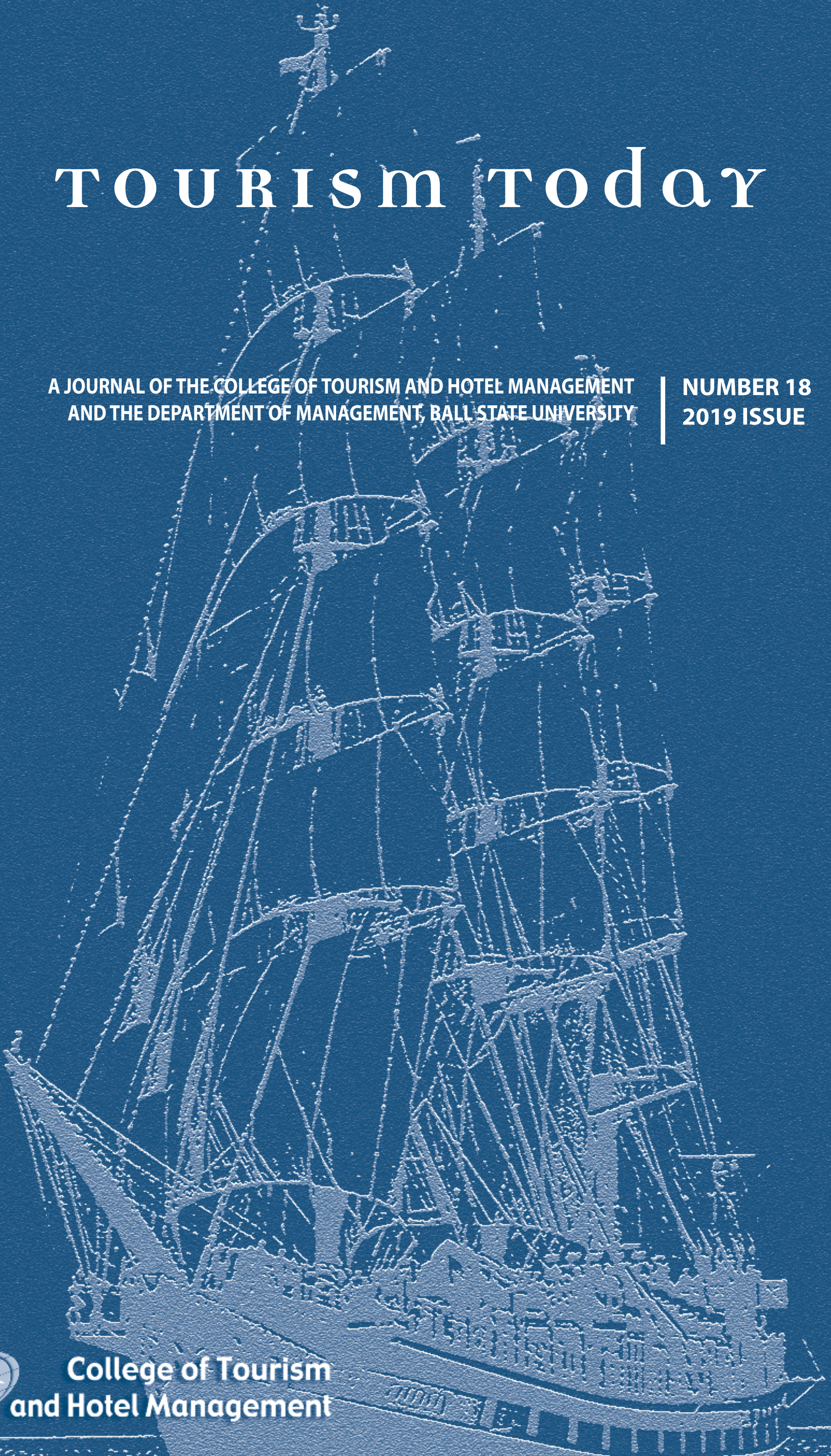
TOURISM TODAY

A JOURNAL OF THE COLLEGE OF TOURISM AND HOTEL MANAGEMENT
AND THE DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, BALL STATE UNIVERSITY

NUMBER 18
2019 ISSUE



College of Tourism
and Hotel Management

ISSN 1450-0906

Tourism Today

Number 18, 2019 Issue

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and Hotel Management

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Editorial Board

Aims & Scope

Tourism Today serves as an international, scholarly, and refereed journal aiming to promote and enhance research in the fields of tourism and hospitality. The journal is published by the College of Tourism and Hotel Management in Cyprus and the Department of Management at Ball State University in the USA. The journal is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with the tourism and hospitality industries, as well as professionals in the industry. *Tourism Today* provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism or hospitality industry segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries.

Aims & Scope

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict double blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within the field of tourism and hospitality, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism and hospitality in the future. The journal also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-based but cover a topic that is of interest to researchers, educators and practitioners in the fields of tourism and hospitality.

Decisions regarding publication of submitted manuscripts are based on the recommendations of members of the Editorial Board and other qualified reviewers in an anonymous review process. Submitted articles are evaluated on their appropriateness, significance, clarity of presentation and conceptual adequacy. Negative reviews are made available to authors. The views expressed in the articles are those of the authors, and do not necessarily represent those of the Editorial Board of *Tourism Today*, the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, nor Ball State University.

Contents

Full Papers

Note from the Editor

Welcome to this edition of Tourism Today. Both the College of Tourism and Hotel Management and the Department of Management at Ball State University continue to support Tourism Today. These institutions enable Tourism Today to continue to be a quality journal as an outlet for academics; as well as, a resource for academics, students, and those in industry. The journal remains available to everyone free of charge online and will remain so.

In terms of the Editorial Board, we are glad to have such representation from around the world. The members of the Editorial Board help to ensure the quality and reputation of the journal and we appreciate the assistance and support we have continued to have for years.

In 1999, Antonis Charalambides, who was then Director of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, and I spoke about revitalizing a publication from years ago. While the name "Tourism Today" had existed in an earlier incarnation as a hybrid between an industry magazine and an academic scholarship, we revived the name but made it somewhat more academic in hopes that contributors would be more practical in focus than most academic ones. Since those early discussions and a trip to a conference in Chios, Greece in which I recruited the first publications for Tourism Today, we have published the journal. Previously, we had published the journal as an annual "Autumn" issue, but we have since moved to a yearly publication and no longer designate it an "Autumn" issue.

In this issue, we have a great variety of articles. Some articles that are more theoretical and conceptual than empirical and some are very empirical and focused on specific populations and issues. For example, it would be hard to imagine an article that is less empirical than Bob Brotherton's submission that is purely conceptual and theoretical. In stark contrast is Suosheng Wang's submission that is conceptual, but involves statistical analysis to look into the issue of tourists and the life satisfaction of tourists. There are also representations of data gathered from places and populations from many different places in the world, such as China, Indonesia, and Nigeria to name a few. The authors' affiliations also illustrate something of the diversity of the researchers who have a presence in this issue. Diversity in terms of methods, topics, geographic distribution of authors, and sample populations for data analysis is something that this issue does very well, and we take pride in this.

As has been the case since the first edition of Tourism Today many years ago, comments that assist us in improving the journal are welcome. We encourage readers to support the journal. To support the journal, you can read it, submit quality research for our consideration, and spread the word about the journal to friends and colleagues.

We wish you an enjoyable read.

Craig Webster
Editor-in-Chief, Tourism Today

Analysis of young tourists' life satisfaction domains and determinants of overall life satisfaction

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ABSTRACT

This study explores tourists' satisfaction outcomes and life satisfaction domains, and examines the domains' relative importance in influencing tourists' overall life satisfaction. Seven life satisfaction domains are identified in relation to young Chinese tourists' leisure travel, among which five domains are found to be significant in affecting the tourists' overall life satisfaction. These significant domains, in order of importance, are life satisfaction in work, affection/love, social status and recognition, knowledge enhancement, and leisure and relaxation. No difference is detected about the young tourists' travel-related life satisfaction relating to their demographic variables such as gender, income and marital status. Based on the results, theoretical and managerial implications are recommended.

Keywords: travel satisfaction outcomes; life satisfaction domains; overall life satisfaction; young tourists; China

INTRODUCTION

Life satisfaction is a cognitive, judgmental process, consisting of a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to the individual's chosen criteria together with hedonic aspects (Diener et al., 1999). Life satisfaction can be defined as the degree to which an individual favorably judges the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole (Veenhoven, 1991). Neal, Uysal, and Sirgy (2007) confirm that tourism is an important aspect of leisure life, which is a significant factor in overall life satisfaction. Hobson and Dietrich (1994, p.23) observed that there is an "underlying assumption in our society that tourism is a mentally and physically healthy pursuit to follow in our leisure time" and hence a factor in increasing quality of life. In addition, Neal and Gursoy (2008) find that tourists' level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction during various stages of travel affects their overall satisfaction with travel and tourism services.

As people are becoming more aware of the importance of wellbeing and quality of life, academic research in this area has been growing steadily and rapidly. Recent tourism research has gone onto investigating the links between satisfactory outcomes and life satisfaction (e.g., Neal et al., 1999; 2004). Tourism research on life satisfaction has been mainly guided by goal theory (e.g., Neal, et al., 2007; Sirgy, 2010; Sirgy et al., 2011), which is based on the notion that tourists can experience a higher level of subjective wellbeing if they engage in certain actions to implement their selected leisure travel goals and engage in actions to experience goal attainment (Sirgy, et al., 2011). There are several key reasons for engaging with the happiness topic. First, the discussions and the research work on happiness help shed light on the subjective value of holiday experiences to tourists. Second, the happiness research helps in better understanding the potential relationship between tourism and mental health (Filep, 2014).

