economic phenomena, and for deploying the results of blatant spatial changes in territory. In the tourism sector the application of georeferenced information led to a more customized experience for tourists and visitors as is set forth by (Wei, 2012). Other more basic procedures resort to overlap a set of layers with thematic tourism information (Shyti and Kushi, 2012; Jovanović and Njegus, 2008) in order to perform a broader approach to a sectoral analysis. Bertazzon, Waters and Draper (1997) also apply the spatial analysis based on the polygon geometry for the study of the Canadian Region of Alberta. In other kind of studies, the geographic support can deploy some thematic attributes (indices previously calculated) ascribed to the geospatial features in a spatial way. This technique was tapped into by Cerezo Medina and Galacho Jiménez (2011) in calculating a tourism potential index ascribed to several municipalities in the south of Spain.

Jovanovic and Njegus (2008) identified specific tourism spots, which propelled their spatial influence into the surrounding areas.

Finally, Arias Gomez & Antošová (2019) blended the GIS techniques with an exercise of territorial planning and tourism development applied to an emergent destination in a coastal fringe of terrain in the Colombian Pacific Ocean. In doing so, they applied the spatial effects on the use of land and in the natural environs derived from a sudden boom in the tourism activities in a privileged natural coast of the Colombian town of Bahía Solano.

On the other hand, Kulyk and Sossa (2018) pointed out the more intensive development of the tourism activity in the regions of Ukraine by means of the deployment of heatmaps. The basic methodology is the application of Geographical Information Systems for figuring out some spatial patterns in the agents' behavior. Some more sophisticated analyses apply the geostatistical tools to identify the spatial patterns of socio-economic phenomena spatially distributed (Arbia, Espa and Quah, 2008).

4. Findings and analysis

Nowadays Bogotá stands out as the main region in terms of its share in the national GDP and the main hub of the service sector in Colombia. In terms of demography and employment, it is the most important center of population and the receptor of important flows of inter-regional migration in Colombia. However, the urban economic network is dual. In Bogotá a substantial class of modern firms has emerged, mainly linked to technologies and cutting-edge sectors but on the other hand, there is a wide variety of disperse small enterprises operating with low productivity with scarce capital but with a huge impact in terms of employment. This duality is observed in the tourism sector as well.

Now, to understand the exercise of tourism planning in Bogotá, we must take a retrospective look. The Hispanic foundation of Bogotá occurred in 1538; a historical fact encompassed the previous long-lasting settlement of the pre-Columbian civilization (Iriarte, 1988). The location was privileged because this spot, stretched along a longitudinal mountain, could spring the settlement with abundant water resources and the mountain climate could be healthier for the Spanish newcomers. This longitudinal mountain system erects at the eastern fringe of the city and extends along the city from the south to the north. The Easter system of mountains has two important roles in our analysis: firstly, it makes up a natural constraint for the urban growth in the east direction and secondly, it is a salient tourism attraction in the city (Up there in one mountain, the sanctuary of Monserrate was erected – figure 1).

Figure 1

Bogotá City: View from the Monserrate to the Guadalupe Virgin monument



Source: own elaboration

In this cultural clash, the Hispanic influence predominated and the subsequent historical periods witnessed the development of new social institutions and establishments molded according the peninsular dictates, but the new physical urban development followed the royal guidelines dictated by the dynasty of Spanish kings. One of the main spatial features of the Hispanic cities in the new world is the grid-shaped design of the just founded Latin American cities (Puigróss, 1974). Actually, this kind of a royal guideline pursued to steer the growth of the Latin American and

the peninsular Spanish cities properly in a spatially ordered way, following the layout of a perpendicular network of streets. This incipient urban design allowed the proper allocation of the growing Spanish population that subsequently arrived in the city as newcomers and facilitated the development of basic economic services (government and religious services) as well as market activities, and the provision of communal utilities such as potable water. This amazing Spanish urban legacy is embedded in a set of Latin American cities (México, Lima, Guatemala, and also in Colombia: Tunja, Villa de Leyva, inter alia).

Figure 2

Villa de Leyva: Plaza Mayor the largest square in Colombia

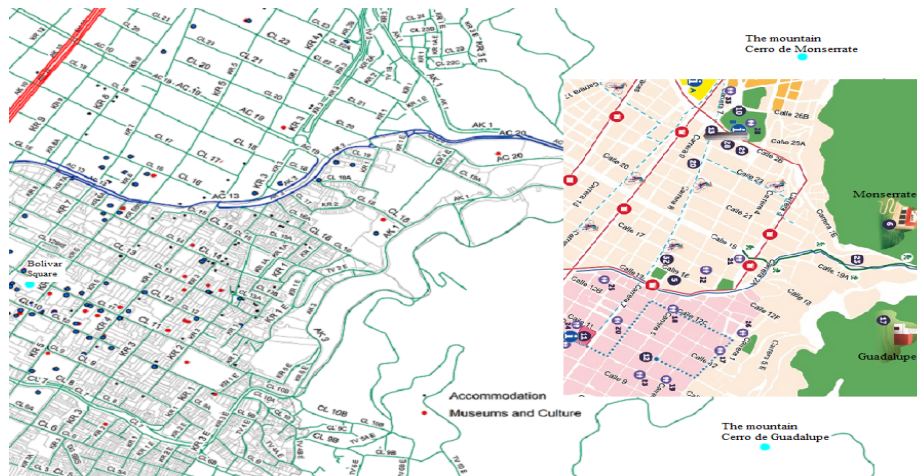


Source: own elaboration

Generally, the urban structure started in a perfectly shaped square, where the main buildings were erected: the central church, the administrative center of the city and the house of the most prominent Spanish citizen (mainly the city founder). The reason was that when starting from the main square, the urban process could be facilitated by means of a centrifugal process. This urban design can be appreciated in the map 2. It comprises the Bolívar Square (the point where the city urban process started) and the centrifugal propitiated expansion.

Map 2

Bogotá City Center: Hotels and Cultural Attractions



Source: Own elaboration based on IDECA layers. The illustration is drawn by bogotaturismo.gov.co (2020)

This map also depicts the concentration of historical monuments and hotels in the environs of the traditional city center. Throughout the article, this spatial concentration of tourism historic attractions definitely makes up the bedrock for proposing a specialized orientation in the tourism supply in Bogotá.

5. Discussion

The original Hispanic settlement fully occurred in the current La Candelaria Borough in an indigenous territory surrounded by two mountains, Monserrate and Guadalupe, and in the proximity of two genuine water springs: the San Francisco and San Agustín Rivers. This natural environ enticed both the pre-Columbian autochthonous communities and the Spanish newcomers to establish a further human settlement with such optimal natural conditions. In compliance with the Spanish laws, the original square is nowadays called the Bolívar Square, and currently comprises the Colombian Parliament, the Bogotá's Mayor Office, the National Courts and the Cathedral. On this square the original design of the "cuadrícula" (grid) was implemented as the starting point of the Hispanic city. In spite of this spatial certainty, the Colombian historians have not reached an agreement on the original point where the foundation was celebrated for the first time because by a juridic mishap the official foundation act had to be repeated afterwards after developing the required formalities: distribution of land, physical design of the streets and appointment of justice enforcers.

According to one historical tradition, the original failed foundation occurred in the actual spot of the Chorro de Quevedo (Chorro de Quevedo Square) where a small chapel, a cute square and some restaurants remain nowadays. Another tradition argues that over there a military act for taking over the control of the city occurred but not the formal act of foundation (Abella, 2016).

Figure 3

Historical chapel (San Miguel Príncipe) Chorro de Quevedo, Bogotá – Colombia

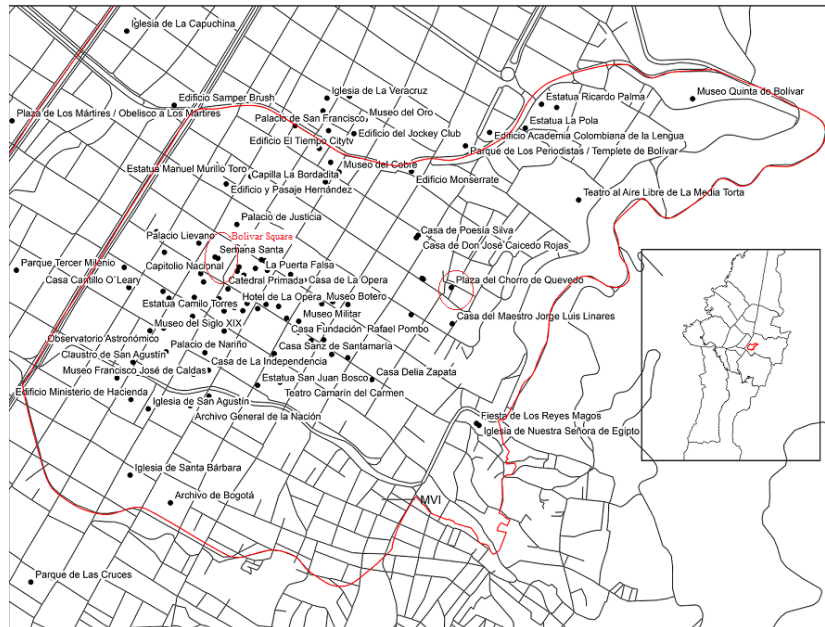


Source: own elaboration

But amid the historical uncertain spots, the Bolívar Square and the Chorro de Quevedo Square are obligated spots for wandering the tourism route and their surroundings comprise the core of jewels of Hispanic architecture. Churches, museums, historical squares and the wanders through the public streets are distributed across the La Candelaria borough as shown in the Map 3.

Map 3

La Candelaria Borough: Main Tourism Sites



Source: Own elaboration based on IDECA layers.

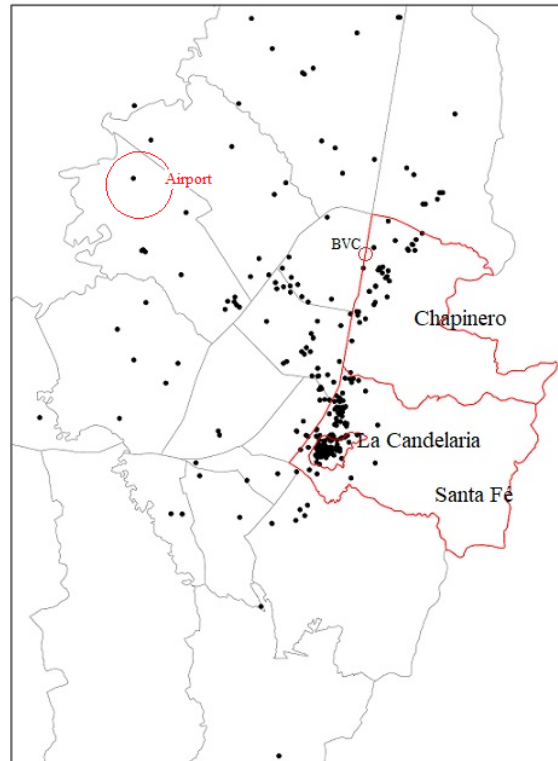
As was clearly just discussed, the core of the historical center is fairly settled and the proliferation of tourism attractions is strongly spatially concentrated in the La Candelaria Borough. This historical legacy involved important implications for the local urban development and the evolution of the zone. In this part the predominant use of land pertains to business and institutional buildings, with a weaker residential activity. The predominance of non-residential activities seemed to have discouraged the construction of dwellings and deterred the population for settling there. A recent initiative emanated from the Mayor Office proposes a process of gentrification of the central core of the city in order to entice more powerful flows of people with the purpose to settle there with residential purposes (Secretaría de Planeación de Bogotá, 2020).

The historical core of the city represents an invaluable legacy for the city in the tourism dimension as well as in social terms. Obviously, this historical tradition can hardly be replicated elsewhere and the monuments and attractions are strongly concentrated. This idea reinforces the necessity to identify tourism attractions elsewhere in the city to subsequently spur the development of alternative tourism spots with new themes. This process can occur spontaneously in the Chapinero Borough but also along the avenue connecting the city airport with the historical core. This last development has occurred mainly in the segment of business tourism with a higher economic profile of the visitors and a more sophisticated supply of services by the agents (hotels, car rentals, transport services, restaurants, and ancillary services).

The purpose of the map 4 is to bring forward some ideas about the possibility to develop a specialized profile in tourism services across different boroughs, with the purpose to improve the quality of the supply, requalify human resources and increase the physical infrastructure and disposable facilities, accordingly.

Map 4

Bogotá: Distribution of Tourism Attractions



Source: Own elaboration based on IDECA layers. NOTE: BVC means Colombia Exchange Market.

The map 4 depicts some stubborn facts in the Bogotá's tourism landscape. There the main tourism spots are deployed: churches, theatres, synagogues, natural parks, thematic parks, historical houses, supermalls, the commercial fair, clubs, flagship building, government offices, historical cemeteries, monuments, museums, inter alia. The visual information deployed there reveals the strong concentrations of spots in the historical core of the city but also other more disperse developments. The map points out the location of the Colombian Exchange Market as the point of reference for the development of a set of activities meeting the requirements of a more sophisticated visitor. It hints the potential of the Chapinero borough to specialize its tourism supply focused on a more contemporaneous activities related with services of modern hotels, gourmet restaurants, shopping centres and high-profile brand shops.

The zonal specialization proposed here has enormous advantages: an important reduction in the displacement time for the tourists, a reduction in the environmental footprint and a reduced pressure on the precarious urban mobility system.

Once the pertaining borough and its consolidated tourism specialization are identified, some tourism routes and activities can be arranged according to the visitor's purpose. A set of themed walks can be designed for minimizing the use of private and public transport, an important strategy in a city with a slow and troublesome urban mobility.

In terms of urban planning, the tourism sector must grow in a coherent way together with the entire strategy of urban planning. For the case of Bogotá, the recent trend advocates for a strong densification of the city and an urban renewal based on taller buildings, considering the blatant scarcity of land and the natural and legal constraint for expanding the physical urban structure. In this context, the new investments in facilities for the sector must be embedded in such guidelines dictated by urban regulations.

Prospectively speaking, the urban strategy for decentralizing and for liberating the spatial pressure on the urban core pursues to generate employment and economic processes across different urban points, in order to reduce pollution and achieve more economic efficiency. This decentralized reinvigoration of urban economy can accelerate the emergence of new tourism dynamics in Bogotá in a sparser geographical realm, propitiating a more spatially balanced model of tourism (thematic parks, technological clusters, shopping centers, and so on). It can presumably lead to the identification of potential tourism attractions in other parts of the city.

6. Conclusions

In this article we propose the identification and promotion of a process that has spontaneously emerged already, namely: the local specialization of the tourism activity according to the trends and the specialization of some specific boroughs in Bogotá.

Bogotá as a Hispanic city founded in 1538 has a really rich inventory of historical pieces and monuments that historically overlapped with the pre-Columbian culture. It means that the surrounding areas in the central region of Colombia preserve a historical stock of indigenous monuments and towns.

This Hispanic legacy is composed by churches, traditional government offices, historical houses, and the magnificent landscape related with the traditional streets fully opened up to be admired. Therefore, as long as this wealth is concentrated in the downtown (La Candelaria and Santa Fé), a myriad of tourism facilities and services has been consolidated over there as hotels, restaurants, information points, police services, exchange shops and so on.

On the other hand, the northern borough of Chapinero has developed a complex diversity of banking services and a financial network that properly can be proposed for a specific specialization in a high-profile tourism based on business activities. The modernity conveyed a set of new buildings and areas more related with thematic attractions, enticing equally other profile of visitors.

This evolution rolls up a new reality in the development of urban tourism with the decentralization of some activities toward alternative boroughs. This phenomenon calls for a particular development of the tourism matching properly the local endowments, vocation and urban landscapes.

Thus, a vaster segment of people and tourism providers can leverage the promotion of a set of spatially specialized tourism services in each borough more widely. One advantage is related with a more sustainable provision of tourism services with shorter movements and more concentrated activities, and on the other hand, the new tourism perspective suits adequately with trends in terms of territorial planning, looking for the consolidation of alternative economic centers, coherent with a more sustainable and less polluted city.

References

- Abella, A. (2016). ¿Cuándo fue la verdadera Fundación de Bogotá?. Revista Diners. Retrived from https://revistadiners.com.co/cultura/archivo/36489_cuando-fue-la-verdadera-fundacion-bogota/. [Accessed the 30th of May 2021, 14:20]
- Alcaldía Mayor de Bogotá. (2017). Instituto Distrital de Turismo– Touristic Map. http://www.bogotaturismo.gov.co/sites/default/files/mapa_julio_sin_fontur.pdf. [Accessed the 30th of May 2021, 14:20]
- Alcaldía Mayor de Bogotá. (2017). Resumen del Diagnóstico General. Plan de Ordenamiento Territorial de Bogotá. http://www.sdp.gov.co/sites/default/files/201708_resumendiagnosticot_v3.0.pdf. [Accessed the 30th of May 2021, 14:20]
- Amir, A., Ghapar, A. Jamal, S., & Ahmad, K. (2015). Sustainable tourism development: a study on community resilience for rural tourism in Malaysia. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 168, 116–122.
- Arbia, G., Espa, G., & Quah, D. (2008). A class of spatial econometric methods in the empirical analysis of clusters of firms in the space. *Empirical Economics*, 34 (1), 81–103.
- Arias Gomez, H. Y., & Antošová, G. (2019). A spatial approach for framing the development of tourism: Bahía Solano – Colombia. *European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation*, 9 (2), 26-39.
- Bederiana, S., & Evis, K. (2012). The impact of GIS application in the tourism development of Elbasan región. *The Romanian Economic Journal*, XV (45), 189-210.
- Bertazzon, S., Waters, N., & Draper, D. (1997). GIS applications in tourism marketing: current uses, an experimental application and future prospects. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 6 (3-4), 35–59.
- Brakmann, S., Garretsen, H., & van Marrewijk, Ch. (2009). *The New Introduction to Geographical Economics*. Cambridge University Press, Second Edition
- Brueckner, J. (2011). *Lectures on Urban Economics*. Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Massachusetts: The MIT Press Cambridge.
- Cerezo Medina, A., & Galacho Jiménez, F. B. (2011). Propuesta metodológica con SIG para la evaluación de la potencialidad del territorio respecto a actividades ecoturísticas y de turismo activo: aplicación en la Sierra de Las Nieves (Málaga, España), *Investigaciones Turísticas* 1, 134-147.
- Del Chiappa, G., Bregoli, I., & Fotiadis, A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on the Italian accommodation sector and related response actions: A supply-perspective using a mixed method approach. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 7(1), 13-22.
- Iriarte, A. (1988). *Breve historia de Bogotá*. Bogotá: Editorial Oveja Negra.
- Jovanović, V., & Njeguš A. (2008). The application of GIS and its component in tourism. *Yugoslav Journal of Operations Research*. 18 (2), 261–272.
- Krugman P. (1993a). On the relationship between trade theory and location theory. *Review of International Economics*, 1 (2), 110–122.
- Krugman P. (1993b). First nature, second nature and metropolitan location. *Journal of Regional Science*, 33(2), 129–144.
- Kulyk, V., and Sossa R. (2018). Determining the tourist attractive regions by GIS analysis using heatmaps. *Geodesy and Cartography*, 44 (1), 22–27.
- Lederman, D., Lixin C., & Maloney F. W. (2007). *Comparative Advantage and Trade Intensity: are Traditional Endowments Destiny?* The World Bank. Washington.
- McCann, P. (2013). *Modern Urban and Regional Economics*, Oxford University Press.
- Puiggrós, R. (1974). *La España que conquistó al Nuevo Mundo* Buenos Aires: Ediciones Siglo Veinte.
- Secretaría de Planeación de Bogotá. (2020). *Proceso De Revisión Del Plan De Ordenamiento Territorial De Bogotá D. C. Documento de Diagnóstico*.

http://www.sdp.gov.co/sites/default/files/tomo_5._revitalizacion_diagnostico_pot2020.pdf [Accessed the 30th of May 2021, 14:20]

Shyti, B., & Kushi, E. (2012). The impact of GIS application in the tourism development of Elbasan region. *Romanian Economic Journal* 15 (45), 189-210.

Wei, W. (2012). Research on the application of Geographic Information System in tourism management. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 12: 1104–1109.

The role of local administrations in the reactivation of tourism. The new Community-based Tourism offer in Medellín, Colombia.

Alexander Balzan¹, Ana Carolina Arboleda-Gallo²

¹Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, Spain

Universidad Politécnico Grancolombiano, Colombia

ORCID: 00-0003-2166-0377

Email address: alexanderbalzan@uoc.edu

²Universidad Rey Juan Carlos, Spain

Universidad Politécnico Grancolombiano, Colombia

ORCID: 00-0002-9796-3377

Email address: ac.arboleda@alumnos.urjc.es

Abstract

In this chapter the researchers describe the procedures made by the local administration of the city of Medellín, Colombia to prepare the city with a new offer of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) as a sustainable strategy for the economic reactivation after the pandemic. The local administrations have understood the importance of the internationalization of a diverse tourism portfolio, based on the principle of sustainability and how the CBT is an opportunity to co-create a value-based offer that represents the ideals of the city. The results of the research show how the administration of the city of Medellín have developed a CBT strategy that let the consolidation of a new offer of tourism for all visitors as part of the economic reactivation plan based on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). Citizen initiatives that lead to the implementation of new tourist routes and events are also based on achieving the goals set out in the SDG. In the case of the city of Medellín and the community, the need to improve their social and economic environment is raised, which should translate into the achievement of a sustainable city and, consequently, sustainable communities, SDG 11.

Keywords: *Community-based tourism; Medellin; SDG; Development; Cities*

1. Introduction

The local administrations have understood that there is a global competition in order attract resources from international tourists, but the pandemics originated by the Covid-19 aggravated this competition, this is why the municipal government plans are focusing in creating capabilities in the citizens so they can apply what they have learned. But this rush cannot open the possibilities for an disorganized and unsustainable offer of products or services, thus, the city administrations are facing a new challenge and is to promote secure and sustainable practices that may benefit not only the business owner but also the community that surrounds the activity.

Since 2012 the Colombian political system created the guidelines for the implementation of the CBT offer in the country, considering the involvement of the community in the activities. This guideline published by the Colombian Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism worked as the basis so local administration can design programs that create the capabilities in the community to work together and that is exactly what the City of Medellín administration wanted to practice within its citizens so they can create a new offer based in communities. To do so, an academic program was launched for the citizens and as result, 21 new projects are active, operating and waiting for the tourists to arrive in the city again.

As the community is working together the local administration is not only achieving their goals on their development plan but also in achieving the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals from the very local level and escalating it to the municipal one and so on.

2. Methodology

This project engaged a qualitative framework with an ethnographic approach applying instruments for data collection through a participatory observation in a 120-hour non-credit course as a “participant immersed in the actions and experiences within the system being studied” (VanDeVen, 2007, p. 269). Observation enables the researchers to understand the participants’ activities, interactions and events including the researchers themselves. In participant observation, data is collected from field notes but also from the researcher’s interpretation of the events that occurred (Emerston et al., 1995), attendance registers of the academic process were kept to analyze the level of engagement of the participants, where 66% of the enrolled participants finished the academic process; photographic records were considered as well.

The participatory observation has been used plentifully in tourism research as Ribeiro and Foemmel (2019) compiled several studies that used this ethnographic method to analyze the complexity of the host-guest relationship, changes in the territory as consequence of tourism activities, the impact in local communities and economies as well and even to deconstructing travel imagery.

The course subject of observation was financed by the Alcaldía de Medellín where 120 people were enrolled, and 80 people finished and obtained the certification of participation. The observation process was conducted to identify how the participants, with the taught capabilities could create a new offer of community-based tourism, this way the research is considered as an enacted method of research as the used data was generated by participants during the study.

Also, a structured literature review was conducted following the PRISMA protocol within the Scopus Database using the keywords: Community-based-Tourism; SDG-Tourism; and Tourism-Reactivation in order to identify similar cases but none was found.

3. Tourism as the basis of economic development

According to the United Nations World Travel Organization (UNWTO) (2020) tourism contributed to 10,4% of the global GDP in 2019 with an approximate of 334 million jobs around the world, this is 1 out of 10 jobs are located in this sector, but even more fascinating is to know that since 2014, from every 4 new jobs created, 1 was related to tourism activities. Weather the global trends are very attractive, the tourism in Latin America and more specifically, in Colombia are going in a slower pace, as the total contribution of travel and tourism to the country’s GDP only reached US \$14,602.5 million, which represents 5% of the total economy (WT&TC, 2021)

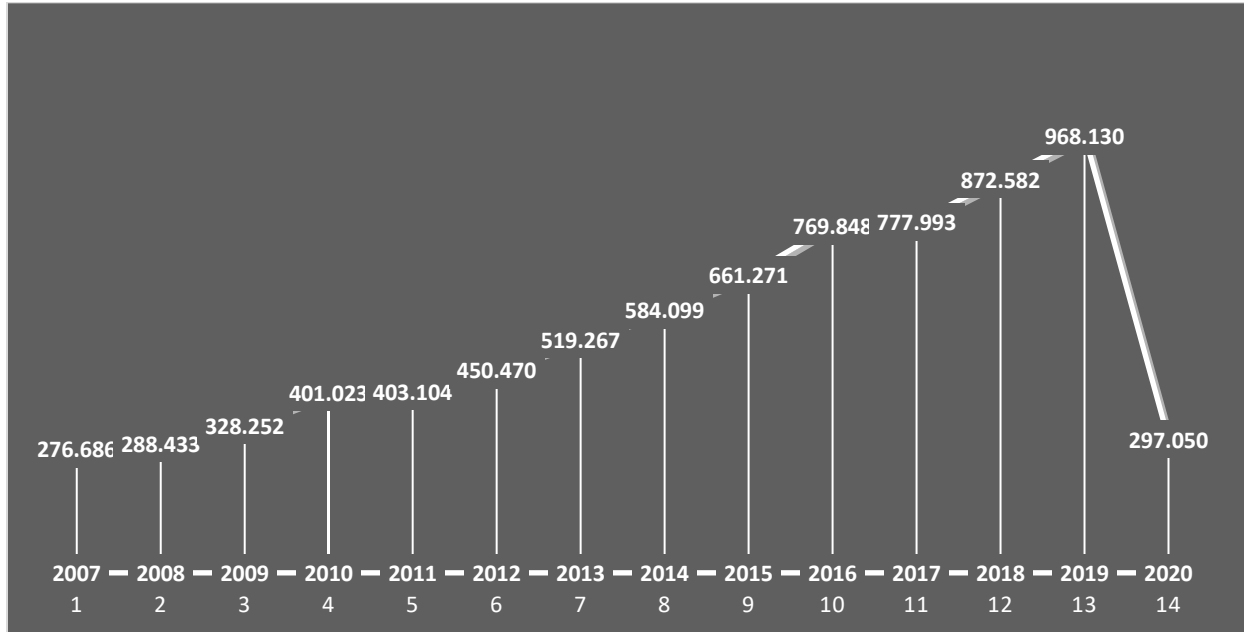
The pandemic impacting the world since 2020, has affected not only the business owners of large hotels, cruise ships, restaurants and other establishments that developed their activities with tourists, but the most vulnerable population related with tourism: first, hundreds of workers unemployed either due to the total or temporary closure of the companies that occupied them or because being owners of small establishments were suddenly without tourists to whom they could offer their goods or services, second, indirect business that provided to the tourism industry, also hundreds of independent tourist guides and other industry-related professionals whom in absence of tourist could not perform their activities.

According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) cited by Rasoolimanesh and others, in 2019, the figures were encouraging as that the number of tourists had increased and reached 1,500 million tourists, it was expected that this rate would continue to increase, however, due to the pandemic, an unprecedented impact has been generated in this sector. (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2020) In addition, and according to the same organization “it is estimated that world tourism contributed 7.6 trillion US dollars or 10.2% of world GDP in 2017. (idem) Despite the fact that Colombia does not have an excessive flow of tourists, as with other destinations for 2019, the tourism figures broke a record, the data calculated by the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, determined that the sector had a growth of 2.7% in relation with 2018. Consequently, new international routes were created allowing a mobilization of 41.2 million passengers (Mincomercio, 2020) However, the total closure of the borders nulled any projection.

In particular, the case of the city of Medellín, Antioquia presented a sustained growth in terms of tourism, the tourist alternatives of the city and its metropolitan area attracted a significant flow of tourists year after year, a sector that was openly growing until the beginning of the pandemic. In the figure one information about the evolution in the entry of tourists to the city of Medellín through its international airport José María Córdova (MDE) is shown in a period

between 2007 and 2020. It should be noted that the city is serviced by two airports: a domestic airport (Enrique Olaya Herrera, EOH) and the international one. The graph shows the constant growth and the abrupt fall of the passengers in 2020 as result of the border closure.

Figure 1: Number of travelers who entered Medellín through the international pier of the José María Córdova Airport from 2007 to 2020



Source: SITUR.

The situation generated an increase in unemployment rates and consequently a loss in locals purchasing power that derived into the problem that the municipal administration seeks to face through the creation of citizen initiatives within the community-based tourism framework.

The crisis appears as a great challenge for cities, especially for those that were beginning to make progress in tourism. This is the case of the city of Medellín, a city that, as can be seen in figure 1, went from receiving less than 200,000 foreign tourists in 2004 to close to 1 million in 2019 (the goal for 2020 was to exceed the million foreign visitors arriving in the city through its main airport -MDE-).

Given that at the national level the tourism sector contributes approximately 3.7% of GDP, thus the city urgently needed to articulate the process of economic recovery with its development plan called “Medellín Futuro”, specifically in the strategic line: Economic reactivation of the *Software Valley* initiative directed towards concrete actions such as: “to increase the productive and competitive capacities of the city's companies to advance towards the creation and export of products of greater complexity and added value” (Medellín Development Plan, 2020-2023, p. 208) to achieve this objective it was essential to create technical and practical capacities around sustainable and community-based tourism. In this way, the formalization of an innovative offer for future visitors was the result.

According to the National Administrative Department of Statistics (DANE) the unemployment rate at the end of 2020 was 15.9% for Colombia. In accordance with the problems and the marked impact on the tourism sector, training, capacity building around leadership, innovation and community work in tourism are important as a generator of opportunities and well-being.

In this sense, the local administration -Alcaldía de Medellín- (city council) developed a project executed by a group of professors from the Institución Universitaria Politécnico Gran Colombiano whose primary objectives were:

- Strengthen the service, administration and innovation capacities of the people who develop and / or are associated with Community Tourism in the city of Medellín.
- Generate in the population skills in the basic concepts and the importance of tourism in Medellín, entrepreneurship and leadership of community tourism products.

- Promote the development of new community-based tourism products or the improvement of existing ones as a result of the support provided, integrated to the use of the resources found in the communes and townships of the city of Medellín, which in a sustainable way allow generating employment and new ways of economic income to the communities.
- To formalize tourism new ventures or initiatives in neighborhoods of the city of Medellín that are vulnerable or affected in the past by violence that, thanks to geographical, gastronomic, cultural and infrastructure conditions have become destinations with comparative advantages.
- In short, establish the importance of the citizen's participation in the reactivation of the economy through sustainable actions.

To carry out this project, a continuous training plan of 120 hours was developed between October 26th and December 3rd of 2020.

The plan was led by the Subsecretaría de turismo (Tourism deputy office), an official entity of the Mayor's Office of Medellín (city hall) where 700 applications were received for 120 places that would be divided into two groups.

This non-credit course had three major thematic blocks to understand: Tourism Overview, Community-based Tourism and Transformational Leadership, also the training process followed the schedule of activities that can be seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Schedule of activities.



Source: Politécnico Grancolombiano, 2020

The methodology implemented in the classroom was based on three fundamental guidelines: "learning-by-doing", a highly practical concept in the acquisition of knowledge; "Learn-learn", where the maximum responsible for individual development is the participant him/herself and the application of "team learning", where the personal and work situation of each of the students served as an element of study, stimulating interaction, creativity and participation of all attendees, through dynamic and participatory workshops, individual and group exercises, case development and simulations that were complemented with workshops and tutorials for the practice of the concepts seen.

This training process was carried out in a virtual synchronous way through the Microsoft Teams application, because during the course, preventive social isolation measures were in force as a result of the pandemic caused by Covid-19 virus, however, four synchronous meetings were carried out complying with the requirements established by the law in Colombia (applying biosafety measures) in which there was a limited and controlled number of attendees; these meetings consisted of visits to the territory where the participants came together with viable proposals for community-based tourism prepared and organized by them.

The implementation of the project had a series of activities that allowed the personalized accompaniment of the participants with advice techniques for the correct use of the Teams platform and office tools in general, which would allow learning and the full use of resources focused on improving population living standards and related to the Sustainable Development Goals (ODS), in seeks to create sustainable cities and communities (SDG # 11).

4. Community -Based Tourism as strategy for the reactivation of the tourism sector in Medellín, Colombia.

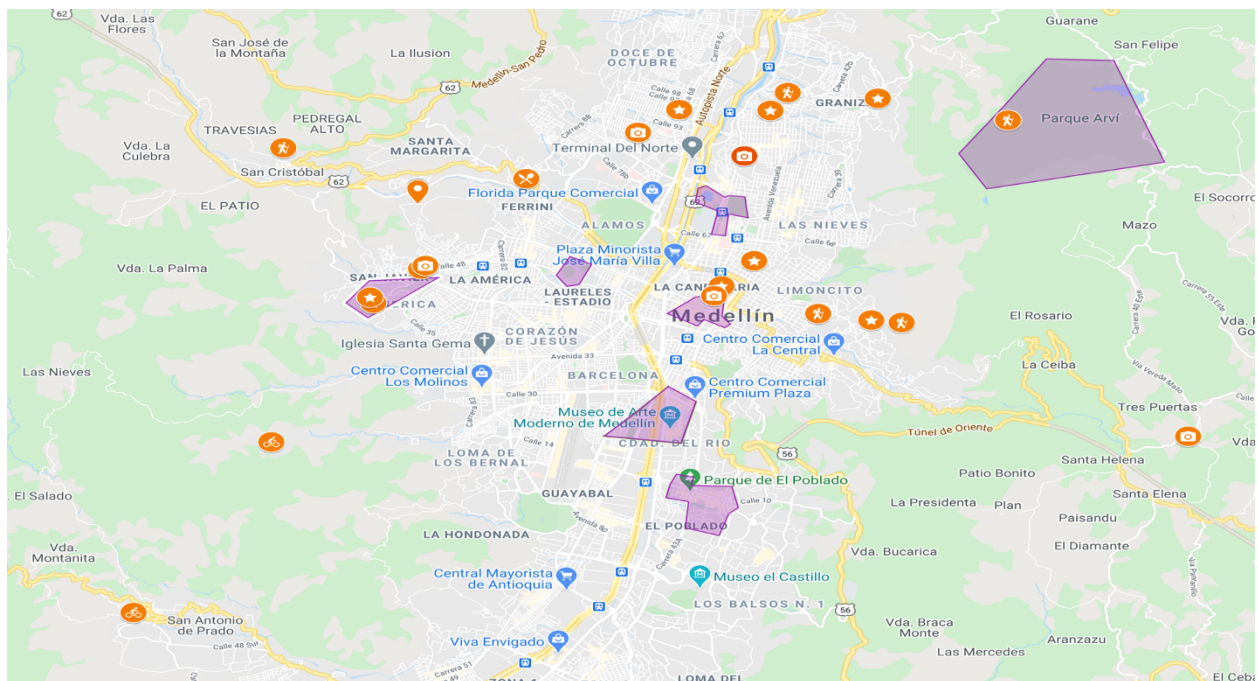
The impact of the project shows the interest of the population in the reactivation of the economy through community initiatives. 700 people registered for only 120 available places in the 120-hour non-credit diploma course (free of charge) 81 of which completed the process were certified. As requisite for the certification, the students must develop and resulting in 21 new sustainable CBT projects.

This project aims fundamentally at the offer of tourist services originated in organized communities, which benefit and participate in the different links that make up the tourism chain, generating tools that allow the use of enterprises, which contribute to the generation of employment and improving income. It seeks to present tourism products that make a real difference from a competitive point of view but above all sustainable proposals that generate a real change in the most vulnerable communities.

In the case of the city of Medellín, the execution of this project had a direct impact direct in 81 people who completed the training process and were certified by the Politécnico Grancolombiano University with a certificate of “Diplomado” (the diplomado in Colombia is configured as part of the non-formal educational offer, corresponding to courses of less than 160 hours of duration that lead to a certificate of attendance; those certificates should not be confused with the extinct Spanish “diplomas” that were part of the undergraduate academic offer, today equivalent to the undergraduate degree). In turn, the city of Medellín and its visitors benefit from the results of this project by creating a new community-based tourism offer.

Figure 3 shows the information on the new CBT offer that was created from the work of the participants of the course. These new proposals are marked with orange circles; The purple areas represent the concentration of the current tourist offer of the city of Medellín, located in 8 distant areas one from another and with a well differentiated tourist vocation, for example there is ecology, gastronomic, architectural or artistic tourism among others; therefore, it is obviously sought to diversify not only the type of offer but also its location with a special interest in the “corregimientos” or small townships (rural area of the municipality).

Figure 3: New community tourism offer in Medellín, 2020



Created on Google Maps.

5. From the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and community tourism

The MDGs demonstrated both, successes, and failures, however there is no doubt that they were at the time a good boost for development cooperation that was in a state of fatigue. Perhaps one of the biggest failures of the MDGs was

to have focused on the eradication of poverty, forgetting other aspects of great importance such as the environment; The SDGs, on the other hand, correspond to an agenda that was built as the result of a confluence of processes and debates; therefore this agenda responds to an international agreement or an international consensus achieved through a complex process that was not exempt from tensions. and difficulties during the years of discussions, this process led by the United Nations (UN) and that in principle was a disorganized process, In the end, it is articulated in a process that seeks to give continuity to the MDG agenda, taking into account that this process was carried out through an open-ended working group that included a large online consultation promoted by the UN, the entire The process is actually a disorderly process that does not correspond to a roadmap, a process that was not planned from the beginning, however, different actors participate in the process, each of them with different interests, interests that sometimes come into play. conflict, not all have the same vision. This disorderly process allows all actors to be heard equally in the same process and allows decisions to be made to prioritize and that is where sustainable communities and cities emerge within the agenda, such as goal No. 11 of the 2030 agenda.

In this order of things, the communities have become in control of their own destiny, it is up to the administrations to provide them with tools that allow strengthening the productive chain in tourism. Following Rosalia Burgos, "Tourism development focuses on a greater interaction of the regions, which leads to an increase in the supply of destinations, to promote the generation of employment (...)", (Burgos, 2016) It is understood that since the community itself is the manager of the processes, which as seen in the first part of this document, these are the result of a joint journey between the administration and the community, the former providing tools and the latter providing a Efforts in study and research generate new initiatives that lead to undertakings at the head of the community, which will also take care of its territory, as a result of the environment, in order to achieve compliance with one of the SDGs.

In Colombia, starting with the 1991 Constitution, strategies aimed at tourism development began to be given but focused on caring for the environment, hence there are laws that seek to support and promote the sector. In this sense, norms aimed not only at the participation of various sectors, both private and public, the creation of the vice-ministries of Tourism, the laws for the safeguarding of tangible and intangible cultural heritage. But it is from 2002 that Colombia begins a process to improve tourist destinations, but above all it seeks to encourage community participation in the provision of tourist services. With this, it is sought that the communities improve their income and, in some way, improve their quality of life.

Before the consolidation of the 2030 agenda, in Colombia there were already Policy Guidelines for the development of community-based tourism (2012), in the creation of these guidelines it was sought to strengthen the social function of tourism, the recognition of this sector as a pillar for local development and conservation, and the determined participation of communities in tourism. These guidelines are based on the existence of many community initiatives, however, the various obstacles that exist for the creation of a tourist company, imply that it is up to the administration itself to provide the community with tools so that they can become managers of their territories.

In Colombia there are already several associations aimed at strengthening community tourism, as following:

- The Gota Verde Association in Coloso, Sucre.
- Association Guides Tours in Coveñas, Sucre.
- Shopkeepers Cooperative.
- Community Association for Cultural Promotion in Cocorná, Antioquia.
- Posadas Nativas in San Andrés Island.
- Corporación Cemtur Tierra in Inza, Cauca.
- Mano Cambiada Community Corporation in Nuquí Choco.
- Asotrans fluvel in the Macarena Meta.
- Coremxa Corporation in Jamundí Valle.

The 2030 agenda gives way to a new social contract in pursuit of sustainable development, which helps to generate new government initiatives, greater innovation, and more efficient administrations, but above all a marked role for the community. The dimension of the events, the growing unemployment, the impossibility of traveling, the new way of communicating and carrying out all kinds of interaction has suggested the urgent need for institutions to be more agile and flexible, allowing the incorporation of all talent and creativity. of citizenship in the generation of new strategies that make it possible to transform territories into important development nodes. The community takes a preponderant place that through social innovation laboratories, with the intervention of the administration, they design and implement initiatives aimed at improving their surroundings, by increasing their income, transforming the territory

based on sustainable tourism initiatives. In this sense, the new leaderships that emerge from the community and the support of the administration converge.

Thus, the SDGs are presented as an opportunity for the tourism sector, each time ecological destinations and transformed territories show a differentiating offer in the world and are more desired, hence, although the COVID pandemic has not yet been overcome, in the city New initiatives are being woven from Medellín, 21 of them consolidated and ready to go.

6. Medellín as a tourist destination through community initiatives.

In addition to the new initiatives that emerged in the process carried out by the Medellín administration, the face that the city presents today is far from what it was in previous years. Medellín is a resilient city, moreover of having been classified as the “most innovative city” in 2012 by the Urban Land Institute and although the tourist offer may seem little when there are eight (8) areas marked on the map shown in the first part of this document, they can be found in Medellín, great contrasts created from sustainable and responsible community-based tourism, which also led the communities to transform not only their environment, but also their rhythm and quality of life and their income, going from being renegade communities to becoming sustainable ones.

Among the initiatives that currently exist is the Moravia neighborhood, a garbage dump converted into a garden through the project "Moravia blooms for life", an initiative of the Ministry of the Environment in 2012 and with the collaboration of the locals. With an investment of 2,5 million dollars between 2012 and 2015 that had generated more than 200 jobs and the planting of 50,000 ornamental plants in 30,000 square meters. Today it is shown as a garden where before there was only garbage, this territory has also been the winner of several international awards (Urban, 2017). In addition, a community center was built where the neighbors not only can learn but also show their talents through various artistic expressions.

Initiative of rural and ecological tourism in Arví Park, (forest reserve) located in the corregimiento of Santa Elena (rural area located in the outer part of the city), it is the only park in Colombia that has the Rainforest Alliance certification in sustainable tourism. The park actively involves the community with its own initiatives such as the market where several productive units made up of peasants, artisans and inhabitants of the area offer their products: handicrafts, processed foods and fruits and vegetables from the region.

In each of the initiatives the community starts with small actions whose objective is to improve their immediate economic and social environments, and then replicate them at the city level. Thus, there is a start from the micro actions at the neighborhood level and then move on to the macro level, that is, the achievement of one of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG # 11), sustainable communities and cities.

References:

- Alonso JA and Ayuso, A. (coords.) Bringing the Sustainable Development Goals to Citizens, CIDOB, Barcelona.
- Alonso, JA (2013). The post-2015 agenda and middle-income countries. In *Global commitment to inclusive and sustainable development. Considerations on the post-2015 agenda* (pp. 94-110).
- Alonso, JA and Glennie, J. (2015). "What is Development Cooperation?" *Development Cooperation Forum Policy Briefs No 1*.
- Ashworth, GJ & Voogd, H. (1990). *Selling the city: marketing approaches in public sector urban planning*. London: Belhaven Press
- Burgos, R. (2016). Community tourism as a local development initiative. case of towns of Ciudad Bolívar and Usme rural area of Bogotá. *Findings*, 13 (26), 193–214. <http://www.scielo.org.co/pdf/hall/v13n26/v13n26a09.pdf>
- Deffner, A., Karachalis, N., Psatha, E., Metaxas, T., Sirakoulis, K. (2019) City marketing and planning in two Greek cities: plurality or constraints ?. *European Planning Studies*. 28 (7), pp. 1333-1354.
- Dewi, SP, Ristianti, NS, & Kurniati, R. (2020). The economic sustainability model of community based tourism in batik kampong semarang. Paper presented at the IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science., 409 (1)
- Del Chiappa, G., Bregoli, I., & Fotiadis, A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on the Italian accommodation sector and related response actions: A supply-perspective using a mixed method approach. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 7(1), 13-22.
- Habitat and urban development. (2017). *THE NETWORK. Jardin de Moravia: How a City Transforms Garbage Into Life*.
- Hernandez-Garcia, J. (2013). Slum tourism, city branding and social urbanism: The case of Medellin, Colombia. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 6 (1), 43–51
- Horta Gaviria, CM, and Arboleda Gallo, AC (2012). Effectiveness of international cooperation: Incidence of international cooperation in receiving territories of the displaced population. Medellin Colombia. Madrid: Spanish Academic Editorial.
- Jiménez, WG (2015). Internationalization, development, and territorial public management. *Innovate*, 20 (55): 23-39.
- Kristina N. Lindström (2020) Ambivalence in the evolution of a community-based tourism sharing concept: a public governance approach, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 20 (3): 302-315
- Mincomercio. (2020). In 2019 tourism in Colombia broke records! | MINCIT - Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism. Mincomercio. <https://www.mincit.gov.co/prensa/noticias/turismo/en-2019-el-turismo-en-colombia-rompio-records>
- Pasanchay, K., & Schott, C. (2021). Community-based tourism homestays' capacity to advance the sustainable development goals: A holistic sustainable livelihood perspective. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 37, 1-11
- Rasoolimanesh, SM, Ramakrishna, S., Hall, CM, Esfandiar, K., & Seyfi, S. (2020). A systematic scoping review of sustainable tourism indicators in relation to the sustainable development goals. In *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1775621>

Impact of Covid-19 Pandemic on Tourism in Turkey

Gözdegül Başer

Antalya Bilim University, Turkey

ORCID:0000-0002-1450-191X

Email address: gozdegul.baser@antalya.edu.tr

Abstract:

There has been a severe loss in tourism in 2020 and 2021 due to the Covid 19 pandemic in Turkey as it has been all over the world. This research aims to enlighten the impact of Covid-19 on tourism in Turkey. The research methodology involves quantitative and qualitative methods. Statistical reports were analysed to compare 2020 and 2021 figures with previous years (Reports of Culture and Tourism Ministry, Turkish Statistical Institute, Tourism Associations, etc.). In addition, the results of interviews with 5 tourism professionals were analysed by content analysis. Research results pointed out the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on Tourism in Turkey as declines in tourism revenue, exports revenue, contribution to GDP and employment. The interviews with tourism professionals imply on their experience on managing crisis and future expectations.

Keywords: Covid-19, Impact of Covid-19, Tourism, Economy, Turkey

1. Introduction

COVID-19 coronavirus pandemic that was initially identified in Wuhan, China, in December 2019 caused international travel bans affecting over 90% of the global population accompanied by social distancing measures (Grech et al.,2020). The virus spread rapidly and destructively from China to Europe and the United States of America and it affected people and the world's economy (Del Valle,2020). Tourism industry ceased in March 2020 and measures were taken like social distancing, banning large gatherings, stopping travelling as well as lockdown measures for certain periods. Mandatory testing, quarantines, and in some cases the complete closure of borders, have all hindered the resumption of international travel. With lockdown measures that governments have implemented in many countries and stay-at-home recommendations, also domestic tourism took a hit (ILO,2020).

As a result of the measures and vaccination, tourism started to recover partially. 2020 was a year of big loss and 2021 has been accepted as a year of partial recovery. However, 2021 continues to be a challenging year for global tourism, with international arrivals down 80% in January-July compared to 2019. Asia and the Pacific continued to suffer the weakest results in the period January to July, with a 95% drop in international arrivals compared to 2019. The Middle East (-82%) recorded the second largest decline, followed by Europe and Africa (both -77%). The Americas (-68%) saw a comparatively smaller decrease, with the Caribbean showing the best performance among world subregions. Meanwhile, some small islands in the Caribbean, Africa, and Asia and the Pacific, together with a few small European destinations recorded the best performance in June and July, with arrivals close to, or sometimes exceeding pre-pandemic levels (UNWTO2). World Tourism Organization reported that international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) plunged by 74% in 2020 over the previous year due to widespread travel restrictions and a massive drop in demand and the collapse in international travel represents an estimated loss of USD 1.3 trillion in export revenues - more than 11 times the loss recorded during the 2009 global economic crisis .

Turkey is a fastly progressing country in tourism. Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism had a target of 75 million tourists and 65 billion USD revenue as it was stated on the "Tourism Strategy of Turkey - 2023" (KTB1). According to the World Tourism Organization, Turkey ranked as the 6th country in tourist arrivals and as the 15th in tourism receipts in the world. Turkey took a considerable share in the world's tourism and travel industry. Turkey had the highest increase by 22 % compared to the previous year whereas Turkey ranked as the 11th among Tourism earners in 2019.

Turkey ranked as the 43rd country on Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index in terms of overall rankings for 2019 (WEF). However, the tourism economy was heavily hit by the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, and measures were introduced to contain its spread.

Turkey tried to diminish the impacts of Covid 19 on Tourism by taking serious measures. In 2021, Turkey initiated 'safe tourism' programme which included certification for tourism facilities in order to help the recovery of tourism. Safe tourism certification programme was compulsory for facilities with 50 or more rooms and non-compulsory for facilities with less than 50 rooms. The Safe Tourism Certification Programme led by the Culture and Tourism Ministry was developed with the contributions of the Ministry of Health, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Ministry of Foreign Affairs in cooperation with all the stakeholders in the industry. As a next step, the Culture and Tourism Ministry announced circular 2020/6 on 12 May 2020 which stated a protocol covering COVID-19 and hygiene rules and practices to be prepared throughout tourism enterprises. Within the scope of the protocol, the approach of personnel to a customer showing signs of illness and the procedures to be applied were defined. In addition, a social distance plan for general usage areas was prepared. Precautions included not only accommodation but all the touristic facilities like food and beverage, transportation, entertainment, recreational activities, museums, etc.

The objective of this research is to find out the impact of Covid-19 on tourism in Turkey in terms of economical figures and perspectives of Tourism professionals. Research questions are listed as follows:

- What are the changes in statistical tourism figures in 2020 and 2021 compared to previous years ?
- What are the impacts of tourism figures on Turkish Economy ?
- How did turkish tourism professionals cope with the crisis management?
- What are their expectations for the future ?

The research methods involved quantitative and qualitative methods. Statistical reports were analysed, comparing the economic figures with previous years (Reports of Culture and Tourism Ministry, Turkish Statistical Institute, Tourism Associations, UNWTO, OECD etc.). In addition, the results of interviews with 5 tourism professionals were analysed by content analysis.

2. Tourism Statistical Figures

Turkey had an incremental increase in the number of visitors and tourism revenue (Table 1). However, average expenditure per tourist had a decline over the years and this case was a subject of debate before Covid 19 pandemic. There was a decline of 69,14 % in the number of total visitors in 2020 compared to 2019. This figure was very similar to the situation in the world. OECD announced that depending on the duration of the crisis, revised scenarios indicated the potential shock could range between a 60-80% decline in the international tourism economy in 2020.

There was a decline of - 65,06 % in Tourism revenue in 2020 compared to 2019. It is interesting that the average tourist expenditure increased by %14,41. Tourism data of 2021 appeared to be more successful compared to 2020 as the first 8 months imply (Table 1).

Table 1. Number of Visitors, Tourism Revenue, Average Expenditure, Tourism Revenue in GDP

Years	Number of Visitors			Tourism Revenue (1000 \$)	Average Expenditure (\$)
	Foreign Visitors	Visitors	Total Visitors		
2016	25.352.213	5.554.467	30.906.680	22.107.440	705
2017	32.410.034	5.559.790	37.969.824	26.283.656	681
2018	39.488.401	6.624.191	46.112.592	29.512.926	647
2019	45.058.286	6.688.913	51.747.199	34.520.332	666
2020	12.734.213	3.236.988	15.971.201	12.059.320	762
2021*	14.070.771	1.830.376	15.901.147	5.455.841	818

2021* : Figures cover January – August, Ref: Ministry of Culture and Tourism (KTB2)

Turkey was mostly visited by Russian, German and Bulgarian tourists. The highest decline was in the number of Iranian tourists in 2020 compared to 2019, and the least decline was for Ukrainian tourists.

Table 2. Foreign Visitors according to Nationality (Top 10)

Nationality	2019	2020	% Change
Russia	7.017.657	2.128.758	-69,66
Germany	5.027.472	1.118.932	-77,74
Bulgaria	2.713.464	1.242.961	-54,19
England	2.562.064	820.709	-67,96
İran	2.102.890	385.762	-81,65
Georgia	1.995.254	410.501	-79,42
Ukraine	1.547.996	997.652	-35,55
Iraq	1.374.896	387.587	-71,80
Holland	1.117.290	271.526	-75,69
France	875.957	311.708	-64,41

Ref: Ministry of Culture and Tourism (KTB2)

Tabla 3. Distribution of foreign visitors coming to Turkey in January-August 2019-2021 by nationality - top five countries

	2021	%	2020	%	2019	%
Russia	2.460.537	17,49	772.686	10,65	4.831.341	15,58
Germany	1.871.801	13,30	789.602	10,88	3.384.199	10,92
Ukraine	1.441.708	10,25	520.833	7,18	1.106.456	3,57
Bulgaria	642.408	4,57	532.417	7,34	1.693.939	5,46
İran	556.035	3,95	258.965	3,57	1.377.478	4,44
Others	7.098.282	50,45	4.380.604	60,38	18.607.981	60,02
Total	14.070.771	100,00	7.255.107	100,00	31.001.394	100,00

Ref: Ministry of Culture and Tourism (KTB3)

As of March 8th, 2021, the latest status in the number of accommodation facilities, rooms and beds in Turkey, (Ref: Ministry of Culture and Tourism) was as follows (Turizm Günlüğü):

- **Total Number of Accommodation Facilities in Turkey: 13,959**
- **Total Number of Rooms: 955,333**
- **Total Number of Beds: 2.058,012.**

In Turkey, the bed occupancy rate of facilities with operating certificates was determined as 58% in 2019. In 2020, the bed occupancy rate in Turkey was 19%. As of the first five months of 2021, the bed occupancy rate of facilities with operating certificates throughout Turkey was 20.88% (Gyoder). There was an important decrease in the bed occupancy rate in 2020 and 2021 compared to 2019.

3. Economic Impacts on Turkish Economy

Tourism Economic Impact can be defined as the sum of an expanded set of direct and secondary effects of tourism consumption and other elements of total tourism internal demand on the national economy (OECD). One of the chief reasons that governments support and promote tourism throughout the world is that it has a positive impact upon economic growth and development. Tourism should generate employment and income, lead to a positive tourism balance of payments, stimulate the supplying sectors of tourism, and lead to a generally increased level of economic activity in the country. Thus, tourism should have an impact on the frequently used quantitative measure of the economic development, gross domestic product (GDP).

The total economic impact of tourism is the sum of direct, indirect, and induced effects within a region. Any of these impacts may be measured as gross output or sales, income, employment, or value added (Stynes, 1997). Assessment of the overall impact of tourism in economic terms requires detailed information relating to tourist expenditures, prices, tax revenues, and expenditures by other sectors of the economy, prices for tourism and non-tourism products, patterns of arrivals etc. (Ennew, 2003). The problem with measuring the impact of tourism spending is quite simply that tourism does not exist as a distinct sector in any system of national accounts. Systems of national accounts are the main mechanism for tracking what is produced and sold within an economy and tracing what happens to expenditure. However, tourism is essentially an activity that is defined by consumers at the point of consumption. In effect anything that tourists buy and any form of expenditure that tourists make is a contribution to the economy that is generated by tourism. Of course, a very large proportion of tourist expenditure goes into identifiable tourism characteristic sectors such as transport, hotels, recreation, etc. However, tourists also spend money in other sectors – clothing, gifts, cosmetics, food, petrol etc. – which are indirectly associated with tourism (Ennew, 2003).

Tourism Revenue in Total Exports

Tourism was an important sector for Turkey and represented one of the most important sources of foreign currency earnings (Savaş et al., 2012). Tourism helped to close the deficits in the balance of payments, and it provided job opportunities as well as contributing to the national income. Tourism, which was the biggest foreign currency source after export, was extremely vital as it influences many other sectors. Tourism within the economy directly affected many other sectors in the economy such as food industry, transportation, communication, wholesale and retail trade, entertainment, real estate, construction, etc. It had input-output connections with 38 different sectors and had a high multiplier coefficient of 1,5 in employment (Kaya, 2012).

Turkey had an incremental increase of tourism revenue in total export revenue. Tourism could be considered as an invisible export item and 2019 figures showed that Turkish tourism revenue was 19,09 % of total exports in Turkey, covering the foreign trade deficit by 116,99 %. However, tourism revenue contributed to export revenue only by 7,1 % in 2020 and could cover only 24,17 % of the foreign trade deficit.

Table 4. Tourism Revenue in Total Export Revenue

Years	Tourism Revenue (x1000\$)	Export (x1000\$)	Import (x1000\$)	Foreign Trade Deficit	Tourism Revenue/Export Revenue (%)	Tourism Revenue/Foreign Trade Deficit (%)
2010	24.930.997	113.883.219	185.544.332	71.661.113	21,89	34,79
2011	28.115.692	134.906.869	240.841.676	105.934.807	20,84	26,54
2012	29.351.446	152.461.737	236.545.141	84.083.404	19,03	34,91
2013	32.310.424	151.802.637	251.661.250	99.858.613	21,28	32,35
2014	34.305.903	157.610.158	242.177.117	84.566.959	21,77	40,57
2015	31.464.777	143.838.871	207.234.359	63.395.487	21,88	49,63
2016	22.107.440	149.246.999	198.618.235	49.371.236	14,81	44,78
2017	26.283.656	164.494.619	238.715.128	74.220.509	15,98	35,41
2018	29.512.926	177.168.756	231.152.483	53.983.726	16,66	54,67
2019	34.520.332	180.835.910	210.343.465	29.507.555	19,09	116,99
2020	12.059.320	169.514.167	219.397.000	49.882.833	7,1	24,17

Ref. TÜİK, TİM, TÜRSABI

Contribution to GDP

Tourism had a significant positive impact on Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Turkish GDP increased from 0,8 % in 1980 to 7 % in 2007 (Zortuk, 2009). Although international tourism was generally deemed as an important sector, the

impact of foreign tourist expenditures on domestic production, can be best described as modest in the last five years, ranging between 2 – 5 % (Table 4).

Table 5. Tourism Revenue in GDP (%)

Years	Tourism Revenue (1000 \$)	Average Expenditure (\$)	Tourism Revenue in GDP (%)
2016	22.107.440	705	2,6
2017	26.283.656	681	3,1
2018	29.512.926	647	3,8
2019	34.520.332	666	4,6
2020	12.059.320	762	1,7

Ref. TÜRSAB2

Employment

Tourism is a leading job creator, and can help provide a wide range of diverse jobs for people of all ages and skill levels not only in major cities, but also in remote, rural, coastal and other often economically fragile locations where alternative opportunities may be limited (OECD). Tourism is a labor-intensive sector and it is quite important in terms of labor and consequently employment (Bozkurt & Bahar, 2015). Employment in tourism can be divided in two parts as direct employment and indirect employment. The direct employment effect of tourism is seen in services that have a direct or significant close relationship with tourists. Lodging, food and beverage business, travel agencies, tourist guides, entertainment business, transportation, gift shops, etc. are some of the examples. Indirect employment is the employment that occurs in the sectors producing for tourism. These are the construction and repair of touristic facilities etc. The employment increases during the summer months where it is called as the “peak season” covering April to October, and there is a serious decline in employment during the “low season” of October to April.

Comparing the employment figures of 2019 to 2020, there was a decline of 12,2 % in food & beverage employees, followed by a 12% decrease in travel agency and tour operator employees. The minimum decrease was for the employees in the lodging industry. There was a decrease of 9.8 % in total tourism employment in Turkey.

Table 6. Employment Figures

Sector	2019	2020	% Change
Food & Beverage	713,057	625,930	-12,2
Lodging	249,448	241,131	-3,3
Sports & Entertainment	54,786	49,285	-10,0
Travel Agency/Tour Operator	52,797	46,458	-12,0
Airlines	29,687	28,975	-2,4
Total Tourism Employees	1,099,775	991,779	-9,8
Total Employment	14,314,313	15,203,423	6,2
Total Tourism employment / Total Employment	%7,7	%6,5	

Ref. SGK

4. Impact of Covid 19 from the aspect of Tourism Professionals

Interviews were made with tourism professionals in order to find out their perceptions, reactions and management styles for Covid 19 pandemic. Each interview was around 50 to 90 minutes. A qualitative approach is concerned with

understanding individuals' perceptions of the world and seeking insights rather than statistical analysis (Silverman, 2005). Therefore, interviews were expected to provide data to understand how they reacted to the crises.

Table 7. List of Participants

Code	Profession
P1	Founder of a Turkish International Hotel Chain
P2	Hotel Investment Consultant
P3	International Hotel Chain/General Manager
P4	Hotel Marketing Manager
P5	Hotel General Manager

The results of the interviews concentrate mostly on the actions to manage the crisis of Covid-19 including precautions, changes as well as the increased use of digital marketing. Secondly, participants indicate their optimism and their views for the future.

Crisis Management

Covid-19 pandemic was a "trauma": "*Covid is a trauma for human beings, none of us could have predicted such a thing, but finally we learned to live with it*" (P2). Trust of the guests helped a lot to recover in the Covid-19 period of 2020 and 2021. "*We have an advantage of being a well known brand as our consumers trust in us*" (P1). Tourism professionals have various crisis experiences, although Covid-19 pandemic was similar to none of them: "*We have been through huge crises frequently, but of course this is not similiar to any crisis*" (P3).

Many concepts were changed as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic. Much of the service was taken to outdoor as much as possible: "*We decided to offer more natural of everything and took all of our facilities outside, instead of closed areas, as much as possible.*" (P1). People understood that actually open air attractions like gardens, sea, sun and sand were quite helpful to attract the guests as guests care about their health and nature more than the past: "*People are more sensitive to nature and health. Today, the greatest luxury is to offer people sea, sand, sun and a nice garden. We used to say that Tourism should go further than the sea, sand, sun triangle, actually now we understand that this triangle is such a strong triangle*" (P1). Hotels with such availabilities had an advantage: "*We have an advantage since we have big service areas, we have big gardens, we have long beaches. With the pandemic, they have become even more attractive*" (P1).

Precautions were taken and announcements were followed very carefully: "*We read the official circulars and followed the announcements and measures very carefully, first we were very panic, because it was something we never experienced, and we were pessimistic, then I saw that pessimism has no use to anyone. We had to progress no matter what, we had to be hopeful no matter what*" (P3). Precautions and measures offered other benefits like preventing overconsumption and hotels are inspected regularly: "*It was safe for all inclusive, there is a sterile environment, the overconsumption in the open buffet was prevented, the service quality increased, we do not experience any hygiene problems. The hotels are already taking very serious hygiene measures, the inspections increased, we are inspected twice a week, I speak for all the hotels that are professionally managed*" (P5). Hotel employees had a priority for vaccination: "*Vaccination started from open hotels*" (P5). It was necessary to find a way to continue unless the teams would be damaged. They kept their teams and fired nobody: "*We had to find a way to do our job, if I were pessimistic, I would have lost my team, and we started to learn how to manage this process. We never fired any employees because of Covid-19.*" (P3).

An adaptation was necessary to serve under the pandemic conditions, although this required a big investmen: "*In fact, we tried to adapt our service to Covid-19 conditions and still made big investments....*" (P1). A great number of employees were considered and ways to improve and get prepared were the main themes to be solved: "*We have over 10,000 employees, I had to bring them all back to work. We were all psychologically affected. We decided two main points: 1. Let's improve ourselves, 2. Let's prepare our hotels to the new era. How will we prepare*" (P1).

Reservations were quite high from all over the world as the guests were offered attractive services with many availabilities: "*People from all over the world are demanding, actually we are getting high reservations*" (P1). Digital marketing techniques were intensively used. As an example activities were published on web-sites with each hotel having a different concept. Investments and projects still contiue: "*We announce our annual activities on our website. The concept of each hotel is different. Our biggest store is our web page. We are currently trying to navigate in*

the dark. The situation of hotel management and the pandemic is obvious, but we continue almost all of our projects and investments» (P1). They improved their websites and revised their OTA sales: *“We improved the content of our website. We wanted to attract sales made in channels such as OTA (booking com, we achieved it gradually over the years, it was 60% direct sales, 40% OTA sales, we were able to withdraw it as 90% direct sales and 10% as OTA, our aim here is not only to have the 20% that we gave them but we want to provide better service directly to our customers”* (P5).

They developed new marketing distribution channels that were effective to increase reservations: *“We made presentations to the CIS market in digital media, as B2C and B2B, we shared our content on social media. We also have an agency system in Russia, agency employees earn a holiday with the number of bookings they make, working on this campaign, we received a lot of demand from Russia, we established contacts with agencies of tour operators in the CIS countries. They became our partners, we developed our relations with them, eventually these are the people who sell the hotels, we tried to keep our relations very well”* (P4).

Future Expectations

There is a serious optimism to recover in the following years after 2020: *“... In 2020, we opened our door a little bit, and more than 10 million people came to our country, this year, with the support of the vaccine and the support of the measures, our country will catch the occupancy rates of the same period of 2019, especially starting from July onwards. We will even sell the seats in our hotels in 2022, I believe so....”* (P2). Even if tourism was seriously affected, it would recover very soon: *“Tourism is affected in the most negative way, however it also recovers the fastest, investor motivation is low for the time being”* (P2). *“We closed our hotel for 2 months, just like all the other hotels. But we are the one who reopened fastest”* (P3). New investments are expected especially for 3 or 4 star hotels after a short period of turbulence: *“During the pandemic, people wanted to keep cash and new investments have slowed down a bit, but we hear a lot of rebranding, changing hands, selling, after this period we expect an increase in investments, especially for 3 or 4 star hotels»* (P2). *“I think we will have a quiet period for the next 4-5 years for new investments, Most of the existing newly opened hotels are the projects that started before Covid 19. Subsequently, the sector grows, people want to travel, national income per capita in the world increases, transportation opportunities increase, social media, etc. people see everything, wonder what they see, want to experience what they are curious about”* (P2).

Professionals feel optimistic for the future of Tourism in Turkey: *“In any case, Tourism will recover very fastly. I am optimistic”* (P2). They thought that the pandemic crisis was managed well : *“I think Turkey is managing very successfully, the second half of the season is very important: Safe hotels, vaccine, strong health system, etc. Turkey managed very well, even we did not have a single bad image from the hospitals in the world press”* (P3). Turkey was successful: *“We are far below 2019, but Turkey has a serious success, we expect 35 million tourists in a year when planes do not fly”*(P3).

In addition to their optimistic view for the future, they planned to offer new concepts to their guests above their expectations: *“We had a good season in 2020. With the start of the vaccine, we look forward to have a good season also in 2021. During this period, we renewed our concepts, we tried to develop new concepts in gastronomy, we created concepts that will exceed the expectations of our guests and we gave high importance to communication”* (P4). Besides optimistic views, the season was expected to be finalized without great expectations for 2021: *“Full closure was negative for hotels. We are opening on May 17, but there will be a recovery period, the season will actually start in June, we do not have great expectations”* (P5).

5. Conclusion and Discussion

Tourism industry faced many major disruptive events since 2000 which included the September 11 terrorist attacks (2001), the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak (2003), the global economic crisis unfolding in 2008/2009 and the 2015 Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) outbreak (Gössling et al. 2020). However, none of them led to a longer-term decline in the global development of tourism and some of them were not even notable with only SARS (-0.4 %) and the global economic crisis (-4.0%) leading to declines in international arrivals (World Bank, 2020). Covid-19 pandemic caused major changes in many industries as well as tourism. Even, if the action of prevention is not managed properly, the tourism industry may face more decremental effects that creates economic collapse (Bakar & Rosbi, 2020:189).

Turkey has been progressing fastly in tourism and has rich historical, natural and cultural touristic attractions as well as high quality lodging facilities. The tourism professionals are well experienced and ready to take any kind of precaution for a sustainable tourism. Tourism in Turkey is focused largely on a variety of historical sites, and on

seaside resorts along its Aegean and Mediterranean coasts (Kervankiran, 2015). Turkey has 7,200 km of coastline and ranks 3rd among all countries with its 463 blue-flag beaches. Tourism has a high potential to contribute to the Turkish economy as a result of a good planning and well-developed tourism policies. Tourism industry is one of the most important sources of growth in Turkey, and tourism is an important cause of economic growth for the long term (Çoban & Özcan, 2013). Although Turkish authorities still hold high targets in terms of tourism revenue, the tourism economy has been heavily hit by the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, and measures were introduced to contain its spread. Beyond immediate measures to support the tourism sector, countries try to develop recovery measures.

The results of the analysis of tourism figures for Turkish tourism point out some significant information. First of all, there is a loss of tourism income of – 69,4 % comparing January-September 2019 and 2020. There is a decline of 120.000 tourism employees in 2020. The number of inbound tourists decreased by %58,3 (TÜRSAB3, 2020). In addition, the analysis of the interviews with tourism professionals imply two main themes as a result of the content analysis: crisis management and future expectations.

Currently, tourism industry is trying to recover out of the Covid 19 pandemic which requires a great coordination and cooperation involving all the stakeholders. UNWTO (2020) reported that the cooperation of the tourism sector will be vital in stopping the spread of the virus and limiting its impact on people and communities. Many countries are also now developing measures to build a more resilient tourism economy post COVID-19. These include preparing plans to support the sustainable recovery of tourism, promoting the digital transition and move to a greener tourism system, and rethinking tourism for the future (UNCTAD).

Addressing these and other challenges faced by the tourism sector requires an integrated, forward-looking approach to policy formulation and implementation. Governments need new analysis, data and approaches that are calibrated to the fast-changing tourism sector. Tourism policy frameworks will need to be adapted to take account of and respond to these developments. At national level, co-ordination measures are well developed and long term strategies are in place in many countries to optimise tourism's economic and social benefits, while minimising its negative environmental impacts. The next challenge for many governments is to ensure that the policies and measures agreed at a national level can be consistently delivered at sub-national level, ensuring that local communities and the regions in which they are located can fully share the benefits of well-planned and managed tourism, and flourish in the longer term (OECD).

Tourism has a strong economic and social impact on local businesses and the local community. Tourism Strategy of Turkey has an objective as rerouting all tourism investments toward reducing the imbalances of welfare and development imbalances throughout the country and treats them with an approach that safeguards, conserves and improves the natural, historical, cultural, and social environment. On the average, it is possible to say that regional development has slowed down in 2020 compared to previous years due to the pandemic. Although, it has faced a serious decline in economic figures which are in congruence with the world figures, Turkey expects a fast recovery from the pandemic with a significant target for 2022.

References

- Bakar, N. A., & Rosbi, S. (2020). Effect of Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) to tourism industry. *International Journal of Advanced Engineering Research and Science*, 7(4).
- Bozkurt, K., & Bahar, O. (2015). Talep Şokları: Türk Turizm Sektörü İçin Bir Analiz. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 26(1), 29-41.
- Çoban, O. and Özcan, C. C. (2013), “Türkiye’de Turizm Gelirleri-Ekonomik Büyüme İlişkisi: Nedensellik Analizi (1963–2010)”, *Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, 8 (1), pp. 243–261.
- Del Chiappa, G., Bregoli, I., & Fotiadis, A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on the Italian accommodation sector and related response actions: A supply-perspective using a mixed method approach. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 7(1), 13-22.
- Del Valle A.S., (2020). The Tourism Industry and the Impact of Covid-19, Scenarios and Proposals, Global Journey Consulting, comm@worldshoppingtourism.com.
- Ennew, C. (2003), “Understanding the Economic Impact of Tourism”, *World*, 477, pp. 463–466.
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism and global change: a rapid assessment of COVID-19. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(1), 1-20.
- Grech, V., Grech, P., & Fabri, S. (2020). A risk balancing act–tourism competition using health leverage in the COVID-19 era. *International Journal of Risk & Safety in Medicine*, 31(3), 121-130.
- Gyoder, Turizm ve Otel, <http://gyodergosterge.com/detay/turizm%20ve%20otel> (Access Date: 20.10.2021).
- ILO. (2020). “COVID-19 and employment in the tourism sector: Impact and response in Asia and the Pacific”, https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/briefingnote/wcms_742664.pdf (Access date: 17.10.2021).
- Kaya,İ. (2012). “Türk Turizm Sektöründe İstihdamın Temel Özelliklerinin ve Sorunlarının Ücretli Çalışanlar Açısından Coğrafi Bölgelere Göre Analizi”, *Balıkesir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 15(28), 241-257.
- Kervankiran, I. (2015), “Contribution of the Five Year Development Plans to Tourism in Turkey”, *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 10 (2), pp. 587–610.
- KTB1, Tourism Strategy of Turkey, 2023, KTB, https://www.ktb.gov.tr/Eklenti/43537,turkeytourismstrategy2023pdf.pdf?0&_tag1=796689BB12A540BE0672E65E48D10C07D6DAE291 (Access date: 20.10.2021).
- KTB2, (Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı),Turizm İstatistikleri <https://yigm.ktb.gov.tr/Eklenti/81939,3103turizmistatistikleri2020-4pdf.pdf?0> (Access Date: 29.05.2021, 08:24 a.m.).
- KTB3, <https://yigm.ktb.gov.tr/TR-9851/turizm-istatistikleri.html> (Access Date: 20.10.2021).
- OECD, OECD Tourism Trends and Policies 2020, <https://www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/OECD-Tourism-Trends-Policies%202020-Highlights-ENG.pdf> (Access Date: 17.10.2021).
- Savaş, B., Beşkaya, A., and Şamiloğlu, F. (2012), “Analyzing the Impact of International Tourism on Economic Growth in Turkey”, *Uluslararası Yönetim İktisat ve İşletme Dergisi*, 6 (12), pp. 121–136.
- SGK, İstatistik Yıllıkları, http://www.sgk.gov.tr/wps/portal/sgk/tr/kurumsal/istatistik/sgk_istatistik_yilliklari (Access Date: 14.10.2021).
- Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Stynes, D. J. (1997), *Economic Impacts of Tourism*, Illinois Bureau of Tourism, Department of Commerce and Community Affairs.
- TİM, <https://tim.org.tr/tr/ihracat-rakamlari> (Access Date: 15.10.2021).
- TÜİK, <https://data.tuik.gov.tr/> (Access Date: 17.10.2021).

- Turizm Günlüğü, <https://www.turizmgunlugu.com/2021/03/25/turkiyedeki-otel-sayisi/> (Access Date: 20.10.21).
- TÜRSAB1, Turizmin Ekonomideki Yeri, <https://www.tursab.org.tr/istatistikler/turizmin-ekonomideki-yeri> (Access Date: 16.10.2021).
- TÜRSAB2, Turizm Gelirleri, <https://www.tursab.org.tr/istatistikler-icerik/turizm-geliri> (Access Date: 16.10.2021).
- TÜRSAB3, Covid-19 Sürecinde Türkiye ve Dünya Turizmi Değerlendirmesi. Aralık <https://tursab.org.tr/apps/Files/Content/6ad52b35-1dd2-41c2-9f1c-c24cc19e7a63.pdf> (Access date: 04.03.2021).
- UNCTAD, https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/ditcinf2020d3_en.pdf, (Access Date: 21.10.2021).
- UNWTO , <https://www.unwto.org/news/tourist-arrivals-down-87-in-january-2021-as-unwto-calls-for-stronger-coordination-to-restart-tourism> (Access Date: 15.10.2021).
- UNWTO , Vaccines and Reopen Borders Driving Tourism’s Recovery, <https://www.unwto.org/news/vaccines-and-reopen-borders-driving-tourism-s-recovery> (Access Date: 10.10.21).
- UNWTO ,International Tourism Highlights (2019), <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421152> (Access Date: 15.10.2021).
- Zortuk, M. (2009), Economic Impact of Tourism on Turkey’s Economy: Evidence from Cointegration Tests”, International Research Journal of Finance and Economics, 25 (3), pp. 231–239.
- WEF, The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report 2019, https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TTCR_2019.pdf, (Access Date: 20.10.2021).
- World Bank, International Tourism, number of arrivals. from <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ST.INT.ARVL> (Access date: 17.10.2021)

Innovation in tourism as a strategy for blue tourism development in Albania

Besarta Vladi¹, Kejda Nuhu²

¹Barleti University, Albania

ORCID: 0000-0002-2464-2943

E-mail: bv.besartavladi@gmail.com

²Barleti University, Albania

ORCID: 0000-0003-4760-1287

E-mail: co.research@umb.edu.al

Abstract

The main objective of this study is to analyze the role that investment in innovation can play, as a safe mechanism, for the recovery of the tourism sector in the post-covid period in Albania. The research questions: What are the factors that prevent private businesses in touristic (coastal) areas from investing in innovation? What are the types of innovation that will have the greatest impact on the recovery of blue tourism in Albania? This will be an analytical study, based on primary and secondary data. Primary data are collected through in-depth interviews with business executives (hotels, restaurants, travel agencies) in Albania. The interview has semi-structured and open questions. The snowball sampling method is used to gather qualitative data. The population is large SMEs operating in this part of Albania (in tourism industries). Data analysis is based on descriptive analyses. We have also used NVivo12 software to analyze the qualitative results. The results of the study show that investment in innovative services and innovation in marketing are the two main types of innovation, which will help the recovery and sustainable development of blue tourism in Albania.

Keywords: Innovation, Tourism, Innovation in Business, Innovation in Marketing

1. Introduction

Coastal and maritime tourism (blue tourism) is one of the most important economic sectors for countries with attractive destinations such as Albania. However, tourism (in general) is one of the most affected sectors during the Covid-19 pandemic period. If we refer to the World Tourism Barometer, in the period January-October 2020, the number of foreign tourists fell approximately 72% globally, compared to a year before (WTB, 2020; Bakar, N.A., & Rosbi, S. 2020; Jamal, T., & Budke, C. 2020). The forecasts for 2020 planned the second half of 2021, as a potential opportunity for the gradual return of tourism to normality, a plan which looks to be increasingly difficult.

Tour operators in Albania have been facing the consequences of the pandemic crisis for more than a year now. The number of foreign tourists in Albania during 2020 was less than half of those of the previous year (about 2.4 mil in 2020, compared to 6.1 mil in 2019.) (INSTAT, 2020). In these circumstances, a great commitment of several actors is required in parallel, in order to contribute to the recovery of this sector, in the shortest possible time. New trends of tourism such as health and dental tourism, are still new for Albanian context and do not contribute a lot to the general incomes from the tourism sector on a national level.

In terms of expert forecasts for 2021, although it is expected to be better than the one we left behind, it will not be a normal situation compared with the tourism statistics before the pandemic. Despite vaccination programs launched in many countries it will be difficult for countries to fully alleviate restrictions. According to the Albanian Tourism Association and other global tourism consultants, the optimistic scenario is that maybe the summer of 2022 will mark the turning point towards normality.

The main objective of this study is to analyze the role that investment in innovation can play, as a safe and strategic mechanism, for the recovery of the tourism sector in the post-Covid19 period in Albania. The research questions of the study are: What are the factors that prevent private businesses in touristic (coastal) areas from investing in

innovation? What are the types of innovation that will have the greatest impact on the recovery of blue tourism in Albania?

The main reason why these companies do not invest in innovation is because of financial issues. The lack of investment in innovation is also related to the lack of information about the role and types of innovation in business. The results of this study will help tourism stakeholders in different directions, but with the same purpose: Improving the development of the tourism sector in Albania, through innovation. Touristic Operators learn the role and the importance of innovation in their sustainable development. The political actors learn how to support innovation in tourism through different policies, mechanisms and activities that foster innovation. Researchers of innovation in tourism get some insights about the relationship between innovation and the tourism sector during a crisis. In the future, other interesting areas of research might be interesting such as: Innovation in business models in tourism; the digitalization of touristic destinations; blue tourism and service innovation etc.

2.Literature review

Innovation (a product, process, service, marketing technique, organizational structure, or market) is considered as one of the main forces of development. For developing countries such as Albania, radical innovation rarely happens because SMEs, governance or individuals choose to undertake less risk and to make small and gradual improvements in their daily activities. According to Schumpeter (1934) innovation is the introduction of a new product or bringing a different feature of an existing product. In 2009, OECD gave the definition of eco innovation, considering it as: “the creation of new, or significantly improved, products (goods and services), processes, marketing methods, organizational structures and institutional arrangements which, with or without intent, lead to environmental improvements compared to relevant alternatives” (p.40). “Cultural tourism clusters are appropriate for the development of a business model in which eco-innovation plays an important role due to its implications for social and institutional structures.” (Martínez-Perez, García-Villaverde & Elche, 2015, p. 1).

There are few studies on innovation in the tourism sector. Referring to Isik et al. (2019) we can classify innovation in tourism in five classes as: 1. product innovation; 2. service innovation; 3. process innovation; 4. management innovation; 5. organizational innovation. When it comes to the current trends of coastal and marine tourism, there are three main types of tourism: beach resort tourism, cruise tourism —both components of the mass tourism market— as well as ecotourism (UN World Tourism Organization, 2019). Beach resort tourism is a mass-tourism offer with popular and affordable products for local and global travelers. Cruise tourism is ‘a form of travelling for leisure or sport purposes that involves an all-inclusive holiday on a cruise ship’. The UNWTO defines cruise tourism as “a wide range of activities for travelers in addition to its traditional function of providing transport and accommodation. The last one, ecotourism is ‘catering for tourists wishing to experience the natural environment without damaging it or disturbing its habitats. It is a form of tourism involving responsible travel to natural areas, conserving the environment, and improving the well-being of the local people’.

Sustainable development and economic growth of western countries has shown that the development of a sector is closely related with other sectors. If we discuss education development, it is definitely related with the development of other sectors such as infrastructure, public institutions, governance transparency, technology development, R&D etc. Tourism, despite the consequences of the pandemic, should follow technological sector development, in order to rapidly recover these consequences. Investing in one or all types of innovation and digital transformation is an un-negotiated condition for the development of the tourism sector in Albania.

Innovation in products differs from innovation in service sectors in terms of the level of customer involvement. In most cases, customers are part of this innovation in the service sector such as tourism, especially at the implementation phase. Service innovation is defined as the strategy put into practice to gain a competitive advantage, which includes the activities proposed to improve the ever-changing customer demands (Faria and Gomes, 2016).

According to Camison & Monfort-Mir (2012) there are particular characteristics of the tourism sector that distinguish it from other sectors, which somehow complicate the process of innovation in this sector or damage it. In general, these factors are: heterogeneity and the lack of quality standards; the fragmented nature of the industry, dominated by small companies; low level of technology creation; the weak disposition toward cooperation and collaboration in innovation among tourist companies. These structural characteristics of the tourism sector are quite evident in Albania and the Region. Nevertheless, research-based knowledge on innovation strategies in tourism sector remains scarce and insufficient to make generalization (Clausen & Madsen, 2014)

After all consequences of the Covid-19 pandemic, innovation is a valuable opportunity for tourism sector recovery and sustainable development. According to Brooker & Jopper (2014) most operators of touristic areas prefer

maintaining the status quo by realizing minor improvements in their daily base activities. In these conditions, painters, artisans and artists seem to be a source of innovation in the touristic area. As Haywood (2013) emphasizes, if innovation is to be an effective strategy within tourism, it needs to be inclusive rather than exclusive, so alternative sources of innovation in tourism such as painters, artisans and artists can easily play this role. From the other side, tourism enterprises need to innovate systematically to create competitive advantages and to be attractive for their clients (Razafindravelo, 2017). Innovation should be considered as the driving force of long-term and sustainable growth for the tourism sector. To provide a stable and sustainable competitive advantage in a dynamic environment, it is a strategic necessity for enterprises (even touristic one) to improve their innovation capabilities (Sharif and Huang, 2012).

Regardless of current studies on tourism and innovation mentioned above, the role of innovation in the tourism sector is strongly related with the crucial role and impact that tourism sector has in the economic development. Tourism is one of the fastest-growing industries in Albania and the world. The market structure of tourism in Albania has become more saturated, especially in recent years, where customers choose our touristic destinations from different countries of the world. In this context, innovation becomes a crucial development strategy for this sector. Considering the fact that innovation among tourism enterprises, for a long time now, is characterized by a low propensity for the development of new products is a very good starting point for investment in innovation development in this sector. All countries need to identify and develop the right mechanism for moving from low tourism incomes to the over tourism (Dodds and Butler, 2019).

Albania, as a developing country, has a lot to learn from developed countries and their tourism development strategies. Blue tourism, as one of the main types of tourism in Albania, needs specific focus and investment, in order to recover and develop gradually or immediately after the pandemic. Investing in innovation in Blue Tourism, seems to be not only a missing point, but also an underestimated factor, for its role in tourism sustainable development.

3. Research methodology

As we have previously mentioned in the abstract, this will be an analytical study, based on primary and secondary data. Primary data are collected through in-depth interviews with business executives (hotels, restaurants, travel agencies) in the coastal areas of Saranda, Vlora, Durres and Lezha (15 interviews) in Albania. The interview has semi-structured and open questions (5 semi-structured questions and 5 open questions). The snowball sampling method is used to gather qualitative data. The population is large SMEs operating in this part of Albania (in tourism industries). Data analysis is based on descriptive analyses of interview's results. We have also used NVivo12 software to analyze the qualitative results of the interviews.

There are two basic schools of thought which tend to explain factors that drive innovation in the organization. The first school, known as the *School of Market-based Factors*, defends the thesis that it is market conditions that drive or hinder a company's capacity to initiate innovative ideas and expand its innovation activities. (Porter, 1985). According to this approach, there are factors of the external organizational environment that positively or negatively influence the level of innovation in the organization. For all the advantages this approach may have, the probability that companies control the external organizational environment is relatively low. (Trott, 2005). Consequently, the application of this approach does not guarantee a detailed and promising analysis for the improvement of business strategies (including innovative capacities) in the future.

On the other hand, the second school, known as the *Resource-based School*, focuses on the firm's internal environment, its internal resources and capacities that it can utilize in order to promote and successfully implement innovation (Eisenhardt & Martin 2000; Trott 2005). Some of these resources are considered financial resources, human resources, cooperative skills of the firm, leadership skills, research and development skills, etc. For the purpose of this paper, we decided to use the second theory, Resource based one, because it explains better what we wanted to analyze, from the touristic companies' perspective.

This study took place in two different periods of time. The first qualitative research was done after collecting primary data through in-depth interviews with business executives (hotels, restaurants, travel agencies) in the coastal areas of Saranda, Vlora, Durres and Lezha (15 interviews) in Albania, as part of a BLUE_BOOST project, a ADRION project.-BOOSTing the innovation potential of the triple helix of Adriatic-Ionian traditional and emerging BLUE growth sectors clusters through an open source/knowledge sharing and community-based approach (financed from the European Regional Development Fund of the EU). The chosen population was SME operating in this part of Albania (in tourism industries). The snowball sampling method was used to gather qualitative data. The interview had semi-structured and open questions (5 semi-structured questions and 5 open questions). Data analysis was based on descriptive content

analyses of interview results run with NVivo12. Coding is used to decompose the transcribed interview materials word by word, sentence by sentence, and paragraph by paragraph in order to give a conceptual definition to individual events or phenomena, and gradually conceptualize and categorize to develop themes. As Vaismorandi et. al. (2016) argues theme is used as attribute, descriptor, element, and concept; as an implicit topic that organizes a group of repeating ideas, it enables researchers to answer the study question; it contains codes that have a common point of reference and has a high degree of generality that unifies ideas regarding the subject of inquiry. We did follow their conceptualization framework in developing the themes and their guidelines in relation to time of reviewing the literature and the developing of the themes.

According to Vaismoradi et. al (2016) while engagement with existing literature prior to data collection is characteristic of most qualitative methods, it is strongly suggested that an in-depth literature review is postponed until after most data collection is completed to prevent introducing bias and perceived notions. It allows themes to emerge naturally from the empirical data during analysis, uninhibited by extant theoretical frameworks and associated hypotheses. Even though this was difficult for us since we had theoretical knowledge of the study phenomenon, we wanted to explore at its best the causes and reasons of the phenomenon of not investing in innovation processes, products, business models in the SMEs operating in the tourism sector in Albania. Since the innovation phenomenon and its potential is only recently discussed in Albania, the studies regarding the topic are lacking, let alone the exploration of the difficulties in a specific sector.

As Ryan and Bernard (2003) claim, once the themes are developed and the literature is studied, researchers can claim that they are ready to formulate theme statements, link themes into theoretical models to develop the study's story line. The three emerged themes, the themes statement and their discussion will be reported in the next session.

The second step of the research happened in 2021 when we re-contacted the SMEs involved in the first study, in order to interview them regarding the second question of this study. The re-contacting of the SMEs took place for two main reasons:

- Covid 19 caused one of the worst crises in the tourism sector, and these SMEs experienced it in the summer of 2020.
- The SMEs involved in the first study, in 2019, were involved in a training process that led to the creation of Blue Labs. The aim of this training was to teach these organizations regarding the importance of the innovation process in order to maximize their profits, to be competitive and deliver better service for their customers. The trainers exploited and explored together with the organizations the tools and methods of innovation that can successfully be involved in their products, processes and business models.

In the second part of the study the research methodology used was grounded theory in order to develop theory regarding the investigated research question: What are the types of innovation that will have the greatest impact on the recovery of blue tourism in Albania?

Styraus and Corbin (1998) describe grounded theory as a systematic inductive methodology involving the construction of theory through analyzing and summarizing data. Grounded theory emphasizes improving the theory by facts and experience and proposes the formation of the theoretical framework through several steps, such as continuously collecting and analyzing data, comparing and supplementing data, summarizing data, refining concepts, developing categories and the relationship among them (Pandit, N.R,1996). The interviewing process this time had a clearer purpose if we accord to Holloway (1997: 94) suggestion: that the interview is a 'conversation with a purpose. We expected the SMEs involved in the study to had developed knowledge regarding the potential of innovation for their competitiveness and wanted to explore the types of innovation that they expected to have the greatest impact in their post Covid recovery.

The main challenge of this study was dealing with a new topic for the participants from Albanian SMEs and their top-level management employees created the necessity for introduction and concept definitions at the beginning of the study. Since the Albanian economy is characterized as a transformative industry instead of a production oriented one, somehow justify the lack of information about innovation in business level. The gap in the knowledge and adoption of the innovation processes, practices and culture in SMEs is explained in more detail in the findings section of this paper.

4.Findings and analysis

Findings of the descriptive coding and thematic analysis will be here reported and discussed.

After descriptive coding in NVivo12 we distinguished 3 themes regarding the constraints of innovating for the SME included in the study.

- lack of funds for innovating (and visible and immediate ROI following financing new business models or processes)
- lack of knowledge
- lack of staff/people

The emerging themes enable us to answer the research question R.Q1: What are the factors that prevent private businesses in touristic (coastal) areas from investing in innovation?

Table no.1: Results of NVivo12 coding process (step one)

Theme	Original (translated) Statement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of funds 	<p><i>Costs to deal with specific parameters and data as skeletal remains, humidity, temperature, conservation period, product quantities per day (Lissus Adria).</i></p> <p><i>Lack funds for the implementation of systems for real time management of the visitors' booking (Regina Group).</i></p> <p><i>Lack of a specialized laboratory for mussel and fish analyses (Shtepia e Midhjes).</i></p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of knowledge 	<p><i>Lack of expertise on fishery management and monitoring systems that exist for the monitoring of production capacities for fish enterprises that will bring improvement of service quality (Acquario Sali Peshk).</i></p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of staff/people 	<p><i>Lack of the experienced staff who agrees to work seasonally (Rafaello Resort).</i></p> <p><i>Lack of a specialized laboratory for mussel and fish analyses (Shtepia e Midhjes).</i></p> <p><i>Lack of the qualified local staff, willing to work in the fishing sector (Acquario Sali Peshk).</i></p>

We also used NVivo12 to run the word frequency query, to quantitatively analyze the results of the interviews, to confirm the results of the thematic analysis.

The second part of the study, the same coding process but for the grounded theory purpose instead of thematic analysis. The coding analysis of the interview data allowed us to answer the RQ2: What are the types of innovation that will have the greatest impact on the recovery of blue tourism in Albania? and lead us to explore two categories of innovation that seemed as the most adapted to help the SMEs recover the blue tourism in Albania, after covid 19 crises.

Table no.2: Results of NVivo12 coding process (step two)

Theme	Coding	Original (translated)Statement
process innovation	the capacity-building	<i>A valuable human resource-based capacity building, where the trained people will be the actors for adapting ecological monitoring methodology for monitoring the abiotic parameters inside and nearby the farm from the moment of implementing in the farm in the Bay of Vlora as:</i>

		<p><i>-Integrating new knowledge</i></p> <p><i>-Strengthening its competitiveness by</i></p> <p><i>-Saving energy Protecting environment and minimizing risks of conflicts (ALB-ADRIATICO 2013)</i></p> <p><i>eg..The capacity-building of the staff and leadership and increased awareness on the importance of continuous improvements and innovative solutions to existing problems, challenges and process shortcomings. The gained knowledge and capacities will be used to improve the existing processes and increase the overall competitiveness of the company. (Lissus Adria)</i></p> <p><i>eg: Separation of ownership from management.Business Model Improvement of managerial efficiency(Rafaello Resort).</i></p>
product innovation	new products and innovative communication elements	<p><i>eg: we are a company that process fileting sardine and anchovy fish at 10 ton/day and generates the waste (skeletons, intestines ect.) The utilizing of the fish waste to product the meal bone fish while indicate to grow our capacity. The utilizing of waste will be an innovation that will give benefits to us (Lissus Company).</i></p> <p><i>eg. We propose the application of an ad-hoc ecological monitoring methodology, which will be integrated to the routinely performed activities - in order to fulfil all the requirement for a Sustainable and Environmentally Friendly Aquaculture (ALB-ADRIATICO2013).</i></p> <p><i>eg. we want to provide a cookbook with the most traditional and popular receipts. We want the the content of the book at presenting different receipts of the restaurant through different stories, the design of the book follows the same logic - storytelling through text and sketches. So, inside the book will be found the list of the ingredients for each receipt and a detailed description of the cooking process. The images are brought in the effect of the animated figures, making the book easier to read, more attractive and entertaining (Rapsodia)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>eg. We identified marketing tools to reach the set objectives:</i> • <i>We restyled the hotel brand. It was upgraded into an attractive and in-style brand.</i> • <i>We realized a video spot</i> • <i>We designed several visual identity docs such as: letterhead, business card, uniforms, hotel elements, brochure, etc.</i> • <i>We designed and deployed the hotel website (Hotel Bologna)</i>

5. Discussion

This is an original study with the main focus on the role of innovation in competitiveness and growth in the tourism sector in Albania. The results of the study show that investment in innovative services and innovation in marketing are the two main types of innovation, which will help the recovery and sustainable development of blue tourism in Albania. The main reason why these companies do not invest in innovation is because of financial issues.

The lack of investment in innovation is also related to the lack of information about the role and types of innovation in business. But the covid 19 crises, intended as a negative financial year due to an extremely reduced number of tourists, made the SMEs view innovation as a profitable tool for their competitiveness. This fact was easy to distinguish during the second step of the study when all participants of the study were re-contacted from us. Actually, they do understand that innovation can help them to be competitive in the coming years, as returning to normality with changed customers and consequently, a changed tourist’s behavior. It is with great surprise that some of the SMEs are

taking into consideration the sustainability issues during their business activities. In the future this will increase the numbers of tourists into their businesses, their level of satisfaction and their ability to be competitive in Albania and the region, alongside bringing social and environment benefits.

6. Conclusions

The results of this study will help tourism stakeholders in different directions, but with the same purpose: Improving the development of the tourism sector in Albania, through innovation. Touristic Operators will benefit from the findings of the study since they will learn the role and the importance of innovation in their sustainable development. The political actors, considering the study results, can learn and gain guidelines on how to support innovation in tourism through different policies, mechanisms and activities that foster innovation. And finally, the researchers of innovation in tourism discipline get some insights about the relationship between innovation and the tourism sector during a crisis. In the future, other interesting areas of research might be explored such as: Innovation in business models in tourism; the digitalization of touristic destinations; blue tourism and service innovation etc.

References

- Bakar, N.A., & Rosbi, S. (2020). Effect of Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) to tourism industry. *International Journal of Advanced Engineering Research and Science*, 7(4), 189-193. <https://doi.org/10.22161/ijaers.74.23> [Accessed the 28th of March 2021, 16:25]
- Brooker, E. and Joppe, M. (2014). Developing a Tourism Innovation Typology: Leveraging Liminal Insights. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 53(4): 500–508
- Camison, C., & Monfort-Mir, V. M. (2012). Measuring innovation in tourism from the Schumpeterian and the dynamic-capabilities perspectives. *Management in Tourism*, 33, 776–789. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.08.012> [Accessed the 9th of January 2021, 11:10]
- Clausen, T.H. & Madsen, E.L. (2014). Innovations, their knowledge sources and their effects in experience-base tourism. In G.A. Alsos, D. Eide, & E.L. Madson (Eds.), *Handbook of research on innovation in tourism industries*, pp. 113-131.
- Del Chiappa, G., Bregoli, I., & Fotiadis, A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on the Italian accommodation sector and related response actions: A supply-perspective using a mixed method approach. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 7(1), 13-22.
- Dodds, R., & Butler, R. (2019). *Overtourism: Issues, realities and solutions*. De Gruyter Oldenbourg.
- Faria, A. C. S., and Gomes, C. F. S. (2016). *Service Innovation Performance Applied On Marketing Solution a Holistic Approach*.
- Haywood, M. (2013). Are We Placing Too Much Emphasis on Marketing Destinations Rather Than Putting More Funding and Effort into Developing the Products and Experiences Which Make up the Destination? http://www.linkedin.com/groupAnswers?viewQuestionAndAnswers=&discussionID=221297449&gid=152645&commentID=125340608&goback=%2Egmr_152645%2Eamf_152645_7548879&trk=NUS_DISC_Qsubject#commentID_125340608 [Accessed the 15th of April 2021, 13:15]
- Holloway, I. (1997) *Basic Concepts for Qualitative Research*. Oxford: Blackwell Science
- Isiki et al. (2019) 'Tourism and innovation: A literature review'. *Journal of Economy*. 2, 88-154.
- Jamal, T., & Budke, C. (2020). Tourism in a world with pandemics: Local-global responsibility and action. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 6(2), 181-188. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-02-2020-0014> [Accessed the 18th of February 2021, 21:20]
- Karim, W., Haque, A., Anis, Z., & Ulfy, M.A. (2020). The movement control order (MCO) for COVID-19 crisis and its impact on tourism and hospitality sector in Malaysia. *International Tourism and Hospitality Journal*, 3(2), 1-07. <https://doi.org/10.37227/ithj-2020-02-09> [Accessed the 15th of February 2021, 18:30]
- Korinth, B., & Ranasinghe, R. (2020). COVID-19 pandemic's impact on tourism in Poland in March 2020. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 31(3), 987– 990. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.31308-531> [Accessed the 19th of February 2021, 20:00]
- Martínez-Perez, A., García-Villaverde, P. M., & Elche, D. (2015). Eco-innovation antecedents in cultural tourism clusters: External relationships and explorative knowledge. *Innovation*, 17(1), 41e57. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14479338.2015.1011058>
- OECD (2009) *Eco-Innovation in Industry: Enabling Green Growth*, OECD Publishing, Paris.
- Pandit, N.R.(1996) The creation of theory: A recent application of the grounded theory method. *Qual. Rep.*, 2, 1–15.
- Razafindravelo, V. (2017). *Typology of innovation strategies in Tourism and Hospitality industries*. Master Thesis
- Ryan GW, Bernard HR. (2003) Techniques to identify themes. *Field Methods*.; 15(1): 85-109. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1525822X02239569>
- Schumpeter, J. (1934). *The Theory of Economic Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Sharif, N., and Huang, C. (2012). Innovation Strategy, Firm Survival and Relocation: The Case of Hong Kong-Owned Manufacturing In Guangdong Province, China. *Research Policy*, 41(1), 69-78.