The importance of holidaytaking or tourism has been widely researched especially in terms of motivations. However, the question as to whether taking a holiday does make one happier with the satisfaction of meeting psychological needs through travels has yet to be fully examined (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Such research has mainly focused on tourists in Western countries (McCabe & Johnson, 2013; Pagan, 2015). Other research has focused on elderly tourists' life satisfaction (e.g., Milman, 1998). Relatively, few studies have ever focused on the young tourists' life satisfaction especially in countries other than the well-developed Western countries (Wang, 2017).

Travel outcomes may be perceived differently by an individual in a different culture to construct his or her life satisfaction judgments. More research is therefore needed to better understand the relationship between leisure travel and tourists' life satisfaction. This study is designed to explore how Chinese tourists perceive their leisure travel outcomes, and additionally, how the domains of life satisfaction (e.g., the surrogates of the outcomes) interrelate and contribute to the tourists' overall life satisfaction. Specifically, the purposes of this study include:

1. Exploring tourists' leisure travel related satisfaction outcomes;
2. Identifying the leisure travel related life satisfaction domains;
3. Examining the relative importance of the tourists' life satisfaction domains in determining their overall life satisfaction; and
4. Investigating the impacts of the demographic variables on the life satisfaction determinants.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leisure activities provide opportunities for relaxation, entertainment, and personal development (Dumazedier, 1967). Wilson and Harris (2006) showed that meaningful travel centered around three key themes: a search for self and identity, self-empowerment, and connectedness with others. There is evidence in different studies that positive leisure experiences can induce positive moods (e.g., Hills & Argyle, 1998), thus enhancing the participants' sense of well-being. However, the importance lies both in the amount of time available and the value that people attach to their leisure experiences (Shaw, 1984) and which contributes to their life satisfaction (e.g., Tinsley & Tinsley, 1986).

For instance, outdoor touristic and adventure activities lead to learning experiences (Koseoglu & Doering, 2011). The principles of experiential learning and transformative learning provide a viable connection between travel and education (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Exploring other cultures and increasing knowledge were among the top motivations for travel (Richards & Wilson, 2003). Pearce and Foster (2007) discovered that travelers reported learning of "generic skills" such as problem solving and interpersonal/social skills; in addition, they gained more general knowledge (e.g., historic and geographic knowledge) and social and cultural awareness. Within experiential learning, content knowledge can lead to personal growth, which can lead to an openness and to more learning (Meyer-Lee & Evans, 2007), and consequently, to one's happiness and life satisfaction.

Unlike the elderly or retired, full-time employees are often unable to recover sufficiently during short respites from work due to increasingly permeable boundaries between work and home domains, long working hours, working overtime and prolonged physiological activation as a result of pre-occupation with work (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). Therefore, a long getaway is longed to recover from work. For employees especially the young people, vacations represent the longest period of temporary absence from work and may constitute a more powerful respite opportunity than a short break (de Bloom et al., 2013). Presumably, as compared with the other age groups (e.g., the younger or older generations), the young full-time workers tend to value more the travel outcomes and benefits that leisure travel can bring them.

The effect of satisfaction with a specific consumption experience (e.g., travel experience) on overall life satisfaction used to be studied within the framework of the bottom-up spillover theory. This theory posits that life satisfaction is functionally related to satisfaction with all of life's domains and subdomains; and life satisfaction is thought to be on top of a satisfaction hierarchy, which is influenced by satisfaction with life domains (Rapkin & Fisher, 1992; Sirgy et al., 2011). Life satisfaction is measured on two levels: global and specific life domains. The specific life domains include family, friends, home, interpersonal relationships, economic situation, job, leisure, neighborhood, self, services and infrastructure, health, and nation (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Notably, the meanings of the pre-defined life domains seem to be mutually intertwined. In other words, there may exist a collinearity issue among the domains. Given this, previous studies (e.g., Sirgy et al., 2011) did not examine the relative importance of the life domains or subdomains in impacting travelers' overall life satisfaction.

Being aware of the potential collinearity issue, this study has been framed in the social production function theory (SPF) proposed by Lindenberg (1986, 1991, 1996). The SPF theory assumes that people produce their own cognitive life satisfaction by trying to optimize achievement of universal needs via instrumental goals. The two basic universal needs are the needs for physical wellbeing and social wellbeing, which are met through engaging in activities that satisfy instrumental goal (van Bruggen, 2001). The physical need comprises the components of physical stimulation and comfort, and the social wellbeing comprises the basic goals of status, behavioral confirmation and affection. One expected advantage of applying the SPF theory is that there should be no serious collinearity issue occurring among the identified instrumental goals given their distinctive features of each. Yet, though a popular theory being applied in social studies, SPF has rarely been applied in studying tourists' leisure travel outcomes and life satisfaction (Wang, 2017).

Notably, previous studies about the impacts of demographic variables on life satisfaction have not been consistent. For instance, demographic variables such as education and income are positively correlated with happiness or satisfaction (Kahneman & Kruger, 2006). Oreopoulos (2003) finds that gender is uncorrelated with life satisfaction and happiness; the effects of age are complex—the lowest life satisfaction is apparently experienced by those who have teenagers at home, and reported satisfaction improves thereafter. Previous studies have found that rank in the income distribution or in one's peer group is more important than the level of income (e.g., Luttmer, 2005). Wilson (1967) showed that demographic factors correlate with life satisfaction. He stated that the happy person is a "young, healthy, well-educated, well-paid, extroverted, optimistic, worry-free, religious, married person with high self-esteem, job morale, modest aspirations, of either sex and of a wide range of intelligence". Pagan (2015) found significant effects of gender, age, years of education on different domains of life satisfaction, especially in the nondisabled sample. This study will also test how the demographic variables impact young tourists' perceptions of their life satisfaction domains.

RESEARCH METHODS

Given the fact that few studies have ever explored young tourists' travel outcomes and the associations with their life satisfaction, this study aims to focus on young Chinese tourists who mainly have entry-level jobs or low-to-medium wages. Notably in today's China, many young employees are migrant workers coming from China's countryside or underdeveloped areas. Compared with the middle-class or upper-class people who have relatively less life pressure and stress, the baseline young Chinese workers usually spend most of their time in work and have very little time for relaxation. It is considered that this is the group of people with deprived needs in vacations as compared with the other age groups, and on a leisure getaway, their travel outcomes would be expected to produce a higher level of life satisfaction.

Studies on young Chinese tourists' travel-related life satisfaction have rarely been conducted. As a result, one initial step in data collection is to explore the people's satisfaction outcomes aroused from leisure travel. A judgmental sampling technique is used to identify a pool of 56 young people through the referrals of the researcher's friends. These employees are working in various cities, aged in their 20s or 30s. Before conducting the phone interview, an email message was sent out. The principal researcher introduced himself and explained the purpose of the interview, then asked if he or she made a leisure trip within the last 12 months and could recall the travel experience. As a result, 29 people turned out to have made at least one leisure trip in the last 12 months and accepted the invitation for a phone interview.

The phone interview was conducted in May 2014 by the principal researcher who was fluent in both Chinese and English. Each interview lasted for approximately 30-35 minutes, with all the audios being tape-recorded. After a phone interview was started, the interviewer first started with some general questions (e.g., "When did you make the most recent leisure travel?" and "How is the trip in general?"). This allowed interviewees to have time thinking about the most recent leisure trips and consequent effects. Then the interviewer asked, "How may the travel experience and outcomes have affected your life satisfaction?" There were occasions when an interviewee did not know what to say next about his or her travel outcomes. Given this, the interviewer would provide some aspects for the interviewee to think about, which are in line with the instrumental goals specified in the theory of SPF.

The interviews were transcribed and content analysis was conducted to determine the content codes describing leisure travel outcomes. Previous studies of travel effects or outcomes were used to establish a standard typology of outcomes at each level and these were used in the coding process.

Based on the results of the qualitative assessment, the survey questionnaire was designed for the quantitative assessment. The travel outcomes and life satisfactions were measured using a five-point scale with 1 standing for very negative and 5 for very positive. In addition, demographic and travel behavior related questions are included such as gender, marital status, age, household income, and previous leisure travel experience.

Data were collected through a pen-and-paper survey conducted from September 2014 to November 2014. Data-collecting cities are Shenzhen and Guangzhou in Guangdong Province, Ma'anshan in Anhui Province, Suzhou and Nanjing in Jiangsu Province, and Hangzhou in Zhejiang Province, which are all located in East China. The convenience sampling technique was used in data collection with the research assistants working in these cities. Survey assistants were college students majoring in tourism and friends working in the selected cities. Prior to the survey, the assistants were introduced with the background of the research project and the process of data collection, and were asked to survey young baseline-level employees who had taken at least one leisure travel within the recent year.

As a result, 28% of the completed surveys were collected in Shiqiao Town of Ma'anshan City, Anhui Province. The respondents were either self-employed or part-time jobbers intercepted by the research assistants on the main streets of the town; 15% of the respondents were employees working at an economy hotel chain in Hangzhou City, Zhejiang Province. Data were collected with the assistance of a deputy general manager of the hotel group; 17% of the surveys were collected in the cities of Suzhou and Nanjing, Jiangsu Province. The respondents were mainly retailer workers hired by shop owners or self-employed; 31% were collected by student assistants in Nanshan District of Shenzhen City, Guangdong Province. The respondents were workers in Shenzhen Overseas Chinese Town; the rest of the respondents (9%) were collected in Guangzhou, Guangdong Province, in a telecommunication corporation, with the help of an employee working in the company. Altogether, 540 usable surveys were collected.

Descriptive statistics using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 24) was conducted to assess the frequency and central tendency of the leisure travel outcomes. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted for the leisure travel outcome items. Based on the results of the factor analysis, multiple regression analysis is done to determine which factors are salient in contributing to the tourists' overall life satisfaction. The overall life satisfaction has been measured with the five-item scale developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin (1985). One example of the five items, for instance, is 'in most ways my life is close to my ideal.' Then the independent samples t-tests are conducted to detect perceptual differences of the determining factors identified in the regression analysis between male and female, single and married, and low monthly income (< CNY5,000) versus medium-or-above monthly income (≥ CNY5,000).

RESULTS

The results of the descriptive analyses of the survey data show that 44.3% are males and 55.7% are females; 75.7% are unmarried and 21.9% are married; 62% of the respondents are at the age group of 18-25 years old, 28.9% are 26-30 years old, and 9.1% are 31-40 years old. About household income, 21.3% of the respondents reported a monthly income below CNY2,000 (US$1.00 is about CNY6.5), 50.6% from CNY2000-5000 per month, 19.1% from CNY5000-8000, and the rest of the respondents (9%) over CNY8000 per month. Regarding the respondents' travel experience, about 71% of the respondents made one domestic trip within the recent year, 29% traveled more than once. For the most recent leisure trip, 93% of the respondents traveled domestically, only 1% traveled long distance to Europe while the rest of them have traveled to nearby East and Southeast Asia destinations such as Thailand and Japan. About travel mode, 33.9% traveled with family members in the recent trip, 12.8% with lovers, 45% with friends or colleagues, and 8.3% by themselves.

The content analysis of the qualitative data reveals 35 leisure travel outcome indicators. As a result of the reliability testing, three items were found not to contribute to the internal consistency and hence were removed and excluded in the consequent data analyses. The mean ratings of leftover 32 satisfaction outcomes range from 2.54 to 4.66 (see Table 1). For instance, the items with the lowest mean values are "Looking for romantic experience en route travel" (2.54), "To improve rapports with business partners for business success" (2.94), "To enhance social network, work or business opportunities."(2.99). Apart from these three, all the other items' mean ratings are bigger than the mid-point '3'. Noticeably, the top-rating items are related with the direct travel experiences such as beautiful scenery, health food, convenient and express transportation, etc.

Table 1 : Leisure outcome indicators and life satisfaction domains

Variables (mean)	Factor loadings							Com.
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	
Factor 1 – Life satisfaction in travel services								
Healthy food (4.44)	.820							.617
Clean and comfortable accommodation (4.30)	.789							.706
Convenient and express transportation	.761							.698
Satisfactory supporting services								
(e.g. good tour guide and available WIFI)	.665							.632
High level of travel safety and security (4.64)	.458							.572
Hospitable local residents (3.86)	.455							.597
Factor 2 – Life satisfaction in social status and recognition								
Travel is a reflection of increased income (3.32)		.775						.551
Travel is a symbol of life improvement (3.50)		.772						.752
Colleagues and friends speak highly of my travel experience (3.59)		.670						.675
Showing travel experience in social media to get more attention (3.37)		.641						.515
Travel is hailed by family members (3.48)		.593						.412
Travel means a higher-level pursuit to quality of life (3.93)		.531						.525
Travel is an award and recognition to my hard work (3.93)		.440						.633
Factor 3 – Life satisfaction in knowledge enhancement								
Enrich life experience (4.33)			.778					.590
Accumulate life experience in a new place (4.14)			.711					.715
Enhance knowledge, skills and inquiring ability (3.93)			.601					.452
Experience different folklore and culture (4.39)			.452					.625

Factor 4 – Life satisfaction in leisure and relaxation								
stay away from routine life (3.96)				.784				.728
stay away from routine place (4.15)				.763				.727
do the things I desire (4.27)				.735				.671
accomplish internal tranquility (4.25)				.692				.653
Factor 5 – Life satisfaction in work								
To enhance social network, work or business opportunities (2.99)					.771			.464
To improve rapports with business partners for business success (2.94)					.766			.565
Travel planning and preparation greatly invigorates passion in work (3.50)					.559			.560
A person can fully and vitally engage in work after traveling (3.79)					.737			.544
One's ideas and creativity of work can be inspired while traveling (3.44)					.667			.688
Factor 6 – Life satisfaction in affection/love								
To be with children or be pious to parents (4.06)						.734		.667
Enhancing affections with friends or the beloved (4.18)						.730		.561
To meet with old friends or new friends (3.77)						.677		.715
Factor 7 – Life satisfaction in comfortable environment								
Stay far away from environmental pollution (4.09)							.807	.694
Enjoy fresh air (4.31)							.663	.661
Escape coldness or hotness (3.51)							.633	.742
% of variance	25.4	12.7	8.9	6.9	5.9	3.8	2.8	
Cumulative variance (percent)	25.4	38.1	47.0	53.9	60.0	64.1	66.9	
Summated Mean	4.28	3.59	4.20	4.16	3.33	4.00	3.97	
Number of items (total=21)	6	7	4	4	5	3	3	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

To detect the scale dimensionality, exploratory factor analyses with the principal component method is conducted. The result of the factor analysis is presented in Table 1. The test statistic for sphericity is large (9613.012) which is statistically significant at 0.001. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy of these variables was 0.938. The communalities range from .412 to .752. As a result, seven factors are extracted, explaining 66.9% of the total variance. Based on the items grouped under each factor, these four factors are labeled as "life satisfaction in travel services" (F1), "life satisfaction in social status and recognition" (F2), "life satisfaction in knowledge enhancement" (F3), "life satisfaction in leisure and relaxation" (F4), "life satisfaction in work" (F5), "life satisfaction in affection/love" (F6), and "life satisfaction in comfortable environment" (F7). Among the factors, Factor 1 –"life satisfaction in travel services" obtains the highest summated mean score (4.28), which is perceived most favorably by the tourists. In turn, the second favorably rated factor is Factor 3 - "life satisfaction in knowledge enhancement" (4.20), followed by Factor 4 – "life satisfaction in leisure and relaxation" (4.16), and Factor 6 – "life satisfaction in affection/love" (4.00). All these factors are favorably perceived, i.e., their mean ratings are bigger than the middle point '3'.

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to measure how the identified domains of travel-related life satisfaction predict tourists' overall life satisfaction. As illustrated in Table 2, about 56% of the total variance in the dependent variable is explained by the predicting model. The F-ratio of 136.58 is significant (Prob.< 0.001), indicating that the result of the equation model could hardly occur by chance. The degree of variable collinearity is considered acceptable with the variance inflation (VIF) equal to 1.01 which is less than 10.

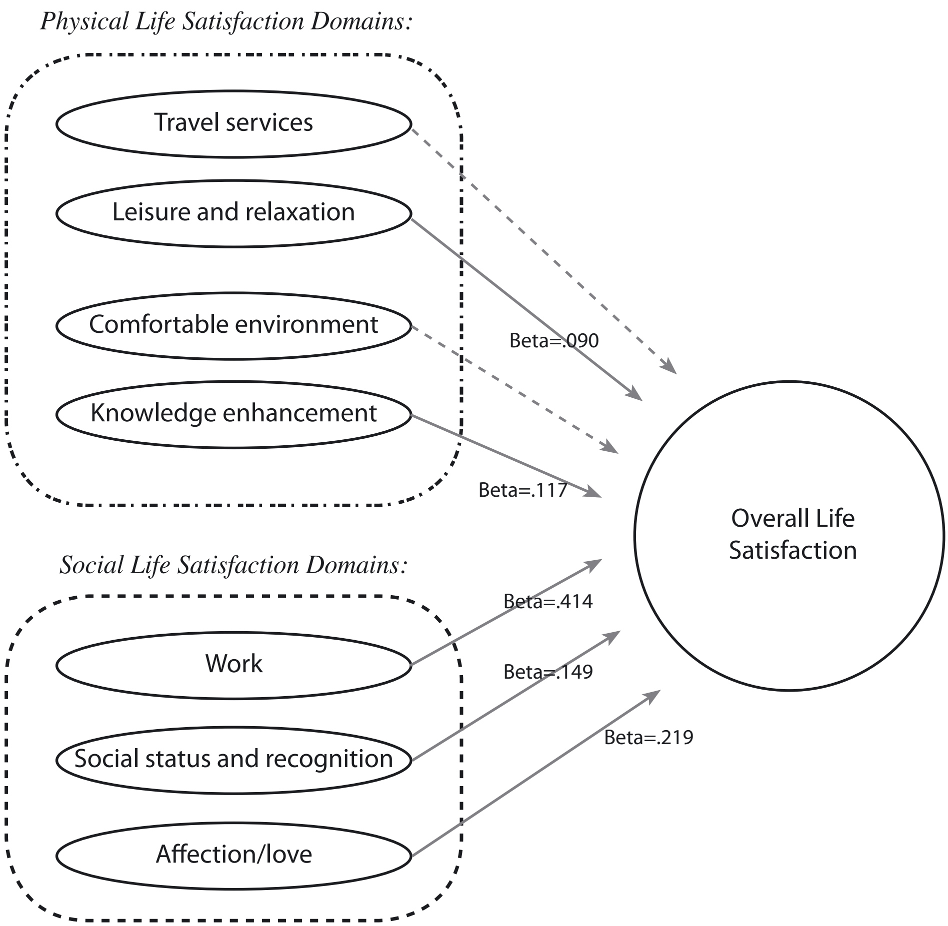
Table 2: Significant factors in predicting travel-related life satisfaction