- Vaismoradi M, Turunen, J Jones, H Snelgrove S. (2016). Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice* 6(5):100-110.
- World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2020). *Travel and Tourism Economic Impact*. World Travel and Tourism Council, London. <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2020.pdf>

Exploratory Study on Wine Tourism of Karnataka

Thashneem Thaqseen Bhanu¹, Prasanna Kumar J.P.²

¹Research Scholar, Ramaiah University of Applied Sciences, India.

ORCID: 0000-0002-3547-5116

E-mail: riverintheheaven@gmail.com

²Professor, Ramaiah University of Applied Sciences, India

ORCID: 0000-0002-8703-438X

E-mail: prasannakumar.ms.hc@msruas.ac.in

Abstract

The aim of this study was to use a three-stage tourism model suggested by Carmichael and Senese to recognise the present scenario of wine tourism in the state and to recommend strategies to improve enotourism in Karnataka. The research used a three-stage tourism model to assess the stages of Karnataka wineries. Various methodologies were used in this regard, that includes documentary search in promotional brochures, specialized magazines, and academic journals, website of wineries and tourism promotion of the state. A structured one to one interview was conducted with winery owners/winemakers of 15 wineries of Karnataka. For purposes of confidentiality, the wineries' names are not revealed; instead, they are coded with alphabets. The study's results indicate that ten wineries are in stage one of the three-stage tourism model, four wineries are in stage two, and one winery is in stage three. The main contributions are the study identified the following factors that are lacking in the Karnataka wineries namely, network between wineries and other tourist attractions, no wine route, joint promotion and special events, no organization of wine festivals with alliance of wineries, no dissemination of information and less flow of tourists and no involvement of public and private entities. Finally, the study has proposed six different wine routes and its requirements and advantages to take maximum advantage.

Keywords: Wine Tourism, Karnataka Wines, 3-Stage Tourism Model, Wine Route

1. Introduction

Karnataka started to produce wine from the year 1988, from one winery then it's become a wine producing region of India with 15 wineries now. In India, next to Maharashtra, the second largest wine producer with 30% growth rate annually is Karnataka. The state has around 9,700 hectares of land under grape cultivation. More than 1,67 lakh tones are produced annually. The new wine policy 2007 has led to the growth of the industry where more players started to establish wineries as the winery license fee has been reduced drastically. Government of Karnataka is very keen in conducting wine events and festivals on periodic basis which brings all wine drinkers under one roof thus helping the wineries to exhibit their brands. In this context, there are two reasons that has brought the need of enhancing wine tourism, namely, after so many efforts taken, still wine is the least consumed drink in Karnataka when compared with beer or other spirits and it is the major players who are popular among consumers and few producers are facing a gloomy situation. Since advertising alcohol is prohibited in India (Poonacha *et al.*, 2013), the ways to reach consumers are through wine label information and wine tourism (Mathur, 2014). Therefore, this study focused in understanding the present scenario of wine tourism in the state using a 3-stage model and to suggest strategies to enhance enotourism in Karnataka.

The research gap was identified from the other research studies by (Brown and Getz, 2005) (Williams, 2000) (Zhang and Qiu, 2011) (Kumar, 2014) (Alant and Bruwer, 2007) (Gawande, Shukla and Mishra, 2017) which recommended to examine the sequential patterns of wine tourism. Furthermore, research is needed to identify how wine contributes to the ultimate choice of destination, and how activities linked to wine are accommodated for other travel purposes. The study by (Kirkman, 2010) provided recommendation to research how to use tourism to promote wineries.

(Saayman and van der Merwe, 2015) suggests in researching and developing ideas and models that deal with the memorable wine tourism experience.

In regard to the research gaps identified, the following are the research questions framed,

1. What are the efforts of wineries on developing wine tourism and uplifting the standards of Indian wines to the global market irrespective of the size of wineries?
2. Where does wineries of Karnataka stand in terms of wine tourism and what are the efforts taken by wineries on developing wine tourism?

The objective of the study is,

1. To apply 3-stage tourism model for the critical analysis of the current state of wine tourism in Karnataka and arrive at strategies for enhanced wine tourism

2.Literature review

Wine tourism is a form of tourism in which the picturesque view of vineyards attracts the visitors. (Chatterjee and Prasad, 2019) proves how tourism helps farmers in developing identity and overcome risk and the same can be implemented in wine tourism as the vineyard visit is always a part of enotourism. More competition among wineries will allow to position themselves according to the taste and preferences of the consumers. Tourism has high opportunity in increasing sales (Novo, Osorio and Sotomayor, 2018). As proven by the (Jaykumar, 2014) that wine tourism would help in spreading brand awareness. For the development of wine tourism, firstly it should be informed to the customers in an attractive way that would influence the visitors to visit the winery. According to (Srivastava, 2013), there is no wine culture prevailing in India. The awareness seems to be lacking in terms of type of wines and pattern of consumption. The study suggests creating awareness to receive high level of acceptance and demand. Wine tourism is a concept where the visitors get an opportunity to see how grape turns into a glass of wine. They visitors are educated on wine in various aspects. Therefore, wine tourism contributes in developing wine culture. (Sheth *et al.*, 2014) states that India is rapidly growing in the wine market and wine festivals help in creating consumer awareness by educating the consumers who take part in the festivals. (Thaliath and D.N.S., 2015) states that tourism and wine have to go hand in hand to develop wine industry. Karnataka is at a prominent position in the winery map of the country but has not thought about developing the destination as a tourism destination. According to (Sharma, 2015) there is a need of proper education and awareness which should be driven by central and state government. This would be a support to local wineries and consumers who would be aware on benefits of wine over liquor. The study gives an idea on creating wine route and the requirements in the wine route. The study by (Kaddi, 2015) states the importance of wine circuits in enhancing wine tourism in a state. The study also emphasises the need of joint marketing among wineries and the involvement of public and private entities. (Carmichael and Senese, 2012) proves that the stage models will help in indicating the evolution of tourism destinations as it acts as a tool to analyse the relative ability to cope with different forms of tourism development. (Kaddi and Suklabaiya, 2013) recommends uniform wine policy for the entire country with more importance to aspects like research, quality improvisation, import and export regulations, taxation, benefits to small scale industries, etc. (Soonthodu, 2017) analysed Karnataka's tourism policy and recommended that the future tourism policy should address the promotion of wine tourism and would make Karnataka a choice for domestic and international travellers.

The wine-tourism countries do not attract customers and this may be because there is no target promotion and lack of initiatives on the part of authorities (Terziyska, 2017). In India, despite more wine production and many popular wineries, there exists a state where the export and import of wines in India is negligible and India stands nowhere in the wine map of the world (Kumar *et al.*, 2016). The Indian wine research should concentrate on wine exports, promotions through campaign and wine festivals and wine tourism which will change the market trends in the Indian wine industry. The Indian government has found that the wine industry is booming and has supported by reducing value added tax (Bheemathati, 2015). Therefore, the study aims to analyse the status of wineries in regards to wine tourism in the state of Karnataka.

3.Research methodology

The topic of research signifies on developing sequential strategies to increase wine tourism in Karnataka and focuses on understanding the current scenario in terms of wine tourism. Therefore, a 3-stage tourism model suggested by Carmichael and Sense (Novo, Osorio and Sotomayor, 2018). This would include identifying the geographical location

of the wineries which devote to wine production and tourism. The data was collected by visiting the wineries and by other sources like tourism board website, winery website, specialized travel magazines, etc. and through structured interviews with the owners/ managers of the wineries. Later, by applying the 3-stage tourism model the present scenario of wine tourism in Karnataka was identified and thus the strategies for enhanced wine tourism were arrived. The pictorial representation of the research design is done in Figure 1.

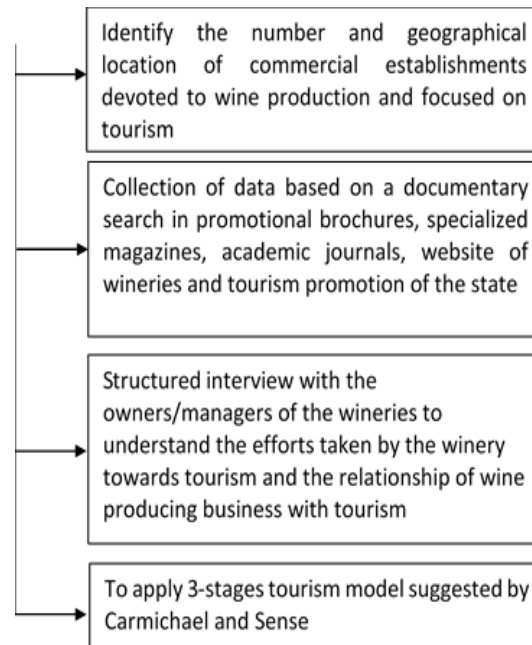


Figure 1 Pictorial Representation of Methodologies Adopted

4.findings and analysis

3-stage Tourism Model:

The next stage of the research was based on the 3-stage tourism model proposed by (Carmichael and Senese, 2012). Based on the this, the stages of development in enotourism of the Karnataka wine regions were analyzed. As the wine industry develops in a state, the integration and connection between the wineries tend to increase, which results in joint promotion, marketing and an increase in the flow of tourists. This model helps to determine the status of wineries in terms of wine tourism and analyze the further steps to be taken in developing the destinations. The stages in this tourism model (Refer Figure 2) are:

Stage 1 (*e1*): Winery Independence – The wineries in Stage 1 don't have any connection with other wineries and each of them perform independently.

Stage 2 (*e2*): Winery Tourism Development – the wineries have started to develop marketing strategies by creating linkages with other wineries and tourism attractions by developing wine routes linking.

Stage 3 (*e3*): Wine Tourism Integration – the information about the wineries in this stage flows intensely as there will be a high level of integration among wineries and also there will be an intense flow of tourists.

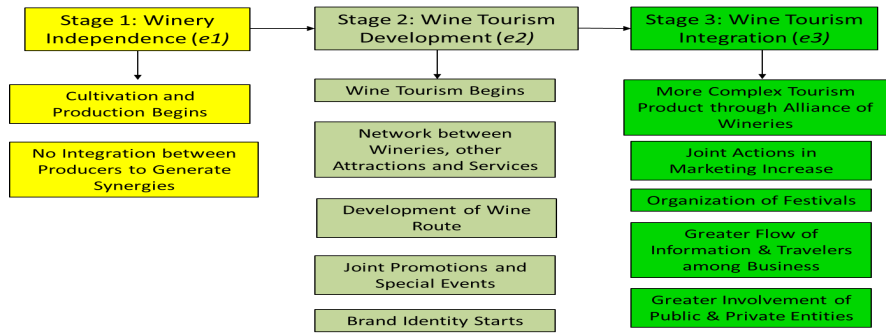


Figure 2 3-Stage Wine Tourism Model. Source: (Carmichael and Senese, 2012)

In stage 1, there will be no or little awareness about the wine and wineries of the region. There will be a growth in wine awareness in stage 2 due to the joint promotions taken by the wineries. In stage 3, the enotourism product becomes complex as it will be promoted by public and private entities and festivals and events conducted.

Identification of Number of Commercial Establishments Devoted to Wine Production:

As per the first methodology of the study, the number of commercial establishments devoted to wine production in Karnataka were identified by conducting interviews with Karnataka Wine Board which is a government organization solely setup for creating wine awareness among consumers and helping the grape grower and the wineries. According to the interview conducted there are 15 wineries in Karnataka which are commercial establishments devoted to wine production. The names of the wineries are not revealed for confidential purposes instead the wineries are coded with alphabets.

Identification of the Geographical Location of Commercial Establishments Devoted to Wine Production:

Once the number of wineries were identified and each winery was visited in person for conducting structured interviews with the owner/manager/winemaker of the winery, the geographical locations were identified to ease the visit.

Overall, the Karnataka wine regions are divided into 4, namely, Nandi Valley, Krishna Valley, Cauvery Valley and Hampi Hills. These are the 4 regions where wine grapes are grown. The wineries located in the regions can also be divided based on the 4 identified wine regions.

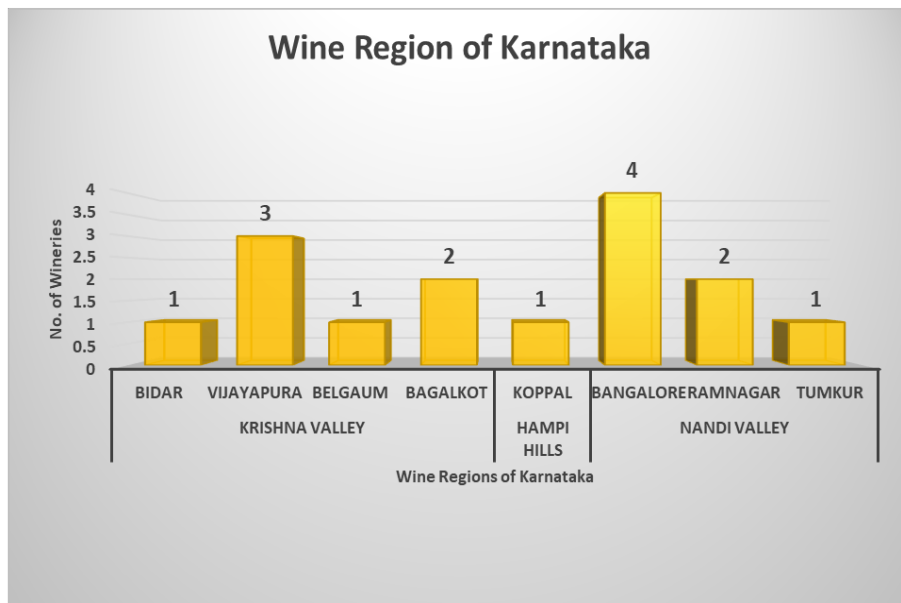


Figure 3 Wine Regions of Karnataka

Collection of Data on Documentary Search – Promotional Brochures

On the basis of observation of the winery brochures, Winery D & F are involved in wine tourism. Both wineries have vineyard tour, winery tour and a wine tasting session. Winery 'F' also allows visitors to conduct parties at the winery premises and rent out the space for wedding photo shoots. The wine tourism efforts of other wineries are unknown according to the brochure observation. Further observation of specialized magazines, journals and winery websites along with structured interviews with the owner or the winery manager helped to find out the wine tourism efforts taken by each winery. On the basis of which, the winery's stand in the 3-stage tourism model were analysed.

Collection of Data on Documentary Search – Specialized Magazines

The documentary search of specialized magazine was done. Sommelier India (SI) is the wine magazine for wine lovers in India.

Out of 15 wineries in Karnataka, on the basis of documentary search of Sommelier India wine magazine, only the efforts of Winery A and F has been identified. The tourism efforts of other Karnataka based wineries are not identified. The same would be found out by other methodologies of the objective, namely, documentary search of journals, winery websites and lastly by conducting face to face interviews with the owners or managers of all the wineries in Karnataka.

Collection of Data on Documentary Search – Academic Journals

As per the documentary search of academic journals, it is identified that though the wine industry is growing in India there is no wine culture prevailing among consumers. The reasons for the growth of the industries include globalization, changing customer behavior pattern, income level, travel to foreign countries, etc. All papers suggest that in order to develop the growth of the industry there should be awareness created among consumers. In regards to this, tourism and wine are suggested to go hand in hand to increase the level of growth. The literature is evident that one of the wineries in Karnataka is a major player in the Indian wine industry and one more winery has taken up wine tourism as its promotional tool and 68% of the outlets in Bengaluru has sold its brand. The review of the academic journals therefore strongly emphasis the need of wine tourism in getting the state of Karnataka more prominent in the wine map.

Collection of Data on Documentary Search – Website of Wineries

The websites of all the 15 wineries in Karnataka were observed as a part of documentary search and the details of the website information is as follows.

Out of 15 wineries in Karnataka, 11 wineries own a website and 4 wineries doesn't own one. According to the website of the 11 wineries, only wineries 'F', 'N', 'C' and 'D' have the information on wine tourism. The other wineries though own a website, there is no information on tourism or tourism related activities provided by the winery. These 4 wineries have detailed the tourism information in the website in a way that it is clearly informed to the potential visitors. the information includes the price of the tour, timing, facilities and services offered and the route map and address of the winery.

Collection of Data on Documentary Search – Tourism Promotion of the State

As per the Tourism Policy of Karnataka 2015 – 2020, the development of projects under various tourism products and services categories includes development of tourism clusters and focus tourism destinations and agri- tourism.

According to Annexure 2, of Karnataka Tourism Policy (2015 -2020) the tourism clusters include urban tourism, wildlife tourism, heritage, nature, religious, wellness and coastal tourism. The tourism cluster doesn't include wine tourism though the efforts are taken by Karnataka Wine Board. For the development of tourism circuits within a tourism cluster an additional 10% of investment subsidy is to be provided by Government of Karnataka. A tourism circuit is a route within a single tourism cluster which includes at least 3 focus destinations of tourism in a way that none of the destinations are located in same village or town. According to Karnataka Tourism Policy, there is an emphasis on development of agri-tourism. This includes the activities in a farm and its related operations. Tourism related activities include horticultural and agricultural activities which involves tourist participation.

Overall, the tourism policy of 2015 -2020 is investment centric and needs to emphasis on development of public transport as it would impact on multiple visits by tourists (Soonthodu, 2017).

Structured Interview with Owners/Managers of the Wineries

A structured interview was conducted with the managers/owners of the winery as a part of the research. The details of the interview are put in a format of interview form to understand the efforts taken by wineries towards tourism. Based on which the analysis was done using 3-stage wine tourism model.

Stage- Wise Explanation:

Stage 1 (e1) – Winery Independence:

No. of wineries: 10

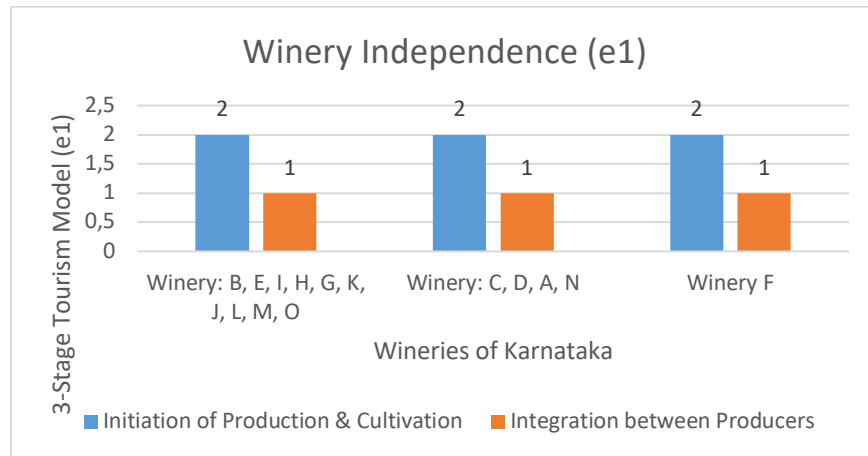


Figure 4 Stage 1: Winery Independence

Out of 15 wineries, 10 wineries (Figure 4) are in Stage 1, namely, B, E, I, H, G, K, J, L, M and O. As per the model, the wineries in stage 1 have started with production of wine and there will be no integration or connection between other producers to generate synergies. These wineries are identified to be stage 1 as the wineries have started with the production of wine and the products are available in the market. The wineries in stage 1 have no integration with other wine producers. The wineries have not yet started with wine tourism and thus resulting in no flow of tourists, but the level of brand awareness among consumers is found to be high and this gives an understanding that the wineries have developed a business culture and proved their existence in the market (Refer Table 1).

Stage 2 (e2) – Wine Tourism Development:

No. of wineries: 4

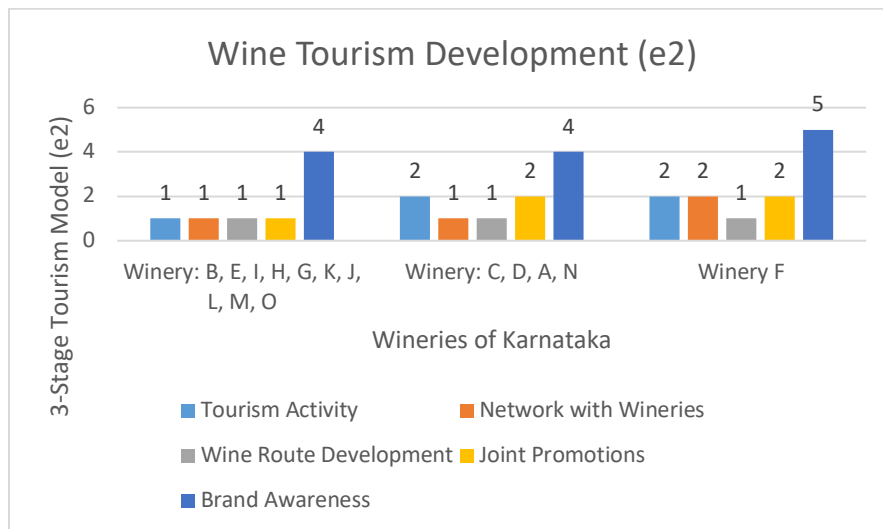


Figure 5 Stage 2: Wine Tourism Development

In stage 2, (Figure 5) there are 4 wineries, namely, C, D, A and N. The criteria for wineries in the 2nd stage of the tourism model are to start with wine production and enotourism, network with other wineries and tourist attractions, develop wine routes, organize joint promotion and special events and increase the level of brand awareness. The wineries, identified to be in stage 2, have started with wine tourism and they are open to the public. They either establish connections with tourist attractions or try to get one and few, market the brand in the name of nearby tourism attractions. The promotions and other special events are conducted periodically and their brand awareness among the consumers is at point 3 on a scale of 5. Yet, there is no wine route developed (Refer Table 1).

Stage 3 (e3) – Wine Tourism Integration:

No. of wineries: 1

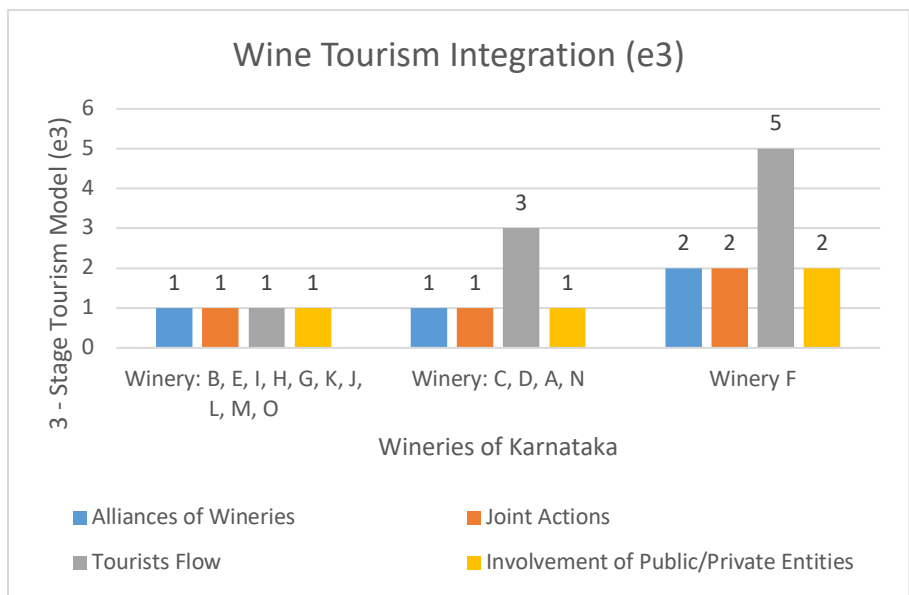


Figure 6 Stage 3: Wine Tourism Integration

According to Figure 6, in stage 3, there is only one winery ‘F’, which is in full fledged in providing tourism related services to the visitors. In order to be in the 3rd stage of the tourism model, the winery has to develop alliances with other wineries, conduct wine festivals for joint marketing and to increase the flow of information and tourists and involve public and private entities. These criteria are precisely met by winery F and thus it is identified in stage 3 of the 3-stage tourism model. Still, there is no wine route developed. A condensed and detailed information about the status of Karnataka wineries in regards to wine tourism is mentioned in Table 1.

Table 1 Karnataka Wine Tourism as per the Parameters of 3-stage Tourism Model

Stages of Wine Tourism	Components	Wineries in Stage 1								Wineries in Stage 2				Wineries in Stage 3	
		B	E	I	H	G	K	L	M	O	C	D	A	N	F
Stage 1	Cultivation of Vine (Grapes)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Production Begins	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	No Integration/Connection between Producers to Generate Synergies	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Stage 2	Started with Wine Tourism	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Network between Wineries, Attractions and Tourism Activities	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Development of Wine Route	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	Development of Joint Promotion & Special Events	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Level of Brand Awareness among Consumers	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Stage 3	More Complex Tourism Product through Alliance of Wineries	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓
	Joint Actions in Marketing Increase	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓
	Organisation of Festivals	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓
	Greater Flow of Information & Travelers among Business	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓
	Greater Involvement of Public & Private Entities	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓

Source: Field Work as a Part of Primary Data

Suggestions for Wine Route for Karnataka:

The findings of the study suggest 6 wine routes (Table 2) for Karnataka. The routes have been suggested on the basis of their location, nearby wineries and tourism attractions around the wineries. To make these wine circuits work, the wineries must be ready for joint promotions and involvement of public and private entities.

Table 2 Suggested Wine Routes for Karnataka

Winery Route	Wine Regions of Karnataka	Suggested Wine Routes	Location
1	Krishna Valley	Winery M – Winery H – Winery I – Winery L	Bidar – Bijapur
2	Krishna Valley	Winery O – Winery K – Winery J	Belgaum – Mudhol - Bijapur
3	Hampi Hills	Winery G	Koppal (only one winery is listed in this route as the location is surrounded by Hampi which is a Heritage Tourism site and a trip to the winery can include a trip around Hampi)
4	Nandi Valley	Winery E – Winery F – Winery C	Thondebhavi Hobli - Doddaballapura Taluk – Yelahanka Hobli (Bangalore District)
5	Nandi Valley	Winery N	Maidanahalli (Tumkur District) (the winery provides a visit to the Blackbuck Forest as a part of wine tourism and so only one winery is listed in this suggested wine route)
6	Nandi Valley	Winery D – Winery B – Winery A	Tavarekere Hobli - Darapura Village (Ramanagar) - Gangedoddi Village (Ramanagar)

The following are the requirements needed to make the wine routes function:

1. All wineries to be ready to involve wine tourism as a part of business
2. Well-developed and maintained interlinking roads between the wineries
3. Wayside amenities and facilities along the wine routes to ease visitors
4. Establishment of restaurants and cafes along the circuits
5. Creating road signs to direct the right way to the visitors
6. Conducting wine festivals and events on a regular basis to attract more visitors
7. Partnership with other tourism attractions as a part of joint marketing

The advantages of establishing wine routes include increased level in flow of visitors, wineries can spread wine awareness through wine education, brand awareness, more employment opportunities and other infrastructure developments for the local community around the winery.

5. Conclusions

Tourism emphasizes the need for industrial infrastructure to allow economic and environmental capital to be sustained. Stage models, like 3- stage tourism model, it indicates the development of tourism destinations and initiates the development (Carmichael and Senese, 2012). As this is a community-based assessment it entails empowering host countries and preserving ecological and cultural heritage. Currently, the state has 15 wineries in operation and it is located in 4 different regions of Karnataka namely, Nandi Valley, Krishna Valley, Cauvery Valley and Hampi Hills. There are no wineries in the region of Cauvery Valley as one winery which was there currently closed down. The data was collected using various methodology the objective needed more information about the wineries in order to determine the stage where they stand in a tourism model. By applying 3-stage tourism model, the wineries of Karnataka are within the model, as they fall in different stages in the tourism model depending on various aspects of tourism development. The names of the wineries are not listed for confidential reasons and therefore named in alphabets between 'A' to 'O'. Out of 15 wineries, 10 wineries (Figure 3.4) are in Stage 1, namely, B, E, I, H, G, K, J, L, M and O. These wineries are identified to be stage 1 as the wineries have started with the production of wine and the products are available in the market. The wineries in stage 1 have no integration with other wine producers. The wineries have not yet started with wine tourism and thus resulting in no flow of tourists but the level of brand awareness among consumers is found to be high and this gives an understanding that the wineries have developed a business culture and proved their existence in the market. In stage 2, there are 4 wineries, namely, C, D, A and N. The wineries identified to be in stage 2, have started with wine tourism and they are open to public. They either established connection with tourist attractions or trying to get one and few markets the brand in the name of nearby tourism attractions. The promotions and other special events are conducted periodically and their brand awareness among the consumers is at point 3 in a scale of 5. Yet, there is no wine route developed.

According to Figure 3.6, in stage 3, there is only one vineyard 'F', with is in full fledge in providing tourism related services to the visitors. The criteria are precisely met by winery F and thus it is identified in stage 3 of the 3-stage tourism model. Still, there is no wine route developed.

The findings of the study thus suggest the following steps to be taken by the wineries of Karnataka in order to be in Stage 3 of the tourism model which would in turn help in increasing the ecological preservation and economic growth regionally as it would provide employment and improvement in the local community (Kaddi, 2015). The various strategies suggested by the findings of the study are, as the wineries have already started wine tourism in some or the other form should start implementing into the business. The wineries should take effort in networking with other wineries around based on region it is located, that is, Nandi Valley, Krishna Valley, Cauvery Valley and Hampi Hills. In addition to get connected with the nearby tourist attractions so that would help in attracting tourists who visit the destinations to the winery. This would enable the wineries to develop a wine route based on the regions the winery is located. The findings of the study have suggested 6 possible wine routes for Karnataka and its requirements and advantages. More joint promotions, special events and shows should be planned and conducted periodically as it would attract more visitors (Jaykumar, 2014). This would further increase the brand awareness in the consumers. The wineries should take steps in obtaining licenses and conduct wine festivals which will increase the alliance between wineries of the state, help in joint marketing and greater flow of information and tourists. Most importantly the wineries should involve public and private entities in marketing and promotion. The special occasions if created by wineries in form of festivals, tours and wine events it would attract more visitors. If the factors identified in the model are focused and developed a winery would reach the stage 3 and would stay in the top most position in providing

tourism related services to the visitors which in turn increases brand awareness (Jaykumar, 2014) and thus help in expansion of Indian wine industry.

Therefore, the original contribution of the study would be evaluating the stages of wine tourism by applying 3-stage tourism model and development of sequential recommendations, wine tourism strategies and wine routes for enhancing wine tourism of a region.

The limitation of the study is that is concentrates only the region of Karnataka, a southern state in India, leaving the other two wine producing states of the country, namely, Maharashtra and Himachal Pradesh. A future study may be done considering all the wine producing states of the nation.

References

- Alant, K. and Bruwer, J. (2007) 'Wine Tourism Behaviour in the Context of a Motivational Framework for Wine Regions and Cellar Doors', (April 2014), pp. 37–41. doi: 10.1080/0957126042000300308.
- Bheemathati, S. (2015) 'An Overview : Recent Research and Market Trends of Indian Wine Industry', *Journal of Food Processing & Beverages*, 3(1), pp. 1–5.
- Brown, G. and Getz, D. (2005) 'Linking Wine Preferences to the Choice of Wine Tourism Destinations', 43(February), pp. 266–276. doi: 10.1177/0047287504272027.
- Carmichael, B. A. and Senese, D. M. (2012) 'Competitiveness and Sustainability in Wine Tourism Regions: The Application of a Stage Model of Destination Development to Two Canadian Wine Regions', in Dougherty, P. H. (ed.) *The Geography of Wine*. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands, pp. 159–178.
- Chatterjee, S. and Prasad, D. (2019) 'The Evolution of Agri-Tourism practices in India : Some Success Stories The Evolution of Agri-Tourism practices in India : Some Success Stories'. doi: 10.18689/mjaes-1000104.
- Chowdhury, M. S., Mukherjee, A. and Sengupta, S. (2018) 'Recent Global Trends and Challenges in Indian Tourism Industry in the perspective of digital age.', p. 10.
- Del Chiappa, G., Bregoli, I., & Fotiadis, A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on the Italian accommodation sector and related response actions: A supply-perspective using a mixed method approach. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 7(1), 13-22.
- Gawande, S. S., Shukla, P. and Mishra, A. A. (2017) 'Study on Wine Policies , Regulations and Standards in Maharashtra , India', 1(2), pp. 12–22. doi: 10.11648/j.stpp.20170102.11.
- Jaykumar, P. V (2014) 'Issues and Opportunities of Niche Tourism Markets- Understanding South India Wine Tourism', 4(16), pp. 51–60.
- Kaddi, A. K. (2015) 'A Study on Creation and Development of Wine Tourism Circuits in Maharashtra', *Atna - Journal of Tourism Studies*, 10(1), pp. 1–12. doi: 10.12727/ajts.13.1.
- Kaddi, A. K. and Suklabaiya, P. (2013) 'Review of Maharashtra's Wine Policy & Regulations and its Impact on Wine Tourism', *Contemporary Tourism Planning – Introspecting Problems and Prospects by Dr. Madhuri Sawant & Dr. Rajesh Ragde (Eds)*.
- Kirkman, A. (2010) 'The Role of Wine Tourism in the Marketing of Wineries', (November).
- Kumar, D. N. S. (2014) 'Research article impact of quality factors and internal factors in the buying decisions of wine patrons : Critical factor in bench marking wine tourism development and management', 5, pp. 1091–1097.
- Kumar, V. *et al.* (2016) 'A Brief Overview of Indian Wines and Wineries', (February).
- Mathur, D. A. K. (2014) 'Alcoholic beverages industry in india : An exploratory study', 1(1), p. 7.
- Novo, G., Osorio, M. and Sotomayor, S. (2018) 'Wine tourism in Mexico : an initial exploration Wine tourism in Mexico : an initial exploration', *Anatolia*, 00(00), pp. 1–12. doi: 10.1080/13032917.2018.1519212.
- Poonacha, K. A. *et al.* (2013) 'An analysis of promotional strategies of popular brands of wine in Bengaluru city, Karnataka', p. 4.
- Saayman, M. and van der Merwe, A. (2015) 'Factors determining visitors' memorable wine-tasting experience at wineries', *Anatolia*, 26(3), pp. 372–383. doi: 10.1080/13032917.2014.968793.
- Sharma, B. (2015) "'Viticulture and Vinification " Two Fundamentals in Promotion of Wine Tourism In India " W', IV(Vi), pp. 1–5.
- Sheth, M. H. *et al.* (2014) 'Wine Festival and Wine Consumerism - A Perspective Study on Influence and awareness in the Growth and Acceptance of Wine in Indian Market', 2(4), pp. 20–36.
- Soonthodu, S. (2017) 'Analysis of Tourism policy of Karnataka 2015-2020'.
- Srivastava, R. . (2013) 'Perception Study of Wine MarketCulture of an Emerging Market-India-Will it Emerge from

- Infant to Growth Stage?', *Journal of Hotel & Business Management*, 03(01), pp. 1–6. doi: 10.4172/2169-0286.1000106.
- Terziyska, I. (2017) 'Benchmarking Wine Tourism Destinations – The Case of Bulgaria', *International Journal of Wine Business Research*. doi: 10.1108/MBE-09-2016-0047.
- Thaliath, A. and D.N.S., K. (2015) 'Analysing the Correlation Aspect Linking Consumption of Wine Against Understanding Wine Tourism at the Silicon Valley of India: Uncorking Wine Tourism in Bangalore', *SCHOLEDGE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY & ALLIED STUDIES*, 2(8), p. 20.
- Williams, P. (2000) 'Positioning Wine Tourism Destinations : An Image Analysis', pp. 42–58.
- Zhang, X. and Qiu, C. (2011) 'Research on the development of Wine Tourism Product based on the analysis of the wine tourist behavioral intentions', pp. 1439–1442.

Tourist Behaviours at Covid-19 Pandemic

Tahir Albayrak¹, Meltem Caber²

¹Akdeniz University, Turkey

ORCID: 0000-0001-6961-0550

Email address: tahiralbayrak@akdeniz.edu.tr

²Akdeniz University, Turkey

ORCID: 0000-0001-5191-373X

Email address: meltemcaber@akdeniz.edu.tr

Abstract

Purpose: This study reviews the literature on tourist behaviours in response to challenging conditions created by Coronavirus pandemic (known as, Covid-19). The main aim of the study is to identify how tourist behaviours are affected or changed by Covid-19. A literature review has been performed on the published articles and official reports on tourist behaviours in ordinary times, during Covid-19 pandemic, and post pandemic from online research engine of Google Scholar. Using the keywords of : “Covid-19”; “tourist behaviour”, and “pandemic”, which are directly related publications on these issues, tourist behaviours could be characterized in each period. After reminding the ‘ordinary time’ tourist behaviours before this pandemic, changing tourist behaviours during and post Covid-19 were introduced based on the information obtained from the literature review. Estimations of the formal authorities were additionally presented with the aim of combining the scholarly and institutional perspectives about the crisis. The studies show that people perceived high level of health, hygiene, and safety risks in travelling amid Covid-19. Therefore, they began to select destinations, which are perceived safe and clean. Post-pandemic tourist behaviours are grouped under three themes, as the varying travel motivations and behaviours; negative attitudes towards Chinese tourists and China; and the increasing importance of information & communication technologies on tourist experiences.

Keywords: Tourist Behaviour, Pandemic, Covid-19, Crisis, Tourism Research

1. Introduction

The coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic, which emerged at the beginning of 2020 firstly in Wuhan city, China, made major and global impacts on human life. Country economies, service and production principles, social behaviours, and environment-human interactions must have been redefined to adapt this ‘new life’. Daily routines, social relationships, work systems, and life quality of people also largely changed due to this phenomenon. Since domestic and international travels were mostly limited or prohibited to stop the spread, prospective tourists had to gain new perspectives and to develop new behaviours for adapting this unexpected situation. Zenker and Kock (2020) suggest that the potential Covid-19 research paths can be: the complexity of the situation; changes in destination image; change in tourism behaviour; change in resident behaviour; change in the tourism industry; long-term and indirect effects. Thus, the scholars who work on tourist behaviours should attempt to identify in which areas this pandemic has already made change on tourist behaviours and how tourists can be profiled at the post-Covid-19 times.

This study adapts a literature review approach to identify the main tourist behaviours in previous during, and post-pandemic periods. For each period, the exact and expected tourist tendencies are searched based on the literature and then discussed by the authors. In the next section, a summary has been presented on tourist behaviours in ordinary times. Following, tourist behaviours at the time of the pandemic and the proposed behavioural changes after the pandemic have been discussed under separate sections. These discussions will be based on the literature reviews as previously mentioned. The paper is concluded with the proposal of some theoretical and managerial issues that are highly possible to become more important and determinant for the future of tourism and travel sector.

2. Research Methodology

A search on Google Scholar (by the date of 16th of February 2021) by the use of keywords of: “Covid-19”; “tourist behaviour”, and “pandemic” shows that there are 262 scientific and published articles available online. After the elimination of indirectly related publications and destination management-based case studies, a literature review was performed on the articles about tourist behaviours ‘during’ and ‘post’ Covid-19 pandemic. Moreover, two official reports which are published by tourism and travel authorities such as United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and World Travel & Tourism Council were included into each phases.

3. Findings

Tourist behaviours in ordinary times (from 2 official reports), during (from 12 articles and 2 research reports), and post (from 17 articles and 2 official reports) pandemic were identified and summarized under separate sections. The results shed light on tourist behaviours, which are formed as a response to Covid-19 conditions and assist the clarification of tourist attitudes in the period of this health crisis.

3.1. *Tourist Behaviours in Ordinary Times*

In a certain extent, tourist behaviour in ordinary times was predictable. As summarized in the Tourism Towards 2030 report of the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), it was estimated that international tourist arrivals worldwide would increase by 3.3% a year between 2010 and 2030 and reached to 1.8 billion by 2030. Majority of tourists were traveling for leisure and holiday purposes, and the share of these type of travels were showing an increase trend from 50% in 2000 to 56% in 2018. France (89 million), Spain (83 million), USA (80 million), China (63 million), and Italy (62 million) were among the top tourist receiving destinations in the world by 2018 data. Tourists were using Internet as the leading platform of travel planning and purchasing; shared contents on social media were the most trusted information sources for prospective tourists; business travel market was slightly growing, while youth tourism was one of the fastest growing markets; tourists were more engaging in pro-environment behaviours (Delener, 2010). The popular travel motivations and tourism trends were also identified as follows: (1) ‘to change’, meaning to travel for having local, authentic, and transformational experiences; (2) ‘to show’, reflecting the willingness of sharing the experiences on social media; (3) ‘to have a healthy life’, meaning to take part in eco, wellness, and sports tourism; (4) the increase of solo and multigenerational travels; and (5) the rise of awareness on sustainability (UNWTO- International Tourism Highlights, 2019).

The new realities imposed by the Covid-19 crisis caused fundamental changes on the way people think, live, work, and on the operations that businesses do. All of these transformed tourist behaviours. Some of these changes may be temporarily and seen only during the Covid-19 period, but some of them will be here to redefine tourist behaviours in the long term.

3.2. *Tourist Behaviours during Pandemic*

Number of the researches on health-related crises were limited before the Covid-19, however, they were already showing that infectious diseases considerably change tourists’ risk perceptions and destination choices (Karl, Kock, Ritchie, and Gauss, 2021). For example, a survey, which was conducted on potential German tourists and prior to the pandemic in 2020, indicated that the respondents who have experienced more risk in previous travels, tend to behave more risk adverse (Karl, Muskat, and Ritchie, 2020). In a more recent study, fear of Covid-19 and perceived risk were similarly shown to have a negative impact on attitude towards travelling, while social media has a significant positive effect on customer brand engagement during the pandemic outbreak (Rather, 2021). The results of an online survey, performed on the individuals who were a regular customer of various restaurants in London before the pandemic, revealed that there is an interaction between perception of the shock of the pandemic and consumers’ beliefs through perceived health risk; and some of the restrictions requested by WHO and governments (such as the lockdown and social distancing) have a dominant effect on anticipated emotion, future desire, and demand of hospitality services (Foroudi, Tabaghdehi, and Marvi, 2021).

In another research, which was carried out during the first months of the pandemic on Brazilian participants, indicated the perceived Covid-19 severity, perceived probability of contract, and expected pandemic duration as the predictors of travel intentions for 2020 and 2021 (Golets, Farias, Pilati, and Costa, 2020). In the sample of Turkish travellers, a research showed that cleanliness and safety have become the main criterions when selecting a destination (Jafari, Saydam, Erkanli and Olorunsola, 2020). Moreover, elderly and female participants are more prudent on hygiene and safety issues than other younger and male groups. Similar results obtained in the AlGassim and Abuelhassan’s research on (2021) Gulf Cooperation Council citizens. The study findings indicated that the Covid-19 pandemic influenced tourist attitudes, preferences, and increased the hygiene and safety needs.

Zenker, Braun, and Gyimóthy (2021), who developed the Pandemic (Covid-19) Anxiety Travel Scale (PATS) and tested a research model on US and Danish samples, showed that prevention focus, PATS, xenophobia, and intention to travel constructs have significant relationships. In the Perić, Dramićanin, and Conić's study (2021), the effect of Serbian tourists' risk perception on their travel intentions during the Covid-19 pandemic is investigated. Findings revealed that the travel risk has a negative impact on travel intention, while the health risk is a predictor of travel during the pandemic. The monthly income is also a determinant of the travel abroad.

A research on Chinese university students and their destination choices amid Covid-19 showed that the participants of survey had high animosity and ethnocentrism towards Western countries as travel destinations during the pandemic (Wang, Wong, and Zhang, 2020). As representing an important market segment in world tourism sector, ageing passengers' (defined as aged 65+) attitudes on Covid-19 have been investigated by Graham, Kremarik, and Kruse (2020). In the next 12 months (in 2021), elderly tourists were found to plan travel by air by adapting themselves to new rules under Covid-19. Besides, a few number of the survey participants stated that a more limited retail and catering offer will negatively affect their experience. In a recent study, Kim, Bonn, and Hall (2021) investigated the biosecurity travel behaviours of US outbound tourists of 2019. Majority of the respondents stated that they would wear masks (64%) during an international journey and enter quarantine (38%), no matter how long it takes.

During Covid-19, the active measures of social distancing, public/social gatherings and people's mobility tracing, influence where, why, and how people travel, what they do and how they select travel destinations. In a survey conducted in the USA in May 2019 (COVID-19 Report for the Restaurant and Hotel Industry, 2019), the respondents were asked how likely to dine out and travel after the stay-at-home orders were lifted. According to the results, almost half of the participants stated that they will prefer to wait at least 1-3 months or longer to dine out with a friend at a restaurant. Moreover, 60% of the participants said that they will prefer to wait at least 3-6 months or longer to travel a destination or to stay at a hotel.

For the consumers, visible sanitizing efforts and implementing social distancing are going to be the most important safety precautions that are expected from the restaurant and hotel managers. Besides, the consumers started to give importance and interest to companies, which consider their safety in their operations and service processes. For example, in the USA, 75% of the consumers have tried a new store, brand, or different way of shopping during the pandemic (McKinsey & Company, 2020). Hence, while in ordinary times, consumer and tourist behaviours change slowly, Covid-19 has caused dramatic behavioural changes.

3.3. Tourist Behaviours Post-Pandemic

In the post Covid-19 tourism, tourist behaviours and host-tourist interactions are not going to be the same as before according to early research findings in the literature. The current acknowledgements on transformed tourist behaviours due to Covid-19 can be grouped under three themes: (1) varying travel motivations and behaviours; (2) negative attitudes towards Chinese tourists and China; and (3) the increasing importance of information & communication technologies on tourist experiences, such as social media and augmented reality (AR).

The first category of researches has the highest number of published articles and official reports. In one of these studies, changing tourist motivations were investigated inspiring from Pearce's (1988) Travel Career Ladder approach and collecting data from different demographic groups (Sibi, Arun Das., and Ashaf, 2020). Safety consciousness was identified as an important post Covid-19 travel motivation both for low and high experienced tourists. In another research (Wachyuni and Kusumaningrum, 2020), where the millennials constituted the majority of the participants, the results reflected that most of the people (78%) are willing to travel after the pandemic ends towards to domestic (62%) or both domestic and international (52%) destinations for a period of 1-4 days (56%). They widely prefer to safe (64%), clean (62%), and beautiful (52%) destinations with the purpose of experiencing nature tourism (66%). Negative relationships found between perceived travel risk and international travel as well as past international travel and willingness to travel internationally once travel restrictions are lifted in the research performed by Abraham et al. (2020).

In the O'Connor and Assaker's study (2021), risk perception arisen by Covid-19 was found to positively affect people's pro-environmental travel behaviour through the variables of environmental concern, environmental responsibility, environmental moral obligation, and willingness to make economic sacrifices for environmental protection. This crisis seem to awaken tourists' environmental friendly and responsible behaviours, since it made a global impact and had an influence on almost all populations in the world. Post-crisis travel behaviour theoretically discussed in the Matiza's paper (2020). The researcher notes the heterogeneity of the impact of perceived risk on tourist behaviours and puts emphasis of the roles of governance, media, marketing, and domestic tourism on the recovery of tourism sector. The impact of Covid-19 on traveller behaviours has been examined in the quantitative

research of Chebli and Said (2020), and the findings revealed that the tourists' behavioural changes might be observed in the increased demand to visit close and less known destinations, group travels, sanitary conditions, and travel insurances in post Covid-19 tourism.

Li et al. (2020) have proposed a conceptual model for being able to explore the underlying effects of Covid-19 on tourists' behavioural patterns. These researchers recommended reviewing psychological distance and construal level theory, as well as the relationship between psychological distance and perceived risk in the future studies to understand post-pandemic tourist behaviours. A travel risk perception scale consists of 13 items, has been developed by Zhan et al. (2020) amid Covid-19 and tested by an online survey on Chinese participants. The greatest impact of pandemic was its disturbing characteristic to every-day life, and people who never visited or had no contact with Wuhan city had higher levels of risk perception than their control group.

Some of the studies can be grouped under the second category, which particularly investigate China or Chinese society's respond to crisis and how the other nationality of people perceive the role of China in this crisis and how their perceptions changed their travel-related behaviours. In one of these researches (Armutlu et al., 2020), where the change of hospitable behaviour of Turkish hosts to Chinese tourists after the Covid-19 pandemic is examined, findings revealed that the intended hospitable behaviour of host people is directly determined by perceived risk of being infected by the virus through contact with tourists. Agyeiwaah, Issahaku, Frederick, and Frank's study (2021), which is conducted at the selected higher education institutions of the Macau Special Administrative Region (SAR) and on the participants representing Macau's domestic tourism market, indicated a highly perceived risk of travelling during Covid-19. The participants also noted that the pandemic has developed negative emotions and reduced the intentions to travel.

Wen, Wang, and Kozak (2020) have investigated Chinese domestic tourism market and the influence of Covid-19. These authors aimed to show how traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) influences Chinese people's perspectives on disease and their travel participation. TCM is suggested to impact on China's domestic tourism in post Covid-19 times, through its unique view of illness and recovery. Moreover, people are presumed to visit destinations that allow nature-based experiences and show more interest to restorative activities. Another research by Wen, Kozak, Yang, and Liu (2020) propose that Covid-19 make influences on Chinese tourists' consumption patterns, such as travelling free and independently, selecting luxury travels, and participating wellness tourism.

The third category of studies seem to target to identify how information & communication technologies may shape tourist behaviours in post pandemic times. In the Bhati et al.'s research (2020), where the Protection Motivation Theory model was tested by the inclusion of mediating effect of tourist health-protective behaviour and media engagement, the results revealed the significant relationships among destination health-risk image, health-protective behaviour, tourist media engagement, and travel behaviour variables.

Mohanty, Hassan, and Ekis (2020) suggest that mobile and web-based augmented reality (AR) which offers to develop accessible, personalized, and memorable experiences will be increasingly demanded by tourists even after the Covid-19, since some norms such as social distancing and lower mobility are going continue. In a similar vein, a qualitative research on Indian hospitality and tourism managers showed that the experts are aware of the increasing need of technological adoption for establishing virtual connects between service suppliers and tourists in the post pandemic world (Kaushal and Srivastava, 2021).

In addition to scientific publications, there are two valuable official reports, which may guide to tourism researchers and practitioners about the future of tourism and travel sector. The first one is World Travel and Tourism Council and Oliver Wyman's report, named: "To Recovery & Beyond": The Future of Travel & Tourism in the Wake of Covid-19, published in September 2020. By collecting the opinions of the top executives in the sector, four main trends were identified for the next 24 months, as follow: demand evolution, health & hygiene, innovation & digitisation, and sustainability. The suggested trends show similarity to above given literature review's results. Since tourist demand will change and turn into more sustainable and responsible, service suppliers will attempt to meet safety and hygiene expectations of travellers, and digital platforms such as mobile phones, social media, and AR will become more popular platforms forming tourist behaviours, the content of the mentioned report and the theoretical perspectives of the researchers seem quite in parallel.

The second report, which is published in 2020 by the European Commission, is named: "Behavioural Changes in Tourism in Times of COVID-19. Relying on the results of the surveys that they conducted in the EU area, the researchers suggested three potential scenarios, as the: 1) Confidence to travel scenario: Extended hot long summer; 2) Fear to travel scenario: Escape to wherever; and 3) Second wave scenario: Islands of tourism. Accordingly, under

the “confidence to travel” and “fear to travel” scenarios, tourist arrivals from domestic market are estimated to drop between 20% and 40%, whereas the intra-EU tourist arrivals fall between 35% and 60%. Under the “second wave” scenario these value is proposed 20%. Such reports are important in understanding the Covid-19 crisis and deciding how to minimize its negative psychological and economic effects.

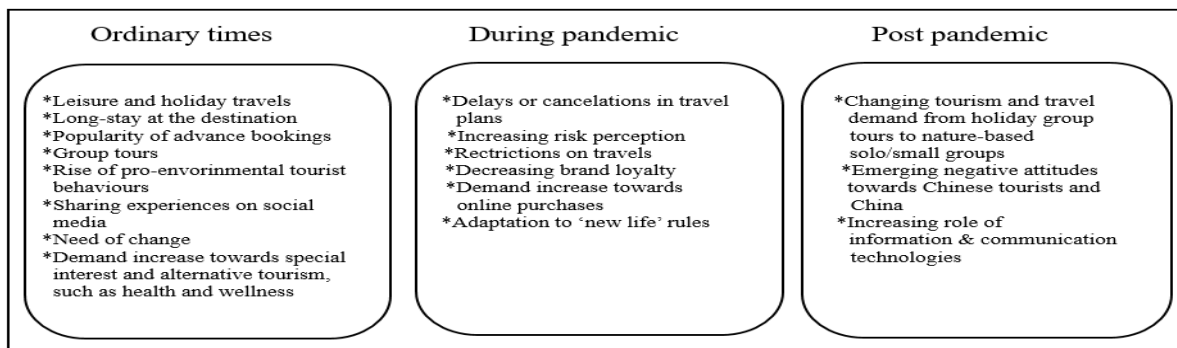
4. Discussion

The studies in the literature obviously show that people perceived high level of health, hygiene, and safety risks in travelling amid Covid-19. Most of the travellers, therefore, began to select destinations, which are perceived safe and clean. Brand loyalty and use of internet -as an information source- were also increased in this period. People often stated that they can stop traveling for 3-6 months. Moreover, they were ready to follow strict precautions when travelling, such as social distance. For majority of the air passengers, limited service and catering issues were not very much important. These were the main findings that the early studies revealed in changing tourist behaviours due to pandemic.

Following, the researchers and the institutions began to question what to expect from post pandemic and how to adapt ‘new normal’. In the context of tourism and travel sector, there are some estimations indicating that tourist behaviours may not be as same as before, even in the post Covid-19 times. The researches in the literature can be grouped under three themes, as the varying travel motivations and behaviours; negative attitudes towards Chinese tourists and China; and the increasing importance of information & communication technologies on tourist experiences. Hence, the scholarly perspectives seem to focused on these topics.

When the World Travel and Tourism Council’s and European Commission’s publications are examined, some of the scientific research findings are found in parallel to these institutions’ estimations. Both sides are expecting that tourists will become more careful about the safety and hygiene on travel, target to select destinations, which are attractive in terms of nature tourism, and they will tend to participate in activities that can be done individually and in nature environments. The transformation of the tourism demand and tourist behaviours which have been explored by this literature review are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Tourist Behaviours in Ordinary Times, During, and Post Covid-19 Pandemic



The unchanged trends in world tourism and travel during and post Covid-19 when compared to ordinary times, are as follows: tourists show interest to alternative and different tourism experiences which they may share with other people on social media or other communication platforms. This is a way of representing social identity and image for many people. Moreover, people began to behave pro-environmentally friendly, responsible, and careful to sustainability of the resources when travel as tourists. More number of tourists began to prefer staying at eco-friendly hotels, to respect cultural difference and authenticity of the host destinations, and to contribute local economies.

The most important message learnt from this health crisis is that the world nature is getting more unsustainable and negatively effected by human activities. Therefore, it may be expected more nature-friendly and responsible behaviours from domestic or international tourists as well as new regulations or legal changings made by country governments to maintain the sustainable use of natural resources in parallel to ensure economic development. Another trend was the use of information & communication platforms in each stages of the travels (e.g. information search, and purchasing) by increasing number of the people. This approach seems to continue after the Covid-19 pandemic. Because, modern life conditions especially in developed and developing countries force people to decide on numerous

issues at the same time. Hence, online platforms and mobile devices will be popularly used by travellers after Covid-19, as it was before.

The results of the literature review and the reports of the official authorities reveal some valuable insights both for the academics and the sector managers. Importance of the advance information & communication technologies (such as mobile devices and social media) on tourist behaviours have been once more emerged in this research. Hence, tourism destinations will need to follow pro-active service, communication, and marketing strategies on these platforms for identifying and meeting the expectations of the visitors (Fotiadis, 2018). Especially international travellers are identified to become more sensitive about cleanliness, safety, and hygiene of the destinations.

Therefore, destination authorities or destination management organisations (DMOs) should decide how they might improve their abilities in responding these factors. Moreover, international institutions should take a leading role in collecting data, reporting the changings or developments, and suggesting to strategies to tourism and travel sector managers. Since majority of the tourism businesses in the world are medium or small size of enterprises (especially in the European Union), government supports may significantly assist to these companies in the recovery period. Crisis management principles and disease avoiding practices should also adapted both by sector practitioners and public authorities to avoid similar crises that may happen in the future time.

5. Conclusions

The Covid-19 pandemic has been a serious and global health crisis, which affected almost all humans and countries in the world. In addition, many sector operations and systems had been severely damaged by the pandemic. The government of each country is trying to make supportive decisions as much as it can so that the tourism and travel industry can recover as soon as possible. However, the duration and impact of recovery will surely vary according to developed, developing and underdeveloped countries. Countries that are late in recovering themselves and cannot take the necessary measures will fall behind in the field of tourism and the competition conditions will change completely in this process. For this reason, taking the pandemic under control as soon as possible and returning to the 'old normal' is very important not only for the tourism and travel sector, but also for the protection of economic, social and political balances between countries. It is necessity to maintain a rapid recovery in the near future. The researchers may assist and guide to public and tourism sector authorities through their research outcomes in this period. Particularly, understanding how tourist behaviours have been shifted in recent years and how they can be adapted to 'new normal' may make it easier for authorities to decide prior areas to improve in the recovery process. For example, new recreational areas can be designed in the city centres and more number of recreational activities can be organized both for the residents and visitors of the destinations so that quality of life is enhanced after this trauma. More number of businesses should also begin to adapt eco-friendly tourism and travel practices, since human-nature imbalances and damages made by industrialization are understood to develop such health and nature crises.

References

- Abraham, V., Bremser, K., Carreno, M., Crowley-Cyr, L., and Moreno, M. (2020). Exploring the consequences of COVID-19 on tourist behaviors: perceived travel risk, animosity and intentions to travel. *Tourism Review*, DOI: 10.1108/TR-07-2020-0344.
- Agyeiwaah, E, Issahaku, A., Frederick, D., and Frank B. B. ,(2021): Perceived impacts of COVID-19 on risk perceptions, emotions, and travel intentions: evidence from Macau higher educational institutions, *Tourism Recreation Research*, DOI: 10.1080/02508281.2021.1872263.
- AlGassim, A., and Abuelhassan, A. E. (2021). The effect of COVID-19 on potential tourist's consumption behavior: evidence from GCC countries. *Journal of Association of Arab Universities for Tourism and Hospitality (JAAUTH)*, 20(1): 129-144.
- Armutlu, M. E., Bakir, A. C., Sönmez, H., Zorer, E., and Alvarez, M. D. (2020). Factors affecting intended hospitable behaviour to tourists: hosting Chinese tourists in a post-Covid-19 world, *Anatolia*, DOI: 10.1080/13032917.2020.1855595.
- Behavioural Changes in Tourism in Times of Covid-19 (2020), published by Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, Editors: A. Marques Santos, C. Madrid, K. Haegeman, and A. Rainoldi, DOI:10.2760/00411, JRC121262.
- Bhati, A. S., Mohammadi, Z., Agarwal, M., Kamble, Z., and Donough-Tan, G. (2020). Motivating or manipulating: the influence of health protective behaviour and media engagement on post-COVID-19 travel. *Current Issues in Tourism*, DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2020.1819970.
- Chebli, A., and Said, F. B. (2020). The impact of Covid-19 on tourist consumption behaviour: a perspective article. *Journal of Tourism Management Research*, 7(2): 196-207.
- COVID-19 Report for the Restaurant and Hotel Industry (2019). Published by the School of Hospitality Business Management, Carson College of Business at Washington State University. Editors: D. Gursoy, C. G. Chi, and O. H. Chi, Pullman, USA.
- Delener, N. (2010). Current trends in the global tourism industry: evidence from the United States. *Revista de Administração Pública*, 44(5): 1125-1137.
- Fotiadis, A. (2018). Modelling wedding marketing strategies: An fsQCA Analysis. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 4(1), 23-26.
- Graham, A., Kremarik, F., and Kruse, W. (2020). Attitudes of ageing passengers to air travel since the coronavirus pandemic. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 87: 101865.
- Golets, A., Farias, J., Pilati, R., and Costa, H. (2020). COVID-19 pandemic and tourism: the impact of health risk perception and intolerance of uncertainty on travel intentions. *Preprints*, 2020100432, DOI: 10.20944/preprints202010.0432.v1.
- Jafari, K., Saydam, M. B., Erkanlı, E., and Olorunsola, V. O. (2020). The impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on the consumer behavior of Turkish tourists. *Turismo: Estudos & Práticas (UERN)*, 1-17.
- Foroudi, P., Tabaghdehi, S. A. H., and Marvi, R. (2021). The gloom of the COVID-19 shock in the hospitality industry: a study of consumer risk perception and adaptive belief in the dark cloud of a pandemic. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92: 102717.
- Karl, M., Muskat, B., and Ritchie, B.W. (2020). Which travel risks are more salient for destination choice? an examination of the tourist's decision-making process. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 18: 100487.
- Karl, M., Kock, F., Ritchie, B.W., and Gauss, J. (2021). Affective forecasting and travel decision-making: an investigation in times of a pandemic. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 87: 103139.

- Kaushal, V, and Srivastava, S. (2021). Hospitality and tourism industry amid COVID-19 pandemic: perspectives on challenges and learnings from India. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92: 102707.
- McKinsey & Company (2020). McKinsey: 75% of Americans have changed brands during the pandemic. ZDNet. By: By Vala Afshar | August 31, 2020 -- 16:38 GMT (17:38 BST) | Topic: Coronavirus: Business and technology in a pandemic. <https://www.zdnet.com/article/mckinsey-three-factors-drive-consumer-loyalty-in-the-next-normal/> [Accessed the 20th of February 2021, 17:53]
- Kim, M. J., Bonn, M., and Hall, C. M. (2021). What influences COVID-19 biosecurity behaviour for tourism?. *Current Issues in Tourism*, DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2021.1883558.
- Li, Z., Zhang, S., Liu, X., Kozak, M., and Weni J. (2020). Seeing the invisible hand: underlying effects of COVID-19 on tourists' behavioral patterns. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 18: 100502.
- Matiza, T. (2020). Post-COVID-19 crisis travel behaviour: towards mitigating the effects of perceived risk. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, DOI: 10.1108/JTF-04-2020-0063.
- Mohanty, P., Hassan, A., and Ekis, E. (2020). Augmented reality for relaunching tourism post-COVID-19: socially distant, virtually connected. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 12(6): 753-760.
- O'Connor, P., and Assaker, G. (2021). COVID-19's effects on future pro-environmental traveler behavior: an empirical examination using norm activation, economic sacrifices, and risk perception theories. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, DOI: 10.1080/09669582.2021.1879821.
- Perić, G., Dramićanin, S., and Conić, M. (2021). The impact of Serbian tourists' risk perception on their travel intentions during the COVID-19 pandemic. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 27: 2705.
- Rather, R. A. (2021). Monitoring the impacts of tourism-based social media, risk perception and fear on tourist's attitude and revisiting behaviour in the wake of COVID-19 pandemic. *Current Issues in Tourism*, DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2021.1884666.
- Sibi, P.S., Arun Das., O.P., and Ashaf, M. B.A. (2020). Changing paradigm of travel motivations post Covid-19. *International Journal of Management (IJM)*, 11(11): 489-500.
- To Recovery & Beyond: The future of travel & tourism in the wake of Covid-19 (2020), published by World Travel & Tourism Council and Oliver Wyman. Editors: G. Guevara and M. De Clercq. September 2020.
- Tourism Towards 2030 report. global overview - advance edition presented at UNWTO 19th general assembly - 10 October 2011. <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284414024>. [Accessed the 17th of February 2021, 19:00]
- UNWTO- International tourism highlights (2019). <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421152> [Accessed the 16th of February 2021, 15:30]
- Wachyuni, S. S., and Kusumaningrum, D. A. (2020). The effect of COVID-19 pandemic: how are the future tourist behavior?. *Journal of Education, Society and Behavioural Science*, 33(4): 67-76.
- Wang, L., Wong, P. P. W., and Zhang, Q. (2020). Travellers' destination choice among university students in China amid COVID-19: extending the theory of planned behaviour. *Tourism Review*, DOI: 10.1108/TR-06-2020-0269.
- Wen, J., Wang, C. C., and Kozak, M. (2020). Post-COVID-19 Chinese domestic tourism market recovery: potential influence of traditional Chinese medicine on tourist behaviour. *Anatolia*, DOI: 10.1080/13032917.2020.1768335.
- Wen, J., Kozak, M., Yang, S., and Liu, F. (2020). COVID-19: potential effects on Chinese citizens' lifestyle and travel. *Tourism Review*, DOI: 10.1108/TR-03-2020-0110.
- Zhan, L., Zeng, X., Morrison, A. M., Liang, H., and Coca-Stefaniak, J. A. (2020). A risk perception scale for travel to a crisis epicentre: visiting Wuhan after COVID-19. *Current Issues in Tourism*, DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2020.1857712.
- Zenker, S. and Kock, F. (2020). The coronavirus pandemic – a critical discussion of a tourism research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 81: 104164.

Zenker, S., Braun, E., and Gyimóthy, S. (2021). Too afraid to travel? development of a pandemic (COVID-19) anxiety travel scale (PATS). *Tourism Management*, 84: 104286.

The Relationship Between Employee Complaints and Workplace Mobbing

Ali Sukru Cetinkaya

Selcuk University, Turkey

ORCID: 0000-0001-8815-7165

Email address: alisukru@outlook.com

Abstract

Complaints in the workplace can be a source of mobbing for the employees who raised these complaints. Managers may prefer to respond to employee complaints by punishing workers with discipline, pay cuts or even termination. This research aimed to investigate the relationship between employee complaints and mobbing at workplaces. This is a quantitatively designed research. Survey data were collected from 142 randomly selected employees working in the service industry, mainly in health organizations, operating in Karaman province in Turkey. The data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics exploratory factor analysis and linear regression analysis techniques. The results revealed that when employee complaints were raised due to promotion and salary-based reasons, most likely the mobbing that would take place at the workplace was the prevention of socialization. When employee complaints were raised due to the organization's general atmosphere and social environment, most likely the blocking communication type of mobbing would take place. Decision-making originated complaints had only meaningful impact on the attack on personal credibility types of mobbing. Complaints are signs of discomfort that employees are suffering at the workplace. Thus, voicing can be an opportunity for the management to get aware of the mishandlings taken place in the organization. If there is a complaint from an employee, that can be interpreted that there are also other employees who are suffering from the same subject but not complaining. Therefore, managers should listen to those voices, treat each complaint carefully, encourage the employees to voice their ideas, and find solutions.

Keywords: Complaint, Mobbing, Service Industry

1. Introduction

Exposure to workplace bullying by peers or superiors is a serious growing social problem that has significant harmful, physical, and psychological effects on victims, as well as production lost in organizations (Trott, 2017, p. 3). According to a research, almost 90% of working adults have experienced workplace bullying to some degree, and most incidents of workplace bullying go unreported because of fear of further retaliation (Fabber, 2018, p. 1). Similarly, an increasing number of supervisors or managers continue to respond to employee complaints by punishing workers with discipline, pay cuts or even termination (HRSpecialist, 2019). However, all complaints should be taken seriously, some require more immediate action and solutions. Therefore, it is important to investigate the impact of complaints on mobbing. Although there are researches in the literature that explain the causes of mobbing, there are limited researches that explain the impact of employee complaints as a source of workplace mobbing. Thus, this research aimed to investigate the relationship between employee complaints and mobbing at workplaces.

2. Literature review

Employee Complaints

Complaint, or widely used synonym term “voice”, is defined as the intentionally expressing work-related ideas, information, suggestions, concerns, and opinions about possible improvements, rather than merely criticizing the situation (Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003; Kwon & Farndale, 2020). Complaint is informal and discretionary communication made by the individual employee upward to superiors who might be able to take appropriate action in the organization (Kaufman, 2015).

Employee willingness to complain depends on the feeling of safety and perception that the result will be effective. When an employee feels safe and perceives that the result will be effective, is he or she expected to share opinions, ideas, concerns, and complaints (Kwon & Farndale, 2020). Individuals tend to dramatically overestimate the probability of risks when they feel little control over bad outcomes and dramatically underestimate risks when they perceive themselves able to exercise control. For instance, employees working in more dangerous workplaces tend to

generate more complaints, while those with comparatively better conditions will produce fewer complaints (Weil & Pyles, 2005).

Employee voice can involve speaking out through formal structures, informal communication to a person who might be able to take an appropriate action, or indirectly through employee representatives (Kwon & Farndale, 2020). Formal voice, which is more structured approach for sharing ideas and concerns, entails potentially conflicting circumstances in which the organizational norms can signal voice as either safe or effective. Examples of formal, direct voice mechanisms include meetings between management and the workforce, newsletters, notice boards, grievance filings, and suggestion schemes (Kaufman, 2015; Kwon & Farndale, 2020). Employers may use the formal voice mechanism as a channel to express their voice while being protected from negative employer reactions. Voice expressed through formal mechanisms requires an organizationally provided procedure that usually records, shares, and/or evaluates the ideas, suggestions, opinions, and concerns raised. Therefore, the effectiveness of formal voice is potentially stronger than that of informal voice (Kwon & Farndale, 2020).

Informal voice occurs through non-structured processes through which opinions, suggestions, ideas, or complaints related to the workplace are expressed from employees to management through casual conversations, meetings, messages or e-mails. The speaker using informal voice recognizes that there is no formal procedure to ensure that what is being voiced is listened to. The recipient could be anyone who is in an ongoing relationship with the speaker or who is expected to be able to address the issue raised. The recipient of the voice can determine whether and how to respond since there is no formal obligation to deal with what is being said. Voice through an individual channel can be more effective in some cases, better delivering employee voice to management as it is not mediated by employee representatives (Kwon & Farndale, 2020).

Dyne et al. (2003) classified complaints as prosocial voice, defensive voice, and acquiescent voice. Prosocial voice is intentional, and proactive voice focuses on benefiting others by expressing work-related ideas, information, or opinions based on cooperative motives such as altruism. Defensive voice is based on the motives of disengaged resignation and self-protective responses to fear. This could include assertive responses such as trying to shift attention and blame to others through the use of excuses, justifications, and disclaimers as self-protective strategies where voice is used as a response to feeling threatened. Thus, voice can be used to protect the self through various defensive communications, such as proposing ideas that focus on other topics or shifting attention to other people. The key unifying characteristic behind these behaviors is their orientation toward protecting the self from feared and undesired consequences.

Acquiescent voice is a disengaged expression of work-related ideas, information, or opinions based on feeling unable to make a difference. It is intentional expression of ideas, information, and opinions that are relevant to the work. Acquiescent voice approach takes into account that individuals express agreement rather than their own thoughts, or remain ignorant since past suggestions for change and recommendations to consider new approaches were ignored. Thus, one of the primary motives driving this form of voice is resignation (Dyne et al., 2003).

Both employee's psychological structure and firm's organizational structure are main determinants of complaints in organizations. Organizational climate, which refers to the atmosphere, norms, attitudes and behaviors reflecting and underpinning how workers, unions, and managers interact collectively with each other in the workplace, affects voice through individual perception of benefits and costs of speaking up, like whether speaking up is safe or dangerous, and effective or futile. Thus, organizational climate influences the amount and type of employee voice (Weil & Pyles, 2005).

Cultural values determine how management perceives employee voice. For example, a manager raised in a culture that values high power distance may have a strong belief that employee's speaking out is inappropriate behavior and could be considered insubordination, leading to negative consequences for the employee. Organizational norms related to the appropriateness of employee voice are manifested in manager attitudes and behaviors (Kwon & Farndale, 2020).

Employees choose to provide the amount or type of voice based on a cognitive evaluation of the benefits or costs of speaking up (Kaufman, 2015). The state of the labor market, market-mediated employment relationship, and employer-employee commitment to cooperate together in a long-term mutual gain relationship affect complaint behavior. All voice, regardless of its origins, runs the risk of being unsafe and ineffective because voice is aimed at challenging the status quo (Kwon & Farndale, 2020). Employee face significant costs arising from potential management retaliation, such as economic losses associated with retaliatory reassignment or lower performance ratings, and in the extreme, being fired (Weil & Pyles, 2005).

Workplace Mobbing

Workplace mobbing is defined as the persistent, repeated, and intentional hostile, unethical, and health-harming physical, psychological, or emotional mistreatment of one or more persons (the victims) by one or more perpetrators (Fabber, 2018, p. 1; Leymann, 1990; Trott, 2017, pp. 11-12). Mobbing is a verbal or nonverbal, long-lasting, escalated conflict that begins with strategies such as oppressing, humiliating, bullying, demoralizing, blackmailing, isolating, intimidating, or threatening the victim (Alan, Bekar, Ciftcioglu, & Karadag, 2019; Fabber, 2018; Zapf, 1999, p. 1). The term “mobbing” is mentioned as “bullying”, “harassment”, or “psychological terror” in various researches (Leymann, 1996; Merlone & Argentero, 2021; Zapf, 1999). Thus, these terms are also used interchangeably in this paper.

Mobbing at workplace is a serious social problem that has reached important proportions in the world. Researchers report that although 90% of working adults had experienced workplace bullying to some degree, most incidents of workplace bullying go unreported because of fear of further retaliation (Fabber, 2018, p. 1).

Leymann (1996) stated that there is a difference between conflict and mobbing behavior in organizations. The distinction between “conflict” and “mobbing” focus on the frequency and duration of what is done. Mobbing takes place often (at least once a week) and over a long period (at least for six months). A person who is exposed to such long term and systematic behavior feels vulnerable, defenseless, and helpless (Kerse & Babadag, 2019; Mishra, Chaudhuri, & Dey, 2021). Repetitiveness, severity, intent, and power differential are main characteristics of mobbing actions (Trott, 2017).

The victims’ actions are primarily dependent on whether the bullying was downward, lateral (horizontal) or upward (Mishra et al., 2021). Imbalance connected with formal power can explain downward mobbing where a supervisor bullies a worker by using the legitimate power arising from the formal power structure of the organization. Power inequity may also arise among co-workers of similar age and status where the mobbing perpetrator(s) have access to informal sources of power that are social, physical or psychological in nature. Thus, the lateral bully (or bullies) exploits a situation in which the target feels dependent on the workgroup. Upward mobbing could arise in situations where a subordinate or group of subordinates has enough power to bully a supervisor or manager (De Cieri, Sheehan, Donohue, Shea, & Cooper, 2019):.

There may be various reasons why a person bullies another person at workplace. The causes of workplace bullying have been difficult to identify (Trott, 2017, p. 7). Problems in the organization of work, injustice perceptions, and leadership problems can be the cause of mobbing. Social system and processes of social exclusion can also be a potential cause of mobbing. The number of unresolved conflicts should also increase mobbing cases in the organization (Reknes, Glambek, & Einarsen, 2021; Zapf, 1999).

Regardless of the reason, mobbing can take place in the form of rumors, social isolation, verbal aggression, organizational measures, attacking the private sphere, physical aggression, and attacking one’s attitudes (Zapf, 1999). Any type of mobbing over time can have a significant effect on the victim’s physical, social, and psychological wellbeing. Such victimization may result in depression, anxiety, sleep disturbance, irritability, suicidal ideation, and post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms. In addition, workplace bullying often has long lasting effects on the victim’s personal and professional life, such as loss of self-confidence, self-esteem, morale, and social withdrawal. These negative effects then play a role in the productivity level, well-being, and potentially career of the victim (Fabber, 2018, pp. 1-5; Keashly, 2021). Additionally, mobbing may lead to a decrease in the social climate and social support, which in turn may weaken the information flow and decrease in organizational productivity (Kerse & Babadag, 2019; Zapf, 1999).

Employees who complain about things happening at the workplace can be a clue for the management to get aware of the need to initiate changes in the organization. However, managers may perceive such voices as assault against their authority, and may start mobbing against the voiced one. In the literature, there is still a need to investigate the relationship between employee complaints and workplace mobbing. Therefore, the following hypotheses was proposed in this research:

H₁: Employee complaints have impact on workplace mobbing in organizations.

3. Research methodology

This quantitatively designed research aimed to investigate the relationship between employee complaints and mobbing at workplaces. Surveyed data was collected by using a questionnaire form having three parts: the first part was about the measure for the source of complaints, the second part was about the measure for the mobbing perception, and the

third part was about the demographic characteristics of the participants. The measure for the complaints was a 5-point Linkert type scale ranged from “1 = strongly disagree ” to “5 = strongly agree”, and the measure for the mobbing perception was a 5-point Linkert type scale ranged from “1 = never ” to “5 = always”.

The measure for the source of complaints was adapted from the research of (Eğilmez, 2007). This measure had a Cronbach's Alpha reliability value of 0.72. (11 items). The measure for the mobbing perception was adapted from the research of (Özalp, 2013). This measure consisted of 45 items originally, however 10 items were dropped at the phase of pilot data analysis. Additionally, three more items were also eliminated at the phase of reliability analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability value for this measure was 0.79 (32 items), and further data analyses were conducted with the remaining 32 items. Results of the reliability tests for both measures indicated that the internal consistency level of the items was acceptable.

Population of the research was the enterprises operating in health industry. Sampling framework of the research was the employees working in health organizations in Karaman, in Turkey. A total of 400 questionnaires were delivered to randomly selected employees and 142 of them were filtered valid for analysis. This amount of data was assessed adequate to make generalization based on the given limitations (Hox & Bechger, 2006).

Expert feedbacks were taken from six experts actively working in the target industry and two academicians from the field to increase the surface validity of the questionnaire. A pilot study was conducted to test the preliminary construct validity of the measures. By analyzing 30 valid pilot data, some items were dropped from the measure of mobbing perception and some items in both measures were rephrased to clarify the meaning of the items.

4.Findings and analysis

Data was analyzed by employing descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, and linear regression analysis techniques.

The analysis of the demographic characteristics revealed that majority of the respondents were female (59.86%), at the age groups of 18-29 (51.41%), had experience at the current workplace 1-3 years (51.41%), working as nurse (43.66%) at hospitals (89.44%).

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted for the measure of the source of complaints. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was factorable (KMO = 0.613). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity had a significant result ($\chi^2 = 373.312$; $df = 45$; $p < 0.000$), indicating that the factor analysis can be applied for this measure. Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed by using “Direct Oblimin” rotation with Principal Component Analysis method. Due to low loading reason one item of the measure was eliminated from the analysis. Exploratory factor analysis generated three components explaining 57.37% of total variance. Further analysis was conducted with the compound variables named social environment, decision making and collaboration, and promotion and salary.

The measure for the mobbing perception was borrowed from the literature. Since this measure was validated in the health sector by the previous research, five compound variables were created by calculating arithmetic means of the corresponding items. Compound variables for the measure of mobbing perception were named preventing socialization, direct attack, preventing communication, attack on personal credibility, and prevent to display performance.

A linear regression analysis was executed to determine the impact of source of complaints on the mobbing types (Table 1). Results of the linear regression analysis indicated that promotion and salary had significant impacts on preventing socialization, direct physical attack, preventing communication, and prevent to display performance. Social environment had significant impacts on preventing communication, attack on personal credibility, and direct physical attack. Decision making and collaboration had only significant impact on the attack on personal credibility.

Table 1. Linear Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable (mobbing types)	Independent Variables (source of complaints)	R² and β	S.E.	F and <i>t</i>	Sig.
<i>Preventing Socialization</i>		<i>0.469</i>	<i>0.158</i>	<i>40.658</i>	<i>0.000</i>
	Social Environment	-0.003	0.033	-0.090	0.929

	Decision Making and Collaboration	0.020	0.027	0.730	0.467
	Promotion and Salary	0.309	0.029	10.643	0.000
Direct Attack		0.107	0.193	5.540	0.001
	Social Environment	0.104	0.040	2.592	0.011
	Decision Making and Collaboration	-0.015	0.033	-0.440	0.661
	Promotion and Salary	-0.130	0.035	-3.683	0.000
Preventing Communication		0.569	0.201	60.703	0.000
	Social Environment	0.543	0.042	13.002	0.000
	Decision Making and Collaboration	-0.030	0.034	-0.866	0.388
	Promotion and Salary	-0.094	0.037	-2.566	0.011
Attack on Personal Credibility		0.143	0.279	7.678	0.000
	Social Environment	-0.272	0.058	-4.677	0.000
	Decision Making and Collaboration	0.106	0.048	2.223	0.028
	Promotion and Salary	0.020	0.051	0.387	0.700
Prevent to Display Performance		0.060	0.181	2.926	0.036
	Social Environment	0.016	0.038	0.433	0.666
	Decision Making and Collaboration	0.055	0.031	1.771	0.079
	Promotion and Salary	-0.075	0.033	-2.264	0.025

Results of the linear regression analysis revealed that the proposed hypothesis (H₁) was partially supported.

5. Discussion

Organizations have a formal structure of departments, positions and functions coordinated by a management system that determines decision-making rights, the distribution and exercise of authority and power, and the rights and responsibilities of subordinates. Kaufman (2015) states that employees are fearful of speaking up to superiors for fear of retaliation which, presumably, suggests strengthening the management structure. This research also evidenced that statement. Complaints based on social environment, decision making and collaboration, and promotion and salary cause employees to be exposed mobbing by the supervisors or managers.

The likelihood that employees exercise their voice rights depends on both the benefits and the risks of doing so (Weil & Pyles, 2005). Employees consider promotive voice safer and more effective than prohibitive voice. An enforcement system focused on individuals exercising rights may lead to far fewer benefits (Kwon & Farndale, 2020; Weil & Pyles, 2005). Similarly, the formality of voice has impact on whether employees will speak out. Formal voice channels potentially offer the most effective and safe way of voice being heard and acted upon in an organization due to their defined mechanisms or employee rights. In contrast, informal voice has no explicit process for dealing with voice when it arises, potentially leading to more uncertain consequences for employees. Both formal and informal systems can have varying degrees of both effectiveness and safety for the employee speaking out (Kwon & Farndale, 2020). Findings of this research also proved that when the complaint is about promotion and salary, which is an official right for the employees to speak on it, supervisors or managers tend to expose mobbing against the employee who voiced.

6. Conclusions

This research investigated the relationship between employee complaints and mobbing at workplaces. The findings revealed that the sources of employee complaints have various impacts on the types of mobbing at workplaces. Complaints originated from promotion and salary had the highest impact on the mobbing that had taken place in the form of preventing socialization ($R^2 = 0.31$; $p < 0.001$), while it had weak negative impact on direct physical attack,

preventing communication, and preventing to display performance. Complaints originated from social environment had the highest impact on the mobbing that had taken place in the form of preventing communication ($R^2 = 0.54$; $p < 0.001$), while it had weak negative impact on the attack on personal credibility and weak positive impact on the direct physical attack. Complaints originated from decision making and collaboration had only significant impact on the mobbing that had taken place in the form of attack on personal credibility ($R^2 = 0.11$; $p < 0.05$).

Employee voice is a response to discomfort that the employee is experiencing at the workplace. If there is a voice from an employee, that can be interpreted that there may be other employees who are also suffering from the same issue that they are not complaining. Therefore, all employee complaints need to be considered important and treated carefully, without mobbing against them. Voicing these discomforts can be an opportunity for the management to get aware of the mishandlings taken place in the organization. Thus, managers should encourage the employees to voice their ideas to get a better workplace.

Managers and supervisors have the responsibility to dissolve the problems that employees are experiencing in the organizations. Therefore, managers should not prevent employees to voice their complaints by exposing mobbing against. Managers should disclose underlying conditions in the workplace for the complaint from several different sources. Comparative data provides objective measures of true underlying conditions in those workplaces. Managers should be willing to listen to any voice, and treat all employees equally in day-to-day management and discipline. Workplace regulatory policy needs to focus on not creating organizations where workers are unlikely to complain because of barriers they face. The way that the voiced employee treated by the management can be a signal to employees how safe and effective the voice mechanism is.

This research has some limitations that suggest future research opportunities. This research was quantitatively designed. Future researches can be designed qualitatively to get in-depth knowledge of the concept. This research was carried out in Karaman in Turkey. Similar researches can be conducted in other regions or other countries with higher sample size to determine the effect of cultural differences on the research subject.

References

- Alan, H., Bekar, E. O., Ciftcioglu, G., and Karadag, M. (2019). Relationship between Mobbing Encountered by Nurses and Learned Resourcefulness. *International Journal of Caring Sciences*, 12(2), 1008-1016.
- De Cieri, H., Sheehan, C., Donohue, R., Shea, T., and Cooper, B. (2019). Workplace bullying: an examination of power and perpetrators. *Personnel Review*, 48(2), 324-341. doi:10.1108/PR-02-2018-0057
- Dyne, L. V., Ang, S., and Botero, I. C. (2003). Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(6), 1359-1392.
- Eğilmez, K. E. (2007). *The Impact of socio-economic and demographic characteristics on psychological troubles and complaints in organizations, a practice for Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası T.A.O.* (Master Thesis), Atılım Üniversitesi, Graduate School of Management, Ankara.
- Fabber, V. L. (2018). *Workplace Bullying: Understanding the Victims Perspective*. (Ph.D. Dissertation), Northcentral University, School of Psychology, San Diego, California, USA.
- HRSpecialist. (2019). After an employee complaint, keep calm & manage on. *HR Specialist*, 17(7), 6-6.
- Kaufman, B. E. (2015). Theorising determinants of employee voice: An integrative model across disciplines and levels of analysis. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 25(1), 19-40.
- Keashly, L. (2021). Workplace bullying, mobbing and harassment in academe: Faculty experience. *Special topics and particular occupations, professions and sectors*, 221-297.
- Kerse, G., and Babadag, M. (2019). A path from bullying at work to alienation: a multi-level view. *Management Research Review*, 42(10), 1201-1215. doi:10.1108/MRR-11-2018-0412
- Kwon, B., and Farndale, E. (2020). Employee voice viewed through a cross-cultural lens. *Human Resource Management Review*, 30(1). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2018.06.002>
- Leymann, H. (1990). Mobbing and psychological terror at workplaces. *Violence and Victims*, 5(2), 119-126.
- Leymann, H. (1996). The content and development of mobbing at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 165-184.
- Merlone, U., and Argentero, P. (2021). Modelling Dysfunctional Behaviours in Organizations: The Case of Workplace Mobbing/Bullying. *Concepts, Approaches and Methods*, 485-506.
- Mishra, S., Chaudhuri, M., and Dey, A. K. (2021). Deflating power imbalance through personal identity enhancement. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, 16(1), 98-126. doi:10.1108/QROM-03-2020-1902
- Özalp, F. (2013). *Mobbing and job satisfaction of the relationship between the working life, public establishment of a practice*. (Master Thesis), İstanbul Aydın University, Graduate School of Management, İstanbul.
- Reknes, I., Glambek, M., and Einarsen, S. V. (2021). Injustice perceptions, workplace bullying and intention to leave. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 43(1), 1-13. doi:10.1108/ER-10-2019-0406
- Trott, S. (2017). *Influence of Personal Experience on Workplace Bullying Behavior*. (Ph.D. Dissertation), Walden University, College of Social and Behavioral Sciences, Minneapolis, USA.
- Weil, D., and Pyles, A. (2005). Why complain-complaints, compliance, and the problem of enforcement in the us workplace. *Comp. Lab. L. & Pol'y. J.*, 27, 59.
- Zapf, D. (1999). Organisational, work group related and personal causes of mobbing/bullying at work. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 70-85.

Do going green concept and csr activities influence on financial performance? Empirical Evidence from SME Hotels in Sri Lanka.

Sathika Dias Dahanayake¹, Ruwan Ranasignhe², Maduranga Kulathunga³

Uva Wellassa University, Sri Lanka

ORCID: 0000-0001-6869-5919

Email: Sathikadahanayake@gmail.com

Uva Wellassa University, Sri Lanka

ORCID: 0000-0003-0506-9667

Email: ruwan@uwu.ac.lk

Uva Wellassa University, Sri Lanka

ORCID: 0000-0003-2079-5114

Email: maduranga@uwu.ac.lk

Abstract

The main objective of this study is to examine the impact of Going Green Concept and CSR Activities on Financial Performance with the moderating effect of Management Commitment in SME hotels in Sri Lanka. For that used four hypotheses to measure this objective. To identify the moderating effect of management commitment with the relationship between independent and dependent variables researcher was used closed-ended questionnaires. Also, the research sample consists of 180 owners and managers of SME hotels in the Western province by using convenience sampling technique and the collected data were analysed adapting PLS-SEM by using SmartPLS software. The researcher used a descriptive statistic for analysis of the profile of the hotel by adapting IBM SPSS software. By using PLS path modelling researcher measured four hypotheses in this research. The researcher was identified that the significant negative impact of the GGC and CSRA on FP with the moderating role through MC. When reviewing the prior literature, researcher has been identified impact of GGC and CSRA on FP can be differ based on industry, hotel size, owner manager's attitudes, knowledge and awareness. The researcher recommends for future researchers to expand the industry and investigate customer preference, staff engagement and staff awareness impact on GGC, CSRA and FP.

Keywords: Going Green Concept, CSR Activities, Financial Performance, Management Commitment, SME Hotels

1. Introduction

According to Pushpakumari & Watanabe, (2009) SMEs are increasingly recognized as the main vehicle for economic development in many nations, especially in developing countries. Also is contributes to the economy as an increase in the employment rate, increases economic growth. Also, the main drivers as innovation, infrastructure development, etc. With that SMEs have become one of the major assets in the economy. According to the Ministry of Industry and Commerce in Sri Lanka, SMEs are concern as the backbone of the economy and more than 75 percent of total enterprises, provide 45 percent employment and contribute to 52 percent GDP. Further according to the National Policy Framework, (2016), SMEs consist of million establishments and employment to around 2.25 million people in the country. When the SMEs are trying to support the national GDP in several ways, they are impacted by increase global warming, biodiversity losses, air pollution etc.

Graci & Dodds (2008) mentioned that, with technological changes in the business world, consumers and business activities were negatively impacted to the environment. As an example, greater reduction in water and air quality, less availability of the water, biodiversity losses, increasing global warming, etc. Therefore, consumers have changed their purchasing intention and buying behavior in the market. Merli et al., (2019) mention that, consumers were more preferred to use environmentally friendly products. According to Wan et al. (2017), respond to the changes in consumer perception and concerning the environmental impact, businesses were moved to use environmentally friendly initiatives within their business as Going Green Concept.

As well as, while concerning environment-friendly practices as Going Green Concept, businesses attained to do Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Activities with considering the negative impact on the environment and society from business operations. By doing CSR Activities business expects to go long term sustainability, achieving competitive advantages, meeting stakeholders' benefits and increase reputation as well (Tai & Chuang, 2014). With that GGC and CSR activities became the timely needed concept in the 21st century.

According to the Pacific Gas & Electronics Food Service Technology Centre (FSTC), hotels are the largest energy user in the world. Because most of the energy consumption activities are highly interrelated to hotels (Al-Aomar & Hussain, 2017). Most of the hotel activities are engaged with energy consumption activities as heating, cooling, ventilation, lighting and electricity, laundering and cleaning, etc. Moreover, *Tourists to Stay Only at SLTDA Registered Hotels, Guest Houses - The Sunday Reader - Sri Lankan News*, (2020) mentioned that about 60 percent of the Tourism industry is estimated under SMEs and most of them are hotels. Halbe (2013); Njite et al., (2011) state that, in Sri Lanka SME hotels facing difficulty establishing and implementing these CSR activities and Going Green Concept within their business. As the reasons, they highlighted the high cost for innovation, lack of awareness and low demand from customers about these concepts. There is limited availability of literature related to SME hotels in the Sri Lankan context. (Kapurubandara & Lawson, 2001; Kasim, 2009). With that, the research is categorized under empirical research. Therefore, this research study will examine the Impact of GGC and CSRA on the FP of SME Hotels in Sri Lanka. With special reference to hotels in Western province, Sri Lanka. And considering Management Commitment as a moderating variable.

2.Literature review

2.1 Going Green Concept

Based on the environmental considerations, consumers are pressured toward businesses for adopting the environment-friendly manner in their business (Al-Aomar & Hussain, 2017). Those customers (especially tourists) are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products and services. For that consumers' attitudes and collectivist values are highly influenced. Because consumers' purchasing intention was not limited only to purchasing and satisfying their current wants and needs. Further, they are concerned and believe people's quality of life is highly dependent on the protection and preservation of both humans and ecosystems in both the present and future (Chyong-Huey et al., 2006).

Compared to the SMEs, large scale businesses adopt GG practices. Because green products are expensive compared to non-green products and low demand create obstacles toward the small-medium scale firms. Gleim et al., (2013); Musa & Chinniah, (2016) view, compared SMEs with large-scale firms, SMEs have practiced recycling performance with greater improvement level. And also, by adopting the GGC, SMEs can increase their productivity, profitability and long-term survival. Compare to the large firms, in SMEs adaptation of the GGC is significantly dependent on their owner's and manager's ethical standards, level of awareness and concern of environmental impact.

Government pressure is one of the major factors for adopting the GGC in business as well as changing the supplier's and employee's perspectives align with the environment, further in the business world always trying to react to competitor's actions. Therefore, if the competitor engages with going green practices particular firms also try to adopt the GGC (Weng et al., 2015). Within the business Electoral threat and opportunity also decide the level of adaptation of the GGC (Spoon et al., 2014). If the GGC is a positive impact on the environment, according to the previous researchers found that the result can be mixed. But there is a positive relationship between GGC and FP. The impact is varied based on a set of firms, industries and countries (Molina-Azorín et al., 2009). The previous researches examined only the direct relationship between the GGC and FP (Rokhmawati & Gunardi, 2017; Tai & Chuang, 2014). Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H1 There is a significant impact of Going Green Concept on the Financial Performance of SME hotels.

2.2 Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Activities

According to Ettinger et al., (2018), CSR is one of the important topics in the dynamic business environment and most businesses were tend to take responsibility regarding their business activities and try to protect the environment and do more social welfare activities. In today's business world, businesses are not only focusing to make a profit but instead of that, they try to be responsible for citizenship to society (Tai & Chuang, 2014). According to Vogel, (2006), CSR became a fashion in the business context. If the CSRA are not a statutory requirement, in the business world there is a rapid tendency towards CSRA. Jamali, (2007) implied that in today's business world need to maximize owners' value while promoting social value to society also. Companies are engaging with CSRA while considering voluntary philanthropic contributions to society over legal and ethical perspectives.

CSRA positively affect consumer purchasing behavior and increase firm identification in the market. (Lichtenstein et al., 2004). According to Becker-Olsen & Hill, (2005) before implementing CSRA need to be concerned about how their customers react to it. Because sometimes consumers may blame the actions of the firm and it will negatively impact to firm's image. With that firms need to implement CSRA to align with their products or services. Compared to the large-scale firms' small-scale firms had lower adaptability. The reason for lower adaptability is resource constraint, lower visibility and low customer base. Some of the previous researches found a mixed result and no significant relationship association between CSRA and FP. Further by doing CSR companies, expect third-party recognition of the business (González-Benito & González-Benito, 2006). Some previous researchers found a positive relationship between FP and CSRA (Maqbool & Zameer, 2018; Platonova et al., 2018). Therefore, there is a theoretical gap also. Therefore, the following hypothesis is developed.

H2: There is a significant impact of CSR Activities on the Financial Performance of SME hotels.

2.3 Management Commitment

Management Commitment means emotional attachment toward the business. MC involves by particular business's management to a specific or important aspect of the business directly. Employee empowerment, training and development and reward are the best criteria to measure the MC (PourKiani & Tanabandeh, 2016). Digalwar et al., (2013) argue that managers within the firm are responsible for deciding, implementing strategies and communicating all strategies throughout the firm. And also, MC provides a basis for effective environmental performance.

Ahmed & Parasuraman, (1994) imply that MC of the service industry as "the conscious choice of quality initiatives as operational and strategic options for the firm and engaging in activities such as providing visible quality leadership and resources for the adoption and implementation of quality initiatives".

2.5 Financial Performance

Financial performance is divided into accounting performance and market performance. Most of the previous scholars evaluated market and accounting performance by calculating ratios. (Kucukbay & Fazlılar, 2016). Except for them, most of the previous researchers used some other metrics like profit, stock price abnormal earnings and cash flow to measure FP (Gruca & Rego, 2005; Rust et al., 2004). The SME owners and managers face the challenges of bookkeeping and accounting. Because of a lack of adequate knowledge, lack of skills, cost, etc. Therefore, to eliminate these problems for this study researcher will measure the FP by management perception. But in the SMEs increasing attitude toward accounting practices and bookkeeping (Musah, 2017). Also Compared to the developed countries the few available studies related to the SME sector in Sri Lanka, especially the SME hotel (Kapurubandara & Lawson, 2001; Kasim, 2009). Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed

H3: There is a moderating effect of Management Commitment between Going Green Concept and Financial Performance in SME hotels.

H4: There is a moderating effect of Management Commitment between CSR Activities and Financial Performance of SME hotels.

2.5 Small Medium Enterprises

According to Edmiston, (2004) most of the economies of Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are concern as the main driver for economic development. SMEs contribute to income generation, increase employment & poverty alleviation (Robson et al., 2009). Especially in developing countries, SMEs play a vital role to create more than half of the jobs in every economy. Beck, (2007) states to encourage and promote SMEs most of the government provides more

favourable facilities to SME sectors as a tax benefit, foreign exchange relief, etc. Also, motivate SMSs to reach a foreign market as well. The success of SMEs is restricted by a lack of employees' skills, low production capacity, difficulties accessing bank loans and long bureaucracy, etc. (Kongolo, 2010; Olawale & Garwe, 2010).

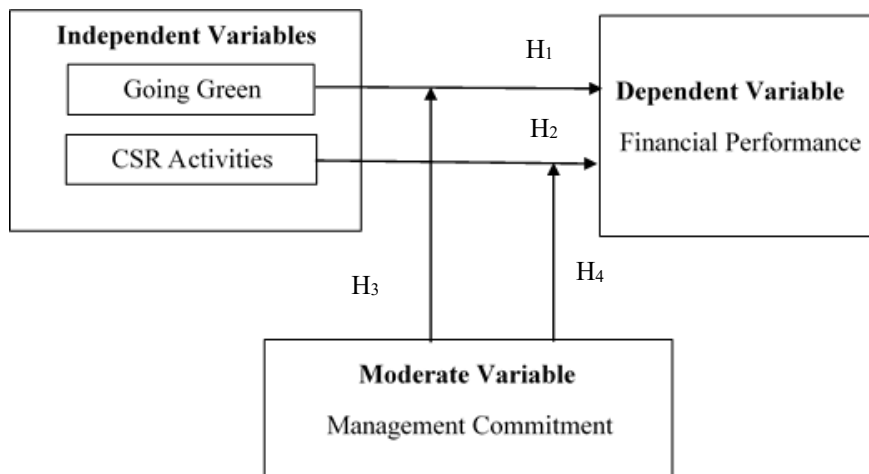


Figure : Conceptual framework. Source: Developed by the researcher based on the past literature

3. Research methodology

The population of this study is the owners and managers in all the SME hotels in Sri Lanka. The sample size consisted with 180 managers and owners of SME hotels in Western province. According to *Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, Annual Statistical Report* (2018), the most attractive tourist place in Colombo city and surrounding areas in Sri Lanka (SLTDA, 2020), around 5000 hotels and guest houses have been registered under SLTDA and over 20,000 unregistered hotels and guest houses are located in surrounding the country.

According to SLTDA reports, most of the SME hotels are not registered their businesses. Therefore, the researcher could not identify the exact number of SME hotels in Sri Lanka. Further researchers are bound with limited time and funds. By considering all the limitations above mentioned, the researchers have selected the convenience sampling technique as a sampling technique for the study. Also, a structured questionnaire was the primary data collection method and it was designed based on the comprehensive literature review. From the section A researchers identified the background of the participating hotels. The section B investigated the awareness and adaptability towered the GGC (Chen & Chai, 2010; Wan et al., 2017). Section C examined the attitude and awareness of the CSR activities (Turker, 2009). The section D examined the awareness and attitude of managers and owners toward these concepts (Digalwar et al., 2013; Gatling et al., 2016) and from section E identified how impact to finance performance by using these two concepts (Ye & Kulathunga, 2019). Further, before disseminating questionnaires to the sample, researchers have conducted the pilot test with 30 hoteliers.

As secondary data sources for this study SLTDA annual reports, Ministry of industry and commerce reports, CSE reports, Central Bank annual reports and past research information have been used. Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling technique and Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data.

4. Findings and analysis

4.1 Mean and Standard Deviation of the Construct

The mean value and the standard deviation have been used by the researcher to describe the level of each construct and quantify the amount of variance, has calculated the mean and standard deviation regarding the Going Green Concept, CSR Activities, Management Commitment and Financial Performance. The mean value of the GGC

(4.3389), CSRA (3.7577), MC (3.9857) and FC (3.6500). With that, all mean values are in the range between 3.5 - 5. Based on that, the respondents have almost agreed with all the variables in this study. Standard deviation quantifies the amount of variation or dispersion. All the standard deviation values for the four variables are less than one. Therefore, four variables are acceptable regarding data dispersion.

4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Table 1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	Factors/Items	T- Statistics	CR	AVE	Loadings
	Going Green Concept		0.902	0.508	
GGC_1	Preserving and protecting the environment should be one of our priorities	11.297			0.648
GGC_2	Government's rules and regulations influence highly on environmentally friendly manners	24.906			0.745
GGC_3	The hotel provides its guests with information on how they can contribute to reduce the hotel's environmental impact	11.122			0.592
GGC_4	In the hotel separated waste collection is available	22.786			0.726
GGC_5	Hotel facilities have influence on natural environment	10.797			0.626
GGC_6	Taking action on environmental issues increases employee satisfaction	16.336			0.751
GGC_7	Taking action on environmental issues increases customer satisfaction	15.418			0.678
GGC_8	There are economic benefits to take action on environmental issues	7.347			0.526
GGC_9	Taking action on environmental issues contributes to a hotel's brand image and competitiveness	6.799			0.504
	Corporate Social responsibility Activities		0.905	0.502	
CSRA_1	Makes investment to create a better life for future generation	8.500			0.627
CSRA_2	Implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on natural environment	17.613			0.847
CSRA_3	Contributes to campaigns that promote the well-being of the society	8.217			0.671

CSRA_4	Emphasizes the importance of its social responsibilities of the society	5.036			0.525
CSRA_5	Policies encourage the employees to develop their skills and careers	8.396			0.624
CSRA_6	Our hotel primarily concerns with employees' needs and wants	6.514			0.503
CSRA_7	Our hotel implements flexible policies to provide a good work and life balance for its employees	24.013			0.825
CSRA_9	Our hotel provides full and accurate information about its products & services to its customers	15.335			0.544
CSRA_10	Our company protects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements	12.492			0.720
CSRA_11	Customer satisfaction is highly important for our company	10.624			0.580
CSRA_12	Treats customers' complaints or suggestions seriously	22.923			0.843
CSRA_13	Our hotel always pays its taxes on a regular and continuing basis & complies with the legal regulations completely and promptly.	15.276			0.610
	Management Commitment		0.940	0.693	
MC_2	Environmental performance is one of the most important targets to achieve	36.099			0.847
MC-3	Provide accurate information on company's environmental performance	17.960			0.762
MC-4	Concerning about environmental performance increase the responsibility of the job	30.663			0.827
MC_5	Increasing reward provide motivation to engaging with environmental performances.	10.545			0.711
MC_6	Sufficient Recourses allocate for certain Going green and CSR activities	20.661			0.819
MC_7	Monitor environmental activities & its progress continuously	45.650			0.898
	Financial Performance		0.917	0.734	
FP_1	Going Green Concept and CSR practices are increasing profit growth rates and growing market shares.	34.511			0.855

FP_2	Implanting Going Green Concept and CSR practices are cause to Increase customer satisfaction	28.327			0.698
FP_3	Going Green Concept and CSR Activities enhance the rapid response to market demand	15.952			0.733
FP_4	Going Green Concept and CSR Activities help to increase profit as a percentage of growth rate	58.999			0.909

Source: Analyzed statistical output from field survey, 2020

Note: AVE=Average Variance Extracted, CR=Composite Reliability, *GGC=Going Green Concept*, *CSRA=Corporate Social Responsibility Activities*, *FP= Financial Performance*.

4.3 Evaluation of Measurement Model

4.3.1 Validity & Reliability of the Measurement Model

Table 2

Results of Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
GGC	0.875	0.902	0.538
CSRA	0.878	0.902	0.508
MC	0.924	0.940	0.693
FP	0.877	0.917	0.734

Source: Analyzed statistical output from field survey, 2020

4.3.2 Internal Consistency Convergent validity of the Measurement Model

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was adapted to measure the convergent validity of the measurement model. Considering the value of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) in the variables it lies between 0.508 to 0.734. All four variables are above the threshold > 0.7 , and FP value is greater than 0.7 which means the perfect value.

Objective 01

To Examine the Impact of Going Green Concept and CSR Activities on Financial Performance with the moderating effect of Management Commitment in SME hotels in Sri Lanka.

According to the results generated by the PLS Algorithm and bootstrapping in the PLS-SEM technique to identify the consistent for investigating the moderating effect. With that researcher identified, there is a significant negative impact of Going Green Concept and CSR Activities on financial performance with the moderating effect of Management Commitment in SME hotels in Sri Lanka. To measure the primary objective researcher has been used four hypotheses as H1 (there is a significant impact of Going Green Concept on Financial Performance of SME hotels), H2 (there is a significant impact of CSR Activities. on Financial Performance of SME hotels), H3 (there is a moderating effect of Management Commitment between Going Green Concept and Financial Performance of SME hotels) and H4 (there is a moderating effect of Management Commitment between CSR Activities and Financial Performance of SME hotels.)

The results indicate that ((H1, PC = - 0.590, t value = 20.509 and $P < 0.01$ (0.000), (H2, PC= -0.216, t value = 6.374 and $P < 0.01$ (0.000)), H3., PC = - 0.053, t value = 2.209 and $P < 0.05$ (0.028)) and H4, PC = - 0.088, t value = 2.050 and $P < 0.05$ (0.037)) All hypotheses were significant in 95 percent of significance level but both hypotheses one and two were significant under 99 percent of significance level also. Considering the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) results of each variable, it lies between 1.141-1.0391, which is the appropriate range for multi-collinearity.

According to Francesco et al., (2008), in the past decades, businesses have only focused to gain profit and maximizing owners' wealth. With the development of the world, the business identifies only focusing on owner's wealth they cannot survey in the market and also identified employees are the main resources of the business. Further, considering the negative impact of the business on society, most of the businesses engaged with more social activities by mainly focusing on employees, government and society. Large scale firms are doing CSR as a marketing tool. But in SMEs cannot implement CSRA on a large scale because of financial difficulties mainly Regarding the implementation of the GGC and CSRA are highly dependent on owner management perception and attitudes. Because they are the responsible party who introduces strategies to SME hotels and compare to developed countries most of the developing countries were facing the problem of financial obstacles. Therefore, based on the results the primary objective was achieved and the primary question was answered through the results.

Objective Two

Identify the Existing Level of Going Concept and CSR Activities Adaptation in SME Hotels.

The researcher used IBM SPSS 25 software to achieve this objective and based on the survey data researcher has calculated the mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis to measure this objective. Based on the result of GGC and CSRA in almost agree level. Mean value of the Going Green Concept = 4.35 and CSR Activities = 3.76 level. Also, the standard deviation shows as GGC=0.44 and CSRA=0.43 .and these values are less than one Therefore, two variables are an acceptable level regarding data dispersion. The skewness of the GGC and CSRA was -0.722 and -0.120 respectively. And these values fall to the threshold of -2 to 2. Kurtosis of GGC and CSRA was --0.685 and -0.296. And these values fall to the threshold of -3 to 3.

Based on the results of the Partial Least Square algorithm output regarding R^2 shown, the present model explains 63.6 percent variance of change of FP by GGC & CSRA. According to those findings, the proposed model explains the percentage of the total variance of FP at a moderate level.

Past literature found that supply chain, age of facilities, hotel size, stakeholder's pressure, management techniques and perception influence on degree of implementation and adaptation of the GGC in SME hotels. (Rahman et al., 2012). When considering H2 previous scholars found that CSRA in SME hotels differ from large corporations and other industries and also indicated the Impact of CSRA in FP also can be differ based on the industry as well. Regarding the SME hotel sectors, it impacts in a negative way (Inoue & Seoki, 2011; Njite et al., 2011). Therefore, based on the results the second objective was achieved and the second question was answered through the results.

Objective Three

Examine Impact of Going Green Concept on Financial Performance with the moderating effect of Management Commitment in SME hotels in Sri Lanka.

Smart PLS was used to achieve the third objective of this research. By evaluation of the Structural Model the researcher aimed to identify the Impact of Going Green Concept on Financial Performance with the moderating effect of Management Commitment in SME hotels in Sri Lanka. For that researcher performed path coefficient analysis to identify the impact between the independent variable and dependent variable with moderate variable, and the researcher utilized H1 and H3 for evaluating this objective. According to the results of the path coefficient analysis of H1, there had a moderate negative impact of GGC on FP of SME hotels. According to the results of H1, PC = - 0.590, t value = 20.509 and $P < 0.01$ (0.000). With that researcher identified, there is a moderate negative and also H1 is significant under 99 percent of significance level. H3 proposed as there is a moderating effect of Management Commitment between Going Green Concept and Financial Performance of SME hotels. According to the H3 results indicate that PC = - 0.053, t value = 2.209 and $P < 0.05$ (0.028), based on the results researcher identified that there is a Weak negative relationship since it fell to the category of 0 to - 0.5 also H3 is significant under 95 percent of significance level.

Compared with the other industries, the SME hotels sector has lower concerns toward environmental performance. Also, MC became a key driver of adopting the GGC in SME hotels. But managers or owners do not tend to go beyond the sense of saving costs, the lower amount of customer base, fewer sales volume make obstacles for SME hotels for adapting GGC. Further Lack of knowledge about environmental practices, high cost for consultancy services decreases the adoption level too (Iraldo et al., 2017; Singal, 2014). When considering about Sri Lankan context, there are some key challenges involved in the SME hotel sector like the cost for renovation, focusing seasonality, lack of awareness and interest in the GGC. Most of the city SME hotels have a poor tendency to meet the requirement of the GBCSL

rating system, especially in Colombo. Moreover, complying with government rules and regulations most of the SME hotels try to fulfil minimum requirements regarding the GGC. Also, staff engagement and awareness are significantly influenced by adopting GGC in SME hotels (Moramudali & Manawadu, 2018).

Objective Four

Examine Impact of CSR Activities on Financial Performance with the moderating effect of Management Commitment in SME hotels in Sri Lanka.

SmartPLS was used to achieve the fourth objective of this research. For that also researcher performed path coefficient analysis to identify the impact between the independent variable and dependent variable with moderate variable, and the researcher used H2 and H4 to evaluate this objective. According the results of H2, PC = -0.216, t value 6.374 and $P < 0.01$ (0.000). Therefore, it indicated that there is a weak negative impact since it fell into the category of 0 to -0.05 and significance under 99 percent of the significance level. Further H4 were significance at 95% level PC = -0.088, t value = 2.050 and H2 were significant at 99 percent of significance level and results indicates that $P < 0.037$). PC = -0.216, t value = 6.374 and $P < 0.01$ (0.000).

According to the previous lecture, adaptation toward CSRA in SME hotels significantly differ from large-scale hotels (Njite et al., 2011, Ranasinghe, 2018). CSRA can be mainly divided into four dimensions Based on the Stakeholders theory such as employee care, employee concern, community care and environmental protection. Further main reasons behind ding CSRA are motivated employees, enhancing the hotel's reputation, completing with government rules and regulations. In a large scale, the main reasons are gaining tax reduction and being an ethical organization. But in SME hotels, becoming ethical is the least important among the main reasons. Lack of fiancé and fewer attitudes are the main barriers to adopting CSRA in the SME hotel sector in Sri Lanka (Munasinghe et al., 2012).

5. Discussion

5.1 Theoretical Implications

The present study has identified a moderating effect on the impact of the Going Green Concept and CSR Activities on Financial Performance in SME hotels in Sri Lanka Therefore, the present study has provided a knowledge contribution by providing more insight into the existing literature. With the completion of this study, possible to fulfil some gaps which are investigated through past literature. And also, the study has empirically proved existing theories and concepts by providing accurate information to future researchers. According to the results found by the researcher and based on the past literature, a lack of studies is available regarding the SMEs hotels sector with linking the Going Green Concept, CSR Activities, Management Commitment and Financial Performance. Further, limited researches are also available in the Sri Lankan context regarding these concepts in the SMEs hotels sector. With that this research provides a guideline to future researchers. The present study has explored new knowledge regarding the moderating effect on the impact of the Going Green Concept and CSR Activities on Financial Performance in SME hotels in Sri Lanka. Therefore, the present study contributes to the knowledge base relevant to financial management, sustainable practices and hotel management literature. Based on the research findings, this study provided a knowledge contribution to further verifications and a guide to future research areas.

5.2 Empirical Implications

Through this study, it was aimed at identifying the impact of Going Green Concept and CSR Activities on Financial Performance with the moderating effect of Management Commitment in SME hotels in Sri Lanka. This study provides a deep understanding of the SME hotels sector and what kind of barriers are related to adopting the Going Green Concept and CSR activities. There is an umbrella nature in the tourism industry, with those results of this study can utilize for similar sectors like villas, restaurants, homestay, boutiques, etc. Further, the findings of the research study will influence on policymakers such as SLTDA, Ministry of Industry and Commerce to implement favorable policies regarding SMEs hotels sector.

6. Conclusions

There is a lack of awareness about the Going green concept and CSR activities among the SME hotel sector. Thus, the government should promote these concepts among the SME industry by considering their importance. Also, the government and related authorities can utilize these concepts for achieving sustainable development. Policymakers should more consider implementing required policies to enhance the usage of these concepts by providing facilities

as a loan under zero or low-interest rate, developing infrastructure, conducting awareness programs etc. Further, there is a need to conduct awareness programs for customers to develop their attitudes toward these concepts.

As the limitations, for the current study researcher selected the SME hotel sector. But the limitation is that could not identify the exact amount of SME hotels in Sri Lanka, there is no source to identify an exact number of SME hotels in Sri Lanka. Specially researcher had to start the data collection procedure in the curfew situation in the country. With that researcher has collected data through online questionnaires without distributed questionnaires in a physical way. With that researcher included only close-ended Five Point Likert scale questions to the questionnaire. Lack of past researches about SME hotels in Sri Lanka research. Therefore, the researcher has faced problems of providing supportive evidence in the Sri Lankan context.

As the future research areas, this study could contribute to the knowledge base of more specific areas. Therefore, the study is more specific to the owners and managers who are work in hotels in Western province and also this research guides future research regarding the SME hotel industry. However, there are several remaining opportunities for future researches. This research only consider Western province but Sri Lanka has more SMS hotels distributed in areas like down south, Kandy, Ella which are highly focused on tourist. And also, the researcher suggests further expansion of this study for other sub-sectors like villas, boutiques, homestay, etc. of the tourism sector. Also, the present study is only limited to 180 SME owners and managers. If future researchers can increase the sample size it will use when justifying. Further, the researcher tested only the moderating effect of Management Commitment. But there can be more variables, factors, and constructs that moderate the relationship among Going Green Concept, Corporate Social Responsibility Activities and Financial Performance. Further considering the mediating effect also.

Moreover, when reviewing the past literature researcher identified customer preference, staff engagement and staff awareness are highly impacted by the relationship among the Going Green Concept, Corporate Social Responsibility Activities and Financial Performance. Therefore, the researcher suggests future researches to identify customer preference, staff engagement and staff awareness are highly impact on Going Green Concept, Corporate Social Responsibility Activities and Financial Performance.

References

- Ahmed, I., & Parasuraman, A. (1994). Environmental and positional antecedents of management commitment to service quality: A conceptual framework. *Advances in Services Marketing and Management*, 3(C), 69–93.
- Al-Aomar, R., & Hussain, M. (2017). An assessment of green practices in a hotel supply chain: A study of UAE hotels. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 32, 71–81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2017.04.002>.
- Beck, T. (2007). Financing Constraints of SMEs in Developing Countries : Evidence , Determinants and Solutions. *Financing Innovation-Oriented Businesses to Promote Entrepreneurship*, April, 1–35.
- Becker-Olsen, K. L., & Hill, R. (2005). *Working Paper Series Title The Impact of Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility On Consumer Behavior Permalink* <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/98f4n4fr> Publication Date. <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/98f4n4fr>.
- Chen, T. B., & Chai, L. T. (2010). Attitude towards the Environment and Green Products: Consumers' Perspective. *Management Science and Engineering*, 4(2), 27–39. www.cscanada.org
- Chyong-Huey, T., Grace, P., Haslinda, H., & Buncha, M. R. (2006). Going Green: A Study of consumers's willingness to pay for green products in Kota kinabalu. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 7(2), 40–54. <https://doi.org/10.12720/joams.4.3.211-215>.
- Digalwar, A. K., Tagalpallewar, A. R., & Sunnapwar, V. K. (2013). Green manufacturing performance measures: An empirical investigation from Indian manufacturing industries. *Measuring Business Excellence*, 17(4), 59–75. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MBE-09-2012-0046>.
- Digalwar, A. K., Tagalpallewar, A. R., & Sunnapwar, V. K. (2013). Green manufacturing performance measures: An empirical investigation from Indian manufacturing industries. *Measuring Business Excellence*, 17(4), 59–75. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MBE-09-2012-0046>.
- Edmiston, K. D. (2004). The Role of Small and Large Businesses in Economic Development. In *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.993821>.
- Ettinger, A., Kräuter, Sonja, G., & Terlutter, R. (2018). Online CSR communication in the hotel industry: Evidence from small hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 68, 94–104. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.09.002>.
- Francesco, C., Pierpaolo, P., & Scozzi, B. (2008). Investigating corporate social responsibility in supply chains: a SME perspective. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 16(15), 1579–1588. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2008.04.016>.
- Gatling, A., Jung, H., Kang, A., & Kim, J. S. (2016). *The effects of authentic leadership and organizational commitment on turnover intention*. 37(2), 181–199. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-05-2014-0090>.
- Gleim, M. R., Smith, J. S., Andrews, D., & Cronin, J. J. (2013). Against the Green: A Multi-method Examination of the Barriers to Green Consumption. *Journal of Retailing*, 89(01), 44–61.
- González-Benito, J., & González-Benito, Ó. (2006). The role of stakeholder pressure and managerial values in the implementation of environmental logistics practices. *International Journal of Production Research*, 44(7), 1353–1373. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00207540500435199>.
- Graci, S., & Dodds, R. (2008). Why Go Green? The Business Case for Environmental Commitment in the Canadian Hotel Industry. *An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 19(2), 251–270. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2008.9687072>.
- Gruca, T. S., & Rego, L. L. (2005). *Customer Satisfaction, Cash Flow, and Shareholder Value*. 69(July), 115–130.
- Halbe, A. (2013). *Green energy initiatives in the hotel industry: factors influencing adoption decisions*. <http://hdl.handle.net/10012/7854>.
- Inoue, Y., & Seoki, L. (2011). Effects of different dimensions of corporate social responsibility on corporate financial performance in tourism-related industries. *Tourism Management*, 32(4), 790–804. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.06.019>.

- Iraldo, F., Testa, F., Superiore, S., & Anna, S. (2017). *Greening competitiveness for hotels and restaurants*. 24(3), 607–628. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JSBED-12-2016-0211>.
- Jamali, D. (2007). The case for strategic corporate social responsibility in developing countries. *Business and Society Review*, 112(1), 1–27. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8594.2007.00284.x>.
- Kapurubandara, M., & Lawson, R. (2001). Barriers to Adopting ICT and e-commerce with SMEs in Developing Countries: An Exploratory study in Sri Lanka. *Framework*, May, 1–12. http://www.collector.org/archives/2006_December/07.pdf.
- Kasim, A. (2009). Managerial attitudes towards environmental management among small and medium hotels in Kuala Lumpur. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(6), 709–725. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580902928468>.
- Kasim, A. (2009). Managerial attitudes towards environmental management among small and medium hotels in Kuala Lumpur. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(6), 709–725. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580902928468>
- Kongolo, M. (2010). Job creation versus job shedding and the role of SMEs in economic development. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(11), 2288–2295.
- Kucukbay, F., & Fazlılar, T. A. (2016). The Relationship between Firms' Environmental Performance and Financial Performance: The Case of Turkey. *International Conference on Eurasian Economies 2016, 2009*, 110–115. <https://doi.org/10.36880/c07.01742>.
- Lichtenstein, D. R., Drumwright, M. E., & Braig, B. M. (2004). The effect of corporate social responsibility on customer donations to corporate-supported nonprofit. In *Journal of Marketing* (Vol. 68, Issue 4, pp. 16–32). <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.68.4.16.42726>.
- Maqbool, S., & Zameer, M. N. (2018). Corporate social responsibility and financial performance: An empirical analysis of Indian banks. *Future Business Journal*, 4(1), 84–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbj.2017.12.002>.
- Merli, R., Preziosi, M., Acampora, A., & Ali, F. (2019). Why should hotels go green? Insights from guests experience in green hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 81(November 2018), 169–179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.04.022>.
- Molina-Azorín, J. F., Claver-Cortés, E., López-Gamero, M. D., & Tari, J. J. (2009). Green management and financial performance: A literature review. *Management Decision*, 47(7), 1080–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00251740910978313>.
- Moramudali, W. K., & Manawadu, G. M. S. R. G. (2018). Adoption of Green Practices in Hotel Industry in Sri Lanka: An Evaluation Based on the Green SL Rating System. *International Conference on Business Management (ICBM 2018)*, 932–948.
- Munasinghe, M. A. T., Malkumari, A., & P. (2012). Corporate social responsibility in small and medium enterprises (SME) in Sri Lanka. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences*, 3(2), 168–172. <https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC132142>.
- Musa, H., & Chinniah, M. (2016). Malaysian SMEs Development: Future and Challenges on Going Green. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 224(August 2015), 254–262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.05.457>.
- Musah, A. (2017). Volume 24 (2) Understanding The Correlation among Factors of Cyber System's Security for Internet of Things (IoT) in Smart Cities 1-15 Benefits and Challenges of Bookkeeping and Accounting Practices of SMEs and Its Effect on Growth and Performance in Ghan. *Journal of Accounting-Business & Management*, 24(2), 16–36.
- National Policy Framework. (2016). National Policy Framework For Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Development ACTION PLAN Ministry of Industry and Commerce. *Ministry of Industry and Commerce*, 83. www.industry.gov.lk.
- Njite, D., Hancer, M., & Slevitch, L. (2011). Exploring Corporate Social Responsibility: A Managers' Perspective on How and Why Small Independent Hotels Engage with Their Communities. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 12(3), 177–201. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2011.541833>.
- Olawale, F., & Garwe, D. (2010). Obstacles to the growth of new SMEs in South Africa: A principal component analysis approach. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(5), 729–738.

- Platonova, E., Asutay, M., Dixon, R., & Mohammad, S. (2018). The Impact of Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure on Financial Performance : Evidence from the GCC Islamic Banking Sector. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 151(2), 451–471. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3229-0>.
- PourKiani, M., & Tanabandeh, M. (2016). Explaining the relationship between management commitment to service quality, job satisfaction, and organizational performance in the staff of Islamic Republic of Iran's Custom. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies (IJHCS) ISSN 2356-5926*, 101–115.
- Pushpakumari, M. D., & Watanabe, T. (2009). Do strategies improve SME performance? An empirical analysis of Japan and Sri Lanka. *Meijo Asian Research Journal*, 1(1), 61–75.
- Rahman, I., Reynolds, D., & Svaren, S. (2012). How “green” are North American hotels? An exploration of low-cost adoption practices. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 720–727. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.09.008>.
- Ranasinghe, R. (2018). Cultural and heritage tourism development in postwar regions: concerns for sustainability from northern Sri Lankan capital Jaffna. *Journal of Tourism and Recreation*, 4(1), 1-18.
- Robson, P. J. A., Haugh, H. M., & Obeng, B. A. (2009). Entrepreneurship and innovation in Ghana: Enterprising Africa. *Small Business Economics*, 32(3), 331–350. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11187-008-9121-2>.
- Rokhmawati, A., & Gunardi, A. (2017). Is going green good for profit? Empirical evidence from listed manufacturing firms in Indonesia. *International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy*, 7(4), 181–192.
- Rust, R. T., Lemon, K. N., & Zeithaml, V. A. (2004). Return on Marketing: Using Customer Equity to Focus Marketing Strategy. *Journal of Marketing*, 68(1), 109–127. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.68.1.109.24030>.
- Singal, M. (2014). The Link between Firm Financial Performance and Investment in Sustainability Initiatives. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 55(1), 19–30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965513505700>.
- Spoon, J. J., Hobolt, S. B., & de Vries, C. E. (2014). Going green: Explaining issue competition on the environment. *European Journal of Political Research*, 53(2), 363–380. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6765.12032>.
- Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, *Annual Statistical Report 2018*. (2018). <https://sltta.gov.lk/storage/documents/0cb228cd03762f638bd515fe83edd453.pdf>.
- Tai, F.-M., & Chuang, S. H. (2014). Corporate Social Responsibility. *Scientific Reseach*, 6, 117–130. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-06776-2>.
- Tai, F.-M., & Chuang, S. H. (2014). Corporate Social Responsibility. *Scientific Reseach*, 6, 117–130. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-06776-2>.
- Tourists to stay only at SLTDA registered hotels, guest houses - The Sunday Reader - Sri Lankan News*. (2020). <http://thesundayreader.lk/2020/06/24/tourists-stay-sltta-registered-hotels-guest-houses/>.
- Turker, D. (2009). How corporate social responsibility influences organizational commitment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 89(2), 189–204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9993-8>.
- Vogel, D. (2006). The Market for Virtue: The Potential and Limits of Corporate Social Responsibility. In *Ethics and Economics*. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2007.26421249>
- Wan, Y. K. P., Chan, S. H. J., & Huang, H. L. W. (2017). Environmental awareness, initiatives and performance in the hotel industry of Macau. *Tourism Review*, 72(1), 87–103. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-06-2016-0016>.
- Wan, Y. K. P., Chan, S. H. J., & Huang, H. L. W. (2017). Environmental awareness, initiatives and performance in the hotel industry of Macau. *Tourism Review*, 72(1), 87–103. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-06-2016-0016>.
- Weng, H. H. R., Chen, J. S., & Chen, P. C. (2015). Effects of green innovation on environmental and corporate performance: A stakeholder perspective. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, 7(5), 4997–5026. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su7054997>.
- Ye, J., & Kulathunga, K. (2019). *How Does Financial Literacy Promote Sustainability in SMEs? A Developing Country Perspective*. 1–21.

Tourism and urban conservation in historic centres: The case of Chania

Despina Dimelli

Technical University of Crete, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0002-0234-1293

E-mail: dimelli@arch.tuc.gr

Abstract

The paper investigates and evaluates the effects of tourism in the historic center of Chania to propose policies for its sustainable development. In the recent years the relocation of the area's citizens because of short-term housing leasing and the constant development of supplementary to tourism uses as leisure and other activities have led to a new functional status of the area. Although the visitors are increasing and the economic benefits from this development are high, the social and environmental effects of this development lead to the area's degradation. The period of COVID and the reduced tourism flows showed the disadvantages of the highly dependent tourism mono-functional development and at the same time it became the reason for reconsideration of the kind of development this historic area should have. The purpose of the paper is to analyse the changes caused by tourism in terms of urban conservation. With the use of quantitative data, it examines the changes caused by tourism in Chania's historic center and with the use of qualitative data it examines the way the area's inhabitants, and entrepreneurs face the tourism development today. The research question is how the way of tourism development until today has shaped the areas urban landscape in terms of conservation and sustainable development.

Keywords: Historic centers, Chania, Urban Conservation, Tourism

1. Introduction

Historic cities form has become through the centuries subject of changes, so they are adjusted to their societies' needs. For their users, residents and visitors, cities reflect cultural, social environmental and economic conditions. In the recent decades, historic cities have been recognized as heritage that should be conserved. Through the contributions of international organizations, cultural heritage is considered as a significant link in the development of urban process (Bandarin, 2006). Today historic centers are fields where the past and present co-exist in a constant dialogue. Historic city is not just a unity of architectural monuments, but also a complex layering of meanings, connected to its natural environment, its geological structure, and its metropolitan hinterland (Bandarin, & Van Oers, 2012) that combine the familiarity of the old and the notion of progress attached to the new (Dimelli, 2019).

Historic centers are today fields of tourism development. As the identification of cultural heritage is a prerequisite, and its conservation depends on the availability of funds, tourism may become an important contributor to the economic realization of a historic area (Orbasli, 2000). As tourism is a sector that homogenizes societies and commodifies cultures across the globe, its promotion is decisive for the economic development for many countries and communities. Warren (1998:12) points out that 'society owns the historic town', because unlike the individual, community has a continuous life, and with it an ownership of the environment (Warren, 1998). Urban heritage and its authenticity are many times consumer driven (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000) fact that makes it a product which is being modelled to be adjusted to the tourism market. Tourism is a growing industry and will continue to develop in the historic town and culture markets (Diekmann & Gillot, 2010). Today there is the delicate balance between tourism being a support to conservation and tourism becoming the reason for conservation, fact that makes historic town approach to conservation and tourism a subject that must be re-addressed.

2. Literature Review

Urban conservation has a dual role, to enhance the historic city and ensure its continuity as a place called to serve today's needs, not only in terms of architectural preservation, but also in terms of social and economic development. Today, it is necessary to develop an approach that integrates heritage into changing social and economic conditions and points out the value and richness of cultural heritage. The urban conservation approach is based on the rejection

of one –dimensional views of the city and an acceptance of the multiplicity of forms and dimensions of the urban scene (ICOMOS, 2001). According to international charters, conservation can be realized by interventions focusing on environmental control, maintenance, repair, restoration, renovation, and rehabilitation guided by individual and social perceptions of heritage and its process of change in planning and design choices (Jokilehto, 1998). This approach reverses the traditional, elitist, top-down view on heritage values (Van Oers, 2008).

Historic centers are spatial fields where tourism is developing in the recent years, playing a decisive role in their economic regeneration. In terms of tourism, history is a strong asset that can be marketed and sold to consumers who are seeking for a new experience. Historic centers are areas that appeal tourism fact that limits conservation to a facadism approach with basic aim to create an attractive historic environment ignoring the social and economic consequences of this intervention. In many cases, heritage is used as an attractor for visitors without taking into consideration basic terms for urban conservation as the social impact, the environmental degradation, and the economic influence of tourism in a historic area. According to modern urban conservation principles, the historic city is a living organism that continues to exist in the modern society's new needs. So, it should not be planned as a museum for the satisfaction of tourists (Barrera-Fernández, Hernández-Escampa, & Balbuena, 2016). In many cases tourism is seen as a threat due to its pressure to the cultural environment and the local's society. But in many other cases tourism is seen as an opportunity that promotes urban regeneration. Tourism can bring vitality, economic profit and become a reason for a historic center conservation (Pereira Roders & Bandarin, 2019). Although urban conservation and urban tourism should both be developed in parallel courses of development, still there is an absence of communication between both fields.

In this debate, balance should be sought between the needs and the interests of both residents and visitors. In both cases authorities and local societies must have a decisive role to preserve a quality of life, environmental protection, economic development, social cohesion, and cultural preservation. Private and public interest between communities and market should be in a constant balance so that tourism planning benefits local interests and local economy serves the conservation of cultural heritage. Today the role of tourism in historic centers is to enhance and support historic area's cultural identity and to preserve it in terms of sustainability (Taylor, 2016)

The paper combines quantitative and qualitative analysis. In the first section quantitative analysis proceeds to the investigation of the spatial distribution of tourism infrastructures and their supplementary uses. It records the land uses as they are shaped today in the area and examines the tourism infrastructures spatial distribution and forms in Chania's historic center. It also examines how other urban parameters as public spaces and mobility are influenced by the intense tourism development. With the use of maps, it proceeds to an analysis which shows the spatial characteristics of the area connected with tourism. In the second section with the use of questionnaires it investigates how citizens are influenced by this kind of development and what is their vision for the area's future. The questionnaires were distributed in the area's inhabitants, and entrepreneurs, and their purpose was to analyze how these groups evaluate the tourism development of the area until today, and what are their proposals for the area's future. The questionnaires were promoted in 100 people through social media as the COVID conditions do not allow the in-situ research.

The study aims to analyze the role of tourism in the historic center of Chania and propose spatial policies for its development in terms of urban conservation. It combines the theoretical framework for urban conservation according to the existing international principles and proposes policies for the areas tourism development in terms of sustainable development. The key findings of the research are divided in two categories. The first is the recording and evaluation of tourism activities spatial distribution and the second is about the way the stakeholders perceive the tourism development. The originality of the research is the combination of both quantitative and qualitative data for the recognition and the evaluation of the area's development and the proposal of strategies in terms of historic urban conservation. The results proceed to proposals for the areas spatial development. The aim of the research is to propose strategies for the conservation of the historic center and its tourism development in terms of sustainability. It can be a guide for policymakers to define strategies regarding the development of the area with respect to its cultural identity. The definition of guidelines can be a tool which can be used in many other historic areas of Greece with common characteristics.

3.The case study.

The city of Chania is built on the ruins of ancient Kydonia one of the most important cities of the middle Minoan period (3650-1070 BC) on Kastelli hill. The city until the Roman period expanded with successive reconstructions. During the first Byzantine period the city began to degrade. In 823 AD it was conquered by the Arabs, in 1252 AD the Venetians and in 1645 by the Turks. The union of Crete with Greece in 1913 changed Chania to a typical provincial

Greek city. In 1941 the attacks by the German planes caused huge damages in many of the city's areas. The plan that was proposed after the end of the Second World War suggested the demolition of many remaining buildings and land's redistribution was partially applied. The part of the city that was surrounded by the Venetian fortifications was declared as a historic monument in 1965. Since then, many proposals for the city's planning have been formulated but not been legislated. In 1975 a plan proposed the reveal of the Venetian walls with the demolition of the modern buildings that were constructed in the meantime and the creation of a green belt which would separate the old from the new-modern city, according to the conservation trends of this period. This plan was never applied as many of the existing buildings had to be demolished, fact that would cause many political, economic, and social consequences. Today the historic center is a central part of a city (Figure 1) that is constantly expanding beyond its limits, and it bases its economy on tourism.

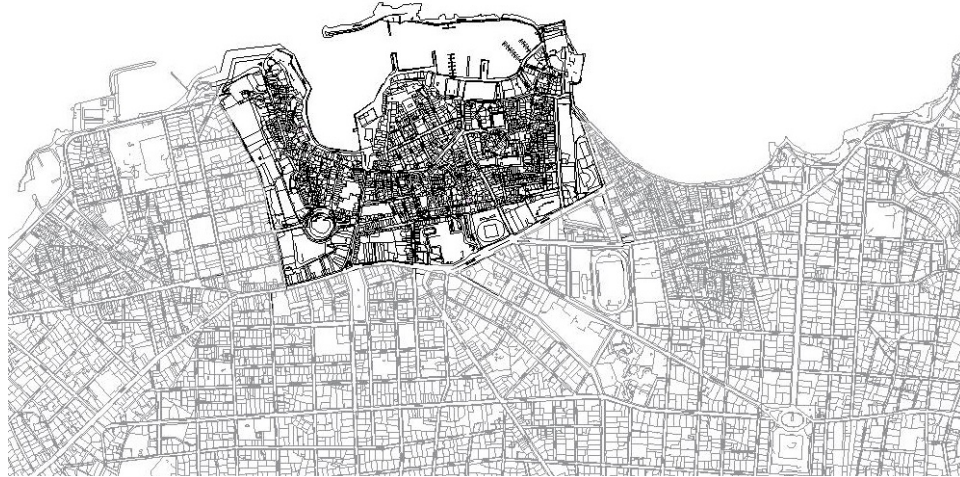


Figure 1: The historic center of Chania

Some of its degraded areas are inhabited by low-income immigrants, while other areas are well conserved as they attract high income tourists. In the recent years the flow of tourists has increased due to lower travel costs, and the dissemination of new communication technologies, and it is gradually causing social frustration manifested by inhabitants who are starting to face the impacts of uncontrolled tourist flow. The phenomenon of dissatisfaction brought by excessive tourist pressure in the recent years is intensified with the development of platforms as Airbnb, and the degradation on the resident's life quality. Additionally, there is a conflict between residents and tourists about the different needs in public spaces (Figure2).



Figure 2: Tourism in the historic center of Chania

The touristic uses which are concentrated in the coastal zone produce intense noise and traffic during the summer period, while during the winter period the area is not functioning as most of the touristic shops are closed. Residence is concentrated in the degraded areas, where it tends to create a segregated zone for low-income residents. The few inhabitants that have remained in the west part of the center are not served by the required uses while the west and the east moats function as borders due to the lack of networks that do not permit the connection with the rest city's parts.

4. Research Methodology

The case study, the historic city of Chania is developed in an area of 13.000km² and according to the 2011 census it had 53.910 inhabitants. The historic center has 5.162 inhabitants which are mainly working in the sectors of tourism and retail trade. Most of the inhabitants (45%) are single or two member families 20% of them are over 65 years old, while the 68% of the area's inhabitants are between 15-65 years old. (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2011).

4.1 Research Methods: The quantitative research

In the first section quantitative analysis proceeds to the investigation of the spatial distribution of tourism infrastructure and their supplementary uses. This procedure has showed that tourism land uses are gradually expanding in the area. (Fig 3).

The tourism development began during the 1970's decade. The coastal zone around the city functioned as an attractor for visitors who came to Chania to enjoy the sunny environment and simultaneously visit the picturesque historic city. Policies promoted this kind of development and new places for accommodation were constructed, sacrificing the historic values of the area. A representative example was the hotel that was constructed by the Hellenic Organization of Tourism on the west Venetian bastion, a place that provided the visitors an impressive view to the Venetian harbor.

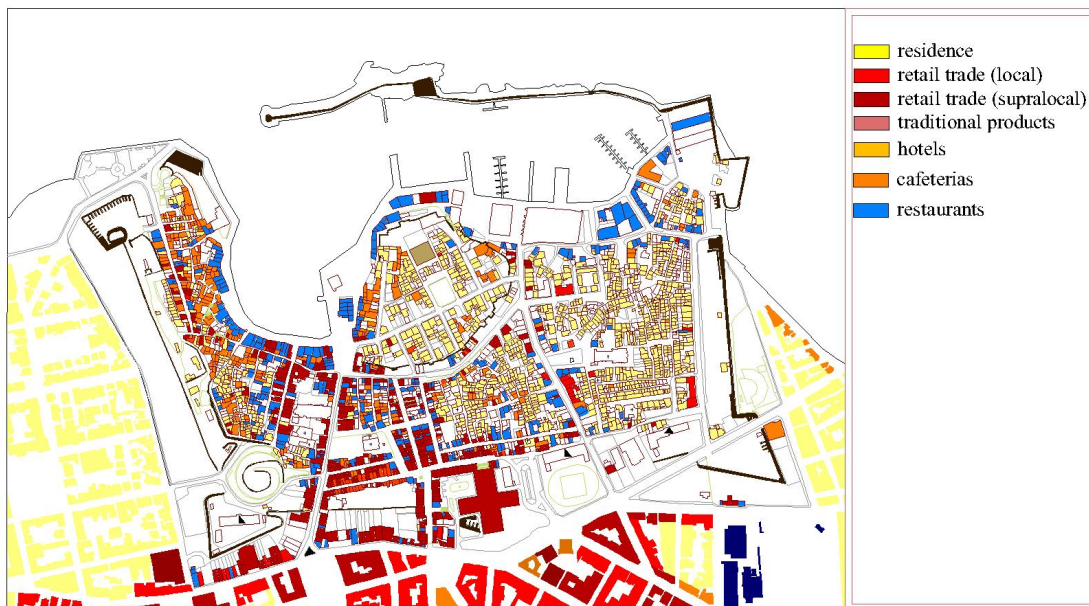


Figure 3 -The spatial distribution of uses related to tourism.

It was a characteristic example of how tourism development was promoted against urban conservation. Some decades later, in 2007, this hotel was demolished as it caused degradation in the historic environment (Figure 4).



Figure 4-The hotel in the west bastion that was demolished in 2007.

In the last decades small scale hotels of all categories have been developed in the area. The common way of development is the land use change, houses are becoming hotels as their residents leave the area. This phenomenon has two dimensions. The first is that the urban policies of the period promoted the new suburbs which provided best facilities. The historic center was a place of decay, while the new urban areas, with available parking, open spaces and other public infrastructures were more attractive compared with the dense urban historic environment. The second dimension was that the historic center became a profitable field as uses connected with tourism were more profitable compared with residence. So, market forces caused the changes in land uses as the historic centers' inhabitants were forced to abandon the area and their houses were becoming hotels, their craft business and small-scale retail shops were becoming souvenir shops, restaurants, and cafeterias.

According to the research the historic center of Chania has a big number of different scales and quality hotels. The most luxurious ones are allocated in the west zone of the city, while other categories are developed in the rest historic center areas. This phenomenon has been intensified in the recent years with the development of Airbnb. This development has two kinds of results. The tourism development has as a result increased rent prices which the residents cannot afford to pay. The second is that short-term tourism leasing which is more profitable for landowners have created a new generation of evicted citizens, especially university students who must search for new homes. The above have led to residents' conflicts between tourists and residents.

At the same time commercial and leisure activities, are increasing fact that causes pressure on the area. The traditional craft activities are replaced with souvenir shops and the small shops that were traditionally allocated in central zones are replaced with restaurants and cafes. This phenomenon causes visual pollution as the advertisements for some activities such as hotels, restaurants and entertainment facilities developed have been metamorphosing the environment as well as noise pollution because of the entertainment facilities which are incompatible with residence. The remaining residents complain that strict rules must be applied but the authorities cannot control the situation.

Another problem is the overloading of infrastructure: The existing historic infrastructures are unable to cope with the intensity of tourist variation at peak periods of the year. Intense traffic, increased parking needs, pedestrians' intense flows are a daily status the residents must face during the summer period. The result is supply failures, pollution, and health hazards. The area's street layout is a factor that reduces car access while the extended pedestrian networks have restricted the use of private vehicles for the area's inhabitants. In the recent years the authorities have tried to manage parking demand with organized parking areas at the periphery of the historic city. Public transport, however, is not well-developed leaving visitors and residents no option other than to use their own private cars. Inevitably this leads to high parking demand (Figure 5). The problems of lack of parking persist mainly in summer and are intensified by tourist buses parking demands.



Figure 5-The increased parking demand in the area

Public and open spaces which are limited due to the area's morphology are overcrowded during summer while many shops use them for their expansion. This way the public space is taken over, causes problems as the space available for pedestrians becomes increasingly restricted. This is a factor that downgrades the aesthetics of the historic environment. Public spaces are gradually becoming private, pedestrians' flows are impeded, and architectural features are hidden (Figure 6).



Figure 6 -The use of public and open spaces by tourism facilities

As for the monuments the tourism development has been a reason for their conservation. The status of ownership is a decisive factor as it defines the status of conservation in the area's monuments. The private historic buildings are well conserved as they are used by their owners for tourism exploitation. The public buildings are presenting a different status. Some of them are conserved as the authorities have secured funding from the Greek state and the European Union, but still many monuments remain abandoned due to the lack of financing. The most representative case is the Neoria monument, the Venetian dockyards, an important landmark of the city's venetian period that is today degrading (Figure7).



Figure 7- The Venetian dockyards today

4.2. Research Methods: The qualitative research

The problems that affect the residents of historic centers with a high tourist intensity are similar: the relocation of their residents, the reduction of traditional commerce, the increase in housing prices, are common in areas with historic values. The aim of the research is with the use of questionnaires which were the main tool for collecting information for statistical processing to investigate the degree of Chania historic center resident's satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding the development of tourism.

The research proceeded to the use of questionnaires, which were divided in three sections. The first were the socio-demographic aspects, the second was about tourism impacts scale, and finally the third section was about the resident's assessment of local tourism management aspects. The basic aim of the research is to reveal what the residents believe about the tourism development in the historic center, what are the consequences of this kind of development today and how they believe that the problems caused by tourism can be solved.

The first section of the questionnaire shows that the sample of the participants is representative of the historic center population as people from all different groups have participated. The main aim was the inclusion of all ages, marital status, education level and types of employment. Especially employment was an important factor as research tried to reveal differences and similarities in the way residents of the historic center working on tourism and residents working on other fields had similar or different perception of the way tourism influences the historic center of Chania. The results of the questionnaires are shown in table 1. The majority the sample were single and the age group with the largest number of residents was 40-65 years. Most of the participants work in the retail trade and tourism sector, fact that was expected as most of the people who work in the historic center have chosen to live in areas that are close to their work.

SECTION 1- RESIDENT PROFILE				
Gender	<i>male</i>		<i>female</i>	
	47		53	
Age	14-25	25-40	40-65	65+
	21	28	34	17
Marital status	<i>single</i>	<i>married</i>	<i>divorced</i>	<i>no answer</i>
	47	40	8	5
Education level	<i>primary</i>	<i>secondary</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>no answer</i>
	8	52	38	2
Work	<i>Public sector</i>	<i>retail trade</i>	<i>tourism</i>	<i>other</i>
	21	33	27	19
	<i>0-5 years</i>	<i>5-10 years</i>	<i>10-15 years</i>	<i>more than 15</i>

Years of Residence in the historic center	15	26	28	31
-------------------------------------------	----	----	----	----

Table 1-The sample's profile

The second section of questions focus on the effects of tourism and the evaluation of the parameters that have changed the historic centers form and function (Table 2).

SECTION 2-THE SCALE OF TOURISM IMPACT				
Evaluate the results of tourism	high	medium	low	no answer
Reduced retail shops	15	76	7	2
Reduced traditional shops	27	42	23	8
Increase of hotels	69	22	8	1
The development of Airbnb	65	28	7	0
Increase of rental prices	78	20	2	0
Increase of seasonal café restaurants	53	20	24	3
Reduced public facilities	45	30	21	4
Disturbance by music	62	31	6	1
Reduced available public open space	53	45	1	1
Intense traffic	45	43	10	2
Reduced available public parking space	51	43	5	1
Exploitation of monuments	25	45	25	5
Lack of restrictions by local authorities	40	42	12	6

Table 2-Evaluation of tourism effects in the historic center

The participants believe that the tourism development is the reason for the increase of land prices, the function of new hotels, the development of Airbnb and the disturbance by music. They also consider that tourism is the reason for seasonal urban functions and the reduction of available parking and open public spaces. Most of the participants believe that the local authorities are up to a point responsible for the lack of restrictions while they also believe that the reduction of retail shops in the area, are not directly connected with the development of tourism. So, as the way the questions are formulated, they tend to reveal the negative effects of tourism the answers reveal that the housing issue (land prices, hotels, Airbnb) is the one that is mostly affected by tourism development.

The third section of the questionnaires includes proposals for the area's regeneration according to modern urban conservation principles. Its basic aim is to make participants evaluate the strategies that they believe are important for the improvement of the residents living conditions (Table 3).

SECTION 3-PROPOSALS				
Evaluate the importance of the following proposals.				
	high	medium	low	no answer
Promotion of traditional uses	34	38	19	9
Control of Airbnb Development	67	29	1	3
Promotion of residence through financial tools	34	35	30	1
Increase public facilities	32	35	30	3
Control visual and noise disturbance through restrictions	24	25	43	8

Increase public space	28	35	35	2
Increase parking space	35	38	22	5
Monuments restoration	49	42	7	2
Set controlling mechanisms by authorities	43	30	23	4

Table 3- Proposals for the historic center's conservation

The proposals that evaluated as high priority were again connected with the housing issue as most of the participants considered as very important the control of Airbnb development. As the local community in the current period has high in the agenda, the discussion about the reuse of monuments another proposal that is evaluated as important is the restoration of monuments. The local society is against the reuse of abandoned monuments as hotels and support that they should adopt public uses connected with culture. Finally, the participants believe that the local authorities must not only set restrictions but also control their application.

5. Conclusions

Urban management in the historic centers involves a thorough understanding of the place and the aspirations of its residents. Historic centers are not only a set of monuments, but a complex layer of meanings developed in the urban tissue. It is important for planning to face them as living organisms that should be adjusted to modern societies needs in a sustainable way. So, the environmental, economic, and social development must be balanced to preserve the areas' cultural identity and promote social cohesion. Historic centers attract, tourism which is in most cases a source of income but at same time it functions as a consumer environmental sources and can lead to social conflicts.

The historic center of Chania is the centre of a city that is constantly expanding and the challenge for its future development in terms of urban conservation is to plan the area with principles that promote social cohesion, economic sustainability and environmental protection and conserve its historic elements. Tourism is a strong economic force that has shaped the area with changes in land uses, land prices, public and open spaces, and social structures. As the benefits of tourism for conservation are negligible if they are outweighed by the pressures and subsequent destruction caused by tourism (Orbasli, 2000, p. 172), planning should achieve a balance between tourism development and urban conservation.

The historic urban environment should be conserved through the collaboration of authorities that will set the rules of development in accordance with the areas carrying capacity, which will include not only economic but also social terms of development. It is important to set limits in land uses development and promote multi-functional areas which will encompass commercial, administrative, residential, traditional and leisure uses, for both residents and visitors.

As uses are directly linked with traffic, it is important to adjust traffic planning in the needs of the historic area in terms of sustainable urban mobility. Issues as traffic congestion, parking and access difficulties must be planned through the promotion of pedestrianization schemes, mass transportation means, traffic calming policies and regulations in cities which will function as networks that connect the historic with the "new" city and facilitate the daily needs of the historic center residents.

Urban conservation should combine policies that will safeguard Chania's historic center's morphology and its spatial characteristics and promote in terms of sustainability the development of tourism, with management decisions that are based in all interests. It is important to proceed to decision making through partnerships and representatives of all interests, with multi-disciplinary communication, coordination, and collaboration. The base of planning should be the interests of local communities and the values of culture heritage. through adequate preparation, consideration, and forecasting.

References

- Ashworth, G., & Tunbridge, J. (2000). *The tourist-historic city: Retrospect and prospect of managing the heritage city*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Bandarin, F. (2006). *Towards a new standard -setting instrument for Managing the Historic Urban Landscape*. Στο *Conservation in Changing Societies*. Leuven: Raymond Lemaire Centre:.
- Bandarin,, F., & Van Oers, R. (2012). *The Historic Urban Landscape: Managing Heritage in an Urban Century*, 1st ed. New Jersey: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.: Hoboken,.
- Barrera-Fernández , D., Hernández-Escampa, M., & Balbuena, A. (2016). *Tourism management in the historic city: The impact of urban planning policies*. *Int. J. Sci. Manag. Tour.*, σσ. 349-367.
- Diekmann, A., & Gillot, L. (2010). *Heritage and tourism: A dialogue of deaf? The case of Brussels*. *Riv. Sci. Tur.*, 1, σσ. 263-280.
- Dimelli, D. (2019). *Modern Conservation Principles and Their Application in Mediterranean Historic Centers—The Case of Valletta*. *Heritage*, σσ. 787-796. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3390/heritage2010051>
- Hellenic Statistical Authority. (2011). *Population Census*. Athens: Hellenic Statistical Authority.
- ICOMOS. (2001). *International Charters for Conservation and Restoration*. Paris, France: International Council on Monuments and Sites.
- Jokilehto, J. (1998). *Organizations, charters and world movement—an overview*. Στο J. Warren, J. Worthington , & S. Taylor , *Context: New Buildings in Historic Settings*. Oxford: Architectural Press.
- Orbasli, A. (2000). *Tourists in historic towns, Urban conservation and Heritage Management*. London and New York: Taylor and Francis.
- Pereira Roders, A., & Bandarin, F. (2019). *Reshaping Urban Conservation: The Historic Urban Landscape Approach in Action*., Springer. doi:DOI: 10.1007/978-981-10-8887-2
- Taylor, K. (2016). *The Historic Urban Landscape paradigm and cities as cultural landscapes. Challenging orthodoxy in urban conservation*. *Landscape Research*, Volume 41-Issue 4, σσ. 471-480.
- Van Oers, R. (2008). *Towards new international guidelines for the conservation of historic urban landscapes*. *City Time* , σσ. 43-51.
- Warren, J. (1998). *The historic context: principles and philosophies*. Στο J. Warren, J. Worthington, & S. Taylor , *New Buildings in Historic Settings*. Oxford: Architectural Press.

Dark tourism in Thessaloniki: the chances of cemetery and ghost tourism

Eleni Dinaki

University of the Aegean Greece

Orcid: 0000-0002-3906-4488

Email: nenidinaki@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper will present three war cemeteries and three of the most famous mansions that are believed to be haunted. Questions posed in this paper are whether these specific areas could support the Cemetery and Ghost tourism in Thessaloniki and if these two subcategories of Dark tourism have been recognized by the tourist organizations of the city. Last but not least the paper will explore the opportunities that this form of tourism has in Thessaloniki. The research method, concerning the ghost tourism is based on secondary research, while the research method, in regards with the cemetery tourism is based on secondary and on primary research and more specifically, on bibliography, newspapers and interviews. The Ghost tourism is an outstanding form of tourism abroad, but in Thessaloniki it has been overlooked. On the other hand, the cemetery tourism has invaded the tourism industry of Thessaloniki and as a matter of fact, over the last years the Greek government has taken actions to promote the historical cemeteries, by organizing anniversary ceremonies. The findings of this paper can highlight the cultural significance of these attractions, in the forms of tourism they represent. They suggest the promotion of dark tourism and more specifically the one of cemetery and ghost tourism, as well as some ways to encourage their promotion. Keywords: Dark Tourism, Cemetery Tourism, Ghost Tourism, Alternative Tourism

1. Introduction

This paper will present these two subcategories of dark tourism and the chances that have in the town of Thessaloniki. The ghost tourism will be the first topic to be discussed. More specifically, three of the most famous mansions of Thessaloniki will be presented. The two of them today are uninhabitable and they have not even been maintained. However, the stories and legends they carry, testify to an interesting character and part of the history of the city. The mansions in question are the former Italian Consulate, also, known as the Villa Jeborga (or Salem), the Longos Mansion (the red house), and the mansion of Vasilissis Olgas 261-263. This part of the paper relates to a survey planned to take place within the year 2020-2021, but Due to the covid pandemic it has been postponed (or halted). The research will be continued as soon as the research conditions become more favorable and safer.

At this point the history and legends of the specific houses will be presented, while a discussion will take place on whether these and other similar places and sites can support this form of tourism.

Concerning the cemetery tourism, the research takes the form of interviews, which were taken from tourism industries of the city of Thessaloniki. The interviews were inducted to complement the bibliographic research. In this way, we can get a deeper insight of some of the tourism operators' beliefs when it comes to Dark Tourism in the city and more specifically regarding its cemeteries. The questions, that framed the questionnaires, have been formed in such a way so that the opinion of the people working in the tourism industry will be highlighted. Therefore, each tourist agency received its own questionnaire (personalized for them) as the intent of the survey is not to compare each other's results. For that reason, the research type that was selected was the descriptive, qualitative one.

2. Literature review

1.1 Ghost tourism

Ghost tourism Could possibly be seen as one of the most fascinated forms of dark tourism as people are intrigued by the element of fear which is caused by terror and horror. The emotion of fear can go beyond human logic and sense, through the violent and ambiguous elements. Dani Cavallaro states that terror and horror are related. However, the first one is linked to fear which is caused by unspecified factors while horror is linked to fear caused by visible

elements (Cavallaro, 2002, p. 7). Ghost tourism includes both of these two elements as the person engaged in this form of tourism does not know what they will be called upon to deal with or see. At this point, the question that rises is of why someone would intentionally choose to live such a scary experience. Sigmund Freud, referring to the elements of fear, terror and horror, defined the term of the “uncanny”. He explains that people do not always have the need to concern themselves with the principle of beautiful, attractive and sublime, feelings with positive aura, but also with feelings which are related to the unpleasantness and repulsion (Sigmund, 1919) as they are curious and fascinated by horror stories.

According to Robert C. Thomson the ghost tours exploit people's enthusiasm for the world of the spirits and aim to attract tourists by offering them the paranormal element. The idea of ghosts has spread to all continents and societies and it is intended to satisfy needs such as amusement or the need for rites (Thomson, 2010, p. 79). Visiting places which are thought to be haunted like cemeteries, houses, castles and historic towns is the common denominator for this kind of tourism. These tours can offer a special educational experience and the maintenance of the sanctity of the haunted areas but it might also lead to their commercialization (Blain, Hallam, Cornish, 2007, p. 133), the industrialization of which can make the tourism industry of a region sustainable. The next question would be what is the motivation behind tourists indulging in this type of tourism. As Beatriz Rodriguez Garcia states, despite the scary nature of the trip and the disturbance they may suffer from, the realization of these feelings and the answers they will receive in questions such as if there are ghosts, make the trip more interesting and enjoyable (Garcia, 2012, p.14). The man is a being driven by the instinct of curiosity. In order to combat their boredom and their monotony (Berlyne, 1950, p. 68), people resort to this type of tourism which can satisfy these needs and offer them new experiences and feelings. The only important feature that the visitor should possess is the bravery and the valor until the end of the tour.

1.2 Ghost tourism in Thessaloniki and the cases of the Villa Jeborga, mansion of Vasilissis Olgas 261-263, and Longos Mansion

Thessaloniki is a city of which name and history are associated with various myths and stories. First of all, the city is named after the sister of Alexander the Great, the wife of Cassandrea, Thessaloniki who was believed to be a mermaid (Βασκαλόπουλος, 1983). Also, the presence and the intense activity of the city during all the historical-cultural periods (Roman, Ancient, Byzantine, Ottoman and Modern Greek eras), offered to the city a wide range of cultural remnants, stories and legends, which are linked to the historical events and sufferings experienced by the citizens of the city over the years. It is no coincidence that Mark Mazower characterize it as the city of ghosts (Mazower, 2006). The history of Thessaloniki has been stigmatized by deaths, terrible tortures and barbaric confrontations against its inhabitants. Therefore, it does not come as a surprise that those elements are integral part of the city's ghost stories.

The mansion of Vasilissis Olgas 261-263

This is an old neoclassical building, which the legend has it to be inhabited by ghosts. Many residents of the area claim that they can hear voices and groans coming from the empty rooms of the mansion. Theories of death fill the aura of the home. Before the German occupation, the house thought to be belonging of two Jews brothers who maintained a casino in it. In this club, wealthy Jewish people from the city went to spend their time, to play with their luck and to socialize with people from their community. When the hunt, the persecutions and the exterminations against the Jews of the city began, the two brothers hid their jewelries, as well as the jewelries entrusted to them by friends, clients and acquaintances in the plot of their house. Later in the years of German occupation, the house became a place of slaughter and torture for the Jews of the city, gaining negative energy. Many people believe that inside the mansion there are the spirits of the dead who are trapped in our dimension and who are trying to be reconciled to their unjust death, so that they can finally be released and calm their anger. Other people talk about shadows appearing on the walls and others about strange noises, footsteps, screaming and tearful cries.

The house has not been maintained; it looks like it was left in concrete. In the yard of the mansion is housed a company with construction materials. Nothing reminds the Its agonizing. There is no sign post that could inform the tourist about the myth that just mentioned above. The history of the house survives through the oral history of the locals and it will continue to survive until they are no longer able to recite it.

Villa Jeborga (Villa Olga / Salem)

This is the former Italian consulate, which operated from 1915 to 1978 at 20 Vasilissis Olgas Street, in Faliro. Xenophon Paionidis was the architect of the building and its creation dates back to the 19th century. Its name derives from the French Jewish merchant Jeborga, who bought the plot in 1878, and in 1888 it came under the ownership of the Swiss Anna Evelman or Olman. In October 1894 it was bought by the Israeli lawyer Emmanuel Raphael Salem, from whom the house took its second name (Salem House) and in 1915 the house was rented by the Italian state to become the Italian consulate. The earthquake of 1978 resulted in the condemnation of the building, as due to the damage it suffered, the Italian consulate was moved to Fleming Street and the villa was left to be deserted. Today, unused and abandoned, it bears all the signs of time which are perceived by the passengers through the damages, while the villa is included in the list of mansions that are in danger of collapsing. Due to its abandonment and the utter disinterest in maintenance, the mansion resembles an abandoned haunted neo-baroque building but does not lose its imposingness. The idea of the haunt extracted from the face of the villa was the reason that made it famous to the American public as it was chosen to be included in one of the posters of the American award-winning series "American Horror Story". The house in the series is supposed to be located in New Orleans, while various creepy black magic rituals are performed in it. From the projection of this neo-baroque masterpiece as a place where black magic ceremonies take place and the existence of witches in it, the house acquired a more mysterious atmosphere along with a more intense reputation of haunting, motivating many lovers of the unknown and supernatural to visit it. Thanks also to its promotion, an agreement was reached between the competent authorities of Thessaloniki and Italy to make the necessary maintenance and to "revive" this abandoned mansion.

Longos Mansion (The Red House)

Longos Mansion belonged to one of the largest families of textile manufacturers in Naoussa, called Longos. The construction of Longos Mansion started in 1926 and was completed two years later on behalf of Grigorios Galakis Longo. This Spectacular building was work of the architect Jenaliand. For its time, the building was an excellent example of architecture, with the curvilinear shapes and ceramic decorations, that set it apart from any other. However, the fire that broke out in the factory of Longo's family, resulted in their financial ruin and as a result the building was abandoned and the reputation for ghosts living in it began to rage. Many people claimed that vampires also inhabited in it, while some reported that they have witnessed supernatural activities. The house started to be renovated in 2017, as Ivan Savvidis bought it in order to turn it into a hotel, but the death of a 65-year-old worker, resulted in a resurgence of rumors about the bad luck of the house. The research method, concerning the ghost tourism is based on secondary research, limiting ourselves to bibliographic references and to the on-the-spot research.

These three mansions are some of many examples of places in Thessaloniki, which are characterized by the element of the haunted. The shared element of these three villas is that, apart from the oral history nothing else reminds of the stories that were forementioned. In the case of villa Jeborga and the mansion of Vasilissis Olgas 261-263, everybody can see the abandonment and the apathy of the public authorities for them. They are uninhabitable, unusable, while the villa Jeborga is in a state of collapse. In these two cases, no one is allowed to tour the villas or approach them. They are considered dangerous for the physical health of the visitor due to their poor maintenance. In case one of them is lost, then a part of the history of Thessaloniki will be lost alongside too. Both houses are ornaments for the city and their maintenance and preservation is considered of high significance and necessity.

In the case of Longos Mansion, this house was bought by Ivan Savvidis in order to become a hotel and the store which is housed in it, became the boutique store of the football team Paok. However, very few elements are reminiscent of the story of the mansion and its legends. The mansion is the only narrator of Longos' family story and the dark past of the house, which is a cultural element that characterizes the history of Thessaloniki. It would be very interesting to dedicate a part of the villa to its story and legends. An action like this could work as a magnet for the tourists, that impressed by the myths and stories linked to the building, will be interested in living on the mansion, even for one night, in order to feel just a slight portion its dark vibes and as a matter of fact they will have a more direct contact with the history of the house.

The question now is how these sights can be used to offer a ghost tourism experience. Many of them are not in a condition that can be considered visitable. Others are not even mansions but landscapes, like the gardens of Pasha or the Black Stone Street. Creating a cultural route, which will be related to the legends of the city would be a very alluring proposal. Once a week or week after week, groups could be organized, consisting of people interested in living a different experience. The social media could be allies in this venture, as the people who are interested in this kind of experience, could secure a place in this tour. It would certainly be very interesting to examine and research

the demand for this form of tourism. Depending on the results, more specific and organized cultural routes could be created, which would respond to this form of tourism.

In the twenty-first century, another ally of the people, museums and cultural tourism in general, are the digital media. The digital technologies have changed the way that knowledge is perceived and diffuses. Digital technologies can provide information, combined with creative and kinetic activities, making the tour experience even more interesting, entertaining and fun (Stephenson, 2011, p. 23). More precisely, augmented reality could be used in favor of promoting the dark tourism see sights. As the tour takes place in selected places, the tourist will have the opportunity to use their mobile phone to look in real time what the place was like in the period in question, while at the same time they will see how it is now. They will, also, be able to receive even more information about them, as well as store this information on their Digital, portable devices. With the use of this digital media, a treasure game could also be carried out, which will aim at the deep knowledge and understanding of these spaces, as well as the entertainment of its operator.

3. Literature review

3.1 Cemetery Tourism:

In this subcategory of tourism, tourists visit the historical cemeteries of a region. According to Colin M. Coates, due to the prejudices of society to the idea of death, visiting cemeteries is not a part of everyday life and unlike the 19th century, they have been turned into objects of criticism (Coates, 1987, p. 11). Historic cemeteries, however, narrate stories of an entire generation, recount the sacrifices and sufferings of people and fill the new generation with pride. Indeed, the cemeteries of the first World War (1914-1918) are the most representative examples as they accurately reflect the achievements and sacrifices of the combatants and the nations (Winter, 2011, p. 462). Though at first the military elites were the ones who were remembered only, after 1914 in the WWI, when the British armies consisted mainly of citizens, all soldiers participating in the war began to receive the necessary attention and memory as the rest of the elites.

Nowadays, people are starting visiting the cemeteries more often since the interest in the historical continuity and the historical achievements is constantly increasing. The cemeteries which are related to the WWI and WWII are the ones which are very dear to the visitors but also tourists love visiting the graves of famous people as John Lennon's, Oscar Wilde's, Jim Morrison's and Edith Piaf's, just to name a few. People are paying a visit to these sites either as pilgrims, who want to pay tribute to the dead, or as observers who are interested in learning about the events that took place in those specific periods. Visiting the cemeteries is a way to pay respect to the dead and at the same time it provides unique information to the visitors (Geoffrey, 2008, p.p. 25-38). For this reason, the last few years more and more people choose to visit these sites, and as a result the mapping of these historic graves followed in order to make these places known to the public.

2.2 Allied Military Cemeteries of Zeitinlik

The allied Military cemeteries of Zeitinlik, located on the west side of the city and specifically in Stavroupoli, it is the largest military cemetery on the Balkan Peninsula (Βλασιδης, 2016, p.55). The name of the cemetery derives from the Turkish, meaning olive grove, as the area, since 1910s, was full of olive trees. In these cemeteries the dead of the Macedonian Front of the Entente Forces and other soldiers' burials took place until October 1918, while their final form was held in 1920. The Allied Military Cemeteries of Zeitinlik are divided into five sections: the French, the Serbian, the Russian, the Italian and the British Commonwealth section. It hosts 20,500 soldiers who fought and died on Greek soil from 1914 to 1919. In detail, there are 8,310 French casualties, 7,500 Serb casualties, 3,000 Italian casualties, 1,600 British casualties and 400 Russian fallen soldiers in the corresponding sectors (Βλασιδης, 2016, p. 59). Zeitinlik is a military cemetery that is not active for burials but it is visitable. It is a site of remembrance that receives thousands of visitors every year, from all over the world. Every year various celebrations take place in the military cemetery in memory of the dead soldiers, while the celebration of November 11, which concerns the peace treaty, is a pole of attraction not only for the tourists but also for foreign consulates and governments wishing to honor their dead.

Commonwealth Military Cemetery- Mikra

Mikra's British Cemetery belongs to the Municipality of Kalamaria, in the city of Thessaloniki, at the end of Konstantinou Karamanlis Street between the army camp of Ntalipi and the Kalamaria Greek Communal Cemetery.

The British cemetery at Mikra opened in April 1917 and operated until 1920. Now, it contains 1,810 Commonwealth burials from the First World War and 149 war graves of other nationalities (CWGC, 2017). Specifically, these other nationalities include 98 Bulgarians, 34 Russians, 9 Greeks, 4 Serbs, 3 Turks and 1 Gkoati. On top of them, there are 477 victims in total from the naval war, among them officers, sailors, soldiers and nurses. 135 of them were veterans and New Zealanders of the ship “The Marquette”, which sank on October 23rd 1915. On November 21st 1919 the ship “Britannic” fell into a mine and sank resulting in the death of eight officers and nurses. Two days later, the ship “Braemar Castle” had the same fate as the previous ships taking with it two dead men. The remaining 332 dead people came from boats sank in 1917: 80 British and Indians of the ship “Ivernia” (January 1st), 51 officers and soldiers of “Princess Alberta” (February 21st), 201 officers and soldiers of “Arcadia” (April 15th) and a man drowned in the Aegean (November 23, 1918) (Βλασιδης, 2016, p.63). The casualties from the naval war, however, were a lot more than the bodies discovered and for this reason a monument was built, dedicated to the missing persons who served in the British Navy during the First World War. This military cemetery is also open to the public and although it does not host the plethora of celebrations as Zeitinlik does, the laying of wreaths takes place every year on the anniversary of the armistice.

2.2.2 Kirechkoi- Hortakoi Military Cemetery

This cemetery is located in Chortiatis, 15 km away from the center of Thessaloniki. There, British soldiers, who fought at the front until January of 1919, are buried. In the area, from January to September 1916, the British Army's 16th Army Headquarters was established, which later moved to Struma. With the epidemic caused by the Spanish flu in 1918, the burials rose and those who died from the flu cover three quarters of the burials. (Βλασιδης, 2017, p.p.73-74). The bones of 588 soldiers of the Commonwealth can be found in the cemetery, along with 58 Bulgarian soldiers, who were prisoners of war and 17 British soldiers from the Second World War (Γερακαρίτου, 2016). Finally in 1937, 12 British soldiers died on the Macedonian Front and were buried in the Protestant cemetery of Thessaloniki, were transferred to the above cemetery (Βλασιδης, 2016, p.64). Its location is not favorable, as somebody needs a car in order to visit it. For this reason, it receives fewer visitors, however its importance is as high as the aforementioned cemeteries. During the celebrations of the peace treaty of November 11, wreaths are also laid in memory of the dead.

The type of the questions of the interviews are Open- Ended questions meaning that in the questions the respondent had to answer them with more than one word. The answers could come in the form of a list, a few sentences or something longer such as a paragraph. This type of questions was chosen because they are helpful in finding out more about this form of tourism, the positive and negative aspects and also the goal of the survey was the recording of well-developed points of view.

The survey was conducted through interviews, the questionnaires which were distributed through e-mails and were addressed to 7 tourist agencies. More specifically, the questionnaires were answered by Boreas Travel, Filos Travel, Electra Palace, Tourism Plus, the Commonwealth War Graves Commission, the British Council and the agency Thessaloniki Walking Tours. The interviewed population is therefore the operators of these sectors. Thus, only those who have been sent the interviews by e-mail have access to the questionnaires.

Greece is a country which offers a wide range of activities in the field of tourism. As the newspaper “Kathimerini” mentions, Greece is a tourist destination for all the seasons of the year (Βασιλοπούλου, 2015). It is a country with more than 300 mountains, dense forests, traditional villages, rivers, lakes and of course it is famous for its crystal clear and majestic seas. Boreas Travel verifies that the form “Sun-Sea” is the most famous choice among tourists, as Greece has invested in the mass tourism. This is also visible on the air arrivals, which increase sharply in May, the month that the summer season begins for Greece (ΣΕΤΕ, 2019). The travel agency Filos also states that the months with the highest tourist activity are the months of June-September, something that is also visible in SETE statistics. However, according to the same travel agency, the city of Thessaloniki is chosen as a tourist destination by tourists throughout the year. The Front Office Supervisor of the hotel Electra Palace, also mentioned that tourists prefer the city of Thessaloniki during the Christmas, Easter and Summer periods, due to the various activities the city offers.

Regarding the cultural character of Thessaloniki, the travel agent Boreas answered that the city has a great variety of cultural monuments and sites that attract a large part of tourists. The travel agent Tourism Plus also agreed to this statement and added that Thessaloniki is a multicultural town with a rich history. The common opinion of all the respondents who answered the questionnaires, lies in the reference that Thessaloniki, although it has many cultural monuments and sites, it has not made full use of them. As a result, according to what the Front Office Supervisor of Electra Palace reports, Thessaloniki seems to lack in cultural routes and activities over other cities in Greece. It is an

ugly truth that all its cultural monuments and sites are not known to tourists, not even to the citizens themselves. The military cemeteries of Thessaloniki are the best examples for this statement. Very few citizens of Thessaloniki know about the existence of these places. Even fewer have visited them.

The commonwealth war grave commission mentions that elements from all cultures and ethnicities that fought for Thessaloniki are now buried there. The cemeteries offer a unique combination of monumental and cultural references. On the tombstones are listed the names of the dead and is even mentioned their profession. In this way, the visitor can receive social and cultural information as well as information about the time that these people lived and died. Indeed, Caroline Winter cites that all the cemeteries reflect the sacrifices, the achievements and the defeats of entire generations (Winter, 2011, p. 462). The commission also mentions that the military cemeteries attract visitors who appreciate the history and historical value of the monuments. However, Thessaloniki has not deployed these burial monuments to their full extent. The commission also added that by taking good care of these funerary monuments would surely contribute to the promotion of local history and to the development of local tourism. The good news is that the visits to these sites are slowly but gradually increasing every year. At this point, the municipal authorities of Thessaloniki played an important role through the actions they undertook to promote these sites. More specifically the Municipality of Thessaloniki with the support of the “Commonwealth War Graves Commission” and “British Council”, are already working hard to promote the cemetery areas of Thessaloniki either by publishing a map for city cemeteries, or by organizing meetings abroad, or by special educational programs. Moreover, the “British Council” mentioned that their purpose is to carry out further actions, programs and co-operations in order to spread knowledge and creativity.

It is important to create cultural routes, which will focus on the history of the Great War, Thessaloniki of the Great War and its military cemeteries. The organization of similar cultural routes has already started timidly by the agency of Thessaloniki walking tours. The interviewed journalist and coordinator of the group, Evi Karkiti, reported that there are many people who are interested in knowing this cultural city, in understanding the events of the First World War and in knowing the soils where their ancestors are buried. When excursions are planned by the group in the cemeteries, the positions on them are sought after and tilted straight. Until today hundreds of people have been guided by Thessaloniki walking tours to the city cemeteries. Cultural routes like those of the above organization are significant to be developed in the city, while effective actions are necessary to be taken by the municipal authorities in order to promote the above areas. Some suggestions would be to organize more workshops, which will invite children and adults to participate in various activities that will take place inside the cemetery. It is also important that the municipality invites the residents of Thessaloniki to participate in the celebrations that take place every year in the area, while the most effective and systematic tourist advertising of the above-mentioned places to the tourists is considered a fundamental measure.

4. Conclusion

The present paper concerns research which refers to two subcategories of tourism that in Greece have not been fully developed. More specifically, the cemetery tourism has begun to be studied in recent years, on the occasion of the 100th anniversary of World War I. Ghost tourism, on the other hand, has not been studied at all. Bibliographically, the above forms are not enriched, while there is the need for more research. So, the above work is original research, while the results of this can contribute, to a certain extent, to the understanding of the opportunities that these two forms of tourism may have in the city of Thessaloniki.

In this paper, on the one hand, ghost tourism was presented, which has not been developed at all in the city of Thessaloniki; While on the other hand cemetery tourism was also introduced, which timidly began to emerging in the city. These two forms of tourism are famous and widespread abroad, and many tourists are interested in them. Thessaloniki, as mentioned above, it has in possession places and monuments that respond to this form of tourism. It is necessary to utilize all the above places and monuments in order to increase the tourist interest and traffic in Thessaloniki. It is such a pity, while there are so many cultural treasures in the city, to be ignored and left at the mercy of apathy.

The paper has not dealt with the topic of ghost tourism thoroughly. It would be interesting to have future research which will also deal with other similar places in Thessaloniki, in regards with the tourist interest of citizens and tourists and possibly propose new means of promotion. Concerning the cemetery tourism, it would be interesting to carry out research that will focus on this form of tourism as a tourist and cultural activity, in accordance with the citizens of the city and its tourists. The Conducting of a systematic and to the point survey which will be addressed to the specific

audience will assist in the planning of tourist routes and activities, which will vary according to the interests of stakeholders.

References

- Βακαλόπουλος, Α. (1983). Ιστορία της Θεσσαλονίκης 316-1983. Θεσσαλονίκη: Κυριακίδη Αφοί ΑΕ
- Berlyne, D. (1950). Novelty and Curiosity as Determinants of exploratory behavior. *British Journal of Psychology*. 41(1-2), 68. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8295.1950.tb00262.x
- Blain, J. and Hallam, S. and Cornish H. (2007). Sacred Landscapes. Esoteric Journeys: Challenges of Tourism. Anthropology and Spirituality in European and British Contexts. In Association of Social Anthropologists Annual Conference. London: Routledge
- Βλασιδης, Β. (2017). Η Μνήμη του Μεγάλου Πολέμου. Θεσσαλονίκη: University Studio Press
- Βλασιδης, Β. (2016). Μεταξύ Μνήμης και Λήθης: Μνημεία και Κοιμητήρια του Μακεδονικού Μετώπου. Θεσσαλονίκη: Ίδρυμα Μουσείου Μακεδονικού Αγώνα
- Cavallaro, D. (2002). Gothic Vision: Three Centuries of Horror, Terror and Fear. London: Continuum
- Coates, C. (1987). Monuments and Memories: The Evolution of British Columbian Cemeteries. *Material Culture Review*. 25, 11. ISSN: 0703-489X
- Garcia, B. (2012). Management Issues in Dark Tourism Attractions: The Case of Ghost Tours in Edinburgh and Toledo. *Journal of Unconventional Parks, Tourism & Recreation Research*. 4(1), 14. ISSN: 1942-6879
- Geoffrey, J. (2008, January). Geophysical mapping of historic cemeteries, Paper presented at the 2008 Conference on Historical and Underwater Archaeology Albuquerque, Minnesota. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/GeoffreyJones3/publication/228835875_Geophysical_mapping_of_historic_cemeteries/links/54b548340cf2318f0f9740f3/Geophysical-mapping-of-historic-cemeteries.pdf
- Herr-Stephenson, B. and Rhoten, D. and Perkel, D. and Sims, C. (2011). Digital media and technology in Afterschool programs, Libraries and museums. Cambridge: The MIT Press
- Mazower, M. (2006). Θεσσαλονίκη η Πόλη των Φαντασμάτων: Χριστιανοί, Μουσουλμάνοι και Εβραίοι 1430-1950. Αθήνα: Αλεξάνδρεια,
- Thomson, R. (2010). Am I Going to See a Ghost Tonight? Gettysburg Ghost Tours and the Performance of Belief. *The Journal of American Culture*, 33(2), 79-91. doi: 10.1111/J.1542-734X.2010.00735.X
- Winter, C. (2011). First World War Cemeteries. *Tourism Geographies*, 13(3), 462-479. doi: 10.1080/14616688.2011.575075
- Βασιλοπούλου, Θ. (2015). Η Ελλάδα, Προορισμός Τεσσάρων Εποχών. Retrieved from <http://www.kathimerini.gr/799835/article/epikairothta/ellada/h-ellada-proorismos-tessarwn-epochwn>

Analyse the Recruitment and Selection Theories and Practical Implications of Civil Service Sector

Muna, Fathmath¹, S. M. Ferdous, Azam², Albattat, Ahmad³

¹Post Graduate Centre, Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, Section 13, 40100, Selangor, Malaysia

ORCID:0000-0002-5779-0870
Email address: munafathmath@gmail.com

²Post Graduate Centre, Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, Section 13, 40100, Selangor, Malaysia

ORCID:0000-0002-0001-3595
Email address: drferdous@msu.edu.my

³Post Graduate Centre, Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, Section 13, 40100, Selangor, Malaysia

ORCID:0000-0002-3127-4405
Email address: dr.battat@msu.edu.my

Abstract

The main objective of this study is to analyze the recruitment and selection theories and practically how theories were implied to adopted in Maldives Civil Service Sector. The study consists of a mixed method. The primary and secondary sources of data were used to design for descriptive study. The study obtained a questionnaire, interview, and a focus group discussion with the top management team, employees, and HRMD committee members of the civil service Sector. A sample size of 30 employees was selected from various departments and Sections of the Ministries who worked as civil servants. A secondary source of data was collected through journals, books, and official publications and analyzed for the study. Generally, in the Maldives Civil Service Sector recruitment and selection practice policies have been followed but still, some areas need to be improved such as; recruitment method and types of questions used in the interview and practical exam carried out to hire new staff. The implication of the study Policymakers and HR Managers need to revise the current recruitment and selection, practical model. To have more efficient, fair, and effective organizational performance in Civil Service Sector the study suggests having a competency-based recruitment and selection method. Rigorously the study contributes to the knowledge gap and research literature.

Keywords: Human Resource Management, Recruitment and Selection, Civil Service Sector, Employee, Satisfaction

1.Introduction

Human Resource Management (HRM) is both abstract theories and organizational practice, addressed in theoretical and practical techniques used to manage the workforce. So, it is important to have correct strategies and better procedures for the recruitment and selection process to retain the employees. When an organization adopts correct HRM models and theories in the recruitment and selection stages organization will get competitive advantages. If the organization incorporates proper recruitment and selection strategies with theoretical models and integrates a long-term people management approach that would result in employee benefits and sustainable organizational performance (Jepsen & Grob, 2015). But in a practical world theories are not widely practiced in any organization. Most literature and research illustrate that human resource functions are integrated into recruitment and selection. Nowadays, employees leave their job more often and it is important for HR practitioners to understand how theories are relevant

to the recruitment and selection process between the turnover rate of an organization to organizational performance. Since various candidates compete from diverse cultural backgrounds with different educational qualifications, it is important to have proper recruitment and selection practices to hire a potential employee. Most importantly to sustain that organizations ought to practice HRM models and theories in recruitment and selection practice. However, employee retention, organizational culture, training, and development are also combined in human resource succession planning. Eventually, a performance appraisal and reward system have to be designed with the long-term assessment criteria (Hughes & Rog, 2008). Therefore, it is important to hire the best-qualified workers for a job, and design incentive systems based on their performance. When a new employee joins the organization, usually induction programs are conducted to achieve the organizational objectives. Most literature shows that theories are effective tools to implement HR functions. If the organization has less effective recruitment and selection practices it could lead to high employee turnover (Jepsen & Grob, 2015). Therefore, there has been a call for practical implications of HRM theories and models in recruitment and selection practice. This study aims to analyze the theories and models in the recruitment and selection process and the practical implications in the context of the Civil Service Sector. The study will further bridge the gap and discover a key component of recruitment and selection theories, models, and their practical implications.

2.Literature review

Recruitment is a process to create a pool of potential people to apply for employment in an organization. Selection is the process and specific instrument where the HR team and panel are used to select the most potential candidate to succeed within the job management objectives and legal requirements. According to Beardwell et. al., (2004), Acas's guidelines suggest that recruitment and selection are based on three fundamental principles called; effectiveness, efficiency, and fairness. Mayo et. At., (1995) asserted numerous ways to measure the effectiveness of recruitment and selection such as; employee satisfaction level at work, employee retention, promotion rate, and organizational performance. These measures influence working environment, culture, and employee development of an organization. Therefore, the effectiveness of any selection technique is significant. Job satisfaction is the other topic that is studied widely in the recruitment & selection process research (Gerstner & Day, 1997, cited in Harris, Wheeler & Kacmar, 2009). Speaking, job satisfaction replicates how much an individual is gratified with his/her job (Griffeth et al, 2000; Khatri et al, 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Vong Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. 1997). In other words, high job satisfaction means a lower rate of labor turnover. If the employees are highly satisfied with their job, they tend to be loyal to the organization. When employees are loyal they would like to work in the organization for a longer period.

Frederick Winslow Taylor and Frank and Lillian Gilbreth made important contributions to scientific management theory. Taylor believed that workers' output was only about one-third of what was possible and no standards existed. Taylor's experiences at Midvale used him to define clear guidelines for improving production efficiency (Management 9th edition, 2007, p.30). According to Taylor, the 'one best way' for the job to be done is to put the right person to the right job with the correct tools and equipment to motivate the employees with an economic incentive offer significantly high wage.

Important Theories of Recruitment & Selections Process

Relevancy of Competency-based theory on recruitment and selection

Competency-based Recruitment and selection theory is used to predict the potential job performance of the applicants. With the help of this model, an organization finds the best people to achieve the organizational objectives. This is the theory of Binning and Barrett who has put down the foundation of recruitment and selection. Various studies have recommended optimizing this theory in an organization to improve its current recruitment and selection process (Lado & Wilson, 1994). Management must use a competency-based theory to make things easier to facilitate and design the job roles and carry out the recruitment and selection process. This theory is based on result-oriented and employee performance levels (Zhang & Jia, 2010). If the organization adopts this theory, there are high impacts and potential advantages to an organization.

Relationships Between Theories and Practical Work

Competency management can make things easier for the organization by facilitating the design of job –roles and their competency according to the organizational objectives. This model is also essential to evaluate applicants for the position in recruitment and selection. By using this theory, the selection team will be more focused on the candidate's past performance and they do applicant's background investigation to select the best and most suitable candidate among them. However, in the practical world, this model does not practice so well in a Civil Service Sector, rather

organizations only focus on the Merit-based recruitment model. Still, a competency-based theory is significant to practice every organizational recruitment and selection practice.

Relevancy of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory on Recruitment and Selection

Maslow's hierarchy needs are one of the most popular theories used in an organization to motivate the employees. This theory's content seeks to determine the individual's choice of goals and things that are important to satisfy the employees. According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, there are five basic needs which is physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization needs (Ozguner & Ozguner, 2014). After recruitment and selection, employee motivation is highly important to retain potential employees. Therefore, Maslow's Hierarchy needs theory is an essential tool to practice in any organization. If the organization meets the employee satisfaction level, then it would be easy to work towards achieving organizational goals.

Relationships Between Theories and Practical Work

Mainly this theory identifies the motivational level of every individual and determines the disparity and importance of non-financial rewards to the employee. When hiring potential candidates within the recruitment and selection process, Maslow's Hierarchy needs theory is used to understand individual needs and their satisfaction level to retain them (Ozguner & Ozguner, 2014). According to this theory, the employee should be motivated and well-satisfied. Though, this theory says employees are satisfied from the basic to the desired level the study shows that employees are not satisfied with their salary. However, they are satisfied with other desired level needs such as organizational culture and work environment (Jerome, 2013). Therefore, it indicates that the theory does not work in the practical working environment in the same way.

Relevancy of Herzberg two factor theory on Recruitment and Selection

Herzberg proposed two factors; Hygiene factors and Motivate factors theory. Intrinsic factor (Motivational) leads such as; achievement, recognition, and responsibility was related to job satisfaction. On the other hand, extrinsic factors (Hygiene) are such factors; company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, dissatisfaction, and working conditions (Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl, & Maude, 2017). According to Herzberg's two-factor theory, there are many factors involved in the job that the employees perform. Once the recruitment and selection process is passed the next step is to motivate employees. The factors that eliminate job satisfaction are known as hygiene factors while factors that help in job satisfaction are known as a motivational factor (Kotni & Karumuri, 2018). By knowing the employees' satisfactory level, it would be easy to conclude whether the organizational recruitment and selection practices are effective or not. Also, this theory helped to identify the factors involved in non-financial rewards by identifying whether those factors are motivators or hygiene (Kotni & Karumuri, 2018).

Relationships between theories and Practical Work

This first set the hygiene factor which leads to workers' dissatisfaction. if the employees are inadequately met, that could cause employee dissatisfaction. To make workers satisfy in the work they need to manage the hygiene factors by providing other recreational activities to the employee. The motivational factor gives satisfaction from the job such as; recognition and responsibility, etc (Alshmemri et al., 2017). When employees meet satisfactory level factors, the productivity will be higher and desired to improve the work with a highly motivated workforce that would meet organizational goals in less period (Kotni & Karumuri, 2018). The reason to practice this theory; more focused on the job that employees perform and the work assignment to identify whether the organization has an effective recruitment and selection process. The analysis shows that; hygiene factor is significantly high in the civil service sector and this has been supported in earlier literature (Maidani, 1991). Based on the findings current civil service sector needs to identify effective financial and non-financial rewarding methods. Also, existing compensation needs to be revised for an attractive remuneration system and job promotion.

Practical Implication of Theories & Model in Recruitment and Selection

Given the fact, in the practical world Competency-based Recruitment and selection theory is not practiced in a Civil Service Sector. The study revealed that civil service organizations only focus on the Merit-based recruitment model. Abraham Maslow says any person's behavior can be understood primarily as the effort directed to satisfy a particular level of need in the hierarchy and lower-level needs must be satisfied before the next higher level becomes noticeable in motivating behavior. Though Maslow's hierarchy needs say employees are satisfied from the basic to the desired level this study identified that employees are not satisfied with their basic salary. Yet, they are satisfied with other

desired level needs such as organizational culture and work environment. The study indicated that though the theory says employees are satisfied from the lower level to the desired level, in a practical working environment theories does not support accordingly (Ewen, Smith, & Hulin, 1966). Instead theories and model are related to HRM practice. The rationale behind the theory lies in the fact that it is able to suggest to managers how they can make their employees or subordinates self-actualized. This is because self-actualized employees are likely to work at their maximum creative potentials. Thus, a practical implication of his theory is that leaders can motivate follower behavior only by taking account of a follower's or team's position on the needs hierarchy. The study highlighted that the current civil service sector needs to identify effective financial and non-financial rewarding methods to retain potential employees in an organization (Im, 2011). According to Herzberg's two-factor theory existing Civil Service Sector, compensation needs to be revised for an attractive remuneration system and job promotion (Kotni & Karumuri, 2018). The literature has supported models and theory is significant to practice by the Managers and HR practitioners in every organizational recruitment and selection practice. This would dominant a direct effect that impact high efficient employee job performance.

3. Research methodology

Sample Size

The descriptive study using both mixed (quantitative and qualitative) method. A sample size 30 employees of civil servants were chosen together the data. Respondents were selected from different departments and sections of government ministries and the sample size was reliable to conclude. To collect the data in this study the researcher used a satisfactory tool such as (a) questionnaire to the employees who work in different departments and divisions. b) A focus group used to brainstorm more ideas from the groups of people in top management and HR committee to find out whether the organization has an effective recruitment and selection process.

Data Collection

A survey questionnaire is a powerful technique to collect data from primary sources. The purpose of using a questionnaire was to identify and assess the satisfactory level of the employees. Focus group discussion carried out 45 minutes with more than 5 members' Senior management and HR team. These Focus Groups allow identifying the employment aspirations of participants, their experiences of seeking employment, and the difficulties or challenges they encountered in the recruitment and selection process. Secondary data was used to make arguments stronger with previous literature. A survey questionnaire is a powerful technique to collect data from primary sources. The secondary source of data collected through websites, journals, books, and some other relevant and valid sources.

Data Analysis

The collected data were statistically analyzed using SPSS version 25.0. A standard data analyzing procedure has been followed. First raw data will be gathered and compiled. Therefore, grouping the similar sets of data and categorizing them, entering the data to Microsoft Office Excel with respective categories and frequency of occurrence. Representations like tables and charts were used to ensure easy and quick interpretation of data.

4. Findings and analysis

The theoretical argument of recruitment and selection practice is that theories and models are important tools that need to hold in any organization. Then again this study suggested that in the Civil Service Sector models and theories are not reinforced. Through the focus group, discussion findings highlighted that current recruitment and selection practices are; methods, types of questions, and practice tests that are focused on while recruiting new staff. However, the study asserted that most of the employees are not satisfied with the decision-making style because of the centralization system. The diagram below shows the indications current recruitment and selection practices of the civil service sector.

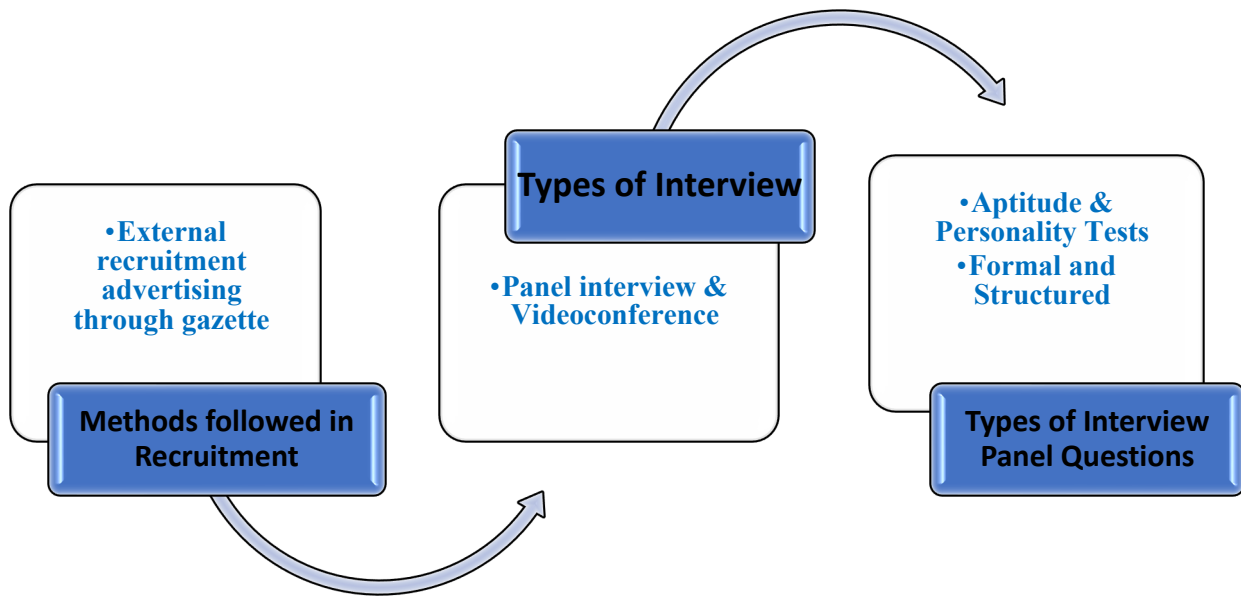


Figure 1: Recruitment and Selection Practices

The research shows that most of the employees are satisfied with their work in some aspects while others are dissatisfied with their work. Based on the study, it could be believed that some areas need to be improved in the recruitment and selection process of the civil service sector. Therefore, this study recommends a recruitment and selection process which would help to improve their current recruitment and selection process and is important to understand all the factors that are effective to organizational performance and employee job satisfaction. The study also recommends adopting competency-based recruitment and selection theory and other models to improve organizational recruitment and selection practice.

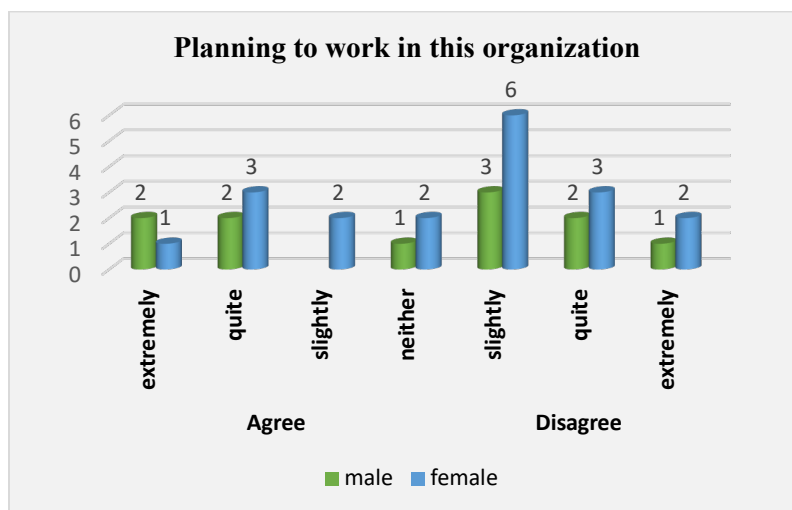


Figure 2: Respondent's view to change their organization

The graph shows that more than 56% of the employees agreed that they are ready to move to another job while 44% disagreed with the statement. The research indicated that most people are planning to move when they get a better job opportunity.