R = .749, R^2 = .560, Adjusted R^2 = .558, F(5,533) = 136.58				
Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.343		10.931	.000
F5	.272	.414	11.723	.000
F6	.156	.219	6.170	.000
F2	.114	.149	3.931	.000
F3	.098	.117	3.207	.001
F4	.070	.090	2.750	.006

Dependent Variable: Travel related overall life satisfaction

Five factors are found to be significant in predicting tourists' overall life satisfaction related to leisure travel (see Fig. 1). The regression model indicates that the most important factor in contributing to the tourists' life satisfaction is Factor 5 - "life satisfaction in work" (Beta=.414), the second important one is Factor 6 – "life satisfaction in affection/love" (Beta=.219), followed by Factor 2 – "life satisfaction in social status and recognition" (Beta=.149), Factor 3 – "life satisfaction in knowledge enhancement" (Beta=.117), and Factor 4 – "life satisfaction in leisure and relaxation" (Beta=.090). The two insignificant predictors are F1 and F7.

Figure 1: Travel related life satisfaction domains and overall life satisfaction



The remaining significant factors were further examined across the groups of different gender, income and marital status, respectively. Interestingly, the results of the independent-samples t-tests did not show significant differences between most of the demographic groups (see Table 3), and only two tests proved significant on Factor 5 "life satisfaction in work" between males and females, and between less-income and more-income. For these two significant tests, it is found that male tourists are feeling more positive than female tourists, and more-income visitors are more positive than less-income visitors. As for all the other demographic groups, their effects on the remaining significant factors are indistinctive.

Table 3: Results of t-tests

DV	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	Sig.
F2	Male	239	3.58	.751	-.188	.851
	Female	310	3.59	.788		
	Less income	387	3.56	.790	-.941	.347
	More income	152	3.63	.722		
	Unmarried	408	3.57	.753	-.476	.634
	Married	118	3.61	.846		
F3	Male	239	4.20	.696	.173	.863
	Female	310	4.19	.699		
	Less income	388	4.18	.718	-.532	.595
	More income	152	4.22	.644		
	Unmarried	409	4.21	.655	1.677	.094
	Married	118	4.09	.840		
F4	Male	239	4.08	.733	-1.862	.063
	Female	300	4.20	.769		
	Less income	388	4.14	.776	-.379	.705
	More income	152	4.17	.703		
	Unmarried	409	4.17	.720	1.156	.248
	Married	118	4.08	.874		
F5	Male	239	3.45	.876	2.922	.004
	Female	301	3.23	.899		
	Less income	388	3.27	.919	-2.219	.027
	More income	152	3.46	.818		
	Unmarried	409	3.32	.860	-.238	.812
	Married	118	3.34	.970		
F6	Male	239	3.99	.790	-.213	.832
	Female	310	4.01	.855		
	Less income	388	4.00	.884	.932	.352
	More income	152	4.00	.659		
	Unmarried	409	4.01	.828	-.654	.513
	Married	118	3.93	.802		

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Previous studies about leisure travel benefits have mostly focused on elderly people or people in special social groups and from western countries. This study analyzed the perceptions of young Chinese workers' leisure travel outcomes. The mean ratings of the measures indicate that the young tourists are more sensational to what leisure travel could bring them physically. Among the most favorably rated satisfaction outcomes, most of them are physical satisfaction outcomes. Of the social wellbeing related travel outcomes, only two indicators received mean ratings slightly over 4 on the 5-point scale. In other words, the young Chinese people are more concerned about the travel experiences which can bring them more physical life satisfaction.

Seven domains of life satisfaction were identified, among which four are physical life satisfaction domains, i.e., travel, leisure and relaxation, comfortable environment, and knowledge enhancement, and three are social life satisfaction domains which are social status and recognition, work, and affection/love. Of these domains, the satisfaction domain in work is deemed as a unique domain for the young people desiring for success in career, and the life satisfaction for comfortable environment may reflect the people's concern about the pollution being aggravated in the recent decades due to rapid economic growth at the cost of the environment.

Of the seven life satisfaction domains, the domain of life satisfaction in travel received the biggest summated mean (4.28 out of 5), followed by life satisfaction in knowledge enhancement (4.20) and life satisfaction in leisure (4.16), all being part of the physical universal goal. The domains with the lowest summated means are life satisfaction in work (3.33) and life satisfaction in social status and recognition (3.59), indicating the young tourists' perceived life satisfaction in work and social status and recognition is mild. This is the group who might have the busiest working schedule and the heaviest life pressure who, according to Chinese tradition, have to take care of their children as well as their parents. Leisure travel is a good time for them to relax and 'recharge batteries'. In contrast, their satisfaction in work and social recognition from leisure tourism is not as high as the physical pleasure gleaned directly from travel itself.

The results of the regression analysis indicate that the life satisfaction domains of 'work' and 'affection/love' are the first and second most important determinants of the young tourists' overall life satisfaction, followed by the domains of 'social recognition', 'knowledge enhancement', and 'leisure and relaxation'. It is noted that the majority of the respondents in this study were young people with a monthly income less than $800, indicating that most of them are baseline workers in China, who desire for career success and therefore consider leisure travel very important for becoming more competent and better prepared for their work. The study implies that what really enhances their life satisfaction is the travel experiences and outcomes which invigorate their work passion, inspire their creative ideas, and improve relations with their career partners. This study also indicates that the young Chinese people find it very important to invest in the realization and improvement of affection and social status. Suh, Diener, Oishi, and Triandis (1998) observed that among collectivists, the extent to which one's life accords with the wishes of significant others is more important than the emotions that the person feels in predicting his or her life satisfaction.

Noticeably, the physical domain of life satisfaction in 'travel' receiving the biggest summated mean score is however not a significant predicting factor in the model; in addition, the most important determinants of overall satisfaction are not physical domains but mainly social domains which however received lower summated means. In other words, though the physical domains of life satisfaction obtained relatively bigger summated means, they are less important than the social domains in determining the young tourists' overall life satisfaction. One implication for the government and tourism management is that, to enhance the tourists' overall life satisfaction, more emphasis and efforts should be focused on elevating the young tourists' satisfaction in the social domains.

This study did not spot the demographics' distinct effects on tourists' perceptions of the important life satisfaction domains. The results indicate that the young Chinese travelers have quite consistent perceptions about their travel outcomes and life satisfaction domains due to leisure travel. It is noted that the results may not be quite consistent with the findings of the previous studies (e.g., Kahneman & Kruger, 2006; Oreopoulos, 2003; Luttmer, 2005), indicating that people of different ages may have different views and characteristics in terms of their leisure travel outcomes and travel-related life satisfaction domains.

In summary, this study explored young Chinese people's leisure travel outcomes, their life satisfaction domains derived from the travel outcomes and the relative importance of the domains contributing to their overall life satisfaction. The theory of SPF was applied in the study which proves to be an effective framework in exploring tourists' travel outcomes related to the enhancement of their overall life satisfaction. The identified life satisfaction domains are generally consistent with the findings of similar studies conducted previously by other tourism scholars. While there may always exist some discrepancies among the studies, this proves that human goals and their pursuits for life satisfaction are greatly varied and dynamic, subject to the changes and improvements of their living environments, standards and constraints.

In the context of leisure travel, the young Chinese people seem to be more easily satisfied with the fulfilment of physical life goals than social life goals. Moreover, though their social needs can be relatively harder to accomplish through leisure travel, these needs or goals (e.g., satisfaction domain in work) are more important in determining their overall life satisfaction. Echoing the previous studies (Hag, 2012), this research work further verifies that, for people living at different stages of life, or from different cultures or social groups/classes, there would always exist some special needs or goals pursued by the specific type of people or social group. For the organizations which attach importance to improving people's wellbeing, such special needs or goals should be highlighted and given full attention.

Specifically, this study is informative to China's policymakers and tourism management organizations who care about the young people' morale and life satisfaction. For instance, a good quality and well-organized leisure travel can help fulfil the young Chinese people's physical, social goals, which contributed to their overall life satisfaction. From the government's perspective, an enforced paid leave policy is necessary to guarantee employees' legal rights to take paid vacations. As for tourism organizations, the tourism programs and services should be designed and provided in a way to help accomplish the young Chinese people's needs – basically, the physical needs in relaxation and knowledge enhancement, and ideally, the social needs of life satisfaction in work, social recognition and affection or love.

Finally, given the limitations of research on social sciences and convenience sampling techniques, more research on young people' leisure travel outcomes should be conducted, not only in China, but also in other countries with different economic and cultural background. It would also be interesting and of merits to conduct similar studies on the other types of people (e.g., elderly senior workers, retired people, and/or aging people), and compare the young people's leisure travel outcomes and life satisfaction domains with these peoples'.