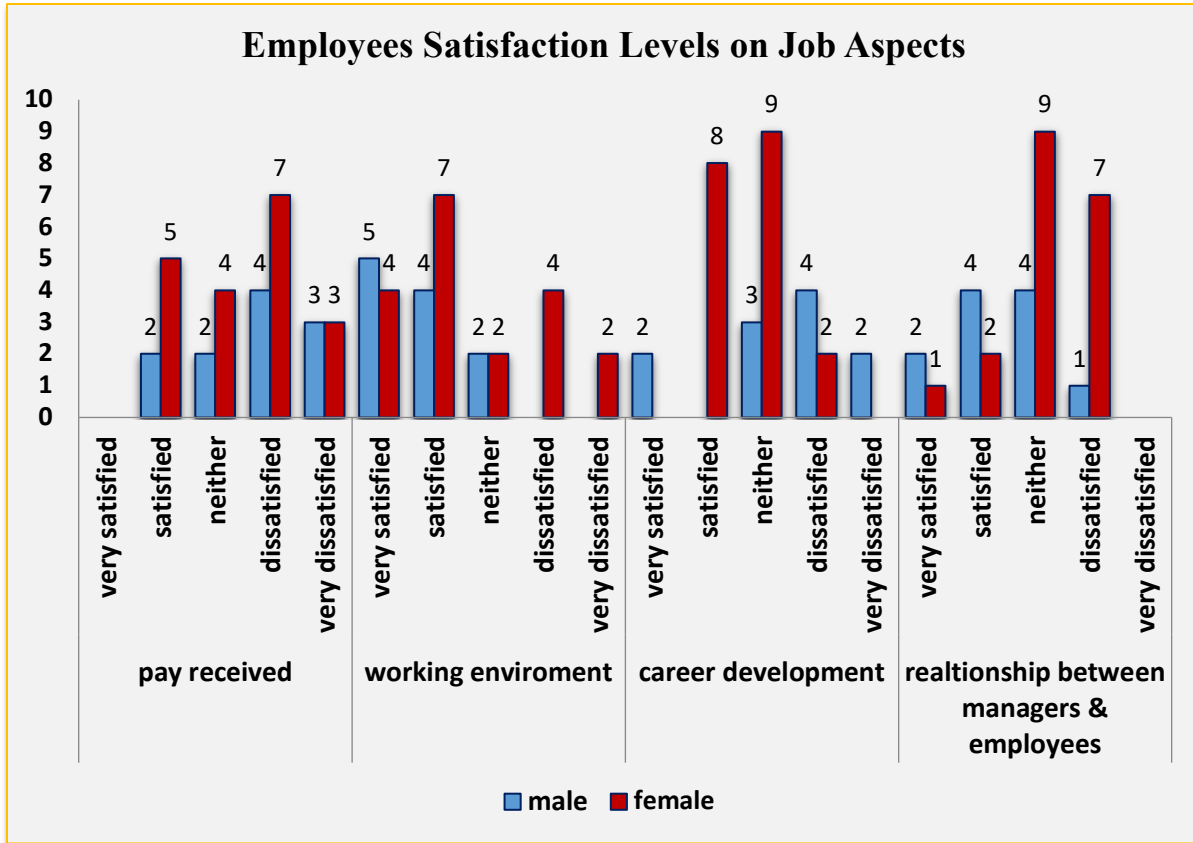


Figure 3: Respondent's view of Employee satisfaction level

The study emphasized that 20% of the employees are very dissatisfied with the pay received and more than 36% of the staff are dissatisfied with their pay. 20% of employees are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Thus, the majority of the employees are not satisfied with their salary and this could be a major factor that leads to an increase in the turnover rate in Civil Service Sector. According to the research, it says that most females are satisfied with their working environment. More than 36% of the employees say that they are satisfied with the working environment and another 30% of the staff were very satisfied. However, 20% of the employees said that they are not satisfied. Among the 30 respondents, more than 33% of the employees believe that they have high chances of education and training development in the Civil Service Sector. 26% of the employee agreed that they have very little chance of building their carrier development in the field while the other 41% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their career development. The relationship with managers in the organization is quite good. From the research, it asserted that 30% of the employees have a good relationship with their manager and 26% of the employee disagreed with the statement.

5. Conclusions

Various literature has encouraged the adoption of HRM theories and models for the development of the recruitment and selection practice. The Civil Service Sector should be more focused on selecting the right candidate for the right job with a specific skilled set of applicants for a particular field of work by adopting competency-based theory. Once the recruitment and selection stage is passed employee satisfaction plays an important role to the employees intending to quit the job. Therefore, attractive pay schemes and job promotion plans could be designed in a way that the responsibilities meet their wage. Based on Herzberg's two-factor theory the study highly recommends to offer direct and indirect monetary incentives such as bonus to Civil Service Sector when practicing HR functions. The HR team and Selection team should have an ethical decision-making style and it should be fair among the candidates. When selecting a candidate,

they have to appoint the right person to the right job after analyzing the candidate’s education, experience, etc. The actual hiring decision should be made by the HR panel. A reference check should have made about the candidate selected and then finally should be appointed by giving a formal appointment letter/chit. Once an employee is appointed to the organization it is important to guide and supervise them to motivate. This will help the employee to work towards organizational goals and objectives efficiently. Effective recruitment and selection would minimize absenteeism, employee turnover and would improve employees’ performance and service quality. Therefore, HR practitioners, HR team and senior management must understand the in-depth of HRM theories and model to effectively blend the factors well suited for employees need. The study argue that HRM theories and practice could be discussed to implement in HR functions. Theories and models are integrated to sustain HR functions in related best practice of Recruitment and selection. According the literature, the theories a model applied in an organization are well managed for efficiency and effectives.

6.Recommendations

The recruitment and selection process should be efficient for the organization to move forward and work towards organizational missions and goals. According to if the organization meets employee satisfaction level, then it would be easy to achieve and work towards an organizational goal. Keeping that in mind Civil Service Organization should adopt HRM theories and models with correct action plan to retain most potential candidates by providing them personal and career development opportunities:

- More attractive pay schemes should establish based on the responsibilities
- Build appraisal system most effective and efficient way to support making employment decisions with the fair, valid and comprehensive evaluation system.
- Job promotion plans to motivate and increase work commitments.
- More decision making authorities can be delegated.

Based on the research analysis of HRM theories and models this is a proposed recruitment and selection process for the Civil Service Sector. This process includes six stages; Attracting the talent for the vacant position, developing the applicant’s database, Assessing Applicant’s Competencies, Recruitment, and Selection, Monitoring the Training Development, and Performance Appraisal Management with a creative remuneration system.

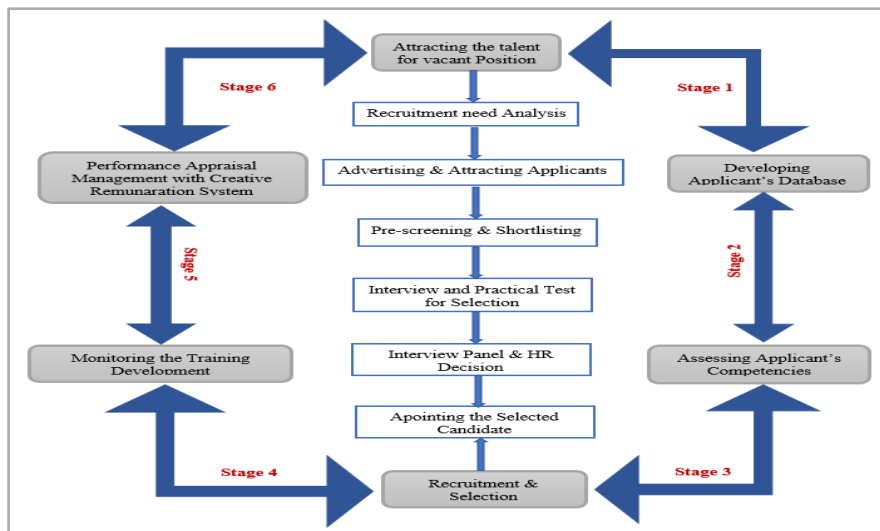


Figure 4: Recruitment and Selection Process Based on Research Analysis of HRM Theories and Models

Shortlisting: When shortlisting the candidate, it is important to do the Pre Screen method. The HR practitioners and team should undertake a background investigation of applicants to select the best and most suitable candidate from the pool of applicants. An organization should verify an individual legal status to the previous workplace and their

performance through checking credit references, criminal records, and so on. Also, when shortlisting candidates HR team should analyze the applicants based on a competency-based theory which will be more focused on candidates' past performance.

Interviews and Practical Test: It is essential to conduct the second interview all the level rather than having one interview. During the interview process it necessary to use different methods and types of questions to test the candidates. To select the best candidate Interview panel test candidate's aptitude test, intelligence test, personality test. These tests could be done based on Experienced - Based and Future-Oriented Situational Interview questions. These various tests should conduct during selection processes which are. To hire potential candidates, study highly recommended to conduct a written exam (cognitive ability test) in the selection process to make the best choice not only the middle management or senior management level but also junior level officers. However, it is important to have a practical test like, 'General Ability and Psychometric Test' as well.

The study recommends conducting longitudinal qualitative research to the broader aspect focusing on recruitment and selection practice on performance how model and theory adopted practically in an organization.

References

- Alshmemri, M., Shahwan-Akl, L., & Maude, P. (2017). Herzberg's two-factor theory. *Life Science Journal*, 14(5), 12-16.
- Beardwell, I., Holden, L., & Claydon, T. (2004). *Human resource management A contemporary approach* 4th edition: Pearson Education Limited.
- Cheung, S., Whiteley, A., & Zhang, S. Q. (2000). *Human resource strategies in China*. World Scientific.
- Ewen, R. B., Smith, P. C., & Hulin, C. L. (1966). An empirical test of the Herzberg two-factor theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 50(6), 544.
- Hughes, J. C., & Rog, E. (2008). Talent management: A strategy for improving employee recruitment, retention and engagement within hospitality organizations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*.
- Im, U. L. (2011). Literature Review on Turnover - To Better Understand the Situation o Better Understand the Situation in Macau. *UNLV University Libraries*. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.34917/2523523>
- Jepsen, D. M., & Grob, S. (2015). Sustainability in recruitment and selection: building a framework of practices. *Journal of Education for Sustainable Development*, 9(2), 160-178.
- Jerome, N. (2013). Application of the Maslow's hierarchy of need theory; impacts and implications on organizational culture, human resource and employee's performance. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 2(3), 39-45.
- Kotni, V. D. P., & Karumuri, V. (2018). Application of Herzberg two-factor theory model for motivating retail salesforce. *IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17(1), 24-42.
- Lado, A. A., & Wilson, M. C. (1994). Human resource systems and sustained competitive advantage: A competency-based perspective. *Academy of management review*, 19(4), 699-727.
- Maidani, E. A. (1991). Comparative study of Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction among public and private sectors. *Public personnel management*, 20(4), 441-448.
- Mayo, J. R., Murguia, E., & Padilla, R. V. (1995). Social integration and academic performance among minority university students. *Journal of college student development*.
- Ozguner, Z., & Ozguner, M. (2014). A managerial point of view on the relationship between of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's dual factor theory. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(7).
- Zhang, Z., & Jia, M. (2010). Using social exchange theory to predict the effects of high-performance human resource practices on Corporate Entrepreneurship: Evidence from China. *Human Resource Management*, 49(4), 743-765.

COVID-19 pandemic and tourism: The impact of health risk perception and intolerance of uncertainty on travel intentions

Anastasiya Golets¹, Jéssica Farias², Ronaldo Pilati³, Helena Costa⁴

¹University of Brasilia, Brazil

ORCID: 0000-0002-7280-7220

Email address: anastasiya.golets@gmail.com

²University of Brasilia, Brazil

ORCID: 0000-0001-5158-8770

Email address: jessicaemfarias@hotmail.com

³University of Brasilia, Brazil

ORCID: 0000-0003-2982-5033

Email address: rpilati@unb.br

⁴ University of Brasilia, Brazil

ORCID: 0000-0002-5076-7977

Email address: helenacosta@unb.br

Abstract

Understanding tourist behavior during and after major tourism crises is essential to help destinations recover. The COVID-19 pandemic — a period of uncertainty and risk — makes it relevant to assess factors that influence travel intentions. There has been little research on tourist behavior during health crises and, in particular, on perceived health risk and uncertainty effects on travel intentions. This study was carried out at the beginning of the pandemic in Brazil and aims to investigate the role of health risk perception and intolerance of uncertainty on travel intentions for 2020 and 2021. We applied an online survey to 1,150 Brazilian participants from April to May 2020. Our findings indicate that perceived COVID-19 severity, perceived probability of infection, and expected duration of the pandemic are significant predictors of travel intentions for both years. This paper contributes to a deeper understanding of crisis-resistant tourists' characteristics and provides insights for destinations' recovery.

Keywords: COVID-19; Pandemic; Travel Intentions; Health Risk Perception; Intolerance of Uncertainty.

1. Introduction

The travel industry was one of the most affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The outbreak has caused the worst crisis faced by international tourism since the 1950s when UNWTO started to analyze international tourism trends (World Tourism Organization, 1980). In the first half of 2020, international tourist arrivals dropped by 65%, if compared to the same period in 2019. At the time this study was conducted, 100% of destinations worldwide had restricted travel to a certain extent, and 76% of destinations had closed their borders completely or partially (World Tourism Organization, 2020b, 2020c). This impact has already been translated into a loss of about US\$460 billion in export revenues from international tourism, which accounts for around five times the financial loss of the 2009 global economic crisis. Moreover, it has put between 100 and 120 million direct tourism jobs at risk. According to UNWTO

scenarios, the return to 2019 tourist arrivals levels would take from two to four years (World Tourism Organization, 2020a; 2020c).

As in most destinations, the Brazilian tourism sector has been strongly impacted by the COVID-19 outbreak (Tomé, 2020). In the first half of 2020, the country's revenues from inbound tourism fell by 37.20%, while outbound spending of Brazilian tourists presented a decrease of 59.40% when compared to the same period in 2019. The sector lost 364,044 formal jobs by July, which corresponds to about 12% of all formal tourism jobs in 2019 (CNC, 2019; Ministério do Turismo, 2020). The total loss of the Brazilian tourism industry is estimated to be around US\$22 billion in the 2020-2021 biennium. (FGV, 2020). Therefore, understanding individuals' travel intentions in the context of a pandemic — a period that involves a great level of uncertainty and risk management — is a crucial component in developing destination recovery strategies.

There has been little discussion on the effect of uncertainty on tourism. Previous studies have found that tourists from high uncertainty avoidance (UA) national cultures differ from the medium UA ones when it comes to trip planning, travel style (Money & Crofts, 2003), decision-making, trip duration, and the main source of information used (Litvin et al., 2004). Moreover, trips to similar or different uncertainty avoidance national cultures have distinct characteristics (Crofts, 2004). Notwithstanding, to the best of our knowledge, there has not been any research on the influence of intolerance of uncertainty (IU) — an individual difference variable (Carleton et al., 2007) — on travel intentions. Considering that Brazil is a country whose members feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede Insights, n.d.), a pandemic could be particularly stressful to its population. Seeing that uncertainty can minimize the effectiveness of preparing for the future and contribute to anxiety (Grupe & Nitschke 2013; Tanovic et al., 2018), the COVID-19 pandemic is expected to cause such detrimental effect on people in general, and, considering the high score on the cultural value of uncertainty avoidance, this effect is expected to hold even stronger in Brazil.

This study was carried out in Brazil during the first bimester of the COVID-19 pandemic and aims at analyzing the influence of the individual difference variable of IU as well as the perceived severity of the disease, the perceived probability of infection, and the expected duration of the pandemic on travel intentions for the years 2020 and 2021. We also control for the effect of some sociodemographic measures (international travel experience, age, educational level, and income) on these intentions. The contribution of our study lies in shedding light on psychological processes that underlie traveler behavior during crises and providing a deeper understanding of crisis-resistant tourists' characteristics, which is essential for destinations' post-crisis recovery.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 *Uncertainty and tourist behavior*

Uncertainty avoidance (UA) consists of a cultural value that expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertain situations (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Cultures high on uncertainty avoidance prize structure and feel threatened by the unknown and the ambiguous whereas cultures low on uncertainty avoidance are more willing to accept risks (Litvin, Crofts, & Hefner, 2004). Some tourism and travel research has been conducted to investigate the influence of this cultural dimension on tourist behavior. For instance, it has been found that high uncertainty-avoidant Japanese prefer to pre-package risk-reducing elements of the trip and to travel in big groups of people (Money & Crofts, 2003). Contrastingly, low uncertainty-avoidant Germans and Australians are prone to engage in risky activities and seek excitement while traveling (Money & Crofts, 2003; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Brazil is characterized as high uncertainty-avoidant culture (Hofstede Insights, n.d.). Therefore, it is expected that, when facing ambiguity or uncertainty, Brazilians tend to evade making choices to avoid discomfort.

Apart from the cultural value of UA, individuals may differ in the degree to which they can stand aversive responses triggered by the perception of uncertainty and lack of information (Carleton et al., 2016). That is, they may differ in levels of intolerance of uncertainty (IU), which is an individual difference characteristic. It is defined as the tendency to consider the possibility of a negative event occurring as unacceptable regardless of its probability of occurrence (Carleton et al., 2007). Uncertainty, in its turn, can have detrimental effects on individuals since it can minimize the effectiveness of preparing for the future and contribute to anxiety (Grupe & Nitschke, 2013; Tanovic et al., 2018). Notwithstanding, there are not many studies in the tourism literature which assess the role of uncertainty in travel decisions (Minnaert, 2014). Some exceptions are the reports that more extensive travel experience results in a decrease in the role of uncertainty factors (Quintal et al., 2010) and that potential travelers with lower uncertainty levels are more likely to take part in 'challenging' tourism activities (Minnaert, 2014). Considering the relationship between IU and avoidance of aversive responses, we suggest that:

H1. Individuals who hold high IU are likely to have weaker intentions of traveling in 2020 and 2021.

2.2 *Tourism and risk perception*

There are several concepts of risk perception in tourism studies (Tsaour et al., 1997; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Reichel et al., 2007; Liu & Gao, 2008; Chen & Zhang, 2012). Despite little discordance in the academic literature, tourism risk perception is usually considered to be a potential loss that stems from the uncertainty of the tourism activity results (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). It is related to several consequences in consumer behavior, including purchase intention (Liu et al., 2013; Mohseni et al., 2016), (re)visit intention (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Zhu & Deng, 2020), satisfaction (Quintal & Polczynski, 2010; Xie et al., 2020), and loyalty (Casidy & Wymer, 2016; Chahal & Devi, 2017). Previous studies have revealed that perceived tourism risk may decrease (re)visit intention in case of natural disasters (Lehto et al., 2008; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Rittichainuwat et al., 2018), terrorism (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Floyd et al., 2004; Adeloye & Brown, 2017), and diseases (Mizrachi & Fuchs, 2016; Novelli et al., 2018; Neuburger & Egger, 2020; Nazneen, Hong & Ud Din, 2020). Notably, the impact of health concerns on tourism has aroused growing academic interest in the past two decades (Hamer & Connor Bradley, 2004; Lopez-Velez & Bayas, 2007; Jonas, Mansfeld, Paz & Potasman, 2010; Novelli et al., 2018; Senbeto & Hon, 2020). Among all the perceived tourism-related risks, health ones are reported to be some of the factors that hold the most considerable influence on tourist behavior (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; McKercher & Chon, 2004; Kozak et al., 2007; Chien et al., 2017; Novelli et al., 2018). Major health crises, such as 2003 SARS and 2015 avian flu outbreaks, seem to impact tourist behavior more than a financial crisis, causing anxiety and affecting travel intentions regardless of the tourists' profile (Senbeto & Hon, 2020). In a similar vein, studies addressing the COVID-19 pandemic (Nazneen et al., 2020; Neuburger & Egger, 2020) have shown that tourist health risk perception has increased during the pandemic, impacting individuals' travel intentions negatively.

To assess tourist health risk perception, several authors have proposed to consider perceived severity, that is, severe negative health impacts of the disease (Provost & Soto, 2002; Brewer et al., 2007). Perceived severity is an indicator of the health belief model (HBM), which is used to predict health-related behaviors in various contexts (Janz & Becker, 1984; Jones et al., 2015). Individuals who perceive a disease to be highly severe and to have potential complications are reported to take measures to avoid getting sick (Champion & Skinner, 2008). In the travel and tourism context, greater perceived severity can also lead to health-preventative behaviors and lower travel intentions (Brewer et al., 2007; Champion & Skinner, 2008; Huang et al., 2020; Das & Tiwari, 2020). Thus, we hypothesize that:

H2. Individuals who perceive COVID-19 to be more severe will have weaker intentions of traveling in 2020 and 2021.

Moreover, perceived susceptibility — the likelihood of acquiring a disease — is another HBM indicator used by tourism researchers (Janz & Becker, 1984; Floyd et al., 2000; Brewer et al., 2007; Jones et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2020; Das & Tiwari, 2020; Neuburger & Egger, 2020). Individuals with a higher perceived susceptibility are reported to have a negative attitude towards risks and engage in preventive behaviors more often (Taymoori et al., 2014). This is also valid for travel and tourism studies, which show that these travelers are more prone to engage in risk mitigation measures and to avoid risks (Plight, 1996; Chien et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2020). Consequently, we propose that:

H3. Individuals who perceive the probability of contracting COVID-19 as higher will have weaker intentions of traveling in 2020 and 2021.

In addition to that, some studies have shown that the expected outbreak duration can predict behavior changes. In the context of the swine flu outbreak, the expected timeline of the epidemic was associated with several avoidance behaviors (Rubin et al., 2009). As to tourism, Li et al. (2020) suggested that expected outbreak duration could predict tourist behavior. The longer the outbreak is expected to last, the least strong travel intentions tend to be. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H4. Individuals who expect the COVID-19 pandemic to last longer will have weaker intentions of traveling in 2020 and 2021.

2.3 *Other determinants of travel intentions*

Several studies on tourist behavior have found that some individual characteristics may affect travel intentions. Variables such as age (Khan et al., 2018; Hajibaba et al., 2015; Neuburger & Egger, 2020), travel experience (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Kozak et al., 2007; Polas et al., 2019), income (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Floyd et al., 2004; Djeri, Armenski et al., 2014; Li, Mengdie & Cheng, 2018), and education level (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Qi et al., 2009) were relevant predictors of travel intentions also during periods of crises.

Travel experience. Previous studies have shown that more internationally experienced tourists tend to have stronger intentions of traveling during periods of crisis (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Floyd et al., 2004; Rittichainuwat &

Chakraborty, 2009; Pennington-Gray et al., 2011). Travel experience decreases tourist risk perception and, at the same time, positively influences travel intentions (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Kozak et al., 2007; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; Polas et al., 2019; Neuburger & Egger, 2020). In a similar vein, past travel experience seems to provide a greater sense of safety to tourists (Reza & Samiei, 2012) and alters travel decisions more than information from external sources (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). In line with Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) as well as Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009), we expect that individuals with more international travel experience will tend to hold stronger travel intentions for 2020 and 2021.

Age. Age is a predictor of tourist risk perception and travel intentions (Khan et al., 2018; Hajibaba et al., 2015). Prior research has shown that older individuals are likely to avoid visiting tourist destinations with greater perceived risks (Aschauer, 2010; March & Woodside, 2005) while the younger ones are less concerned about physical tourism-related risks and show stronger travel intentions. Young tourists are also more short-time oriented and likely to visit a post-disaster destination (Chew & Jahari, 2014). By considering this rationale, it makes sense that younger individuals tend to have stronger travel intentions for 2020 and 2021.

Income. Higher-income levels were associated with stronger travel intentions. Studies have shown that there is a relationship between income and travel intentions both in risky and riskless times (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Floyd et al., 2004; Djeri et al., 2014; Li, Mengdie & Cheng, 2018). In a riskless context, Djeri et al. (2014) found that individuals with a higher income spend their free time in a more active way than those with a lower income, which implies more frequent traveling among the former. In a risky context, Floyd et al. (2004) discovered that, among the socio-demographic variables, income was the single significant predictor of travel intentions in the aftermaths of a terrorist act. Therefore, it is conceivable that individuals holding higher income levels be more likely to travel in the face of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Education level. Tourist concern for safety declines as the education levels increase. This has been supported by Qi et al. (2009), who argue that travelers with higher education levels tend to be more adventurous and to travel despite possible risks. Graburn (1983) states that tourists with more years of education are mostly in search of new experiences and are more likely to explore. Besides, more educated tourists show more positive travel attitudes when there are possible risks involved (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b). Based on this information, we expect that individuals with a greater educational level tend to have stronger travel intentions in 2020 and 2021.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

Participants were obtained through convenience sampling. A total of 1,163 participants answered an online questionnaire, of which 13 participants were removed from the sample. There were 810 women (70.43%), 331 men (28.78%), and nine participants who did not report gender (0.78%). The mean age was 39.22 (SD=12.42), ranging from 18 to 80 years. As for income, the most cited income bracket (n= 354) was from four to ten minimum wages. Our sample is highly educated, for 591 (51.39%) participants checked the graduate option, and 387 (33.65%) indicated to have finished an undergraduate degree. Our sample has considerable domestic travel experience, for 836 (72.68 %) participants took six or more trips over the past five years. They also have some international experience, for 395 (34,34%) made six or more trips over the past five years. Detailed sociodemographic characteristics are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics and travel experience of the sample (n=1,150).

		n	%
Gender	female	810	70.43
	male	331	28.78
	other	9	0.78
Age	18–25	148	12.86
	26–33	292	25.39
	34–41	293	25.47
	42–49	152	13.21

	50–57	151	13.13
	58–65	87	7.56
	66 and above	27	2.34
Education	incomplete high school	1	0.08
	completed high school	28	2.43
	incomplete university degree	142	12.34
	completed university degree	387	33.65
	postgraduate degree	591	51.39
Monthly income	up to 2 MW*	161	14.00
	2–4 MW	239	20.78
	4–10 MW	354	30.78
	10–20 MW	226	19.65
	above 20 MW	170	14.78
Domestic travel experience in the last 5 years	0 trips	47	4.08
	1-5 trips	267	23.21
	6-10 trips	236	20.52
	11-20 trips	168	14.60
	more than 20 trips	432	37.56
International travel experience in the last 5 years	0 trips	255	22.17
	1-5 trips	500	43.47
	6-10 trips	207	18.00
	11-20 trips	116	10.08
	more than 20 trips	72	6.26

* MW = minimum wage, 1 MW = 199.65 USD.

3.2 Measures

Travel plans. Two closed-ended questions about whether participants had actual travel plans for the years 2020 and 2021. Participants answered in a binary way, by either answering yes or no. We also asked two questions about whether COVID-19 had affected their travel plans for 2020 and 2021, which were also answered in a binary way. Additionally, we applied two closed-ended questions to the participants who answered yes in the previous question. These questions inquired about how their trips had been affected and comprised three options: Trip canceled, trip rescheduled, and other. In the realm of this study, we considered cancellation more of an avoidant option in that, when one opts for canceling, travel plans are extinguished. On the other hand, when one chooses to reschedule, there remains the intention of traveling in the future.

Travel intentions. This measure consists of two scales that were developed in the scope of this research. They consist of four items in which participants stated how likely they were to travel in 2020 and 2021. To assess whether the answers would differ in the two years, two separate scales with the same items were applied. The scale was scored at five points (1 = No intention, 2= Low intention, 3= Average intention, 4= High intention, and 5= Very high intention). Items were as follows: “going ahead with your travel plans”, “postponing your trip”, “canceling your trip”, and

“keeping your trips unchanged”. The higher the score was, the stronger the intentions of traveling were. By conducting exploratory factor analysis, we observed that the extraction of one factor explains 57.89% of the measure's total variance for 2020 and 62.71% for 2021. Eigenvalues and parallel analysis indicated the extraction of one factor. Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix for travel intentions in 2020, $\chi^2(1,150) = 1,173.95$, $p < 0.001$, and 2021, $\chi^2(1,150) = 1,602.15$, $p < 0.001$. The strength of the relationships among variables was acceptable for 2020 (KMO = .70) and 2021 (KMO = .72). The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scales was .75 and .78 for travel intentions in 2020 and 2021, respectively.

Past travel experience. This measure was developed in the scope of this study to assess participants' previous travel experience. Participants answered three items about the frequency they had traveled to (1) cities of the state where they live, (2) other Brazilian states, and (3) other countries. The measure was scored at 5 points (1= Never, 2= Up to five times, 3 = Up to 10 times, 4 = Up to 20 times, and 5 = More than 20 times).

Perceived severity of COVID-19. This scale was developed in the scope of this research and was composed of five items. One example of an item is "I believe that if I contract COVID-19, it will bring severe detrimental consequences to my life" and "I believe that if I contract COVID-19, my health would not be significantly affected". The scale was scored at five points (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Partially disagree, 3= Neither agree nor disagree, 4= Partially agree, and 5= Strongly agree). An exploratory factor analysis indicated that the extraction of one factor explains 60.41% of the measure's total variance. Eigenvalues and parallel analysis suggested the extraction of one factor. Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix for travel intentions, $\chi^2(1,150) = 2592.07$, $p < 0.001$. The strength of the relationships among variables was acceptable (KMO = .76). The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scale was .84.

Perceived probability of infection. Three items were conceived in the scope of this research to assess participants' perceived probability of infection when traveling in 2020 and 2021. One example of an item is "I believe that if I travel in 2020 there is a high risk of contracting COVID-19". A 5-point scoring was adopted (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Partially disagree, 3= Neither agree nor disagree, 4= Partially agree, and 5= Strongly agree). Exploratory factor analyzes indicated that the extraction of one factor explains 55.55% of the measure's total variance for 2020 and 57.72% for 2021. Eigenvalues and parallel analysis indicated the extraction of one factor. Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix for travel intentions in 2020, $\chi^2(1,150) = 414.33$, $p < 0.001$, and 2021, $\chi^2(1,150) = 608.39$, $p < 0.001$. The strength of the relationships among variables was acceptable for 2020 (KMO = .58) and 2021 (KMO = .54). The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scales was .58 and .60 for the perceived probability of infection in 2020 and 2021, respectively.

Expected duration of COVID-19 pandemic. One item aimed at assessing participants' expectations about the duration of the pandemic. The answers were scored at eight points (1= One month, 2= Two months, 3= Three months, 4= Four months, 5= Five months, 6= Six months, 7= Up to one year, and 8= Over one year).

IUS-12 (Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale, Short Version). The short version of the IUS-12 (Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale) adapted by Carleton et al. (2007) was used. The scale is composed of 12 items that are grouped into two dimensions: prospective anxiety (fear and anxiety based on future events) and inhibitory anxiety (uncertainty inhibiting action or experience). It was translated from English to Brazilian Portuguese. A 5-point scoring was adopted (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree). The higher the score was, the stronger was the participants' uncertainty avoidance level. An exploratory factor analysis indicated that the extraction of two factors explains 52.63% of the measure's total variance. Eigenvalues and parallel analysis also indicated the extraction of two factors. Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix, $\chi^2(1,150) = 3,441.88$, $p < 0.001$. The strength of the relationships among variables was high (KMO = .87). The Cronbach's α coefficient of the scale was .91. The ones for prospective anxiety as well as inhibitory anxiety were both .85. A confirmatory factor analysis indicated the following results: CFI = .82, RMSEA = .11, NFI = .81.

Sociodemographic measures. Questions about income, gender, age, and educational level were applied. Income was measured in a scale ranging from "no income" to "above 20 minimum wages" (1= Up to two minimum wages, 2= From two minimum wages to four minimum wages, 3= From four minimum wages to 10 minimum wages, 4= From 10 minimum wages to 20 wages, 5= Above 20 minimum wages). The current minimum wage in Brazil is R\$1,045, which is equivalent to US\$ 199.65. Gender was assessed through a closed-ended question with three options (1- Male, 2- Female, 3- Other). The question about age was open-ended. As for education, participants answered a 7-point scale (1= Unfinished elementary school, 2= Finished elementary school, 3= Did not finish high school, 4= Finished high school, 5= Did not finish an undergraduate degree, 6= Finished an undergraduate degree, and 7= Post-graduation).

3.3 Procedure

The data was collected from 5 April to 5 May 2020, when COVID-19 had already been declared a pandemic by the World Health Organization. At the beginning of the data collection, there were 1,133,758 confirmed cases worldwide and 9,056 in Brazil (World Health Organization, 2020). Most European countries were under full lockdown, other countries adopted partial lockdown or national recommendations to contain the spread of the virus (BBC, 2020). Up to 56% of Brazil's population was following stay-at-home orders (Inloco, 2020).

A self-selection survey was conducted. The convenience sampling method was adopted to recruit a considerable number of participants in a short period without great resource requirements. The survey instrument was an online questionnaire that consisted of four sections: travel intentions, health risk perception, intolerance of uncertainty, and sociodemographic measures. The online questionnaire facilitated access to the sample during the period of stay-at-home orders, made it easier to reach specific interest groups — such as travelers — and was quick to disseminate and respond to (Whitehead, 2007; Beling et al., 2011).

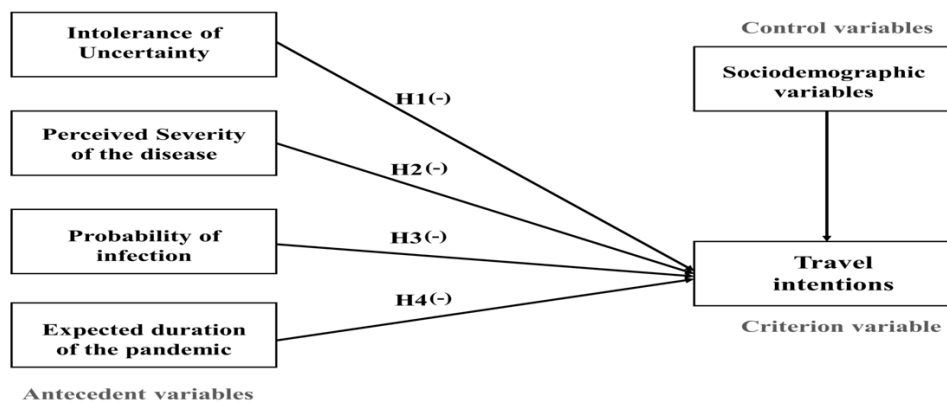
Invitations to participate in the research were distributed in travel groups via a social network, a messaging app, and e-mail. The study followed the ethical guidelines of research with human subjects. The collected data were sorted in SPSS 22.

4. Results

When it comes to participants' travel plans for 2020, most participants (70.76%, $n= 823$) stated that COVID-19 had affected their travel plans while 29.23% ($n= 340$) said it had not. Out of the ones who stated to have travel plans, 749 participants answered about how the COVID-19 pandemic had affected their plans. Most of them (56.32%) stated they had rescheduled their trip and 36.58% said they had canceled it. The remaining 7.00% reported other types of alterations. As for 2021, an even higher percentage (81.94%, $n= 953$) reported having travel plans whereas 18.06% ($n= 210$) did not report any. Out of the ones who stated that they have travel plans for this year, 270 answered that had altered their plans. The observed intentions for 2020 were similar to the ones for 2021, with most participants (51.12%) indicating that they had chosen to reschedule their travels to the detriment of canceling (11.85%) them. The remaining 37.03% reported other types of alterations. These results confronted our expectations that — since Brazil consists of a culture with a high score in the cultural value of uncertainty avoidance — Brazilians would tend to opt for canceling their trips instead of postponing them.

One model has been proposed to predict travel intentions for 2020 and 2021 (see Figure 1). In order to assess whether the antecedent variables in our model (IU, perceived severity of COVID-19, perceived probability of infection, and expected duration of the pandemic) explain a significant proportion of the variance of the criterion variable (either travel intentions for 2020 or 2021) even when accounting for the effects of the control variables (monthly income, age, educational level, international travel experience), we have conducted two stepwise multiple regressions. When performing these analyzes, we inserted the sociodemographic variables in the first step and the antecedent variables in the second step. By doing so, we have observed that the coefficient of determination (R^2) has improved significantly. In Model I, it has risen from .01 to .13. In Model II, it has increased from .05 to .14. We evaluated the assumptions of multivariate normality and linearity by using SPSS 22. Through the observation of box plots and the calculation of the Mahalanobis distance, we have spotted 13 multivariate outliers, which have been removed from the sample.

Figure 1. Model of travel intentions prediction



As for intentions of traveling in 2020 and 2021, Hypothesis 1 has been rejected while Hypotheses 2 to 4 have been accepted. That is, IU is not a significant predictor of traveling in 2020 and 2021 whereas perceived severity of COVID-19, perceived probability of infection, and perceived duration of the pandemic significantly predict travel intentions for both years.

We have also conducted exploratory moderation analyzes using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2020) to evaluate whether the control variables (income, gender, age, education level, and international travel experience) could affect the relationship between antecedent (IU, perceived severity of the disease, probability of infection, and expected duration of the pandemic) and criterion variables (travel intentions for 2020 and 2021). The lower the perceived probability of infection and the higher the income, the stronger are travel intentions for 2020, $F(1146, 3) = 40.20$, $t(1146) = -2.31$, $b = -.03$, $p = .02$, $R^2 = .10$, 95% CI $[-.11, -.009]$. Besides, age has moderated the effect of probability of infection on travel intentions for 2020, $F(1146, 3) = 44.76$, $t(1146) = -3.75$, $b = -.009$, $p = .0002$, $R^2 = .10$, 95% CI $[-.05, -.008]$, in that the higher the age and the lower the risk perception, the stronger are travel intentions. Income also moderates the effect of the perceived duration of the pandemic on travel intentions, $F(1146, 3) = 28.17$, $t(1146) = -2.74$, $b = -.03$, $p = .006$, $R^2 = .07$, 95% CI $[-.05, -.008]$. That is, the higher the income and the shorter the perceived duration of the pandemic, the stronger are travel intentions for 2020.

Furthermore, we have found a significant effect of international travel experience on the relationship between expected duration of the pandemic and travel intentions for 2020, $F(1146, 3) = 26.51$, $t(1150) = -2.06$, $b = -.02$, $p = .04$, $R^2 = .06$, 95% CI $[-.05, -.001]$. It means that holding more international travel experience and expecting the pandemic to last for a shorter period are significant predictors of stronger travel intentions. Finally, income has been found to moderate the effect of perceived severity of the disease on travel intentions for 2021, $F(1146, 3) = 27.04$, $t(1150) = -2.18$, $b = -.04$, $p = .03$, $R^2 = .07$, 95% CI $[-.08, -.004]$, in that the lower the perceived severity of COVID-19 and the higher the income, the stronger are travel intentions. No other significant moderations have been found.

5. Discussion

In this study, we aimed at assessing variables related to the COVID-19 pandemic that have an impact on travel plans. Specifically, this study assessed the effect of uncertainty, health risk perceptions (severity of COVID-19 and likelihood of contracting it), and perceived duration of the outbreak on Brazilians' travel intentions for the years 2020 and 2021. We have also controlled for the impact of individual variables (travel experience, age, educational level, and income) on these intentions.

Considering that Brazil ranks high on UA (Hofstede Insights, n.d.) and thus is expected to have a large number of uncertainty-intolerant individuals, we expected that participants would be more prone to cancel their trips to avoid waiting in the state of uncertainty. However, we found that Brazilians tended to reschedule their trips during uncertain times to the detriment of canceling them. The prospect theory — a psychological theory which states that individuals are generally risk-seeking when dealing with possible losses but risk-averse when dealing with gains (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Tversky & Kahneman, 1992) — provides a plausible explanation for these unexpected results. According to this theory, people tend to accept running more risks to avoid possible losses if compared to running risks to obtain potential gains. While rescheduling trips is usually free of charges, cancellations frequently require that high fees be discounted from the amount to be reimbursed, which incur losses to travelers. Therefore, participants may have opted for a riskier decision (rescheduling), besides other reasons, to avoid paying cancellation fees as well as because individuals tend to prefer future gains and losses when the present is not certain (Hardisty & Pfeffer, 2016).

Even though high IU was positively associated with perceiving the pandemic as more severe and perceiving a higher probability of infection, we did not find IU to be a significant predictor of travel intentions for both 2020 and 2021, which contradicts our expectations. Therefore, it appears like IU levels do not directly affect travel intentions. Conversely, health risk variables are the significant predictors of weaker travel intentions for both 2020 and 2021, which is in line with previous research (Provost & Soto, 2002; Huang et al., 2020; Das & Tiwari, 2020; Li et al., 2020; Neuburger & Egger, 2020). These results are also consistent with the findings that health risks have a significant effect on traveler behavior (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; McKercher & Chon, 2004; Kozak, Crofts & Law, 2007; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; Chien, Sharifpour, Ritchie & Watson, 2017; Novelli et al., 2018; Neuburger & Egger, 2020) and that individuals who perceive higher susceptibility to health risks and severity of diseases can become more prone to adopt health-preventative behaviors, which include avoiding traveling (Brewer et al., 2007; Chapman & Skinner, 2008; Huang et al., 2020; Das & Tiwari, 2020). Besides being positively related to perceived severity of COVID-19 and perceived probability of infection in 2020 and 2021, the expected duration of the pandemic has also held a significant negative impact on travel intentions for both years. This result is aligned with the reports

that the expected timeline of an epidemic was linked with avoidance behaviors (Rubin et al., 2009) and that expected outbreak duration is a remarkable predictor of tourist behavior (Li et al., 2020).

In this research, we have controlled for the impact of individual characteristics on Brazilians' travel intentions. We discovered supporting evidence for holding that in post-crisis times of lower uncertainty, represented by 2021 in this study — since 66,80% of participants believed that the pandemic would last up to six months, that is, until September-October 2020 —, travel experience and income are significant predictors of travel intentions.

Travel experience and income have presented a strong positive relationship. In fact, we have found that income has positively affected travel intentions for 2021. We have also discovered that people with higher income also tend to be more intolerant of uncertainty, perceive less severity of COVID-19, and have more extensive travel experience. Additionally, we found an interaction effect between the perception of risk and income in that individuals with lower risk perception and higher income tend to hold stronger travel intentions for 2020. Besides, people with higher income and who perceive the pandemic to last for a shorter period are more prone to hold stronger travel intentions for this year. Lower perceived severity of COVID-19 and higher income also account for stronger travel intentions for 2021. All these findings are aligned with the reports that income levels predict tourist decisions in risky and riskless contexts (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Li et al., 2018; Djeri et al., 2020).

As to the effect of educational level on travel intentions for 2021, our results contradict the reports that individuals with higher educational levels tend to travel more in risky situations (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Qi, Gibson, & Zhang, 2009). We have actually found the opposite trend. Furthermore, the interaction between being less intolerant of uncertainty and holding a lower level of education indicated stronger travel intentions.

We did not find a significant sole effect of age as a predictor of travel intentions for both years. Nonetheless, we found an interaction effect in which holding less severe COVID-19 perceptions and being older indicated stronger travel intentions for 2020. These results are partly in line with Neuburger and Egger (2020), who found that older individuals with more travel experience and lower COVID-19 risk perception were not likely to avoid traveling. Our findings are unexpected since older individuals are more at risk of developing more severe symptoms of COVID-19 (Kluge, 2020).

6. Conclusion

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first multivariate study to evaluate the travel intentions of Brazilians during the COVID-19 pandemic. Our findings have implications for tourism practitioners and authorities because it allows tracing the traveler profile that can help destinations to recover faster. Since Brazil ranks among the 20 countries with the greatest international tourism expenditures (The World Bank, 2020), it is important to comprehend the behavior of Brazilian tourists during health crises. We have gone some way towards deepening the understanding of tourist behavior during health crises, in particular, the COVID-19 pandemic. Given the need for more interdisciplinary research that could provide practical solutions in the context of the COVID-19 crisis (Wen et al., 2020), our study offers insights on public and private recovery strategies for the tourism industry.

This study contributed to deepening the discussion on tourist behavior in the context of health risks. Our results are in line with previous research on COVID-19, carried out in European and Asian countries, showing that health risk-related variables are strong predictors of travel intentions. In our research, we addressed the influence of factors that have been already mentioned in the tourism literature — such as age, income, travel experience, education level, on travel intentions — during a pandemic period. This could provide a deeper understanding of crisis-resistant tourists' characteristics. It is also worth highlighting that most of the claims about human behavior are based on samples taken entirely from western, educated, industrialized, rich, and democratic (WEIRD) societies (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). However, behavioral patterns which are typical from WEIRD societies may not be found in non-WEIRD ones. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to analyze travel intentions during a health crisis carried out in Brazil, a non-WEIRD society.

This study has revealed that health risk perception variables were the most influential factors on weaker travel intentions for 2020 and 2021. We, therefore, provided evidence of the relevance of adopting health risk prevention measures in tourist destinations to increase travel intentions. Besides, working towards engaging in effective communication practices along with providing transparent and easily accessible information can make individuals feel safer to travel and make tourists more comfortable to resume tourism activities. Travel experience and income also appear to be relevant in the period perceived by participants as post-crisis (the year 2021). By considering this information, the tourism industry is advised to focus on travelers of high income in the post-pandemic period. Another contribution consisted of providing information about how actual travel plans for the years 2020 and 2021 have been

affected by the pandemic. By bearing this data in mind, it is possible to draw a clearer picture of the impact of COVID-19 on individuals' travel plans and preparing recovery strategies.

This research has a number of limitations. The sample is skewed in terms of gender (70.33% were female) and education (51.16 % were either postgraduate students or had a postgraduate degree). We, therefore, suggest that future research be conducted to replicate our research design with a sample that is more balanced in terms of the Brazilian population features to verify whether our results will stand.

Furthermore, the research was carried out at the beginning of the COVID-19 outbreak in Brazil. This temporal component may have influenced the results. Therefore, further research should be conducted in other phases of the pandemic.

Acknowledgments

We thank the Brazilian Ministry of Tourism and the Brazilian Tour Operators Association (Braztoa) for their support in data collection.

References

- Adeloye, D., & Brown, L. (2017). Terrorism and domestic tourist risk perceptions. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 16(3), 217–233. <https://doi:10.1080/14766825.2017.1304399>.
- Allum, N., Sturgis, P., Tabourazi, D., & Brunton-Smith, I. (2008). Science knowledge and attitudes across cultures: a meta-analysis. *Public Understanding of Science*, 17(1), 35–54. <https://doi:10.1177/0963662506070159>.
- Aschauer, W. (2010). Perceptions of tourists at risky destinations. A model of psychological influence factors. *Tourism Review*, 65(2), 4–20. <http://doi:10.1108/16605371011061589>.
- Bae, S. Y., & Chang, P.-J. (2020). The effect of coronavirus disease-19 (COVID-19) risk perception on behavioral intention towards "untact" tourism in South Korea during the first wave of the pandemic (March 2020). *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–19. <https://doi:10.1080/13683500.2020.1798895>.
- BBC (2020, April 6). *Coronavirus: The world in lockdown in maps and charts*. <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-52103747>.
- Beling, J., Libertini, L. S., Sun, Z., Masina, V. M., & Albert, N. M. (2011). Predictors for Electronic Survey Completion in Healthcare Research. *CIN: Computers, Informatics, Nursing*, 29(5), 297–301. <http://doi:10.1097/ncn.0b013e3182065fbb>.
- Brewer, N. T., Chapman, G. B., Gibbons, F. X., Gerrard, M., McCaul, K. D., & Weinstein, N. D. (2007). Meta-analysis of the relationship between risk perception and health behavior: The example of vaccination. *Health Psychology*, 26(2), 136–145. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-6133.26.2.136>.
- Carleton, R. N., Duranceau, S., Shulman, E. P., Zerff, M., Gonzales, J., & Mishra, S. (2016). Self-reported intolerance of uncertainty and behavioral decisions. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 51, 58–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbtep.2015.12.004>.
- Carleton, R. N., Norton, M. A. P. J., & Asmundson, G. J. G. (2007). Fearing the unknown: A short version of the Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 21(1), 105–117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.janxdis.2006.03.014>.
- Casidy, R., & Wymer, W. (2016). A risk worth taking: Perceived risk as moderator of satisfaction, loyalty, and willingness to pay premium price. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 32, 189–197. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2016.06.014>.
- Chahal, H., & Devi, A. (2017). How perceived risk influences image and loyalty relationship in a tourist destination? an Indian perspective. *International Journal of Leisure and Tourism Marketing*, 5(2), 100. <https://doi:10.1504/ijltm.2017.084618>.
- Champion, V., & Skinner, C. S. (2008). The health belief model. In K. Glanz, B. Rimer, & K. Viswanath (Eds.). *Health behavior and health education* (pp. 45–65). (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Chen, Y. Q., & Zhang, H. (2012). Investigation of sports tourism visitors risk perception and coping behavior. *Journal of Hebei Institute of Physical Education*, 26(3), 38–43.
- Chew, E. Y. T., & Jahari, S. A. (2014). Destination image as a mediator between perceived risks and revisit intention: A case of post-disaster Japan. *Tourism Management*, 40, 382–393. <http://doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2013.07.008>.
- Chien, P. M., Sharifpour, M., Ritchie, B. W., & Watson, B. (2017). Travelers' health risk perceptions and preventative behavior: A psychological approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(6), 744–759. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287516665479>.
- CNC [National Confederation of Trade in Goods, Services and Tourism] (2019). O bom desempenho do emprego no turismo em outubro de 2019. http://www.cnc.org.br/sites/default/files/2019-12/An%C3%A1lise_Empregabilidade%20no%20Turismo_Outubro_2019.pdf
- Crotts, J. C. (2004). The Effect of Cultural Distance on Overseas Travel Behaviors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(1), 83–88. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287504265516>.

- Das, S. S., & Tiwari, A. K. (2020). Understanding international and domestic travel intention of Indian travelers during COVID-19 using a Bayesian approach. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 1–17. <http://doi:10.1080/02508281.2020.1830341>.
- Djeri, L., Armenski, T., Jovanovic, T., & Dragin, A. (2014). How income influences the choice of tourism destination? *Acta Oeconomica*, 64, 219–237. <http://doi.org/10.1556/AOecon.64.2014.2.5>.
- Evans, G., & Durant, J. (1995). The Relationship between Knowledge and Attitudes in the Public Understanding of Science in Britain. *Public Understanding of Science*, 4(1), 57–74. <https://doi.org/10.1088/0963-6625/4/1/004>.
- FGV [Getúlio Vargas Foundation] (2020). Centro de Estudos em Competitividade da FGV/EBAPE. *Impacto econômico do COVID-19. Propostas para o turismo brasileiro*.
- Floyd, D. L., Prentice-Dunn, S., & Rogers, R. W. (2000). A meta-analysis of research on protection motivation theory. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 30(2), 407–429. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2000.tb02323.x>.
- Floyd, M. F., Gibson, H., Pennington-Gray, L., & Thapa, B. (2004). The effect of risk perceptions on intentions to travel in the aftermath of September 11, 2001. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 15(2/3), 19–38. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v15n02_02.
- Gibson, H., & Yiannakis, A. (2002). Tourist roles: needs and the adult life course. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 2, 358–383. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-7383\(01\)00037-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-7383(01)00037-8).
- Graburn, N. H. H. (1983). The anthropology of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 10(1), 9–33. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(83\)90113-5](http://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(83)90113-5).
- Grupe, D. W., & Nitschke, J. B. (2013). Uncertainty and anticipation in anxiety: an integrated neurobiological and psychological perspective. *Nature Reviews*, 14(July), 488–501. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn3524>.
- Hajibaba, H., Gretzel, U., Leisch, F., & Dolnicar, S. (2015). Crisis-resistant tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 53, 46–60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2015.04.001>.
- Hamer, D. H., and A. Connor Bradley (2004). Travel Health Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices among United States Travelers. *Journal of Travel Medicine*, 11 (1): 23-6. <https://doi.org/10.2310/7060.2004.13577>.
- Hardisty, D. J. & Pfeffer, J. (2016). Intertemporal Uncertainty Avoidance: When the Future Is Uncertain, People Prefer the Present, and When the Present Is Uncertain, People Prefer the Future. *Management Science*, 63(2), 519-527. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.2015.2349>
- Hayes, B. C., & Tariq, V. N. (2000). Gender differences in scientific knowledge and attitudes toward science: a comparative study of four Anglo-American nations. *Public Understanding of Science*, 9(4), 433–447. <https://doi:10.1088/0963-6625/9/4/306>.
- Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling [White paper]. Retrieved from <http://www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf>
- Henrich J, Heine SJ, Norenzayan A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world? *Behav Brain Sci.*, 33(2-3):61-135. <http://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X0999152X>.
- Hofstede Insights. (n.d.). *Country Comparison. Brazil*. <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/brazil/>.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the mind*. Mcgrawhill.
- Huang, X., Dai, S., & Xu, H. (2020). Predicting tourists' health risk preventative behavior and travelling satisfaction in Tibet: Combining the theory of planned behavior and health belief model. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 33, 100589. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100589>.
- Inloco (2020). *Mapa brasileiro da COVID-19*. <https://mapabrasileirodacovid.inloco.com.br/pt>.
- Janz, N. K., & Becker, M. H. (1984). The health belief model: A decade later. *Health Education Quarterly*, 11(1), 1–47. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109019818401100101>.

- Jonas, A., Mansfeld, Y., Paz, S., & Potasman, I. (2010). Determinants of Health Risk Perception Among Low-risk-taking Tourists Traveling to Developing Countries. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(1), 87–99. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509355323>.
- Jones, C. L., Jensen, J. D., Scherr, C. L., Brown, N. R., Christy, K., & Weaver, J. (2014). The Health Belief Model as an Explanatory Framework in Communication Research: Exploring Parallel, Serial, and Moderated Mediation. *Health Communication*, 30(6), 566–576. <http://doi:10.1080/10410236.2013.873363>.
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). On the interpretation of intuitive probability: A reply to Jonathan Cohen. *Cognition*, 7(4), 409–411. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277\(79\)90024-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277(79)90024-6).
- Khan, M. J., Chelliah, S., & Ahmed, S. (2018). Intention to visit India among potential travelers: Role of travel motivation, perceived travel risks, and travel constraints. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 19(3), 351–367. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1467358417751025>.
- Kluge, H.H. P. (2020, April 02). *Statement – Older people are at highest risk from COVID-19, but all must act to prevent community spread*. World Health Organization (WHO). <https://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/health-emergencies/coronavirus-covid-19/statements/statement-older-people-are-at-highest-risk-from-covid-19,-but-all-must-act-to-prevent-community-spread>.
- Kozak, M., Crotts, J. C., & Law, R. (2007). The impact of the perception of risk on international travelers. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9, 233–242. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.607>.
- Lehto, X., Douglas, A. C., & Park, J. (2008). Mediating the Effects of Natural Disasters on Travel Intention. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 23(2-4), 29–43. http://doi.org/10.1300/j073v23n02_03.
- Li, J., Nguyen, T. H. H., & Coca-Stefaniak, J. A. (2020). Coronavirus impacts on post-pandemic planned travel behaviors. *Annals of Tourism Research*. In press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.102964>.
- Li, W., Mengdie, X., & Cheng, L. (2018). Study on Behavioral Decision-making Based on Sunk Costs in Travel. *Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Business, Economics and Management (BUSEM 2018)*. Yinchuan, China. <http://doi.org/10.25236/busem.2018.031>.
- Litvin, S.W., Crotts, J.C. and Hefner, F.L. (2004), Cross-cultural tourist behavior: a replication and extension involving Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. *Int. J. Tourism Res.*, 6, 29-37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.468>.
- Liu, J., & Gao, J. (2008). Based tourism risk perception conceptual model – A case study of Shanghai residents. *Tourism Science*, 22(5), 37–43.
- Liu, M. & Brock, J., Shi, G., Chu, R., & Tseng, T. (2013). Perceived benefits, perceived risk, and trust: Influences on consumers' group buying behavior. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 25(2), 225–248. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13555851311314031>.
- Lopez-Velez, R., and Bayas, J.M. (2007). Spanish Travelers to High-Risk Areas in the Tropics: Airport Survey of Travel Health Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices in Vaccination and Malaria Prevention. *Journal of Travel Medicine*, 14 (5): 297-305. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1708-8305.2007.00142.x>.
- March, R., and Woodside, A.G. (2005). *Tourism Behaviour: Travellers' Decisions and Actions*. Oxon, UK: CABI.
- McKercher, B., & Chon, K. (2004). The over-reaction to SARS and the collapse of Asian tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 716–719. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.11.002>.
- Ministério do Turismo [Ministry of Tourism] (2020). *Relatório de impacto da pandemia de COVID-19 nos setores de turismo e cultura no Brasil*. http://www.dadosefatos.turismo.gov.br/boletins/item/download/1175_000c9b701ec1f89133455ce5f0ed9caa.html
- Minnaert, L. (2014). Social tourism participation: The role of tourism inexperience and uncertainty. *Tourism Management*, 40, 282–289. <http://doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2013.07.002>.
- Mizrachi, I., & Fuchs, G. (2016). Should we cancel? An examination of risk handling in travel social media before visiting ebola-free destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 28, 59–65. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.01.009>.

- Mohseni, S., Jayashree, S., Rezaei, S., Kasim, A., & Okumus, F. (2016). Attracting tourists to travel companies' websites: the structural relationship between website brand, personal value, shopping experience, perceived risk and purchase intention. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 21(6), 616–645. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2016.1200539>.
- Money, R. B., & Crotts, J. C. (2003). The effect of uncertainty avoidance on information search, planning, and purchases of international travel vacations. *Tourism Management*, 24(2), 191–202. [http://doi.org/10.1016/s0261-5177\(02\)00057-2](http://doi.org/10.1016/s0261-5177(02)00057-2).
- Nazneen, S., Hong, X., & Ud Din, N. (2020). COVID-19 Crises and Tourist Travel Risk Perceptions. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <http://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3592321>.
- Novelli, M., Gussing Burgess, L., Jones, A., & Ritchie, B. W. (2018). "No Ebola...still doomed" – The Ebola-induced tourism crisis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 70, 76–87. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2018.03.006>.
- Neuburger, L., & Egger, R. (2020). Travel risk perception and travel behavior during the COVID-19 pandemic 2020: a case study of the DACH region. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1803807>.
- Pardo, R., & Calvo, F. (2004). The Cognitive Dimension of Public Perceptions of Science: Methodological Issues. *Public Understanding of Science*, 13(3), 203–227. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963662504045002>.
- Pennington-Gray, L., Schroeder, A., & Kaplanidou, K. K. (2011). Examining the influence of past travel experience, general web searching behavior and risk perception on future travel intentions. *International Journal of Safety and Security in Tourism*, 1(1), 64–92.
- Pligt, J. V. D. (1996). Risk perception and self-preventative behavior. *European Psychologist*, 1(1), 34–43. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040.1.1.34>.
- Polas, M. R. H., Sahidullah, M., Hossain, M. I., Karim, A. M., Prabhakaran, S., & Khan, A. M. (2019). Antecedent and consequences of risk perception on tourist decision making towards the sustainable medical tourism development in Bangladesh. *Journal of Tourism Management Research*, 6(1), 93–108. <http://doi.org/10.18488/journal.31.2019.61.93.108>.
- Provost, S., & Soto, J. C. (2002). Perception and knowledge about some infectious diseases among travelers from Québec, Canada. *Journal of Travel Medicine*, 9(4), 184–189. <https://doi.org/10.2310/7060.2002.24550>.
- Qi, C. X., Gibson, H. J., & Zhang, J. J. (2009). Perceptions of risk and travel intentions: the case of China and the Beijing Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 14(1), 43–67. <http://doi.org/10.1080/14775080902847439>.
- Quintal, V. A., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2010). Risk, uncertainty and the theory of planned behavior: A tourism example. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 797–805. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.08.006>.
- Quintal, V., & Polczynski, A. (2010). Factors influencing tourists' revisit intentions. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 22(4), 554–578. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13555851011090565>.
- Reichel, A., Fuchs, G., & Uriely, N. (2007). Perceived Risk and the Non-Institutionalized Tourist Role: The Case of Israeli Student Ex-Backpackers. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), 217–226. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507299580>.
- Reisinger, Y., & Mavondo, F. (2005). Travel Anxiety and Intentions to Travel Internationally: Implications of Travel Risk Perception. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(3), 212–225. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0047287504272017>.
- Reza, J. M., & Samiei, N. (2012). Perceived risks in travelling to the Islamic Republic of Iran. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 3(2), 175–189. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17590831211232573>.
- Rittichainuwat, B. N., & Chakraborty, G. (2009). Perceived travel risks regarding terrorism and disease: The case of Thailand. *Tourism Management*, 30(3), 410–418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.08.001>.
- Rittichainuwat, B., Nelson, R., & Rahmafritia, F. (2018). Applying the perceived probability of risk and bias toward optimism: Implications for travel decisions in the face of natural disasters. *Tourism Management*, 66, 221–232. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.09.013>.

- Roehl, W., & Fesenmaier, D. (1992). Risk perceptions and pleasure travel: An exploratory analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(4), 17–26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759203000403>.
- Rubin, G. J., Amlôt, R., Page, L., & Wessely, S. (2009). Public perceptions, anxiety, and behavior change in relation to the swine flu outbreak: cross sectional telephone survey. *Bmj*, 339, b2651. <http://doi:10.1136/bmj.b2651>.
- Senbeto, D. L., & Hon, A. H. (2020). The impacts of social and economic crises on tourist behavior and expenditure: an evolutionary approach. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 23(6), 740-755. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2018.1546674>.
- Sönmez, S., & Graefe, A. (1998a). Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2), 172–177. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759803700209>.
- Sönmez, S.F., & Graefe, A. R. (1998b). Influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 112–144. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(97\)00072-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(97)00072-8).
- Tanovic, E., Gee, D. G., & Joormann, J. (2018). Intolerance of uncertainty: Neural and psychophysiological correlates of the perception of uncertainty as threatening. *Clinical Psychology Review*, (July 2017), 0–1. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2018.01.001>.
- Taymoori, P., Molina, Y., & Roshani, D. (2014). Effects of a randomized controlled trial to increase repeat mammography screening in Iranian women. *Cancer Nursing*, 38(4), 288. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ncc.0000000000000185>.
- The World Bank. (2020). *International tourism, expenditures (current US\$)*. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ST.INT.XPND.CD?end=2018&most_recent_value_desc=false&start=2018&view=map&year=2017.
- Tomé, L.M. (2020). Setor de turismo: impactos da pandemia. *Caderno Setorial ETENE*, 124, agosto. https://www.bnb.gov.br/documents/80223/7600112/2020_CDS_122_turismo.pdf/748e1bcd-8bf3-18d5-aaf0-f11cda0e3052
- Tsaur, S., Tzeng, G., & Wang, K. (1997). Evaluating tourist risks from fuzzy perspectives. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(4), 796–812. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-7383\(97\)00059-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-7383(97)00059-5).
- Tversky, A., Kahneman, D. (1992). Advances in prospect theory: Cumulative representation of uncertainty. *J Risk Uncertainty*, 5, 297–323. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00122574>.
- Wen, J., Wang, W., Kozak, M., Liu, X., & Hou, H. (2020). Many brains are better than one: the importance of interdisciplinary studies on COVID-19 in and beyond tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 1–4. <http://doi:10.1080/02508281.2020.1761120>.
- Whitehead, L. C. (2007). Methodological and ethical issues in Internet-mediated research in the field of health: An integrated review of the literature. *Social Science & Medicine*, 65(4), 782–791. <http://doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.03.005>.
- Williams, A. M., & Baláž, V. (2013). Tourism, risk tolerance and competences: Travel organization and tourism hazards. *Tourism Management*, 35, 209–221. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.07.006>.
- World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). (1980). *International Tourism in Figures 1950 - 1979 (English version)*. <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284409549>
- World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). (2019, August 28). *International Tourism Highlights, 2019 Edition*. <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284421152>.
- World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). (2020a, May 07). *International tourist numbers could fall 60-80% in 2020, UNWTO reports*. <https://www.unwto.org/news/covid-19-international-tourist-numbers-could-fall-60-80-in-2020>.
- World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). (2020b, May 08). *COVID-19 related travel restrictions. A global review for tourism. Third Report as of 8 May 2020*. <https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-05/TravelRestrictions-08-May0.pdf>

- World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). (2020c, Sep 15). *International tourist numbers down 65% in first half of 2020, UNWTO reports*. <https://www.unwto.org/news/international-tourist-numbers-down-65-in-first-half-of-2020-unwto-reports>.
- Xie, C., Huang, Q., Lin, Z., & Chen, Y. (2020). Destination risk perception, image and satisfaction: The moderating effects of public opinion climate of risk. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 44, 122–130. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.03.007>.
- Zhang, H., Li, L., Yang, Y., & Zhang, J. (2018). Why do domestic tourists choose to consume local food? The differential and non-monotonic moderating effects of subjective knowledge. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 10, 68-77. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.06.001>.
- Zhu, H., & Deng, F. (2020). How to Influence Rural Tourism Intention by Risk Knowledge during COVID-19 Containment in China: Mediating Role of Risk Perception and Attitude. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(10), 3514. <https://doi:10.3390/ijerph17103514>.

Determinants of MICE Tourism Promotion in Sri Lanka: A Management Perspective

Thushan Hansaka¹, Ruwan Ranasinghe², Dhananjaya Nawarathana³

¹Uva Wellassa University of Sri Lanka

ORCID: 0000-0002-4752-2194

E-mail: thushanhansaka725@gmail.com

²Uva Wellassa University of Sri Lanka

ORCID: 0000-0003-0506-9667

E-mail: ruwan@uwu.ac.lk

³Uva Wellassa University of Sri Lanka

ORCID: 0000-0002-8588-1905

E-mail: dhana1991bandara@gmail.com

Abstract

Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions (MICE) industry is considered as a rapidly growing sector in tourism industry. However, MICE tourism sector of Sri Lanka shows a slow growth amid the rapid development of other tourism sectors. Hence, this study aims at identifying the determinants affecting to promote MICE tourism in Sri Lanka, examining the challenges and opportunities in MICE tourism promotion in Sri Lanka. Eleven MICE events managers were selected out of the 28 members of Sri Lanka Association of Professional Conference, Exhibition and Event Organizers to conduct structured interviews. Transcriptions were scrutinized and analyzed using qualitative content analysis method. Study elucidates that infrastructure facilities, connectivity and networking, identifying the suitable markets and uniqueness, promotion and diversification, and government support are major determinants that Sri Lanka has to pay attention in promoting the MICE tourism sector. Moreover, findings identify Wrong Promotional Activities, Lack of Infrastructure and Administrative Problems as challenges and Potential to Diversification, Wide Scale Events, and Country's Inherited Uniqueness as opportunities associated with Sri Lankan MICE tourism promotion. Furthermore, Proper long-term planning of infrastructure such as venues, structural adjustments in the decision-making process and adopting to the changing dynamics are suggested as recommendations to the MICE industry.

Keywords: MICE Tourism, MICE Tourism Promotion, Promotional Factors

1.Introduction

MICE tourism plays a major role in the rapidly expanding and diverse tourism industry in Sri Lanka. It can be considered as a steadily growing industry throughout the year (Made et al., 2014). MICE is a diverse sector and stands for Meeting, Incentives, Conference, and Exhibitions (Monge & Brandimarte, 2011). MICE tourism is concerned as a sector that can create a huge impact on the global as well as local economies. This sector is concerned as a complex industry which includes a number of stakeholders such participants, events planners, events sponsors, suppliers, events venues, communities, governments and etc.

Studying the determinants of promoting MICE tourism in Sri Lanka is an essential and timely need. In Sri Lanka, MICE tourism sector shows a very low growth when compared to the other sectors of the Sri Lankan tourism industry

in recent years. Furthermore, India, Malaysia Singapore and Thailand are having more advantages in Asian MICE tourism context with a rapid growth in the sector. That reveals a gap in the Sri Lankan MICE tourism promotion strategy which needs deeper elucidation. According to the international congress and convention association 2018, Sri Lanka has hosted 24 meetings and Colombo city has hosted 20 meetings out of the total. This reveals that Sri Lanka is having a greater potential to promote MICE tourism sector. Therefore, this study aims to explore the determinants which affect to promote MICE tourism in Sri Lanka from MICE managers' perspective and, to examine the challenges and opportunities in MICE tourism promotion in Sri Lanka.

2. Literature review

2.1 MICE Tourism Promotion

Promotion is an essential factor in order to boost the different sectors in tourism industry. MICE tourism is considered as a sector which is still growing in most of the countries. That is the reason why these countries should pay their attention on the MICE tourism promotion. Proper marketing strategy can promote destinations and build the destination image (Ladkin, 2000). Different empirical studies which have been done in different countries shows that based on the situation's countries have to follow different promotional strategies. Studies shows that in Georgia they have to follow internal marketing strategies in order to get the full advantage of the development opportunities (Katsitadze & Natsvlshvili, 2017). And another study shows that the government involvement in promoting the tourism can create different types of consequences (Dwyer & Forsyth, 1992). Different types of promotional methods can be applied in based on situations. Effective usage of correct promotion strategy can attract more numbers of tourists to destinations and also the particular country will be able to host number of events (Shi, 2012).

2.2 MICE Tourism Promotional Tools

Most of the countries use different kind of promotional tools in tourism in order to gain strategic advantage and different purposes. Study conducted in Barbados shows that promotional tools have affected on the improving the overall tourism experience (Lewis & Jönsson, 2016). Results shows that the selected promotional tools can create an impact on visitors' mind. Communication is one of the most important factors in MICE tourism marketing (Fotiadis, 2018). It is considered as a very critical thing which is important to convey the messages to the expected community. Different types of tools are used in MICE industry as communication tools which helps MICE tourism in terms of MICE tourism promotion (Tinnish & Mangal, 2012).

Study conduct in Vietnam shows the interrelationship between the promotional activities and the tourist expectation, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty. Outcomes of this study shows that those are having a strong relationship between each other and this study proves that information sources which are used to implement the promotional activities should include the professional sources, commercial sources, formal interpersonal sources (Lai & VInh, 2013). That shows the importance of the information sources which are used to implement the promotional activities in tourism.

2.3 MICE Tourism Promotional Strategies

A study conducted in Thailand shows that special promotion campaign called Amazing Thailand Year launched by the Thailand tourism promotion authority has affected the tourism industry showing rapid growth. And also this study has emphasized the importance of the high frequency of aggressive marketing promotion strategies in term of building the awareness of customers' who are expect to visit Thailand for the first time (Informa et al., 2002). Another important aspect that can identify thought the literature is that usage of the marketing mix. A study conducted in Vietnam which focused on the usage of the marketing mix with segmentation, targeting and the positioning shows that four factors which help to conduct successful MICE events. choice of destination, service providers, event venue and means of transportation are the four most influential factors to the according to the study conduct in Vietnam (Nguyen, 2016).

Another study shows that in a promotion strategy addressing the all the necessary aspects are importance in terms of gaining an advantage over others. Studies suggest that strategy makers have to address some specific things like material status of the potential attendees and emphasize the importance of strengthening the marketing campaigns in order to encourage the potential customers (Lee & Palakurthi, 2013). When making a promotion strategy promotional tools also play an important role and the most important thing is that it is possible to identify different modes of

promotional strategies. These different modes include different type of tools which are used for the promotion activities in different stages(Tisn, 2012) .

3. Research Methodology

Qualitative research design was adopted to conduct this research. Since the study focusing on the MICE tourism sector in Sri Lanka, it was conducted in relation to Sri Lanka Association of Professional Conference, Exhibition and Event Organizers (SLAPCEO). SLAPCEO is the only recognized institutional body which represents the MICE organizations in the country. There are 28 registered companies in the organization. Purposive sampling technique was adopted to conduct the study. Purposive sampling is considered as a non-random sampling technique and it was selected based on the characteristics of the respondents and this sampling method does not require fixed number of participants or any underlying theory. In this study sample size was 11 managers and these MICE companies are the members of Sri Lanka Association of Professional Conference, Exhibition and Event Organizers (SLAPCEO).

First contact with the interviewees was the emails and by using the personal contacts details all the interview appointments were fixed. Structured interviews have been used as the data collection method of this study. These interviews were taken from the events managers who represent the Sri Lanka Association of Professional Conference, Exhibition and Event Organizers (SLAPCEO). Mainly, the MICE managers' perception on the determinants affecting to promote MICE tourism in Sri Lanka were focused in these interviews. Qualitative content analysis method was used to analyze the gathered data. Qualitative content analysis is a scientific method which use to identify the similar units within a data set (Fass, 2017). Content analysis can be considered as one of the mostly use analyzing technique which is used to analyze the qualitative data. Moreover, this method can be further defined as a more objective more systematic and quantitative analysis of message characteristic (Neuendorf & Kumar, 2015).

4. Findings and Analysis

Objective One: Identifying the determinants, influence to promote MICE tourism in Sri Lanka

4.1 Infrastructure Facilities

Venues and technology are considered as the most important aspects of MICE tourism in terms of infrastructure facilities. Most of the managers gave higher attention regarding the infrastructure and the technology emphasizing different aspects which need much attention. One of the most important fact identified was that the capacity of the infrastructures that Sri Lanka is currently having for MICE tourism is not enough to cater to the rapidly growing MICE tourism sector of Sri Lanka. Furthermore, another argument was built by the venue owners that Sri Lanka is not having a problem regarding the capacity or the infrastructure, Sri Lanka is having a problem in terms of the demand for events, participants highlighted that Sri Lanka is not having enough demand for MICE events. "Infrastructure plays a vital role and if we are going to promote the industry we need more facilities, when it comes to our capacity, our capacity is very much limited with the less space that we currently having." (Participant 03, Personal Communication,2020)

"In the BMICH case they have the facility but when we were organizing Sri Lanka's largest conference it had 2500 people what we did was we put 1500 in the main hall then in the other small hall we put the other panels then we telecasted it that is not the right way, for an example book fair has more than 500 stalls it is very spread, you can see stalls everywhere when you take Singapore they have large venues which can be divided, we have to build these kind of facilities"

(Participant 9, Personal Communication,2020)

One of the most important factors that was highlighted by the participant was, in order to develop the MICE tourism sector of Sri Lanka, Sri Lanka need to have multipurpose venue facilities which can accommodate enough number of participants. These multipurpose venue facilities are considered as a key factor which is essential for the development of the MICE industry. Moreover, a pivotal argument was built by the participants in terms of technology was that Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry is having the required technology. Furthermore, some participants argued that the industry is not having the technology which is required

4.2 Connectivity and Networking

Connectivity and networking were one of the important determinants that was identified by analyzing the data gathered. Arguably, some participants stated that they are not satisfied with the connectivity that Sri Lanka is currently having. They highlighted that Sri Lanka is not having enough direct flights with some crucial destination. Sri Lankan MICE tourism authorities has to conduct a proper assessment whether the country is having proper connectivity with other countries specially with the countries who represent the Sri Lankan MICE tourism customer base. "The main thing is that the connectivity, we do not have enough direct flights coming from Europe. MICE travelers are normally busy; they do not want to wait five six hours for transit flights. We do not have connectivity with USA at all." (Participant 4, Personal Communication,2020)

"Manly we have to rethink about the connectivity, if we take Singapore travelling, visa procedures are smoothly running processes. But in Sri Lanka it is difficult for us to identify that kind of visitor friendly processes. Singapore is considered as a business hub both visitors and exhibitors are coming for Singapore."

(Participant 3, Personal Communication,2020)

Another most important factor which was highlighted by the participants was that Sri Lanka is having problems regarding the visa procedures of MICE travelers. Moreover, an argument was built which emphasize the importance of identifying the inherent characteristics of the customer base of MICE tourism industry assist to provide more quality personalized services to the customers. Customization and personalization play a vital role in MICE tourism industry giving a competitive advantage to the industry.

"One key thing that we need is that network. We have to identify the importance of this, we are considered as a one hub that bring many of these organizations many of these individuals in to one platform so it can be different industries, trades, business, countries it is really important for the industry"

(Participant 1, Personal Communication,2020)

Networking can be considered as one of the most important determinants which is need to develop the MICE tourism industry. In order to promote the MICE tourism industry of Sri Lanka, networking or the collaboration between all the related industries is an essential factor. Collaboration between the private and the government sector was also emphasized by the participants. Participants stated the need of having a good relationship with other organizations who represent the industry. In order to promote Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry both governing bodies and the private organizations have to identify their unique capabilities and characteristics. That will create good working environment for both sectors.

4.3 Promotion and Diversification

Promotion and diversification were one of the most important determinants which was able to identify by analyzing the data collected. A major argument was built in terms of the focus promotion. Some participants stated that as a country Sri Lanka is not doing enough promotion. Identifying the right markets and do the promotional activities targeting those identified markets was the major argument which was built by the participants. Another argument which was immerged was that Sri Lanka is not promoting the entire country as a MICE tourism destination. "Promotion, I would say no, in the sense on personal capacity the companies do attend different exhibitions abroad and do their promotional stuff but as a nation we have failed to promote Sri Lanka as a MICE destination." (Participant 7 Personal Communication,2020).

"Promotion also we do not spend enough time to position our self to different countries to bring MICE to Sri Lanka what we do for India we cannot do for China and what we do for Europe we cannot do for India Sri Lanka promotion bureau; they do not spend enough time and attention and you know exactly how to promote"

(Participant 6, Personal Communication,2020)

A crucial factor that can be identified in Sri Lankan MICE tourism context is that SLCB and the private organizations are doing the promotional activities separately. This has created less synergy which is a major disadvantage that can be identified in MICE industry of Sri Lanka. Less relationship or the collaboration between the SLCB and organizations could be the reason for this. Synergy is very much important to capitalize minimal MICE resources. Most of the participants build an argument that Sri Lanka has to follow a unique way of promoting MICE tourism industry which differ from the normal tourism promotional methods.

“We need to find out which sectors or which industries are coming towards Sri Lanka also like we have agricultural tourism so we have to focus about those areas. There are enough different sectors which we can identify expand the events industry We can expand the industry in to our specific areas like gem industry, export industry.”

(Participant 4, Personal Communication,2020)

Another major argument which was built by the participants was that Sri Lankan events industry can be expanded in to different sectors. Moving in to these types of different sectors can attract more potential customers and can create competitive advantage in competing with the other countries. Identifying the suitable diversification areas was emphasized by the participants as a crucial task. Furthermore, some participants built an argument that Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry has limited to the Colombo.

4.4 Identifying Markets and Uniqueness

MICE tourism industry is considered a fastest growing industry in Asian context. In a scenario like that identifying right markets and identifying the demand are very much important in order to get the maximum benefit out of the resources. One of the most important factors which was able to identify was that Sri Lanka has to identify what are the markets which gives more contribution to the Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry in order to build infrastructure facilities and a specific MICE tourism strategy. “Other thing is that when we are doing business to business events what we have to do is that make unique proposition and have to identify the marketplace correctly, we have to do what we can do, there is no point in going for the competition.” (Participant 3, Personal Communication,2020), “When tourism started or MICE started 20 years back in Europe, they produced greater number of events. now the economy has changed, now China is like number one. I think now we have to change our focus and focus more Asian Region Asian countries.” (Participant 7, Personal Communication,2020).

Most of the participants stated that Sri Lanka has to focus on the quality of the services provided. Participants argued that in order to face the competition the best way which can adopted is that identifying the unique capabilities and get maximum out of it. One of the most important factors which was able to identify was that Sri Lanka has to target global events.

“yes, certainly I see unique characteristics our destination is popular and the hospitality and the facilities for example when you take Colombo you can experience the city life when you travel one-hour north or south you have the beach destinations in north we have Negombo south we have Galle Ahungalla Benthot, we have cultural area we have wild life. we can market depending on the market”

(Participant 9, Personal Communication,2020)

An argument which was built by the participants was that Sri Lanka has to focus about the local MICE market while trying to promote MICE industry to the identified foreign markets. That can be considered as a crucial factor. Some participants argued that Sri Lanka needs to rethink about the demand having for the MICE industry. All the participants agreed that Sri Lanka is having more unique selling points and pointed that by using those uniqueness Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry can create a competitive advantage over other competitors.

4.5 Government Support

One of the major arguments which was built by the participants was that the partnership between the government and the industry is in a low level. They stated that government sector is not sensible to the opinions of the private sector. That can be considered as one of the most important factors which has a critical impact on the Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry. Moreover, participants stated that, in order to promote the industry, the best way that should be followed is that the public private partnership model. “When the MICE started in Sri Lanka MICE was a PPP model. then they started Sri Lanka convention bureau, now the bureau is operating on their kind of own we used to support but the PPP model will bring good change to the MICE industry.” (Participant 7, Personal Communication,2020), “Public sector and the private sector must work together. also, public and private partnership also very poor now. We need that kind of a model to promote the industry. that is really important.” (Participant 6, Personal Communication,2020).

Most of the participants took Singapore as the best country which has a PPP model for this industry and they stated that Sri Lanka also needs that kind of a model in order to promote the industry. Participants highlighted the importance

of having a specific MICE tourism strategy showing that most of countries in the region have a specific MICE tourism strategy which guides the industry.

Objective Two: Examine challenges and opportunities in MICE tourism promotion in Sri Lanka

Challenges

4.6 Wrong Promotional Activities

Identifying the most suitable promotional methods are very much important in order to promote the MICE tourism industry of Sri Lanka. One of the most important challenge which was identified by the participants was that promotions that the country is currently doing are less subjective and not very much effective. “A simple topic like digital marketing everywhere they talk about digital marketing but they need to be more subject specific, events need to be more specific to target and draw the right crowd, so these are certain things that we need to revisit”

(Participant 1, Personal Communication,2020).

“Mostly we have to compete with Singapore and Malaysia. There should be accommodation and other hospitality facilities. let’s compare Singapore or Malaysia with Colombo, they give a room for 100\$ we offer minimum rate for 175\$ in five stars. There is a huge difference between per room charges.”

(Participant 5, Personal Communication,2020)

Most of the participants pointed out incompatibilities which can be identified in the current promotional activities, differences between the price ranges were a major argument. Moreover, Sri Lanka has to be more specific when doing the promotions of the MICE industry. In order to be more subject specific conducting market researches were identified as important.

4.7 Lack of Facilities and Technology

One of the most critical challenge that Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry has is that the lack of venue spaces. Most of the participants stated that Sri Lanka has not proper venue spaces to conduct more MICE events. Moreover, another argument was built by the participants that Sri Lanka has enough venue spaces and problem is the demand for the MICE events. Venue spaces are considered as the most important and the basic infrastructure facility which is essential for the development of the MICE industry. “Mainly the challenge is that the technology, we do not have the latest technology to handle big events. In order to compete we have to have the newest technology, Singapore, India are having fast technology than us.” (Participant 9, Personal Communication,2020).

“When everyone builds facilities, they do not focus about that. they say that we can cater this number of pax, but the thing is that they do not think that with a normal conference they must have additional facilities like break out rooms they do not think that with the main conference that they have to conduct small sessions”

(Participant 2, Personal Communication,2020)

Most of the participants stated that Sri Lanka is not having the venue facilities which are suitable to hold the MICE events. In order to overcome this challenge, participants stated that the solution which can be adopted is that reevaluating the current venue spaces and making the adjustments to the facilities. Most of the participants identified technology is also a challenge that Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry has to face.

4.8 Administrative Problems

Another One of the most important challenge that was able to identify was that the administrative challenges which are associated with the MICE industry. Lack of reliable statistics was also identified as a challenge which the industry faces. “Data is an issue; it is an issue for decision making it is not a big thing we need data, what we need to do that we need to change the arrival form we fill now there is a category called holiday making we have to put MICE in there” (Participant 5, Personal Communication,2020).

“We are having an issue in on arrival data, if a customer comes under conference or mice category, they are charged more 5\$ are charged additionally therefore most of the visitors come under the leisure category because of that reason from the entry point we are getting wrong data”

(Participant 7, Personal Communication,2020)

Moreover, less flexibility of the visa process, different errors in the arrival data form was identified as the reasons for this challenge. Another challenge which was identified was that the different administration problems which occurred due to the less collaboration of the government and the private sector. Collaboration is considered as one of the most important factors which is essential to develop the industry.

Opportunities

4.9 Wide Scale Events and Potential to Diversification

One of the most important opportunities which was stated by the participants was that the potential to conduct different scale events and ability to diversify the events industry into different segments. Most of the participants argued that Sri Lanka is trying to conduct or target big events and that was identified as a wrong method which is followed by the industry. “You can use smaller scale events specially in this time you need to look at opportunities. if you are targeting students it needs to be students specific. who are you trying to talk? You need to figure that out” (Participant 1, Personal Communication, 2020), “We can offer better quality service for a group like 1000 pack. We can find lots of opportunities like that. If you look at data bases you will be able to find large number of 200 to 500 groups. We can promote and tap those groups” (Participant 5, Personal Communication, 2020).

Moreover, most of the participants stated that Sri Lanka has the ability to conduct small scale events using the current resources and deliver high quality service that the other competitors. Diversification can be identified as one of the most important factors which was able to be identified as an opportunity highlighted by the participants. Most of the participants stated that Sri Lanka has the potential to diversify the MICE industry to different sectors getting more benefits.

4.10 Country’s Inherited Uniqueness

One of the most important which Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry has is that the uniqueness of the country. Participants identified that one of the most important opportunity that the country has is that the unique location and the inherited natural beauty. “Uniqueness of the country is a great opportunity, and our reputation for hospitality is very important. those are the unique factors which act as opportunities, because of these factors foreigners tend to select our country that our competitors.” (Participant 2, Personal Communication, 2020), “like I told, the major opportunity that we have is our location, we can be access from Europe and Asia without any difficulty. our location is absolutely important” (Participant 6, Personal Communication, 2020).

Moreover, most of the participants argued that still MICE industry has not been able to capitalize this opportunity and get the maximum advantage over the competitors. Sri Lanka’s location is considered as very much important and this can be capitalized as an advantage which can attract more MICE events to the country. A proper MICE tourism strategy can identify these opportunities and get the maximum benefits out of these opportunities.

Table 1. Categories Summary

Objective	Code	Categories
One	Determinants which Affect Promotion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infrastructure Facilities • Connectivity and Networking • Promotion and Diversification • Identifying Markets and Uniqueness • Government Support
Two	Challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wrong Promotional Activities • Lack of Infrastructure • Administrative Problems

	Opportunities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wide Scale Events and Potential to Diversification • Country's Inherited Uniqueness
--	---------------	--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Source: Developed by Researcher

5. Discussion

Findings of this study will be useful when making a specific promotion strategy for the MICE tourism in Sri Lanka. Moreover, this study will assist to scholars to get an idea about the bottom line of current MICE tourism promotion in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, this study adds a value to the literature by providing insights about the MICE tourism in terms of MICE tourism promotion in Sri Lanka. This study contributes to the society and industry in different ways. The results of this study will help the government and MICE organizations to identify the challenges that have to face in promoting MICE tourism industry in Sri Lanka and that will help to develop solutions to the challenges. Identifying the challenges will help the government to make future strategies regarding the MICE industry considering a holistic approach. Moreover, the results of this research will help organizations to build their own MICE tourism promotion strategy based on their organization's capabilities

Moreover, Agreeing with this study (Bauer & Lambert, n.d.) study identifies the importance of the government support to promote the MICE tourism industry. Further, (Dwyer & Mistilis, 2008), (Leask et al., 2016) studies have mentioned the importance of gaining the government support, identifying effective markets and developing the infrastructure for MICE industry which agree with the study. (Leask et al., 2016), study reveals the key role of the infrastructure facilities which are built by the government sector and having skillful labor force the development of the MICE industry. Moreover, Study agree with the findings of (Mistilis & Dwyer, 1999) which has identified information technology as a pivotal determinant in the MICE tourism industry. Study agree with the findings of (Ratra, n.d.) which emphasize having a specific MICE tourism strategy which covers the promotion and other aspects of the industry to develop the MICE tourism industry. Agreeing with this study (Sandy Sou & McCartney, 2015) study identifies the importance of skillful employees in the MICE tourism industry

6. Conclusion

This research aims to identify the factors affecting to promote MICE tourism sector in Sri Lanka. Sri Lankan MICE tourism context is still developing and findings indicate major determinants which Sri Lanka has to evaluate in order to promote the MICE tourism industry of Sri Lanka. Infrastructure is identified as the basic requirement which Sri Lanka required in terms of promotional aspect and technology is also an important factor which has to be concerned. Connectivity and networking are very much important in terms of expanding the accessibility and building collaboration between the stakeholders of the industry. Promotion and diversification factors discuss about the marketing aspect of the MICE industry of Sri Lanka. Identifying markets and uniqueness factor discuss a different aspect of the MICE industry in terms of selecting the best markets and trying to focus the industry's strength to the right direction. government support is one of the crucial factors which has a huge impact and huge role in promoting the MICE tourism industry of Sri Lanka.

Research findings indicate that Sri Lanka has different opportunities which should be identified and different challenges which should be overcome. promotion is considered as an aspect which Sri Lanka has to pay attention carefully and research findings show that Sri Lanka needs to adopt new promotional methods and practices in order to boost the MICE tourism industry. Another major challenge which was identified was the lack of infrastructure facilities. Sri Lanka has to consider about the infrastructure facilities which play a huge role in promoting the MICE tourism industry. And administrative problems were identified as a challenge which Sri Lanka has to overcome in order to promote MICE tourism sector of Sri Lanka. these were the major challenges which can create an impact on MICE tourism promotion in terms of different aspects of the industry. Research findings shows that wide scale events and potential to diversification as opportunity which Sri Lanka can capitalize. Country's inherited uniqueness were identified as a major opportunity which give competitive advantage to the Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry.

In Sri Lankan context infrastructure is the most arguable factor in MICE tourism sector. Sri Lanka is having infrastructure which is not specifically built by identifying the requirement of the Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry. That has converted the infrastructure to the main argument in the MICE industry. Sri Lanka needs to identify the

MICE requirement and build multipurpose venue facilities. Sri Lankan MICE tourism industry is still in a development stage and it represents a small portion of the entire tourism sector, in order to promote Sri Lankan MICE tourism sector collaboration between the SLCB and the SLAPCEO is very much important. A collective effort of both parties is very much important in order to promote the industry.

Sri Lanka has lots of issues regarding to this changing and adapting to the changing dynamics. Sri Lanka has to conduct more market researches and identify the ways that global and domestic market patterns and trends change in order to achieve long term industry objectives. A Major issue which was identified was that Sri Lankan has not a MICE tourism strategy. Sri Lanka needs to develop a MICE tourism strategy which addresses every aspect of the MICE tourism industry. That strategy should include an ultimate position where Sri Lanka wants to reach, long term objectives and short-term objectives which Sri Lanka need to achieve with a proper time schedule. Continuous assessment is very much important in order to identify the opportunities challenges in the MICE tourism sector. Continuous assessment is crucial to minimize the risk and use the limited resources more efficiently to get the maximum benefit out of the resources. Further, future researchers can expand the objectives and conduct more studies regarding different aspects different perspectives of MICE tourism promotion of Sri Lanka. Moreover, changing dynamics of the industry has widened the boundaries enabling researchers to conduct more empirical studies regarding the MICE tourism industry.

References

- Bauer, T. G., & Lambert, J. (n.d.). *Journal of Convention & Government Intervention in the Australasian Meetings , Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions Industry (MICE)*. November 2014, 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1300/J143v03n01>
- Dwyer, L., & Forsyth, P. (1992). The case for tourism promotion: An economic analysis. *The Tourist Review*, 47(3), 16–26. <https://doi.org/10.1108/eb058101>
- Dwyer, L., & Mistilis, N. (2008). *Journal of Convention & Development of MICE Tourism in Australia*. March 2014, 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1300/J143v01n04>
- Fass, J. (2017). Content Analysis. In *The Bloomsbury Encyclopedia of Design* (Second Edi, Vol. 2). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.5040/9781472596178-bed-c110>
- Fotiadis, A. (2018). Modelling wedding marketing strategies: An fsQCA Analysis. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 4(1), 23-26.
- Informa, R., Number, W. R., House, M., Street, M., Santos, L., & Ejido, E. (2002). Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism Application of the Rasch Model to Customer Satisfaction in the Destination of Marbella. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 3(1–2), 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1300/J162v03n01>
- Katsitadze, N., & Natsvlishvili, I. (2017). DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES OF MICE TOURISM IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: CASE OF GEORGIA. 06(01), 163–170.
- Ladkin, A. (2000). tourism. In *Tourism Business Frontiers*. Elsevier Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-7506-6377-9.50014-6>
- Lai, W.-H., & Vinh, N. Q. (2013). How Promotional Activities and Evaluative Factors Affect Destination Loyalty: Evidence from International Tourists of Vietnam. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 5(1), 70–85. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v5n1p70>
- Leask, A., Hons, M. A., & Hons, J. S. (2016). *U . K . Conference Venues U . K . Conference Venues : Past , Present , and Future*. March. <https://doi.org/10.1300/J143v04n01>
- Lee, D. P., & Palakurthi, R. (2013). Marketing strategy to increase exhibition attendance through controlling and eliminating leisure constraints. *Event Management*, 17(4), 323–336. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599513X13708863378114>
- Lewis, C. C., & Jönsson, C. H. (2016). Promotion Tools Used in the Marketing of Sport Tourism Experiences in a Mature Tourism Destination. *The Handbook of Managing and Marketing Tourism Experiences*, 397–407. <https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-78635-290-320161016>
- Made, N., Mahadewi, E., Bendesa, I. K. G., & Antara, M. (2014). Factors Influencing Tourists' Revisit To Bali As Mice Destination. *Journal of Tourism*, 1(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.24922/eot.v1i1.9845>
- Mistilis, N., & Dwyer, L. (1999). *No Title*. 2(1), 1–9.
- Monge, F., & Brandimarte, P. (2011). Mice tourism in piedmont: Economic perspective and quantitative analysis of customer satisfaction. *Tourismos*, 6(1), 213–220.
- Neuendorf, K. A., & Kumar, A. (2015). Emerging trends in content analysis. *The International Encyclopedia of Political Communication*, 1(May), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118541555.wbiepc065>
- Nguyen, T. N. anh. (2016). STUDY ON THE MARKETING STRATEGY FOR MICE INDUSTRY -- CASE PEARL RIVER HOTEL IN VIETNAM Degree Programme in International Business and Marketing Logistics. *STUDY ON THE MARKETING STRATEGY FOR MICE INDUSTRY - - CASE PEARL RIVER HOTEL IN VIETNAM Degree Programme in International Business and Marketing Logistics*, 82.
- Ratra, S. (n.d.). *Mice in india*. 8(7), 316–328.
- Sandy Sou, K. I., & McCartney, G. (2015). An Assessment of the Human Resources Challenges of Macao's Meeting, Incentive, Convention, and Exhibition (MICE) Industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 14(3), 244–266. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2015.1002067>

- Shi, H. (2012). The efficiency of government promotion of inbound tourism: The case of Australia. *Economic Modelling*, 29(6), 2711–2718. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2012.06.019>
- Tinnish, S. M., & Mangal, S. M. (2012). Sustainable Event Marketing in the MICE Industry: A Theoretical Framework. *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism*, 13(4), 227–249. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15470148.2012.731850>
- Tisn, S. N. (2012). A Study of Analyzing the Selection of Promotion Activities and Destination Attributes in Tourism Industry in Vietnam - From the Perspective of Tourism Industrial Service Network (TISN). *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 6(2), 264–270. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1070195>

Benchmarking e-tourism

Aristeidis Chatzipoulidis¹, George Kokkinis², Theodoros Kargidis³

¹International Hellenic University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0003-1241-3622

Email: hatzipoulidis@mkt.teithe.gr

²International Hellenic University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0003-2951-9052

Email: kokkinis@ihu.gr

³International Hellenic University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0001-6250-4536

Email: kargidis@ihu.gr

Abstract

E-tourism, the intersection between information technology and tourism, is now required to lead the pack towards a fast paced new reality. The objective is twofold; first to develop a conceptual framework that allows measurement and repositioning of e-tourism processes and second to visualize the inter-relationships of processes. The research question is how to create and flow information in a multi-factor benchmarking framework that targets quality processes and user satisfaction? The framework consists of three pillars, namely Technical Basis, Digital Marketing and Usability Testing. Each pillar consists of critical success factors that enable benchmarking. A hybrid Entity Relationship Model is created to visualize three types of information: first the major and sub entities within the framework's scope, second the inter-relationships among these entities and third the flow of information within the entities. New trends are revealed in terms of gamification, cloud computing and cryptocurrency adoption. The model's application is likely to improve market forecasting, operational scenarios assessment and risk management as part of a competitive advantage and can be used by policymakers, information consultants and business managers in their policies and strategies. Practical implications are expected to help e-tourism providers channel efforts to differentiate or follow best practices.

Keywords: Risk Management, User Satisfaction, Quality, Entity Relationship Modelling

1. Introduction

The advent of COVID-19 has altered the world forever in every imaginable way and has a profound impact on the international travel and hospitality industry. This long-lasting effect is prone to continue due to prolonged lockdowns, travel bans and imposing quarantine measures. As a result, physical tourism has literally paused normal operations and this type of crisis brought forward new questions of how the tourism industry can respond and recover. Finding solutions is becoming an immense challenge for tourism stakeholders and researchers (Jamal and Budke, 2020). Electronic tourism (e-tourism), the intersection between physical tourism and Information technology (IT), is defined as the “analysis, design, implementation and application of IT/e-commerce solutions in the travel and tourism industry, as well as the analysis (of the impact) of the respective technical/economic processes and market structures” (Neidhardt and Werthner, 2018; 1-2). On one hand, this scientific field has shown promising sights of confronting pandemic-issued challenges (e.g., lockdowns, travel bans) however, on the other hand, it created a range of concerns (e.g. online privacy and trust).

Opting to increase e-tourism effectiveness and manage related concerns, this paper focuses on the concept of benchmarking. The latter is defined as a dynamic process of measuring the performance of processes, products or services of a company versus competition considered to be the best in the class and aims to identify internal opportunities for improvement (Duggan and Lang, 2010). Although benchmarking has progressed and is widely applied in e-tourism, the majority of approaches are generally lacking a) a methodological rigor, b) a holistic approach, c) an explanation of what has to be categorized and measured (Cassidy, 2015).

Internet users are growing by numbers daily, search information from different online sources and turn into consumers when they are able to buy and use a product or service. This fact has significantly changed the traditional tourism landscape and the way tourism businesses conduct daily operations. Moreover, it brought investments in technology to support this shift to online presence and user expectations (Sezgin, 2016). If the e-tourism industry is approached as a system formed by interconnected stakeholders, then each other interaction affect system's performance and allow it to reform to a new state of expectations. In order to visualize this condition, Figure 1 is created to reflect on e-tourism as a system which its efficiency and performance depends on how all its parts synchronize, interact and exchange knowledge, data, financial flow and strategies.

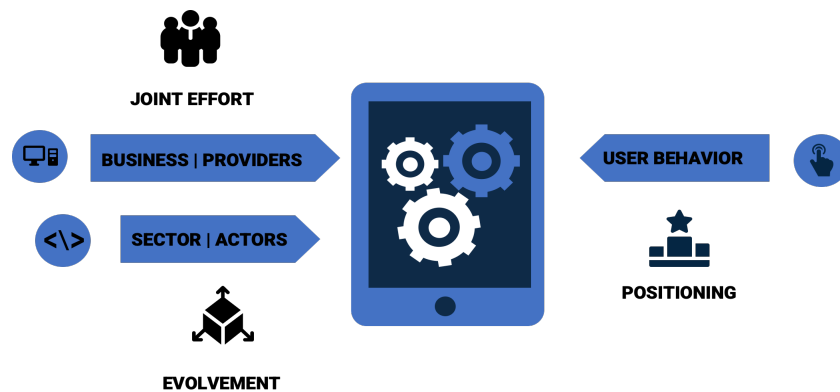


Figure 1. E-tourism as a system

On the right, user behavior is of central importance because user satisfaction, loyalty and trust directly affect revenue streams, positioning and sustainability of e-tourism. To achieve high levels of user satisfaction, e-tourism providers, such as business managers, app developers and web analysts, joint efforts to create and maintain quality and user-friendly e-tourism projects. While it may seem easy at first sight to categorize e-tourism projects based on the sector they belong, it is almost impossible to find identical projects since each one is unique and aims for differentiation through team selection and goals achievement (Baggio and Baggio, 2020). As a result, e-tourism projects continually evolve because sectoral systemic influence impacts their design and operation. By sectoral systemic influence, a set of interconnected e-tourism actors is described, from accommodation entities to travel agencies, or public actors such as e-governments and administration entities, which produce an accumulating effect a) on the operation of other sectors, b) on the development of e-tourism projects and thereby c) on user behavior.

Post COVID-19 e-tourism is required to absorb the pandemic effects and shifts in user behaviour. Taking into consideration the positive prospects in this domain and adding benchmarking in the quest for competitive advantage, differentiation, quality and secure processes, the research question is how to create and flow information in a multi-factor benchmarking framework that targets quality processes and user satisfaction? To find practical answers to this question, the objective of this paper is twofold. First, a conceptual framework is developed to allow measurement and repositioning of e-tourism processes. The framework consists of three pillars, namely Technical Basis, Digital Marketing and Usability Testing. Each pillar consists of evaluative criteria that constitute the critical success factors (CSFs) for an e-tourism project to achieve its mission. Each CSF represents a process which allows for measurement, comparison and reposition. Second, the proposed framework is visualized through a hybrid Entity Relationship Model (ERM) that reflects on the inter-relationships within its entities.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows: section 2 organizes a representative literature review in relation to benchmarking studies in e-tourism and section 3 describes the conceptual framework along with an analysis of the pillars and the accompanied CSFs. Section 4 presents the hybrid ERM to illustrate the data flow visualization and section 5 discusses the framework's application, research implications and limitations. Section 6 concludes this paper with future research recommendations.

2. Literature review

In this section, a research table is assembled to describe the most important features of benchmarking studies in e-tourism. Particularly, Table 1 identifies each research item according to the following criteria: a) its authors and date of publication after the year 2010, b) what type of approach it is, c) the keywords used to support the findings and d) a summary related to the field of study. The idea was to organize the evolution of scientific research in the topic under examination, exploring both similarities and differences. This research topic has a rich background of literature review, therefore, before introducing Table 1, it would be prudent to familiarize the reader with the research topic by briefly presenting scholarly papers before the year 2010.

One of the first pioneers in this field is the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) proposed by Davis et al., (1989). TAM supports the application of hypothesis through factors such as the perceived usefulness and ease of use as means to determine whether respondents are likely to try and sustain a desire to reuse an e-service. The Website Quality (WebQual) approach, first proposed by Loiacono et al., (2002) used factors such as information quality and service interaction to measure website performance. Taking this approach one step forward, Fink and Nyaga (2009) added perceived risk as means to reflect on the online user experience. In 2005, the concept of usability through heuristic evaluation emerged as a quality attribute that refers to methods for improving easiness-of-use in an interactive software system. The most popular until now is the Nielsen's ten usability heuristics (Nielsen, 2005).

Related research revealed customized benchmarking approaches for e-tourism such as the eTailQ (Wolfenbarger and Gilly, 2003). Authors proposed factors in the name of fulfilment and reliability, website design, privacy and customer service in order to test the relationships among quality, loyalty and user satisfaction. Fellow researchers Elling et al., (2007), developed the Website Evaluation Questionnaire (WEQ) as a tool that measures quality performance of e-tourism websites, containing questions such as "I think this website is secure". This subjective technique may not be representative of all consumers and answers may be biased when the survey participants answer what the researchers expect. Searching for increased accuracy and objectivity, Bauernfeind and Mitsche (2008) proposed the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) as an advanced benchmarking approach for e-tourism. This is a linear programming model using inputs, such as searchability, linguistic offer and updating, combined with outputs, such as visits and email inquiries, to measure tourism website efficiency.

Table 1. Literature review research

Reference	Approach	Keywords	Summary
Duggan and Lang (2010)	Tourism website theory	Details, Appearance, Usability, Promotion, Communication, social media	Analyzes tourism websites based on usability factors
Carlson and O'Cass (2010)	Surveys, PLS modelling	Quality, Customer satisfaction	Explores behaviour relationships in content-driven e-service web sites
Lee and Morrison (2010)	Balanced scorecards	Website performance tools - NetMechanic.com and Linkpopularity.com, Load gap	Comparison study between Korean and US hotels
Zhu (2011)	YSlow tool, Relationship management	Access, Positivity, Openness, Sharing of tasks, Networking assurances	Comparison evaluation between State official websites and online travel agencies
Sigala (2011)	Multi-user perspective	Groups of tourism stakeholders, Level of participation	Hospitality-oriented study
Lee and Kozar (2012)	Usability modelling	Nomological networks, Website constructs	Investigates the relationship between multi-dimension website components and purchase behavior
Lai et al., (2013)	Website trust and TAM	Trust, Perceived ease of use, Perceived usefulness	Hypothesis testing across online booking websites

Xu et al., (2013)	3Q model	Service quality, System quality, Information quality	Empirically testing the relationships among these three types of quality constructs
Cassidy (2015)	WebMATRs framework	Technical design, Marketing, Aesthetics design	Website consumer connection model based on hypothesis testing
Cassidy and Hamilton (2016)	Website Analysis Model (WAM)	Website, Domain, Function levels	Intercontinental study across tropical tourism websites
Nurlansa (2016)	Porter's five forces	Website performance tool - Pagetest.org	Airbnb performance evaluation
Canziani and Welsh (2016)	Automated tool - Website Grader	Usability, Information, Interactivity, Mobility, Intelligence	Hypothesis testing in SME winery tourism websites
Qi et al., (2017)	Fuzzy TOPSIS method	Website performance, Consumer online preference	Consumers perceptions about the usefulness performance of luxury hotel websites
Stringam and Gerdes (2019)	GTmetrix	Load time, Website quality, Speed index	Comparative study of website load performance for hotel company websites
Vila et al., (2021)	Qualitative meta-analysis of success attribute	Content, Usability, Functionality, Branding	Hypothesis testing user experiences with metasearch engines for e-commerce tourism

Currently, even if existing approaches may seem beneficial, are also subject to a number of issues; some of them are being overwhelmingly technical and leave little room of practicability in various e-tourism project phases (e.g. project authorization or post-project evaluation). Others are overlapping in components' analysis and lack of explanation as what is to be measured. These issues create space for improvement and future research initiatives in this field (Buhalis, 2020). Therefore, a systematic approach that groups multiple CSFs into a single, holistic solution is likely to offer a smart way to produce enhanced and more comparable benchmarking e-tourism projects. To achieve this, a conceptual multi-factor framework with a comparative format is proposed to add considerable interpretative value to stakeholder providers.

3. Conceptual framework

The purpose of this section is to develop the conceptual framework for benchmarking e-tourism projects by consolidating CSFs into present or absent, thus allowing assessment of existing performance, enable comparisons or find areas for improvement. Scholars argue that identified gaps regarding benchmarking studies exist in the lack of a consistent grouping mechanism which will allow measurement and reposition of e-tourism in favour of user satisfaction, improved performance and productivity (Cassidy, 2015). Before providing a complete picture of the CSFs that need to be measured, added, altered or improved, the proposed framework is based on three pillars, namely Technical Basis, Digital Marketing and Usability Testing as depicted in Figure 2.

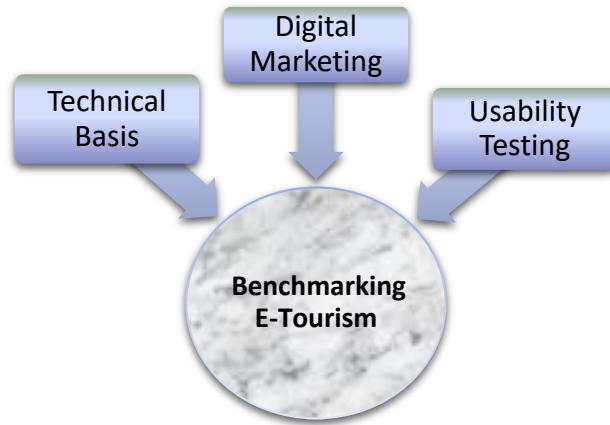


Figure 2. Framework's pillars

In the following Figure 3, each pillar is decomposed into dedicated CSFs, along with an identification number. Benchmarking CSFs can and should be applied during various phases of an e-tourism project for different reasons. Specifically, when applied at the beginning, such as at the project authorization, it can be used to set the scheme of processes associated with its operation and interaction. When applied during the project execution, it can act as a management tool to support project decisions. Post-project benchmarking serves to evaluate process delivery performance and lessons learned.

TECHNICAL BASIS	
Design	TB1
Software	TB2
Adaptability	TB3
Security	TB4
Risk Management	TB5

DIGITAL MARKETING	
Content	DM1
Promotion	DM2
Communication	DM3
Commerce	DM4
Affiliation	DM5
Segmentation	DM6
Trends	DM7
Allureness	DM8

USABILITY TESTING	
Customization	UT1
Ease of Use	UT2
Proactivity	UT3
Connection	UT4

Figure 3. Decomposition of CSFs

3.1 Technical Basis pillar

The Technical Basis pillar includes CSFs that could efficiently build and maintain user trust through smooth and secure applications. Design (TB1) consists of visual aesthetics and layout formation (e.g. first appearance, headings, contrast, colour, image, sound, text, luminosity), animation and 3D graphics integration, home page and subpages speed loads, search engine availability and easy navigation. Software (TB2) includes the regularity of technical updates, maintenance and 24/7 availability. Adaptability (TB3) refers to the capability to load on any browser and resize the page automatically on multiple devices (e.g. laptop, desktop, mobile). Security (TB4) includes information security controls in terms of confidentiality, integrity and availability (CIA) assurance, monitoring tools, the security of financial transactions, legal notices, incidents handling and compliance with legislations. Risk management (TB5) is the process of assessing the risks and opportunities from the e-tourism project, including an analysis of development or repositioning scenarios accompanied by treatment actions.

3.2 Digital Marketing pillar

The Digital Marketing pillar consists of CSFs that determine the advertising effects on users and how awareness and sales are improved through electronic presence and commerce respectively. Long term user relationships are build

upon communication and quality content (DM1) that is minimalistic with relevant photos and operating videos, availability of categories for products/services and active hyperlinks. Promotion (DM2) relates to the use of cookies and advertisements, the offer of special deals and discounts, the distribution of newsletter, and demonstration of achievements. Communication (DM3) refers to the availability of conversation tools (e.g. e-mails, feedback forms, discussion forums), and community involvement through social media interaction. Commerce (DM4) describes the process for online reservation or ordering of products and services. Affiliation (DM5) includes partnerships, affiliation, loyalty and membership programs whereas segmentation (DM6) entails grouping the market under similar characteristics (e.g. demographics, interests, location). Trends (DM7) are a reliable source of discovering and adapting to changes (e.g. gamification, cryptocurrency adoption, cloud computing). Allureness (DM8) includes regular information updates, seasonal and sector news as well as voting for awards or prizes for increasing traffic and visibility.

3.3 Usability Testing pillar

The Usability Testing pillar consists of CSFs that allow for a unique and customized user experience and define the capacity of e-tourism projects to provide conditions that combine ease of learning, intuitiveness and fun. Customization (UT1) allows for individual page experience (e.g. dark mode activation, availability of backgrounds and themes). Ease of Use (UT2) provides a balanced user interaction with no extra clicks and a smooth navigation experience as well as accessibility for different types of users (e.g. novice, experienced or with special needs). Proactivity (UT3) refers to the actions that add value to user experience (e.g. FAQ) as part of the knowledge management process or the prevention of accidental slips and mistakes and recovery from errors (e.g. displaying warning messages, solution shortcuts). Connection (UT4) relates to the availability of live chat rooms or presence of a representative for support and help upon user requests.

4. Data visualization

This pandemic requires solutions that can facilitate tracking and monitoring of e-tourism. Solutions and decisions that incite scalability and real-time information to accommodate changes in supply and demand in anticipation of shifts in customer behavior (e.g. risk perceptions) or pandemic effects (e.g. future lockdowns). As a result, business intelligence solutions that better forecast markets, assess and simulate operational scenarios and understand risk management are prone to a strong competitive advantage.

In this respect, this section aims to visualize the relationships within the proposed benchmarking framework as a solution for a dynamic system operation. Specifically, a hybrid ERM, a combination of an ER diagram and a flowchart, is developed to represent the conceptual framework as a system with entities (Pin and Chen, 1976; Thalheim, 1993;

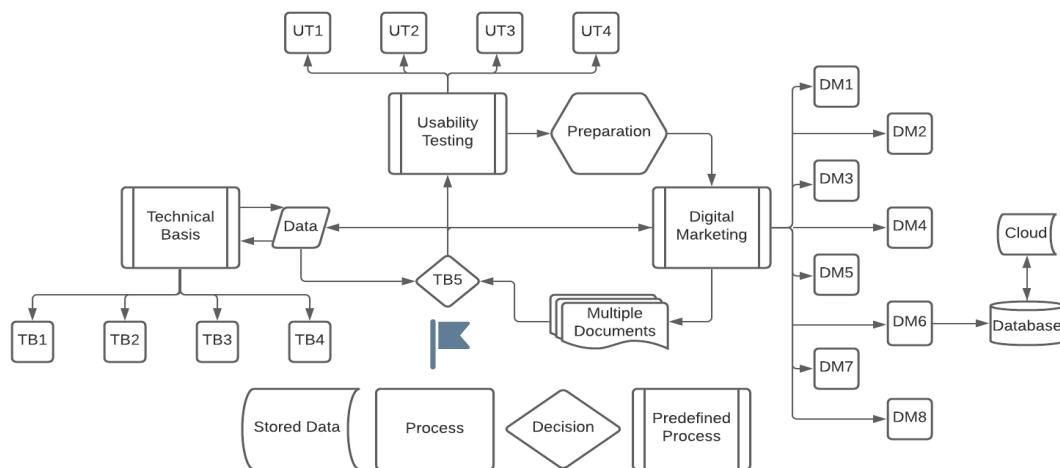


Figure 4. ERM

Bagui and Earp, 2011). The purpose of this ERM is to act as a basis for unification and visualization of three types of information: first the major and sub entities within the framework's scope, second the inter-relationships among these entities and third the flow of information within the entities. In this case, the Lucidchart software tool is used to create an abstract model as a workplace for data visualization through diagramming and relationship management (Lucidchart, 2021). This workflow reflects the inter-relation of entities and different symbols capture how entities are related to one another and how they communicate with each other (Figure 4).

Symbolic illustrations support specific functions for each relationship depicted in the ERM. Accordingly, the framework pillars are transformed into predefined processes because they include sub-processes such as the recommended CSFs. In other words, the CSFs act as processes that can be measured and compared. Benchmarking a process is best practice oriented and aims to bridge the gap between actual performance and preferred achievement. As a result, this gap analysis identifies opportunities for improvement and should be part of a dynamic business culture that utilizes feedback to evolve.

The proposed model supports bidirectional relationships, such as the two-way data flow between digital marketing and technical basis, however; the initial cycle of data flow as displayed by a solid green flag, starts from risk management, identified as TB5, part of the technical basis, which has a central role to achieve smooth model synchronization (Hermann et al., 2012). This directs data flow, acting as a decision-making process that continually identifies, assesses and analyzes data and trends, find alternatives, prioritize opportunities and risks. Consequently, technical basis through performance evaluation of TB1-4, provides data to TB5, allowing to assess and decide the usability goals and set actions to achieve them. Usability is a core component of quality e-tourism projects and part of digital marketing, hence; it should be a predefined process that involves real users to test the e-tourism applications in multiple platforms in order to achieve objective testing (Stringam and Gerdes, 2019). As a result, usability testing should become a structured approach for improving online experiences and act as an input preparation step to digital marketing with the aim to establish and maintain commercial or public relationships. In this data visualization, usability testing prepares the ground for digital marketing to deliver commercial implementation of communication to internet users and raise brand awareness. This implies that the effectiveness of digital marketing relies on collecting data from users reflecting on individual preferences and reporting back to risk management for decision making (Fotiadis, 2018).

If the e-tourism project is new or the existing has insufficient information infrastructure, cloud computing can assist with software and applications that allow for customer segmentation, storage of data and maintenance of a database. Digital marketing outputs by means of reporting via multiple documentation (e.g., time charts, resource tracking or analytics reports) to TB5 which collects and analyzes feedback data for risks, opportunities or areas for improvement. After this initial cycle of data flow, filtered data are re-circulated back to each entity through TB5 which communicates independently with all the predefined processes for a seamlessly endless data flow. This eventually can develop and sustain best practice e-tourism processes that may lead to a competitive advantage.

5. Discussion

The pandemic presents and opportunity, but also an obligation, to critically reflect on the field of e-tourism with this benchmarking research as means to offer an outlook for transformative e-tourism projects. From a theoretical standpoint, this research aims to support the pace of e-tourism innovation and development while practical implications are expected to help e-tourism providers identify key areas they should focus on, so they can channel efforts to improve, differentiate or follow best practices. As a result, the data roadmap visualization from the ERM can be used by policymakers, information consultants and tourism business managers in their strategies and policies.

The strength of the proposed framework is that it incorporates several different types of data that may be available, providing a grouping mechanism to evaluate the totality of the available data - not just relying on one type, such as the technical basis. Utilizing the diverse types of data available (i.e., CSFs) is especially important because the extent of the types of data available are vastly different from one e-tourism project to another. In addition to providing a solution for integrating various types of information, the framework is also practical in that it allows e-tourism projects to be both reactive and proactive. Benchmarking against competitors tends to advance the online presence only sufficiently to cover the comparative weakness and to be competitive, e-tourism requires ongoing development and a profitable return of investment (Negre et al., 2018). Attracting and maintaining new or existing users online is not an effortless task since the growth and sustainability of online presence is an ongoing quest for brand recognition and

user awareness. The general assumption is that higher level of tourists' satisfaction leads to higher tourists' loyalty and retention (Štumpf et al., 2018).

Applying, comparing, or measuring the performance of the proposed CSFs, the analyst could either use qualitative methods, such as checklists, interviews, or questionnaires, to identify whether the CSFs exist and in what extent they are applied. Moreover, quantitative methods, such as weight criteria distribution, cause and effect relationships or key performance indicators, could prove useful to assess the respective impact on business performance and user satisfaction. In the proposed framework, three pillars constitute the foundation of its existence. The technical basis pillar represents the core of operation, consisting of web design and development elements such as software updates and information security controls, combined with managerial elements, such as the risk management process. The digital marketing pillar reflects the added value to end users by contributing to knowledge creation and expectations' fulfilment. The highlight of this pillar is the adaptation of trends. Considering the existing success of social media interaction that fosters positive engagement, the latest trends include gamification, cloud computing, and cryptocurrency adoption (Nuryyev, Spyridou, Yeh, & Lo, 2021). Gamification is a relatively new digital marketing strategy that aims to unite loyalty programs with the most recent innovations in game design (Yilmaz and Coşkun, 2016) whereas cloud computing provides software, infrastructure, platform, resources and hosting on demand basis, enabling the management of large data amounts with wide scope (Nadda et al., 2020). Crypto tourism is gaining significant momentum and refers to cryptocurrency adoption by tourism stakeholders as means to attract travelers who are interested to choose the most suitable payment alternative instead of government-issued currencies (Korže, 2019).

While the technical basis and digital marketing pillars may appear at first sight capable enough to develop and promote e-tourism respectively, their effectiveness would be compromised if the usability aspect is taken out of consideration. In this respect, testing usability features, such as ease of use or prevention of errors, is a process that not only enables the engagement of users but also reduces risks, instills confidence in users, unlocks communication barriers and devises a delightful user experience. Individuals will not tolerate a bad user experience and good first impressions let users explore the application features instinctively (Barnun, 2020).

In addition to the attributes outlined above, there are also limitations inherent to the framework itself. By definition, the conceptual framework cannot be used to consider the possible benefits of an e-tourism project in terms of profitability or sustainability. Another limitation is that, as with any benchmarking approach, the framework's CSFs evaluation depends on publicly available data or data voluntarily made available by industry and other groups. In the absence of having the authority to require e-tourism stakeholders to present objective evidence of CSFs compliance, performance evaluation is likely to derive from observation or empirical comparison with other e-tourism projects. Since e-tourism is a broad research topic that consists of multiple projects that differ in purpose, strategy and objectives, thus some CSFs may not be necessary, suitable or required.

Another issue derives from the ERM itself, which, as data ontology, was developed to show the relationships within the scope of the conceptual framework. However, it does not reflect neither an entity's life history nor how each entity changes over time in response to events. The framework, especially through the data visualization, seeks to reflect explicitly how different data components should flow and re-circulate for continuous improvement considering possible risks or opportunities as distinct variables. As a result, this approach attempts to guide judgments made at the development or operation steps of e-tourism projects, however; judgment of risks is, in the end, a subjective determination dependent upon expert interpretation of the evidence totality.

6. Conclusions

The profundity and complexity of the pandemic impact requires both a short-term reaction and a long-term readiness in order to understand some of its far-reaching effects to physical tourism. Motivated by this enormous challenge and exciting opportunity, this paper presented a conceptual benchmarking framework based on three pillars with dedicated CSFs for e-tourism projects. Then, this framework is visualized through a hybrid ERM, developed to represent process inter-relationships and data flow.

On one hand, benchmarking is a strategic management tool that provides a systematic way for e-tourism providers to identify internal opportunities for improvement. On the other hand, it provides the end user with quality content and experience satisfaction. Future research studies could focus on addressing some of the research limitations, such as validating how each entity changes over another's entity's performance. Moreover, towards a holistic approach to e-tourism benchmarking, this framework can be expanded by selectively define specific CSFs required by specific

industries. Last but not least, research could focus on whether the application of key performance metrics (e.g., average daily attendance, brand recognition) adds value to benchmarking e-tourism.

In light of this pandemic, it might be said that benchmarking could foster intelligent solutions that can allow the low-touch economy and controlled access scenarios necessary for physical tourism to restart and evolve as a socio-economic activity. If this uncertainty has taught us anything, it is that even in dark moments where we are forced to refrain from regular tourism activities, society is immensely adaptable when it needs to be, and volatility always brings an opportunity to shine through.

References

- Baggio, J. A. & Baggio, R. (2020). *Modelling and Simulations for Tourism and Hospitality: An introduction*. Channel View Publications. doi: 10.21832/9781845417437
- Bagui, S. & Earp, R. (2011). *Database Design Using Entity-Relationship Diagrams* (Foundations of Database Design), 2nd edition, Auerbach Publications.
- Barnum, C. M. (2020). *Usability testing essentials: Ready, set-test*. 2nd edition, Burlington, MA: Morgan Kaufmann Publishers.
- Bauernfeind, U. & Mitsche, N. (2008). The application of the data envelopment analysis for tourism website evaluation. *Information Technology and Tourism*, 10(3): 245-257. doi: 10.3727/109830508787157317
- Buhalis, D. (2020). Technology in tourism-from information communication technologies to eTourism and smart tourism towards ambient intelligence tourism: a perspective article. *Tourism Review*, 75(1): 267-272. doi: 10.1108/TR-06-2019-0258
- Canziani, B. & Welsh, D. H. B. (2016). Website quality for SME wineries: Measurement insights. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 7(3): 266-280. doi: 10.1108/JHTT-02-2016-0009
- Carlson, J & O'Cass, A. (2010). Exploring the relationships between e-service quality, satisfaction, attitudes and behaviours in content-driven e-service web sites. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 24(2): 112-127. doi: 10.1108/08876041011031091
- Cassidy, J. (2015). Website benchmarking: a tropical tourism analysis, PhD thesis, James Cook University.
- Cassidy, L. J. & Hamilton, J. (2016). Website benchmarking: an abridged WAM study, *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 23(7): 2061-2079. doi: 10.1108/BIJ-05-2015-0047
- Davis, F. D. Bagozzi, R. P. & Warshaw, P. R. (1989). User Acceptance of Computer Technology: A Comparison of Two Theoretical Models, *Management Science*, 35(8): 982-1003. doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.35.8.982
- Duggan, K. J. & Lang, J. (2010). Six drivers for high-user satisfaction of tourism websites: Performance auditing of Maine, Massachusetts, and New York's direct marketing strategies. Woodside, A.G. (Eds.) *Tourism-Marketing Performance Metrics and Usefulness Auditing of Destination Websites* (Advances in Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research 4), (pp. 27-45), Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley.
- Elling S., Lentz L., de Jong M. (2007) Website Evaluation Questionnaire: Development of a Research-Based Tool for Evaluating Informational Websites. In: Wimmer M.A., Scholl J., Grönlund Å. (eds) *Electronic Government*. Springer, Berlin, *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, 4656:293-304. doi: 10.1007/978-3-540-74444-3
- Fink, D. & Nyaga, C. (2009). Evaluating web site quality: the value of a multi paradigm approach. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 16(2): 259-273. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14635770910948259>
- Fotiadis, A. (2018). Modelling wedding marketing strategies: An fsQCA Analysis. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, 4(1), 23-26.
- Hermann, F. Ehrig, H. Ermel, C. & Orejas, F. (2012). Concurrent Model Synchronization with Conflict Resolution Based on Triple Graph Grammars. In: de Lara J., Zisman A. (Eds.) *Fundamental Approaches to Software Engineering*. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, 7212:178-193. doi: 10.1007/978-3-642-28872-2_13
- Jamal, T. & Budke, C. (2020). Tourism in a world with pandemics: local-global responsibility and action, *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 6(2): 181-188. doi: 10.1108/JTF-02-2020-0014
- Korže, S. Z. (2019). How smart tourism embrace blockchains and smart contracts. *Journal of Innovative Business and Management*, 11(2): 32-40. doi: 10.32015/JIBM/2019-11-2-4
- Lai, Y-H. Huag, H-C. Lu, R-S. & Chang, C-M. (2013). The effects of website trust, perceived ease of use, and perceived usefulness on consumers' online booking intentions: evidence from Taiwan B&B sector. *Live Science Journal*, 10(2): 1516-1523. ISSN: 1097-8135
- Lee, J. & Morrison, A. M. (2010). A comparative study of web site performance. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 1(1): 50-67. doi: 10.1108/17579881011023016

- Lee, Y. & Kozar, K.A. (2012). Understanding of website usability: Specifying and measuring constructs and their relationships. *Decision Support Systems*, 52(2): 450-463. doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2011.10.004
- Loiacono, E. T. Watson, R. T. & Goodhue, D. L. (2007). WebQual: an instrument for consumer evaluation of web sites. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, 11(3): 51-87. doi: 10.2753/JEC1086-4415110302
- Lucidchart software, (2021). Retrieved from www.lucidchart.com.
- Nadda, V. Chaudhary, H. S. & Arnott, I. (2020). Cloud Computing in Tourism. In Santos, J. D., & Silva, Ó. L. (Eds.), *Digital Marketing Strategies for Tourism, Hospitality, and Airline Industries* (pp. 141-155), IGI Global.
- Negre, D. T. Santana, A. A. Hernández, J. M. & Gil, M. S. (2018). Understanding European Tourists' Use of e-Tourism Platforms. Analysis of Networks. *Information Technology & Tourism* 20(1/4): 131-152. doi.org/10.1007/s40558-018-0113-z
- Neidhardt, J. & Werthner, H. (2018). IT and tourism: still a hot topic, but do not forget IT. *Information Technology Tourism*, 20(1-4): 1-7. doi: 10.1007/s40558-018-0115-x
- Nielsen, J. (2005). Ten Usability Heuristics. Retrieved from <http://www.useit.com/papers/heuristic/heuristic-list.html>.
- Nurlansa, O. (2016). Analysis porter's five forces model on Airbnb, *Electronics, Informatics, and Vocational Education*, 1(2): 84-96. doi: 10.21831/elinvo.v1i2.12457
- Nuryyev, G., Spyridou, A., Yeh, S., & Lo, C.-C. (2021). Factors of digital payment adoption in hospitality businesses: A conceptual approach. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 29, 2905. doi:10.54055/ejtr.v29i.2416
- Pin, P. & Chen, S. (1976). The entity-relationship model—toward a unified view of data. *ACM Transactions on Database Systems*, 1(1): 9-36. doi: 10.1145/320434.320440
- Qi, S. Law, R. & Buhalis, D. (2017). Comparative Evaluation Study of Websites of China-based Luxury Hotels and International Luxury Hotels. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 13(1): 1-25. doi: 10.1080/19388160.2017.1289135
- Sezgin, E. (2016). *e-Consumers in the Era of New Tourism*, Springer Singapore, doi: 10.1007/978-981-10-0087-4
- Sigala, M. (2011). Evaluating website design and structure in tourism: dimensions, stakeholders and marketing issues, *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 20(7): 691-694. doi: 10.1080/19368623.2011.577702
- Stringam, B. & Gerdes, J. (2019). Service gap in hotel website load performance, *International Hospitality Review*, 33(1): 16-29. doi: 10.1108/IHR-09-2018-0012
- Štumpf, P. Vojtko, V. & Valtrová, B. (2018). Satisfaction of European tourists: Benchmarking of EU countries, *Global Business & Finance Review*, 23(1): 1-14. doi: 10.17549/gbfr.2018.23.1.1
- Thalheim, B. (1993). Foundations of entity-relationship modelling, *Annals of Mathematics and Artificial Intelligence* 7: 197-256. doi: 10.1007/BF01556354
- Vila, T. D. González, E. A. Vila, N. A. & Brea J. A. F. (2021). Indicators of Website Features in the User Experience of E-Tourism Search and Metasearch Engines. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research*, 16(1): 18-36. doi: 10.4067/S0718-18762021000100103
- Wolfenbarger, M. and Gilly, M. C. (2003). eTailQ: dimensionalizing, measuring and predicting etail quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 79(3): 183-198. doi: 10.1016/S0022-4359(03)00034-4
- Xu, J. Benbasat I. & Cenfetelli, R. T. (2013). Integrating service quality with system and information quality: an empirical test in the e-service context. *MIS Quarterly*, 37(3): 777-794. doi: 10.25300/MISQ/2013/37.3.05
- Yılmaz, H. & Coşkun, İ. O. (2016). New Toy of Marketing Communication in Tourism: Gamification. In: Sezgin E. (Eds) *e-Consumers in the Era of New Tourism. Managing the Asian Century*. (pp. 51-73), Springer, Singapore. doi: 10.1007/978-981-10-0087-4_4

Zhu, L. (2011). A comparative analysis on relationship maintenance strategies between official state tourism websites and online travel agencies' Websites in the US. Iowa state University, Graduate Theses and dissertations, pp. 1-68.

Trends of Tourism Taxation in Developing Economies During the Coronavirus Crisis

Shirley Consuelo Honajzrová Banús¹, Jonathan Osuoha²

¹Institute of Hospitality Management in Prague, Czech Republic (ex-assistant professor)

ORCID: 0000-0002-8075-8158

Email address: consuelo.honajzrova@gmail.com

²Institute of Hospitality Management in Prague, Czech Republic

ORCID: 0000-0001-9254-2576

Email address: osuoha@vsh.cz

Abstract

In its first phase (before the coronavirus crisis), this paper focuses on describing and comparing the trends of tourism taxation to raise revenues or fiscal relaxation measures as strategies to increase the number of tourists, the attractiveness of the destinations, and competitiveness in developing economies from South America and some popular tourist destination from East Africa. Due to the COVID-19 threat (the second phase of this research), the global economies have been pushed to turn to emergency tax breaks and temporary changes in taxation measures. The research is structured from deductive reasoning, which goes from general analysis to a more specific one. A description of the specifications of the tax system that affected tourists, before the pandemic crisis, in 10 South American countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela) and three popular tourist destinations in East African populations (Mauritius, Kenya, and Tanzania) are presented based on qualitative and quantitative research. This information was obtained from secondary official sources such as the ministries of tourism of the countries analyzed. Within the South American countries analyzed, it has been identified that few have responded with specific fiscal measures to support the industries of their tourism sector, among them: Argentina, Colombia, and Ecuador. Countries that are most affected since their gross domestic product are more dependent on tourism activities. Kenya set aside a special fund to boost the tourism sector.

Keywords: Tax system; tourism; VAT; developing economies.

1. Introduction

In 2014 the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) published a study called "Taxation and tourism" [1] on the role of tourism taxes and their impact on destinations' competitiveness and attractiveness. This study was conducted based on a diagnosis (surveys) of its member countries and partner countries. This comparative information in the form of an inventory of tourism-related taxes focused on indirect taxes, fees, and charges in the general categories of 1) arrival and departure; 2) air travel; 3) hotel and accommodation; 4) reduced rates of consumption tax; 5) environment; and 6) incentives. This type of comparative information is not readily available in other subregions, such as South America [2] or Sub-Saharan Africa.

Tourism is widely considered an influential grantor to socio-economic development, particularly in less developed countries. Before the pandemic, findings in South American countries demonstrated that these subregions followed the global trend of raising monetary resources to promote tourism. It has been identified that the central taxes and fees that affect or benefit tourists are the boarding fees at airports, the tourist tax applied to lodgings, the TAX-FREE or VAT refund in accommodation and shopping. The number of taxes applied to tourism tended to increase; for example, Argentina's government had just launched a "pernocte tax" on accommodation and cruises in the city of Buenos Aires before the pandemic broke out. [3]

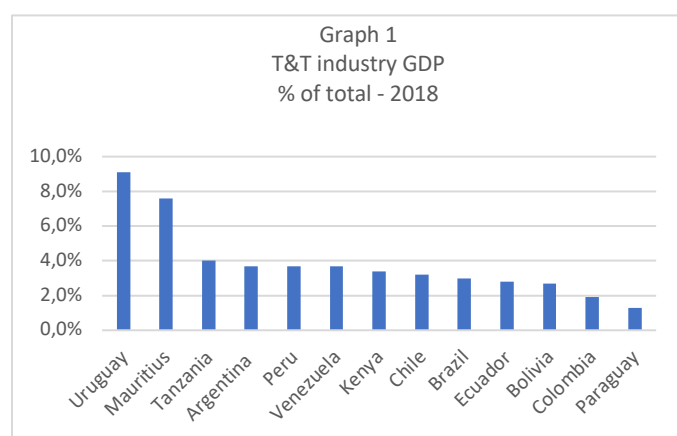
Taxes, fees, or charges have been applied to tourists by this sub-region, to obtain income from tourism to develop further and promote tourism or, as is typical, to improve the quality of life by funding services for local citizens. [4]

According to (Barna, Zsófia) [5], “The tourism tax is one of the most disputed tax forms in Hungary. There is no agreement on the goals of this tax - even within professional circles. The question is if it should serve as a base for tourism development or it should be only a part of the whole budget of local governments.”

However, the coronavirus (COVID-19) global pandemic has brought significant impacts in terms of tourism globally. According to the COVID-19 report of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), tourism from Latin America in 2019 represented 10% of total exports (goods and services) in the tourism economy in terms of total GDP and employment. “The implication is that developing countries share some common features that retard their ability to extract more benefits from the tourist industry.” [6] Along with this, in line with Gnanon's research [7], “findings call for governments notably in developing countries to develop the tourism sector and concurrently strengthen tax administrations (and possibly design appropriate tax policy for the tourism sector) to derive the full advantage in terms of public revenue from the rise in international tourism receipts.”

Between 2016 and early 2020, international tourist arrivals grew at around 10% per year in Mexico and the three subregions (Caribbean, Central America, South America). In some South American countries such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Peru, the tourism sector depends on national visitors, representing more than 50%. While countries were closing their borders in March, the pandemic broke out in the region. As a result, these arrivals declined by more than 50% in March and close to 100% in April in all three subregions and Mexico. [8] This caused international and national flights to decrease to nearly zero.

The countries most affected will be those whose gross domestic product has a greater dependence on tourist activities; in this context, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) [9] has the worst forecasts for the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico, Colombia, and Argentina. See Graph 1. But also, with the data gathered from the latest (2019) Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index Report (TTCI), [10] it is possible to identify the importance of the travel and tourism sector for the studied countries as Uruguay, Mauritius, Tanzania.



Source: Own elaboration based on the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2019

If we look at other regions such as Europe, the Covid-19 outbreak was a hard blow for tourism, and this is how the "Marshall Plan" emerged to save the tourism sector. Thanks to the decrease in sick cases in the summer of 2020, the tourism industry generated income, unlike previous years. In conclusion, European countries have shown an active effort to save their tourist economy. If we focus on the tax policy applied to tourism, some countries such as Hungary temporarily suspended these taxes. In Hungary, tourist tax based on guest nights (4% of the room rate) is suspended between April 22 and December 31, 2020, but municipalities receive budget support from the state up to the amount of missing tax.[11] In Spain, the project was put on standby at the ecological rate for airline

tickets, which is part of the government's green plan last December 2019 to penalize harmful practices to the environment. [12]

The research explores, describes, and analyzes the role of taxes used to support the tourism sector, the governments' tax incentives/reduction or removal as a response to the coronavirus pandemic threat and its possible impacts. It also emphasizes recent trends and effective practices in South America and selected East African countries. This type of comparative information is not readily available in the studied subregions, which could be relevant for these countries to share practices and trends in the tourism sector from a tax perspective.

The research questions are:

- What were the trends concerning tourism taxes before COVID-19 in the countries studied?
- As a response to COVID-19, what strategies have these governments taken concerning taxes to support their tourism sector?
- What is the new trend, due to COVID-19, in taxes applied to tourists?
- According to these research questions, the following hypotheses are determined:

H₀: Prior to COVID 19, policymakers in Mauritius, Kenya, and Tanzania actively designed and implemented tourist tax measures like countries in South America.

H₁: Tourists' taxes will be reduced/removed as a short-term measure to support tourism during the COVID-19 crisis.

2.Literature review

“Tax policy has important economic consequences, both for the national economy and particular groups within the economy. Tax policies are often designed with the intention of stimulating economic growth – although economists differ drastically about which policies are most effective at fostering growth. Taxes can create incentives promoting desirable behavior and disincentives for unwanted behavior. Taxation provides a means to redistribute economic resources towards those with low incomes or special needs. Taxes provide the revenue needed for critical public services such as social security, health care, national defense, and education.” [13]

Usually, governments cut taxes to boost the economy by putting more money into taxpayers' pockets. Most of the time, tax cuts are used to end a recession. It's a popular form of expansionary fiscal policy. Tax cuts are reductions to the amount of taxpayers' money that goes toward government revenue. Tax cuts are changes in the lay that reduce the pay payment along with government revenue. [14]

In this context, government policies on taxation directly impact tourism. Taxes are applied directly to a tourist (such as an entry or exit tax, visa fees, accommodation taxes - “room/bed tax,” or taxes on car rentals), the industry “*tourism businesses and products*” (airports and airlines, hotels, accommodation, food and beverages, and gambling facilities), or indirectly (such as VAT or sales taxes, which can discourage shopping and benefit countries with lower taxes). These sales taxes may even encourage day trips across borders to shop in areas where taxes are lower. [15] Introducing fiscal relaxation in tourism brings contributions to this sector's development, which may compensate the budget deficit through revenue increases brought on by increasing the tourists' flows. [16] UNWTO has identified 40 different types of these particular tourism taxes. [17]

“Results from estimations with the synthetic control method show that the introduction of a visitor tax leads to a decline in domestic tourism demand. In contrast, there is no effect on international tourism inflows.” The research applied in Italian municipalities. [18]

In many countries, the introduction of entry or exit taxes specifically related to air travel is a relatively recent phenomenon, mainly reflecting the increased affordability and growth of international air travel over the past 20 years, particularly since the beginning of the century. This growth, in turn, has led to increased costs to provide the necessary infrastructure, security, and passenger services, and a growing concern about the implications of this growth for the environment *since a carbon tax policy could have a remarkable impact on tourism-related carbon emissions and economic welfare.* [19] In response, countries have introduced a variety of taxes, fees, and charges to increase the cost of providing the service and, in some cases, to encourage more environmentally friendly behavior. [1]

The study made by the authors' Song, Seetaram, and Ye [20] examined air passenger duty (APD) on outbound UK tourists' budget allocations. Results demonstrate that the APD modifies UK outbound tourists' budget allocations by increasing the relative share of transportation expenditure while decreasing the at-destination expenditures on items such as accommodation and food.

“The fiscal policy responses to the COVID-19 crisis have been substantially smaller in most developing economies than advanced economies”.[21] The IMF (January 2021) projects average overall fiscal deficits as a share of GDP in 2020 at 13.3% for advanced economies and only 5.7% for low-income developing countries. This is so despite estimates claiming that the COVID-19 shock is disproportionately more damaging for low-income countries as the pandemic is set to have dramatic consequences for poverty and inequality, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. [21]

In its annual publication of "Tax Policy Reforms," the OECD [22] includes a Special Feature that takes stock of the tax and broader fiscal measures introduced by countries in response to the crisis from the beginning of the virus outbreak up to mid-June 2020. According to this data collection, the OECD charted the response phases of the governments' tax policy:

1. Liquidity & income support
2. Liquidity, solvency & income support
3. Fiscal stimulus
4. Revenue

Tourism Products in Kenya, Tanzania & Mauritius

This part describes the unique characteristics of the countries under study, especially from the East African countries, to compare with South America. For summarizing, the South American countries offer natural resources and protected areas, cultural diversity, historic sites and entertainment options, sun, sand, sea tourism, bird tourism, ecotourism, health tourism, city tourism.

Kenya

Tourism plays a pivotal role in Kenya's economic development plan. The country is recognized as a leading tourist destination in Africa, with a long-established and highly successful tourist sector catering to conventional and ecotourism markets. [23]

Tourism in Kenya is mainly based on natural attractions that include wildlife in its natural habitats and idyllic beaches. The Maasai Mara in Western Kenya, the Maasai culture and wildlife sightings are unparalleled. Tourists seeking outdoor adventure usually take a hike around Mt. Kenya or go to the Nandi Hills located at the Great Rift Valley's edge. These wildlife sectors became essential tourist destinations, primarily for visitors from North America and the United Kingdom.

Initially, most tourists came for big game hunting, acquiring trophies, sport-fishing and commonly experiencing the wild in habitats protected in a near-natural state. Currently, game hunting is banned in Kenya, and tourists travel to see the animals and make photographic safaris. However, meaningful tourist traffic is shifting to the Indian Ocean coast. This beach tourism attracts most of its patrons from Western Europe, chiefly Germany, and Italy.

Tanzania

Tanzania is a nation owning a rich arsenal of biological diversity. Since the mid-1980s, following significant foreign tourism strategies, Tanzania has undergone enormous growth in nature-based tourism. [24]

Tourism provides immense benefits to Tanzania's economy and could gather more significant wealth for the nation if well-managed. Tourism has been rapidly expanded over the last decade, attracting increasing guests. Tanzania has striking landscapes: from snow-capped Mt. Kilimanjaro to the plains of Serengeti, the sandy beaches along the Indian Ocean, the Serengeti National Park and the adjoining Ngorongoro ecosystem.

According to a survey of prevalent tour operators in Europe and North America, Tanzania's competitive powers are found in its rich and diverse wildlife, scenery, wholesome natural environment, and people's friendliness. Also, operators believed that the actual product was superior, and if the infrastructure could be developed, it could demand a premium amount.

Mauritius

Mauritius, a small, isolated island, is functioning comparatively well as a tourism destination. The Mauritian tourism industry is the third pillar of the economy and contributes significantly to economic growth and has been a significant driver in the overall development of Mauritius.[25] The Republic of Mauritius, apart from Mauritius Island, includes island-like Agalega Island, Rodrigues Island and St. Brandon. The country's tourism strategies focus on high profile and specialist tourism since they struggle due to the cramped area open for tourism.

The tourism products of Mauritius are indeed numerous. Famous for its beaches and hospitality, it has considerably extended its offerings and is a leading destination for cultural tourism, recreation, sports, nature, and other activities. Nevertheless, its people remain the principal attraction; welcoming, smiling, friendly; the Mauritian is known for being open-minded. Mauritius's natural beauty is its wild interior, mountains, waterfall, lush forests, and endemic wildlife. Snorkeling, kite surfing and scuba diving are popular water sports alongside a Black River Gorge National Park hike.

3. Research methodology

The research is based on related literature, specialized web portals, relevant websites, and correspondence via email with organizations for up-to-date information on the subject of interest. The methods used in this paper also include analysis and study of documents, both primary and secondary data.

The research is structured from deductive reasoning, which goes from general analysis to a more specific one. With the help of the TTCI Report (2019) results, a general description of the tourism & travel sector was made from the studied countries. A description of the specifications of the tax system that affected tourists, before the pandemic crisis, in 10 South American countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela) and three popular tourist destinations in East African populations (Mauritius, Kenya, and Tanzania) are

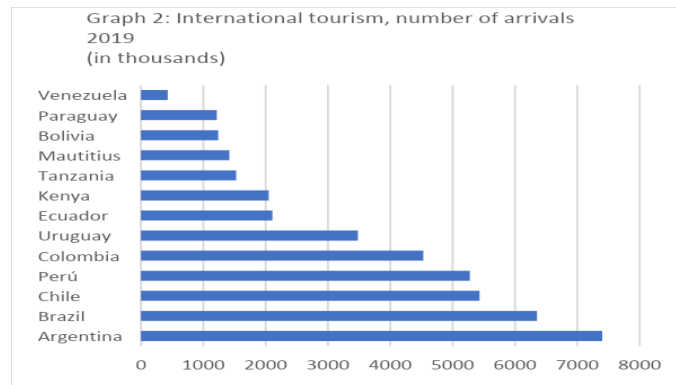
presented based on qualitative and quantitative research. This information was obtained from secondary official sources such as the ministries of tourism of the countries analyzed.

With data obtained from the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), World Travel Tourism Council (WTTC), OECD, and other international organizations which are tracking the policies' responses to COVID-19, an assessment of the key policy responses from these countries related to "tourism taxation" will be made and compared with other regions.

4. Findings and analysis

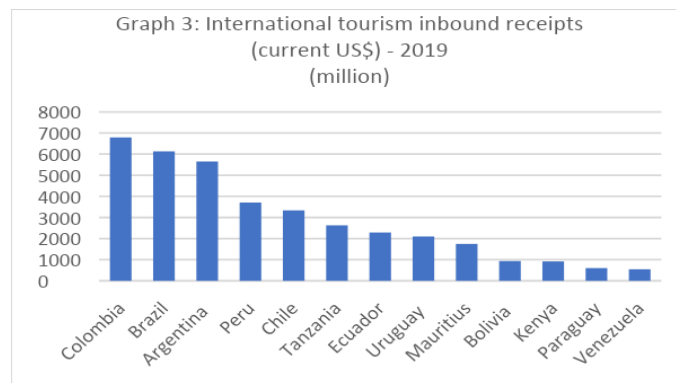
Travel & Tourism analysis of the countries under study

The countries of South America with the most significant participation in the world market share in the number of tourist arrivals in 2019 were (Graph 2): Argentina with almost 7 million and a half international arrivals, then Brazil,



Chile, Peru, Colombia, and Uruguay. The studied countries from East Africa are behind the mentioned South American nations, with Kenya the most visited with 2 million international arrivals, following Tanzania and Mauritius with almost the same number of arrivals. However, when the international tourism inbound receipts are analyzed, the position changes (see Graph 3). Colombia received 2019 the highest tourism receipts resulting from expenditures made by visitors from abroad. Next, Brazil and Argentina. Tanzania got the highest tourism receipts this year compared to Mauritius and Kenya.

According to the data from the TTCI report 2019, for the third time, Spain remains the global leader, ranking first of 140 countries, followed by France and Germany. The TTCI measures "the set of factors and policies that enable the sustainable development of the travel and tourism sector, which, in turn, contributes to the development and competitiveness of a country." [10] Also, the OECD defined tourism competitiveness for a destination as



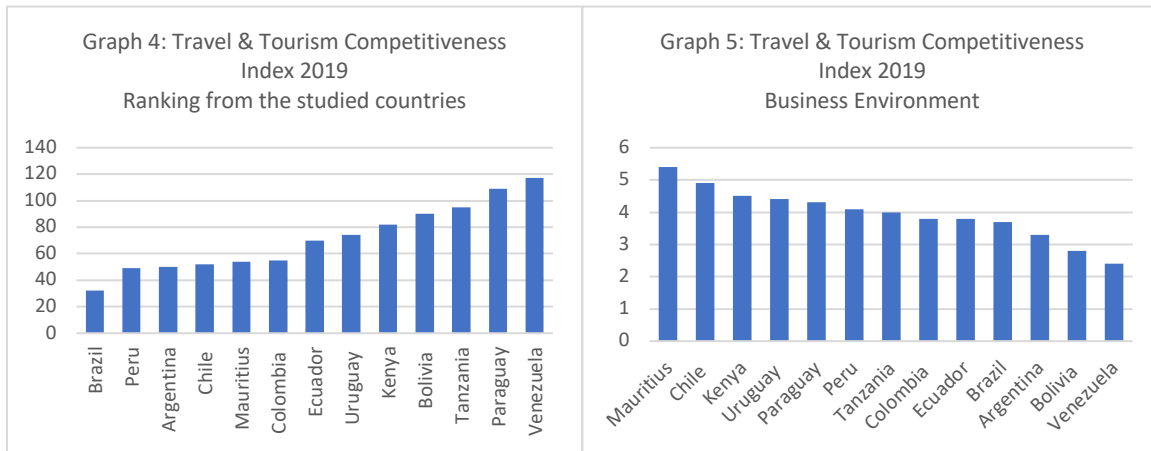
"the ability of the place to optimize its attractiveness for residents and non-residents, to deliver quality, innovative, and attractive (e.g., providing good value for money) tourism services to consumers and to gain market shares on the domestic and global marketplaces, while ensuring that the available resources supporting tourism are used efficiently and in a sustainable way." [26]

Source: Own elaboration based on the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2019

South America scored highest (increasing from previous years) in the index related to openness and price competitiveness. It scores lowest for the business environment, deterring T&T investment, and has poor safety conditions (see Graph 6). Thanks to exceptional natural and cultural

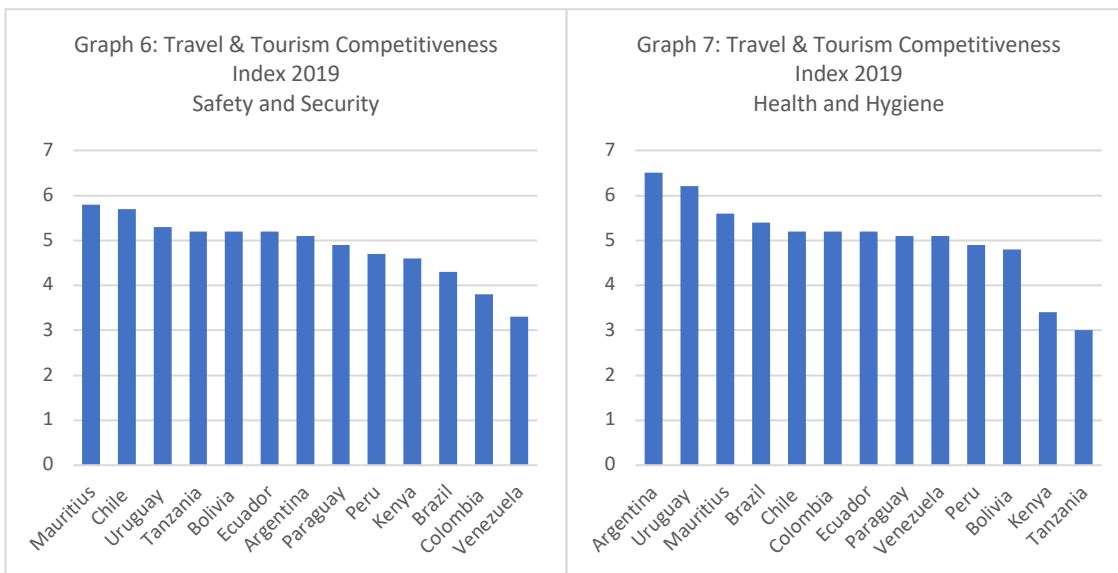
resources, Brazil (see Graph 4) retains both the region's largest and most competitive T&T industry and environment. Venezuela experienced the world's most significant deterioration in T&T competitiveness, moving into last place in South America.

Uruguay stands out for its safety and security, health and hygiene, and ICT readiness (see Graph 8). In recent years, its government has increasingly prioritized the T&T sector (see Graph 10). Its effort to attract more tourists has proven effective since we know the number of received tourists has surpassed those received by Ecuador (see Graph 2), which is a similar sized country.



Source: Own elaboration based on the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2019

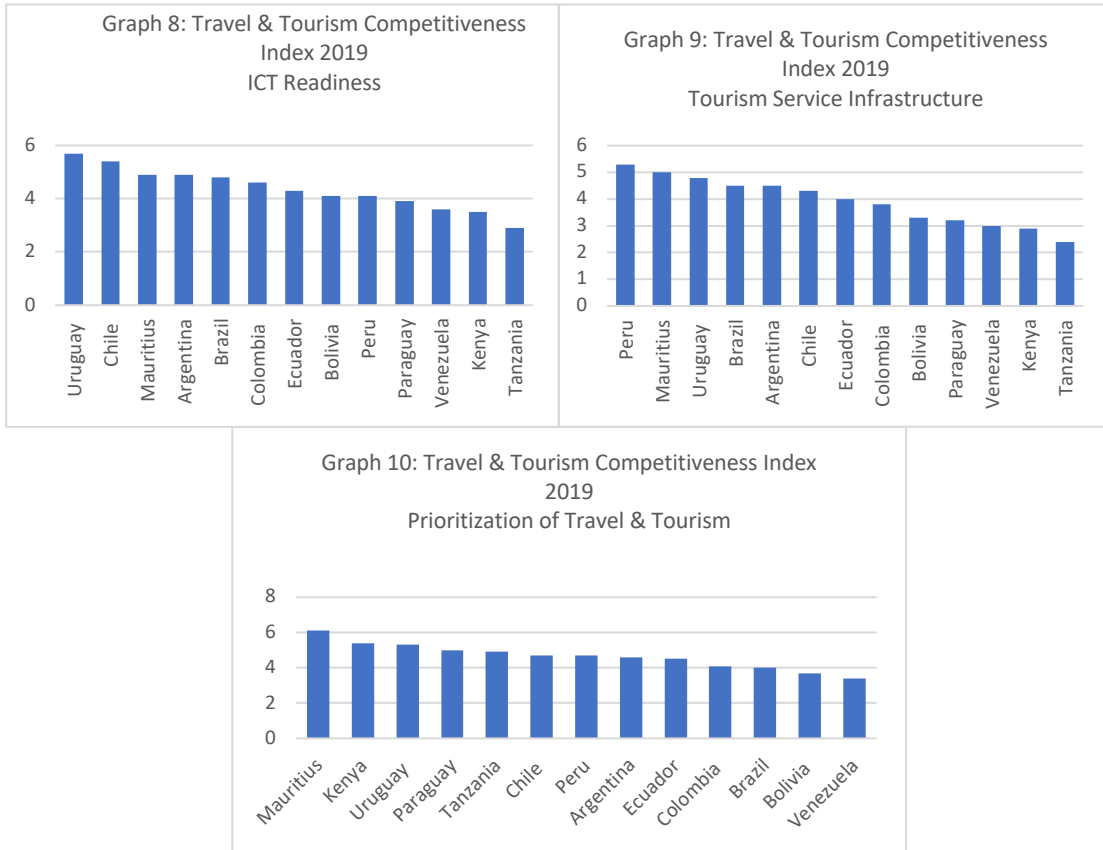
Eastern Africa is a close second to Southern Africa in terms of competitiveness, and the most significant advantages over Southern and Western Africa comes from better ground and port infrastructure. However, it is on natural resources where the subregion outperforms the global average. Eastern Africa lost competitiveness and the biggest declines came from cultural resources and business travel, health and hygiene (see Graph 7) and tourist service infrastructure (see Graph 9). However, these losses were offset by strong growth in price competitiveness and enhancements to air and ground infrastructure. Regarding T&T GDP size, Eastern Africa is dominated by Ethiopia, Kenya and Tanzania.



Source: Own elaboration based on the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2019

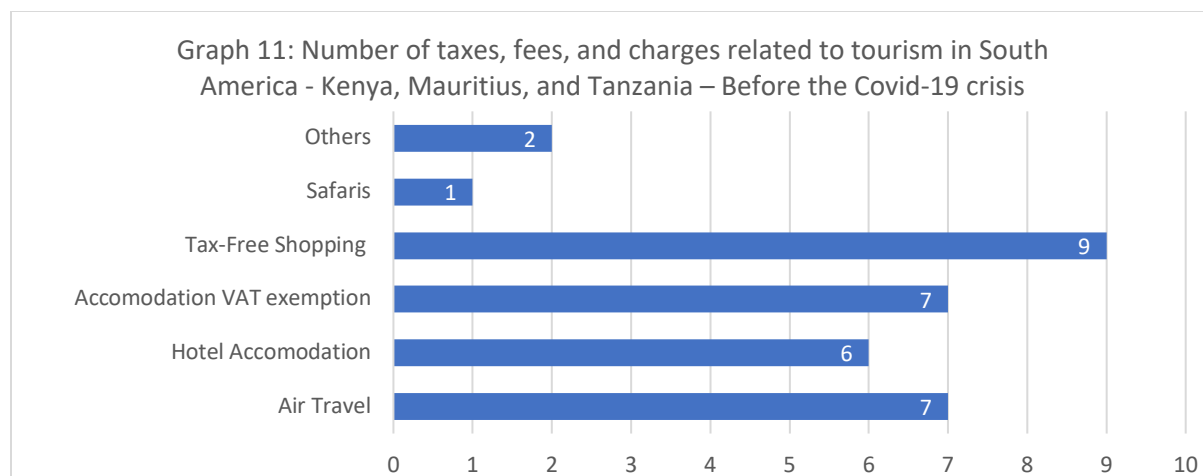
Mauritius is Sub-Saharan Africa’s highest-scoring member, moving up one spot in the global rankings to 54th. The country is one of the region’s most developed and scores above regional and global averages in all aspects of the Enabling Environment subindex and also is top scorer when it comes to T&T prioritization—where it ranks 5th globally—due to government focus on the industry including relatively high government expenditure in the sector (see Graph 10). It boasts a good business environment defined by a low impact of taxes on business and profit and an effective legal and administrative system (see Graph 5). All of which encourages investment in its T&T industry,

which already benefits from high government prioritization and spending and effective tourism marketing. Travel to Mauritius is also made easy by minimal visa requirements, high-quality tourism infrastructure (see Graph 9) and fairly good ground and port infrastructure. Moreover, the country far outscores the rest of Sub-Saharan Africa on the Health and Hygiene pillar (see Graph 7) due to the number of physicians, hospital facilities, and water and sanitation services available to the population. According to the TTCI conclusions, the country needs to keep improving its unfavorable price competitiveness to enhance its attractiveness to potential visitors.



Tourism taxes before and after COVID 19 in the studied countries

Based on the crossing-checking of information between the inventory of taxes, fees, and charges related to tourism in South America, Kenya, Tanzania, and Mauritius before the pandemic and the fiscal policy measures to support the Covid-19 crisis of travel tourism, the following results were identified: (see Graph 11)



Source: Own creation based on data collected from the studied countries.

Air travel - Boarding fees (Entry/exit tax)

According to the analysis, it was found that some South American countries and Mauritius from East Africa have explicitly decided to apply a tourism tax to obtain extra income for the development of tourist activity. However, some cases are only theoretical since the income can be used to benefit or support other sectors of the economy. According to Graph 11, seven countries have clearly defined this type of tax applied in Air travel:

- Argentina - "Fondo Nacional de Turismo" (National Tourism Fund) applied as an exit tax.
- Bolivia - Contribución Especial para el Fomento, Promoción y Facilitación del Turismo (Special Contribution for the Promotion, Promotion, and Facilitation of Tourism) "Cetur" Law applied since 2017 by air and 2019 by land as an entry tax for tourists entering Bolivian territory.
- Brazil - "Impuesto sobre el turismo" (Tourism tax), applied as an exit tax. "Tasa de preservación ambiental" (Environmental preservation fee) for entering protected areas such as islands.
- Colombia - "Impuesto destinado al turismo" (Tax destined to tourism), applied as an entry tax.
- Ecuador - "Potencia Turística" (Tourist Power) applied as an entry tax and "Eco Delta-ED" as an exit tax.
- Paraguay - "Turismo" (Tourism) applied as an exit tax.
- Mauritius - Passenger Fee on Air Ticket.

Before the pandemic, a growing trend can be highlighted in applying this type of tax by the governments of South America. The following countries have been identified as having applied fiscal measures to relieve the tax burden to their air transport industry:

- Argentina - The payment of corporate contributions to tourism, passenger transport was exempted. (20.4% for the services and commerce sector, as long as its total sales do not exceed the categorization limits as a medium-sized company).
- Brazil - The government also designed an airline relief package - i) a 6-month postponement of the collection of air navigation tariffs; - ii) postponement to December 2020 to collect concession fees from airport concessionaires.
- Colombia - VAT exemption until Dec 31, 2020, extended for companies dedicated to commercial passenger air transport. Postponement of the fiscal Contribution payment for the Promotion of Tourism of the first quarter of 2020 until Dec 31, 2020. Rental fees for commercial spaces located at the airports and aerodromes administered by the Civil Aeronautics should be suspended for the emergency period. Charges applied to airport infrastructure should be suspended for the same period. Lower import tariffs were used for inputs used in passenger and freight air transport services. From the second quarter to the third one for 2020, the extension of payment deadlines of the corporate income taxes (CIT) for taxpayer's commercial passenger air transport services. The advance payment for the 2020 income tax return will be the 0% rate that applies to businesses engaged in transportation.
- Ecuador - Six months VAT payment deferral of the income tax for airlines.
- Mauritius - Companies operating in the tourism industry have obtained an extension in time for the payment of CIT. Also, it was suspended for the Passenger Fee on Air tickets for tourists from Reunion, Australia, and South Africa up to 31st July 2020. Adding to this, in late October, Mauritius announced that it was launching a new, one-year visa (Premium Travel Visa) to encourage extended stays and help the tourism sector. The visa

applies to both tourists and remote workers. Duty-Free Shops and shops operating under the “Deferred Duty and Tax Scheme” are allowed to sell goods to any person without restriction on quantity upon payment of duty, excise duty and taxes up to 31st December 2021.

Hotel and accommodation

This section refers to specific taxes for hotels and other lodging facilities, such as taxes per room "tax room," overnight "bed night taxes," and occupancy taxes "occupancy taxes."

The first results indicated that Argentina, Brazil, and Ecuador use this type of tax, mainly in the most visited cities and places where they want to obtain income to protect nature and infrastructure. The municipal governments of Peru and Uruguay have it as a project.

In the Eastern African studied countries, it was found that there is a hotel accommodation tax in Kenya consisting of 16% VAT + 10% service charge + 2% catering levy. In Mauritius, a 10% tax is added to all hotel bills, and in Tanzania, exists a bed night levy of 2%. In Kenya, there is a 15% tax on internet and telephone services for hotels. Mauritius tourists can be charged with food and beverage taxes and service charge taxes. Tax on amenities like telephone and internet. See Graph 11(others).

The following countries have been identified as having applied fiscal measures to support this sector specifically:

- Argentina - Temporarily exempt from the payment of employer contributions to the sectors critically affected by this pandemic, tourism, food, and accommodation. The payment of corporate contributions to tourism and hotel companies will be exempted. (20.4% for the services and commerce sector, as long as its total sales do not exceed the categorization limits as a medium-sized company).
- Colombia - The payment dates for the following taxes were postponed: the income tax and complementary for the 2019 taxable year; the VAT for those that have as an economic activity food and beverage dispensing services, bars, hotels, travel agencies, airlines, and tour operators, national consumption tax for the two months March-April 2020 for those responsible for food and beverage services; parafiscal Contribution for the Promotion of Tourism of the first quarter of 2020.
- Ecuador –Six months IVA payment deferral from April to June and 2019 income tax for accommodation and food businesses.
- Peru - The Ministry of Foreign Trade and Tourism (MINCETUR), through the Peruvian Export Promotion Commission and the Tourism (PROMPERÚ), exempt companies related to the export and tourism sector from the payment of fees when it comes to participating in national and international promotion platforms carried out during this 2020.
- Mauritius - Companies operating in the tourism industry have obtained an extension in time for the payment of CIT. Suspend the Environment Protection Fee of 0.85% charged on the monthly turnover of hotels, guest houses and tourist residences up to 31st July 2020.

It is essential to mention that *"in recent years, what has become known as collaborative consumption has undergone rapid expansion through peer-to-peer (P2P) platforms. In the field of tourism, a particularly notable example is that of Airbnb."* [27] Although this research does not include the analysis of Airbnb behavior in South America, it could be interesting to know more about taxation in this type of accommodation service.

VAT exemption "TAX FREE" - VAT refund

The value-added tax "VAT" is applied to transactions; however, it is a final consumption tax credited against the merchant sales tax. Although VAT generally has a standard rate (%) for most goods and services, in practice, it is theoretically feasible and customary to implement different rates in some sectors (e.g., tourism-related goods and services). [1]

The South American governments use as a strategy the exemption of VAT or its refund in tourist accommodation to promote and encourage exports since inbound tourism contributes to the service exports. Together with this, some countries eliminate the tax on purchases to attract more tourists, especially targeting neighboring countries interested in shopping. *"Given the tourism sector importance, the purchases were considered by UNWTO as the segment with the highest potential growth."* [28] One of the main benefits of the tax-free shopping (TFS) program is that it allows the state to collect necessary information on international visitors. [29]

Research results found that the most active countries concerning this type of exemption or refund in tourist accommodation and purchases are Uruguay, Argentina, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru. Uruguay's Ministry of Tourism official web page offers other additional benefits (temporary incentive for tourists), including a 22% VAT refund on gastronomic services, catering, parties and events, vehicle, and real estate rental. Bolivia and Chile also offer VAT

exceptions on accommodation and shopping. Paraguay levies the import of goods sold in the country exclusively to the non-domiciled individual.

Likewise, according to the information collected, Argentina and Uruguay use the company Global Blue SA for the VAT refund process, which has modernized and streamlined the refund process.

Mauritius is the only one out of the studied East African nations that use the TFS program with an exemption of 15% VAT for international tourists.

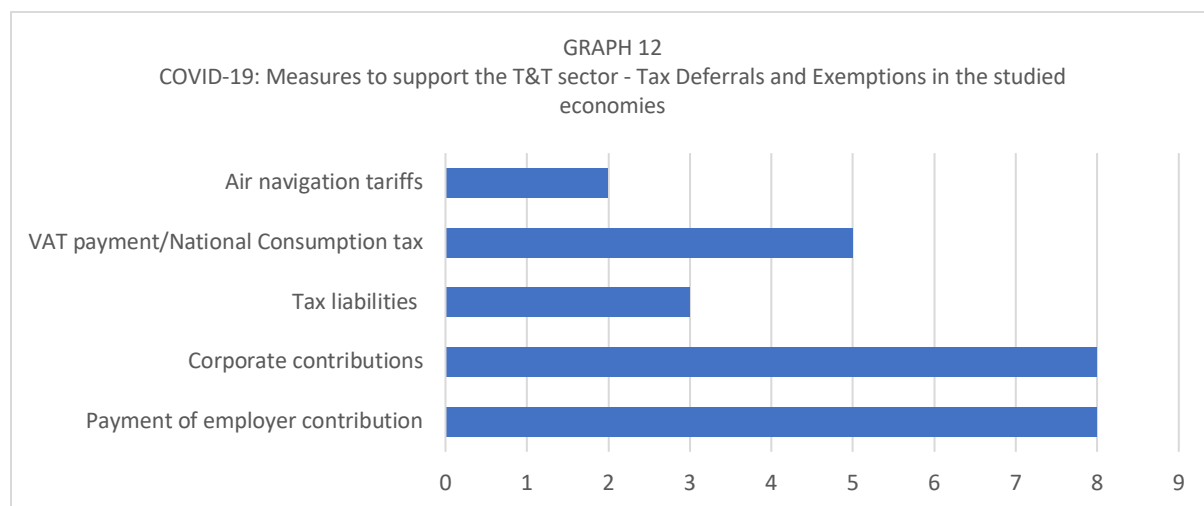
The VAT exemption on accommodation and TFS, which are applied directly as a benefit to tourists, no information has been found that the governments of South America during the pandemic have decided to remove these types of benefits. On the other hand, VAT has been used as a relief for companies related to tourism, which applies Chile's case (postponement of VAT payment), and Colombia's case (VAT exemption). Six months of VAT payment deferral applies in Ecuador. Deferral of VAT as stipulated for the CIT in Peru and Uruguay. The reduced VAT rate in the following countries: Brazil, Paraguay, Peru, and Kenya.

Safaris

Kenya and Tanzania offer this type of tourism product. It was found that both countries have a different approach to taxing Safaris. Kenya offers 16% tax-free tour operators' fees and entry fees to National Parks and Reserves. Transport of tourists through conveyance is VAT exempted, except if the services are chartered. In Tanzania, 18% VAT is added to ground transportation, guiding fees, park fees, and camping fees. Besides road transfers, water-based safaris and hot-air balloon landing fees also fall under ground transportation. Bird-watching falls under 'guiding fees.' Moreover, 'camping fees' include regular camping fees and special camping fees that apply to tented camps. VAT also applies to wildlife viewing packages offered by accommodations. [30]

Graph 12 shows an overview of the most used taxation measures to support the T&T sector from the studied countries. Although some countries applied these measures in general for businesses and non-specifically for the tourism industries, they benefited from the measure.

After identifying the three types of tourism taxes that the governments of South America, Kenya, Mauritius, and Tanzania have implemented before the COVID-19 crisis, and the tax policy measures to support tourism during the pandemic, a zero hypothesis is accepted (*H₀: Prior COVID 19, policymakers in Mauritius, Kenya, and Tanzania actively designed and implemented tourist tax measures like countries in South America*). An alternative hypothesis is partially accepted just because Mauritius is the only country that has met this criterion. (*H₁: Tourists' taxes will be reduced/removed as a short-term measure to support tourism during the COVID-19 crisis*).



Source: Own creation based on data collected from the studied countries.

5. Discussion and conclusions

Based on the information collected in South America and the three chosen countries from Africa, it has been verified that they were following the global trend of raising monetary resources to promote tourism before the pandemic. It

has been identified that the central taxes and fees that affect or benefit tourists are the boarding fees at airports, the tourist tax applied to lodgings, and the TAX-FREE or VAT refund in accommodation and shopping. The number of taxes applied to tourism tended to increase in the Latin American subregion and the studied countries from Africa; for example, Argentina's government had just launched a "pernocte tax" on accommodation and cruises in Buenos Aires from the 1st. March 2020.

The pandemic broke out when the South American countries were in late summer and vacation time in 2020. According to their governments' economy, these countries have responded with different fiscal measures during the fall and winter. Among the general measures applied by these governments, the vast majority have responded as summarized by the OECD (liquidity & income support; liquidity, solvency & income support; fiscal stimulus and revenue).

The governments from Kenya and Mauritius took the lockdowns seriously (from the middle of March 2020) comparing to Tanzania, which did not recognize COVID-19 as a severe illness. This is the reason why its government was delayed in implementing measures that support its economy. However, after pressure from the World Health Organization (WHO), the country acknowledged that it dealt with disease cases in February of this year. Also, there are no publicly available records for the measures applied directly to the tourism sector or, in general, to businesses. Research made by Estmann, Hansen, and Rand, 2021; [21] describes in general that Tanzania applied the following fiscal policy responses: tax deferrals and exemptions, corporate guarantees and subsidies, and cash transfer. It is assumed that these measures could benefit the tourism industry.

Included in the main tax policy reforms applied in the studied countries was the relief of tax burdens companies such as the CIT exemptions or postponement payment, personal income tax (PIT), temporarily exemptions/extensions from the payment of employer contributions, tax liabilities had been deferred for firms, postponement of VAT payment or changes in VAT rates. (See Graph 12) Within the thirteen countries analyzed, it has been identified that few have responded from the beginning of the pandemic with specific fiscal measures to support the industries of their tourism sector, among them: Argentina, Colombia, and Ecuador, countries that are most affected since their gross domestic product are more dependent on tourism activities.[4] Joining later countries like Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay.

It should be noted that Colombia postponed the fiscal Contribution for the Promotion of Tourism (a tax burden that affected the businesses related to tourism) from the first quarter of 2020 until Dec 31, 2020. Peru applied as other tax policy measures accelerated or enhanced tax depreciation provisions for travel agencies and tourism or restaurants and related services. Uruguay exempted PIT and Non-resident Income Tax to the income of letting tourist immovable property - Support Touristic Sector.

Kenya's government has set aside 500 million Kenyan Shilling (equivalent to 4.7 million US dollars) to help the tourism sector recover from the COVID-19 outbreak. Part of the funds will be used to restore destination confidence to ensure that Kenya remains a preferred travel destination globally, and the rest will be used for the post-coronavirus recovery strategy in all Kenya's key source markets. IMF Executive Board Approves a US\$739 Million Disbursement. World Bank Approves \$1 Billion Financing for Kenya, to Address COVID-19 Financing Gap and Support Kenya's Economy. [31]

Not surprisingly, Mauritius took steps to revive its tourism industry through different original measures since the T&T sector is considered relevant in its GDP. Its government prioritizes the tourism sector, according to data from the TTCI report 2019. It is the only country that approved the alternative hypothesis since the tourists' taxes were removed as a short-term measure to support tourism during the COVID-19 crisis (Mauritius suspended the Passenger Fee on Air Ticket for tourists from Reunion, Australia, and South Africa up to 31st July 2020). Adding to this, in late October, Mauritius announced that it was launching a new, one-year visa (Premium Travel Visa) to encourage extended stays and help the tourism sector. The visa applies to both tourists and remote workers.

Domestic tourism is now emerging as a lifeline for the hospitality industry as the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic continue to bite the sector. In the absence of international tourists, high-end facilities are finding the going tough due to lack of business.

Some crucial discussion points are: How resilient are businesses in the tourism industry amidst current crises in developing countries? Will international aid be critical to their survival? Can the set of measures, including those related to taxes, be effective? Will taxes applicable specifically to tourists be effective at this time? Everything will depend on the control in the growth of COVID-19 cases in the analyzed countries and the improvement of the conditions of their health system, which is the sector that needs the most investment for its improvement.

References

- Barna Katalin, M., Zsófia, P. (2017). Analysis of the tourism tax between 2000 and 2013 in Hungary. *Területi Statisztika*, 57 (2), pp. 224-243. DOI: 10.15196/TS570206. Source: Scopus.
- Biagi, B., Brandano, M.G., Pulina, M. (2017). Tourism taxation: A synthetic control method for policy evaluation. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 19 (5), pp. 505-514. Web of Science Categories: Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism.
- Dimanche, F. (2003) The Louisiana Tax-Free Shopping Program for International Visitors: A Case Study. *Journal of Travel Research*. [online] Available at: <<https://www.researchgate.net>> and Scopus.
- Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). (2020, July). Recovery measures for the tourism sector in Latin America and the Caribbean present an opportunity to promote sustainability and resilience. Available at: https://repositorio.cepal.org/bitstream/handle/11362/45767/4/S2000440_en.pdf
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). (2020, July) Covid-19 and Tourism: Assessing the Economic Consequences. Available at: https://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/ditcinf2020d3_en.pdf
- World Economic Forum, TTCI Report 2019, Geneva. ISBN-13: 978-2-940631-01-8. [online] Available at: <http://www.weforum.org/>
- Eric, T. N., Semeyutin, A., & Hubbard, N. (2020). Effects of enhanced air connectivity on the Kenyan tourism industry and their likely welfare implications. *Tourism Management*, 78, 104033. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.104033>
- Estmann, Hansen, Rand (2021) Fiscal Policy Responses to COVID-19 in Danida Priority Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/351140345_Fiscal_Policy_Responses_to_COVID-19_in_Danida_Priority_Countries_in_Sub-Saharan_Africa [accessed May 28 2021].
- Gutierrez, J; Garcia-Palomares, JC; Romanillos, G; Salas-Ólmedo, MH (2017). The eruption of Airbnb in tourist cities: Comparing spatial patterns of hotels and peer-to-peer accommodation in Barcelona. *Tourism Management* Volume: 62 Pages: 278-291. Web of Science Categories: Environmental Studies; Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism; Management.
- Holloway, J Ch. (2009), *The Business of Tourism*, 8th Edition, England. ISBN: 978-0-273-71710-2. pp. 512.
- Honajzrová Banús, C. (2019). Inventario de impuestos, tasas y cargos relacionados con el turismo en Sud América y su impacto en el número de llegadas de turistas. In Khalid S. Soliman. Proceedings of the 34th International Business Information Management Association Conference (p. 205 - 214, 10 pp.). ISBN 978-0-9998551-3-3. Web of Science Categories: Business; Economics; Management. Madrid, Spain.
- Jani, Dev & Minde, Maria. (2016). East African Tourism Destination Competitiveness: A Comparison of Uganda and Tanzania. *ORSEA*. 6. 49-70.
- Law, 6278 (2020). [online] Available at: <http://www2.cedom.gob.ar/es/legislacion/normas/leyes/ley6278.html>
- Honajzrová Banús, C., Petříček, M. (2019). Specifics of the Tax System to Support Tourism: Evidence from Argentina and Uruguay. In Khalid S. Soliman. Proceedings of the 33rd International Business Information Management Association Conference (p. 1198-1208, 11 pp.). ISBN 978-0-9998551-2-6. Web of Science Categories: Education & Educational Research; Management. Granada, Spain.
- Liberato, D., Silva, M., Liberato, P. (2018). Shopping tourism: City of Lisbon as a shopping destination. Proceedings of the 32nd International Business Information Management Association Conference (pp. 5002-5013). ISBN: 9780999855119. Web of Science Categories: Business; Economics.
- Mahangila, Deogratius & Anderson, Wineaster. (2017). Tax Administrative Burdens in the Tourism Sector in Zanzibar: Stakeholders' Perspectives. *SAGE Open*. 7. 215824401773680. 10.1177/2158244017736800.
- Mauritius Chamber of Commerce and Industry. (2021). Tax-Free Shopping. MCCI. <https://www.mcci.org/en/our-services/tax-free-shopping/tax-refund/>. Retrieved April 4, 2021
- Mauritius Revenue Authority. (2021). Overview of Taxes. Overview of Taxes - Mauritius Revenue Authority. <https://www.mra.mu/index.php/taxes-duties/overview-of-taxes>. Retrieved March 15, 2021
- Mertens, K., Olea, J.L.M. (2018). Marginal Tax Rates and Income: new time series evidence. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 133(4), 1803-1884.
- Ministry of Tourism (2017), Ministry of Tourism Website, Available from <http://tourism.govmu.org/English/Pages/default.aspx>, Accessed on 16th May 2018.
- OECD Tourism papers (2013), *Indicators for measuring competitiveness in tourism: a guidance document*. [online] Available at:<<https://www.oecd.org>>

- OECD and Selected Partner Economies, (2020, September) Tax Policy Reforms 2020. [online] Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/tax/tax-policy-reforms-26173433.htm>
- OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19). (2021). Tackling coronavirus (COVID-19) Contributing to a global effort. Retrieved from: <https://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/tourism-policy-responses-to-thecoronavirus-covid-19-6466aa20/#section-d1e4199>
- OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19). (Updated 2020, June). Tackling coronavirus (COVID-19) Contributing to a global effort. [online] Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/tourism-policy-responses-to-the-coronavirus-covid-19-6466aa20/#section-d1e4199>
- Tourinews, (2020). España paraliza la tasa ecológica a los billetes de avión. [online]
- Roach, Brian (2010). *Taxes in the United States: History, Fairness, and Current Political Issues*. Tufts University Global Development and Environment Institute. Pag. 1. [online] Available at: http://www.bu.edu/eci/files/2019/06/Taxes_in_the_United_States.pdf
- TurboTax. (Accessed July 18, 2020). "What Are Tax Cuts?" [online] Available at: <https://turbotax.intuit.com/tax-tips/general/what-are-tax-cuts/L1wXFN8CF>
- OECD Tourism Trends and Policies (2014, 2016, 2018). Edition [online] Available at: https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/industry-and-services/oecd-tourism-trends-and-policies-2014_tour-2014-en
- Okello MM, Novelli M. Tourism in the East African Community (EAC): Challenges, opportunities, and ways forward. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*. 2014;14(1-2):53-66. doi:10.1177/1467358414529580
- Paula, S., Mariana, B. (2016). Effects of Value Added Tax (VAT) reduction on tourism in Romania. *Proceedings of the 27th International Business Information Management Association Conference* (pp. 829-836). ISBN: 978-0-9860419-6-9. Web of Science Categories: Social Sciences, Interdisciplinary. Milan, Italy.
- Gooroochurn, N., Sinclair, T. (2005) Economics of tourism taxation: evidence from Mauritius, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (2): 478-498. Web of Science Categories: Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism; Sociology.
- People Team. (2020, February 5). High taxes are hurting our business, hoteliers say. People Daily. <https://www.pd.co.ke/lifestyle/high-taxes-hurting-our-business-hoteliers-say-23591/>. Retrieved March 15, 2021
- Safaris Booking web site: <https://www.safaribookings.com/blog/vat-changes-in-tanzania-affect-tour-operators-and-safari-tourists>
- Saint-Amans, P. (2020, September). Supporting the global economy: what role for tax systems in responding to COVID-19? OECD publication. Retrieved from: https://www.oecd-forum.org/posts/supporting-the-global-economy-what-role-for-taxsystems-in-responding-to-covid-19?utm_source=Adestra&utm_medium=email&utm_content=Read%20the%20blog%20post&utm_campaign=Tax%20News%20Alert%2010-09-2020&utm_term=ctp
- Singh, D.H.R. (2010). Tourism income multipliers for Latin American countries *Tourism Analysis Journal*, 15 (4), pp. 485-488. ISSN: 10835423 Source: Scopus.
- Song, H., Seetaram, N., Ye, S. (2019). The effect of tourism taxation on tourists' budget allocation. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 11, pp. 32-39. Web of Science Categories: Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism; Management.
- Sulle, E., & Banka, H. (2017). Tourism Taxation, Politics and Territorialisation in Tanzania's Wildlife Management. *Conservation and Society*, 15(4), 465-473. Retrieved March 15, 2021, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/26393315>
- Sulle, E., & Banka, H. (2017). Tourism Taxation, Politics and Territorialisation in Tanzania's Wildlife Management. *Conservation and Society*, 15(4), 465-473. https://doi.org/10.4103/cs.cs_15_28. Retrieved March 21, 2021
- Tairo, A. P. O. L. I. N. A. R. I. (2020, July 5). Tanzania to tax air travelers \$5 from October. The East African. [https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/tea/business/tanzania-to-tax-air-travellers-5-from-october-1403284#:~:text=Foreign%20travellers%20boarding%20aircraft%20at,101%20\(%202449\)%20per%20passenger](https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/tea/business/tanzania-to-tax-air-travellers-5-from-october-1403284#:~:text=Foreign%20travellers%20boarding%20aircraft%20at,101%20(%202449)%20per%20passenger). Retrieved March 20, 2021
- Telfer, David & Sharpley, Richard. (2007). Tourism and Development in the Developing World. *Tourism and Development in the Developing World*. 1-263. 10.4324/9780203938041.
- UNECA, 2011. Economic Report on Africa 2011: Governing development in Africa - the role of the state in economic transformation. URI <https://hdl.handle.net/10855/1154>
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) (1997). National Tourism Policy *First Draft.

UNWTO Tourism Recovery Tracker: <https://www.unwto.org/unwto-tourism-recovery-tracker>Other consulted materials

Zhang, JK; Zhang, Y (2018) Carbon tax, tourism CO2 emissions, and economic welfare, *Annals of Tourism Research*, Volume: 69, pp. 18-30. Web of Science Categories: Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism; Sociology.

An Extended Attitudinal Loyalty Modeling of Roots Tourism in China: The Mediating Role of Sense of Sacredness and Belonging

Tao Huang¹, Yang Zhang^{2*}

¹Capital University of Economics and Business, China

ORCID: 0000-0002-3637-2805

Email address: ht2hyn@163.com

^{2*}Macau University of Science and Technology, China

ORCID: 0000-0003-0698-1391

E-mail address: yangzhang@must.edu.mo

Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to establish up and identify the structural model of attitudinal loyalty of Chinese root tourists with the extension of perceived existential authenticity, sense of sacredness and belonging among the root tourism destination. Base on the three stages of attitudinal loyalty framework with cognitive, affective and conative aspects, this study further extended through adopting of root tourists' perceived existential authenticity as the antecedent. Besides, sense of sacredness and belonging are adapted into this framework as mediating variables to evaluate their potential indirect effects between root tourists' perceived existential authenticity and attitudinal loyalty. Data collection in this study is through structural questionnaire survey for root tourists visiting the Dahuaishu Ancestor Memorial Garden, Shanxi province. SPSS 26.0 and AMOS 24.0 were used to test the hypotheses and theoretical models. The results revealed that both of the two dimensions of root tourists' perceived existential authenticity has significant influence on the three stages of attitudinal loyalty respectively. Sense of sacredness and belonging are also identified its significant effects on attitude loyalty as well and are effected by root tourists' perceive existential authenticity. It has significance for the marketing and development of root tourists destinations to promote the tourism area to pay attention to the individual feelings of tourists, understand the forming process of the loyalty of root tourists, and enhance the loyalty of tourists.

Keywords: Roots Tourism (China); Perceived existence authenticity; Attitudinal Loyalty; Sense of Sacredness; Belonging

1. Introduction

Root tourism, a unique form of cultural tourism, is usually manifested as the tourism of returning to the place of origin to maintain emotional connection, seek identity, and connect to the cultural origin (Hall & Williams, 2002; Duval, 2003; Coles & Timothy, 2004; Kelner, 2010). Recently, literature on root tourism has been constantly on the rise, mainly covering root culture, regional planning and development (Cai Libin, Yu Dengkui, 2011), and the impact of culture and identity on root tourism as the research directions. However, empirical studies on root tourists are minimal; Alexander et al. discussed the effect of tourism on tourists' connection to the original place when they had experienced the past, while Corsale and Vuytsyk (2016) examined the identity problem of root tourists and their pursuit of roots (Alexander et al., 2006; Corsale & Vuytsyk, 2016). Current research on root tourism has failed to focus on the relationship between the tourists' personal feelings and their attitudinal loyalty to a specific root tourism destination. Meanwhile, research sites and groups of root tourism fundamentally focus on immigrants, political refugees, foreign workers, and minority groups who have moved out of their places of origin for various reasons (Corsale & Vuytsyk, 2016). Countries with a history of immigration like India, Russia, Mexico, the Philippines, and the United Kingdom (Huang et al., 2018) have been explored. Nevertheless, relevant empirical analysis is still minimal because China respects ancestors, attaches great importance to clan relations, and has many tourist destinations for roots.

In the framework of cultural tourism research, existing studies on perceived reality and loyalty of tourist experience have mainly concentrated on the relationship between objective reality and loyalty, while only a few studies have explored the perceived existence authenticity and its impact (Bryce, Curran, O’Gorman & Taheri, 2015; Fu, 2019). As a free and unrestricted perception state, perceived existence authenticity can be divided into individual tourists’ perceived intrapersonal and interpersonal authenticity (Wang, 1999; Kim & Jamal, 2007; Wang, 1999). Perceived intrapersonal authenticity reflects the tourists’ perception of their actual state or their authentic self, while perceived interpersonal authenticity is related to interpersonal relationships (Wang, 1999). Although the above studies have found that the perceived existence authenticity of tourists has a positive impact on their loyalty in cultural heritage tourism, the perceived existence authenticity is typically considered a simple variable in a single dimension in these studies, while ignoring the possible influences in various internal dimensions.

At the same time, this loyalty in the above research did not consider the multi-stage process of loyalty; it only researched tourists’ behavioural loyalty, and whether it impacts tourists’ attitudinal loyalty requires further exploration. For instance, Yi, Lin, Jin, and Luo (2017) set the concept of loyalty as single-dimensional when exploring the relationship between authenticity and loyalty (Yi, Lin, Jin, & Luo, 2017). In a research on the formation of individual loyalty, Oliver (1997) proposed a four-stage loyalty model, involving cognitive-affective-conative-behavioural (Fig. 1). Among the stages, the cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions are collectively termed attitudinal loyalty. Previous literature has studied these dimensions that constitute tourists’ attitudinal loyalty and their influential relations in other contexts (Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010; Han & Hwang, 2015; Fu, 2019).

Meanwhile, according to the cognitive assessment theory, individual responses follow the cognitive-affective-conative sequence (Breitsohl & Garrod, 2016). Thus, it is necessary to examine the expression of this attitudinal loyalty model and its interaction in root tourism. Likewise, for a unique cultural tourism form such as root tourism, it is worth further exploring how tourists’ perceived existence authenticity influences their attitudinal loyalty.

among existing studies, Leite (2005) believes that root tourists intentionally seek to connect memories when they visit their place of origin. Such heritage experiences can enhance their past knowledge and elicit individual responses (Isaac & Budryte-Ausiejene, 2015). These places are sacred, making visitors form a sense of sacredness by visiting them. However, current academic research on holy feeling primarily comes from religious tourism, and the expression of the sense of sacredness in root tourism has not been considered. Moreover, although some studies have confirmed that root tourism is a means for root tourists to establish their identity and express their belonging (Antonsich, 2010), they have not investigated the relationship between identity construction and belonging and the effect of belonging on the formation of attitudinal loyalty among root tourists. Therefore, it remains to be further explored whether such a sense of sacredness and belonging is in root tourism and whether it influences the relationship between tourists’ perceived existence authenticity and attitudinal loyalty.

Thus, this study takes root tourists as the research object. Based on the three-stage loyalty theory proposed by Oliver (1997) and the perspective of tourists’ perception, it explores the relationship among the perceived existence authenticity of tourists, sense of sacredness, belonging, and attitudinal loyalty.

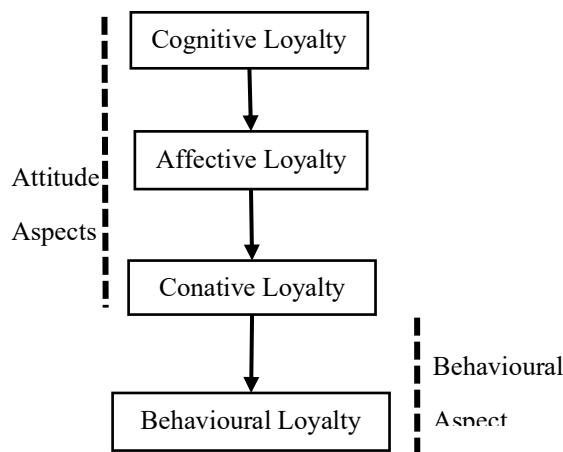


Fig. 1. Loyalty model (Oliver, 1997).

2.literature review

Root tourism denotes travelling to one's place of origin for leisure, to visit family and friends, to explore ancestral culture, or to make social connections, but without an intention to permanently settling down. Studies have proved that tourists have a perceived existence authenticity in heritage sites (Yi, Lin, Jin & Luo, 2017). As a cultural juncture of time and space, root tourism represents historical significance and the potential for self-discovery. In these spaces, visitors may discover new interests and unique experiences, including moments of spiritual awareness and sense of connection with the past (Robinson & Clifford, 2012). Researchers found that the perception of ancestral lore, nostalgia, and image of contact with the real family from home influences individual identity to varying degrees (Coles & Timothy, 2004). Perceived existence authenticity is essential for social connection among tourists (Bryce, Curran, O'Gorman & Taheri, 2015). Therefore, tourists should seek their authenticity and authentic relationships with others (Wang, 1999). According to Basu (2005), root tourism is tourism motivated by the search for roots and the desire to return home, leading the tourist to the ancestral land, regarded as a pilgrimage. Scholars have contended that the root tourism experience has an extraordinary power because it establishes a strong sense of attachment in the offspring of the diaspora (Bhandari, 2010; Hughes, 2010; Allen, 2010). This section discusses the definition of the core variables and the construction of the hypothesis.

2.1 Attitudinal loyalty

As early as 2010, academic scholars Atila Yuksel et al. verified the existence of the relationship between cognitive loyalty, emotional loyalty, and intentional loyalty in their study of Didim city in Turkey, as they also explored the relationship between the influence of local attachment on each of the three stages of loyalty. Most researchers have often applied a blended approach, i.e., a combination of behavioural and attitudinal use. This approach provides the basis for Velazquez et al.'s (2011) definition: 'the desire to seek out a service provider resulting from high satisfaction, high emotional commitment and sustained repeat purchase behaviour' (p. 54). Researchers have utilised word-of-mouth recommendations and willingness to revisit or repeat purchases as the dimensions of loyalty measurement (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007; Yoon, Lee & Lee, 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu, 2014). It has led researchers to consider attitudinal loyalty a one-dimensional variable in loyalty studies (Atila Yuksel et al., 2010). Oliver (1999) contends that consumers can form loyalty at each stage associated with the different elements of the attitude development structure. Thus, various factors affecting loyalty can be detected (Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006). Based on this research flaw, Fu (2019) examined loyalty in three stages based on Yi et al. (2017).

H1 The cognitive loyalty of root tourists has a significant positive influence on their affective loyalty.

H2 The cognitive loyalty of root tourists has a significant positive effect on their conative loyalty.

H3 The affective loyalty of root tourists has a significant positive effect on their conative loyalty.

2.2 Perceived existence authenticity and attitudinal loyalty

While not all tourism is a pathway to self-actualisation (Shepherd, 2015), specific environments with unique attributes can be the vehicles for self-actualisation. For example, in historical heritage settings, tourists expect identity-related outcomes like self-discovery (Zhu, 2012). However, existing research on this connection has assumed that the authenticity of a tourist object or an attraction setting precedes the authenticity of presence. Contrary to previous research and current debates (e.g., Shepherd, 2015), object-based authenticity is not a prerequisite for existential authenticity; instead, existential authenticity is a starting point for heritage tourism experiences (Fu, 2019).

Studies have explored the relationship between objective authenticity and loyalty, with a few exceptions (Fu, 2019). While some researchers have determined that presence authenticity has a strongly positive effect on loyalty in heritage tourism (Bryce et al., 2015), others have contended that presence authenticity does not affect loyalty (Zhou, Zhang & Edelheim, 2013).

Furthermore, the relationship between the underlying dimensions of presence authenticity and loyalty has not been verified. Kolar and Zabkar (2010) and Bryce et al. (2015) considered only the introspective authenticity dimension of presence authenticity, while Yi et al. (2017) examined only the one-dimensional loyalty concept when exploring the relationship between authenticity and loyalty. According to the cognitive assessment theory, individual responses abide by a cognitive-affective-conative sequence (Breitsohl & Garrod, 2016). Although existing literature has suggested cognitive, affective, and behavioural aspects of loyalty in other contexts (Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010;

Han & Hwang, 2015), the existence of the sub-dimensions of authenticity affecting loyalty has not been identified, while the different aspects of authenticity that exist may impact tourist loyalty in various ways. This research question has not been explored (Fu, 2019).

H4a-c: The perceived intrapersonal authenticity of root tourists has a significantly positive influence on a) cognitive loyalty, b) affective loyalty, and c) conative loyalty.

H5a-c: The perceived interpersonal authenticity of root tourists has a significantly positive effect on a) cognitive loyalty, b) affective loyalty, and c) conative loyalty.

2.3 Perceived existence authenticity and sense of sacredness

Research has found that in secular activities, when a person's identity changes or a new identity is directly formed, it often drives them temporarily away from their usual place of residence to a 'third place' (Thompson & Arsel 2004; McGinnis, 2012). The ancestral home of root tourists becomes their 'third place', a haven from work or daily stress. Individuals and groups undertake root tourism and seek spiritual experiences, a sense of sacredness and authenticity (Cohen, 1988).

Perceptions of existential authenticity are relevant for certain types of tourists who travel, intending to generate a social connection to the destination (Vidon et al., 2018). Several studies point to family reunification as the primary purpose for deciding to visit family. Specific manifestations include visiting friends and relatives (Huang, Ramshaw & Norman, 2016), returning to the place of family origin (Huang, Ramshaw & Norman, 2016), and attending ethnic or family gatherings (Uriely, 1994). Regarding what Huang et al. found in their religious tourism study, an individual's sense of sacredness may be further influenced by their peers. Travelling with family or friends can be a wonderful experience; not only is it an excellent opportunity for interaction but is also an unforgettable experience of experiencing the landscape, overcoming obstacles, and worshipping Buddha together. During the journey, relationships between family members and friends may improve and become closer. Likewise, they will realise the meaning and significance of friendship, kinship, and love (Huang et al., 2019). Based on the finding that no scholars have determined the relationship between the sub-dimension of existential authenticity and the sense of sacredness, and only that they have related descriptions, this study intends to explore the relationship between the sub-dimension of existential authenticity and the sense of sacredness.