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Conceptualising, defining and theorising hospitality[1]

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ABSTRACT

This paper critically explores the extant literature associated with the rather convoluted journey that the hospitality academy has taken over the past few decades in its attempt both to realise a universally acceptable definition of hospitality and establish the 'boundaries' of the hospitality phenomenon. To both these issues credible solutions are proposed in an attempt to end this seemingly endless endeavour. From the proposed definition of hospitality its fundamental dimensions are established and articulated to form a basis for further conceptual development and empirical enquiry. In addition, the revolutionary and evolutionary forces, or 'tectonics', lying behind the manifestation of similar and divergent 'Hospitality Morphologies' are identified and discussed in relation to the development and use of theoretical concepts and approaches to establish a more robust 'comparative' theoretical approach to explain temporal and spatial similarities and differences between the incidence of alternative empirical hospitality morphologies.

Keywords: Hospitality Concepts, Definition, Morphologies, Theory Development.

INTRODUCTION

This paper is concerned with two distinct but interrelated issues. First, to bring a conclusion to the enduring debate regarding how to define hospitality, both conceptually and practically, and how the field of hospitality should be circumscribed. Second, to use this as the basis for exploring a more theoretical approach to the study of hospitality capable of embracing and making use of much, if not most, of the considerable volume of material now evident in the extant literature.

CONCEPTUALISING AND DEFINING HOSPITALITY

It is absurd that the issues of - what hospitality is and how it should be defined – are still contentious and subject to repeated attempts by commentators, from both within and without the hospitality academy, to provide answers some thirty five to forty years after 'hospitality' became the descriptor of choice, in both academia and amongst practitioners, for what was previously

[1] Note: This article is an expanded and embellished version of an article previously published by the author.

referred to as hotel, catering and restaurant activities – lodging and foodservice in an American context. Although the reasons for this shift may have been more a case of cosmetic spin, in both academic and industrial contexts, than any real, substantial shift in these early days (Lashley, 2008) there is no doubting the reality of it over time, with use of the terms hospitality management and the hospitality industry becoming the norm in the twenty first century.

This has resulted in quite a considerable body of literature, produced by both hospitality academics and those addressing these issues from their own individual disciplinary backgrounds and perspectives. Much of this is potentially valuable scholarly activity but it is equally characterised by considerable repetition, circularity of argument, fundamental misunderstanding, and the misuse of basic terminology and concepts. This has consequentlyled to a host of false dawns. Comments in the extant literature recording this quite lamentable failure are legion and really not worthy of extensive coverage here. However, the following pronouncements by authors who, inter-alia, tend be regarded as in the vanguard of this shift illustrate that, regardless of the sweat and toil that has been expended, the end result has really been profoundly disappointing.

At the beginning of this process, Middleton (1983:51) commented that; "There is a definitional problem arising from the term 'hospitality industry' which is not in common use in the United Kingdom….It may be surprising that, in the 1980's, one must contemplate educational programmes for the hospitality industry without agreement on what the industry comprises". At the same point in time Reuland and Cassee (1983:144) concluded that; "a thorough understanding of hospitality as a phenomenon is lacking because hardly any research has been done on this subject…Therefore, the concept and formation of a hospitality theory is still missing." More than a decade later the situation was broadly the same according to Jones (1996:6) who observed that; "the reality is that there is certainly no commonly shared paradigm of what we mean by hospitality…..Reference to the research literature would indicate that there has been little or no discussion of what we mean by hospitality."

Again more than another decade on Pizam and Shani (2009:135) noted that this fundamental issue remained unresolved; "in the past few years a fundamental and profound debate on the essence of hospitality has been taking place among both scholars and practitioners… Despite the productive debate regarding the nature of hospitality and its implications for the industry, there are still no agreed upon definitions on its characteristics." Furthermore, in the editorial launching a new journal, Lynch, Germann Molz, Mcintosh, Lugosi and Lashley (2011:5) reflected that; "A considerable literature has been generated across a range of disciplines regarding definitions of and approaches to hospitality, but as this necessarily brief review makes clear, there is neither a single definition of hospitality…………….nor is there a unified theoretical framework within which hospitality studies are situated."

Moving even nearer to the present there still seems to be a lack of clarity regarding what hospitality is and how it can, and should, be defined. Melissen (2014) provides a very good example of this in stating that hospitality is a concept and that, as a concept, it may remain essentially the same in different contexts but equally may be manifested in different ways for differing reasons. However, this view is then accompanied by the observation that hospitality is not a straightforward and simple concept but rather it is a ‘mystifying concept’ (Melissen, 2014:15) because its contextual manifestations can be, and indeed usually are, idiosyncratic and highly dissimilar if not unique. As will be clarified later it is not a mystifying concept but rather one that is quite clear and consistent across differing contexts. Melissen really had the basis to move forward and explore this universality/contingent view but failed to realise this concentrating instead on the overwhelmingly dominant theme in the literature of seeking to identify and describe dissimilarity and diversity in relation to alternative forms and types of hospitality rather than working from the universality of the concept and the consequent variety generated when this concept is operationalised in the real world.

Approaches to Defining Hospitality

Thus, amongst this evolving and growing literature there are, on the one hand, a number of authors who have focused on the etymology, language and, linguistics of ‘hospitality’ (Heal, 1990; Robinson and Lynch, 2007). On the other, there are those who favour trying to define hospitality in terms of its varying manifestations and the differing contexts within which these arise (Oleson, 1994; King, 1995; Lashley, 2000a, 2000b, 2008; O’Gorman, Conti, and McAlpine, 2008; O’Gorman, 2010). Many also, consciously or unconsciously, seek to define hospitality by reference to the existence of certain motives and behavioural characteristics, with these invariably being value-ridden [see, for example, Ritzer, 2007, 2017; Lashley, 2017]. Some have chosen to explore the issues through a spiritual moral/ethical, and/or religious prism (Murray, 1990; Grottola, 1998; Pohl, 1999; Selwyn, 2000; Derrida, 2002; Dikec, 2002; O’Gorman, 2005, 2007a; Lashley, 2017b).

However, much, if not most, of this work reveals an almost total absence of any attempt to develop more ‘grounded theory’ through empirical enquiry. Only Brotherton (1989, 2003a, 2005) and Brotherton and Wood (2008) present results, derived from empirical enquiry, concerning how hospitality is perceived, and may be defined, by those most closely associated with it; namely, the providers and receivers. Using small-scale survey (Brotherton, 1989) and case study (Brotherton, 2003a, 2005; Brotherton & Wood, 2008) techniques these studies revealed that the overwhelming response of hospitality managers, hotel guests, and fast food customers was to define hospitality in behavioural terms. Although product and place were emphasised only by a minority this was not surprising as the respondents in each study were not asked to comment on the locations or the specific products they associated with hospitality. Similarly, this focus upon the behavioural aspect of hospitality did not detract from the recognition that other dimensions of the hospitality concept could be identified, which will be addressed later.

More recently there are those, for example Hemmington (2007) and Melissen (2014), who seem to have been seduced by Pine and Gilmores (1999, 2002) experience economy work and seek to focus attention on hospitality as an experience that is designed, manipulated and managed by human activity. This, of course, is really yet another false dawn because anything may be described as an experience to a sentient human being and, as will be demonstrated later, the only way to differentiate a 'hospitality experience' from any other human experience is to locate it within the context of a hospitality place, with all that implies. In addition, and perhaps the greatest culprit in terms of clouding further the mists of this activity, is the ubiquitous tendency for commentators to use the adjective hospitable and the nouns of hospitableness and hospitality as entirely synonymous and perfectly interchangeable. It is, or indeed should be, axiomatic that they are not.

This really begs the question of why these two distinct and dominant themes of focusing on diversity and difference and viewing hospitableness and hospitality as synonymous and interchangeable have been so ubiquitous. It is clear that the former has essentially arisen due to an period of 'prometheus unbound' within which the old boundaries and certainties of hotel and catering and/or industrial hospitality management became challenged by wider and more critical thinking in relation to the nature and relevance of the phenomenon of hospitality in a more generalised series of contexts or settings. No longer constrained by 'the tyranny of [applied] relevance' referred to by Taylor and Edgar (1999) a number of academics sought to exploit this apparent freedom by widening the whole hospitality debate.

In turn this has spawned, as Wood (2015) correctly identifies, a series of perspectives and approaches to these central questions that are loosely connected under the umbrella term 'hospitality studies'. This broad movement being essentially characterised by a central concern to identify and comment on different forms and types of hospitality, within commercial and non-commercial contexts; to explore and adopt a range of social science perspectives, methodologies and techniques to investigate these, and to challenge the previous hegemony of the 'managerial' paradigm evident in the narrower field of hospitality management. Although these are endemic to this brave new world of hospitality they are perhaps typified in the views expressed in Conrad Lashley's publications and others who closely identify with these and/or have collaborated with him. For example, the so-called 'three domain approach' to hospitality produced by Lashley (2000a, 2000b) has been quite influential in helping to influence and frame the approach taken in a fair amount of the published work that has followed.

Though there is nothing inherently wrong in focusing on dissimilarity and difference to identify and explore the breadth and diversity of the hospitality phenomenon this has skewed the investigatory field and encouraged commentators to follow this direction of travel. As a consequence, questions regarding what may be similar or the same about alternative hospitality morphologies have largely been ignored. The result has been the development of a rather atomistic body of literature lacking a unifying and solid conceptual anchor that could be used to both provide a more universally accepted definition of hospitality and help to circumscribe the field in a more logical and defendable manner. This is an issue that will be returned to later.