H6a-c: The sense of sacredness of root tourists has a significantly positive influence on a) cognitive loyalty, b) affective loyalty, and c) conative loyalty

2.4 Perceived existential authenticity and belonging

Perceived authenticity denotes the authentic self (Wang, 1999). The tendency is to conduct a travel experience with enhanced pleasure and positive customer engagement (Arnould & Price, 2000). Meanwhile, presence authenticity is the basis of subjective destination experiences (Fu, 2019). Through tourism activities, tourists may experience a more profound sense of self and emotional and behavioural congruence (Wang, 1999; Steiner & Reisinger, 2006). Furthermore, research suggests that presence authenticity may positively influence feelings of belonging, leading to recognition and respect for tourists (Wenzel & Lucas Thompson, 2012). Most studies have examined presence authenticity as a composite variable, while no scholar has yet investigated whether the two dimensions of presence authenticity impact sense of belonging and sacredness. Therefore, this study examines the relationship between the two dimensions of existential truth and the sense of belonging and sacredness.

H7a-b: a) Perceived intrapersonal authenticity; b) Perceived interpersonal authenticity of root tourists has a significantly positive impact on their sense of sacredness.

H8 a-b: a) Perceived intrapersonal authenticity; b) Perceived interpersonal authenticity of root tourists has a significant positive influence on their belonging.

2.5 Sense of sacredness and belonging

Stephenson's (2002) study suggests that travelling back to the homeland is sacred in the homeland (p. 395). Hiens' (2016) study further found that root tourism can lead to the retention of traditional rituals, the practice of ancestral worship, and the formation of a passion for maintaining relevant practices for children and grandchildren. Ancestral

rituals, Qingming Festival events, ethnic festivals, and visits to ancestral temple sites, among others, are all sacred in root tourism (Tan E. & Bakar Abu B., 2018). These rituals and festivals formed in sacred places establish emotional connections about the ancestors and generate a sense of belonging.

H9 The sense of sacredness of root tourists has a significant positive influence on their belonging.

2.6 Belonging and attitudinal loyalty

Scholars have validated a sense of belonging for migrating descendants of tourists as an essential antecedent to tourist holiday visitation destinations (George & George, 2004; Alexandris et al., 2006; Brocato, 2006; Lee et al., 2007; Simpson & Siquaw, 2008). Furthermore, root tourism encourages visitors to form attachments to ancestral places and establish a sense of belonging (Ruting, 2012; Pelliccia, 2016). In addition, descendants often need to reaffirm their identity and strengthen their social ties to their roots, stimulating the formation of higher loyalty (Feng & Page, 2000; Ruting, 2012). Hence, this study explores the relationship between belonging and attitude loyalty.

H10a-c: The belonging of root tourists has a significantly positive influence on a) cognitive loyalty, b) affective loyalty, and c) conative loyalty.

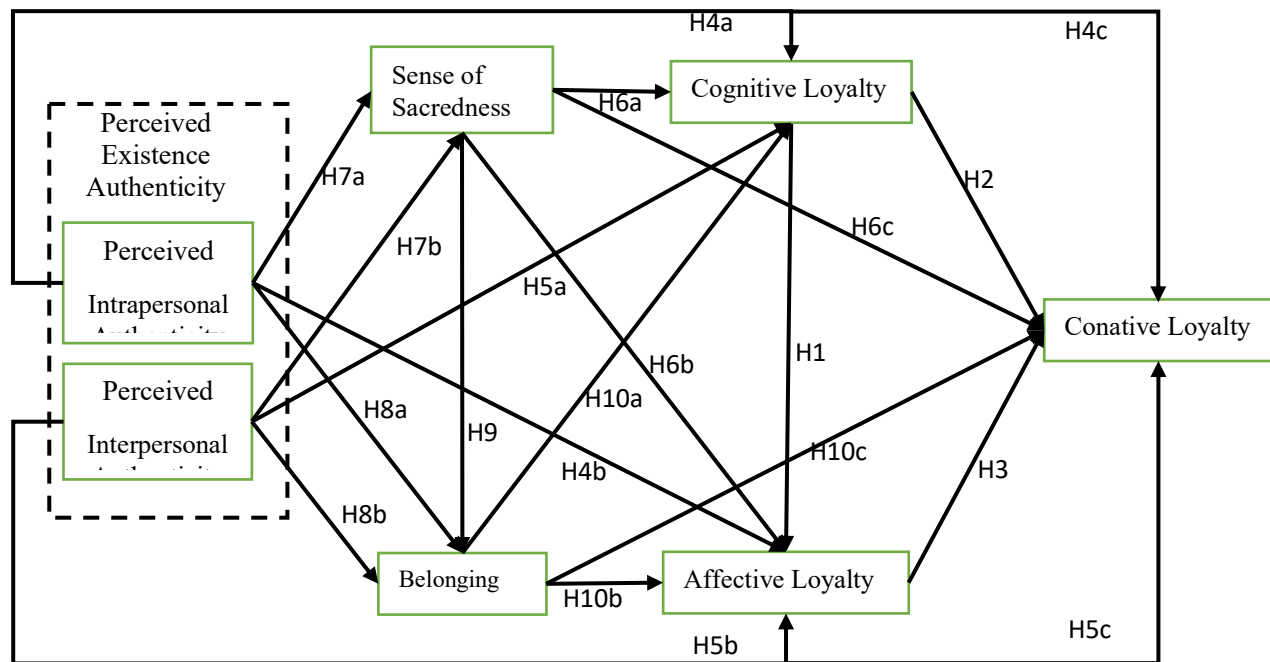


Fig.2 Research Model

3. Research methodology

Data collection in this study is through structural questionnaire survey for root tourists visiting the Dahuaishu Ancestor Memorial Garden, Shanxi province.

Based on an extensive review of the literature, a four-section questionnaire was prepared to fit the roots tourism context. The first section attempts to assess perceived existential authenticity included perceive intrapersonal authenticity (4 items) and perceive interpersonal authenticity (3 items) (Wang, 1999; Fu, 2019). The second section attempts to assess sense of sacredness (4 items). The third section attempts to assess belonging (12 items). Base on the three stages of attitudinal loyalty framework which proposed by Oliver (1997) with cognitive, affective and conative aspects, while the four measures cognitive loyalty (2 items), affective loyalty (2 items), and conative loyalty (3 items). A five-point Likert scale was used for measuring each construct, ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree).

Researchers distributed the questionnaires in 10:00 (AM) - 5:00 (PM), and lasted 14 days. Purposive sampling was used to do this survey, and used the “ root tourists” as the criteria. An initial screening showed that out of 600 distributed questionnaires, 501 were complete and valid questionnaires and thus used for analysis. SPSS 26.0 and AMOS 24.0 were used to test the hypotheses and theoretical models.

4. Findings and analysis

As presented in Table 1, 53.5% of the respondents were female and 46.5% were male. The majority of the respondents fell between the ages of 20 and 39 (69.4%). Nearly half of the respondents were family tourism, travel with friends and independent travelers (80.2%) and the remaining were part of tour groups (50.4%). Over half of the visitors held a great education and above.

Table 1 Demographic profile (N = 501)

Profile	Frequency	%
Sex		
Male	268	53.5
Female	233	46.5
Age		
Less than 20	55	11
20-29	190	37.9
30-39	158	31.5
40-49	69	13.8
50-59	23	4.6
More than 60	6	1.2
Education level		
Middle School or below	44	8.8
High School or Technical School	173	34.5
College or University graduate	258	51.5
Master degree or above	26	5.2
Income (RMB)		
<=2,000	85	17
2,001-5,000	218	43.5
5,001-8,000	147	29.3
>8,000	51	10.2
Occupation		
Public Official	13	2.6
Enterprise Employee	77	15.4
Business Executives	63	12.6
Service practitioner	25	5
Teacher	27	5.4

Student	51	10.2
Worker	55	11
Farmer	23	4.6
Professional	51	10.2
Freelancer	80	16
Retired People	17	3.4
Others	19	3.8
Travel form		
Family outings	115	23
With friends	160	31.9
Independent travelers	127	25.3
Guided tour	82	16.4
Others	17	3.4

Convergent validity measures whether items can effectively reflect their corresponding factor and can be assessed by examining composite reliability (CR), item reliability and average variance extracted (AVE), (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). As shown in Table 2, the values of AVE and CR all exceed the thresholds of 0.5 and 0.7, respectively (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Thus, the convergent validity of the measurement model was confirmed.

Table 2 Discriminant validity test/latent variable correlations

	Perceive Intrapersonal Authenticity	Perceive Interpersonal Authenticity	Sense of Sacredness	Belonging	Cognitive Loyalty	Affective Loyalty	Conative Loyalty	CR	AVE
Perceive Intrapersonal Authenticity	0.826							0.896	0.683
Perceive Interpersonal Authenticity	0.236**	0.838						0.876	0.703
Sense of Sacredness	0.490**	0.443**	0.787					0.867	0.620
Belonging	0.449**	0.422**	0.432**	0.722				0.929	0.522
Cognitive Loyalty	0.420**	0.467**	0.499**	0.449**	0.84			0.828	0.706
Affective Loyalty	0.321**	0.462**	0.482**	0.444**	0.473**	0.791		0.769	0.625
Conative Loyalty	0.401**	0.400**	0.537**	0.480**	0.515**	0.548**	0.826	0.866	0.682

As presented in Table 3, 17 hypotheses are supported, and 3 hypotheses are no supported. The results revealed that both of the two dimensions of root tourists' perceived existential authenticity has significant influence on the three stages of attitudinal loyalty respectively. Sense of sacredness and belonging are also identified its significant effects on attitude loyalty as well and are affected by root tourists' perceive existential authenticity. Meanwhile, it is

noteworthy that the effect of the sense of scaredness and belonging was significant as well in this framework between root tourists' perceive existential authenticity and their attitudinal loyalty.

Table 3 Hypotheses test

Hypotheses		β	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i>	<i>Result</i>
Perceive Intrapersonal Authenticity	→ Sense of Sacredness	0.4252	8.567	***	Supported
Perceive Interpersonal Authenticity	→ Sense of Sacredness	0.3314	7.3677	***	Supported
Sense of Sacredness	→ Belonging	0.1188	2.8292	0.0047	Supported
Perceive Intrapersonal Authenticity	→ Belonging	0.2374	5.9032	***	Supported
Perceive Interpersonal Authenticity	→ Belonging	0.1996	5.5888	***	Supported
Perceive Intrapersonal Authenticity	→ Cognitive Loyalty	0.1742	3.1393	0.0017	Supported
Perceive Interpersonal Authenticity	→ Cognitive Loyalty	0.2364	4.7282	***	Supported
Sense of Sacredness	→ Cognitive Loyalty	0.2225	3.8528	***	Supported
Belonging	→ Cognitive Loyalty	0.2121	3.0134	0.0026	Supported
Perceive Interpersonal Authenticity	→ Affective Loyalty	0.1818	3.3833	***	Supported
Sense of Sacredness	→ Affective Loyalty	0.2072	3.3657	***	Supported
Belonging	→ Affective Loyalty	0.2218	2.9966	0.0027	Supported
Cognitive Loyalty	→ Affective Loyalty	0.1827	2.864	0.0042	Supported
Sense of Sacredness	→ Conative Loyalty	0.2053	3.6733	***	Supported
Cognitive Loyalty	→ Conative Loyalty	0.1763	3.0602	0.0022	Supported
Affective Loyalty	→ Conative Loyalty	0.2628	4.2857	***	Supported
Belonging	→ Conative Loyalty	0.1965	2.9567	0.0031	Supported
Perceive Intrapersonal Authenticity	→ Affective Loyalty	0.008	0.1388	0.8896	No Supported
Perceive Intrapersonal Authenticity	→ Conative Loyalty	0.061	1.1895	0.2342	No Supported
Perceive Interpersonal Authenticity	→ Conative Loyalty	0.0189	0.3921	0.695	No Supported

Noted:****p*<0.001

5. Discussion

Original value lies in this research is establish up and identify the structural model of attitudinal loyalty of Chinese root tourists with the extension of perceived existential authenticity, sense of sacredness and belonging among the root tourism destination. Base on the three stages of attitudinal loyalty framework which proposed by Oliver (1997) with cognitive, affective and conative aspects, this study further extended through adopting of root tourists' perceived existential authenticity as the antecedent. Besides, sense of sacredness and belonging are adapted into this framework as mediating variables to evaluate their potential indirect effects between root tourists' perceived existential authenticity and attitudinal loyalty.

6. Conclusions

6.1 Theoretical implications

First of all, from the perspectives of root tourists, this study enriches the research on root tourism in heritage tourism, especially for the empirical research on the individual feelings of root tourists.

Secondly, this study makes up the research gaps of the composition and expression of the perceived existence authenticity of root tourists. By constructing and verifying the relationship model between the perceived existence authenticity of root tourists and the attitudinal loyalty, the author explores the direct relationship among the three components of perceived existence authenticity, sense of sacredness, belonging, and attitudinal loyalty of root tourists.

Thirdly, this study makes up for the research gaps in the performance of the sense of sacredness and belonging in root tourism and verifies the influence of sense of sacredness and belonging on the relationship between perceived existence authenticity and attitudinal loyalty.

6.2 Practical implications

From a practical point of view, this study relies on the individual feelings of root tourists and takes individual feelings as the starting point for discussion. Tourists' perceived existence authenticity is the pursuit of subjective freedom. Tourists' perceived existence authenticity helps to attract root tourists to their roots. Understanding the relationship between the perceived existence authenticity and different stages of attitudinal loyalty is of special significance to the management of root tourist attractions. Moreover, it is of great significance to the planning and activity organization of root tourist attractions to verify the influence of the sense of sacredness and belonging on the relationship between the perceived existence authenticity and attitudinal loyalty.

Dahuaishu Ancestor Memorial Garden is full of reference significance as a typical tourist destination in the tourism industry as it is rich in root culture and the value of immigrants returning home tourism. This study provides planning suggestions for Dahuaishu Ancestor Memorial Garden. It plays a big role in promoting the scenic spots to pay attention to the individual feelings of tourists, understanding the forming process of the loyalty of root tourists, enhancing the loyalty of tourists, and the market and development of root tourist destinations.

6.3 Limitations and future research

As with any study, there are limitations associated with this research. The study surveyed at Dahuaishu Ancestor Memorial Garden. Future scholars are strongly encouraged to research other root tourism destinations. Secondly, cautions should be made while generalizing the findings of this study, considering sample size and area of study. This study just collected 501 questionnaires. Future scholars are strongly encouraged to collect more questionnaires.

References

- Alexandris, K., Kouthouris, C., & Meligdis, A. (2006). Increasing customers' loyalty in a skiing resort: The contribution of place attachment and service quality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(5), 414-425.
- Allen, K., & Mendick, H. (2013). Keeping it real? Social class, young people and 'authenticity' in reality TV. *Sociology*, 47(3), 460-476.
- Antonsich, M. (2010). Searching for belonging—an analytical framework. *Geography Compass*, 4(6), 644-659.
- Baloglu, S. (2002). Dimensions of customer loyalty: Separating friends from well-wishers. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 43(1), 47-59.
- Basu, P. (2005). Roots tourism as return movement: Semantics and the Scottish diaspora. In M. Harper (Ed.), *Emigrant homecomings: The return movement of emigrants 1600–2000* (pp. 131–150). Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Belk, R. W., Wallendorf, M., & Sherry Jr, J. F. (1989). The sacred and the profane in consumer behavior: Theodicy on the odyssey. *Journal of consumer research*, 16(1), 1-38.
- Breitsohl, J., & Garrod, B. (2016). Assessing tourists' cognitive, emotional and behavioural reactions to an unethical destination incident. *Tourism Management*, 54, 209–220.
- Bryce, D., Curran, R., O'Gorman, K., & Taheri, B. (2015). Visitors' engagement and authenticity: Japanese heritage consumption. *Tourism Management*, 46, 571–581.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). Commentary: Issues and opinion on structural equation modeling.
- Coles, T., and D. J. Timothy. 2004. "My Field Is the World": Conceptualizing Diasporas, Travel and Tourism." In *Tourism, Diasporas and Space*, edited by T. Coles and D. J. Timothy, 1–29. London: Routledge.
- Corsale, A., & Vuytsyk, O. (2016). Long-distance attachments and implications for tourism development: the case of the Western Ukrainian diaspora. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 13(1), 88–110.
- Evanschitzky, H., & Wunderlich, M. (2006). An examination of moderator effects in the four-stage loyalty model. *Journal of Service Research*, 8(4), 330–345.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Fu Xiaoxiao (2019). Existential authenticity and destination loyalty: Evidence from heritage tourists. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 12, 84-94.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis*: Pearson Prentice Hall. Upper Saddle River, NJ, 1-816.
- Hall, C. M., & Williams, A. M. (2002). Tourism, migration, circulation and mobility: The contingencies of time and place. In C. M. Hall & A. M. Williams (Eds.), *Tourism and migration: New relationships between production and consumption* (pp. 1–52). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.
- Han, H., & Hwang, J. (2015). Norm-based loyalty model (NLM): Investigating delegates' loyalty formation for environmentally responsible conventions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 46, 1–14.
- Huang, W. J., Hung, K., & Chen, C. C. (2018). Attachment to the home country or hometown? Examining diaspora tourism across migrant generations. *Tourism Management*, 68(1), 52-65.
- Hughes, H., & Allen, D. (2010). Holidays of the Irish diaspora: The pull of the 'homeland'? *Current Issues in Tourism*, 13(1), 1-19.
- Isaac, R. K., & Budryte-Ausiejene, L. (2015). Interpreting the emotions of visitors: A study of visitor comment books at the Grūtas Park Museum, Lithuania. *Scandinavian journal of hospitality and tourism*, 15(4), 400-424.
- Kalyan Bhandari (2017). Travelling at special times: the Nepali Diaspora's Yearning for belongingness. Marschall, S. (Ed.). (2017). *Tourism and memories of home: migrants, displaced people, exiles and diasporic*

communities. Channel view publications.

- Kelner, S. (2010). *Tours that bind: Diaspora, pilgrimage and Israeli birthright tourism*. New York: New York University Press.
- Kim, H., & Jamal, T. (2007). Touristic quest for existential authenticity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(1), 181–201.
- Kolar, T., & Zabkar, V. (2010). A consumer-based model of authenticity: An oxymoron or the foundation of cultural heritage marketing? *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 652–664.
- Leite, N. (2005). Travels to an ancestral past: On diasporic tourism, embodied memory, and identity. *Anthropologica*, 9, 273-302.
- Lenton, A. P., Bruder, M., Slabu, L., & Sedikides, C. (2013). How does “being real” feel? The experience of state authenticity. *Journal of Personality*, 81(3), 276-289.
- Lenton, A. P., Slabu, L., & Sedikides, C. (2016). State authenticity in everyday life. *European Journal of Personality*, 30(1), 64-82.
- Levi, D., & Kocher, S. (2012). Perception of sacredness at heritage religious sites. *Environment and Behavior*, 45(7), 912-930.
- Oliver, R. L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 63(Special Issue 1999), 33–44.
- Sedikides, C., Slabu, L., Lenton, A., & Thomaes, S. (2017). State authenticity. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 26(6), 521-525.
- Shepherd, R. J. (2015). Why Heidegger did not travel: Existential angst, authenticity, and tourist experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 52, 60–71.
- Wang, N. (1999). Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), 349-370.
- Wassler, P., & Kirillova, K. (2019). Hell is other people? An existential-phenomenological analysis of the local gaze in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 71, 116–126.
- Wessendorf, S. (2014). Researching social relations in super-diverse neighbourhoods: Mapping the field.
- Yi, X., Fu, X., Yu, L., & Jiang, L. (2018). Authenticity and loyalty at heritage sites: The moderation effect of postmodern authenticity. *Tourism Management*, 67, 411–424.
- Yi, X., Lin, V. S., Jin, W., & Luo, Q. (2017). The authenticity of heritage sites, tourists' quest for existential authenticity, and destination loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(8), 1032–1048.
- Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F., & Bilim, Y. (2010). Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty. *Tourism Management*, 31(2), 274–284.

Cross-border Tourism between Greece and Albania

Kalogirou Christina¹, Velissariou Efstathios²

¹University of Thessaly Greece

ORCID: 0000-0003-1535-6029

Email address: ckalogirou@uth.gr

²University of Thessaly Greece

ORCID: 0000-0001-6997-1516

Email address: belissar@uth.gr

Abstract

The paper investigates cross-border tourism between Greece and Albania by exploring the frequency of visits, the purpose of travel, the type of accommodation, and the satisfaction of travel experience. Extensive research was carried out at the Kakavia custom station. Of 314 participants (156 Albanians, 158 Greeks) 217 visited the neighboring country during the Christmas period 2019-20 and 97 in the summer 2020 due to the COVID-19 restrictive measures at the Albanian borders. A structured questionnaire is used exploring demographic data, tourism behavior, and the evaluation of the services offered. The findings show that in summer, Albanians visit Greece exclusively for holidays and shopping, while in winter for holidays, business, medical reasons, or work. No significant difference is found in the motivations of Greeks traveling to Albania between summer and winter, except the travel for businesses, which is higher in winter, while travel for tourism and shopping is 53% on average. Albanians visit Athens, Thessaloniki, Ioannina, and the Greek islands. Greeks travel mainly to Tirana, Argyrokastro, the Greek-speaking villages of Albania and the coastal cities of Sarande and Durres. Preferred type of accommodation is the hotel. Both Albanian and Greek survey participants said they were satisfied with their travel experience.

Keywords: Albania, Cross-border Tourism, Greece, Road Tourism, Travel Experience

1. Introduction

Cross-border tourism in Europe is an important factor for the regional development (Stoffelen & Vanneste, 2017). The most common motives or types of cross-border tourism are fuel tourism (Banfi et al., 2005), the cigarette market (Coats, 1995), the food market (Dmitrovic & Vida 2005), the medical tourism (Velissariou & Tzioumis, 2014), the casino tourism (Verbiest & Keuleers, 2004) and the sex tourism (Siegel, 2012, Frohlick, 2013).

The collapse of the regime in Albania in 1985 led to the opening of borders to Greece and lifted the isolation restraints for Albanians, marking the beginning of the travel movement with many prospects for both sides. Greeks discover Albania as a cheap alternative tourist destination but also for businesses. In contrast, for Albanian travelers, Greece is a destination for shopping, for summer holidays, but also for receiving medical services. The growing travel movement recorded over the past decade creates good prospects for the development of specific forms of tourism on both sides of the border, in the time after COVID-19, which can be enhanced through appropriate marketing strategies (Tosun et al., 2005). At the same time, the collapse of the Albanian regime revealed major differences between the two sides of the border, leading to an increase in cross-border travel, particularly to the Greek side (reaching 944 thousand arrivals in 2019).

2. Transportation and road tourism

The link between transport and tourism remains one of the most important relationships within the tourism system. Transportation facilitates the movement of tourists both in their country of origin and abroad, thus allowing wider

dispersion of visitors and maximum exposure of visitor flows to areas that are difficult to access (Hall &Page, 2009). The tourist transport system has an impact on the tourist experience of visitors to a destination and explains, to some extent, why tourists choose different forms of vacation, destination, and transport. Further, improved modes of transport and low fares have increased access to areas once considered unattractive. Access to tourist areas varies on the nature of the site, the state of the infrastructure, and the efficiency of the transport system (Lumsdon & Page, 2004). In all cases, it is important to ensure that the economic benefits of tourism do not concentrate in particular locations but maximize visitor flows to a destination, especially for geographically remote destinations, and therefore, highly dependent on transport networks (Lohmann & Duval, 2011).

Road tourism refers to the movement of tourists by cars, tourist buses, or public buses. In practice, this requires adequate public transport and cross-border transport infrastructure. Also, the effective coordination of services between two countries in terms of routes and timetables facilitates tourists without a vehicle or who prefer to use a bus on vacation (Kołodziejczyk, 2020). Therefore, a key condition of road tourism is a country's transport infrastructure, which is an important determinant of the attractiveness of a destination. Transport infrastructure can include the sum of road, sea, and air transport and is necessary to the evolution of tourism as an economic pillar in any country (Jovanović & Ilić, 2016). An efficient road network and transport system improve internal mobility and experience by enhancing the accessibility of tourists to different parts of the destination country and vice versa (Khadaroo & Seetana, 2007).

Car travel is usually an independent means of transportation where the traveler decides the route and duration of the trip. It is usually cheaper as tolls are not paid immediately. Service activities, such as restaurants, gas stations, and hotels, have been integrated along major highways to serve traffic. Overall, passenger transport accounts for 77% of all travel worldwide, mainly due to advantages such as flexibility, price, and independence (Rodrigue, 2020). Travel by bus uses the same road network as cars and usually on the domestic transport network. However, travel agency buses are also used for multi-day trips to transport tourists across borders. Finally, the rail network usually reflects more the commercial needs of the national economy and, consequently, the tourist holiday flows, which may make it a less preferred choice as a mode of travel. Finally, the rail network usually reflects more the commercial needs of the national economy and, consequently, the tourist holiday flows, which may make it a less preferred choice as a mode of travel. However, the rail systems of several countries, notably in Europe, have seen massive investment in long-distance routes and high-speed services (Rodrigue, 2020).

The improvement of infrastructure (Petrova et al., 2018, Tampakis et al., 2019) and advanced technological applications, such as maps, navigation, interactive google maps, satellite traffic control, etc., contributed significantly to cross-border and road tourism development both internationally and in Greece. Cross-border tourism reflects the movement of people across borders to promote the economic development of two geographical regions (Stoffelen & Vanneste, 2017). In cross-border contexts, tourism maintains a leading position in political and economic cross-border integration strategies through the creation of symbolic cross-border dialogues (Prokkola, 2010; Scott, 2010). According to Kozak & Buhalis (2019), cross border collaboration can be more beneficial for destinations that faced long-standing disputes in political relations and are now looking for peace and a more open economy. Such destinations may increase their incoming tourist flows by developing and sustaining economic and political bridges to capitalize on market opportunities. Removing all barriers may turn a neglected area to an attractive cross-border destination with economic, social, and political benefits on the way.

3.Cross-border tourism in Greece

In 2019, incoming road tourism from neighboring countries amounted to 9.6 million arrivals or 30.6 percent of total arrivals, 38.2 million overnight stays or 16.4 percent of overnight stays, and € 1.8 billion revenue or 10.1 percent of travel receipts. For the most part, inbound road tourism was supported by visitors from Bulgaria, Albania, Northern Macedonia, Turkey, Romania, and Serbia, contributing significantly to revenue growth in Northern Greece (Thrace, Macedonia, and Epirus) (GTP, 2020). Between 2017-2019, the top three stations with the highest traffic volume of road tourism were Promachonas, Evzoni, and Nymfaia. Also, in 2019, Promachonas in 1st place (30.4%), up from 21.2% in 2017, while Evzoni ranked in 2nd place (19.8%), down from 30.1% in 2017. There has been a significant reduction in tourist arrivals from Northern Macedonia and a significant increase in tourist arrivals from Bulgaria, compared to 2017 (Ikkos et al., 2020).

As seen in Table 1, compared to the countries of origin in the period 2012-2019, significant increases are recorded by tourists from Romania (+1043.9%) and Bulgaria (+730.9%), followed by Albania at much lower rates (+107.7%),

Serbia (+63.6%), Turkey (+33.3%). Arrivals from Northern Macedonia decreased by -27.1%. The average increase is estimated at +156.8% from 3,734,250 people to 9,588,912 people.

Table 1 Road tourism arrivals by country of origin (2012-2019)

Countries	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Ch. %
Albania	442,802	470,231	467,768	474,099	706,873	795,463	949,388	919,649	107.7%
Bulgaria	451,511	587,727	1,434,891	1,782,468	2,410,570	2,417,795	3,008,507	3,751,382	730.9%
Northern Macedonia	1,295,306	1,687,605	2,388,715	3,018,363	1,716,763	1,569,743	1,184,870	944,728	-27.1%
Romania	99,458	136,470	434,496	405,682	828,567	931,363	1,140,855	1,137,741	1043.9%
Serbia	571,139	748,193	953,323	685,479	652,594	970,845	853,350	934,504	63.6%
Turkey	509,576	738,938	862,492	1,003,061	522,503	628,517	593,609	679,399	33.3%
Other countries	364,458	441,005	776,322	611,704	767,614	956,149	1,066,503	1,221,509	235.2%
Total	3,734,250	4,810,169	7,318,007	7,980,856	7,605,484	8,269,875	8,797,082	9,588,912	156.8%

Source: Ikkos et al. (2020)

Regarding overnight stays of road tourism during the period 2012-2019 increased + 101.0%, from 19,004,676 to 38,197,326. Romania (+ 1126.4%) and Bulgaria (+ 805.2%) dominate, followed by Albania (+71.2%), Serbia (+59.3%), and Turkey (+3,5%). Arrivals from Northern Macedonia decreased by -29.5% (Table 2).

Table 2 Overnight stays of road tourism (2012-2019)

Countries	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Albania	1,842,354	1,747,841	1,609,667	1,753,583	2,862,592
Bulgaria	901,558	1,577,824	5,463,204	5,873,334	7,079,935
Northern Macedonia	3,329,744	5,168,781	6,327,164	6,201,829	4,542,397
Romania	569,704	912,680	3,076,324	2,943,321	5,487,600
Serbia	4,823,464	6,286,083	8,438,150	5,956,164	5,376,744
Turkey	2,005,401	2,470,309	3,282,526	3,640,493	1,563,634
Other countries	5,532,451	7,055,397	10,279,165	6,464,879	8,380,033
Total	19,004,676	25,218,915	38,476,200	32,833,603	35,292,935
Countries	2017	2018	2019	Ch%	
Albania	2,862,411	3,195,410	3,154,348	71.2%	
Bulgaria	6,208,892	6,982,562	8,160,813	805.2%	
Northern Macedonia	4,311,338	3,217,059	2,348,726	-29.5%	
Romania	5,853,048	6,848,356	6,986,669	1126.4%	
Serbia	8,449,192	6,776,383	7,683,846	59.3%	
Turkey	1,782,717	1,617,003	2,074,998	3.5%	
Other countries	9,052,890	9,067,954	7,787,926	40.8%	
Total	38,520,488	37,704,727	38,197,326	101.0%	

Source: Ikkos et al. (2020)

Finally, road tourism revenues during the same period increased +105.2%, from 865.9 million euros to 1,177.10 million euros with Romania and Bulgaria recording an increase of +1866.7% and +888.1%, respectively. The remaining countries are Albania (+54.7%), Serbia (+55.2%), while Turkey and Northern Macedonia recorded -4.6% and -21.8%, respectively (Table 3).

Table3 Road tourism revenues (€ millions) (2012-2019)

Countries	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Ch. %
Albania	129.4	148.9	127.4	134	163.1	176.5	217.1	200.2	54.7%
Northern Macedonia	145.7	203.8	261.3	245.2	183	179.6	154.2	114	-21.8%
Bulgaria	28.5	60.1	156.7	160.5	264	242.4	254.5	281.6	888.1%
Romania	18	43	127	104.7	291.3	274.3	314.3	354	1866.7%
Serbia	191.4	252.7	353.7	266.9	237.7	327.1	279.5	297.1	55.2%
Turkey	178.8	268.8	351.9	364.7	156.6	182.6	164.3	170.5	-4.6%
Other countries	174.1	269	390.5	247.3	316.2	366.7	385.9	359.7	106.6%
Total	865.9	1,246.30	1,768.50	1,523.30	1,611.90	1,749.20	1,769.80	1,777.10	105.2%

Source: Ikkos et al. (2020)

The Greek-Albanian borders

The collapse of the communist regime in Albania in 1985 led to the lifting of border limitations. The opening of Albania revealed the major differences with Greece, which had become a member of the European Union. Under these conditions, the opening of the Albanian borders facilitated the movement of people, capital, and know-how in both directions, forming networks of social and economic relations of an international character. In addition, the mass emigration from the Balkan countries to Greece, the establishment and operation of Greek companies in the Balkans, the daily movement of goods to both sides, the exchange of visits, ideas, and models formed a new situation in the border areas.

In the period 2014-2018, the volume of Albanian exports increased by 48.21% in contrast to Greek exports, which increased only +0.08%. However, the trade balance of bilateral trade between the two countries decreased by 9.77%, while the total trade volume increased by 7.07% (Table 4).

Table 4 Bilateral trade between Albania and Greece (€ million) (2014-2018)

	Greek exports	Albanian exports	Trade balance	Trade volume
2014	52,058.15	8,848.01	43,210.14	60,906.16
2015	42,718.06	9,511.17	33,206.89	52,229.23
2016	45,655.97	11,150.17	34,505.80	56,806.14
2017	49,897.54	11,602.92	38,294.62	61,500.46
2018	52,100.72	13,113.53	38,987.19	65,214.25
Ch % 2014-2018	0.08%	48.21%	-9.77%	7.07%

Source: Embassy of Greece in Tirana

Kakavia custom station

Kakavia custom station is established with P.D. 551/882 και operates as an independent First-Class Customs with the departments of Administrative Support and Judiciary, Prosecution of Smuggling, Procedures, VAT and Other Taxes,

2 https://www.karagilanis.gr/images/pd_462_93.pdf

and Transits. The custom station is responsible for controlling incoming - outgoing passengers, cars, trucks, and goods. In addition, it checks, seals, and issues documents during the import of goods from Albania for the customs office of destination and controls the buses (domestic-foreigners) that operate Greece-Albania routes. Within the framework of the memorandum of cooperation with the Passport Control Department of the Kakavia Border Station, joint controls seek to prevent and suppress the illegal import of weapons and drugs, the prosecution of smuggling, and illegal acts to protect the public interest.

According to a study by Egnatia Odos (2017), the Kakavia border station shows strong fluctuations every month. Upon completion of Egnatia Odos in 2009, there is an upward trend until 2014. In addition, the average monthly non-resident road arrivals do not differ significantly between winter (Oct-Apr) and summer (May-Sep). Finally, the months with the highest traffic are January, July, and August, while the lowest traffic is in October and November. In general, the Kakavia custom station shows continuous arrivals throughout the year, reflected in the total monthly road arrivals (Table 5).

Table 5 Average and cumulative road arrivals via Kakavia (2007-2015)

	Average monthly road arrivals	Total monthly road arrivals
Jan	40,900	449,901
Feb	12,905	141,960
Mar	15,824	174,065
Apr	15,491	170,401
May	15,942	175,364
Jun	16,465	181,118
Jul	20,377	183,389
Aug	23,718	213,464
Sep	16,883	151,950
Oct	14,949	134,539
Nov	12,698	114,281
Dec	24,624	221,620
May-Sep	19,149	861,688
Oct-Apr	21,846	1,376,288

Source: Egnatia Odos (2017)

4. Research methodology

The present research investigates the tourist mobility and the experience of travelers who entered or left the Albanian-Greek border. Therefore, it explores:

1. The frequency of tourist visits to the country and the type of accommodation.
2. The percentage of satisfaction from the travel experience in the country.
3. The purpose of the trip and the total amount spent by travelers.

The research sample consists of 314 people of different sex, age, education, and professional status, who moved to and from Albania during the examined periods - Christmas - New Year 2019-2020 and summer 2020.

The research tool selected is the questionnaire, which includes 18 questions in three distinct sections: 1. Demographic data, 2. Tourist Behavior, and 3. Evaluation of Services offered. Participants answer the questions with the Yes-No choice or the 5 Points Likert Scale

Statistical analysis was performed with SPSS-21 using frequencies and relative frequencies for the nominal and categorical variables and using the mean value and standard deviation for the continuous variables. Furthermore, a correlation test using the Pearson linear correlation coefficient was employed. t-test and ANOVA test control mean values .

The COVID-19 crisis limited the investigation to two periods as, during the Easter period, the borders were closed due to protection measures. In addition, the border opening in the summer was conditional, limiting the research sample. Finally, in some cases, limited or no familiarity with the language made it difficult to understand the questions, requiring a translation. The need to translate may have resulted in biased and unreliable results.

5. Research results

Demographic research data

Of the 314 participants, 56.4% are men, and 43.6% are women. The most populous age groups are 26-35 years old (29.9%), 46-55 years old (25.8%), and 36-45 years old (19.4%), followed by 18-25 years old (12.7 %), 56-65 years (7.6%), and + 65 years (4.5%). 27.1% of the sample are high school graduates, and 25.2% hold a university or TEI degree. 18.5% have basic education, 17.5% are graduates of technical school or IEK, and 7.6% hold a master's degree. Finally, 29.0% are private employees, 25.2% are self-employed / traders, 15.0% are civil servants, 12.1% are unemployed, 8.9% are retirees, and 8.3% are students (Table 6).

Table 6 Demographic research data

Gender	Men	177	56.4%
	Women	137	43.6%
	Total	314	100.0%
Age	18-25	40	12.7%
	26-35	94	29.9%
	36-45	61	19.4%
	46-55	81	25.8%
	56-65	24	7.6%
	+65	14	4.5%
	Total	314	100.0%
Level of education	Basic education	58	18.5%
	High School	85	27.1%
	Technical school or IEK	55	17.5%
	University or TEI	79	25.2%
	Postgraduate	24	7.6%
	Other	13	4.1%
	Total	314	100.0%
Profession	Civil servants	47	15.0%
	Private sector employee	91	29.0%
	Self-employed / Trader	79	25.2%
	University student	26	8.3%
	Retired	28	8.9%
	Unemployed	38	12.1%
	Other	5	1.6%
	Total	314	100.0%

Of the total sample, 158 people are Greeks, and 156 people are Albanians. 51.9% of Greeks are men and 48.1% are women. 60.9% of Albanians are men and 39.1% are women (Table 7).³

Table 7 Gender distribution

	Greeks		Albanians	
Men	82	51.9%	95	60.9%

³ Note: 'Greeks' denotes Greek citizens who crossed the Albanian borders and returned to Greece and 'Albanians' denotes Albanian citizens who crossed the Greek borders and returned to Albania.

Women	76	48.1%	61	39.1%
Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%

30% of outgoing Albanian citizens during the Christmas-New Year period are 46-55 years old and 26.7% are 26-35 years old. Respectively, 30.8% of incoming Greeks are 26-35 years old and 26.9% are 46-55 years old.

There is a statistically significant difference between the ages as at the time of entry the individuals stated that they were older than the age stated by the individuals at the time of their exit during the Christmas-New Year period ($U = 1219$, $\text{sig} < 0.05$). This means that the Greeks in the sample are older than the Albanians. The average age of Albanian travelers is 34.9 years. On the contrary, the average number of Greek travelers to Albania is five years higher at 39.7 years.

Regarding the level of education, 10.6% of Greek travelers had a basic education, and 46.2% had a university or postgraduate degree. The percentage of Albanians holding a university or postgraduate degree was 20.8%, while 28.3% had basic education.

As opposed to gender, age, and education, the distribution of professional status shows no significant differences between the Albanian citizens who returned to Albania after visiting Greece and the Greek citizens who returned to Greece after visiting Albania and during both periods considered.

From outgoing tourists in Christmas-New Year, 32.5% are private employees, 25.8% self-employed/traders, and 12.5% are civil servants, followed by unemployed (11.7%), retirees (10.0%), and students (6.7%). Respectively, from incoming tourists during Christmas-New Year, 26.0% are private employees, 23.1% self-employed/traders, and 17.3% civil servants, followed by retirees (12.5%), unemployed (11.5%), and students (1.9%).

From outgoing tourists in summer, 32.0% are private employees, 26.0% are self-employed / traders, 16.0% are unemployed and 12.0% are students, followed by civil servants (8.0%), and retirees (2.0%). Respectively, from incoming tourists, 51.6% are private employees or self-employed, 17.7% are civil servants, 12.9% are unemployed, 9.7% are students, and 8.1% are retirees.

32.3% of Greeks visiting Albania during winter traveled with their partner and 27.8% with their family and children. 15.8% traveled single, 8.9% joined a group, 7.6% with friends/colleagues, and 7.6% stated 'other'. 35.9% of Albanians visiting Greece in both periods traveled with their partner and 31.4% with their family and children. 13.5% traveled single, 9.0% with friends/colleagues, 7.1% joined a group, and 3.2% stated 'other' (Table 8).

Table 8 Who did you travel with?

	Greeks		Albanians	
Single	25	15.8%	21	13.5%
With a partner	51	32.3%	56	35.9%
With a group	14	8.9%	11	7.1%
Family with children	44	27.8%	49	31.4%
With friends / colleagues	12	7.6%	14	9.0%
Other	12	7.6%	5	3.2%
Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%

Tourist behavior

Regarding the question "What was the purpose of your visit?", 32.5% of outgoing travelers during winter answered for tourism/shopping, 22.5% to return to the country of residence, 12.5% for business reasons, 11.7% for medical reasons, and 6.7% for studies. Respectively, 51.5% of incoming travelers during winter traveled for tourism/shopping, 22.7% for business reasons, 7.2% for medical reasons, and 1.0% for studies. During the summer, 100.0% of outgoing travelers traveled for tourism/shopping, while 55.7% of incoming travelers traveled for tourism/shopping and 11.5% for medical reasons (Table 9).

Table 9 Purpose of visit

	Greeks		Albanians	
Tourism/Shopping	84	53.2%	75	48.1%
Medical reasons	14	8.9%	14	9.0%
Professionally	26	16.5%	15	9.6%
Studies	5	3.2%	8	5.1%
I live in Greece / Albania	6	3.8%	27	17.3%
Other	23	14.6%	17	10.9%
Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%

During the Christmas period, 42.5% of Albanians visited Athens, 27.5% Thessaloniki, and 15.0% Ioannina. Respectively, 45.5% of Greeks visited Tirana, 30.9% Argyrokaastro, and 14.4% the Greek-speaking villages. During summer, 31.1% of Albanians visited Athens, 14.8% Ioannina, and 13.1% Thessaloniki. Respectively, 30.6% of Greeks visited Sarande, 16.7% Avlona, 16.7% Himara, and 13.9% Argyrokaastro.

Regarding the type of accommodation, 67.7% of Greeks and 64.7% of Albanians prefer to stay in hotels. 18.4% of Greeks prefer friends/relatives, 10.1% stay in rental rooms, and 3.8% stated 'other'. 22.4% of Albanians stay with friends/relatives, 7.7% in rental rooms, and 5.1% stated 'other' (Table 10). Also, there is a statistically significant difference in the results, suggesting that the type of residence and nationality are dependent ($\chi^2 = 8.152$, $\text{sig} < 0.05$).

Table 10 Type of accommodation

	Greeks		Albanians	
Hotel	107	67.7%	101	64.7%
Rental rooms	16	10.1%	12	7.7%
Friends-Relatives	29	18.4%	35	22.4%
Other	6	3.8%	8	5.1%
Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%

Average stay and standard deviation for Greeks traveling during winter is 3.1 days and 1.1 days, respectively, whereas for Albanians is 3.1 days and 1.2 days, respectively. Corresponding results for Greeks traveling during summer is 4.9 days of average stay and 0.7 standard deviation while for Albanians is 5.5 days and 1.32 days, respectively (table 11).

Table 11 Duration of the trip

Greeks during winter			
Min	Mean	SD	Max
1.0	3.1	1.1	6.0
Greeks during summer			
Min	Mean	SD	Max
3.0	4.9	0.7	6.0
Albanians during winter			
Min	Mean	SD	Max
1.0	3.1	1.2	10.0
Albanians during summer			
Min	Mean	SD	Max
2.0	5.5	1.3	10.0

During Christmas, 44.2% of Albanians has visited Greece 3-4 times and 23.3% more than 5 times, whereas 42.3% of Greeks has visited Albania for the first time and 31.7% 3-4 times. During summer, 62.0% of Albanians visited Greece for the first time where 33.9% of Greeks visited Albania for 1-2 times and 27.4% 4-5 times.

Table 12 shows that 35.4% of Greeks organized their trip via the Internet as opposed to 31.4% of Albanians. 30.4% of Greeks traveled to Albania without any special organization beforehand as opposed to 33.3% of Albanians who

traveled to Greece. 22.2% of Greeks organized their trip through a travel agency as opposed to 25.0% of Albanians. Finally, 12.0% of Greeks and 10.3% of Albanians organized their trip based on their previous experience.

Table 12 Trip organization

	Greeks		Albanians	
Through a travel agency	35	22.2%	39	25.0%
Via Internet	56	35.4%	49	31.4%
Without special organization	48	30.4%	52	33.3%
From previous experience	19	12.0%	16	10.3%
Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%

Visitors traveling during the Christmas traveled for fun (83.3%), while visitors in summer traveled for fun (91.8%), sun and sea (32.8%), and shopping (49.2%). The results show a statistically significant difference in the percentages of people who traveled for fun in Christmas. Specifically, the percentage of Albanians who visited Greece for fun during winter was higher than the corresponding percentage of Greeks ($x^2 = 9,573$, sig <0.05). Also, there is a statistically significant difference in the percentage of Greeks visiting museums or archeological sites in Albania ($x^2 = 9.871$, sig <0.05).

Of the total sample, 62.5% of outgoing travelers spent less than 500 euros and 31.7% spent between 500-1000 euros during winter. 76.9% of incoming travelers spent less than 500 euros, and 22.1% spent between 500-1000 euros. During summer, incoming travelers spent 500-1000 euros (41.9%) and 1000-1500 euros (32.3%), while outgoing travelers spent less than 500 euros (40.0%) and 500-1000 euros (40.0%).

The main method of payment in winter was cash for Greeks (91.1%) and Albanians (84.6%) (Table 13).

Table 13 Main payment method

	Greeks		Albanians	
Credit card	14	8.9%	24	15.4%
Cash	144	91.1%	132	84.6%
Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%

Evaluation of tourist services

Regarding whether they were satisfied with their trip (Question 16), 63.3% of outgoing travelers during Christmas were very satisfied, and 28.3% were satisfied. 46.4% of incoming travelers during Christmas were very satisfied, and 40.2% were satisfied. During summer, 67.2% of incoming tourists were very satisfied, and 26.2% satisfied, while the respective percentages of outgoing tourists are 30.6% and 47.2% (Table 14).

Table14 Satisfaction from the trip

	Greeks		Albanians	
Very satisfied	86	54.4%	87	55.8%
Satisfied	55	34.8%	51	32.7%
I cannot decide	15	9.5%	10	6.4%
Not satisfied	2	1.3%	6	3.8%
Not at all satisfied	0	0.0%	2	1.3%
Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%

At high rates, citizens of both countries were satisfied with the value for money spent on the services provided during both the Christmas and summer season. Finally, 95.6% of Greeks and 93.6% of Albanians would recommend Albania and Greece respectively to other people as they are satisfied with their overall travel experience (Table 15).

Table 15 You would recommend the country as a tourist destination to others?

	Greeks		Albanians	
Yes	151	95.6%	146	93.6%
No	7	4.4%	10	6.4%

Total	158	100.0%	156	100.0%
--------------	------------	---------------	------------	---------------

6. Discussion and conclusions

This academic paper aimed to examine the tourist behavior of Albanian citizens who visited Greece during the Christmas-New Year period 2019-2020 and the summer of 2020. In addition, it investigates the tourist behavior of Greeks who visited Albania during the same periods.

There is no significant difference in the age groups visiting Greece in both periods. Yet, Greeks visiting Albania belong mainly to 26-35 and 46-55 age groups and are private employees and self-employed / traders (during summer) and private employees, self-employed/traders, and civil servants (during winter)

Both the Greek citizens visiting Albania and the Albanian citizens visiting Greece stay in hotels. Regarding the length of stay, it is between 2 and 5 days at Christmas-New Year and between 3 and 6 days in summer for Greeks visiting Albania. Respectively, the Albanian citizens stay in Greece for 6-10 days during the Christmas-New Year period and 1-4 days in the summer.

42.3% of Greeks visited Albania for the first time during the Christmas period and 24.2% during the summer. 62.0% of Albanians visited Greece for the first time during the Christmas period and 14.2% during the summer. Both Albanians and Greeks have visited the neighboring countries mainly 3-4 times.

The main source of information for Albanian citizens during the Christmas period for the organization of their trip was the media/internet (41.0%). In summer, a large percentage organized their travel through a travel agency (47.2%). On the contrary, 34.2% of Greeks relied on the media to organize their visit to Albania or visited the country with no prior organization (42.3%).

There was no significant difference in the motivations of travelers from Greece to Albania between summer and winter, except the travel for businesses, which was clearly higher in winter, while travel for tourism and shopping was on average at 53% in total. Apart from Athens, Thessaloniki and Ioannina, Albanians also visit the Greek islands in the summer. Greeks travel mainly to Tirana, Argyrokastrò and the Greek-speaking villages of Albania, while in the summer they also visit the coastal cities of Sarandë and Durrës.

Both Greek and Albanian citizens spent 500-1000 euros during summer and up to 500 euros during winter. The finding suggests that shorter stays during the Christmas period are also associated with expenses.

Finally, most of both Greeks and Albanians would recommend the country they visited as they were satisfied with their travel experience.

7. Suggestions for the development of tourist traffic from Albania

Albania is an emerging market for inbound tourists and a rapidly growing tourism player in the Balkans. The development of the tourism sector is associated with significant foreign currency inflows, new employment opportunities, infrastructure development, and new management experiences. All this together contributes positively to the social and economic development of the country. In addition, it contributes to the development of Greek tourism and the strengthening of Greece's advertising campaign in the neighboring country.

Majority of Albanian tourists visit Athens and Thessaloniki. However, with the appropriate advertising and promotion of the Greek tourist product and related services, other areas of the country, such as the Ionian Islands, could attract an increasing number of Albanian tourists as the close distance between the two destinations helps.

Furthermore, given that many Albanian citizens visit Greece 3 to 4 times on average, they become repeat tourists. Having gained a positive impression from the Greek tourism product and services, they can be ambassadors of Greece in their country and influence their family and friendly environment to visit Greece.

Another channel is promoting Greece as a destination of rich natural and cultural environment, capable of satisfying alternative tourism preferences (religious, medical, monuments, sports activities, etc.). Therefore, it is necessary to strengthen the country's image both in the neighboring country and abroad to show the competitive advantages and attract tourists throughout the year. Visiting Greece is easier for Albanian tourists due to the short distance.

In conclusion, sustaining and increasing Greece's share in inbound tourism requires specialized strategies to attract and satisfy tourists from other countries of origin and emerging markets like Albania.

References

- Banfi, S., Filippini, M. & Hunt, L. (2005) Fuel tourism in border regions: The case of Switzerland. *Energy Economics* 27,689-707.
- Coats, R. (1995). A note on estimating cross-border effects of state cigarette taxes. *National Tax Journal*, 48(4),573–584.
- Dmitrovic, T. & Vida, I. (2005). An examination of cross-border shopping behaviour in South-East Europe. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(3/4),382-395.
- Egnatia Odos (2017). *Investigation of road and other arrivals of non-residents of Greece by means of transport, station of entry and country of origin, during the period 2007-2016*.
- Embassy of Greece in Tirana (2019). *Albania, Economy - foreign trade - Albanian market*.
- Frohlick, S. (2013). *Sexuality, Women, and Tourism. Cross-border desires through contemporary travel*. Routledge.
- GTP (2020, June 18). *Road Tourism to Greece Generates €1.8bn in 2019*. <https://news.gtp.gr/2020/06/18/road-tourism-to-greece-generates-e1-8b-in-2019/>
- Hall, C.M. & Page, S.J., (2009). Progress in tourism management: From the geography of tourism to geographies of tourism—A review. *Tourism Management*, 30(1),3-16.
- Ikkos, A., Rasouli, G., & Koutsos, S. (2020). Road Tourism in Greece 2012-2019. INSETE Intelligence.
- Jovanović, S. & Ilić, I., (2016). Infrastructure as important determinant of tourism development in the countries of Southeast Europe. *Ecoforum Journal*, 5(1), 288-294.
- Khadaroo, J. & Seetanah, B., (2007). Transport infrastructure and tourism development. *Annals of tourism research*, 34(4),1021-1032.
- Kołodziejczyk, K., (2020). Cross-border public transport between Poland and Czechia and the development of the tourism functions of the region. *Geographia Polonica*, 93(2), 261-285.
- Lohmann, G. & Duval, D.T., (2011). Critical aspects of the tourism-transport relationship. *Contemporary tourism reviews*,1-37.
- Lumsdon, L. & Page, S.J., (2004). Progress in transport and tourism research: reformulating the transport-tourism interface and future research agendas. *Tourism and Transport*,1-27.
- Petrova, M., Dekhtyar, N., Klok, O. & Loseva, O., (2018). Regional tourism infrastructure development in the state strategies. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 16(4),259-274.
- Prokkola, E.K., (2010). Borders in tourism: the transformation of the Swedish–Finnish border landscape. *Current Issues in tourism*, 13(3), 223-238.
- Rodrigue, J.P. (2020). *The Geography of Transport Systems*, Fifth Edition, New York: Routledge.
- Scott, J.W., (2010). Cross-Border Cooperation in the Periphery of the European Union: Reinterpreting the Finnish-Russian Borderland. *Eurolimes*, (10),123-139.
- Siegel, D. (2012) Mobility of Sex Workers in European Cities. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*. 18,255–268.
- Stoffelen A. & Vanneste D. (2017). Tourism and cross-border regional development: insights in European contexts. *European Planning Studies*, 25(6), 1013-1033, DOI: 10.1080/09654313.2017.1291585
- Tampakis, S., Andrea, V., Karanikola, P. & Pailas, I., (2019). The Growth of Mountain Tourism in a Traditional Forest Area of Greece. *Forests*, 10(11),1-18.
- Tosun, C. Dallen J.T., Parpairis A., & MacDonald D. (2005). Cross-Border Cooperation in Tourism Marketing Growth Strategies. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 18(1), 5-23. DOI: 10.1300/J073v18n01_02
- Velissariou E. & Tzioumis T. (2014): Tourism and Medical Services. The case of Elective Medical Tourism in Northern Greece. *European Journal of Tourism Hospitality and Recreation*, 5 (Special Issue, May 2014),341-355.

Verbiest T. &Keuleers E. (2004) Cross-Border Gaming: The European Regulatory Perspective. *Gaming Law Review*7(3), 185-196, DOI: 10.1089/109218803766651476.

Gender and age differences in destination image evaluation: The case of Drama, Greece

Spyridon Mamalis¹, Irene (Eirini) Kamenidou², Ifigeneia Mylona³,
Aikaterini Vassilikopoulou⁴, Evangelia Zoi Bara⁵, Stavros Pavlidis⁶

¹International Hellenic University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0003-3035-6385

E-mail address: mamalis@mst.ihu.gr

²International Hellenic University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0002-8213-5843

E-mail address: rkam@mst.ihu.gr

³International Hellenic University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0003-4880-8132

E-mail address: imylona@mst.ihu.gr

⁴Hellenic Open University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0003-4881-7629

E-mail address: Vasilikopoulou.katerina@ac.eap.gr

⁵International Hellenic University, Greece

ORCID: 0000-0002-6634-0492

E-mail address: evaeva13@hotmail.gr

⁶ International Hellenic University, Greece

E-mail address: stavrospavlidis@yahoo.gr

Abstract

This paper focuses on Drama, Greece, with aim to evaluate 25 destination image components and explore any gender and age differences based on this evaluation. An online questionnaire was utilized employing a non-probability sampling method which resulted in 499 valid questionnaires. Data analysis involved frequencies, percentages, means, factor analysis with varimax rotation, t-test for independent samples, and One-way ANOVA ($\alpha=0.05$ level). Results revealed that most destination image components provided with indifferent evaluation. Exploratory Factor analysis with Principal Component Analysis (Varimax rotation) produced four dimensions ("Attractions and infrastructure," "Value for money and entertainment," "Clean and safe destination," and "Wine tourism destination"), which were used for further analysis. T-test results revealed that gender affects the evaluation of the second and third dimension of Drama's destination image. In both cases, females rated higher the two dimensions compared to male participants. Additionally, age was found to influence the third and fourth dimensions of destination image significantly. Based on results it is evident that marketing communication guidelines for reaching future positive destination evaluation by

tourists are needed. The authorities of the area must implement marketing communication strategies in order to synchronize and reproduce the right messages towards potential tourists, which would reflect the qualities of the area.

Keywords: Destination Image, Tourist Behaviour, Marketing Communication, Marketing, Greece

1. Introduction

The tourism industry presents unique challenges for new customers-tourists, and new markets are being created by the growth of global travel and tourism. These opportunities intensify competition among destination areas, destination tourist organizations, and tourist companies (Kozak, 1999), which are increasingly concerned with their market shares, sales, and the repeated visit by previous tourist customers. From the strategic marketing perspective, both destination areas and tourist companies (i.e., hotels) can improve their marketing actions by optimizing customer opportunities and taking advantage of promotional tools (e.g., Cox and Wray, 2011; Terzidou, Styliadis, and Terzidis, 2018).

Destination areas differ in the degree of tourism resources. Some regions are fortunate to have rich tourism resources, while others have poor, making them more or less competitive compared to others (Lee and King, 2006). Thus, a destination needs to know the weaknesses that could be improved and detect specific strengths which could be fully utilized in order to attract and satisfy more tourists while also being competitive in the marketplace (Lee and King, 2006; Michael, Reisinger, and Hayes, 2019; Molina, Gómez, and Martín-Consuegra, 2010). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) determine how destination images are developed without actually visiting the destination. They claim that destination image is developed as a result of both consumer characteristics and stimulus factors. Moreover, they assert that its construct has perceptual/cognitive and affective evaluations interrelated. The authors also state that the decision (destination) choice is the intent or action component (conation) while the post-purchase behaviour stage is what the tourist is experiencing (pleasure/displeasure) after the visit.

Destination image perception is affected by consumers' characteristics, as previous research proved (e.g., Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Baloglu, 1997; Chen and Kerstetter, 1999; Walmsley and Jenkins, 1993; Beerli and Martín, 2004; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997). However, previous research results have been contradictory and therefore need thorough investigation, especially regarding gender and age differences (Kim et al., 2018).

As stated, all destinations do not have the same attributes – characteristics in order to present a similar competitive advantage. Drama is a city and municipality in northeastern Macedonia, Greece; it is the capital of Drama's regional unit, which is part of the East Macedonia and Thrace region. The city is the municipality's economic center and comprises 60% of the regional unit's population (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Drama,_Greece). Its initial ancient name is "Dyrama" or "Hydrama," meaning "rich in water" (due to the river Nestos, its tributaries and streams, as well as three waterfalls) and the city, as well as the surrounded area, does not enjoy the advantages of the 3S of tourism (sea, sand, sun). As such, it focuses on alternative forms of tourism. Taking all the aforementioned into account, the following research questions (RQ) arose and examined in following:

RQ1: How do tourists evaluate the image of Drama, Greece as a tourist destination?

RQ2: Is the perceived destination image of Drama similar for males and females?

RQ3: Is this image the same across different age groups?

RQ4: What marketing communication patterns can be utilized for destination image improvement?

Therefore, the above RQs were converted to the aim and specific objectives of the study. Hence, the aim of this study is to evaluate Drama's destination image, answering RQ1. Additionally, it has as specific objectives to examine gender and age differences concerning destination image evaluation, thus answering RQ2 and RQ3. Lastly, it has as its aim to suggest marketing communication techniques based on the results of data analysis, hence, answering RQ4.

This paper provides with a deeper understanding of image evaluation of destinations that do not enjoy the 3S (sea sun, sand) attributes. Moreover, the results of this research are considered as highly significant for the authorities of the area, since its results will provide guidelines of corrective actions as well as communication guidelines.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Subsequently, the literature review is presented, followed by the methodology and the result section. Next, the discussion and conclusion are presented, while the paper completes with the limitations and directions for future research.

2.Literature Review

Destination image was initially studied in the 1970's with the doctoral thesis of Hunt (1971), and in following Hunt (1975). In that decade, his work influenced other researchers such as Gunn (1972 in Baloglu and McCleary, 1999) and Mayo (1973 in Hunt, 1975), and thereafter, developed a stream of research referring to destination image and different sub issues, all of which point out the significance of the image for the viability of a tourist destination. Destination image perception and evaluation is of a subjective matter (Piramanayagam, Rathore, & Seal, 2020), comparative (Gallarza, Saura and García, 2002) and also complex in its measurement (Echtner& Ritchie, 1993). According to Chen and Tsai (2007, p.1116) "Destination image is defined as an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings and overall perception of a particular destination". Moreover, Martínezand Alvarez (2010, p.750) draw attention to that "image is abstract and it includes two types of evaluations: a cognitive one related to beliefs...and an affective one, encompassing feelings".

Destination image has been intensively studied during the last decades, pinpointing its significance in the tourism industry domain. Academic literature focuses on consumers' evaluation of destination image of specific places, countries, areas, landscapes, special tourism, events, or tourist services (e.g., Greaves and Skinner, 2010; Hahm, Tasciand Terry, 2018, 2019; Jeng, Snyder and Chen, 2019; Kamenidou et al., 2013; Kamenidou, Mamalis, and Priporas, 2009; Ruiz, González, and Zamora, 2018). Additionally, other academic papers focus on the competitiveness of a destination based on its image (e.g., Perles-Ribes et al., 2019; Vinyals-Mirabent, 2019). Likewise, academia reveals studies that provide literature reviews (e.g., Chon, 1990; Dalimunthe et al.,2019; Li, Ali and Kim, 2015; Pike, 2002) and research focusing on the tourist's characteristics and how it impacts destination image evaluation (e.g., Assaker et al., 2015; Chi, 2011; Dündar and Güçer, 2015). The abovementioned research interests comprise only a small sample of areas where academia focuses on destination image studies.

Though, age and gender differences in destination image evaluation are rather an understudied area. Kim et al. (2018) studied destination image (amongst others) of South Korea (N=316) and found that gender was a significant moderating factor while age was not. Wang et al. (2016) explored destination image regarding 774 outbound Chinese tourists to Macao. They found, through the use of SEM, that "travel motivation, advertising, and word-of-mouth (WOM) recommendations influence travelers' cognitive image andcognitive image interacts with affective image to form individuals' expectations toward travel destinations"Wang et al. (2016, p. 58). They also found that travel motivation and advertising affected males more than females regarding the cognitive image of the destination. On the other hand, the cognitive image and the affective image of the destination as affected by

WOM were stronger for females than males. Albayrak and Özkul (2013 in Dündar &Güçer, 2015) also found that gender influences the perceived image. Şahbaz and Kılıçlar (2009), in their study of the image of Mardin as a destination, found that perceived image differs by gender and specifically, women held a more positive image of Mardin. MacKay and Smith (2006) found that age and gender play a significant part in destination image formation. Beerli& Martin (2004) studied the destination image of 616 tourists who visited Lanzarote in the Canary Islands. They found that age significantly affected the cognitive dimension of the natural and social environment, both for first-timers and repeaters. Specifically, they found that the older tourists generally made a more positive evaluation of this dimension of image. For the other dimensions (cognitive and affective image), they did not find any significant differences. Cohen (2003) examined the age and gender effects on Israel's destination image and found that young males stronger connect Israel's image related to the political realities of the day, while young females are more likely to relate Israel to its spiritual and religious images. Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) which dealt with Australia's perceived image (studying different places), demonstrated that some areas' images are affected by tourists' gender and age, which were also considered the most significant factors.

On the other hand, Li & Yang (2015), in their study, did not find significant differences between males and females and destination image perception. Mahasuweerachai & Qu (2011), in their research (N=345), referring to Eureka Springs in Arkansas, USA, found that their destination image model was invariant across gender. Also, MacKay and Fessenmaier (1997) did not find that age affects perceived destination image based on visuals, but found gender does effect.

3.Research Methodology

An online questionnaire was utilized based on previous research (e.g., Chon, 1990; Gallarza et al., 2002; Pike, 2002; Tasci and Gartner, 2007). The questionnaire was distributed via Facebook and e-mail, employing a non-probability sampling method (convenience and snowball sampling), anonymity was ensured, and approval to use the data was

obtained. The research took place in 2019, over four months, and in this matter, 499 tourists participated. Data analysis involved frequencies, percentages, means, factor analysis with varimax rotation, independent samples t-test, and One Way Anova, with tests conducted at $\alpha=0.05$ level.

4. Findings and Analysis

4.1 Sample

Four hundred ninety-nine tourists participated in the research, of which 48.7% were females and 51.3% males, while age ranged from 18-64 years old with the mean age being 34.45 (SD=12.788). As to education, 43.7% had secondary education, 24.6% had post-secondary, and 31.7% had at least a bachelor's degree. As to marital status, 60.5% were single, divorced, or widowed, and 39.5% were married. Additionally, 51.7% were participants with a monthly salary (civil servants, private sector employees, laborers, or on a pension), 10.0% were businessmen, and 38.2% were dependent on others (housekeepers, university students, unemployed). Lastly, as to family net monthly income, 47.3% fell in the low-income category (up to 1000€), 28.7% fell in the 1000.01-2000.00€ category, and 24.0% had a net family monthly income of more than 2000.00 €.

4.2 Perceived Destination Image (RQ1-Aim of the Study)

Descriptive analysis, i.e., Mean Scores (MS), was performed to explore the evaluation of Drama's image as a destination based on 25 destination image components (Table 1). Results revealed that MS ranged between 2.96 to 3.73, with no MS > 4.00. Thus, most destination image components provided neither high nor low evaluation or a tendency towards a high evaluation of destination image (no item had MS > 4.51). The highest MS was associated with the statement: "Good climate and nature" (MS=3.73); "Beautiful locations and landscape" (MS= 3.67); and "Pleasant, interesting & fun place" (MS=3.57).

4.3 Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor analysis with Principal Component Analysis (Varimax rotation) produced four dimensions (Eigenvalues > 1.00) of destination image evaluation (KMO=.929; BTS=8099,576; df=253; Sig.=.000), accounting for 65.9% of the total variance (TV). No items were dropped due to double-loading or a low loading on the factor. For each factor, the Mean Factor Score (MFS) was calculated in order to proceed to further analysis. The first factor is named "Attractions and infrastructure" and has MFS= 3.49 (0.76), the second is named "Value for money and entertainment" and has MFS= 3.44 (0.81), the third is named "Clean and safe destination" and has MFS=3.26 (0.76). Lastly, the fourth is named "Wine tourism destination" and has MFS=3.43 (0.95).

Table 1: Factors, Factor Loadings, and MS

	Variable	Component & Loading on factor				MS
		1	2	3	4	
Q4_1	Good road network	.662				3.26
Q.4_2	Existence of suitable accommodation (hotels, rentals, etc.)	.722				3.35
Q.4_3	Variety & Quality of Attractions	.734				3.28
Q.4_4	Beautiful locations and landscape	.739				3.67
Q.4_5	Interesting historical & cultural sights	.784				3.36
Q.4_6	Variety & quality of festivals and events	.564				3.44
Q.4_7	Good climate and nature	.686				3.73
Q.4_9	Good nightlife		.630			3.45
Q.4_10	Variety & quality of restaurants		.646			3.56

Q.4._11	Pleasant, interesting&funplace		.670			3.57
Q.4._12	Cheap destination		.763			3.48
Q.4._13	Goodcost-benefitratio		.745			3.42
Q.4._14	Itofferstranquility		.632			3.58
Q.4._15	Citizen-friendly city (e.g., bike lanes, pedestrian streets, signs, etc.)		.615			3.33
Q.4._17	Security of things			.533		3.49
Q.4._18	Personalsafety			.775		3.37
Q.4._19	Clean city and area & Outdoor cleanliness and hygiene			.823		3.48
Q.4._20	It has a variety of shopping stores			.514		3.40
Q.4._21	Good architecture of the city			.581		3.07
Q.4._22	Sufficient accessibility facilities for disabled people (eg trolley ramps, hotel bathroom handles, etc.)			.596		2.96
Q.4._23	Haswell-knownwineries				.843	3.48
Q.4._24	It is a wine tourism center				.827	3.47
Q.4._25	It provides sufficient alternative tourism				.555	3.35

4.4 Hypotheses tests (RQ2 & RQ3)

The above-derived factors were continuously used in hypotheses tests. To define if there are differences between tourists' gender and age and their evaluation of the destination image of Drama, the hypothesis derived are:

H1= There are differences between tourists' gender and age and their evaluation of the destination image components of Drama. This hypothesis is presented statistically as:

H₁₀= There are no statistically significant differences between tourists' gender and age and their evaluation of the destination image components of Drama: "Attractions and infrastructure," "Value for money and entertainment," "Clean and safe destination" and "Wine tourism destination" (a=0.05).

H₁₁= There are statistically significant differences between tourists' gender and age, and their evaluation of the destination image components of Drama: "Attractions and infrastructure," "Value for money and entertainment," "Clean and safe destination" and "Wine tourism destination" (a=0.05).

In order to examine the above hypothesis, independent samples t-tests (for gender) and One Way Anova tests (for age) were performed. Table 2 presents the outcome of the t-tests and One Way Anova for the above hypothesis. In all cases, the tourists' gender and age are the independent variables, and the four abovementioned dimensions of the destination image are the dependent ones.

Table 2: Gender and Age Effects on Drama's Destination Image

Demographic characteristics	Destination image dimension	Df	F	p
Gender (t-test)	Mfs1	497	2.807	0.094
Gender (t-test)	Mfs2	497	19.247	0.000*
Gender (t-test)	Mfs3	497	9.853	0.002*
Gender (t-test)	Mfs4	497	0.890	0.765
Age (One Way Anova)	Mfs1	494	1.493	0.203
Age (One Way Anova)	Mfs2	494	1.651	0.160
Age (One Way Anova)	Mfs3	494	2.383	0.049
Age (One Way Anova)	Mfs4	494	2.703	0.030*

The above results reveal that gender affects the evaluation of destination image (Null hypothesis rejected), particularly of the second and third dimension of Drama's destination image. Specifically, in both cases, females are more satisfied with the two dimensions, compared to male participants. In particular, for the second dimension, "Value for money and entertainment," the male participants' mean score is MS= 3.34, and for the female ones MS= 3.54. In contrast, for the third dimension, "Clean and safe destination," the mean scores for male and female participants are MS=3.15 and MS= 3.35, respectively, revealing that females evaluate higher the image of Drama as compared to males.

Regarding age and evaluation of Drama's destination image (four dimensions), results indicate that the null hypothesis is rejected for the third and fourth dimensions, and thus age affects destination image evaluation. To explore the between-age group differences in the above two cases where the null hypothesis was rejected, multiple comparisons of means were performed. Table 3 displays the results of the multiple comparisons of means for the two constructs, using the post hoc Tuckey B comparisons test. In Table 3, each row with different letters beside the MS uncovers significant differences, starting with "a" for the highest MS. Therefore, numbers with the same letters in a row expose no statistical differences.

Table 3: Tuckey B test between Perceived Destination Image and Generational Cohorts

Constructs of Destination Image	1	2	3	4	5
Clean and safe destination	3.19b	3.23	3.26b	3.22b	3.617a
Wine tourism destination	3.27b	3.52a	3.37b	3.67a	3.52a

5. Discussion

This study dealt with destination image evaluation applying as a case study the city of Drama, Greece. Results reveal that high evaluation was not observed in all cases of the destination image components since no item was rated with an MS>4.00. This finding indicates that all components are considered weaknesses and must be dealt with to ensure higher evaluation by tourists (current or potential). Factor analysis grouped the 25 items into four dimensions, which were used for further analysis, revealing that gender and age affect some of Drama's destination image components.

Several studies agree that gender plays an important role in information processing (e.g., Lin, Huang and Chiang, 2008; Zhang, Cheung and Lee, 2014). A more detailed process is often adopted by females, who are more likely to trust online sellers and form a more favourable image (Zhang et al., 2014). Moreover, women are more likely to concentrate on negative information than men, who tend to focus on positive aspects.

Gender is also important in the product evaluation process. Women present a higher tendency towards repurchasing and show higher overall satisfaction levels (Homburg and Giering, 2001). In the fashion industry, a difference in consumption pattern is observed between men and women (Rocha, Hammond and Hawkins, 2005). More precisely, women appreciate product quality and product's physical traits more, compared to men (Li and Yang, 2015; Rocha, Hammond, and Hawkins, 2005).

This difference is also applied to the tourism industry and affects the destination's strategy and the selection of an effective communication mix (Beerli and Martin, 2004).

Demographics, such as age and gender, play an important role in the tourism industry (Prayag and Ryan, 2012). However, most of the studies that focus on the impact of demographics on the tourism industry are descriptive and do not provide a thorough depth (e.g., Lieux, Weaver and McCleary, 1994; McCleary, Weaver, and Lan, 1994). Moreover, studies that explore the impact of both age and gender are limited (Mahasuweerachai & Qu, 2011; Namkung & Jang, 2009). Most of these studies approach a particular age group and a gender segment as different populations (Oh, Parks and DeMico, 2002). Assaker et al. (2015) is one of the few studies which investigate the impact of age and gender on destination image simultaneously.

Younger tourists tend to visit more new destinations (Mahasuweerachai & Qu, 2011) compared to older individuals who prefer to revisit certain destinations and avoid new ones (Im, Bayus, and Mason, 2003). Consequently, novelty-

seeking is affected by age (Assaker and Hallak, 2013; Babu and Bibin, 2004). On the other hand, past studies do not agree on the influence of gender on destination selection, loyalty, or satisfaction (Namkung & Jang, 2009).

Destinations could collaborate with the media in order to build or retain a broadcast image. It is also essential that messages transmitted are aligned with reality since WOM is an effective and influential communication channel. If the form of the destination image does not match reality, then tourists will be dissatisfied and negative WOM will be spread (Beerli and Martin, 2004).

Although gender influences attitudes and behaviour, according to several marketing studies, it was found that it does not significantly affect the destination image (Li and Yang, 2015). As a result, marketers, and tourism professionals could promote a unified communication scheme, although emotional experience differences between men and women could be taken into consideration for ameliorating the relationships with tourists (Li and Yang, 2015).

6. Conclusions

This study dealt with destination image evaluation as well as age and gender effects on destination image evaluation, applying as a case study the city of Drama, Greece. Drama as a Greek destination does not enjoy the 3S of tourism. Hence, Drama should strengthen its image on other characteristics of the destination in order to enjoy other alternative forms of tourism. Results reveal that it is important for Drama's official to correct the issues of the destination components that need corrective actions. After these actions are applied, marketing communication is vital to communicate the attributes of the area. Digital communication channels are ideal in order to gain access to new generation tourists, such as generation Z tourists.

This research has unavoidable limitations that could be minimized with future research in the field. Due to time and money constraints, this research utilized a non-probability sampling method and domestic tourists, both leading to non-generalizability of results. It would be of interest to the destination image evaluation of international tourists visiting the area. It would be equally of interest a comparative study of domestic vs. international tourists' evaluation of Drama's destination image. Additionally, more components could be incorporated in the questionnaire, developing it as a more holistic one; though, in this study, the variables incorporated were the ones that informal discussions with tourists and citizens pointed out to the authors. Lastly, the most significant limitation refers to the year that the data was collected. This research was undertaken in 2019, before the Coronavirus crisis, which hit almost all countries globally and caused severe problems in the tourism industry. Future research referring to the aftermath of the coronavirus crisis and tourist destination evaluation could be significant.

Even though this study has the above limitations, it is considered essential for Drama's policymakers. It provides insight into the destination image that domestic tourists hold and may help in any future marketing communication campaigns and reforms.

References

- Assaker, G. and Hallak, R. (2013). Moderating effects of tourists' novelty-seeking tendencies on destination image, visitor satisfaction, and short-and long-term revisit intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(2): 600–613.
- Assaker, G., Hallak, R., Assaf, A. G. and Assad, T. (2015). Validating a structural model of destination image, satisfaction, and loyalty across gender and age: Multigroup analysis with PLS-SEM. *Tourism Analysis*, 20(6): 577-591.
- Babu, P. and Bibin, P. (2004). Past visits and the intention to revisit a destination: Place attachment as the mediator and novelty seeking as the moderator. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 15(2): 51–66.
- Baloglu, S. (1997). The relationship between destination images and sociodemographic and trip characteristics of international travelers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3(3): 221-233.
- Baloglu, S. and McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of tourism research*, 26(4): 868-897.
- Beerli, A. and Martín, J. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of tourism research*, 31: 657–681.
- Chen, P. J. and Kerstetter, D. L. (1999). International students' image of rural Pennsylvania as a travel destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(3): 256-266.
- Chen, C. F., and Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions?. *Tourism management*, 28(4), 1115-1122.
- Chi, C. G. Q. (2011). Destination loyalty formation and travelers' demographic characteristics: A multiple group analysis approach. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 35(2): 191-212.
- Chon, K. S. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: A review and discussion. *The Tourist Review*, 2: 2-9.
- Cohen, E. H. (2003). Images of Israel: A structural comparison along gender, ethnic, denominational and national lines. *Tourist Studies*, 3(3): 253-280.
- Cox, C. and Wray, M. (2011). Best practice marketing for regional tourism destinations. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, 28(5): 524-540.
- Dalimunthe, G. P., Suryana, Y., Kartini, D. and Sari, D. (2019). A Literature Review of Experience Quality, Destination Image, Perceived Value, Customer Engagement, and Behavior Intentions of Bali's Subak Visitors. *Global Business & Management Research*, 11(1): 177-185.
- Dündar, Y. and Güçer, E. (2015). The impact of socio-demographics on tourism destination image: a study in Ankara Turkey. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 3(2): 1-22.
- Echtner, C. M., and Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). The Measurement of Destination Image: An Empirical Assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(4), 3–13. doi:10.1177/004728759303100402
- Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G. and García, H. C. (2002). Destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1): 56–78.
- Greaves, N. and Skinner, H. (2010). The importance of destination image analysis to UK rural tourism. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 28(4): 486-507.
- Hahm, J. J., Tasci, A. D. and Terry, D. B. (2018). Investigating the interplay among the Olympic Games image, destination image, and country image for four previous hosts. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(6): 755-771.
- Hahm, J. J., Tasci, A. D. and Terry, D. B. (2019). The Olympic Games' impact on South Korea's image. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 14, 100373.
- Homburg, C. and Giering, A. (2001). Personal characteristics as moderators of the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty: an empirical analysis. *Psychology & Marketing*, 18: 43 – 66.
- Hunt, J.D. (1971). Image-A Factor in Tourism. Colorado State University, PhD thesis in Hunt, J.D. (1975), "Images as a Factor in Tourism Development", *Journal of Travel Research*, 13, Winter, pp. 1-7.
- Hunt, J.D. (1975), "Images as a Factor in Tourism Development", *Journal of Travel Research*, 13, Winter, pp. 1-7.

- Im, S., Bayus, B. L. and Mason, C. H. (2003). An empirical study of innate consumer innovativeness, personal characteristics, and new-product adoption behavior. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, 31(1): 61-73.
- Jeng, C. R., Snyder, A. T. and Chen, C. F. (2019). Importance–performance analysis as a strategic tool for tourism marketers: The case of Taiwan’s Destination Image. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 19(1): 112-125.
- Kamenidou, I., Mamalis, S. A., Kokkinis, G. and Geranis, C. (2013). Image components of nightlife-clubbing destinations. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 8(3): 99-111.
- Kamenidou, I., Mamalis, S. and Priporas, C. V. (2009). Measuring destination image and consumer choice criteria: The case of Mykonos Island. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 4(3): 67-79.
- Kim, W., Malek, K., Kim, N. and Kim, S. (2018). Destination personality, destination image, and intent to recommend: The role of gender, age, cultural background, and prior experiences. *Sustainability*, 10(1): 87.
- Kozak, M. (1999). Destination competitiveness measurement: Analysis of effective factors and indicators. *39th Congress of the European Regional Science Association: "Regional Cohesion and Competitiveness in 21st Century Europe"*, Dublin, Ireland. https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/114351/1/ERSA1999_a289.pdf
- Lee, C.-F. and King, B. (2006). Assessing Destination Competitiveness: An Application to the Hot Springs Tourism Sector. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, 3(3): 179–197.
- Li, J. J. and Yang, Y. B. (2015). Describing and testing gender as moderator: illustrated substantively with a hypothesized relation between image, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. *Anatolia*, 26(2): 258–268.
- Li, J. J., Ali, F. and Kim, W. G. (2015). Reexamination of the role of destination image in tourism: an updated literature review. *E-review of Tourism Research*, 12(3/4): 191-209.
- Lieux, E. M., Weaver, P. A. and McCleary, K. W. (1994). Lodging preferences of the senior tourism market. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(4): 712–718.
- Lin, M. Q., Huang, L. Q. and Chiang, Y. F. (2008). The moderating effects of gender roles on service emotional contagion. *The Service Industries Journal*, 28: 755–767.
- MacKay, K. and Fesenmaier, D. (1997). Pictorial element of destination in image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2): 537-565.
- MacKay, K.J. and Smith, M.C. (2006). Destination advertising: Age and format effects on memory. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(1): 7-24.
- Mahasuweerachai, P. and Qu, H. (2011). The moderating effects of tourists’ characteristics and novelty seeking on the relationships between satisfaction, revisit intention and WOM. *Paper presented at the 16th Graduate Students Research Conference*. http://media.bizwebmedia.net/sites/146527/upload/documents/24-satisfaction_and_revisit.pdf
- Martínez, S. C., & Alvarez, M. D. (2010). Country versus destination image in a developing country. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(7): 748-764.
- McCleary, K. W., Weaver, P. A. and Lan, L. (1994). Gender based differences in business travellers’ lodging preferences. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 35(2): 51–58.
- Michael, N., Reisinger, Y. and Hayes, J. P. (2019). The UAE's tourism competitiveness: A business perspective. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 30: 53-64.
- Molina, A., Gómez, M. and Martín-Consuegra, D. (2010). Tourism marketing information and destination image management. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(5): 722-728.
- Namkung, Y. and Jang, S. (2009). The effects of interactional fairness on satisfaction and behavioral intentions: Mature versus non-mature customers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28: 397–405.
- Oh, H., Parks, S. J. and DeMicco, F. J. (2002). Age and gender based market segmentation: A structural understanding. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 3: 1–21.

- Perles-Ribes, J. F., Ramón-Rodríguez, A. B., Moreno-Izquierdo, L. and Such-Devesa, M. J. (2019). Online Reputation and Destination Competitiveness: The Case of Spain. *Tourism Analysis*, 24(2): 161-176.
- Pike, S. (2002). Destination image analysis—a review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism management*, 23(5): 541-549.
- Piramanayagam, S., Rathore, S., and Seal, P. P. (2020). Destination image, visitor experience, and behavioural intention at heritage centre. *Anatolia*, 31(2): 211-228.
- Prayag, G. and Ryan, C. (2012). Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to Mauritius: The role and influence of destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(3): 342–356.
- Rocha, M. A., Hammond, L. and Hawkins, D. (2005). Age, gender and national factors in fashion consumption. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 9: 380–390.
- Ruiz, E. C., González, G. B. and Zamora, D. T. (2018). Destination image, satisfaction and destination loyalty in cruise tourism: the case of Malaga (Spain). *Tourism & Management Studies*, 14(1): 58-68.
- Şahbaz, R. P. and Kılıçlar, A. (2009). FilmlerinveTelevizyonDizilerininDestinasyonİmajınaEtkileri. *İşletmeAraştırmalarıDergisi*, 1(1): 31-52.
- Tasci, A. D. and Gartner, W. C. (2007). Destination image and its functional relationships. *Journal of travel research*, 45(4): 413-425.
- Terzidou, M., Styliadis, D. and Terzidis, K. (2018). The role of visual media in religious tourists' destination image, choice, and on-site experience: the case of Tinos, Greece. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(3): 306-319.
- Vinyals-Mirabent, S. (2019). European urban destinations' attractors at the frontier between competitiveness and a unique destination image. A benchmark study of communication practices. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 12: 37-45.
- Walmsley, D. J. and Jenkins, J. M. (1993). Appraisive images of tourist areas: Application of personal construct. *Australian Geographer*, 24(2): 1-13.
- Wang, C., Qu, H. and Hsu, M. K. (2016). Toward an integrated model of tourist expectation formation and gender difference. *Tourism Management*, 54: 58-71.
- Zhang, Z. K., Cheung, M. K. and Lee, K. O. (2014). Examining the moderating effect of inconsistent reviews and its gender differences on consumers' online shopping decision. *International Journal of Information Management*, 34: 89 – 98.

A two-sided analysis of the effects of technological changes in the hospitality service experience

Kitti Hiezl¹, Szilvia Kardos²

¹University of Pannonia, Hungary

ORCID: 0000-0001-8338-4676

E-mail: hiezl.kitti@gtk.uni-pannon.hu

²Eötvös Loránd University, Hungary

ORCID: N/A

E-mail: kardos.mimi975@gmail.com

Abstract

Given the changes introduced because of Covid – 19, many service providers are changing to touch-free options in the areas where they usually have personal encounter moments with their customers. We analysed the attitude of both hotel employees and guests towards new technology. The goal is to identify the different generations' reactions to technological change, employees' attitudes towards work, and the guest's attitude towards the hotel after new technology was introduced. After identifying critical inclusion factors in the chosen location (Lake Balaton, Hungary), 13 hotels fit our requirements, from which nine were ready to cooperate. Data from the receptionist were then collected via an online survey (N=20). The second stage was a narrative interview with two general managers in the region, where the findings were introduced and discussed. Finally, an online questioner was sent out to the general public via a social media platform to investigate the potential guest's reaction to new technology. (N=457). Younger employees who use more technological devices are quicker to adapt to new technology at the workplace. In contrast, employees who use fewer devices in their personal lives (tend to be members of the older Generation) will need more time adapting to technological changes. In the case of the guests, older generations were showing a negative attitude towards technological changes.

Keywords: Technology, Adaptation, Employee, Guest, Attitude

1. Introduction

Hotels must stay resilient if they want to stay relevant regardless of the new norm brought by the Covid-19 pandemic. The essential characteristic of good hotel service is high-level personalised services, and its key is face to face encounters and a high level of guest care. In today's environment, more and more companies are introducing contactless or automated low-contact devices to engage guests. They are trying to navigate the challenges of the pandemic and regulations put in place. (Koumelis, 2020; Kühtreiber, 2020; Indra, 2021). The advantages of contactless experiences may outweigh the benefits of face-to-face experiences, but a guest's unfamiliarity with such technology can cause a negative guest experience as the different generations to have different levels of technological adaptivity (McCrinkle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014; Sima, 2016; Fox and Connolly, 2018). Such change is challenging for the guests and the employees of the hotel operating the device. The employee attitude towards change, technology and work can be influenced by the perceived usefulness of the technology and the ease of use (Davis, 1989, Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020), and this can have a more significant impact on the company. (Brown et al., 2002)

2. Literature Review

2.1 Employee attitude to technological change

New technology introduction in the workplace and its impacts have been studied for several decades (Davis, 1989; Orlikowski, 1992, Hadadd, 1996), including studies from business and strategic information systems (Matt et al., 2015) and human resources (Bondarouk et al., 2017) as new technology is entering in a wider variety of industries

and occupations. Specifically, the change in employee attitudes has been in focus within sectors like automotive engineering and manufacturing (Chao and Kozlowski, 1986; Haddad, 1996), service sectors (Di Pietro et al., 2014), media and libraries (Karimi and Walter, 2015), financial services (Veiga et al., 2014) among others. One of the main differentiators of hotels will be innovative technologies that will move the industry forward through the twenty-first century (Bilgihan, Smith, Ricci and Bujisic, 2021) and employees' readiness to change and attitude will be critical (Bercovitz and Feldman, 2008).

Technological change is essential, but hard to predict the risks. Employees are resistant to change (Zhu, 2015; Horvát and Szabó, 2019), and most employees fear future changes (Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020). Usually, the employee has no choice but to accept the changing technology as it happens regardless of their will. However, the change perception will affect attitudes toward technology and can have other impacts on the company. (Brown et al., 2002) Technology usage and long-term perceptions of work will influence employees' present perception of job insecurity. (Nam, 2019). Existing research on individual and organisational behaviour shows that employee reactions to technology can differ according to the positions in the organisation, skill levels (Chao and Kozlowski, 1986), and the degree of autonomy and control employees has over the work (Hackman, 1981). Those with higher job involvement will have favourable attitudes toward the new technology (Martin, 1988).

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), a framework to measure changes in attitude, implies that attitudes predict technology usage by the perceived usefulness of technology and perceived ease of use (Davis, 1989). Hence, technology must be easy to use or understand, as fears of a future where one's contribution will be irrelevant will severely impact the individual employee (Kapeliushnikov, 2017). People with a negative perception of the future will easily feel threatened by any change, while people with a positive view are more likely to embrace the change and find a new role for themselves (Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020). When an employee opens up to the opportunity of the new system, the implementation will be quicker, and the perception of the adoption of new technology will be better (Veiga et al., 2014). Those who had their views about the technology considered and got advance notification had a more positive attitude towards technological change. (Haddad, 1996) Although, it is still a question if the new technology will fit the employee and the tasks employees perform. This fit will influence employees' attitudes and technology adoption (Lam et al., 2007). Those employees who use specific devices with confidence will think that a device is a relevant tool for performing their work better and helps to have better job performance. (Jeong and Nagesvaran, 2016; Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020)

2.2 Guests and technology

The tourist experience is changed by technology (Neuhofer et al., 2014). In the case of Japan, one of the primary guest experiences is interaction with robots; however, non-Japanese reviews valued the functional and technical aspects of the services. (Choi, Choi, Oh and Kim, 2019) Devices with perceived privacy and functional benefit can positively influence consumers' attitudes towards adoption of technological service (such as self-service technology). (Lin and Mattila, 2021) The perceived performance stability is higher when a robot or device provides the service (Belanche et al. 2020), but even though the high-level intellectual experience from robots means a lower level of affective experience. (Chan and Tung, 2019)

A more crowded destination is proven to motivate tourists to favour robot or device provided services rather than human staff (Hou, Zhang and Li, 2021). Still, at the same time, guests are more accepting of technological devices, in budget hotels, than in luxury hotels. (Chan and Tung, 2019). In the service performance, there is more responsibility on humans than robots and devices. When a mistake occurs, customers will blame the hotel rather than the technology. (Belanche et al. 2020) This brings many challenges for the hotels as new technology could significantly influence hotel guests' overall satisfaction. The guest reaction to technology will directly determine future behaviours, such as revisit intention (Cobanoglu et al., 2011). Travellers who are using a similar digital device to what they encounter in the hotel will be influenced by their perception of the device's technological value (Wang, 2019); if they know how to use it, they will accept it more. However, there is proof that many older adults resist the adoption of digital technology, leading to an age-based digital divide. (Fox and Connolly, 2018)

2.3 Generations attitude towards technology

The employer needs to understand that generations are different as it is the basis of workplace conflict (McCrinkle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014). According to Mannheim (1952), an age group can be considered a generation if it has internal inner generational characteristics. There are different theories as to what is the border of given generations (Oh and Reeves, 2011; Howe and Strauss, 2005; Lancaster and Stillman, 2010; Martin and Tulgan, 2002; Oblinger and Oblinger, 2005), but generally, the members of a given generational group have the same base experiences (Thuma, 2014).

Generational differences in value and generic attitude are well established (Cogin, 2012; Lyons and Kuron, 2014; Mannheim, 1952; Murphy, Gibson, and Greenwood, 2010; Twenge and Campbell, 2008), these differences can affect how a company deals with change, motivate and manage employees, boost productivity and service effectiveness. (Jifi, 2016) The labour market includes four generations today; the Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z. As the different generations function in the workplace differently, the employer has to differentiate how they train such employees or what way, if at all, they introduce new technology. Baby Boomers and Generation X finds working conditions, security, co-workers, and certainty necessary (Lyons and Kuron, 2013), while for Generation Y and Generation Z, it is not only about work but also about fun, personal development, social connection, greater fulfillment, and even environmental sustainability (McCrindle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014). Generation influences work values more so than does age. (Hansen & Leuty, 2012) While Boomers are motivated by financial security and responsibility, Generation X will focus on career progression and opportunity while Generation Y will care about job variety and creativity (McCrindle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014). Each Generation will have a different learning preference (Mannheim, 1952; Notarianni et al., 2009; Sanchez & Kaplan, 2014) as well as a different attitude toward learning new technologies (Geisen, 2009). It is also recommended to have a unique education design for older generations. (Fox and Connolly, 2018)

Older generations are less technologically adapted (Oblinger and Oblinger, 2005; McCrindle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014). They will be less familiar with the new technology introduced in the hotel, therefore, also have a more negative attitude toward such change (Davis, 1989; Lam et al., 2007; Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020).

H1a. Which generation group the employee belongs to is a significant predictor of work attitude. Members of the older generations have a lower work attitude following the technological change than younger generations.

As younger Generations are more technologically adapted (McCrindle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014; Fox and Connolly, 2018; Ng et al., 2019), they will be more familiar with technology and, hence, have a more positive attitude toward the change. (Davis, 1989; Veiga et al. 2014; Jeong and Nagesvaran, 2016; Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020).

H1b. Members of the younger generations perceive the new system as being better than older generations.

As guests, Baby Boomers will prefer face-to-face contact and look for safety and security in the hotel. (Sima, 2016) Generation X is tolerant and values individuality; usually, they have realistic expectations (Fitzpatrick, 2005). Generation Y and Generation Z are often combined as they share many characteristics. Both Generations are savvy with technology, but Generation Z will show substantial consumer-oriented differences from Generation Y (Wood, 2013). Generation Z customers prefer innovative solutions, high usefulness, reliable benefits and a fun experience. (Ng et al., 2019)

As older generations look for more face-to-face encounters and are less technologically adapted (McCrindle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014; Sima, 2016), they likely to react negatively to the new technology (Davis, 1989, Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020; Cobanoglu et al., 2011), while the more tech-savvy generations (Wood, 2013) might recognise the new devices or find them similar to their own, having a more positive attitude towards the new devices. (Davis, 1989; Veiga et al. 2014; Jeong and Nagesvaran, 2016; Wang, 2019; Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020)

H2a. After experiencing technological change, members of the older Generation have a more negative reaction than younger generations.

H2b. After experiencing technological change, members of the younger generations have a more positive reaction than older generations.

H3a. Which generation group the guest belongs to is a significant predictor in attitude. Members of the older generations have more negative attitudes than younger generations.

H3b. Which generation group the guest belongs to is a significant predictor in attitude. Members of the younger generations have a more positive attitude than older generations.

Based on Wang (2019) and Bagrationi and Thurner (2020), those who understand or are familiar with a technological device will have higher perceived usefulness associated with it. Based on that, we hypothesized that those who have experienced self-service systems before will have a better attitude towards service systems because they are already familiar with them.

H4. Those with previous experience with self-service systems have a more positive attitude than those without.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Measures

Multiple item scales were developed to measure employees' work attitude after the change (WAA), how they perceived the work during the previous system (WDPS), and the new systems perceived effects (NSE). Respondents used a 5-point Likert scale where response categories were: 5 = "strongly agree", 4 = "agree", 3 = "neutral", 2 = "disagree", and 1 = "strongly disagree". Positively and negatively worded statements were mixed to minimise the possibility of questionnaire bias. The Cronbach alpha reliability estimate of the work attitude scale was .855, the new systems perceived effects .623 and perceived work during the previous system .934. (Table 1.)

The Cronbach alpha reliability estimate of the NSE gave low alfa, but between 0.6-0.7, it can be accepted (Ursachi, Horodnic and Zait, 2015) .623 is moderate (Taber, 2017) reliability. Small sample size can affect the alfa level. In this instance, we will accept the .623 alfa.

Table 1. Scale development for employee attitude

Construct and measurement items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Work Attitude After Change - Cronbach's Alpha .855		
Since the introduction of new technology, I'm anxious when I think of my job*	3.4	1.10
It took a long time to get used to the new system*	3.7	1.38
Since the introduction of new technology, I don't feel competent enough to handle the new system*	3.9	1.37
Since the introduction of new technology, I often have to ask for help to do my job successfully*	3.7	1.22
I want to go back to the old system*	3.7	1.22
Since the introduction of new technology, there are tasks that are difficult to perform*	3.8	1.16
Since the introduction of new technology, each workflow has become significantly shorter	2.9	1.31
Since the new technology guest reviews are better	2.5	1.05
Since the introduction of new technology, the execution of individual tasks has been smoother	3.2	1.32
Since the introduction of new technology, I have shown more interest in my work	2.8	1.15
New System Perceived Effects - Cronbach's Alpha .623		
The introduction of new technology did not particularly affect me	3.1	1.36

I was glad for the introduction of the new technology because we replaced the old one	2.7	1.3
The introduction of the new system caused more stress than usual	2.65	1.09
Work During the Previous System - Cronbach's Alpha .934		
Before the new technology, each workflow was lengthy	3.0	1.03
Before the new technology, the booking system was difficult to manage	2.9	0.93

The independent variable is Generation (G). As established in the literature, there are many different generational theories. However, one of the best-known divisions in Hungary was published by Kulcsár (2010); therefore, we based the grouping on the same generation theory.

Following the conduction and analyses of the employee questionnaire, two in-depth interviews were conducted with general hotel managers in the region to validate our findings. One hotel was a five-star hotel with more than 100 rooms, while the other was a three-star hotel with less than 50 rooms.

Multiple item scales were also developed to measure guests' reactions and attitudes toward new technology for the public. Respondents used a 5-point Likert, and the response categories were the same as the hotel survey. Positively and negatively worded statements were mixed to minimise the possibility of questionnaire bias. First, we used principal component analysis to measure if we have four separate factors. For this analysis, the positive attitude and reaction items were reverse coded. We concluded that we could continue with four scales (KMO=.862). We have used Cronbach's Alpha for the reliability test, and all four scales yielded an acceptable level Alpha coefficient. (Table 2.)

Table 2. Scale development for guests

Construct and measurement items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Positive Reaction - Cronbach's Alpha .872		
I was glad they finally replaced the old system	3.6	1.19
The processes become smoother	3.8	1.18
The processes have become significantly shorter.	3.8	1.08
I felt the service was much better.	3.4	1.21
Negative Reaction - Cronbach's Alpha .863		
It took a long time to get used to the new system.	2.4	1.32
I didn't feel competent enough to handle the new system.	2.2	1.37
I had to ask for help several times to be able to use the device successfully.	2.1	1.27
I want to return to the old system.	2.1	1.34
There are processes that would be difficult to perform if I had to use the device again	2.3	1.27
Negative Attitude - Cronbach's - Alpha .804		
I'll be nervous because I don't know how to use it.	2.4	1.35

I expect a hotel employee to be present and operate the device for me.	2.5	1.39
I would not feel competent enough to handle the new system.	2.2	1.36
If I knew that such a system had been introduced in the hotel I had booked, I would cancel the reservation.	1.7	1.27
I am willing to use such technological tools during the pandemic, but afterwards, I want to return to the old human interactions (contact, connection).	3.3	1.49
I would prefer personal interaction regardless of the pandemic	2.9	1.39
Attitude positive - Cronbach's Alpha .729		
My opinion of the hotel is positively affected if I can check-in or book contactless (from now on)	3.2	1.37
If I know that such a system has been introduced somewhere, I will book there.	2.5	1.24
Self-registration systems may remain after a pandemic.	3.3	1.33

The independent variable is "generation" (G) and "previous experience" (P.E.). The variable "previous experience" was created from "yes" responses to questions if they had experience with hotel kiosk/self-check-in system, in restaurants self-order via kiosks or tablets or self-check-in or luggage check at an airport or any other devices.