Defining Hospitality – The Criticality of Place

Returning to the second theme, of viewing hospitable, hospitableness, and hospitality as synonymous and interchangeable, this has really been something that should not have occurred in the first place and has been largely dysfunctional in helping to address the issues of being able to sensibly define and circumscribe the field of hospitality. This may appear to be an overly semantic issue but it is not, it is crucial. If the field of hospitality is to have any real credibility then it must be possible to identify what is legitimate to include within it and, by implication, what is not. As will be argued later one of the most importance characteristics of hospitality, for both defining and circumscribing it, is the undeniable fact that it only occurs as a conscious human activity within the spatial construct of place and furthermore that this place is spatially constrained, predominantly to a single, localised venue. Though it may be reasonably argued that a hospitable environment, disposition, attitude, manner, and behaviours are necessary for hospitality to exist none of these, individually or collectively, are sufficient conditions for hospitality (Telfer, 1996; Brotherton, 2013).

It is perfectly possible to refer to people, places, and wider environments as being hospitable, in that they are perceived as welcoming, friendly, aethestically pleasing, non-threatening or safe, and demonstrate, either in their design and/or actions, that they reflect a concern with the well being of those encountering them. However, they are not automatically providing hospitality as this constitutes something more than the existence of hospitableness. People may display hospitableness and be hospitable in a wide variety of circumstances that have nothing to do with hospitality per se. Both individuals and collective populations may be described as hospitable in that they display welcoming and friendly attitudes and behaviours and have a concern for the well being of the other but this alone would not necessarily be sufficient to say they are providing hospitality. For example, encountering assistants in a retail outlet displaying such attitudes and behaviours, being treated in this type of manner when visiting a business, visitors to a city or other type of location encountering this from the indigenous population would all be likely to regard and describe this as being treated hospitably. Similarly, inanimate spaces and places, at a variety of spatial levels from local to national entities, may also be regarded as hospitable in that they are perceived to be conducive to the well being of those who encounter them. It is quite normal to refer to inanimate environments and climates as being hospitable or inhospitable but no one would claim that they had received hospitality from such an encounter as the provision of hospitality is a human action. So, while hospitable attitudes, behaviours, environments, and spaces may well be necessary for hospitality to exist they are not automatic indicators that it does.

This really has quite profound implications for defining and circumscribing hospitality and, indeed, how this has, and has not, been done to date. Apart from Telfer (2000) and Brotherton (2013) it is only very recently that this appears to have been explicitly recognised by others such as Lashley and Blain (2014:1), who correctly and astutely observe; "there is a growing body of work on 'hospitality' [in the literature] but few authors study the nature of 'hospitableness' as a distinct concept." However, it is perhaps unfortunate that their empirical study, designed to identify hospitable traits by using a motive-based model, produced such disappointing results. Nevertheless, this inability to distinquish between hospitableness and hospitality has contaminated a considerable proportion of the extant hospitality literature, much of which has been regularly and erroneously cited by a succession of authors. Indeed this would still appear to be common practice with perhaps one of the greatest culprits being much of the content of the edited text entitled – Mobilizing Hospitality: The Ethics of Social Relations in a Mobile World – Germann Molz and Gibson (2007) where the interchange of hospitableness and hospitality appears to be positively de rigour.

In relation to defining hospitality, it should now be abundantly clear that hospitality can only occur within the context of a place and that the spatial dimensions of such places are necessarily constrained in the vast majority of cases. Of course it is possible to talk of nations being hospitable and providing hospitality to refugees and asylum seekers, an issue that has particular resonance withn EU countries at the time of writing, but relatively speaking this is really a quite marginal activity at best and indeed one that is designed as an interim stage in the process of accepting and assimilating immigrants into permanent residents and ultimately citizens of the country. Similarly, local residents and visitors are allowed free access to, and usage of, public spaces in urban and rural locations that they may regard as hospitable environments but within which hospitality is not provided, though obviously it may be if there are hospitality operators plying their trade within such locations. However, this would not constitute a transformation of these general public spaces into an overall space where hospitality is located, though it may make them more hospitable environments (Latham, 2003; Bell, 2007a, 2007b, 2017). The existence of places providing refreshment, such as kiosks, are nothing more than retail locations and places providing hospitality, such as cafes, restaurants, and accommodation units essentially comprise distinct places within the overall locality which not only confer temporary entry and usage rights, in the same way that the overarching spatial entity does, but in addition provide the additional physical and behavioural elements embodied within any type of hospitality morphology.

Hence, the starting point to construct a sensible, and universally applicable, definition of hospitality must be the type of spatial entity, or place, and the temporal dimensions relating to its occupancy and use. The essence of this, which has remained temporally constant and is spatially consistent, is that entry to this space is voluntary, temporally constrained, and does not embody any transfer of ownership of any kind of resource or asset for future use or consumption. It is therefore a type of 'access and usage' or temporary rental transaction within which the obligations of the provider and user are known to each other. Thus, whatever term is used to describe the user/s - customers, clients or guests – they willingly pay a 'rent' for the privilege of occupying that space, being allowed to use its facilities and consume the services and products it offers. This rent may comprise a simple monetary transaction, e.g. paying the bill in a hotel or restaurant in a commercial context, or it may be embodied in the performance of appropriate social behaviours and obligations in non-commercial or private contexts (Brotherton, 2013).

Slattery (2009) makes the further point that this absence of a transfer of ownership means that the hospitality consumer has to engage again and again with this process to obtain further gratification.

On this issue Sandoval-Strausz (2007:160) really gets to the heart of the matter: "The ritual of establishing the host-guest relationship had to be repeated many times per day at a hotel".

The need to establish the provider-receiver relationship is a characteristic of all forms of commercial hospitality provision through the ages, and indeed non-commercial ones as well, but the difference in more modern forms of this provision has been the scale, scope and speed at which these temporary relationships have to be established, abandoned and established again with a constantly changing transient population. Guest books and, in more contemporary times, computerized guest information systems may be seen as attempts to ameliorate the need to start from scratch with every guest.

Defining Hospitality – The Importance of Liminality

Hospitality, then, only occurs within specific places of varying scales, forms and types but which all share the same basic structure and characteristics. These being that they are controlled spaces, in the sense that entry is not automatically free or guaranteed, they are places of temporary occupation and usage that do not transform the users into residents or resource/asset owners, and they provide hospitality products and services – food, drink, accommodation of varying types, entertainment, safety and security, service, etc - that are consumed on the premises during the temporary occupation by the receiver of these. A view nicely summarised by Sherringham and Daruwalla (2007:33) who suggest that; "The conditions accompanying this negotiated (service) transaction include the exchange between two or more parties of something of value, in the context of agreed conditions, time and place…[involving the] temporary inhabitancy of a liminal space followed by their return across the boundaries, define hospitality."

This should hardly be a revelation. It has been recognised for millenia. Pitt-Rivers (1977), commenting from a cultural anthropology perspective, refers to the notion of hospitality involving a 'rite of incorporation' by which the individual's status is modified from that of the potentially problematic stranger to trusted guest or temporary community member who now assumes certain non-threatening obligations to the individual who has placed themselves into the position of host. Thus, the guest has an intermediate or liminal status, he/she is neither a complete stranger/outsider or a fully integrated/permanent 'insider' member of the community.

Van Hoof, McDonald, Yu and Vallen (1996:162) suggest, around the 5th century BC, that "travelers throughout present day Turkey, Iran, Afghanistan and Northern India stayed at Caravanserais, the predecessors of the stage-coach inn and later the motel", and O'Gorman (2009:785) states that; "Caravanserais were hostels for travellers, where accommodation was often given for free for the traditional three days". After 3 days it became regarded as charity and the guest became regarded as more of a burden to the host. Similarly, as O'Gorman (2010) records the closed monastic world was separated from the wider secular world and the way/s that visitors or guests were to be received temporarily into prescribed aspects of this world was both a 'bridge and barrier'. Furthermore, in the centuries following St. Benedict (480AD to 543AD), comprehensive hospitality was offered by the monasteries but this was circumscribed. Normally, hospitality was freely provided only for 2 days (O'Gorman, 2010).

Kerr (2002, 2007), Gray and Ligouri,1980) and Gautier (2009) make it explicitly clear that, in the so-called 'Dark Ages' and Early Medieval periods, this type of temporal restriction remained endemic and very much regarded as the ‘norm’. Kerr (2007:142) also examines hospitality in twelfth-century England and suggests that any host would be expected to provide at least one night’s accommodation and one or two nights would have been quite normal. Gray and Ligouri (1980) observe that one of the limits applied to hospitality was its duration. In late 7th century England the laws of the Kentish Kings set a limit of 3 nights for a host to receive a guest. Gautier (2009) suggests that a general definition of hospitality would be receiving strangers and providing them with some kind of food and shelter for a night/s.

Hospitality places are commonly non-mobile, such as domestic homes, civic buildings, sports stadia, hotels, restaurants, bars, and cafes etc, while others have varying degrees of spatial mobility, such as trains, airplanes, cruise ships and ferries, marquees etc. Whether they exist in a fixed location or have the ability to vary their spatial location, they exhibit the same basic structure and characteristics described above. This combination of elements not only concentrates attention on the key aspects of hospitality that must be used to define it but they also make a major contribution to circumscribing it or to deciding what places, spaces and activities may be legitimately regarded as constituting the field of hospitality and what may not. Indeed, as Ritzer (2007:136) comments; “It seems to me that it is the place that is one of the cornerstones of the hospitality industry.”

Adoption of this view would render many of the ‘hospitality as a wider social activity’ approaches redundant in their current conceptions and forms. For example, the view of some prominent proponents of the so-called ‘hospitality studies’ school/s of thought such as Lynch et al (2011) would require either some fundamental re-thinking or indeed abandonement. This is clearly illustrated by the following, relatively recent pronouncement: Hospitality is, as Lashley, Lynch and Morrison (2007) suggest, a social lens. “Hospitality thus has considerable potential for analytical development to explore myriad forms of macro-level structures and mundane practices of interaction in an array of settings. As a social lens, hospitality reveals both the large-scale organization of welcoming (and excluding) others at the institutional or state level and the everyday experiences of living with difference” (Lynch et al, 2011:14).

Exchange and Reciprocity

The view taken here suggests that the spatial incidence of hospitality is more constrained and limited than some commentators would contend, largely because this decisively solves the hospitable/hospitality conflation problem discussed earlier. It also clearly indicates that the processes and practices of hospitality exhibit particular types of exchange, which may be of a monetary or non-monetary form. In short, they may be economic or social transactions. This effectively validates, develops and refines earlier work focusing on hospitality as a distinct type of exchange (Brotherton, 1999a, 2002, 2003a, 2005, 2006, 2013; Brotherton & Wood, 2000a, 2000b, 2008).

It is also consistent with more general work on exchange reciprocity and culture. Fieldhouse (1996) suggested that there are three types of reciprocity which have resonance in the hospitality context. The first is referred to as ‘Generalised’ reciprocity, involving “(i) no immediate expectation of return; (ii) no attempt to assess the value of gifts; and (iii) no attempt to make gift-giving balance out" (Fieldhouse, 1996:89). This he suggests arises between family members and close friends. It is clearly and inextricably associated with private forms of hospitality The second is 'Balanced' hospitality, which does involve expectations of return (delayed or otherwise) and within which the value of the offer is taken into account in formulating the appropriate response or reciprocation. This could possibly relate to commercial hospitality transactions but is perhaps more applicable to private ones where the motive/s for providing the hospitality may be less altruistic than the 'generalised' reciprocity situation. The third is referred to as 'Negative' reciprocity characterised by immediate exchange, strict accounting of value, and impersonal, commercial transactions.

Although these distinctions are hardly beyond criticism they do, nevertheless, indicate that while a feature such as reciprocity may be seen to be generic to many different hospitality incidences and contexts the form it takes and the role/s it plays may well be context-dependent (Werner, 1998; Heatherington, 2001). Similarly, Lugosi (2008, 2009) suggests that all commercial hospitality spaces embody a series of different 'dimensions' of hospitality, these being referred to as ideological, normative, situational, ecological, functional, and what he refers to as 'meta-hospitality', which would appear to be a higher-order state beyond the simple rational aspects of hospitality. In short, a type of higher-level emotional bond occasioned by the existence and operation of the hospitality process and the interactions and transactions this generates. Though Lugosi restricts these pronouncements to commercial hospitality spaces it is not difficult to see how they could equally be relevant to non-commercial hospitality spaces and are likely to be variable in their incidence and relative importance in different hospitality contexts across time and space.

Once again the implications of Fieldhouse's and Lugosi's views are that a focus on the similarities and differences between hospitality situations, both temporally and spatially, is likely to be a productive way forward in developing more distinctive and robust theoretical and conceptual frameworks to guide empirical enquiry and strengthen the credibility of hospitality as a distinctive field of enquiry. This is a view shared by numerous commentators. Sandoval-Strausz (2007;137); "While hospitality comes in any number of guises – there are at least as many forms as there have been cultures – they all share a similar underlying structure." Although, clearly the formats and systems of commercial hospitality provision have, historically, changed in response to changes in forms and volumes of mobility at the same time, the newer forms of hospitality retain certain continuities of purpose, and in some cases location, to their predecessors (Sandoval-Strausz, 2007). A view reinforced by Santich (2007:52); "Despite differences in detail – in the nature of the benefits and obligations, in the balance of power within the host-guest relationship – there is a remarkable consistency in the theoretical nature of hospitality. The forms may have changed, but not the essence." Similarly, Telfer (1996:84) contends that; "The nature and importance of hospitality has varied much in different times and places. But this variation does not mean that there is no trait to discuss. Any trait will manifest itself in ways which differ according to prevailing conditions and conventions." Finkelstein, (1989:99) also notes, from a slightly different perspective; "restaurants may differ dramatically in their styles of cuisine, costs and demands upon their patrons but in terms of the pleasures they supposedly afford the diner, they are remarkably similar."

Inhospitable Hospitality?

Finally, it is necessary to address another recurrent shibboleth existing within the contemporary hospitality literature. This is the issue of, what may be loosely referred to as judgements regarding that mythical beast - the 'purity of hospitality.' Apart from the insightful and significant contribution made by Wood (1994) the literature contains a veritable litany of mis-conceived comment and discussion relating to this issue. Invariably centered around value, and often class-based, pronouncements regarding the authenticity and purity of what tends to be referred to as 'true or authentic' hospitality and the features that characterise this along with the presumed motives that explain its existence. Space does not permit an extended discussion of this issue here but it is typified by Ritzer's (2007) piece entitled 'Inhospitable Hospitality' that encapsulates the essence of much of this debate existing elsewhere in the literature.

Ritzer (2007, 2017) suggests that contemporary commercial forms of hospitality provision have become inhospitable because they have become progressively more inauthentic due to the increasing emphasis placed upon rationalization, standardization, efficiency, control, predictability, homegenisation, and commoditisation. There is, of course, a rather superficially beguiling attraction in this view, but it is misconceived. Although much of what he suggests has happened within commercial hospitality, and some may regard this as an inhospitable trend, the problem lies in the fundamental premise he uses to arrive at the 'inhospitable' conclusion. He takes the rather naïve, and incorrect, view that 'real' hospitality is unitary in form. In this respect he states; "Acts of hospitableness involve being hospitable for genuine motives….Truly hospitable behaviour has a concern for providing hospitality through helping, entertaining, protecting and serving guests. Where there are more ulterior motives – being hospitable to win favour or advantage with others, or for reasons of personal vanity – behaviour is not genuinely hospitable. For this reason, it is possible to argue that commercial hospitality is inhospitable because hospitable behaviour is being provided for ulterior motives to gain commercial advantage" (Ritzer, 2007:129).

Underlying Ritzer's view is the unstated, and subjective, assumption that a particular type of 'perfect' hospitality has existed and that this should be regarded as the 'ideal' to judge other forms against. This, of course, is perfect bunkum. The view that there is only one form of 'genuine' motive, which would appear to be something akin to one based upon perfect or pure altruism, is perhaps a morally attractive proposition but one that is totally illusory and based upon a romaticised and inaccurate conception of a type of 'golden age' of hospitality. Using Ritzer's criteria would patently render most forms of hospitality provision through the ages as inhospitable. Most hospitality, in common with the vast majority of other forms of behaviour, is, and has been, provided on the basis of some kind of ulterior, instrumental motive, as will be indicated in the following section.

Furthermore, to Ritzer the 'industrialisation' of commercial hospitality provision, characterized by the increasing incidence of the features referred to above, constitutes incontrovertible evidence that this type of hospitality is necessarily inauthentic. For this to be regarded as inauthentic it must be possible to define what constitutes authentic hospitality. However, this does not appear to be so easy. One of Ritzer's criteria would be the rather nebulous 'genuine motives' referred to earlier and this is problematic. Indeed, Ritzer (2007:134) recognizes that; "authenticity is a difficult concept and it is very hard to define exactly what we mean by it and to identify with any precision that which is authentic. However, we can pretty much agree when we are witnessing something that is so routine and mechanical that it offends us with its inauthenticity. The problem for me, is that much that passes for authenticity in the contemporary hospitality industry is of this type and thus, at least to me, quite repelling."

So, although Ritzer concedes that it is very difficult to definitively establish what authenticity is, he then proceeds to contend that anything classified as routine and mechanical can be universally regarded as inauthentic. If the 'positive' form of the concept cannot be defined how is it possible to satisfactorily define the 'negative' or reverse form? The answer is, it is not, except via a path of reverse logic that would, logically, have to contend that if inauthenticity is defined as something based upon, and exhibiting, routine and mechanical features then to be regarded as authentic something must possess the reverse characteristics, it must be, perhaps amongst other things, spontaneous and organic.

The Issue of Motives

Once again, there are obvious forms of hospitality provision that many, perhaps including Ritzer, might tend to regard as pure, true, real, genuine, and authentic. However, these also exhibit similar degrees of routinisation and mechanical approaches to the organization and delivery of the hospitality process in common with many contemporary commercial forms. For example, some commentators take the view that monastic and/or manorial hospitality provision in feudal societies constituted this 'ideal' authentic kind of hospitality but, in Ritzer's terms these would be clearly defined as inauthentic as they exhibited considerable degrees of routinisation and very significant amounts of pre-planning and structuring. They were also highly discriminatory (White, 1968) and hospitality was provided for ulterior motives such as the self-interest of religious believers, who engaged in obligatory 'good deeds' motivated by a desire to obtain rewards in the life to come (Henisch, 1976).