The Mann-Whitney test was used to test hypotheses H1a. and H1b. because the sample is small (N=20) and not normally distributed. (McKnight and Najab, 2010)

To find the differences in positive and negative reaction H2a. and H2b. and positive and negative attitude H3a. and H3b., One-Way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) was used, independent Samples T-test was applied for analysing previous experiences effects on a positive and negative attitude.

4.2 Sample

The focus of the research was the Lake Balaton touristic region which, from its number two positions, became the most visited touristic region in Hungary in 2020 caused by the Covid-19 regulations. While the Budapest and Central Danubian Region went from 12.268.392 guest nights in 2019 to 3.126.633 guest nights in 2020, the Lake Balaton Region could realise 3.428.210 guest nights in 2020 (KSH.hu). The guest nights 65% were realised in hotels, the most, 57%- of the hotels with rating were 4-star hotels. The number of 4-star hotels in the region is 31 while the number of hotels in Lake-site towns are 16. The most guest night was realised in hotels directly at the Lake. These hotels were chosen because the category is the most popular in the region based on guest nights spent in 2020. With the help of the Hungarian Hotel, starts union website (Hotelstars. hu, 2021), contacts were collected and an invitation e-mail describing the study's purpose, and the survey link was sent to the hotel's Front Office Manager, and we asked them to share it with their front office employees. We have also asked if they had some technological change in the past three years. Two reminder e-mails were sent to the hotels during the two-month survey periods from November 1 through December 1, 2020. An online survey was constructed and designed on LimeSurvey. Some of the hotels declined participation (N=3), did not have a technological change in the past years (N=5) or have not responded to our request. The total numbers of hotel participants were 9. Unfortunately, because the hotels were closed as per government regulations in this period, the number of available employees was limited. (N=20).

The interviews were conducted via convenience sampling with two General managers in the region. One was the manager of a five-star hotel, while the other managed a three-star hotel. The in-depth interviews were conducted via Zoom. The narrative question, "please, tell us about your experience with introducing new technology in your hotel", was followed by structured questions regarding the findings of the employee questioner. We asked them to validate our findings and our guest survey.

The second tail of the research was the guest side. We focused on guests that would visit the Lake Balaton region. The online survey was shared in social media groups focusing on visiting the Lake Balaton region and accommodations in the region. We have shared in a total of 6 online groups. The questionnaire was started 927 times, of which 457 was acceptable.

5. Findings and Analysis

5.1 Demographical characteristics

Most of the participants from hotel reception were women (85%), averaging 34,4 years old, the youngest being 20 and the oldest being 59. They were coded into three categories Generation X (N=7), Generation Y (N=9), and Generation Z (N=4).

In the case of the potential guest, most of the participants were women (74,6%), on average 38 years old, the youngest participant being 18, and the oldest participant being 76 years old. They were coded into four categories Baby Boomers (N=77), Generation X (N=114), Generation Y (N=143), and Generation Z (N=123). The majority of the participants has no experience with self-service devices, as 67.6% have not met self-check-in reception, tablet-based ordering at a restaurant or self-check-in luggage at an airport or other.

5.2 Test of Hypothesis

Test of hypothesis H1a. and H1b. Mann-Whitney test was used. The generations were compared one by one. There was no difference between Generation Z and Y in any of the variables, but "work attitude" ranked higher in the case of Generation Z than X ($p=0,024$), and Generation Y ranked higher than X ($p=0,025$). In the case of WPS and NSE, there is no difference between the generations. This result means that H1a. can be accepted while H1b. is not accepted.

Table 3. Mann-Whitney test

		Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]
WPS	Gen Z - Y	.463	.503
	Gen Z - X	.515	.527
	Gen Y - X	.906	.918
WAA	Gen Z - Y	1.000	.940
	Gen Z - X	.024	.024
	Gen Y - X	.025	.023
NSE	Gen Z - Y	.267	.260
	Gen Z - X	.385	.412
	Gen Y - X	.867	.837

Table 4. Mean Rank pair by pair comparison.

	Generation	Mean Rank
WPS	Gen Z	5.75
	Gen Y	7.56
	Gen X	6.5
WPS	Gen Z	5.13
	Gen Y	8.61
	Gen X	8.79
WAA	Gen Z	7.25
	Gen Y	6.89

WAA		
	Gen Z	9.00
	Gen X	4.29
WAA		
	Gen Y	10.83
	Gen X	5.5
NSE		
	Gen Z	7.25
	Gen X	5.29
NSE		
	Gen Y	8.28
	Gen X	8.79
NSE		
	Gen Z	8.88
	Gen Y	6.17

After the first analyses, interviews were conducted with General Managers. The interviewees had different opinions regarding introducing technological innovation at the hotel. While both agreed that new technology could help, and make the working processes quicker, the initiative yielded different results. However, both hotels had a similar case of introducing a new device and method for the housekeeping department to make communication and administration easier.

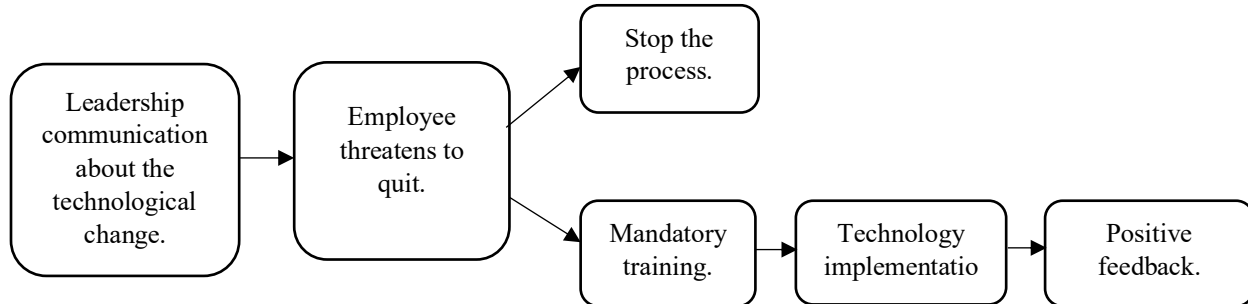


Figure 1. New technology implementation process

The process started the same way by communicating the plan to the housekeeping department and encountered the same problem as the employees threatened to quit the job in both hotels. (Figure 1) However, the three-star hotel did not accept the threat and introduced mandatory training to the employee that lasted for several weeks. They emphasised the need to make the employee understand how the device works and the benefits of using it. The technology was finally implemented, and the employees had good feedback on the device. The general manager is confident that implementing other technology in the future will be as successful. The five-star hotel is more sceptical, and things that implement new technology can only happen if it is utmost necessary.

The five-star hotel is reluctant to introduce new devices for guest use as not only the employee who has to operate it reacts negatively to it but the guests too. Their 60+-year-old clientele is not open to technological devices either. In implementing tablet-based menus, as they are easier to disinfect and need less contact with the employee, 90% of the guests requested the paper menus. These and similar experiences affect the leadership to introduce change.

To test hypothesis two and three, One-Way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) was used. In the case of those who encountered self-service technology (N=147), "negative reaction" differs between the generations ($p=0.042$), but there is no difference when it comes to "positive reactions". (Table 5) In the case of attitude (N=456), there is a difference

between "negative attitude" ($p=0.000$) between the generations, but no significant difference was found in the case of "positive attitude". Therefore, H2b and H3b is rejected.

Table 5. One-Way Analyses of Variance.

	F	Sig.
Negative Reaction (N=147)	2.803	.042
Positive Reaction (N=147)	1.135	.337
Negative Attitude (N=456)	9.353	.000
Positive Attitude (N=456)	.923	.429

To distinguish the group(s) causing these differences, LSD post hoc tests were utilised. The highest mean difference is between Generation Y and Baby Boomers (Mena Difference -.60225) and Generation Z and Baby Boomers (Mean Difference -.56420). (Table 6)

The LSD shows that in "negative reaction", there is only a difference ($p=0.005$) between Generation Y and X where Generation X has the more negative reaction. Therefore, H2a can be partially accepted. In "negative attitude", there is a significant difference between every group except Generation Z and Y. The older generations always score higher on the "negative attitude" scale than the Generation before them. As Wood (2013) concluded, Generation Y and Generation Z are often combined as they share many characteristics, especially when it comes to technological adaptability, which can be the reason why the two generations are not showing any differences. H3a can be accepted.

Table 6. Post hoc LSD

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I - J)	Sig.
Negative Reaction				
	Generation Y	Generation X	-.70126	.005
Negative Attitude				
	Generation Z	Generation X	-.26239	.025
		Baby Boomers	-.56420	.000
	Generation Y	Generation X	-.30045	.008
		Baby Boomers	-.60225	.000
	Generation X	Baby Boomers	-.30181	.023

The results also support the fourth hypothesis that previous experience with self-service systems will positively affect employees' attitudes toward new technology. Those with prior experience have a lower mean "negative attitude" and a higher mean "positive attitude". (Table 7)

Table 7. Previous experience with self-service technology

	Previous Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Negative Attitude	No	309	2.5479	.87809	.04995
	Yes	148	2.2654	.97533	.08017
Positive Attitude	No	309	2.8813	1.07792	.06132
	Yes	148	3.2432	.98943	.08133

Independent Samples T-test was applied; both variables show a significant difference between the groups. Those who had previous experience with self-check-in technology score significantly lower (mean difference = .28241) on the "negative attitude" scale, while they score significantly higher (mean difference = -.36191) on the "positive attitude" scale. (Table 8)

Table 8. Independent Samples T-test

Negative Attitude			Positive Attitude	
Equal Variances assumed	Equal Variances not assumed		Equal Variances assumed	Equal Variances not assumed
3,102	2,990	t	-3.447	-3.553
.003	.003	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000
.28241	.28241	Mean Difference	-.36191	-.36191

Further insights into this finding were taken from the multiple analysis of variance results presented in Table 9. G* P.E. yielded a significant difference between the generation groups with previous experience in the case of "negative attitude" (p=0.039). Still, there was no difference between generation groups with previous experience "positive attitude" (p=0.727), based on MANOVA pairwise comparison.

Table 9. MANOVA pairwise comparison

		(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I - J)	Sig.
Negative Attitude					
	Generation Y	Previous experience	No previous experience	-.344	.022
	Baby Boomers	Previous experience	No previous experience	-.515	.035
Positive Attitude					
	Generation Y	Previous experience	No previous experience	.462	.000

While having experience with self-service technology was found to affect attitude significantly positively, it is not the case when we look at the generations separately. Interestingly members of Generation Z who had previous experience with self-service systems have a higher mean (mean=2.432) than those who had no prior experience in this group (mean= 2.243). (Figure 2)

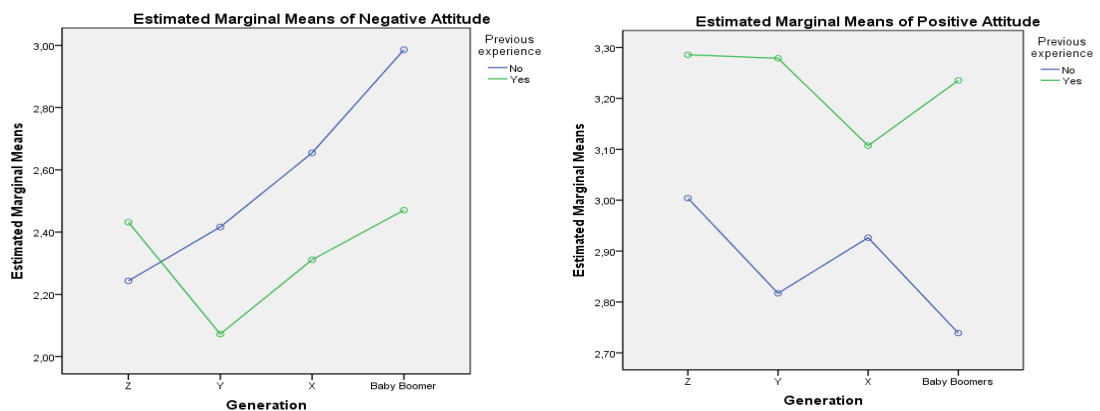


Figure 2. Attitude by Generations

6. Discussion

The different generations have different values and different attitudes towards technology (Cogin, 2012; Lyons and Kuron, 2014; Mannheim, 1952; Murphy, Gibson, and Greenwood, 2010; Twenge and Campbell, 2008; Geisen, 2009; McCrindle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014; Fox and Connolly, 2018). The differences must be considered when introducing new technology (Jiří, 2016) as it affects attitude towards work (Chao and Kozlowski, 1986; Haddad, 1996; Di Pietro et al., 2014; Karimi and Walter, 2015; Veiga et al., 2014; Bercovitz and Feldman, 2008). Most employees fear future changes (Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020). Different factors like the positions in the organisation, skill levels (Chao and Kozlowski, 1986) and the degree of freedom in work (Hackman, 1981) had been researched; however, distinguishing generations and their attitude in the touristic scenario is not a well-researched topic. Davis (1989) says that the perceived usefulness of technology and ease of use will indicate technology acceptance; therefore, younger employees who are more technologically savvy (Wood, 2013) will quickly adapt to new technology. They will become those who use devices with confidence, believing that the device is a relevant tool for performing their work better (Jeong and Nagesvaran, 2016; Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020).

Table 10. Table of Hypothesis

	Hypothesis	Test used	Result	Accept / Reject
H1a	Which generation group the employee belongs to is a significant predictor of work attitude. Members of the older generations have a lower work attitude following the technological change than younger generations.	Mann-Whitney test	“work attitude” ranks higher; Gen Z than X (p=0,024) Gen Y than X (p=0,025).	Accepted
H1b	Members of the younger generations perceive the new system as being better than older generations.	Mann-Whitney test	No significant difference between groups.	Rejected
H2a	After experiencing technological change, members of the older Generation have a more negative reaction than younger generations.	One-Way ANOVA LSD post hoc	There is significant "negative reaction" differences between the group (p =.042) There is a significant difference between Generation Y and Generation X (p = .005)	Partially Accepted
H2b	After experiencing technological change, members of the younger generations have more positive reactions than older generations.	One-Way ANOVA LSD post hoc	No significant difference between the means "positive reactions."	Rejected
H3a	Which generation group the guest belongs to is a significant predictor in attitude. Members of the older generations have more negative attitudes than younger generations	One-Way ANOVA LSD post hoc	There is significant difference between "negative attitude" (p=0.000)	Accepted
H3b	Which generation group the guest belongs to is a significant predictor in attitude. Members of	One-Way ANOVA	No significant difference in the case of "positive attitude".	Rejected

	the younger generations have a more positive attitude than older generations.	LSD post hoc		
H4	Previous experience with self-service systems will positively affect employees' attitudes toward new technology	Independent Samples T-test	There is a significant difference between the groups in both positive and negative attitude	Accepted

Our findings prove that there is a difference in "work attitude" between Generation Z ($p=0,024$), and Generation Y ($p=0,025$) ranked higher than X. There was no difference between Z and Y. As Wood (2013) said, these two generations have many similarities in case of technology. We found no statistically significant difference when it comes to NSE and WPS.

Generational differences also affect the hotel when it comes to the guest. Older generations prefer face-to-face encounters, while younger generations are looking for a unique experience. (McCrindle, Wolfinger and Salt, 2014; Sima, 2016) Therefore as a guest, we hypothesized that the older Generation would have a more negative reaction towards new technology as they are not as tech-savvy (Davis, 1989; Wood, 2013; Veiga et al. 2014; Jeong and Nagesvaran, 2016; Wang, 2019; Bagrationi and Thurner, 2020).

We found that older generations have a more negative reaction and attitude towards technology (H2a. and H3a.). Generation Y and X had a significant difference in their reaction to self-service devices, but all generations had a worse attitude towards technology than the Generation before them, except Generation Z and Y, where we found no difference (Wood, 2013). There is no significant difference between generations in positive reaction and attitude (H2b. and H3b.)

Finally, those who used a similar device before having higher perceived usefulness attached to the device (Wang, 2019); we found that those who had previous experience with self-service systems had a more positive attitude than those who had not yet used such technology.

7. Conclusions

Generational difference is a good predictor in judging how the guest and employee of a hotel will react to technology implementation. Previous experience with technological devices helps ease prejudice, but hotels cannot predict which guest had experienced self-service systems before. As the results show in the older generations' case, self-service technology and technology-based changes caused a significantly more negative attitude than in the younger generations. Hotel's with an elder clientele have to keep in mind that their guest wants a face-to-face encounter and will have an adverse reaction and attitude towards the change that will affect the guest willingness to return. Those hotels with a younger clientele can expect a less negative response and attitude and implement it more easily. However, we could not find a relationship between positive attitudes and generations; therefore, they cannot use technology as a tempting offer for younger generations.

Also, it is not enough for the guest to be willing to use the technology; the hotels need to make sure that their employee understands the technology. Technology that is perceived as unnecessary will cause a negative attitude in older generations. The results of this research must be weighed against the limitations of a single touristic region. Moreover, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, a limited number of employees participated in the survey. Still, the robustness of the empirical findings and their validation by the qualitative evidence suggests that they are not the exception to the rule. This study advances our understanding of how the Covid-19 inspired technological change will affect those who will have to interact with it.

References

- Bagrationi, K., & Thurner, T. (2020). Using the future time perspective to analyse resistance to, and readiness for, change. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 42(1), 262-279. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-04-2018-0113>
- Bejtkovsky, J. (2016). The Employees of Baby Boomers Generation, Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z in Selected Czech Corporations as Conceivers of Development and Competitiveness in their Corporation. *Journal Of Competitiveness*, 8(4), 105-123. <https://doi.org/10.7441/joc.2016.04.07>
- Belanche, D., Casalo, L., & Flavián, C. (2019). Customer's Acceptance of Humanoid Robots in Services: The Moderating Role of Risk Aversion. *Marketing And Smart Technologies*, 449-458. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-1564-4_42
- Bercovitz, J., & Feldman, M. (2021). Academic Entrepreneurs: Organizational Change at the Individual Level. Retrieved May 28 2021.
- Bilgihan, A., Smith, S., Ricci, P., & Bujisic, M. (2021). Hotel guest preferences of in-room technology amenities. Retrieved May 28 2021.
- Bondarouk, T., Parry, E., & Furtmueller, E. (2016). Electronic HRM: four decades of research on adoption and consequences. *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 28(1), 98-131. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1245672>
- Brown, S., Massey, A., Montoya-weiss, M., & Burkman, J. (2002). Do I really have to? User acceptance of mandated technology. *European Journal Of Information Systems*, 11(4), 283-295. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.ejis.3000438>
- Chan, A., & Tung, V. (2019). Examining the effects of robotic service on brand experience: the moderating role of hotel segment. *Journal Of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 36(4), 458-468. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2019.1568953>
- Chao, G., & Kozlowski, S. (1986). Employee perceptions on the implementation of robotic manufacturing technology. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 71(1), 70-76. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.1.70>
- Chao, G., & Kozlowski, S. (1986). Employee perceptions on the implementation of robotic manufacturing technology. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 71(1), 70-76. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.1.70>
- Choi, Y., Choi, M., Oh, M., & Kim, S. (2019). Service robots in hotels: understanding the service quality perceptions of human-robot interaction. *Journal Of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 29(6), 613-635. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2020.1703871>
- Cobanoglu, C., Berezina, K., Kasavana, M., & Erdem, M. (2011). The Impact of Technology Amenities on Hotel Guest Overall Satisfaction. *Journal Of Quality Assurance In Hospitality & Tourism*, 12(4), 272-288. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008x.2011.541842>
- Cogin, J. (2012). Are generational differences in work values fact or fiction? Multi-country evidence and implications. *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 23(11), 2268-2294. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.610967>
- Davis, F. (1989). Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of Use, and User Acceptance of Information Technology. *MIS Quarterly*, 13(3), 319. <https://doi.org/10.2307/249008>
- Davis, F., Bagozzi, R., & Warshaw, P. (1992). Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation to Use Computers in the Workplace 1. *Journal Of Applied Social Psychology*, 22(14), 1111-1132. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1992.tb00945.x>
- Di Pietro, L., Pantano, E., & Di Virgilio, F. (2021). Frontline employees' attitudes towards self-service technologies: Threats or opportunity for job performance?. Retrieved May 28 2021.
- Edward, M., J.W., G., & Regina, G. (2010). Analysing generational values among managers and non-managers for sustainable organisational effectiveness. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 75(1), 33-55. Retrieved May 28 2021.

- Fitzpatrick, M. (2005). Building Generation X Loyalty. Hospitality Upgrade. Retrieved May 28 2021, from https://www.hospitalityupgrade.com/_magazine/magazine_Detail.asp/?ID=132.
- Fox, G., & Connolly, R. (2018). Mobile health technology adoption across generations: Narrowing the digital divide. *Information Systems Journal*, 28(6), 995-1019. <https://doi.org/10.1111/isj.12179>
- Geisen, C. (2009). Teaching Tech: The Challenges of Making I.T. Work Across Generations. *Nurse Leader*, 7(5), 41-50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mnl.2009.03.002>
- Hackman JR., (1981). Work redesign for organisation development. In: Meltzer H Making organisations humane and productive. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Hansen, J., & Leuty, M. (2011). Work Values Across Generations. *Journal Of Career Assessment*, 20(1), 34-52. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072711417163>
- Horváth, D. and Szabó, R., 2019. Driving forces and barriers of Industry 4.0: Do multinational and small and medium-sized companies have equal opportunities?. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 146, pp.119-132
- Hotelstars.hu. Hotelstars.hu. (2021). Retrieved 26 May 2021, from <http://www.hotelstars.hu/>.
- Hou, Y., Zhang, K., & Li, G. (2021). Service robots or human staff: How social crowding shapes tourist preferences. *Tourism Management*, 83, 104242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104242>
- Indra, D. (2021). Szállodai digitalizáció a COVID-19 árnyékában. KPMG Blog. Retrieved 28 May 2021, from <https://blog.kpmg.hu/2021/02/szallodai-digitalizacio-a-covid-19-arnyekaban/>.
- Jeong, M., Lee, M. and Nagesvaran, B., (2016). Employees' use of mobile devices and their perceived outcomes in the workplace: A case of luxury hotel. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 57, pp.40-51.
- Kapeliushnikov, R., (2017). Is technological change a devourer of jobs?. *VOPROSY ECONOMIKI*, N.P. Redaktsiya zhurnala "Voprosy Ekonomiki", 11.
- Karimi, J., & Walter, Z. (2015). The Role of Dynamic Capabilities in Responding to Digital Disruption: A Factor-Based Study of the Newspaper Industry. *Journal Of Management Information Systems*, 32(1), 39-81. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07421222.2015.1029380>
- Koumelis, T. (2021). Contactless top theme among influencer conversations in hospitality industry on Twitter amid COVID-19. *TravelDailyNews International*. Retrieved May 28 2021, from <https://www.traveldailynews.com/post/contactless-top-theme-among-influencer-conversations-in-hospitality-industry-on-twitter-amid-covid-19>.
- Kulcsár, Z. (2010). *Az intergratív e-learning felé* (1st ed.). Adamo Books.
- Kühtreiber, Á. (2020). Érintés nélküli technológia és a felhő a szállodáiparban. Szalloda.blog. Retrieved 28 May 2021, from <https://www.szalloda.blog/post/%C3%A9rint%C3%A9s-n%C3%A9lk%C3%BCli-technol%C3%B3gia-%C3%A9s-a-felh%C5%91-a-sz%C3%A1llodáiparban>.
- Lam, T., Cho, V., & Qu, H. (2007). A study of hotel employee behavioral intentions towards adoption of information technology. *International Journal Of Hospitality Management*, 26(1), 49-65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2005.09.002>
- Lancaster, L., & Stillmann, D. (2002). *When generations collide*. HarperBusiness.
- Lin, I., & Mattila, A. (2021). The Value of Service Robots from the Hotel Guest's Perspective: A Mixed-Method Approach. *International Journal Of Hospitality Management*, 94, 102876. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102876>
- Lynne C., L., & David, S. (2010). *The M-Factor: How the Millennial Generation Is Rocking the Workplace* (1st ed.). Harper Collins.
- Lyons, S., & Kuron, L. (2013). Generational differences in the workplace: A review of the evidence and directions for future research. *Journal Of Organizational Behavior*, 35(S1), S139-S157. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1913>

- Mannheim, K. (1952). The problem of generations. In Mannheim, K., *Essays on the sociology of knowledge* (first published 1923). London, UK: RKP.
- Martin, C., & Tulgan, B. (2006). *Managing the generation mix*. HRD Press.
- Martin, R., (1988). Attitudes towards advanced manufacturing technology (AMT): The role of AMT experience, skill level and job involvement. *Social Behaviour*, 3(4), 297–305.
- Matt, C., Hess, T., & Benlian, A. (2015). Digital Transformation Strategies. *Business & Information Systems Engineering*, 57(5), 339-343. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12599-015-0401-5>
- McCrinkle, M., Wolfinger, E., & Salt, B. (2014). *The ABC of XYZ* (3rd ed.). McCrinkle Research.
- McKnight, P., & Najab, J. (2010). Mann-Whitney U Test. *The Corsini Encyclopedia Of Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470479216.corpsy0524>
- Merrill, M. D., Elen, J., and Bishop, M. J., (2014). *Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology*. (pp. 819-828). 4th ed. New York
- Nam, T. (2019). Technology usage, expected job sustainability, and perceived job insecurity. *Technological Forecasting And Social Change*, 138, 155-165. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2018.08.017>
- Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2013). A Typology of Technology-Enhanced Tourism Experiences. *International Journal Of Tourism Research*, 16(4), 340-350. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1958>
- Ng, S., Ho, J., Lim, X., Chong, K., & Latiff, K. (2019). Mirror, mirror on the wall, are we ready for Gen-Z in marketplace? A study of smart retailing technology in Malaysia. *Young Consumers, ahead-of-print(ahead-of-print)*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/yc-06-2019-1006>
- Notarianni, M., Curry-Lourenco, K., Barham, P., & Palmer, K. (2009). Engaging Learners Across Generations: The Progressive Professional Development Model. *The Journal Of Continuing Education In Nursing*, 40(6), 261-266. <https://doi.org/10.3928/00220124-20090522-07>
- Oblinger, D., & Oblinger, J. (2005). *Educating the net Generation*. EDUCAUSE.
- Oh,E., & Reeves, T. C., (2011). Generation differences and the integration of technology in learning, instruction, and performance. In Spector, J. M.,
- Orlikowski, W. (2009). The sociomateriality of organisational life: considering technology in management research. *Cambridge Journal Of Economics*, 34(1), 125-141. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cje/bep058>
- Sánchez, M., & Kaplan, M. (2014). Intergenerational Learning in Higher Education: Making the Case for Multigenerational Classrooms. *Educational Gerontology*, 40(7), 473-485. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03601277.2013.844039>
- Sima, C., (2016) *Generations BB, X, Y, Z, α -the changing consumer in the hospitality industry*, *The Routledge Handbook of Hotel Chain Management* Maya Ivanova, Stanislav Ivanov, Vincent P. Magnini Chapter 40. p 471-479.
- Strauss, W., & Howe, N. (1997). *The fourth turning: What the Cycles of History Tell Us About America's Next Rendezvous with Destiny*. (1st ed.). Broadway Books.
- Taber, K. (2017). The Use of Cronbach's Alpha When Developing and Reporting Research Instruments in Science Education. *Research In Science Education*, 48(6), 1273-1296. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-016-9602-2>
- Thuma, O. (2016). Generációs különbségek a munka és az iskola világában. *Korkép XXI. Századi Kihívások*, 212-232. <https://doi.org/10.29180/korkep.2016.10>
- Twenge, J., & Campbell, S. (2008). Generational differences in psychological traits and their impact on the workplace. *Journal Of Managerial Psychology*, 23(8), 862-877. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940810904367>
- Ursachi, G., Horodnic, I., & Zait, A. (2015). How Reliable are Measurement Scales? External Factors with Indirect Influence on Reliability Estimators. *Procedia Economics And Finance*, 20, 679-686. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s2212-5671\(15\)00123-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s2212-5671(15)00123-9)

- Veiga, J., Keupp, M., Floyd, S., & Kellermanns, F. (2014). The longitudinal impact of enterprise system users' pre-adoption expectations and organisational support on post-adoption proficient usage. *European Journal Of Information Systems*, 23(6), 691-707. <https://doi.org/10.1057/ejis.2013.15>
- Wang, W. (2019). The influence of perceived technological congruence of smartphone application and air travel experience on consumers' attitudes toward price change and adoption. *Journal Of Hospitality And Tourism Technology*, 10(2), 122-135. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jhtt-01-2018-0004>
- Wood, S., (2013.). *Generation Z as consumers: Trends and innovation*, Institute for Emerging Issues: N.C. State University
- Ursachi, G., Horodnic, I. and Zait, A., (2015.). How Reliable are Measurement Scales? External Factors with Indirect Influence on Reliability Estimators. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 20: 679-686.

Tourism & Unidentified Cultural Heritage in Thessaloniki. Bulgarians, Serbs, Russians, Romanians

Panagiota Kefala¹

¹International Hellenic University, Greece.

ORCID: 0000-0003-2342-6592

E-mail: kefalapt@gmail.com

Abstract

The purpose of this research is to investigate the existence of the cultural heritage of Bulgarians, Serbs, Romanians and Russians in Thessaloniki, and the interest in the creation of corresponding cultural tourism packages. The objectives were to identify, inventory and to determine their appeal as tourist attractions. Lastly the suggestion of cultural tourism packages for the under-study populations. An on-site research was conducted to investigate the monuments' status and seven semi-structured interviews with a questionnaire almost identical for all respondents. Sampling techniques used in this study, belonged to probability or crisis sampling. Material and intangible heritage associated with each population exist, and there is potential for further development of their cultural and religious tourism in Thessaloniki. An interesting result is that most of the monuments are not accessible. Nevertheless, the main purpose, to associate heritage associated with these cultures, was accomplished. In addition, the potential for the necessity of the creation of cultural tourism packages which was also under investigation was proved to be real. It is necessary further research to ascertain the location of some monuments, while more may be found from different periods. There is potential for the spotted monuments, to be incorporated smoothly in the history of the city if they become known and more visited. According to the data collected and customized to the populations, five possible routes-proposals were registered in an interactive map.

Keywords: Special Interest, Cultural, Religious tourism, Balkans, Thessaloniki.

1.Introduction

Based on the history of past centuries, Thessaloniki has been since ancient times, to this day, a passage among people and a great node between countries, often making the apple of contention, and sometimes changing the course of history. Taking into account both the conflicts in which it has been involved, and the people who have passed or settled in the city, it is certain that there are left behind pieces of their history and heritage. These pieces, in some cases, are probably relatively unknown and still untapped in the city. This study deals with the finding and incorporation of them into the tourist map of the city, highlighting the city's multicultural character. Despite the multitude of monuments, known and unknown, which exist in the city of Thessaloniki, and are associated with different cultures of other countries, it seems that none to some effort has been made to become distinct historical units for every population, and they remain as the sanctuary of some books, unnoticed even by the city's inhabitants. Examples of these cultures that still remain unknown in the city are the Bulgarians', Serbs', Russians' and Romanians' cultures. All of these populations lived in Thessaloniki, around the late 19th century and later, and they had their own communities, schools, churches, and cemeteries.

However, there is the possibility for their monuments to be spotted and incorporated smoothly in the history of the city and to re-tell their history if they become known and more visited. Consequently, it is possible for the historical and the religious reflections of the previous layer of the city, to bring these spaces to the surface, and become part of the identity of the city today. These said, the city's tourist strategy has potential for further development if it focuses on special interest tourism, by showing its existing historical resources. The objective of this research is to investigate the existence of monuments of material and intangible heritage, associated with the cultures of Bulgarians, Serbs, Russians, and Romanians in Thessaloniki, into the literature review and in their view. This is intended to highlight the above monuments, in the context of Thessaloniki's cultural tourism, or at least in the context of special interest tourism. The aims of this research are to search for, identify and inventory the monuments belonging to the cultural religious heritage of the city of Thessaloniki and related to these cultures. Also, to separate the monuments with particular

importance, to the culture of the above countries, and to determine their appeal, as tourist attractions in case they are included as such. Furthermore, to look at their countries' interest in Thessaloniki, the monuments and to identify the places need to be promoted. Lastly, was to investigate the possibility for cultural and religious tourism and development of cultural tourism packages for the under-study populations in Thessaloniki.

2.Literature review

During the period from the late 19th to the beginning of the 20th century, many books, statistics and maps were published that did not agree, with the ethnic composition of the Macedonian population, and to a great extent many times. Behind this discrepancy lies the conviction of both the Great Powers and the Balkan Countries that the Ottoman Empire is now Europe's great patient, and the dissolution or dismemberment of its European territories is imminent. These belonged primarily to the Macedonian region, which was inhabited by populations of different religions, languages, and national consciousness. According to the aspirations of each side, the corresponding statistics and maps were issued. Statistics were considered the most effective weapon to prove beyond all doubt the demographic superiority of the stakeholders. Due to the deficiencies presented by both the authorities and the institutions of the Ottoman Empire, it was not possible to obtain the precise or even a relatively accurate number of the population. Around 1890 from the 98,930 inhabitants, the 15,013 were Greeks, 43,322 Jews, 31,703 Muslims, and the rest 3799 Bulgarians. In lack of tangible evidence and official census, the figures cited are not totally acceptable (Chekímoglou, 1996). Exceptions are the detailed statistics prepared by Vasil Kancov in 1900, according to which, in 1900 the population in the city of Thessaloniki, there are 10,000 Bulgarians, 26,000 Turks, 16,000 Greeks, 55,000 Jews, 2,500 Gypsies, and 8500 others (Kānčov, 1906), and the official census of 1905 by Hilmi Pasha, according to which, in the Vilayet of Thessaloniki Muslims recorded as 482,414, Greeks as 287,092 and Bulgarians as 223,537 (Chalkiopoulos, 1910). The Greek official census of 1913, in the municipality of Thessaloniki lists: 39,956 Greeks, 61.439 Israelis, 45.867 Ottomans, 6.263 Bulgarians, 4.364, other foreigners (Chekímoglou, 1996), of 157.889 inhabitants (Dimitriádis, 2006). The official census in 1928, recorded 9,951 foreigners, including 2,654 Yugoslavsⁱⁱ, 399 Russians, 112 Bulgarians, and 183 Romanians (Anonym, 1935).

In the area of education, in the mid-19th century, and in the context of progressive reforms, were founded in the city several schools by foreign delegations, Ottoman administrations and Balkan nationalities (Kavala, 2015). Because of its geographical location, Thessaloniki was considered as the Ottoman Balkans capital and its commercial and spiritual center, which made it the apple of Discord. This is also the reason why had to have schools of various Balkan nationalities, except to serve the local communities and their unanimous in the surrounding areas. In addition to the Ottoman and Jewish schools in the suburbs of Thessaloniki, there were 521 Greek, 319 Bulgarian, 10 Romanian and 21 Serbian schools (Kliará, 2011). Official statistics related to education at the beginning of the 20th century show that in 1908 there were 32 Greek educational institutions, 26 Ottoman, 8 Jewish, 7 French, 6 Italian, 6 Bulgarian, 4 Serbian, 2 German, 2 Romanian, 1 Armenian, and the American Farm School (Zaphíris & A., 1994). In 1915, a large number of soldiers, including 150,000 English, 112,000 Serbs and 5,000 Russians, were disembarked by the Entente forces and camped in the city, for the Macedonian front (Kavala, 2015). The first refugees of Thessaloniki in 1917 came from Caucasus after the Russian Revolution, in 1919 from Bulgaria after the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine and from Micra Asia, before 1922. It is estimated that 20,000 refugees came to Thessaloniki until the population exchange in 1922, when the new wave of refugees came to the country (Makhairá, 2002).

The **Bulgarians** were never numerous in Thessaloniki, and their community experienced a significant increase in the late 19th century, as the city developed economically (Bernard, 1994). In 1904 they constituted the majority in three districts of the city (Mégas, 1994). In 1911, according to the secretary of the Bulgarian consulate, there were 6,2% (10,500) of the total population (128,000) (Bernard, 1994), but two years later, in the official Greek statistics of 1913, they were recorded 6,263. Their permanent population was likely to be around 6,000 (Kandilákis, 2006). When the Macedonian struggle began, most of their bourgeois families lived, among the multitude of Greek families, in the parish of their Cyril and Methodius church. Also, at the west end of the city, there was an almost entire schismatic district, with a church and a school, the "Kilkis Mahalle", on which Bulgarian villagers from Kilkis had settled (Dimitriádis, 1983). Another schismatic neighborhood was in the eastern district near the Greek church of the Hagia Triáda (Kliará, 2011), while in the districts of Tranvaál and Píryi, were living a lot of the Bulgarian workers of Allatíni. In 1881 were established the Bulgarian Gymnasiums for Men and Girls, that continued to function for thirty-three years. More Bulgarian schools of all grades operated during these years, and Bulgarians also attended foreign schools, such as the Lazarist Monastery, the American Farm School, and the Law School. Additionally, in 1911 it was recorded

that they had four churches (Bernard, 1994), while from 1882 they had their first cemetery in the city (Konstantinova, 2015). Monuments found to be related to the Bulgarians are listed in Table 1.

Table 3. *Monuments found in literature review associated with Bulgarians.*

Bulgariansiii	
Consulate - Orphanage «Melissa».	Bulgarian Primary School.
Karavan Saray.	Former Law School.
The Melik Bay Coffee Shop.	Bulgarian Saint Demetrios.
The Bosniak Hani.	Saint Lazaros Church.
Bulgarian Clinic.	Bulgarian Church of Cyril and Methodius.
American Farm School.	Church of Cyril and Methodius.
Lazarist Monastery School.	Saint John Chrysostom Church.
Bulgarian Catholic Seminary of Zeitenlik.	Evangelistria Cemetery.
Bulgarian Girls' School "Annunciation".	Hagia Paraskevi Cemetery.
Saints Cyril and Methodius Gymnasium.	Zeitenlik Cemetery.
Bulgarian Business School.	Exohi's Commonwealth Cemetery.

According to a recorded visit by Berar, there were no **Serbs** in Thessaloniki except for the consul, the two interpreters and the three “kavasides”^{iv} of the consulate, some merchants who came from Serbia, and about 200 indoor students. According to the Greek ethnological statistics, there were 4,000 registered "Serbs", that were Slav-speaking converted from the Serbian propaganda, and formally obedient to the Ecumenical Patriarchate (Angelopoúlou, 2015). In 1908 a Serbian bank was founded in Thessaloniki for the sole purpose of facilitating the export of animals from Serbia to the Mediterranean (Goúnaris, 1997). In Thessaloniki at 1891, opened the first Serbian bookstore, and it was the first in the Ottoman Empire (Novakov, 2014). From 1897 there was a Serbian high school - boarding school, and in 1907-1908 they found a Higher Urban School, a Female School, two kindergartens (Vachároglou, 1997), and a church while Serbs animal suppliers used to go in a particular café (Tomanás, 1997). During the Great War, Serbian troops, with 144,000 soldiers, arrived in Thessaloniki, from Corfu. When the Serbs arrived in Thessaloniki, they settled in the Vineyards of Micra and Zeitenlik. In the southeastern outskirts the Serbs had formed six Divisions (or three Armies). Many of them were congregating in the Serbian church of Saint Savva, above the Hippodromiou Square. At the same period, the French established several French-Greek and French-Serbian schools in Thessaloniki, while the French-Serbian restaurant at Imperial Palace was one of the most famous during the Great War (Valási, 2019). Monuments found to be related to the Serbs are listed in Table 2.

Table 4. *Monuments found in literature review associated with Serbs.*

Serbs	
Headquarters of the Serbian Army.	Zeitenlik Church.
Free Serbian Zone.	Zeitenlik Cemetery.
Panhellenion Café.	Zeitenlik Monument.
The French Serbian hospital.	Exohi's Commonwealth Cemetery.
Prince Alexander of SerbiaHospital.	Kindergartens.
Saint Nicholas of Orphan Church.	Elementary school /Dom Nauke.
Saint Savvas Church.	Serbian Gymnasium /Dom Nauke.
Church of Cyril and Methodius.	Higher Urban Male and Female School

In 1833, a **Russian** monk founded a small school for the children of the city's Slavs (Bernard, 1994). In 1880, the Western Europeans lived in Thessaloniki were divided into two categories. The businessmen belonged to the first, and the members of the consular body and members of the religious mission to the second. Among the second there were 27 Russians (Anastasiadou, 1994). Donated by Baroness Hirsch, a new district was created, near the railway station,

where Russian Jews found a shelter after the persecution in their country in 1891. Many of those who were victims of the 1917 fire, then moved to Hagia Paraskevi, Keramitsi and Karagac (Mólkho, 1994). In the summer of 1916 (July 30) the first echelons of the Russian unit arrived at the port of Thessaloniki, while it took more time for the remaining units to move from Archangelos port. Two Russian brigades arrived in the city by mid-October. They went through hard training for three months in the Zeitenlik camp, and then they camped in Kalamariá (Valási, 2019). In a document of August 31, 1783 is referred to the order for Russian consulate in Thessaloniki (Wikimedia, n.d.), and in 1907 was built a Russian Hospital (Yerolímpou & Kolonás, 1994). In the 1920s, part of the Allied warehouses in the area of Harilaou, was given to Russian immigrants, creating a Russian colony in a nice park, with its own church. The Russians, in addition to the monumental taverns, frequented a Saint Nikolaos church in the area (Anonym), and they also had a small church in Zeitenlik cemetery (Vlasídis, 2017). Monuments found to be related to the Russians are listed in Table 3.

Table 5. *Monuments found in literature review associated with Russians.*

Russians	
Russian Consulate.	Russian Zeitenlik Church.
Russian Hospital.	Saint Nikolas & Demetrius Church
State Museum of Contemporary Art.	Church of Saint George.
Russian Navy Cross.	Church of Saint Seraphim of Sharov.
Monument for the Russian army in W.W.I	Church of Cyril and Methodius.

According to Kliará (2011), **Romanian** community of Thessaloniki, Macedonian-Romanian Association and Romanian Consulate founded in 1879, following the appearance of the idea of pan-Slavism. At the same time, they raised the issue of "Koutsovlachs" as a national minority, and the adoption of the Romanian language instead of the Kutsovlachic. Because of this goal, two Romanian schools were founded by the Romanian community at the end of the 19th century a trade school and a Vlach kindergarten in Thessaloniki (Zaphíris C., 2017). According to the statistics of the Patriarchate of Constantinople in 1905, there were two Romanian educational institutions in the city. Shortly before 1908, efforts were made in order a Romanian church to be put into operation for the first time, by renting a room. The effort to establish a "Vlach association" failed when the first Greek financial institutions came into operation. After this, Thessaloniki's Vlach origin disarmed the targets of the Romanians in the city, and went on the counteroffensive, working with the Greek Consulate, and expanding their activity in the Macedonian interior (Koukoúdis, 2008). According to the Bucharest Treaty, in 1913, the government of Eleftherios Venizelos recognized the existence of a Romanian ethnic minority and accepted Romania's request to grant the Vlachs school autonomy (Ephimerís tis Kiverníseos., 1913). Monuments found to be related to the Romanians are listed in Table 4.

Table 6. *Monuments found in literature review associated with Romanians.*

Romanians	
Romanian Consulate.	Vocational School of Female of Thessaloniki.
Romanian kindergarten.	Romanian Cemetery.
Romanian Elementary School.	Romanian Church.
Romanian School of Commerce.	Romanian chapel.

3. Research methodology

After the literature review and the listing of the monuments found therein, it was considered necessary to conduct an on-site research, to investigate their status today, and to identify whether or not they were likely to emerge. In primary research was used a qualitative method of semi-structured interview with a specific questionnaire almost identical for all respondents, and freedom to discuss after completing the questionnaire. The participants were informed orally and their participation was solely voluntary without any form of pressure. The method of collecting the answers using only notes by the researcher alone ensured the anonymity of the participants. Limitations of the primary research concerned the number of the participants in the research had to be small, due to the transportation cost, and the difficulty of finding a lot of people, to participate in the research. The study was conducted in the city of Thessaloniki, and in terms of the target population for the interviews, the initial idea was to give the view of those managing the monuments but,

due to shortage of people in the management of the monuments, the target population was set at the 16.868 people from the under-study populations, living in the area according to the 2011 Greek census data. This number was impossible to find, so the original goal was set to two interviews about each population. A total of seven interviews were conducted.

Regarding the method of selecting the study participants, combination of sampling techniques was performed to reach the target population. Sampling techniques used in this study, belonged to probability or crisis sampling. Judgmental sampling was used as the research population consisted of four different types of units. Deliberate subjective selection was made when sampling was based on the formality of the participants and their ease of access. Snowball sampling was also used, as each participant indicated others to participate in the research. The population of the survey was consisted of Bulgarian, Serbian, Russian, Romanian origin, or place of birth. The questions used in the interview were created in consistent with the purpose and the objectives of this research. The first and second questions aim to highlight countries' interest in Thessaloniki's monuments. The next two questions aim to investigate the existence of monuments associated with these cultures in Thessaloniki, in their view, rather than the bibliography. The fifth and sixth questions were to investigate the political climate, economic and trade relations either individually, or between their countries and Greece. The seventh question investigated whether or not the city is important to them. The eighth was intended to explore possible conflicts between populations of different nationalities within the city and the next, the possibility of co-operation in developing packages in cultural tourism for both sides. The final question was purely to facilitate the conduction of the survey, asking them to propose people for an interview. The interviews were conducted in either Greek or English.

4. Findings and analysis

4.1 On-site research results.

It was observed that most of the monuments found in the bibliographic review did either no longer exist, or were closed and inaccessible to the public. Moreover, because of the continuous rotation of buildings uses, as was customary at that time, many of those that still exist today, have remained in the common consciousness associated with other communities, although not universally belonged to them. most of the monuments that still exist are in the possession of the Greek state or the Greeks, and some of them are left on their luck. In figures 1 and 2, their condition is reflected respectively, per population.

Bulgarians	Serbs	Russians
1 Saint Lazarus Chapel	1 Saint Nicolas the Orphan Church	1 Saint Nicolas & Demetrius Church
2 "Cyril and Methodius Gymnasium "	2 Saint Savvas Serbian Church	2 Cross of Cyril and Methodius
3 Saint Jonh Chrysostomou Church	3 Serbian Free Zone.	3 Cyril and Methodius Church
4 Orphanage Bee	4 Zeitenlik Cemetery & Mausoleum	4 Former Russian Consulate
5 Cyril and Methodius Church	5 British Commonwealth Cemetary of Mikra	5 Former Russian Hospital
6 The Old Customs House.	6 Cyril and Methodius Church	6 British Commonwealth Cemetary of Mikra
7 Zeitenlik	7 Alexander's King Serbian Hospital	7 Church of Saint George.
8 Moni Lazariston - Catholic Seminary of Zeitenlik	8 Serbian Consulate***	8 1st W.W. Russian Monument
9 Cross of Cyril and Methodius		9 Zeitenlik Cemetery
10 Exohi's Commonwealth Military.		10 State Museum of Contemporary Art
		11 Church of Saint Seraphim of Sharov
		12 Saint Nikolaos church

Figure 1. Monument that still exist, per population.

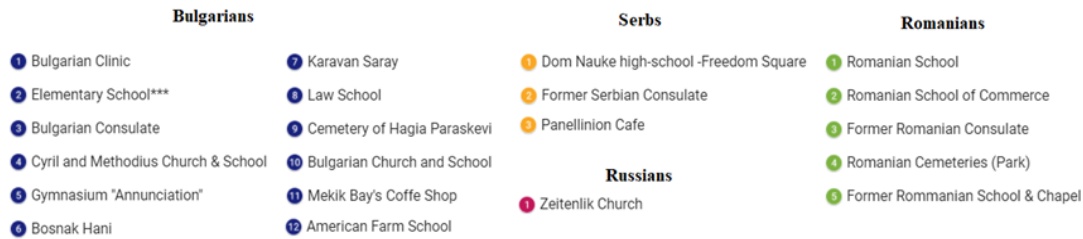


Figure 2. Monument that no longer exist, per population.

4.2 Interviews' results.

Seven interviews were conducted, with a questionnaire of ten questions for each interviewer, and the results are given below. The first question about the policy of the consulate of each country in the city of Thessaloniki, was answered that the consulate is located in the city primarily for social reasons, and then for cultural and economic reasons by all the responders. To the question related to the policy of each country regarding the monuments, they all answered that they are interested in the monuments related to their cultural and religious heritage, while in the cases in which monuments are in their possession, they take care of their preservation or promotion. Exception is the Romanians for whom no monuments have been recorded that still exist today, but they replied that it would be interesting if there were monuments related to them. Regarding the monuments considered to be completely linked to their heritage, even if they do not belong to them, the answers recorded were the Bulgarian High School, Cyrillic Alphabet Monument and Customs for the Bulgarians, the cemetery Zeitenlik, Agios Dimitrios Savvas and the Hirsch Hospital for Serbs. The Pentalofos, Zeitenlik and Kalamariá cemeteries and the Russian hospital were registered for the Russians, while Romanians said there isn't any. In the question if there is intangible heritage associated with them in Thessaloniki, the given answers were the remains of Samuel found by Moutsopoulos and are in the Byzantine Museum, but they are not accessible to the public by the Bulgarians. Serbs responded with the memory of the Great War, and the Macedonia front where a large number of Serbs lost their lives. For the intangible heritage of the Russian culture in Thessaloniki, the answer included the Kwstakis collection, the pictures in the churches, as well as those about Cyril and Methodius, and Romanians answered with the section of Romanian books was registered in the Central Library of Thessaloniki.

Almost all the responders answered that their state or some individuals interfere in the cultural heritage in Thessaloniki. Furthermore, Serbs mentioned that there are organizations, organizing cultural events taking place in the city, and that the state interferes with interest and care for the monuments that are under its protection. Russians answered that public and private donors help restore and maintain good standing of their cultural heritage, and they seek to promote and refurbish them when needed. Examples of private initiatives were the St. George wooden church in Oraiokastro, and the Sarov church, which is separate from the Russian state, and belongs to the Metropolis of Neapolis, which even granted permission to operate in Russian. Romanians gave the example of the example of the Romanian Association Karpatia. The participation of many Romanians in the ecclesiastical ceremony takes place once a month in the Romanian Association, as well as their large attendance at the large celebration for those taking place on 8th March. Bulgarians gave the negative response. In the question about the political relations development of Greece with their country, also all of them answered positive. Bulgarians said that commercial relations between the two countries have developed to a great extent through private initiatives. Serbs referred to the websites of the Serbian and Greek ministries, which officially stated that relations between the two countries have traditionally been very good and are based on a strong bilateral contractual framework, with various agreements between them and visits, and that Serbians think that the two countries are brothers forever. Russians said the two countries are positive and indeed in many areas, while Romanians noted that there is help provided between the countries and mutual sympathy. Regarding Thessaloniki's particular role in the development of relations between the two countries, all of the participants mention the close distance of the city to their country. Bulgarians noted that is considered to them the capital of Balkans, Romanians that it is sister-cities with Constanta, Serbs that it is since WWI, when Serbs helped to prevent invading of the city, and Russians gave example of their action in the city such as the call of Russian artists and Thessaloniki's friendship and cooperation pact with St. Petersburg. All given answers were negative regarding conflicts with other communities within the city, and positive regarding the possibility of cooperation between the two countries for cultural heritage tourists, even in combination with holidays. More specifically, Bulgarians Serbs and Russians said that there are already actions that support this idea, but there is potential for further development, while all three of them already visit the city for religious tourism.

5. Discussion

In 2015 was said that "because Thessaloniki does not have a specific and strong web identity, it cannot easily reach new audiences, new customers, resulting in the recycling" of its old visitors" and a survey by the Thessaloniki Hoteliers Association appeared the problem of Thessaloniki hotels. That is, that the city has a lot of Greek visitors, which continued until 2016, while in the period 2017-2018 there was a slight decrease, again reaching 48% (Thessaloniki Hotel Association, 2017). In 2016, Romania and Russia climbed two places on the scale of foreign countries visiting Thessaloniki, while Bulgaria and Serbia went down. In 2018, Israel, Turkey, Romania, Serbia, and Russia were the first countries to visit Thessaloniki. At the same time, visitors from the neighboring markets of Bulgaria, Serbia, Turkey and Romania have visited Thessaloniki more than once (Thessaloniki Hotel Association, 2016). Kemal Atatürk's museum was renovated after 2012 and opened to the public as a museum, resulting three years later Turks to be second in overnight stays in the city of Thessaloniki. The above happens because similar actions have been taking place and the cultural elements of Thessaloniki have been promoted by and to these populations, with impressive results (Koukoumákas, 2016).

Something similar can happen to the populations that this research deals with. These populations are already visiting Thessaloniki because is close to them, although their cultural past in the city is not offer to them yet. A closer look at each country's monuments separately could bring more tourists, as it seems to have happened to other populations too, successfully. First it has to happen for the monuments that still exist today, as it is easier to promote them, and then it is possible to use the sings in the places where these buildings. It is then possible to use a similar to the Thessaloniki UNESCO VR application, with which the user can browse 3D sights for monuments that no longer exist. Lastly, maybe it is also necessary, to link additional monuments to the routes, from the rest of Macedonia, further away from Pentalofos and Gefyra, as there are many of them belonging to the studied populations within the meaning of their cultural connection with them along the geographical area of Macedonia of Greece. The communities themselves have not yet been organized and the municipality of Thessaloniki has only been dealing with their cemeteries in the context of dark tourism, and not even intensely. If the municipality decides to with them would be especially helpful, but it would take precious time. In the era of very easy and fast-moving information we live in, groups that already exist with a sufficient number of members that exchange information already could probably move the information at zero profit to the city. Either the above is the result of indifference, or the result of the inability to manage and exploit existing monuments, it is up to the private initiative, either the communities themselves or operators, to take care of the heritage of these populations and highlight it. The cultural and religious heritage of the peoples listed above remains largely untapped and unrecognized, despite the fact that the results showed that there is indeed, the possibility for these monuments to be incorporated in the history of the city and the cultural heritage tourism.

6. Conclusions

The identification and inventory of monuments belonging to the cultural heritage of the city of Thessaloniki related to the under-study populations was answered through the literature review, where the monuments are listed per population. Separating the monuments with particular importance to the culture of the above populations, and the determination of their appeal as tourist attractions, the answer was given by the situation in which the monuments were located and, most of all if they exist. On the results of the on-site research, was found that most of the monuments that still exist are in the possession of the Greek state or the Greeks, and some of them are left on their luck. From the monuments that still exist today, 10 are associated with Bulgarians, 8 with Serbs and 12 with Russians. Examining the populations' interest in Thessaloniki monuments, the answer was given from the interviews, with the responses to be the Bulgarian Gumnasium, Cyrillic Alphabet Monument and Customs offices for Bulgarians, while Zeitenlik cemetery, Saint Dimitrios Saint Savvas and Hirsch Hospital were noted for Serbs. For the Russians the Pentalofos, Zeitenlik, and Kalamariá cemeteries, and the Russian hospital were recorded, and only the Romanian books' section in the Central Library of Thessaloniki for the Romanians. Investigating the possibility for cultural and religious tourism development, for the under-study populations, the answer was also given by the responders who overall answered yes, with no exceptions. Furthermore, Bulgarians, Serbs and Russians, said that there are already established relations of tourist interest, which can be further developed. Some other conclusions were exported from the interviews such as that all countries have positive or very positive relations with Greece, and in many cases, examples have been given.

Also, it was noted that Thessaloniki is considered to be an important city to them, and that all countries have a consulate in Thessaloniki mainly for social reasons and, secondarily, for cultural and economic reasons, and in all the cases where a monument is in their possession, they take care of it. Finally, there were negative responses to any

dispute with any community within Thessaloniki and everyone was eager to nominate someone else for an interview. However, it is necessary to investigate further the issue of the integration of the monuments of these populations in Thessaloniki, to ascertain the location of monuments not already found, and the location of monuments not entirely certain, while additional monuments may be found. Furthermore, since the work actually reaches up to the First World War, and actually at the beginning of it, with a few exceptions, while the presence of these populations in the city is continued up until today, it is necessary to map and the periods after the 1st W.W. It is clear, that the purpose of this research, which was to investigate the existence of monuments and intangible heritage associated with these cultures in Thessaloniki, was made possible in the literature review and in their view.

7. Proposals - Suggested Routes.

The potential for creation of cultural tourism routes which was also under investigation was proved to be real, although, there is still indifference and probably enough bureaucracy over the issue of displaying the monuments left by these peoples in the city of Thessaloniki. To complete this effort, some cultural walking paths were created. Routes were recorded for each country separately. In the mapped routes, are contained information and pictures for each of the monuments separately. The names of the routes are the following: 1) Walking along the Bulgarian trails of eastern Thessaloniki, 2) Walking along the Bulgarian trails of western Thessaloniki, 3) The Serbian path on the limits of Thessaloniki walls, 4) In the footsteps of the Russians, 5) In eastern Thessaloniki, Searching for lost Romanian monuments in Thessaloniki. For an even easier reading and understanding of the above, an interactive map has been created where each route can be selected separately, and is available in the following link: [Slavs and Romanian Paths](#)

References

- Agraphiόtou-Zakhopoύlou, P. (1997). *Ta scholia tis Thessalonikis. [The schools of Thessaloniki.]*. Thessaloniki: Ianός.
- Anastasiadou, M. (1994). "I ditiki tis periokhis" Thessalonikis, 1850-1918. ["The westerners of the area" Thessaloniki.]. Στο Collective, *Thessaloniki 1850-1918. I "póli ton evraion" kai i afhípnisi ton Valkanion. [Thessaloniki 1850-1918. The "city of the Jews" and the awakening of the inhabitants.]* (σ. 310). Ekáti.
- Andréou, A., Iliádu- Tákhou, S., & Tanampás, A. (2010). Ta roumaniká skholia stin Elláda. Mia próti apotíposi (1939-1949). [Romanian schools in Greece. A first imprint (1939-1949)]. Στο *Praktiká LA Panellínou Istorikou Sinedriou. 28-30 May* (σσ. 253-274). Thessaloníki: Ellinikí Istorikí Etairía.
- Angelopoúlou, Á. (2015). Ópsis tis servikís ethnikís drásis stous slavóphonous plithismous tis Makedonías (téli tou 19ou aióna-arkhés tou 20ou aióna). [Aspects of Serbian national action in Macedonia's Slav-speaking populations (late 19th-early 20th century)]. *Fragmenta Hellenoslavica*(Vol 2).
- Anonym. (1935). *Statistika apotelesmata tis apografis toy plithismou tis Ellados tis 15-16 Maiou 1928. IV Topos Genniseos-Thriskeia kai Glossa-Ipikootis. [Statistical results of the census of Greece on 15-16 May 1928. IV Place of Birth-Religion and Language-Nationality]*. (Ypoyrgion Ethnikis Ikonomias-Geniki Statistiki Ipíresia tis Ellados. Ek toy Ethnikou Tupografíou., En Athines.) Ανάκτηση 05 15, 2021, από http://dlib.statistics.gr/Book/GRESYE_02_0101_00022.pdf
- Anonym. (χ.χ.). *Ierá Mirópoli Thessalonikis. [Holy Metropolis of Thessaloniki]*. Ανάκτηση May 15, 2021, από <http://www.imth.gr/default.aspx?lang=el-GR&loc=1&&page=177&kwrd=Νικόλα&vn=>
- Bernard, L. (1994). Solóun, slaviké póli; [Salonika, Slavic city;]. Στο *Thessalonikí, 1850-1918. Ī "póli tōn Evraíōn" kai ĩ afhípnīsī tōn Valkaníōn. [Thessaloniki, 1850-1918. "The city of the Jews" and the awakening of the Balkans]* (σσ. 141-150). Thessaloniki: Ekati.
- Chalkiopoulos, A. (1910). *Makedonia. Ethnoloyiki statistiki ton Vilaetion Thessalonikis kai Monastiriou. [Macedonia. Ethnological statistics of the Vilayets of Thessaloniki and Monastiri.]*. Athens.
- Chekímoglou, E. (1996). *Thessaloniki: Tourkokratía kai Mesopólemos. [Thessaloniki: Ottoman Occupation and Interwar.]*. Thessaloniki: Ékphrasi.
- Dimitriádis, V. (1983). *Topographía tis Thessalonikis katá tin epokhí tis Tourkokratías 1430-1912. [Topography of Thessaloniki during the "era" of "Ottoman Period" 1430-1912]*. Thessaloniki: Etairía Makedonikón Spudón.
- Dimitriádis, V. (2006). "O plithismós tis Thessalonikis kai i ellinikí kinótítá tis katá to 1913". ["The population of Thessaloniki and its Greek community in 1913"]. *Makedoniká*, 23, σσ. 88-115.
- Ephimerís tis Kiverníseos., a. F. (1913, October 28). Ανάκτηση May 15, 2021, από http://www.et.gr/idosc-nph/search/pdfViewerForm.html?args=5C7QrtC22wHVMdpBB7ctWXdtvSoClrL8EegH9xtRd-R5MXD0LzQTLWPU9yLzB8V68knBzLCmTXKaO6fpVZ6Lx3UnKl3nP8NxdnJ5r9cmWyJWelDvWS_18kAEhATUkJb0x1LIIdQ163nV9K--td6SIuVmyu2MsGPjCT52aALpaCjKGiYIWNXUBBiuRNr7lPuqO
- Goúnaris, V. (1997). "Thessaloniki, 1830-1912: Istoría, Ikonómia kai Kinonía." ["Thessaloniki, 1830-1912: History, Economics and Society."]. Στο Paratiritis (Eπιμ.), *Tis agathís Vasilévousa Thessaloniki, Istoría kai Politismós. [The goods Royal Thessaloniki, History and Culture.]* (σσ. 117-133). Thessaloniki: Παρατηρητής.
- Kānčov, V. I. (1906). *Makedonija : etnografija i statistika*. Retrieved May 15, 2021, from <http://www.promacedonia.org/vk/index.html>
- Kandilákis, M. (2006). *Ephimeridographía [kai periodiká] tis Makedonías kai tis Thrákis. Katáloyi ton entípon pou ekdóthikan. Simvolí stin Istoría tou Típu tis Voríou Elládos. [Journalism (and magazines) of Macedonia and Thrace. Catalogs of published forms. Contribution to t.* University Studio Press - Ekphrasi.
- Kavala, M. (2015). Η katastrofi ton Evraion tis Elladas (1941-1944) [The destruction of the Jews of Greece (1941-1944)]. Athina: Ethniko Metsovio Polytechnio, www.kallipos.gr. Ανάκτηση 11 19, 2019, από www.kallipos.gr: <https://repository.kallipos.gr/handle/11419/4437>

- Kiriázidis, K. (1917). *I Thessaloníki apo iyiinis apópsous. [Thessaloniki from a hygienic point of view]*. Athína: Ethnikó Tipographío.
- Kliará, K. (2011). *Ídrisi kai orgánosi ton Vivliothikón tis Ellinikís Kinótitas Thessaloníkis katá tin periodo 1856-1912. [Establishment and organization of the Libraries of the Greek Community of Thessaloniki during the period 1856-1912.]*. Thessaloniki : ristotélio Panepistímio Thessaloníkis-Theoloyikí Shholí-Tmíma Theoloyías.
- Konstantinova, Y. (2015). *Ī THessalonikī me tī matiá tōn Voúlgarōn. [Thessaloniki through the eyes of the Bulgarians.]*. Στο Δ. Καυρίδης (Επιμ.), *Thessalonikī: Mia póli se metávasi, 1912-2012. [Thessaloniki: A city in transition, 1912-2012.]*. Thessaloniki: Epikentro.
- Koukouúdis, A. (2008, March 30). *I Thessaloníki ton kinotikón antiparathéseon kai i emplotí tou vlahikou stikhíou, 1900-1912. [The Thessaloniki of Social Conflicts and the Involvement of the Wallachian Element, 1900-1912]*. Ανάκτηση May 15, 2021, από <http://www.vlachs.gr/el/various-articles/thessaloniki-ton-koinotikon-antiparatheseon-kai-i-emploki-tou-vlahikou-stoixeiou>
- Koukoumákas, K. (2016, November 10). Το Μεγάλο Proskínima ton Tourkon sto Spíti tou Kemál sti Thessaloníki, [The great pilgrimage of the Turks to Kemal's house in Thessaloniki]. *Vice Diaskédasi*. Ανάκτηση May 15, 2021, από <https://www.vice.com/gr/article/pygqx8/tourkoi-touristes-θessaloníki>
- Lazarídis, S. (1997). *Apo to Vardári os to Dervéni - Istorikí Katagrapí mékhri to 1920. [From Vardar to Derveni - Historical Record until 1920.]*. Thessaloniki: Zítros.
- Makhairá, A. (2002). "I Thessaloníki tou mesopolémou" ["The Thessaloniki of Interwar"]. Στο C. Khatziiosíph (Επιμ.), *Istoríai tis Elládas tou 20ou aióna, 1922-1940. [History of Greece of the 20th century, 1922-1940.]* (Θέλει διόρθωση εκδ., Τόμ. τ. β1). Athens: Vivliórama.
- Mavroyéni, S. (2012). *Ta sérvika skholía tis Thessaloníkis. [Serbian Schools of Thessaloniki.]*. Thessaloníki: Israilitikí Kinótita Thessaloníkis.
- Mégas, G. (1994). *I "Varkárides" tis Thessaloníkis. I anarkhikí Voulgarikí omáda kai i vomvistikés enéryies tou 1903. [The "Boaters" of Thessaloniki. The anarchist Bulgarian group and the bombings of 1903.]*. Athína: Trokhalía.
- Mólkho, R. (1994). "I anagennisi." ["The Renaissance."]. Στο *Thessaloniki 1850-1918. "I poli ton Ebraion" kai i afypnisi ton Balkanion. [Thessaloniki 1850-1918. "The city of the Jews" and the awakening of the Balkans.]* (σσ. 69-86). Athína: Ekati.
- Nigdélis, K. (2016). *Dimos Neápolis-Sikeón. O megálos Kallikratikós Dímos. [Municipality of Neapoli-Sykes. The great Kallikratic Municipality.]*. Thessaloníki: Dimos Neápolis-Sikeón-Kinophelís Epikhírissi Ipiresión Neápolis Sikeón.
- Novakov, A. (2014). *Srednje Srpske Škole u OsmanskomCarstvu (1878 – 1912). [Secondary Serbian Schools in the Ottoman Empire (1878 - 1912)]*. Univerzitet u NovomSadu - FilozofskiFakultet.
- Paraskevopoúlou, C. (2014). Ο Khártis tis pólis: I rosikí ekkliasia. [City Map: Russian Church]. *parallaxi*.
- Thessaloniki Hotel Association. (2016, April). *Prophíl & Ikanopíisi Touristón & Apódosi Xenodokhíon tis Thessaloníkis, [Profile and Satisfaction of Tourists & Hotel Performance of Thessaloniki]*. Ανάκτηση May 15, 2021, από <https://www.gbrconsulting.gr/greek/downloads/Tourist%20Satisfaction%20Survey%20&%20performance%202016.pdf>
- Thessaloniki Hotel Association. (2017, April). *Prophíl & Ikanopíisi Touristón & Apódosi Xenodokhíon tis Thessaloníkis, [Profile and Satisfaction of Tourists & Hotel Performance of Thessaloniki]*. Ανάκτηση May 15, 2021, από <http://www.tha.gr/inst/tha/gallery/Ερευνης-Μελέτες/Tourist%20Satisfaction%20Survey%20and%20performance%202017.pdf>
- Tomanas, K. (1991). *I tavernes tis palias Thessaloníkis. [The taverns of old Thessaloniki]*. Thessaloniki: Exantas.
- Tomanás, K. (1997). *I platíes tis Thessaloníkis mékhri to 1944. [The squares of Thessaloniki until 1944.]*. Thessaloniki: Nisídes.

- Tomanás, K. (1997). *Ta kaphenia tis paliás Thessalonikis. [The cafes of old Thessaloniki.]*. Nisides.
- Vachároglou, E. (1997). *Ekpaideftiká Idrimata kai skholia tis Thessalonikis (1850-1912). I orgánosi kai litouryia tis protováthmias ekpaidefsis. [Educational Institutions and Schools of Thessaloniki (1850-1912). The organization and operation of primary education.]* (Τόμ. 1). (Ε. Α. Καραθανάσης, Επιμ.) Thessaloniki : Aristotélio Panepistímio Thessaloníkis - Theoloyikí Skholí.
- Valási, P. (2019). *I kathimerini zí sti Thessaloniki sta khrónia tou A' Pangosmíou Poléμου. [Everyday life in Thessaloniki during the years of the First World War.]*. Thessaloniki : Panepistímio Makedonías. .
- Vlasídís, V. (2016). *Metaxí mnimis kai lithis. Mnimia kai kimitiria tou Megáλου Poléμου. [Between memory and forgetfulness. Monuments and cemeteries of the Great War.]*. Thessaloniki: Mousío Makedonikoú Agóna.
- Vlasídís, V. (2017). *I mnimi tou Megáλου Poléμου. Kimitiria tou Makedonikoú Metóπου sti Thessaloniki. [The memory of the Great War. Cemeteries of the Macedonian Front in Thessaloniki.]*. Thessaloniki: University Studio Press.
- Vlasídís, V. (2019). The German-Bulgarian military cemetery in Thessaloniki 1925-1946". Στο Y. Konstantinova, N. Danova, & J. Zhelev, *Thessaloniki and the Bulgarians: History, Memory, Present* (σσ. 520-542). Sofia: Bulgarian Academy of Sciences.
- Wikimedia, A. (χ.χ.). *Wikimedia*. Ανάκτηση May 15, 2021, από Catherine II of Russia Order Salonica Consulate 31 March 1773.: https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Catherine_II_of_Russia_Order_Salonica_Consulate_31_March_1773.jpg?fbclid=IwAR0cOOFY0urN2ta7LCC1Eb5LXOFRS2wZ0dvkIAk5avnyETyLyFpkuzQzUIw
- Yerolímpou, A., & Kolonás , V. (1994). *Mia kosmopolítiki poleodomía. [A cosmopolitan city planning], Sto: Thessaloniki, 1850-1918. I "póli ton evraíon" kai i ahipnisi ton Valkaníon*. Thessaloniki: Ekáti.
- Zaphíris, C. (2017). *Thessaloniki. I parousía ton apónton. I klironomiá Romaíon, Mousoulmánon, Evraíon, Donmédon, Phrángon, Arménion kai Slávon. [Thessaloniki. The presence of the absentees. The inheritance of Romans, Muslims, Jews, Donmedes, Francs, Armenians and Slav* (2nd εκδ.). Thessaloniki: Epikentro.
- Zaphíris, C., & A., P. (1994). *En Thessaloniki 1900-1960. [In Thessaloniki 1900-1960.]*. Athína: Exántas.

Drought Tourism: Adopting Tourism for Water Scarcity

Vahit Oğuz Kiper¹, Ömer Saraç², Orhan Batman³

¹Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Turkey

ORCID: 0000-0001-5558-2341

E-mail: oguzkiper@subu.edu.tr

²Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Turkey

ORCID: 0000-0002-4338-7394

E-mail: omersarac@subu.edu.tr

³Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Turkey

ORCID: 0000-0001-7186-7064

E-mail: obatman@subu.edu.tr

Abstract

This paper aims to enlighten the relationship of tourism and drought by a preserving a review approach from the current literature. By doing so, the paper aims to aid both literature and practitioners to sustain tourism activities in a mutual relationship with environmental aspects. This study is designed as a review as an interpretive approach with authors freely research among current related literature to develop their own perspective. Study show that tourism activities and the climate disaster of drought are highly effective on each other. Therefore, many studies prove the impact of one to each other. Papers about the issue mainly concentrate on impacts of climate changes on tourism and also concentrate about the consequences. There is a need to focus more on solutions and a compact perspective to better handle the problem.

Keywords: Climate change, drought, tourism, water supply

1. Introduction

Buckminster Fuller stated the idea that the earth is a ship travelling in universe and humanity is the passenger of it. It is important to understand that the impact of our living is not limited to just our close surrounding and homes but rather highly related to entire earth. Embracing that idea is the vital part of protecting the ecological system as a whole (Tont, 2001, pp. 182-183). It is highly essential to considering protection of natural environment while trying to develop tourism industry (Mercan, 2010, p. 3).

The phenomenon of sustainability adopted through tourism activities and planning by the Brundtland Report (Collados & Duane, 1999) which was prepared by Gro Harlem Brundtland in WCED (World Commission on Environment and Development) named as Our Common Future in 1987 (Akyüz, 2018: 4). A common definition of sustainability according to many authors is providing the needs of current generation while considering the needs of future generations (Garrold and Fyall, 1998). One significant focus of sustainability is to let natural or artificial resources to be replaceable (Hunter, 1997). There are 3 major factors affecting sustainability of tourism development; pressure and stress of economic development of tourism on developing countries, planning and implication of planning obstacles, issues related to tourism itself (Helmy, 2003).

Since climate change is a multi-dimensional subject, different researchers from different expertise brought their own perspectives into the subject just like looking into the same problem with different lenses (Arabadzhyan, Figini, Garcia, Lam-Gonzalez, & Leon, 2020). Climate change causes wet regions to get wetter, and non-tropical dry regions to become even drier (Seager, Ting, Li, Naik, Cook, Nakamura and Liu, 2013). Water is a crucial and fundamental resource for humankind while also a basic and universal need and also considered as a human right (Cole, 2014).

However, it is a well-known fact that water resources are depleting for both natural and artificial reasons because of climate change and over-consuming. Since this is an alarming phenomenon impacting daily life and especially threatening the future, many researchers put an effort to explain the reason of this issue and try to come with a solution for it. Tourism activities are highly bound to tourism resources because of its own nature. This paper aims to enlighten the relationship between tourism and climate change and especially water scarcity also known as drought. Flourishing water supplies and attractions might improve the perceived image of any destination such as marines and lakes (Wang and Zhang, 2019; Zhuang, Yan, Wen and Yilin, 2019).

2. Literature Review

The impact relation of tourism and drought apparently works in two ways and it is more suitable to merge literature into two sub-headings according to purpose of the paper although one can easily diffuse it into many topics because the literature actually has many dimension with many research disciplines.

2.1 *The Impact of Tourism to Water*

Tourism has a direct impact on water resources when taking a look to its global impacts (Gössling, 2002) and consumes biological resources, air and land in addition to water (Mercan, 2010: 26). Environmental resources are vital for tourism development, but, using these resources for a long time brings the consequence of depleting them (Piga, 2003). One major negative impact of tourism on environment is surely water pollution (Kahramana and Türkay, 2006: 59). The demand of water in tourism activities concentrates in time and place (Essex, Kent and Newnham, 2004) which is one of the major problems among tourism about water resources. Cheap forms of tourism tend to consume less amount of water (Hadjikou, Miller, Chenoweth, Druckman and Zoumidis, 2015) while luxury tourism market consume much more of it (Hof and Scmitt, 2011).

Geng, Maimaituerxun and Zhang (2020) investigated the correlation between tourism activities and water use in their research. According to Gössling (2001), tourists use water for personal hygiene, laundry, ski activities, golf activities, spa & wellness reasons and in addition to these, swimming pools, garden maintenance and other attractions use significant amount of water. Golf tourism consume large amount of water without question. An 18-hole golf pitch needs 2.3 million liters of water daily (United Nations, 2006). Soboll and Schmude (2011) also tried to simulate the water use in ski destinations via their research.

Locations with plenty of water have always been an attraction to people. This is why one can mostly imagine a place with water (seaside, pools, lakes and rivers) when mentioning tourism (Akyüz, 2018: 13). In literature about water usage and tourism, most researches focus the consumption levels of hospitality facilities, but, unfortunately the consumption is not entirely limited to hospitality section. Akyüz (2018: 23) states that ski and golf resorts consume the most water among all tourism activities.

According to the research which investigates touristic water consumption among total use of water by liter per night; Australia (332), Spain (188), Germany (198), India (830), Indonesia (860), Malaysia (914) and Philippines (981) have different ratios of touristic consumption of water among total usage (Becken, 2014). These numbers show that the more a destination developed, the less ratio of water usage it has among total water usage. However, in either developed or developing countries, tourists consume more water than local residents do (Cruse, O'Keefe and Horwitz, 2010; Essex, Kent and Newnham, 2004). Another research indicates that tourism as a whole is responsible of %10 of total water usage which is equal to 21 million m³ in Cyprus (Hadjikou, Miller, Chenoweth, Druckman and Zoumidis, 2015). Fang, Yin and Wu (2018) also analyzed and composed a review that examines the relation between climate change and tourism activities in scientometric method while also stressing some indices about climate change which effects tourism experience. These indices are; tourism climate index by Mieczkowski (1985), the beach comfort index (Morgan, Gatell, Junyent, Micallef and Williams, 2000), climate index for tourism (De Freitas, Scott and McBoyle, 2008) and modified climate index for tourism (Yu, Schwartz and Walsh, 2009). Helmy (2003) states that indicators like indices are important to evaluate and regulate social, economic and environmental effects of tourism in tangible ways.

Another research about Mount Huanshan focuses on water foot-print (Zhang, Zhang, Zhou, Liu, zhang and Tian, 2017) and broaden the discussions about water use issues. Similar to that, Li (2018) serves some policy advices while stressing out water foot-print of tourism related activities in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei regions. However, most of the relevant researches about this topic focuses on environmental effects or impacts on tourism instead of focusing and explaining the whole complex relations and connections among dimension of tourism and environment (Arabadzhyan, Figini, Garcia, Lam-Gonzalez, & Leon, 2020).

2.2 Drought as the Impending Disaster: Reasons, Consequences and Solutions

Drought is a recurrent climate disaster which negatively affects human living and economies (Masih, Maskey, Mussa and Trambauer, 2014). The problematic existence of drought brings the consequences of extinction of some species, water shortage, desertification, damaging the beauty of natural parks and also changing and altering the travel decision of tourists (Scott, Jones and Konopek, 2007; Winter, 2008; Prideaux, Coghlan and McNamara, 2010). There is an important line to clarify about water shortage. According to Kasim, Gürsoy, Okumuş and Wong (2014) the amount of water means clean water for use and the quality of water means safe and reachable water supply for human beings.

Drought is not only a physical or a geographical issue but also has serious negative effects on society due to high dependence on water supplies (Shiklomanov and Rodda, 2003). Özfıdaner (2020: pp. 1-2) states that drought must be examined as a meteorological issue since it has different characteristics in each region such as different regimes of rainfall, temperature, soil attributes etc. However, the author generalizes the definition of drought as the shortage of the amount of water in a region in a period of time. The bitter phenomenon of drought is the most effective impact in Mediterranean region which lowers the plant production while also limits the development of different types of plants (Yazar, Sezen and Gencil, 2002; Bastuğ and Büyüktaş, 2003; Snyder, 2009).

Global warming and the climate change that follows it is the main reason for drought and pressure on water supplies (Huntington, 2006) which have hard-to-measure unpredictable consequences and impacts (Wilhite and Svoboda, 2000). IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) states that the overall temperature in the globe will rise 1.3°C-3°C until the end of 21st century (IPCC, 2013). Also, lack of capital and technology prevents developing and under-developed countries to take necessary measures to tackle climate change and drought while letting them vulnerable to consequences (Bryan, Deressa, Gbetibuou and Ringler, 2009). Kasim, Gürsoy, Okumuş and Wong (2014) stress out the global threat about drought and moreover, the authors investigate the impact of hotels on this issue. Another research focuses on depleting water resources and decrease of rainfall in Mediterranean region (Philandras, Nastos, Kapsomenakis, Douvis, Tselioudis and Zerefos, 2011). Also, UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organisation) warns about possible impacts of global warming on especially winter and sports related destinations (Bonzanigo, Giupponi and Balbi, 2016).

Without necessary measure, global warming will cause 2.7 billion of people to struggle to reach clean water due to 2°C overall increase in temperature (Koutroulis, Papadimitriou, Grillakis, Tsanis, Warren and Betts, 2019). Turkey is also located in Mediterranean region which is expected to be affected harshly by climate change and global warming. This region is believed to be hit by a decreasing tourist flow because of climate related issues and drought (UNWTO, 2009) To better understand the consequences, it might be wiser to show some research findings in table as can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Literature About Consequences of Drought

<i>Stress Point</i>	<i>Source</i>
Increase in extreme climate events such as tornados, windstorms, cyclones etc.	Bythell, Hillis-Starr and Rogers, 2000
%80 of tourists are prone to change their desired destination and/or unwilling to pay as much as they did due to climate change and sea-level changes	Uyarra, Cote, Gill, Tinch, Viner and Watkinson, 2005
A predictive research points that 2-meter sea level increase will result soil loss by %24 in optimistic scenario in Morocco	Snoussi, Ouchani and Niazi, 2008
Drought caused the drop of the number of tourists coming from Germany, France and Scandinavian countries to Benidorm, Spain	Martinez-Ibarra, 2015
Climate change and improving heat levels negatively affects winter destinations especially benefiting from skiing activities	Scott, McBoyle, Schwartzentruber, 2004
Global warming negatively affects seaside tourism destinations especially due to increasing level of sea	Moreno and Amelung, 2009; Fitchett, Grant and Hoogendorn, 2016
More than 400 cities in China which is equal to %60 of total population struggle to reach clear water supply	Geng, Maimaituerxun and Zhang, 2020

Consequences of drought on cultural tourism	Lwoga and Asubisye (2018)
Possible solutions on lowering carbon emissions on tourism industry	Gössling, Hall, Peeters and Scott, 2010
Adaptation strategies of tourism toward climate change in Africa	Hoogendoorn and Fitchett, 2018

About solutions debate, there are few suggestions and actions with different approaches. Differing tourism activities and types in Mediterranean is being mentioned in recent years (Bramwell, 2004; Rico-Amoros, Olcina-Cantos and Sauri, 2009). Productive and efficient planning of tourism will provide protecting of environment and water resources instead of depleting them (Lizardi-Jimenez, Leal-Bautista, Ordaz and Reyna-Velarde, 2015). Whittington and Xun (2019) mention about water management and define it as being aware of dynamics and risks of water use. A successful water management requires infrastructure that is sensitive to water usage including scientific research centers, water processing and production facilities which will also aid the sustainability of tourism (Scheepens, Vogtlander and Brezet, 2016).

To sustain tourism activities competitively, destinations must remain within the limits of ecosystem. Water management must be handled as a shared risk and opportunity among businesses, locals and destination management (Cole, 2014). Some case evidences prove that economic benefits of tourism activities support the water management in the area (Cole and Brown, 2015). Another case study points water management and planning in tourism destination of Costa Brava since it gets difficult to supply enough water for tourists and locals in summer heat (Vila, Afsordegan, Agell, Sanchez, Costa, 2018).

There are several ways to improve the amount of water resources such as detecting underground water fountains and recycling used water in urban areas (Lazarova, Hills and Birks, 2003). Tourism related businesses might well prefer less water-needy plants for outdoor decoration and therefore they will lower the amount of water needed for beautification efforts (Tortella and Tirado, 2011). In addition to that, hospitality businesses might adopt 4IR model for water management which includes “innovative reducing, innovative reusing, innovative reaching and innovative recycling” (Kasim, Gürsoy, Okumuş and Wong, 2014).

3. Research Methodology

This paper is built as an extended review with literature-based discussion. Hence, the paper focuses on subjects and topics related to “climate change”, “global warming”, “water usage”, “drought” and their 2-way impacts on tourism. This paper has its own systematic approach of viewing the topic and handling the issue which is developed after scanning current literature. Therefore, it is possible to classify this study as a “situation analysis” with authors first combine and then organize the current literature and the content of this paper.

4. Discussion, Conclusion and Limitations

As clearly seen, tourism and water usage are in relation in both ways just as environment, and water resources are depleting due to global warming and climate change because of natural reasons or human use. Decision makers in tourism in both destination or enterprise levels must seriously consider drought as a serious issue for two reasons: tourism activities are highly dependent on water and more importantly, saving and caring the first vital resource of humankind is a moral duty. Martin (2005) stresses that tourists consider climate conditions while deciding which destination to travel. There are plenty of researches supporting that idea while also adding that climate changes directly impact the popularity of a destinations while causing a sharp swift of tourist flow from one destination to another (Becken, 2005; Kyriakidis and Felton, 2008; Richins and Scarinci, 2009; Moreno, 2010; rosello and Waqas, 2015).

One important misunderstanding about the impact of tourism to water usage is the main reason of water usage in tourism. Hospitality sector is considered as the main water consumer, this might be considered as true even there is no strong evidence to compare with other tourism sub-sectors, but not necessarily the only reason for water consuming. Swimming pools, golf courts, artificial snow production consume significant amount of water as mentioned in earlier sections. Gössling and Peeters (2015) state that 2500 liters of water is need to produce 1 liter of biofuel and therefore it is not efficient to use this fuel in tourism industry. This is an important finding since tourism industry requires high amount of energy with its accommodation, recreation, entertainment and transportation sections. Akyüz (2018) stress an important issue reminding that tourism is responsible for %1 of total water use around the globe. Even though this

seems like a small number, the author also reminds that tourism activities concentrate on space and time and this concentrated small number causes real headache in drought times.

When looking at the current literature as a whole, one can spot that most of the papers concentrate on how water resources are depleted. There are also fewer but still many papers focus on the consequences of over-using water resources and fewer papers about the solutions. It is difficult to perfectly systematize current literature since sustainability and tourism-environment relations are considerably new topics for researchers. Also, drought just began to take attention as an emerging phenomenon with its increasing negative impacts.

To sum up, tourism activities are destined to be dependent on natural resources and attraction just like human kind does until tourism becomes a fully virtual activity which is another topic of investigate and argue since a solely digital technology may or may not be considered as “tourism” (Nuryyev, Spyridou, Yeh, & Lo, 2021). However, over-using of water in tourism industry is not necessarily a destiny and can be managed in a sustainable way by careful planning with multi-disciplinary coordination, research and efforts.

This paper offers an insight to current literature about tourism and drought while checking their relation in both ways and also, stresses the importance of caring for water resources for the sustainability of tourism and more importantly sustainability of human species and the globe. However, this paper lacks of empirical evidences to strengthen its ideas, rather it stands on current literature. There is still a distance to walk for researchers to establish the theoretical framework for better understanding and better handling the critical relation between tourism and environment.

References

- Arabadzhyan, A., Figini, P., Garcia, C., Lam-Gonzalez, M. M., & Leon, C. J. (2020). Climate change, coastal tourism and impact chains-a literature review. *Current Issues in Tourism*. doi:10.1080/13683500.2020.1825351
- Bastug, R., & Buyuktas, D. (2003). The effects of different irrigation levels applied in golf courses on some quality characteristics of torfgrass. *Irrigation Science*, 22(2), 87-93.
- Becken, S. (2005). Harmonizing climate change adaptation and mitigation: the case of tourist resorts in Fiji. *Global Environmental Change*, 15(4), 381-393.
- Becken, S. (2014). Water equity-contrasting tourism water use with that of the local community. *Water Resources and Industry*, 7(8), 9-22.
- Bonzanigo, L. (2016). Sustainable tourism planning and climate change adaptation in the Alps: a case stud of winter tourism in mountain communities in the Dolomites. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(4), 637-652.
- Bramwell, B. (2004). Mass tourism, diversification and sustainability in southern Europe's coastal regions. In B. Bramwell, *Coastal Mass Tourism: Diversification and Sustainable Development in Southern Europe* (pp. 1-31). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Bryan, E., Deressa, T. T., Gbetibouo, G. A., & Ringler, C. (2009). Adaptation to climate change in Ethiopia and South Africa: options and constraints. *Environmental Science and Policy*, 12(4), 413-426.
- Bythell, J. C., Hillis-Star, Z. M., & Rogers, C. S. (2000). Local variability but landscape stability in coral reef communities following repeated hurricane impacts. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 93-100. doi:doi.org/10.3354/meps204093
- Cole, S. (2014). Tourism and water: from stakeholders to rights holders, and what tourism businesses need to do. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 22(1), 89-106.
- Cole, S., & Brown, M. (2015). Tourism and water inequity in Bali: a social-ecological systems analysis. *Human ecology*, 43(3), 439-450.
- Collados, C., & Duane, T. P. (1999). Natural capital and quality of life: a model for evaluating the sustainability of alternative regional development paths. *Ecological Economics*(30), 441-460.
- Crase, L., O'Keefe, S., & Horwitz, P. (2010). *Australian tourism in a water constrained economy*. Gold Coast, Australia: CRC for Sustainable Tourism.
- Essex, S., Kent, M., & Newnham, R. (2004). Tourism development in Mallorca: is water supply a constraint? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 12(1), 4-28.
- Fang, Y., Yin, J., & Wu, B. (2018). Climate change and tourism: a scientrometric analysis using CiteSpace. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(1), 108-126.
- Fitchett, J. M., Grant, B., & Hoogendorn, G. (2016). Climate change threats to two low-lying South African coastal towns: Risks versus perceptions. *South African Journal of Science*. doi:10.2478/bog2016-0005
- Freitas, C. R., Scott, D., & McBoyle, G. (2008). A second generation climate index for tourism (CIT): spesification an verification. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 52(5), 76-84.
- Garrod, B., & Fyall, A. (1998). Beyond the rhetoric of sustainable tourism. *Tourism Management*, 19(3), 199-212.
- Geng, Y., Maimaituerxun, M., & Zhang, H. (2020). Coupling coordination of water governance and tourism: measurement and prediction. *Discrete Dynamics in Nature and Society*. doi:10.1155/2020/3683918
- Gössling, S. (2001). The consequences of tourism for sustainable water use on a tropical island: Zanzibar, Tanzania. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 61(2), 179-191.

- Gössling, S. (2002). Global environmental consequences of tourism. *Global Environmental Change*, 12(4), 283-302.
- Gössling, S., & Peeters, P. (2015). Assessing tourism's global environmental impact 1900-2050. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(5), 639-659.
- Gössling, S., Hall, C. M., & Peeters, P. (2010). The future of tourism: can tourism growth and climate policy be reconciled? A mitigation perspective. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 35(2), 119-130.
- Gülfıdan, A. (2018). Su Kullanımı Açısından Turizm Sektörünün Sürdürülebilirliği: Çevresel Girdi Çıktı Modeli Çerçevesinde Bir Analiz (Master Thesis). Antalya: Akdeniz Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Hadjikakou, M., Miller, G., Chenoweth, J., Druckman, A., & Zoumides, C. (2015). A comprehensive framework for comparing water use intensity across different tourist types. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1445-1467.
- Helmy, E. (2003). Towards integration of sustainability into tourism planning in developing countries: Egypt as a case study. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 7(6), 478-501.
- Hof, A., & Schmitt, T. (2011). Urban and tourist land use patterns and water consumption: evidence from Mallorca, Balearic Islands. *Land Use Policy*, 28(4), 792-804.
- Hoogendoorn, G., & Fitchett, J. M. (2018). Tourism and climate change: a review of threats and adaptation strategies for Africa. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 21(7), 742-759.
- Hunter, C. (1997). Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm. *Tourism Management*, 24(4), 850-867.
- Huntington, T. G. (2006). Evidence for intensification of the global water cycle: review and synthesis. *Journal of Hydrology*, 319(1-4), 83-95.
- IPCC. (2013). *Climate change 2013: the physical science basis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kahraman, N., & Türkay, O. (2006). *Turizm ve Çevre*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Kasim, A., Gursoy, D., Okumus, F., & Wong, A. (2014). The importance of water management in hotels: a framework for sustainability through innovation. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 22(7), 1090-1107.
- Koutroulis, A. G., Papadimitriou, L. V., Grillakis, M. G., Tsanis, I. K., Warren, R., & Betts, R. A. (2019). Global water availability under high-end climate change: a vulnerability base assesment. *Global and Planetary Change*, 52-63. doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2019.01.013
- Kyriakidis, A., & Felton, J. (2008). Too hot to handle? The hospitality industry faces up to climate change. *The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report*. Davos World Economic Forum.
- Lazarova, V., Hills, S., & Birks, R. (2003). Using recycled water for non-potable urban uses: a review with particular reference to toilet flushing. *Water Science and Technology*, 3(4), 69-77.
- Li, J. (2018). Scenario analysis of tourism's water footprint for China's Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region in 2020: implications for water policy. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(1), 127-145.
- Lizardi-Jimenez, M. A., Leal-Bautista, R. M., Ordaz, A., & Reyna-Velarde, R. (2015). Airlift bioreactors for hydrocarbon water pollution remediation in a tourism development pole. *Desalination and Water Treatment*, 21(1), 44-49.
- Lwoga, N. B., & Asubisye, E. (2018). Effects of drought on cultural tourism: selected cases of Maasai tourism groups surrounding Tarangire National Park in Tanzania. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 16(3), 248-264.
- Martin, M. B. (2005). Weather, climate and tourism a geographical perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(3), 571-591.

- Martinez-Ibarra, E. (2015). Climate, water and tourism: causes and effects of droughts associated with urban development and tourism in Benidorm (Spain). *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 59(5), 487-501.
- Masih, I., Maskey, S., Mussa, F. E., & Trambauer, P. (2014). A review of droughts on the African continent: a geospatial and long-term perspective. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences*, 18, 3635-3649.
- Matzarakis, A., Mayer, H., & Iziomon, M. G. (1999). Applications of a universal thematic index: physiological equivalent temperature. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 43(2), 76-84.
- Mercan, Ş. O. (2010). *Sürdürülebilir Turizm Kapsamında Bölgesel Planlama ve Turistik Ürün Oluşumu: Altınoluk Örneği Üzerine Bir Araştırma (PhD Thesis)*. İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Turizm İşletmeciliği Anabilim Dalı.
- Mieczkowski, Z. (1985). The tourism climatic index: a method of evaluating world climates for tourism. *The Canadian Geographer*, 29(3), 220-233.
- Moreno, A. (2010). Climate Change Impacts. In P. Martens, & C. T. Chang, *Linking Vulnerability, Adaptation and Mitigation* (pp. 30-47). Sheffield: Greenleaf.
- Moreno, A., & Amelung, B. (2009). Climate change and tourist comfort on Europe's beaches in summer: a reassessment. *Coastal Management*, 37(6), 550-568.
- Morgan, R., Gatell, E., Junyent, R., Micallef, A., Ozhan, E., & Williams, A. T. (2000). An improved user-based beach climate index. *Journal of Coastal Conservation*, 6(1), 41-50.
- Nuryyev, G., Spyridou, A., Yeh, S., & Lo, C.-C. (2021). Factors of digital payment adoption in hospitality businesses: A conceptual approach. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 29, 2905. doi:10.54055/ejtr.v29i.2416
- Özfidaner, M. (2020). *Türkiye Ölçeğinde Yağış ve Akım Kuraklık İndeksi ile Kuraklık Analizi ve Kurak Olma Olasılıklarının Belirlenmesi(PhD Thesis)*. Adana: Çukurova Üniversitesi Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- Philandras, C. M., Nastos, P. T., Kapsomenakis, J., Douvis, K. C., Tselioudis, G., & Zerefos, C. S. (2011). Long term precipitation trends and variability within the Mediterranean region. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Science*, 11(12), 3235-3250.
- Piga, C. A. (2003). Territorial planning and tourism development plan. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(4), 386-395.
- Prideaux, B., Coghlan, A., & McNamara, K. (2010). Assessing tourists' perceptions of climate change on mountain landscapes. *Tourism recreation Research*, 35, 187-200.
- Richins, H., & Scarinci, J. (2009). Climate change and sustainable practices: a case study of the resort industry in Florida. *Tourism: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 4(2), 107-128.
- Rico-Amoros, A. M., Olcina-Cantos, J., & Sauri, D. (2009). Tourists land use patterns and water demand: evidence from the western Mediterranean. *Land Use Policy*, 26(2), 493-501.
- Rosello, J., & Waqas, A. (2015). The use of tourism demand models in the estimation of the impact of climate change on tourism. *Revista Turismo em Analise*, 26(1), 4-20.
- Scheepens, A. E., Vogtlander, J. G., & Brezet, J. C. (2016). Two life cycle assessments (LCA) based methods to analyse and design complex (regional) circular economy systems. Case: making water tourism more sustainable. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 114, 257-268.
- Scott, D., Jones, B., & Konopek, J. (2007). Implications of climate and environmental change for nature-based tourism in the Canadian rocky mountains: a case study of Waterlon Kales National Park. *Tourism Management*, 28, 570-579.

- Scott, D., McBoyle, G., & Schwartzentruber, M. (2004). Climate change and distribution of climatic resources for tourism in North America. *Climate Research*, 27(2), 105-117.
- Seager, R., Ting, M., Li, C., Naik, N., Cook, B., Nakamura, J., & Liu, H. (2013). Projections of declining surface-water availability for the southwestern United States. *Natura Climate Change*, 3(5), 482-486. doi:10.1038/nclimate1787
- Shiklomanov, A., & C, R. J. (2003). *World Water Resources at the Beginning of the 21st Century*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Snoussi, M., Ouchani, T., & Niazi, S. (2008). Vulnerability assesment of the impact of sea-level rise and flooding on the Moroccan coast: the case of the Mediterranean eastern zone. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*, 77(2), 206-213.
- Snyder, W. E. (2009). Coccinellids in diverse communities: which niche fits? *Biological Control*, 51(2), 323-335.
- Soboll, A., & Schmude, J. (2011). Simulating tourism water consumption under climate change conditions using agent-based modeling: the example of ski areas. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 101(5), 1049-1066.
- Tont, S. A. (2001). *Sulak Bir Gezegenin Öyküleri*. Ankara: TÜBİTAK Yayınları.
- Tortella, B. D., & Tirado, D. (2011). Hotel water consumption at a seasonal mass tourist destination. The case of the island of Mallorca. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 92(10), 2568-2579.
- UNESCO. (2006). *Water, a shared responsibility*. Retrieved 02 10, 2021, from United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001444/1444409e.pdf>
- UNWTO. (2009). *Adaptation to Climate change in the Tourism Sector*. Retrieved 02 14, 2021, from <http://cf.cdn.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/adaptationtoclimatechangeonthetourismsector08-01-2009.pdf>
- Uyarra, M. C., Cote, M. I., Gill, J. A., Tinch, R. R., Viner, D., & Watkinson, A. R. (2005). Island-specific preferences of tourists for environmental features: implications of climate change for tourism-dependent states. *Environmental Conservation*, 32(1), 11-19.
- Vila, M., Afsordegan, A., Agell, N., Sanchez, M., & Costa, G. (2018). Influential factors n water planning for sustainable tourism destinations. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(7), 1241-1256.
- Wang, L. L., & Zhang, H. Q. (2019). The impact of marine tourism resources development on sustainable development of marine economy. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 94(1), 589-592.
- Whittington, D., & Xun, W. (2019). Editorial improving water governance in Kathmandu: insights from systems thinking and behavioral science. *Water Policy*, 21(1), 1-8.
- Wilhite, D. A., & Svoboda, M. D. (2000). Drought early warning systems in the context of drought preparedness and mitigation. *Early Warning systems for Drought Preparedness and Drought Management* (pp. 1-21). Lisboa: World Meteorological Organization.
- Winter, C. (2008). Tourism and climate change: risks and opportunities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 614-616. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2008.01.004
- Yazar, A., Sezen, S. M., & Gencel, B. (2002). Drip irrigation of corn in the southeast anatolia project (GAP) area in Turkey. *Journal of Irrigation and Drain Engineering*(51), 293-300.
- Yu, G., Schwartz, Z., & Walsh, J. E. (2009). A weather-resolving index for assessing the impact of climate change on tourism related climate resources. *Climate Change*, 95(3), 551-573.

Zhang, J., Zhang, Y., Zhou, Z., Liu, Z., Zhang, H., & Tian, Q. (2017). Tourism water footprint: an empirical analysis of Mount Huangshan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(1), 1083-1098.

Zhuang, Z., Yan, S., Wen, W., & Yilin, Y. (2019). Study on the utilization and protection of water resources in the ecotourism development of the Boluo lake wetland nature reserve in Jilin province. *Desalination and Water Treatment*, 116, 114-119.

The negative impact of the COVID-19 crisis on the activities of Czech mini-breweries

Monika Klímová¹, Ľubomír Kmeco², Josef Vacl³

¹University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic

ORCID ID:0000-0002-1661-1119

E-mail: mona.klimova@centrum.cz

²University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic

E-mail: kmeco@vso-praha.eu

³University College of Business in Prague, Czech Republic

E-mail: jvacl@seznam.cz

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to propose a way to minimize the negative impacts of COVID-19 pandemic on the activities of mini-breweries. Research questions: Has pandemic affected the decrease in mini-breweries production? Can tourism help to save mini-breweries? What specific problems has the pandemic caused to mini-breweries? How do mini-breweries solve their problems? The paper presents a comparative analysis of the results of primary sources obtained through a questionnaire survey. The research tool used was an online survey conducted between 10 September and 10 October 2020 capturing answers from 59 mini-breweries in the Czech Republic. The pandemic negatively or rather negatively affected the economy of mini-breweries (75%). The pandemic did not affect the economy at all (10%). The research clearly confirmed the need to strengthen the role of tourism as a tool to reduce the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on microbreweries. It demonstrates the need for a specific focus on a specific tourist segment coming to the Czech Republic, not only in beer or gastronomic tourism but also in experiential, cultural-historical and educational tourism in deeper cooperation with destination management organizations.

Keywords: Mini-breweries, Tourism, COVID-19

1. Introduction

The main stimulus for this contribution was the need to map the impact of the Covid 19 pandemic on Czech microbreweries. The Czech Republic is known in the world for its beer production, brewing tradition and quality of Czech beer. The Czech brewing industry has a rich history, dating back to the 9th century AD. Beer is one of the most popular drinks in the Czech Republic. Raw ingredients for beer production are exported from the Czech Republic to many countries around the world because malt and hops are among the highest quality raw materials for beer production. Czech brewers are invited anywhere in the world where they need to ensure the quality of beer brewing, its proper storage, bottling, etc. At present, the only state-owned brewery is Budějovický Budvar, other breweries in the Czech Republic are private. Mini-breweries have a significant role among private breweries. They have an irreplaceable place both in beer production and the maintenance of a healthy competitive environment in the quality of beer and its diversity.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the private business sector in gastronomy, tourism and brewing was significantly affected, and therefore the need arose to analyze the impact of COVID-19 on the activities of mini-breweries. The Czech-Moravian Association of Mini-Breweries, the Professional Association of Small Breweries, organized a questionnaire survey in the period between 10 September and 10 October 2020. The purpose of the survey was to find out the impact of the pandemic on microbreweries, what they are doing to mitigate the negative effects, how they are assessing government measures and how they see the future in the market.

The purpose of this paper is to present the current situation of Czech microbreweries in the context of tourism, to reveal specific forms of cooperation of microbreweries with travel agencies, accommodation and catering facilities, CzechTourism, DMO (destination management organization) organizations and professional organizations operating in tourism.

The secondary intention is to reflect the changes that the activities of mini-breweries are already undergoing or the changes that mini-breweries will undergo under the influence of COVID-19. The practical results are findings on the current situation of mini-breweries in the Czech Republic, support for their activities and measures that these entities had to take in order to maintain their own existence and maintain their production. In conclusion, there are suggestions for practice that could support the activities of mini-breweries in connection with the tourism of the Czech Republic and also help to revive the activities of travel agencies and other tourism entities affected in their activities by the COVID-19 pandemic.

2.Literature review

In 2018, tourism accounted for 2.9% of the Czech Republic's GDP, which corresponds to EUR 6.12 billion. 241,000 people were employed in the tourism sector - accounting for 4.4% of total employment. Consumption in tourism (domestic and foreign visitors) amounted to EUR 11.8 billion, of which domestic tourism accounted for EUR 50.48 billion (43%) and inbound tourism for EUR 67.4 billion (57%). This value was generated by 32.27 million foreign visitors. Revenues from tourism exceeded expenditures by EUR 3.4 billion (Český statistický úřad, 2020). The main activity of two-thirds of tourists, whether domestic or foreign, is beer tourism in the Czech Republic (Zelenka, Pásková, 2012).

The Czech Republic is one of the countries with the oldest brewing history in Europe (KVAS, 1908; Zýbrt, 2005). Until the 9th century, beer has been brewed in the Czech Republic at home since the 9th century the official history of brewing began to unfold and already at that time it began to differ from other beers in the world: "...beer produced in the Czech Republic is a weak alcoholic which is which is formed by the controlled fermentation of a sugar solution boiled with hops or a hop product, fermented by a selected strain of brewer's yeast at technologically determined temperatures and times of the main fermentation and ageing of beer. Starch, contained in barley malt, is mostly used as a source of sugar for beer in our country; if it is exceptionally replaced by another starchy raw material or directly by sugar, we speak of surrogacy and the substitute used is surrogate. " (Chládek, 2007.p.57)

The mentioned production processes are what determine the uniqueness of Czech beer and predict its competitiveness on the international market. Due to the fact that large Czech breweries deviate from the traditional beer production, which mini-breweries proudly adopted, the increase in the number of mini-breweries and their growing popularity among residents and foreign tourists is understandable. The cooperation of mini-breweries with travel agency, housing and catering facilities, connected with other elements of beer tourism (Vacl, 2014, 2018) successfully supported the growing popularity until the first half of 2020.

3.Research methodology

The main purpose of this paper is to present the results of a comparative analysis of the impact of the global pandemic COVID-19 on mini-breweries in the Czech Republic and to outline the measures the breweries have taken to mitigate the negative effects.

Research questions:

- Has pandemic affected the decrease in mini-breweries production?
- Can tourism help to save mini-breweries?
- What specific problems has the pandemic caused to mini-breweries?
- How do mini-breweries solve their problems?

The paper presents a comparative analysis of the results of primary sources obtained through a questionnaire survey. The research tool used was an online survey conducted between 10 September and 10 October 2020 capturing answers from 59 mini-breweries in the Czech Republic. The survey examined effects of the pandemic, views on the changing beer market, mitigation measures, effects on demand for beer and other services and evaluation of government

measures. Minibreweries were contacted in writing or in person. There were three categories for the length of operation of the minibrewery on the market. 33 microbreweries have been on the market for more than 5 years, 23 for a period of 2 to 5 years and the remaining 3 have been on the market for less than 2 years. It was also examined where mini-breweries have their headquarters. The majority of respondents was from municipalities with less than 2,000 inhabitants, a total of 14. Cities of 2 – 5 000 habitants were represented by 6 microbreweries, 5 – 10 000 by 8, 10 – 50 000 by 9, 50 – 100 000 by 1 and larger than 100 000 by 9. The second largest group consisted of breweries from Prague with 12 responses. The comparative analysis, including a questionnaire survey, was carried out in cooperation with the Czech-Moravian Association of Mini-Breweries, the professional association of craft breweries and PORT spol. s r. o. agency.

The questionnaire consisted of seven questions, four of which were multi-choice, and respondents were asked to choose the one that best suited their opinion. Respondents had the opportunity to express their own opinion if none of the options corresponded to their opinion. The data collected will be used as leverage in negotiations with government authorities in order to ensure adequate support and positively influence business in the artisan brewery segment.

Another methodological step was the analysis of adopted or proposed measures of the examined mini-breweries for the following period in connection with government measures, strategic materials of the ministries concerned and professional organizations. The analysis was performed using knowledge from literary research, further study of professional literature and conceptual documents. Procedures and entities have been defined that could, to varying degrees, contribute to supporting the maintenance of microbreweries and their activities.

The information obtained from secondary sources is enriched with data from primary sources - a questionnaire survey conducted in 2020, telephone interviews with employees of microbreweries and the results of a study by one of the authors of this paper (Vacl, 2014, 2018). These studies analyzed the cooperation of small breweries with travel agencies, carriers and municipalities. The research addressed 100 mini-breweries from all over the Czech Republic. The first part of the research showed that 75% of mini-breweries not only offer gastronomic services in restaurants but also allow customers to look into beer production in the form of excursions in breweries and beer museum visits. Furthermore, the analysis evaluated the ratio of domestic and foreign visitors to mini-breweries and concluded that 52% of guests are locals, 26% are guests from other parts of the Czech Republic and 21% are foreign visitors.

The paper provides a comprehensive view of the current situation of mini-breweries in the Czech Republic, their role in tourism, presents an overview of measures already taken to maintain or revive their activities in the current crisis caused by the impact of the global pandemic COVID-19.

4. Findings and analysis

The first persons infected with a new type of coronavirus appeared in central China at the end of 2019. A few months later, on March 11, 2020, a COVID-19 pandemic was declared by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2020). Tourism, as an activity related to the movement of people and their encounters, is undesirable during the spread of a contagious disease. Therefore, this sector of the economy was hit first and travel as a non-priority leisure activity (compared to the importance of slowing down the spread of the disease) was among the last activities restored with strict adherence to hygiene measures. As a result of the pandemic, the number of employees worldwide has dropped by almost one billion. Due to the multidisciplinary nature of tourism, these losses affected providers of accommodation and catering services, including specific types of adventure tourism, including gastronomy and beer (UNWTO: Global guidelines to restart tourism. 2020).

Numerical estimates of the impacts of measures related to the coronavirus pandemic on tourism in the Czech Republic were also published in June 2020 by the Confederation of Trade and Tourism. Overall, the drop of 50% was estimated compared to 2019. In order for the loss of income from incoming tourism from abroad to be compensated by domestic visitors, Czechs would have to have about 6-8 weeks of vacation in 2020 and spend thousands of crowns more than it is a habit for them (Pancíř, 2020). The estimates at that time did not anticipate a worsening of the epidemiological situation in autumn 2020. The current most optimistic estimates point to return to pre-COVID-19 pandemic numbers by the end of 2024 at the earliest (Trimble et al., 2020).

The residents will be the most important thing for tourism in the Czech Republic for the mentioned "bridging" period. Domestic tourism will also play an unmistakable role in beer tourism and support for the activities of mini-breweries. The results of the primary research of this paper also speak in favour of this theory, when the respondents clearly stated the preference of mini-breweries as opposed to large breweries. They cited the fact that large breweries in the

Czech Republic are abandoning the traditional way of brewing beer, using traditional raw ingredients for its brewing and thus changing the taste and quality of beer. Respondents clearly agreed that what attracts them to Czech beer is precisely the unmistakable taste, quality, traditional ways of brewing the drink and the use of specific ingredients in its production. The relative speed and simplicity of establishing a brewery also speaks clearly for restarting the activities of mini-breweries, or the creation of new ones. Mini-breweries are most often established as part of restaurants. A functioning restaurant with sufficient unused space can expand its operation to include beer production within six months. The commissioning time of the brewery always depends on the initial state of the project. In the case of expanding the business of a company that already operates a restaurant, the process of establishing and commissioning a brewery is much shorter than in the case of establishing a new company and building a brewery on a "green field" It can therefore be expected that a number of other mini-breweries will be established as a tool to support the sale and operation of existing restaurant facilities.

The existence and activity of mini-breweries is associated not only with domestic tourism, but also with inbound tourism, in this sector we can expect the biggest boom in connection with the gradual loosening restrictions and opening of the borders to surrounding countries, from which you can come to the Czech Republic by car. This fact manifested itself already in the summer of 2020, when tourists from Germany, Poland and Slovakia most often travelled to the Czech Republic (Český statistický úřad, 2020). A similar trend is likely to be observed in the coming years, as demand in the Europe tourist region is expected to increase from 2021, especially for shorter journeys over shorter distances (Trimble et al., 2020). Therefore, it will be appropriate to target the offer of mini-breweries and their products to the most important source countries (Germany, Poland, Slovakia) and their specifics, which can be seen as an opportunity for mini-breweries to re-evaluate the current approach to tourism and cooperation with travel agencies, DMOs and other entities participating in tourism. It is possible to understand the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic as an opportunity to build new cooperation, marketing strategies (which are confirmed by the results of primary research of this paper), creation of new tourist products (eg Beer Trails) and reorientation to other forms of tourism (Experiential beer gastronomy), targeting other tourist segments. Most of the addressed Czech mini-breweries became aware of this fact already during the COVID-19 pandemic and, in addition to the mentioned activities, changed or modified their business model, invested in new technologies, and expanded their product range. At present, however, it is difficult to estimate which new products or forms of tourism will gain a foothold in the activities of mini-breweries and what further measures the mini-breweries will have to take in order to maintain their activities and full business. According to the Association of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises of the Czech Republic, they "strive to survive" by reaching out to existing and gaining new clients, and faces greater pressure on the quality of services provided - with emphasis on their sustainability, digitization and automation of related administration (reservations, orders, payments). AMSP CR, 2020).

In addition to the external barriers to tourism, such as travel restrictions when crossing borders (for example, the need for a negative virus test, health, subjective perceptions of the risk of infection, and economic ones, such as income restrictions, uncertainty and thus greater willingness to make savings), the internal obstacles can be named as well such as fear of infection and uncertainty about the course of the journey within the disruption of transport connections.

5. Discussion

The Czech Republic is a major producer and exporter of beer. Given the brewing tradition lasting more than 10 centuries, it is understandable that the Czechs are among the largest consumers of beer in the world - the Czech Republic holds the record in beer consumption per person, in 2018 when there were 141 beers consumed per capita (Český statistický úřad, 2019). Mini-breweries are being established more and more often. Their popularity is growing not only among entrepreneurs but also among consumers. Managers and brewers agree that opening a mini-brewery pays off for entrepreneurs - most often they arise as part of a restaurant, where entrepreneurs use, for example, a sufficiently large unused space. Construction and commissioning takes an average of half a year and is thus an ideal solution to competition. Thanks to the mini-brewery, the company will be sufficiently different from the competing restaurants in the area, it will gain more clients and it will also attract tourists who otherwise would probably not visit the company. The competitive advantage of mini-breweries is the fact that mini-breweries are committed to traditional beer production, historical recipes and ingredients that large breweries abandoned. Brewers of small breweries have more time to brew, so the beer can go through, for example, three hop cycles. The price level of beers from small breweries is higher than the price of beer sold in large volumes in supermarkets. Therefore, brewers can brew beer more slowly from higher quality ingredients following traditional recipes. Until the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, the growing popularity of mini-breweries grew not only among Czech clients but also among foreign

tourists during their stay in the Czech Republic. The reason is the quality of the offered beer, but also a number of additional events aimed at tourists: excursions to mini-breweries, the possibility of tasting drinks directly in the mini-brewery, beer spa, beer gastronomy, accommodation, etc. The growing popularity of mini-breweries also copies the applied modern trends in tourism - a return to the roots, traditions, unmistakability of the region. People are looking for traditional production, a fresh taste that is very different from those commonly available from commercially processed and sold beers.

Chart 1. Factors influencing demand for beer and other services offered by microbrewery

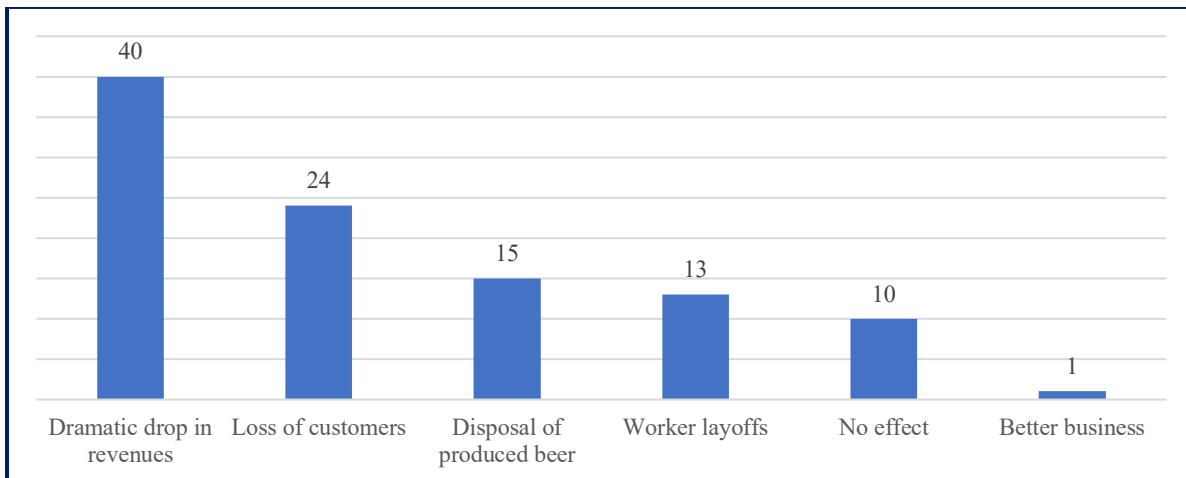


Back in 2014, it was estimated that the number of mini-breweries would reach 200 bar (VÚPS, 2014). However, the speed with which mini-breweries in municipalities and cities of all sizes have been opening has exceeded expectations. Before the start of the covid pandemic, the number of mini-breweries was over 400. Five per cent of mini-breweries ceased operations during the covid pandemic, but quite surprisingly, at the time of the dismantling in May 2021, they announced the restart of their activities.

The results of the questionnaire survey and additional sources, especially personal and telephone inquiries, revealed the following findings: the COVID-19 pandemic had a clearly unfavourable impact on Czech microbreweries, two-thirds of microbreweries recorded a dramatic decline in profit, which was reflected in beer production itself, which the mini-breweries were forced to reduce. Employees lost their jobs, losses caused by the liquidation of already produced beer, closed restaurant premises and the number of customers fell by 40%, 5% of microbreweries operating until the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic went bankrupt and ceased operations due to the covid crisis.

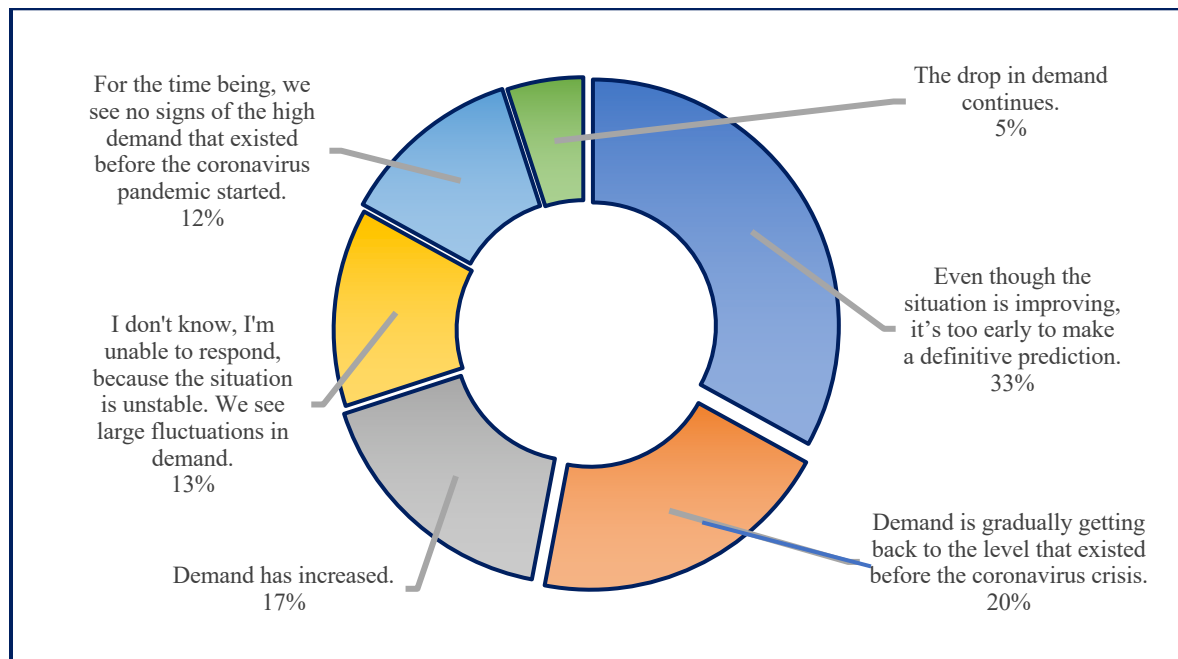
Despite these facts, 10% of microbreweries stated that they did not experience any significant impact of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Chart 2. The impact of epidemic on microbrewery business



Travel is important for the existence of microbreweries, the several waves of restrictions on inbound tourism were the worst, as well as restrictions on residents' travel between districts in the spring of 2021. Minibrewery managers and owners agreed that the period from January to early May 2021 was the most difficult. One third agreed that it was too early to assess or generalize the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on their microbreweries.

Chart 3. Demand for beer produced by your microbrewery



Nevertheless, they began to realize the dire impact of the pandemic crisis already during government measures that closed or reduced operations and they began very quickly taking measures to revive production, sale of brewed beer, changes in the way beer gastronomy is offered. The fact that already now, at a time of the gradual dismantling of government measures, most microbreweries perceive consumer behaviour positively - demand for beer from microbreweries is gradually growing, and as microbreweries began to take protective measures almost immediately after the global pandemic of product innovation and marketing, they assume that they will be able to restart their business, but they estimate a return to the state before the COVID-19 pandemic in two to three years at the earliest. Whether they succeed will clearly be a test of the ability of microbreweries to adapt to the crisis caused by the global COVID-19 pandemic and to show sufficient creativity. Most mini-breweries are aware of the dependence on foreign tourists, so as part of the measure they started implementing new activities in the form of preparation of beer hiking trails and bike paths, new sightseeing tours in mini-breweries, tastings and tasting separate evenings, souvenirs. Newly, most mini-breweries are considering or already preparing, for example, brewing museums, organizing entertainment and social events, demonstrations of beer brewing, for those interested in experiential training courses for brewing beer, experience courses, etc.

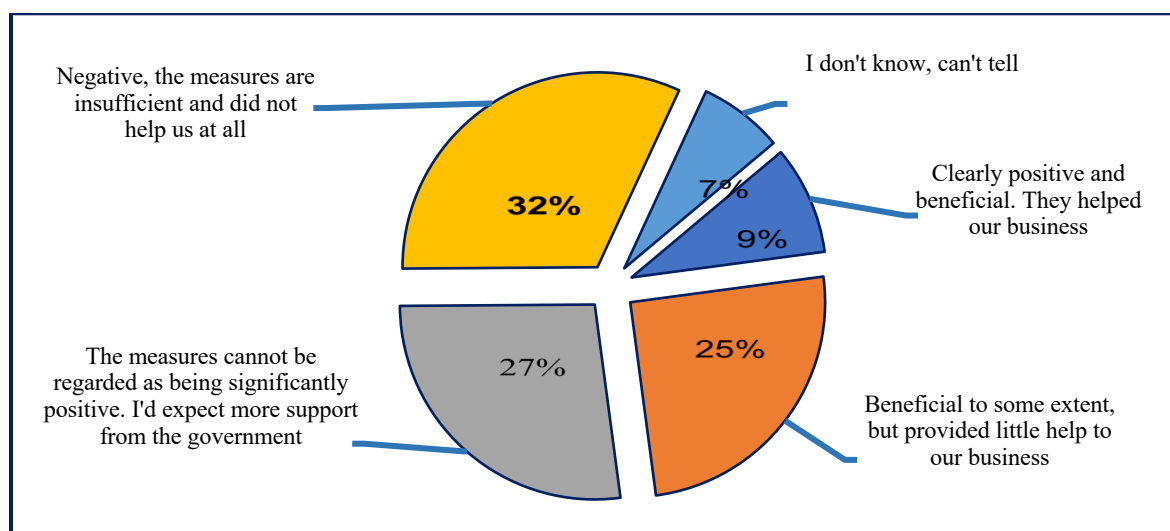
The research also indicated the possibility of cooperation that is not yet widely used, namely cooperation with the DMO or the Tourist Centers of the region in which the brewery is located. The authors see other possibilities in cooperation with the municipalities in which mini-breweries operate. Municipalities and cities are gradually welcoming the fact that breweries are reappearing, often, of course, with much smaller production. However, they offer something that, together with restaurants where beer is consumed, distinguishes them from others, genius loci. Something specific. And also, as expected and increasingly proving itself, the attractiveness for tourism. It is local beers that not only mean an expansion of the offer of often new, unique types of beer, but also bring with them the need to taste them elsewhere. And the travels for beer is more and more often. Mini-breweries thus become a tourist attraction, which enriches the offer of attractions and services in small municipalities and in large cities in the Czech Republic.

Another possibility for the cooperation of mini-breweries with participating entities in tourism is the cooperation

with travel agencies focused on inbound tourism, experiential gastro tourism and beer tourism, educational and cultural-historical tourism. Cooperation with the CzechTourism agency seems to be realistic, which enables us to draw state subsidies and support for specific projects in domestic and foreign tourism even now. Within the proposed marketing cooperation with the CzechTourism agency, it is necessary to streamline domestic and foreign marketing projects so that mini-breweries are visible and increase the awareness of domestic and foreign tourists about specific mini-breweries in specific regions and establish regional-wide cooperation was established with mini-breweries in the basic sense of the activities of destination management, which was practically non-existent in the Czech Republic until the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. Increasing the awareness of tourists about the existence of mini-breweries, their products and additional activities will expand the current offer of the existing range and thus their usability in tourism. This proposal is also based on the announced changes in the promotion of the Czech Republic as a whole, which is also reflected in the forthcoming CzechTourism Strategy for 2021–2025.

The most criticism from minibreweries was directed at government measures, which were found to be insufficient, inflexible and very slow.

Chart 4. The measures the government has adopted in connection with the coronavirus pandemic



For this reason, microbreweries do not rely on government aid, there is significant dissatisfaction in this regard, and therefore other proposals aim to maintain online sales of bottled beer, which was exacerbated by the situation during the COVID-19 pandemic and proved effective. Furthermore, it is proposed by the mini-breweries to preserve the personal consumption of bottled beer, as well as beer dishes from the restaurant of a specific mini-brewery.

6. Conclusions

In conclusion, it can be stated that it was possible to map the current situation of Czech microbreweries based on a survey of the Czech-Moravian Association of Minibreweries, the Professional Association of Small Breweries, organized in the period from 10 September to 10 October 2020 in the form of a questionnaire survey, personal and telephone interviews with managers or directors of minibreweries who participated in the survey. The purpose of the survey was to find out the impact of the pandemic on microbreweries, what they are doing to mitigate the negative effects, how they are assessing government measures and how they see the future in the market.

It was clearly proven that for two-thirds of microbreweries, the global pandemic COVID-19 had a negative impact on their activities, affected the number of employees, beer production, significantly reduced operations and sales of beers or beer dishes, changed business behaviour and marketing of microbreweries, changed the intended product offer after the end of restrictive government measures resulting from the ban on contact with a larger number of people and opening of establishments (shops, restaurants, mini-breweries for excursions). Given that the government's financial support programs to support entrepreneurs in restaurants and gastronomic and beer establishments rated two-thirds of mini-breweries as ineffective and were the subject of sharp criticism by respondents, most of the corresponding mini-

breweries are aware of the fact that the restart of their businesses lies under their direction. Therefore, they welcomed the suggestions made in the previous part of the paper. Apart from the fact that the most important thing for the future of mini-breweries is their good reputation associated with the quality and originality of the brewed particular beer, they are fully aware that their existence is more than 75% associated with tourism. The proposals of the authors of the article are also based on this finding.

This paper provided an overview of the impact of the global COVID-19 pandemic on Czech microbreweries. It provides readers with a more detailed view of the situation of mini-breweries in the Czech Republic, the rationale for their growing number and the popularity of their role in domestic and inbound tourism. In connection with the evaluation of the survey, the authors of the article offer several proposals and solutions on how to cope with the effects of the covid epidemic, restart business and revive the activities of the surveyed breweries in cooperation with domestic and inbound tourism. Given that government restrictions on business, government support programs for private entrepreneurs, have not yet been fully completed and dismantling is still underway in the days of article completion, it is soon to draw clear conclusions. In this context, further possibilities for follow-up research are opening up. The advice and recommendations contained in the paper can thus be the subject of further discussion.

References

- Bílý, V. (2009). Nová vyhláška zřehlední orientaci v širokém sortimentu piv (eAGRI) [Http://eagri.cz/public/web/mze/tiskovy-servis/tiskove-zpravy/x2018_nova-vyhlaska-zprehledni-orientaci-v.html](http://eagri.cz/public/web/mze/tiskovy-servis/tiskove-zpravy/x2018_nova-vyhlaska-zprehledni-orientaci-v.html). [Accessed the 5th of February 2021, 15:30]
- Chládek, L. (2007). Pivovarnictví. Praha: Grada Publishing. ISBN 978-80-247-6623-2.
- Český statistický úřad. Satelitní účet cestovního ruchu. https://www.czso.cz/csu/czso/satelitni_ucet_cestovniho_ruchu. [Accessed the 28th of August 2020, 12:30]
- McKinsey. COVID-19 tourism spend recovery in numbers. <https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/travel-logistics-and-transport-infrastructure/our-insights/covid-19-tourism-spend-recovery-in-numbers?cid=other-eml-alt-mip-mck&hdpid=e3159b12-26b1-4f41-87c3-a48e24932630&hctky=12250927&hlkid=03ea3268d42442ca8b40146eec3c8990>. [Accessed the 6th of November 2020, 10:30]
- Kvas: časopis pro pivovarnictví, vinopalství, vinařství a chmelařství. Praha: Ant. St. Schmelzer, 20.07.1908, 36 (21)
- Pancíř, T., „K věci“: Dopady koronaviru. Rozhovor s ředitelkou Středočeské centrály cestovního ruchu Zuzanou Vojtovou. <https://podmailer.com/podcast/k-v-ci/dopady-koronaviru-ve-st-ednich-echach-neotev-ely-d>. [Accessed the 25th of October 2020, 15:20]
- Pike, S. (2012). Destination Marketing. An Integrated Marketing Communication Approach. Oxford.
- SOCR ČR. Dopady na cestovní ruch způsobené pandemií koronaviru <http://www.socr.cz/clanek/dopady-na-cestovni-ruch-zpusobene-pandemii-koronaviru/> [Accessed the 25th of October 2020, 11:35]
- Travel Consul. The Impact and Outlook of The COVID-19 Outbreak to Travel Distribution Partners. <https://rsvp.theworldsbest.events/o7npp>. [Accessed the 1th of November 2020, 15:13]
- Trimble S.J., Ferran K., McDermott H., MC Dermott H. COVID-19: Pandemic impacts on European city tourism. 2020. https://s3.amazonaws.com/tourism-economics/craft/Latest-Research-Docs/Summary-GCT_corona_regional_RB_EUR-final-TE-PDF.pdf. [Accessed the 25th of November 2020, 11:30]
- UNWTO: Global guidelines to restart tourism. 2020. Available at: <https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-05/UNWTO-Global-Guidelines-to-Restart-Tourism.pdf>. [Accessed the 25th of October 2020, 13:30]
- UNWTO. UNWTO reports. International tourist numbers down 65 % in first half of 2020a. <https://www.unwto.org/news/international-tourist-numbers-down-65-in-first-half-of-2020-unwto-reports>. [Accessed the 23th of September 2020, 14:10]
- Vacl, J. (2014). Microbreweries as Attractive Tourist Destinations in the Czech Republic. Kvasny Prumysl., 60(11), 297-306. DOI: 10.18832/kp2014029. ISSN 00235830.
- Vacl, J. (2018). Dopad minipivovarů na cestování v České republice. Kvasný průmysl., 64 (2), 76-87. DOI: pdfs / kpr / 2018/02/06. ISSN 0023-5830.
- Vacl, J. and Šuráň J. (2020). Inovace a kreativita je reakce minipivovarů na následné dopady pandemie . KVASNÝ. 65 (6), 29-33. ISSN 2671-3868.
- Verhoef, B. (2003). Velká encyklopedie piva. Čestlice: Rebo Productions. ISBN 80- 723-4283-5.
- VUPS- Ročenka 2014 - Zpráva o činnosti VÚPS za rok 2013, <https://beerresearch.cz/download/rocenka-2014/#> [Accessed the 21th of October 2020, 16:20]
- Weigl, M., & Zöhrer, M. (2005) https://www.ssoar.info/ssoar/bitstream/handle/document/19599/ssoar-2005-weigl_et_al-regionale_selbstverstandnisse_und_gegenseitige_wahrnehmung.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed. Regionale Selbstverständnisse und gegenseitige Wahrnehmung von Deutschen und Tschechen. [Accessed the 17th of September 2020, 14:55]
- World Health Organisation. Coronavirus. Available at: https://www.who.int/health-topics/coronavirus#tab=tab_1. [Accessed the 23th of October 2020, 13:45]

Zelenka, J. and Pásková, M. Výkladový slovník cestovního ruchu. Kompletně přeprac. a dopl. 2. vyd. Praha: Linde Praha, 2012. ISBN 978-80-7201-880-2.

Zýbrt, V. (2005). Velká kniha piva: vše o pivu. Olomouc: Rubico. ISBN 807346-054-8.

Travel behaviour of vegetarians and vegans: Investigation and marketing proposals to facilitate the development of vegan food tourism

Georgia Zouni¹, Maria I. Klouvidaki²

¹University of Piraeus, Greece
ORCHID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3388-1591>
Email: gzouni@gmail.com

²Hellenic Open University, Greece
ORCHID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3378-4318>
Email: mklouvidaki@gmail.com

Abstract

The aim of the paper is twofold: (a) investigation of the travel behaviour and consumption patterns of vegans related to travel and, (b) marketing proposals for tourist destinations to facilitate the development of vegan food tourism and to offer better services for vegan tourists. A sample survey was conducted to determine the travel behaviour, attitudes, and preferences of vegans. The sample frame consisted of 218 exclusively vegan people. The data was collected through the online completion of a questionnaire that was distributed via purposive sampling technique through social media and email databases. Results highlight the importance for tourist destinations and providers of acknowledging vegan tourists' travel behaviour and preferences in order to develop sustainable destination strategies. This study can be considered among the first attempts to investigate the travel behaviour of vegans. Up to now, research that has been carried out relates to a specific area and does not analyse the preferences of vegan travelers in general and how tourist destinations and organizations should attract them. Tourism amenities need to have special menus and vegan/vegetarian options.

Keywords Vegans, Vegetarians, Vegan's travel behaviour

1. Introduction

Vegans nowadays belong to a new category of travelers, as they seek specific services and products that are specially designed for them. This tourist market is of great interest as it is not only a special type of diet, but a different way of lifestyle, which in recent years has gained more and more fans worldwide. According to Nguyen (2019), between 2014 and 2017, the number of vegetarians in the US increased by 600%, while in the UK it increased by 350%. Although it corresponds to only 1 million people (0.5%). This survey, through the primary data that emerged from the respondents' answers gives a clear, comprehensive and global picture of the behavior of those who travel and follow a holistic vegan lifestyle. A great piece of academic research has been conducted based on samples of vegetarians and vegans, on their way of life and what reasons led them to make this change. Few studies focused exclusively on vegans, show that the initial reasons relate to health and then to the defense of Animal Rights.

The existing research is not enough to cover the range of vegetarian tourists, their preferences, the criteria they have before choosing a destination and the treatment they want to receive from the tourism business. The purpose of this study is to examine the travel behaviour of vegans/vegetarians and make marketing proposals for tourist destinations to facilitate the development of vegan food tourism and to offer better services for vegan tourists. More importantly, the results of the research will contribute to understand more the vegan lifestyle, especially their preferences and travel behavior. Specifically, this study seeks to answer the following research questions: (a) Do vegans wish to receive different/ special services other than those offered by tourism businesses? (b) Do vegans have difficulty finding food related products? (c) Do vegans always have food in mind when choosing activities, during their stay at a destination? (d) Are they satisfied with vegan foods offered by restaurants with vegan options? (e) What are the improvements vegans want from food businesses, in terms of dishes quality and variety as well as the hospitality of the staff?

Finally, based on the review of literature, the following hypotheses were formulated and examined: Ho The travel frequency of vegans and demographic variables (age, gender, monthly average income) are not independent.

2.Literature review

Vegan Travel Behaviour

In the near past, veganism was a minority, but it has now become one of the biggest trends, leading to a large increase in the plant food market. Vegetarians are picky about the activities they choose to do when they are on holiday, as they will not prefer visits to zoos, theme parks, aquariums, horseback riding, camel rides, hunting, visits to cheese factories, other industries, aquaculture, farms and fishing. The method of research used was qualitative. The results of the survey showed that vegetarian food has a significant impact on the choice of travel destination, while food is often an exclusive incentive for travel. The respondents describing themselves as "food travelers" choose a destination based on its availability of vegetarian food and tend to seek information on vegetarian restaurants and shops in their destination, before travelling there. The survey also found that vegetarian lifestyles can deter participants from visiting some places where the supply of vegetarian food is limited, or important matters such as animal abuse and environmental issues are neglected. The results suggest that one's travel incentive may not remain the same, but change over time, depending on its needs, since each person cannot always take decisions independently, as they may travel with friends, family or a companion. In fact, several vegetarian restaurants in the U.S. are appealing to the whole world in order to consume healthier foods, urging them to visit such type of restaurants to form their own opinion. The vegetarian restaurants included in the survey were 45 in number, in counties where restaurants had an average population of $36.5 \pm 18.5\%$, the average poverty rate was $15.5 \pm 3.85\%$, and the average rate of obesity $26.8 \pm 4.8\%$. More than one third ($n = 18, 40.0\%$) The restaurants were in a food zone. The owners of these restaurants said they are trying to educate customers on vegetarian and healthy diets while they stressed that there is an urgent need for people to familiarize themselves culturally with vegetarian foods, using good raw materials (Vegan Society, 2019). The survey showed that it is easier for vegetarians to find products both in the European Union and in the USA and in Asia (Beardsworth and Keil, 1991). It is worth noting that in some cases the groups of vegetarians help those who are vegetarian themselves, to communicate with each other especially, in cases where vegetarians travel to other countries. For example, there are many vegetarian sites, and they provide a 'passport' for vegetarians, which has a short description explaining that the individual is vegetarian and has been translated into several languages so when vegetarians cannot speak the language of the country, they are directed to the locals through this page. With regard to travel, airlines usually have vegetarian options, and there are vegetarian meals on the cruises on request. However, the companies managing the cruise ships, do not clarify what menu they have, as it was shown through the survey, so when choosing a vegetarian meal, one does not know what one will face (Cole, 2008).

Vegans Behaviour Prior travel

In this survey, it was shown that 96.8% choose Europe for their travels, 1.8% for Asia and 0.9% for North America. Vegans, when looking for a destination for their holidays, first look for information about the activities they can enjoy. However, in the primary survey conducted, the results are slightly different from those of the secondary surveys studied (Werneth, 2018). In this survey, therefore, it emerged that 78.4% are interested in attractions, 38.5% in vegan restaurants, 8.3% in nightlife, 7.3% in vegan activities and only 5% in vegan hotels. Popular are vegan tours, where they visit local vegan restaurants, or food industries, shops that make vegan bags or shoes made of synthetic and ecological skins, factories that produce zero waste (zero waste, i.e., products without plastic and without materials that wear out and are not recycled), products and visits to bistros for vegan coffee and beverages. Vegan tourists essentially seek new experiences, flavors and adventure. Seventy per cent of travelers are women, and ages range from 14 to 53, with an average age of 26 years (Fox and Ward 2008).

The purpose of the trip is (Werneth, 2018), first of all the testing of new flavors, in vegan or vegan-friendly restaurants, then social interaction with other vegans and contact with other cultures. However, the food and primarily traditional dishes of each country remain the main opinion. According to Kansanen (2013), 40% of respondents say that food is one of the main factors in choosing the destination.

However, the survey showed that the leading motivation of vegan travelers is leisure with 65.9%, entertainment with 35.9%, visiting relatives with 14.2%, historical monuments 13.8%, work reasons 13.3% and finally shopping 1.4%. What they are looking for is something different, something they cannot see or taste in their country. In this study, the results showed that 78.4% are interested in attractions, 38.5% in vegan restaurants, 8.3% in nightlife, 7.3% in vegan activities and 5% in vegan hotels. The basic condition is to have vegan restaurants and bistros in the destination as well as activities that do not include animal abuse or exploitation. According to Kansanen (2013), 50% of respondents said they choose a destination by whether it is easy to find vegan food while the other 50% are not nervous about finding food. From the results of this survey, it has been shown that the majority are particularly interested in culture and culture while following the environment, nature and towards the end vegan food choices. It seems that in 2020 it is not as difficult for a vegan as it used to be, to find suitable food. Moreover, everyone stressed that they prefer to

travel to major European cities, as there are many vegan options, ideally mentioning Berlin, Stockholm, Chania (Greece), Scandinavia in general, England, whereas not so ideal countries are Spain, Russia, Panama, Africa and some parts of Korea. For America, opinions are divided. Consumers are increasingly looking for new experiences and this is a very important criterion for them, (Morgan, 2006). Experiences, in the surveys studied, they are referred to as processes occurring in various phases (e.g., as a search for restaurants or traditional local foods), during (e.g., facilities) and after holidays (e.g., due to the purchase of local food items, mementos of experiences in different phases and places leading to what could be considered a holistic experience of basic consumption (e.g., holidays) (Kaupinen-Raisanen et al, 2013). It is worth noting that 57.8% replied that food and lifestyle does not affect the choice of travel destination, 41.3% replied that it does affect it, while 0.9% did not respond at all. Mostly, vegans choose accommodation based on the best price and if it offers vegetarian options on the menu, it affects them positively. Popular are vegan-friendly hotels or Airbnb. This is why more and more hotels and homes rented on platforms call themselves vegan, offering everything a vegetarian needs. This survey showed that 49.1% choose a hotel for their stay, 29.1% Airbnb, 12.8% rented rooms, 4.1% Hostel and 2.3% free hosting programs such as Couch Surfing. The Vegvisits page, a network like Couch Surfing, which has registered vegans from all over the world, who have a free room in their home in order to accommodate other vegans on the condition that they reciprocate their hospitality. In this survey, it is reported that the travel preparation time is for 37.5% two to four weeks, for 33.5% one to six months, for 23.9% less than one week, for 3% no preparation has been done, while for 0.9% over six months. Tickets and hotels are searched mainly through Happy Cow, Google, but also through Facebook and TripAdvisor. Regarding the stay beyond the Airbnb and the booking that comes second in the choice of vegans, the Vegvisits page begins to go up. Reservations are mostly made via computer from various platforms and less by mobile. Reservations are also made via Facebook when it comes to packages that promote vegan groups. This primary survey showed that 75.5% use the mobile phone, 45.9% use the laptop, 31.7% the fixed computer, 6% the tablet while 0.5% make the reservations through travel agencies.

Vegans' behaviour on the destination

Food is one of man's physiological needs, even when he is outside of his/hers familiar environment. This is also recorded in the fact that food and drink make up 1/3 of a tourist's total holiday spend. However, 78.4% the primary survey stated they were first and foremost interested in attractions and then 38.5% in vegan restaurants. The main occupation is to introduce new flavors and of course to socialize with other vegans (Werneth, 2018). Others say they are interested in both culture and nature. About half of respondents felt that when travelling they were unable to fully follow the vegan diet. The ability to keep the majority of foods as strictly vegan as possible is considered more important than concentrating on small details. The other half wants to be fully aware of the ingredients used in the dishes they eat on travels. In the specific research we analyze, it appeared that the main focus is on the attractions and then follows the food, nightlife and activities for vegans. Moreover, it seems that when they do not find vegan food, they seek to buy either vegan snacks, or cook themselves, or adapt to the food they find in their place of residence.

Vegans Behaviour After the trip

After the trip, few vegans make reviews on TripAdvisor mostly. Of course, local forums and vegan groups discuss and exchange views on destinations (TripAdvisor, n.d). According to Kansanen (2013), most vegans use the "HappyCow" app, but the majority do not comment on or rate restaurants, they are only informed. Few of the respondents said they had written hardly anything on the website. This has happened in cases where the restaurant had let them down or they were impressed by what they tasted. In the survey conducted for strictly vegans in Greece (2020), it was shown that vegans are not used to leaving reviews. Vegans recognize and choose a holiday destination depending on the reputation, confidence and satisfaction factors associated with that area. Studies on the criteria of vegans when travelling do not exist, nor has the profile of the vegan traveler been investigated in general, what services he/she wishes to receive from a business, what is he/she looking for in this trip, what is necessary for him/her in order to travel. The studies that have been carried out relate to a specific area and do not analyze in general the preferences of vegan travelers and how businesses could attract them.

3. Research questions and hypotheses

The research objectives of the present study is the investigation of the travel behavior and consumption patterns of vegans related to travel and to make marketing proposals for tourism destinations to facilitate the development of

vegan food tourism thus to offer better services for vegan tourists. The main challenge that was the subject of this study was the trips that vegans make, and whether it is easy to find hotels, restaurants and activities that are consistent with their lifestyle. At the same time, an effort was made through the questionnaire to make proposals for businesses to improve and to offer better services to vegans. The research objectives set out above are interpreted in research questions groups in order to analyse differences/gaps with regard to vegan travelers, as follows:

2. Do vegans wish to receive different/special services other than those offered by tourism businesses?
3. Do vegans have difficulty finding food related products?
4. Do vegans always have food in mind when choosing activities, during their stay at a destination?
5. Are they satisfied with vegan foods offered by restaurants with vegan options?
6. What are the improvements vegans want to be made by food businesses, in terms of dishes quality and variety as well as the hospitality of the staff?

Moreover, based on the review of literature, the following hypotheses was formulated and examined:

Ho The travel frequency of vegans and demographic variables (age, gender, monthly average income) are not independent.

4.Methodology

This paper applies survey methodology to support hypothesis testing of the research hypotheses. We used the questionnaire method to maximize the response rate for this study (Creswell, 2014), as it is the best way to collect large amounts of data from a significant population. This approach was appropriate for investigating research questions of this study, as it is useful not only for collecting quantitative data about statistics and descriptive analysis but also in enabling the exploration of correlations between variables in order to achieve the research goals (Saunders et al., 2014). When it comes to questionnaire structure, research questions were formed in six parts of the questionnaire. The first part (1) related to basic travel information, the second (2) to the main motivations of the trip, the third (3) to the behaviour of the respondent before the trip, the fourth (4) to the traveler’s behaviour during the journey, the fifth (5) to the behaviour after the end of the journey and the sixth (6) pillar concerns about the demographic-personal characteristics of the respondent. The structured questionnaire developed had thirty-seven (37) questions, of which thirty-six (36) were closed and one (1) was open. In total, 218 questionnaire responses were collected from exclusively vegans. The data was collected through online completion of the questionnaire. Facebook and Instagram as well as a database of e-mail addresses were used to send the questionnaire. The questionnaire was reflected in the Google Drive program and the data was collected through Forms. Data collection was conducted based on the voluntary and anonymous submissions of the respondents, ensuring ethical practice. The data collection period took place from 3 February to 29 February 2020. Data was analyzed using SPSS software. For our sample, in a confidence interval of 95% the margin of error is +/-6.63%.

5.Results

Table I Main Results of the study. Summarizes all the results of the survey, that are presented in detail in this section.

General profile for the vegan travelers	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women (72.9%) • From 18 to 44 years old (85.7%) • University studies (71.6%) • Salary between 500€ and 1001€ (57.8%) • Became vegan for moral purposes (64.7%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Travel frequency: One (1) to two (2) times a year (63.8%) • Travel with friends etc. (86.7%) • Geographical travel destination: Europe (96.8%) • Overnight accommodation: Hotel (49.1%)
Travel Behaviour of Vegans	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The most important reason of traveling: Leisure (65.9%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic source of information on destination selection: Articles on the internet or

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key factor influencing travel location selection: Attractions (78.4%) • Days of stay: From three (3) to five (5): (73.5%) • The final travel destination is affected by its lifestyle: (41.3%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • in newspapers and magazines (76.6%) • Travelling means of transport: Airplane (68.3%) • They are concerned about the existence or non-vegetarian options at their travel destination: (54.6%) • Basic information tool for vegan options: Internet (87.2%)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Significantly high value of food in its travel experience: (72.9%) • Not limited because of its dietary choices: (44%) • If you can't find food easily: Searches online for food stores (54.5%) • Asks catering businesses to have vegan variations on dishes: (50%) • Not disappointed by vegan hotels: (72%) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes reviews in dining and accommodation areas: (50%) • Revisits the same hotels and dining areas he was pleased with: (68.8%) • Discusses with his friends his travel experience: (97.7%)

Description of research sample

With regard to the demographic characteristics reflected in the study, the vast majority of respondents to the questionnaire are women, 72.9% and ages eighteen 18 to forty-four (44), 85.7%. Since the Greek Statistical Authority (ELSTAT), like other research centers, have not yet included a study and data on vegans in Greece, it is difficult to have comparative data, but also weightings in the context of the study at the age and gender level. On the other hand, according to data on page veganbits.com, about 85% of those who declare themselves strictly vegetarian are classified in age categories from eighteen (18) to forty-four (44), while about seven (7) out of ten (10) are women. Therefore, a similar demographic picture appears between the data known worldwide and those of this study. At the same time, about seven (7) out of ten (10), 71.6% of the sample as a whole, have higher and higher university education. In the part of each respondent's professional situation, the majority, 40.4%, stated that they are private employees while six (6) out of ten (10) of the total sample have an average monthly personal income of between €500 and €1001. Two (2) very basic questions were asked which touch the fringes of unity with personal/demographic data and have to do with the years when one retains the status of holistic vegetarian and the reasons that led them to follow a different way of life. In the sample, 48.2% are exclusively vegetarians from one (1) to three (3) years, 34.9% four (4) to five (5), 10.6% six (6) to ten (10), while 6.4% are holistically vegetarian over ten (10) years. When asked why respondents became holistic vegetarians, 64.7% answered about animals, 26.1% for health reasons, 8.7% for the environment and just 0.5% for religious reasons. In fact, the results of the answer to question eight (8) clearly show that the majority of those who decide to become vegan are mainly affected by ethical reasons. In combination with the years when one declares oneself as a vegan, it is obvious that respondents in the category from one (1) to three (3) years became exclusively vegans for ethical reasons but at a lower rate than those who have been vegans for over three (3) years.

Results about Vegans' Behaviour Prior travel

This survey showed that the majority of vegans are women (72.9%) between 18 and 44 years old (85.7%), depicting a similar demographic profile with previous studies. Moreover, the travel frequency does not change significantly in relation to gender and age categories. On the contrary, the independence check between travel frequency and monthly average income showed that there is dependency, $P < 0.05$, so if the income increases, the traveling endeavors of the respondent increase as well. In this survey emerged that 78.4% are interested in attractions, 38.5% in vegan restaurants, 8.3% in nightlife, 7.3% in vegan activities and only 5% in vegan hotels. Popular are vegan tours, where they visit local vegan restaurants, or food industries, shops that make vegan bags or shoes made of synthetic and ecological skins, factories that produce zero waste (zero waste, i.e. products without plastic and without materials that wear out and are not recycled), products and visits to bistros for vegan coffee and beverages. Food found not to be the first motivation to travel. In this study, the results showed that 78.4% are interested in attractions, 38.5% in vegan restaurants, 8.3% in nightlife, 7.3% in vegan activities and 5% in vegan hotels (see Table II).

Table II. Travel Motives of Vegan Travelers

Motives of Vegan Travelers (n=218)	
The sights/ attractions are quite interesting	78.4%
There are many vegan restaurants	38.5%
The nightlife is fascinating	8.3%
There are lots of vegan activities	7.3%
There are enough vegan hotels	5%

The basic condition is to have vegan restaurants and bistros in the destination as well as activities that do not include animal abuse or exploitation. From the results of this survey, it has been shown that the majority are particularly interested in culture, while following the environment, nature and towards the end vegan food choices.

A series of independent chi square tests were carried out for examining the independence between (a) Frequency of travel & monthly staff income, (b) Frequency of travel & gender, and (c) Frequency of travel & Age category of vegans. Specifically:

a Frequency of travel / Gender

According to the independence test χ^2 , the significance of Pearson Chi Square is $P = 0.565$. So, Sig is > 0.05 which means we accept the zero hypothesis, and our variables are independent, and gender does not affect the frequency with which one travels.

b Frequency of travel / Age category

According to the χ^2 independence test, the significance of the Pearson Chi Square is $P = 0.43$. So Sig is > 0.05 which means we accept the zero hypothesis and our variables are independent, which means that the frequency with which one travels is age independent.

c Frequency of travel / Monthly staff income

The hypothesis $H_0 =$ and increase in average monthly income also increases travel days. According to the χ^2 independence test, the significance of the Pearson Chi Square is $P = 0.01$, Sig is < 0.05 which means that we reject the zero hypothesis as our variables are not independent. So, the increase or decrease of the average monthly personal income respectively increases or decreases the frequency of travel during the period of a year.

Results about Vegans' Behaviour on the Destination

On the other hand, when it comes to vegans' behaviour on the destination, vegan food choices do not seem to significantly restrict respondents to their travel destination as it was in the past. More specifically, only 22.1% see their eating habits as an obstacle to travel, as opposed to 44% who say they do not have a particular problem. During the trip, 54.6% of respondents who cannot satisfy their eating habits are looking for online restaurants that offer vegan food. While about four out of ten cook their own food.

At the same time, through the open choice, respondents were given the opportunity to express their views on the satisfaction of their eating habits during the trip. The majority had so much to do with their view that anywhere they can find a restaurant or food store with vegan options and that most bring with them some food that meets their needs. Also, in the same section, half of respondents make it a basic requirement when visiting a restaurant, during a trip, to be able to find vegan options, even if the dining area is not exclusively vegetarian. This is also recorded in the fact that food and drink make up 1/3 of a tourist's total holiday spend. It seems that when they do not find vegan food, they seek to buy either vegan snacks, or cook themselves, or adapt to the food they find in their place of residence. Very important data, taken from question thirty, which concerns whether a traveler, due to satisfaction with the overall services in a hotel or dining area, was driven to visit the same destination again. 68.8% of respondents replied that they had happened to arrange their trip by visiting the same place of residence and catering because they were satisfied with their previous visit. While almost the entire sample, 97.7%, discusses its experiences with friends. Several important hypotheses were identified in the basic design of the study, which were answered through the primary data collected. The first (1) case concerns the relationship between tasting and destination selection. The results of the

study showed that vegans recommend some key criteria, which make up their decision on how their destination should be shaped. One cannot consider that a single factor determines the final decision of the respondents with regard to the travel destination. Based on the data of the study the main factor is the attractions of the destination. This is also answered by the way respondents behave during the journey. Also, just 22.1% replied that their dietary choices limit their travel. The vast majority believe that any food store, regardless of whether it is labelled vegan-friendly, can meet their needs. Besides, a large percentage either cook or keep ready-made long-lasting foods with them. On the other hand, an area that has more services to vegans, certainly along with a very strong brand name that has been formed as an area, will increase the chances of accepting vegan travelers. The question about the services that vegans receive, showed that in reality the services are different from those travelers want. On the contrary, the whole sample mentions a number of different solutions on the issue of not serving its needs. If the results of the study are combined with the real picture of businesses active in tourism and catering, and the services they offer, it is obvious that there is a wide range of services that are not offered to exclusively vegan travelers. In addition, the results came into the conclusion that vegans usually do not have difficulty finding food as they used to. That said, deciphering the exclusively vegan traveler, who has a greater speciality in food, is observed as a basic choice for his destination the sights, nature and general activities he can develop. This is shown both by the large number of spontaneous responses concerning proposals to businesses and by the 54.1% of respondents who before travelling are forced to go to more research because of their dietary choices. In this particular case, if we accept that the word 'confrontation' has to do with the choices that each company gives vegans, then there is clearly a gap in the department of the services they offer. In the last section of the study, respondents were able to freely formulate their proposals to tourism companies with the aim of enriching their services in their effort to attract vegan travelers.

Results about Vegans' Behaviour after the Trip

The after the trip, the behaviour of vegans is quite interesting too. This survey showed that the most important factors influencing the decision of those who participated in the survey are primarily, at 78.4%, if the sights are interesting and not first the food as one would assume. 38.4% make it a key factor in choosing their destination if they have vegan restaurants. Options such as, nightlife, if there are vegan activities and hotels receive rates of less than 10%. At the same time, a percentage of respondents, 41.3%, were recorded in the same section, which is influenced by their eating habits and lifestyle when making the final choice of their travel destination. Studies on the criteria of vegans when travelling do not exist, nor has the profile of the vegan traveler been investigated in general, what services he/she wishes to receive from a business, what he/she is looking for from his trip, what is necessary for him/her in order to travel. The studies that have been carried out relate to a specific area and do not analyze in general the preferences of vegan travelers and how businesses could attract them.

6. Discussion

This research, through the primary data that emerged from the respondents' answers, gives us a clear and comprehensive picture of the behavior of those who travel and follow the holistic vegan lifestyle. When it comes to the literature review and especially the 'Vegan Behaviour Prior travel' part, the survey by Kansanen (2013) suggests that the majority of vegetarians are between twenty-three 23 and forty 40 years old and are vegans for about 12.45 years while travelling mainly to Europe. In fact, this survey showed that the majority of vegans are women (72.9%) between 18 and 44 years old (85.7%). On the other hand, according to data on page veganbits.com, about 85% of those who declare themselves strictly vegetarian are classified in age categories from eighteen to forty-four while about seven out of ten are women. Therefore, a similar demographic picture appears between the data known worldwide and those of this study. Moreover, the travel frequency doesn't change significantly in relation to gender and age categories. On the contrary, the independence check between travel frequency and monthly average income showed that there is dependency, $P < 0.05$, so when income increases, so if the income increases, the traveling ventures of the respondent increase as well. However, in the primary survey conducted, the results are slightly different from those of the secondary surveys studied (Werneth, 2018). Thus, in this survey emerged that 78.4% are interested in attractions, 38.5% in vegan restaurants, 8.3% in nightlife, 7.3% in vegan activities and only 5% in vegan hotels. Popular are vegan tours, where they visit local vegan restaurants, or food industries, shops that make vegan bags or shoes made of synthetic and ecological skins, factories that produce zero waste (zero waste, i.e. products without plastic and without materials that wear out and are not recycled), products and visits to bistros for vegan coffee and beverages. Vegan tourists mainly seek new experiences, flavors and adventure. Seventy per cent of travelers are women, and ages range from 14 to 53, with an average of 26 years (Fox and Ward 2008). The purpose of the trip is (Werneth, 2018), first of all the testing of new flavors, in vegan or vegan-friendly restaurants, then social interaction with other vegans and contact with other cultures. However, the food and mainly traditional dishes of each country

remain the central focus. According to Kansanen (2013), 40% of respondents say that food is one of the leading factors in choosing the destination. Although, the survey showed that the main motivation of vegan travelers is leisure with 65.9%, entertainment with 35.9%, visiting relatives with 14.2%, historical monuments 13.8%, work reasons 13.3% and finally shopping 1.4%. What they are looking for something different, something they cannot see or taste in their country. The goal is to live unique dining experiences and then do activities that will bring them closer to nature, especially if they come from big cities. Also, the destination should be interesting and relatively inexpensive, so that they do not go out of budget (Kansanen, 2013). The basic condition is to have vegan restaurants and bistros in the destination as well as activities that do not include animal abuse or exploitation. From the results of this survey, it has been shown that the majority are particularly interested in culture, while following is the environment, nature and vegan food choices are placed towards the end.

On the other hand, when it comes to “Vegans behavior on the destination”, vegan food choices do not seem to significantly restrict respondents to their travel destination as it was in the past. More specifically, only 22.1% see their eating habits as an obstacle to travel, as opposed to 44% who say they do not have a particular problem. During the trip, 54.6% of respondents who cannot satisfy their eating habits are looking for online restaurants that offer vegan food. While about four out of ten cook their own food. Also in the same section, half of respondents make it a basic requirement when visiting a restaurant, during a trip, to be able to find vegan options, even if the dining area is not exclusively vegetarian.

Finally, the ‘ ‘ After the trip’ ’ behavior of vegans, is quite interesting. According to Kansanen (2013), most vegans use the "HappyCow" app, but the majority do not comment or rate restaurants, but are only informed. Few of the respondents said they had written hardly anything on the website. This has happened in cases where the restaurant had let them down or even when they were impressed by what they tasted. In the survey conducted for strictly vegans in Greece (2020), it was shown that vegans are not used to leaving reviews. This survey showed that the most important factors influencing the decision of those who participated in the survey are primarily, at 78.4%, if the sights are interesting and not first the food as one would assume. 38.4% make it a key factor in choosing their destination if it has vegan restaurants.

7. Conclusions

Concluding, the research findings are summarized below in three areas: The first concerns suggestions on the nutrition part, the second on the advertising part and the third on the training part. The profile of the vegan traveler: Regarding the profile of the vegan traveler, the data is at the majority the same as both the primary survey and the surveys of Kansanen (2013) and Fox and Ward (2008). Differences are found in travel incentives, which in this survey turned out to be attractions (78.4%), while in the above secondary sources the first motivation is food. There is no longer a restriction on food as it used to be (44% replied that it is not limited due to dietary choices) while the value of food in the travel experience is 72.9%. 50% leave reviews in restaurants, accommodation whilst discussing vegan forums, while previously leaving reviews on platforms such as TripAdvisor, booking etc. However, 78.4% in the primary survey said they were first interested in attractions and then 38.5% in vegan restaurants. The main occupation is to introduce new flavors and of course to socialize with other vegans (Werneth, 2018). Others say they are interested in both culture and nature. About half of respondents felt that when travelling they were unable to fully follow the vegan diet. The ability to keep the majority of foods as strictly vegan as possible is considered more important than concentrating on small details. The other half says that they want to be fully aware of the ingredients used in the dishes they eat on their travels. In the specific research we analyze, it appeared that the main occupation is the attractions and then follows the food, nightlife and activities for vegans. The study clearly shows that, although food plays a major role for every exclusive vegan, there is the possibility of maneuvering during their holidays. Most businesses may not be vegan-friendly, but this does not limit the ability of exclusive vegans to travel. Clearly, the traveler perceives his/hers diet, essentially the coverage of his/hers most basic need, as one of his/hers main priorities wherever he is found.

Preferences and requirements: When asked why respondents became holistic vegetarians, 64.7% answered due to animals, 26.1% for health reasons, 8.7% for the environment and just 0.5% for religious reasons. In fact, the results of the answer to question eight clearly show that the majority of those who decide to become vegan are mainly affected by ethical reasons. In combination with the years when one declares oneself as vegan, it is obvious that respondents in the category from one to three years became exclusively vegetarians for ethical reasons but at a lower rate than those who have been vegans for over three years. The 72% are not disappointed by vegan hotels, whereas in the past there were not even vegan hotels. At the same time, the main source of information is no longer reviews on platforms,

but articles on the internet, in newspapers and magazines (76.6%), which shows that things have improved over the years. The vegan diet is gaining more and more followers, so businesses should take the preferences of strictly vegans seriously and include hotel packages for vegans, while catering businesses should also include vegetarian food and drinks on their menus. At the same time, tourism businesses have the opportunity to understand what a vegan customer is asking for.

References

- Beardsworth, A. D., & Keil, E. T. (1991), Vegetarianism, veganism, and meat avoidance: Recent trends and findings. *British Food Journal*.
- Cole, M. (2008). Asceticism and hedonism in research discourses of veganism. *British Food Journal*.
- Fox, N., & Ward, K. (2008), Health, ethics and environment: A qualitative study of vegetarian motivations. *Appetite*, 50(2-3), 425-429.
- Kansanen, I. (2013), Vegan travel-The ways how vegan diet influences travel experience.
- Kauppinen-Räsänen, H., Gummerus, J., & Lehtola, K., (2013), Remembered eating experiences described by the self, place, food, context and time. *British Food Journal*.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Morgan, M., (2006), Making space for experiences. *Journal of Retail & Leisure Property*, 5(4), 308-313.
- Nguyen, T. M. (2019), *Veganism and Its Influences on Travelers' Destination Choice*.
- Saunders, A. V. (2014). Busting the myths about vegetarian and vegan diets. *Journal of the Home Economics Institute of Australia*, 21(1), 2-13.
- Vegan Society (2019), Definition of veganism, Available at <https://www.vegansociety.com/go-vegan/definition-veganism>, [Accessed 10/03/2020]
- Werneth W. (2018), *Vegan Travel Q&A: Everything You Need to Know*, Available at <https://www.thenomadicvegan.com/travel-vegan-questions/>, [Accessed 05/03/2020]
- Zouni, G. D. (2011). Marketing of tourist destinations: differences in estimates and perceptions of the tourist experience between professionals and tourists

Sustainable Food Approach and the All-Inclusive System Paradox

Handan Özçelik Bozkurt¹

Sinop University – Turkey

ORCHID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0035-3362>

Email: handanozcelikbozkurt@gmail.com

Abstract

While efforts to fight poverty and hunger continue, the danger of food crises that may be experienced due to the increase in the negative effects of overproduction and consumption on the ecosystem is one of the new important current problems. Especially in recent years, while the understanding of sustainable food creates awareness, the all-inclusive system concept that leads to uncontrolled consumption has become indispensable for accommodation businesses. With this in mind, this study aims to draw attention to the contradiction between the sustainable food concept and the all-inclusive system concept. It is thought that the present study will present a different perspective to the discussions on the all-inclusive system. In this study, qualitative research method was used and secondary data sources of the literature were used. It is aimed to draw attention to the advantageous and disadvantageous aspects of sustainable food and all-inclusive system applications. Worldwide examples are given where no universe is envisioned. Therefore, a review study was conducted. This study discusses the practices that oppose the understanding of sustainable food in the accommodation businesses that adopt the all-inclusive system. In addition, aspects of the all-inclusive system that threaten food sustainability have been revealed.

Keywords: Sustainable Food, All-Inclusive System, Tourism.

1.Introduction

As the concept of sustainability gains importance day by day, the awareness level of consumers about the issue increases. Reasons such as global warming, climate change, reduction of agricultural land, the transition from an agricultural society to an industrial society increase hesitations about food security and sustainability. In this context, according to Boer et al. (2006), sustainability has started to be used by consumers as a criterion in evaluating product characteristics in food-based purchasing decisions. In addition, the reason that makes consumers think and provide sustainable food products is not only the sense of social responsibility but also individual motives such as consuming healthier foods (Gürler, Nart and Altunışık, 2017; Gürler, 2018). It is noteworthy that today the global food system is not sustainable. One-third of the food produced globally is wasted or lost (Pekcan, 2019).

Unhealthy and unsustainable food production poses a global risk to human health and the world. More than 820 million people in the world go to bed hungry every night (FAO / WHO, 2019) and are malnourished (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WHO, and WFP, 2019). In 2018, 1.3 billion people experienced moderate food insecurity; In other words, they cannot regularly access nutritious and sufficient nutrients (FAO / WHO, 2019), 151 million children are short for their age (stunted), 51 million children have low body weight (underweight) for their height (UN, 2020). It is also known that more than 2 billion people have micronutrient deficiencies. (UNICEF, WHO and World Bank, 2020).

While there are efforts to combat poverty and hunger on the one hand, on the other hand, the danger of food crises that can be experienced with the increase of negative effects of excessive production and consumption on the ecosystem is one of the new important current problems. Especially in recent years, while the understanding of sustainable food creates awareness, the all-inclusive system concept that leads to uncontrolled consumption has become indispensable for accommodation businesses. Food safety and sustainability must be ahead of marketing efforts. With this in mind, this study aims to draw attention to the contradiction between the sustainable food concept

and the all-inclusive system concept. It is thought that the present study will present a different perspective to the discussions on the all-inclusive system.

2.Literature Review

Sustainable Food

Sustainability is a popular concept in recent years. The threat of extinction, which has spread to many areas of life, has made the word sustainability frequently used. Sustainability has also come to the fore for food, which is one of the indispensable sources of life and has taken its place in the literature as sustainable food. The issue of sustainable food has become a dominant effort aimed at driving food systems and policies towards better goals and improved social welfare (Allen and Prosperi, 2016). Global biodiversity is threatened by population growth, decline, or extinction of animal and plant species (UNEP, 2012).

With the Sustainable Development Goals adopted in September 2015, EU countries are committed to halving per capita food waste at retail and consumer level by 2030 and reducing food losses along the supply chain. Food waste, which has reached extremely important levels in terms of sustainable use of resources as well as economic results, is an extremely important issue for the whole World (Huang, Liu, and Hsu, 2020). The primary goal of the countries should be to ensure the sustainable food supply of their own people and to direct their policies in this direction (Eştürk and Ören, 2014).

The occurrence of climate change and the prediction that this situation will continue to accelerate (IPCC, 2012) reveals the need for sustainable food. For example, unconscious farming practices cause the natural balance to deteriorate and plant diversity to decrease. For this reason, laws should strengthen the perception that humans and nature are interdependent and interactive. Agriculture and food systems are at the center of the debate on sustainability (Allen and Prosperi, 2016).

A sustainable food system is an approach that provides healthy food to meet current food needs while maintaining healthy ecosystems that can also provide food for future generations with minimal negative impact on the environment. It also promotes local production and distribution infrastructures. It makes nutritious foods accessible and affordable to all. It aims to protect farmers and other employees, consumers, and the welfare of society in a humane and fair manner (Story et al., 2009).

Food production is the biggest cause of global environmental change. It is stated that agriculture covers 48% of global land use and food production is responsible for approximately 30% (20-35%) of global greenhouse gas emissions and 70% of clean water use (FAO/WHO, 2019; Vermeulen, Campbell and Ingram, 2012; Foley et al, 2005). In recent years, the existence of basic global targets for human health and environmental sustainability has drawn attention. In addition to the change in the nutritional pattern of countries, it is reported that the world population will be 10 billion in 2050 and that global warming will increase by 2 ° C, resulting in great risks for people and the world. For example, meeting the needs of the growing global population and the growing demand for meat in developing countries at a time when the most productive grain fields in North America, India, and China are approaching their biophysical limits, will require a significant increase in land use (Tempelman, 2004). In addition, it is claimed that non-communicable diseases related to nutrition will increase further, greenhouse gas emission, nitrogen and phosphorus pollution, loss of biodiversity, water, and land use will disrupt the stability of the world system and food production will be affected by the effect of food production (Willet et al, 2019).

Approximately 3-5% of global warming impacts, more than 20% of the biodiversity problem, and 30% of all agricultural lands in the world are caused by food waste (EU, 2014). At the G20 Agriculture Ministers Meeting held in Istanbul in 2015, the Ministers emphasized that while the pressures on natural resources, biodiversity, and climate change are increasing and evolving into more economically, socially and environmentally sustainable food systems, productivity should be increased and especially food losses and waste should be reduced. The meeting also expressed concern over food losses and waste in the food value chain and their negative impact on food safety, balanced nutrition, use of natural resources, and the environment. This problem has been evaluated as having enormous economic, environmental, and social significance, and all members were asked to strengthen their work on this issue. In the interviews, it was emphasized that safe and nutritious foods that are likely to be wasted should not be evaluated outside of human nutrition (G20, 2015).

Climate change is predicted to have a negative impact on food production. However, the effects that have occurred so far have not been determined to a large extent. Since climate change is expected to adversely affect global food

production, it will be more difficult to reach sustainable food production in the future, and this will further increase the pace of climate change (Smith and Oelsen, 2010).

In many countries, the extent of food loss and waste is still unknown and methods for its measurement are also discussed (Demirbaş, 2018). Songür and Çakıroğlu (2016) examined food losses and food waste that negatively affect sustainability. In their studies, they emphasized that various waste management practices should be adopted in order to reduce waste and losses occurring in various steps of the food waste and procurement process. They advocate the necessity of contributing to sustainability by utilizing waste and losses in food as animal feed, establishing a waste storage area, obtaining biofuel, composting, and various recovery practices. Reducing the amount of wasted food is a key element in developing a sustainable food system. Accordingly, food waste and waste amount have significant environmental and economic impacts (Quested et al., 2011).

For the efficiency of the sustainable food system, consumption must be realized in a sustainable way like production (Haspolat, 2020). The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) stated that in 2050, it is necessary to increase food production by at least 62% in order to meet the demand of the increasing world population and the increasing demand for animal nutrition (Alexandratos and Bruinsma, 2012). Food production and consumption are among the main causes of environmental degradation. One-third of the food produced globally is wasted or lost, thrown away. In addition, unhealthy and unsustainable foods pose a risk to the earth and humans (Willet et al, 2019).

Modern food production methods have become global. Therefore, standardization in food and beverage production is gradually increasing. Vegetables and fruits are now available all year round. In addition, food is shipped to many parts of the World (Oosterveer and Sonnenfeld, 2012). The environmental impacts of food consumption in homes, restaurants, schools, and other institutionalized settings mostly result from the processing and preparation of food, namely storage (primarily freezing), cooking, and dishwashing. However, dietary trends and the choice of food types are also determining factors. For example, (red) meat and dairy products cause by far the highest GHG emissions. In fact, within the EU-25, meat and meat products contribute 9 to 14% of total emissions, while the second most relevant food products are milk, cheese, and all types of dairy products (Tukker et al., 2006; Reisch, Eberle and Lorek, 2013).

If restaurants follow the production processes in a sustainable scheme, less waste than food can be caused during the preparation phase. Also, depending on income or education level, the amount of food waste consumers leave on the plate may vary (Aamir, Ahmad, Javaid, and Hasan, 2018). In particular, the fact that open buffet restaurants do not allow customers to take home the leftovers on their plates while offering more food options at fixed prices changes the dimensions of food waste (Chen ve Jai, 2018).

All-Inclusive System

Due to the rapid increase in world tourism demand, competition, price, and especially product diversity have started to gain importance. With the phenomenon of globalization, tourism enterprises have tended to improve their product diversity in order to increase their occupancy rates and profitability and to survive in this competitive environment. For this reason, businesses have developed different marketing techniques. One of them is the all-inclusive system (AIS) (Özdemir et al., 2011). AIS is a system that requires the customer to pay a single price for all services during their vacation (Morrison, 1989; Wong and Kwong, 2004) AIS was first applied in holiday camps in England in the 1930s (Issa and Jayawardena, 2003). Package tours implemented by tour operators operating in Germany, England, and Italy have been effective in the spread of the all-inclusive system in the World (Wong and Kwong, 2004). The open buffet service system has spread from France to the whole world and has become a food culture. This service type, which is frequently used in restaurants, breakfast rooms, and accommodation businesses, offers a wide variety of food to the guests at one time and is a system that is liked and adopted due to its easy use (Gümüş, 2017).

AIS eliminates unexpected expenses that tourists may encounter during their holidays (Sheldon and Mak, 1987). In addition, this system increases the occupancy rates and revenues of accommodation businesses and extends the tourism season by 15 to 30 days. Businesses implementing this system receive prepayment from tour operators since the services to be offered have been sold in advance. Due to the fact that the number of customers of the enterprises is predetermined, it is also easy to buy food and drinks in bulk (Üner et al., 2006).

In AIS, tourists feel financially secure as they buy package tours and pay in advance (Tavares and Kozak, 2015). Since customers pay in advance for all the services they will use during their holidays, they are constantly eating to get the money they pay. Apart from meals, cakes and desserts, some of which are eaten at cake hours and the rest are thrown away, and meals that continue throughout the night cause both unhealthy weight gain and wastage of food and beverage (Bostan, Armağan and Süklüm, 2006). Another reason for the excessive consumption tendency in the all-inclusive system is that the customers take too much food that they cannot eat in order not to come to the buffet again

or because they think the buffet will not be renewed and they take drinks again due to the heating of the beverages. Another reason for the excessive consumption tendency in the all-inclusive system is that the customers take too much food that they cannot eat in order not to come to the buffet again or because they think the buffet will not be renewed and they take drinks again due to the heating of the beverages. On the other hand, the all-inclusive system itself encourages customers to spend time at the hotel, increasing consumption, while at the same time having meals throughout the day increases waste. In addition, the open buffet presentation encouraging the unlimited consumption of food and beverages in the system directs customers to waste (Çolak and Koşan, 2019).

With the implementation of this system, three and four-star hotels, even some apart-hotels, and pensions, that did not want to lose their share in the market, started to use the all-inclusive system within their capacities. Thus, the contribution of the system to the tourism and economy of the country remained at a minimum level and the system applied especially to the guests in the low-income group reached the waste point (Yürük, 2002; Demir and Demir, 2001).

One of the nine initiatives supported by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in 2018 and the only Turkish initiative, Excess Food Platform, identified “usable food waste / loss distributions in hotels”. According to the research; 27-30% of the products purchased in hotels turn into waste during production and consumption (food left in the buffet or on the plate). The most waste product group consists of red meat, white meat, and seafood (52%). 53% of food waste in hotels is caused by food left on the plate. Food waste occurs mostly in dinner, then lunch, and breakfast meals, respectively. In the report, it is also stated that 200-250 kinds of products are produced, including cold appetizers, desserts, etc., in the buffet of five-star all-inclusive hotels, food waste is mostly revealed in open buffets, then in à la carte restaurants and at least in instant (ala minute) presentations. Based on the interviews with the hotel guests, it is explained that the hotel guests prefer to increase the food quality rather than the food variety. In addition, with practices such as product planning according to the demographic characteristics and recipe of the guests, product-based waste and cost tracking, automatic stock tracking, automatic ordering system, the waste generated by leaving it on the plate is reduced by 25%, the waste generated by the food returning from the buffet by 20%. It is announced that the total food waste in hotels can be reduced by 25% (Buzlu, 2019).

In order to determine the food wastes generated in the hotels, to prevent waste generation, and to reveal the practices for the utilization of wastes; In a study conducted using interview and observation technique with 24 five-star hotel employees in Antalya, Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, Muğla, Denizli and Gaziantep provinces, it was determined that the average daily amount of food waste generated in a hotel was 332 kg. According to the research findings, the rate of food waste in all types of waste is 70%. It is explained that the amount of waste generated by a hotel guest in one day is approximately 700 grams, of which 500 grams (180 kg per year) is food waste (Kılınç Şahin ve Bekar, 2018).

AIS encourages tourists to overconsumption and as a result increases waste. In addition, this system causes most of the materials to come to the kitchen as ready / processed (Üngören, Algür, and Doğan, 2009; Akyürek, Kızılcık and Kutukız, 2019). This situation can be seen as an advantage for kitchen workers; however, it does not comply with the sustainable food principle.

All exclusive system, it defines a system in which each service offered within the all-inclusive system is priced separately and the choice of these services is left to the customer. In all exclusive system the more water, energy, or service the tourists consume, the more they pay (Kozak, Maviş, Nergis ve Çiçek, 2013: 243). This system briefly eliminates all services that the customer does not need, preventing unnecessary material, labor, and energy waste. With this system, the customer and the hotel business benefit mutually (Aydın, 2017).

As an example from the sector, Rotorura Hotel calculated that 1580 liters of water was consumed in the toilets per hour in 66 days, then first replaced the faucets in the toilets with sensor faucets and secondly, the shower heads used in the rooms were replaced with low-pressure heads. In another example, the Sheraton Auckland hotel saved \$ 2000 in three months by washing washable materials such as sheets, towels, and bedding at 65°C instead of 85°C (Aydın, 2017).

Waste, which is an outcome of loss and waste, brings along some environmental problems. The wastes that are tried to be disposed of in the solid waste fields generate greenhouse gas (harmful gases), causing pollution of ground and surface waters and air (Singh, Cranage and Nath, 2014). Greenhouse gas emissions also trigger climate change (EESC, 2013).

3. Research Methodology

In this study, qualitative research method was used and secondary data sources of the literature were used. In line with the purpose of the study, it is aimed to draw attention to the advantageous and disadvantageous aspects of sustainable food and all-inclusive system applications. Worldwide examples are given where no universe is envisioned. Therefore, a review study was conducted.

4. Result and Discussion

Contrary to the widespread awareness of sustainable food, the all-inclusive system applied in accommodation businesses is both a logical contradiction and a threat to sustainability. In recent years, public spots, sustainable food panels, and various organizations encourage conscious consumption, while all-inclusive practices encourage people to waste.

Especially in recent years, when the all-inclusive holiday system has been applied intensively, the increase in tourism revenues is very low compared to the number of tourists. This raises questions about the extent to which the system contributes positively to the national economy. Considering the economic aspect of the system they implement, accommodation facilities ignored the understanding of environmental protection and sustainable tourism. While the all-inclusive system prevents sustainability in general, the decrease in tourism revenues is camouflaged. Because this system increases the number of tourists coming to the country or destination; this is recorded as a misleading indicator of success. In addition, the all-inclusive system, which usually attracts the middle or low-income tourist profile to the country, generally causes sustainability barriers and depreciation costs. Especially, the fact that the need for food increases with global warming, climate change, decrease in agricultural land, and increasing population reveals the importance of food sustainability.

The understanding of sustainable food adopts a principle against genetically modified, preservative, and unnatural foods. It is known that especially all-inclusive accommodation businesses use highly industrial, genetically modified foods with hormones and various additives in order to compete. With the desire to offer low-cost products and the drive to survive, businesses adopt unhealthy and harmful practices that harm the nature of food. In addition, food that remains on the plates and becomes waste causes harm to the environment. In 2019, more than 820 million people worldwide were struggling with hunger, while more than 670 million adults and more than 120 million children between the ages of 5 and 19 are obese (www.aa.com.tr). The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (2019) declared that the number of people who are obese in the world is almost equal to those who struggle with hunger, and stated that one-third of the food produced worldwide is waste, and 820 million hungry people can be fed with one-fourth of wasted food (www.milliyet.com.tr). These statistical informations reveal the waste and inequality of opportunity in food distribution. From a micro point of view, food sustainability from a macro point of view, the all-inclusive system must be terminated in order to achieve general sustainability. Besides the all-inclusive system, other systems such as "ultra all-inclusive", "imperial all-inclusive" or other systems that stimulate consumption at a high rate began to emerge. Not using the all-inclusive system will encourage the production of higher quality and more attentive food in accommodation businesses, and will also pave the way for the employment of qualified personnel. Food is one of the basic resources required for living. In order to ensure food sustainability, it will be beneficial for society and future generations to move away from concepts that encourage waste and damage the ecosystem, such as the all-inclusive system.

The all-inclusive system has negative sides as well as some positive aspects. In addition, since the sustainable food approach adopts the principle of natural products, this may be difficult to achieve in conditions of increasing population. In addition, the expensive nature of natural products makes it difficult for everyone to reach. This creates the paradox that exists below;

Table 1: Advantages and Disadvantages of Food Sustainability and All-Inclusive System

Food Sustainability	All-Inclusive System
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food is essential to survival (Garnett, 2013). • Food sustainability is becoming a problem for the whole World (Allen and Proserpi, 2016; Huang, Liu, and Hsu, 2020). • Sustainable food understanding cares about food 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All-inclusive system increases food waste. • The contribution of the AIS to the tourism and economy of the country has remained minimal and the system has become particularly attractive for low-income guests who reach the point of waste

<p>safety (Mooney and Hunt, 2009).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food sustainability aims to protect farmers and other employees, consumers, and the welfare of society in a humane and fair manner (Story et al., 2009). • Population growth, decline, or extinction of animal and plant species (UNEP, 2012). • Sustainable food encourages natural and healthy nutrition (Garnett, 2013; sustainabledevelopment.un.org, 2019). • Sustainable food understanding advocates sustainable agricultural practices and cares about agricultural areas (Allen and Prospero, 2016). • Sustainable food understanding encourages small and local producers (Garnett, 2013). • Organic and sustainable foods are more expensive than their counterparts (GfK, 2007). 	<p>(Yürük 2002; Demir and Demir 2001).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • AIS causes both unhealthy weight gain and wastage of food and beverage (Bostan, Armağan, and Süklüm, 2006). • Solid wastes increase the amount of greenhouse gases and cause pollution of ground, water's surface, and air (Singh, Cranage ve Nath, 2014). For example (red) meat and dairy products cause by far the highest GHG emissions (Tukker et al., 2006; Reisch, Eberle and Lorek, 2013). • AIS eliminates unexpected expenses (Sheldon and Mak, 1987). • AIS increases the occupancy rates and revenues of accommodation businesses and extends the tourism season by 15 to 30 days (Üner et al., 2006). • Products are pre-sold in the all-inclusive system. In this way, businesses can buy food and beverages wholesale and cheap (Üner et al., 2006).
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

5. Conclusions

In this study, two approaches, which have very different principles and continue to be used, are discussed. Because the secondary data used and the inferences obtained are that the all-inclusive system used in accommodation businesses should be terminated in order to ensure food sustainability. In this regard, especially the Ministries of the countries responsible for the Environment should take action. It would be correct to inform consumers about the damages caused by the all-inclusive system to the universe. The importance of food sustainability should be emphasized and measures and restrictions that prevent food waste should be implemented by the relevant authorities. In addition, the number of tourists of the all-inclusive system can be said; reduces tourism earnings. Businesses other than the accommodation business cannot benefit financially from the tourists coming to the region. Because the all-inclusive system encourages the tourist to always stay in the business where they are staying and to consume there during their holiday. Therefore, the economic effects of the system should be considered.

In all-inclusive systems, every water bottle given to the customer also means harm to the nature. In this practice, because the consumer pays the fee beforehand, he/she uses the water bottle, which is a small sample, uncontrollably. It is our duty to think of future generations.

In future studies, researchers can conduct studies based on measuring attitudes towards sustainable food. There are studies on the all-inclusive system, but it may be useful to measure the attitude towards the all-inclusive system based on the idea that perception will change over time. In addition, academic studies and applications should be made based on the all exclusive system.

References

- Aamir, M., Ahmad, H., Javaid, Q. & Hasan, S., M. (2018). Waste not, want not: a case study on food waste in restaurants of Lahore, Pakistan. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, 24 (5), 591-610.
- Acar, D. & Süklüm, N. (2016), Konaklama işletmelerinde her şey dahil sisteminin müşteri kârlılık analizi açısından değerlendirilmesi, *Muhasebe ve Finansman Dergisi*, 71(1), 1- 22.
- Akyürek, S., Kızılcık, O. and Kutukız, D. (2019). Sürdürülebilir turizm bağlamında her şey dahil sistemin mutfağın şeffaflığı bakış açısıyla değerlendirilmesi. *Gümüşhane Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Elektronik Dergisi*, 10(Additional Issue), 15-24.
- Alexandratos N. & Bruinsma J. (2012). World Agriculture Towards 2030/2050: The 2012 Revision. ESA Working Paper no. 12-03. Rome: FAO.

- http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/esa/Global_persepctives/world_ag_2030_50_2012_rev.pdf (Accessed the 30th of January 2021, 21:17).
- Allen, T., & Prosperi, P. (2016). Modeling sustainable food systems. *Environmental Management*, 57(1), 956– 975.
- Aydın, Ç. (2017). Otellerde uygulanan her şey hariç sistemin sürdürülebilirlik anlayışı kapsamında ele alınması. *1st International Sustainable Tourism Congress / November 23-25, 2017/Kastamonu-Turkey* 269-275.
- Bostan, A, Armağan, E. & Süklüm, N. (2006). Her şey dahil sistem uygulayan otel işletmelerinde müşteri memnuniyeti: bir alan araştırması. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 4 (6), 32-53.
- Buzlu, M. Ö. (2019). Her Şey Dahil Otellerde İsraf: Beş Yıldızlı Kıyı Otellerinde Bir Araştırma. *Mersin University Institute of Social Sciences Doctoral Thesis*, Mersin.
- Chen, H., S. & Tun-Min, J. (2018). Waste less, enjoy more: forming a messaging campaign and reducing food waste in restaurants. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism* 19(4), 495-520.
- Çiftçi, H., Düzakin, E. & Önal, Y. B. (2007). All-inclusive system and its effects on the Turkish tourism sector. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 5(3), 269-285.
- Çolak O. & Koşan, L. (2019). Her şey dâhil sistemde hizmet veren bir otel işletmesinde kalite maliyetlerinin tespitine yönelik bir araştırma. *Gümüşhane Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Elektronik Dergisi*, 10(Additional Issue), 275-296.
- De Boer, J., Helms, M., & Aiking, H., (2006). Protein consumption and sustainability: diet diversity in EU- 15. *Ecological Economics* 59(1), 267–274.
- Demir, M. & Demir Ş.Ş. (2001). Her şey dahil (all-inclusive) pansiyon türü uygulamasının konaklama işletmeleri, personel, müşteriler, seyahat acentaları ve bölgedeki diğer işletmeler açısından olumlu ve olumsuz yönlerinin analizi, *Maltepe Üniversitesi Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 1(1), 67-100.
- Demirbaş, N. (2018). Dünyada ve Türkiye’de gıda israfını önleme çalışmalarının değerlendirilmesi. *VIII. IBANESS Kongreler Serisi*, Plovdiv, Bulgaristan, 21-22.
- EESC (European Economic and Social Committee) (2013). *Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee on civil society's contribution to a strategy for prevention and reduction of food losses and food waste*, Mart 2013. Brüksel, Belçika.<http://www.eesc.europa.eu/?i=portal.en.nat-opinions.25955> (Accessed the 03th of February 2021, 21:57).
- Eştürk, Ö. & Ören M.N., (2014). Türkiye’de tarım politikaları ve gıda güvencesi. *Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Tarım Bilimleri Dergisi*, 24(2), 193- 200.
- FAO/WHO (2019). Sustainable healthy diets – Guiding principles. Rome.
- FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WHO & WFP. (2019). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World. Safeguarding against Economic Slowdowns and Downturns. <http://www.fao.org/3/ca5162en/ca5162en.pdf> (Accessed the 30th of January 2021, 21:54).
- Foley JA1, Defries R, Asner GP, Barford C, Bonan G, Carpenter SR, et al. (2005). Global consequences of land use. *Science* 309:570-74.
- G20 Tarım Bakanları Toplantısı. 2015. İstanbul 7-8 Mayıs Nihai Bildirge, İstanbul. <http://g20.org.tr/g20-tarim-bakanlari-toplantisi-bildirgesi>, (Accessed the 30th of January 2021, 00:05).
- Garnett, T. (2013). Food sustainability: Problems, perspectives and solutions. *Proc. Nutr. Soc.*72 (01): 29–39.
- GfK. 2007. Press Release January 11: Organic Food Products Surge Ahead: The Findings of a GfK Survey on Consumption of Organic Food Products. Nuremberg: GfK AG.
- Gümüş, İ. (2017). Proceedings Books. K. Oktay & H. Pamukçu (Eds.), *Konaklama İşletmelerinde Her Şey Dahil Konseptine Alternatif Her Şey Helal Uygulamasıyla Yeme İçme İsrafının Önlenmesi (p. 957-967)* 1. International Halal Tourism Congress.
- Gürler, B., Nart, S. & R. Altunışık (2017). Sürdürülebilir gıda tüketimi ve gıda güvenliği konularında tüketici tutumlarının belirleyicileri üzerine bir araştırma. *16.Ulusal İşletmecilik Kongresi*, 130-141.
- Gürler, B. (2017). Sürdürülebilir ve Sağlıklı Gıda Tüketimine Yönelik Davranış Niyetlerin Belirleyicileri Üzerine Bir Araştırma. Sakarya University Master Thesis, Sakarya.
- Haspolat, N. A. (2020). In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in the Department of Social Policy. Middle East Technical University the Degree of Master of Science. Ankara.
- Huang, C.H., Liu, S.M. & Hsu N.Y. (2020). Understanding global food surplus and food waste to tackle economic and environmental sustainability. *Sustainability*. 12(7), 2892.
- IPCC (2012) Summary for policymakers. In: Managing the risks of extreme events and disasters to advance climate change adaptation. A special report of working groups I and II of the intergovernmental panel on climate change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. <file:///C:/Users/Dell/Desktop/Downloads/SREXVNSummPolMakrs19Jan2015ENG1100pm.pdf> (Accessed the 30th of January 2021, 00:05).

- Issa, J. J., & Jayawardena, C. (2003). The “all-inclusive” concept in the Caribbean. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(3), 167-171
- Kozak, A. M., Maviş, F., Nergis, G.H. & Çiçek, D. (2013). *Otel işletmelerinde yönetim fonksiyonel yaklaşım*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Mooney, P.H. & Hunt, S.A., (2009). Food security: the elaboration of contested claims to a consensus frame. *Rural Sociology* 74 (4), 469-497.
- Morrison , M. A. (1989). *Hospitality and Travel Marketing*. New York: Delmar Publishers
- Oosterveer, P. & Sonnenfeld, D. (2012). *Food, Globalization, and Sustainability*. New York: Routledge.
- Özdemir, A., Işık, S., Çizel, R.B. & Aykın, S. M. (2011), Effects of all- inclusive system (AIS) on the financial structure of accommodation enterprises in antalya, *EuropeanJournal of SocialSciences*, 24(4), 503- 515.
- Pekcan, A. G. (2019). Sürdürülebilir beslenme ve beslenme örüntüsü: bitkisel kaynaklı beslenme. *Beslenme ve Diyet Dergisi*, 47(2), 1-10.
- Reisch, L., Eberle, U & Lorek, S. (2013). Sustainable food consumption: an overview of contemporary issues and policies, *Sustainability: Science, Practice and Policy*, 9(2), 7-25.
- Quested, T., E., Parry, A., D., Eastal, S., & Swannell, R. (2011). Food and drink waste from households in the UK. *British Nutrition Foundation Nutrition Bulletin*, 36, 460-467.
- Sheldon, P. J., & Mak, J. (1987). The demand for package tours: A mode choice model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 25(3), 13–17.
- Singh, N., Cranage, D. A. and Nath, A. (2014). Estimation of GHG emission from hotel industry. *Anatolia*, 25(1), 39–48.
- Smith, P. & Olesen, J.E. (2010) Synergies between mitigation of, and adaptation to, climate change in agriculture. *J Agric Sci* 148, 543–552.
- Songür, A., N. & Çakıroğlu, F., P. (2016). Gıda kayıpları ve atık yönetimi food losses and waste management. *Türkiye Klinikleri Journal of Nutrition and Dietetics Special Topics*, 2(3),21-26.
- Story, M., Hamm, M.W. & Wallinga, D. (2009). Food systems and public health: linkages to achieve healthier diets and healthier communities. *J Hunger Environ Nutr* 4(1),219–224.
- Tavares, J. M. & Kozak, M. (2015). Tourists’ Preferences for the All-Inclusive System and Its Impacts on the Local Economy. *European Journal Tourism Hospitality and Recreation*. 6(2), 7-23.
- Tempelman, E. (2004). *Food. Product Services in the Need Area*. Delft: SusProNet..
- Tukker, A., Huppes, G., Guinée, J., Heijungs, R., de Koning, A., van Oers, L., Suh, S., Gaerken, T., Van Holderbeke, M., Jansen, B., & Nielsen, P. (2006). *Environmental Impact of Products(EIPRO): Analysis of the Life Cycle Environmental Impacts Related to the Final Consumption of the EU-25*. *EuropeanCommission’s Joint Research Centre, Institute for Prospective Technological Studies*. EUR 22284 EN-2006.Brussels: JRC.
- UN. (2020). Sustainable Development Goals. <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/?menu=1300> (Accessed the 30th of January 2021, 22:09).
- UNEP (2012) Measuring progress: environmental goals and gaps. UNEP, Nairobi. https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/8639/Measuring_Progress.pdf?sequence=7&isAllowed=y (Accessed the 30th of January 2021, 00:00).
- UNICEF, WHO & World Bank (2020). Levels and trends in child malnutrition: joint child malnutrition estimates. Washington, DC: World Health Organization. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/jme-2020-edition> (Accessed the 30th of January 2021, 22:20).
- Üner, M , Sökmen, A. & Birkan, İ. (2006). Türkiye’de her şey dahil uygulamasının konaklama işletmeleri üzerindeki etkisi: Antalya örneği . *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 17 (1), 35-50.
- Üner, M. M., Sökmen, A. & Güler, D. (2007). Her şey dahil sistemde farklı uygulamalar ve antalya ölçeğinde bir araştırma. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 18 (1), 53 -63.
- Üngüren, E , Algür, S. & Doğan, H . (2009). Konaklama ve seyahat acentaları yöneticilerinin her şey dahil sistemine yönelik tutumları: antalya örneği. *Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey Üniversitesi Sosyal Ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi*. (2), 95-112.
- Vermeulen, S. J, Campbell, B. M. & Ingram, J .S. I. (2012). Climate change and food systems. *Annu Rev Environ Resour* 37(1), 195-222.
- Willett W, Rockström J, Loken B, et al. (2019). Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT–Lancet Commission on healthy diets from sustainable food systems. *Lancet*,393(1), 447–92.
- Wong, C., & Kwong, W. (2004). ‘Outbound tourists’ selection criteria for choosing all-inclusive package tours. *Tourism Management*, 25(5): 581–592. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2003.06.002

Yürük, E.Ö. (2002). Her şey dahil sistemi ve sistemin türk turizm sektörüne etkileri, *T.C. Turizm Bakanlığı II. Turizm Şurası Bildirileri*, Cilt 1: 291.
<https://www.aa.com.tr/tr/dunya/bir-yanda-aclik-bir-yanda-obeziite/1614213> (Accessed the 09th of February 2021, 01:51).
<https://www.milliyet.com.tr/yazarlar/abbas-guclu/bir-yanda-aclik-ote-yanda-israf-6072092> (Accessed the 09th of February 2021, 01:58).
https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/24797GSDR_report_2019.pdf (Accessed the 22th of February 2021, 23:56).