In addition, a significant proportion of formal hospitality provision in the ancient world was highly political in nature and motivation (Corbier, 1999; Dupont, 1999; Joannes, 1999; Montanari; 1999; Schmitt-Pantel, 1999; Vetta, 1999) and the feudal elite of medieval times, who are often cited as examples of authentic providers, were primarily concerned to maintain their status, power, and privileges by offering varying degrees of charitable largesse to the poor to deter social unrest and revolution and to their peers to establish and maintain their social standing (Mennell, 1985; Heal, 1884, 1987, 1990; Riera-Melis, 1999; Kerr, 2002). Indeed Goody (1982:141) suggests that, in such times; "hospitality was a primary tool of politics" and, according to Hollander (1981) nothing much seems to have changed with political elites still prone to using hospitality, at a state level, to manipulate the perceptions of 'important' visitors. Even further back in time Sanchez-Moreno (2001) concludes that, hospitality morphologies in the Iberian peninsular, in the late-Iron Age, exhibited strong politico-economic motives lying behind them. O'Gorman (2010) also suggests the predominance and importance of such motives in the ancient world. In a more contemporary context the findings of Traphagan and Brown (2002) indicate that, in Japan, commensality may be greater within the context of McDonalds than in more traditional Japanese hospitality morphologies. A cautionary note for those assuming that the same hospitality morphologies are perceived and used in the same way in different cultures!

Turning now to another revealing aspect of Ritzer's view, that of the addition of his personal and highly subjective opinion that the inauthenticity he sees being produced through such features is repellent to him. The fact that Ritzer finds hospitality provision that is based upon, and exhibits, routinisation, mechanical processes and behaviours reveals another common facet in this debate. The idealized and romanticized view of 'genuine' and 'authentic' hospitality is derived from a particular set of value judgements of what hospitality ought to be and this, in turn, is based upon a particular set of valorized social and cultural values. Indeed, such arbiters of cultural capital have a tendency to engage in snobbery and decry other types and forms of the phenomenon in question as innapropriate, inferior and inauthentic because they do not conform to their idealized concept of what it should be. A view nicely encapsulated in Ritzer's astoudingly revealing statement relating to the future of the hospitality industry; "it will be increasingly bifurcated into a smaller number of settings that offer elites the kind of hospitality we traditionally associate with the industry and a vast majority of settings that offer what is best described as inhospitality to most of the rest of us" (Ritzer, 2017:245).

However, what Ritzer finds repellent may be exactly what others desire. For reasons of personal preference or because of lifestyle and time pressures many people may desire and value more limited hospitality. There are patently occasions when speed of service, value for money, limited provider-receiver interaction, convenience, even familiarity in knowing the 'script', are all highly valued and positively sought out by the guest, customer or consumer. All these facets serve the very purpose the receiver seeks to satisfy and, because of this, recognize that the type of hospitality they receive under such conditions is different from what they would expect, and regard as appropriate hospitality, under other conditions. Indeed, as Cuthill (2007) astutely observes hospitality venues are not necessarily designed to be hospitable to all.

The Dimensions of Hospitality

To bring this section to a close there now exists a clear definition of hospitality and a sound basis to delineate the hospitality field. All that remains is to consider the key dimensions of hospitality in order to facilitate operationalisation of the concept. Building upon Brotherton (2002, 2003a, 2006, 2013) and Brotherton and Wood (2000a, 2000b, 2008) it is clear that all hospitality morphologies have five primary dimensions as follows:

- **The Spatial Dimension** – This identifies the places and spaces where all hospitality morphologies occur and contends that these are 'situated' within particular combinations of societal forces, at particular times, which may be categorised as milieu.

- **The Temporal Dimension** – This focuses on the incidence of hospitality or the types of occasions hospitality morphologies are created for. It also recognises the 'temporary' nature of hospitality encounters and combines with the spatial dimension to highlight the notion of 'liminal space'.
- **The Physical Dimension** – This identifies the type of physical features and products associated with any given type of hospitality morphology. In combination with the spatial and temporal dimensions, this is central as it is the existence of, what is often referred to as the 'holy trinity' – accommodation, food and/or drink – that helps to differentiate hospitality morphologies from others which can also obviously exhibit the previous dimensions.
- **The Behavioural Dimension** –This concentrates attention on the motives lying behind decisions to create various types of hospitality morphology and the human processes and interactions involved in such morphologies.
- **The Transactional Dimension** – This, in conjunction with the spatial and temporal dimensions, makes it clear that hospitality morpholgies are characterised by temporary access and usage permissions not involving any transfer of resource or asset ownership to the consumer for future use or consumption.

Thus, any hospitality morphology is comprised of these five primary dimensions. It is the empirical combinations and operational variations in these that give rise to many of the features normally associated with hospitality morphologies, namely; conviviality, commensality, mutuality, sociability and reciprocity. This is encapsulated within the idea of distinctive 'service cultures' created by alternative hospitality morphologies (Cuthill, 2007).

The question now is; what is it that creates similaritities and differences between observed hospitality morphologies over time and across space, and why? It is to these issues that attention now turns.

THEORISING HOSPITALITY

Given the view of what constitutes the essence of hospitality expounded in the previous section there are certain corrollaries. This view of hospitality clearly implies that certain conceptual and practical continuities will be evident, both spatially and temporally. Put simply, that the essence will always be present wherever, whenever and whatever hospitality forms exist across time and space. However, it is not claimed that the manifestation of this essence, in terms of the more concrete forms hospitality takes in differing times and contexts, remains constant. Indeed, because hospitality is a human endeavour situated within the locus of human society, it is axiomatic that as societies exhibit differing scales, structures, proceses, values and foci in different time periods and contexts then the concrete manifestations of hospitality – 'hospitality morphologies' - similarly differ to reflect the milieu they both exist within and reflect. Indeed, in discussing commensality, Grignon (2001) makes a similar point in proposing that commensality as a phenomenon is universal but has a 'variety of shapes' and, as such, becomes amenable to the compilation of an 'inventory of commensality types.' This equally applies to hospitality morphologies.

Genotypes, Phenotypes and Memes

One way to focus on this juxtaposition of enduring essence and contextually-dependent difference is to consider the former as the DNA of the hospitality genotype and the latter as the various phenotypes generated to provide 'species diversity.' In the same way that the human genome remains remarkably similar across different groups of human beings yet exhibits obvious differences over time and across contexts so hospitality does likewise (Brotherton & Wood, 2000a; Brotherton, 2002, 2003b, 2006). Also important in this context are the concepts of adaptability and phenotype plasticity (Mackenzie, Ball & Virdee, 1998). Both are concerned with survival and evolution. Adaptability is essentially an inherited trait that aids these and here it might be pertinent to suggest that 'hospitality memes' may exist which enhance the ability of the hospitality genotype to adapt to, survive, and evolve within different temporal and spatial milieu.

The notion of a meme was first coined by Dawkins (1976) and is essentially the cultural equivalent of a gene. A meme is usually defined as a unit of cultural information, such as a cultural practice or idea, that is transmitted verbally or by repeated action from one generation to another and, in this sense, is an adaptive mechanism that enables more rapid change and adaption. Similarly, phenotype plasticity enables the hospitality species to vary in response to temporal and spatial variations which, in turn, facilitates species diversity, or the multiplication of different hospitality morphologies. It is indisputable that the genesis of the hospitality genome is rooted in, and derived from, private, domestic and communal hospitality morphologies evident in early, primitive human societies and civilisations (Bell & Henry, 2001) and that this can still be evidenced in these types of societies that continue to exist in the modern world (Harris & Johnson, 2003). Given this it should be possible to identify homologies within the variety of hospitality morphologies that have evolved from this common ancestor.

This all raises some deceptively simple yet fundamental questions in relation to hospitality morphologies.

- What conditions are necessary and sufficient for hospitality to exist?
- What are the factors and forces that contribute to the evolution of hospitality?
- What are the particular effects of these forces and factors and why?
- How do they act to generate both similarity/continuity and difference/change in hospitality temporally and spatially?
- Why are particular types, or manifestations, of hospitality more, or less, prevalent and/or important in different temporal and spatial milieu?

Resources and Choices

The first question is really a matter of thresholds, distributions, and choices in relation to the use of physical and human resources. In these respects it would not be unreasonable to propose that these resources constitute the basic parameters for hospitality to exist. Without both it is impossible to produce hospitality and without the latter there would be no demand or requirement for hospitality. Hence, they are fundamental to its existence and without a sufficient quantity, or supply, of food and materials for shelter it would be impossible for anyone to provide hospitality. Therefore, if the quantity of these resources increases, either by more extensive/efficient usage or acquisition, especially in the form of surpluses, then the potential for more extensive hospitality provision does also.

The human resources essentially refer to populations which contain both the producers/providers of hospitality and its consumers/receivers. This parameter impacts on both the supply of, and demand for, hospitality. As populations increase the need to produce surplus increases and there are more people able to provide hospitality. Similarly, at least potentially, there are more people who may want/need hospitality. However, it is not just the size of the population that is important, its location and mobility is crucial too, so the number and densities of spatial concentrations of people and their willingness/ability to travel are vital. Turchin and Scheidel (2009) confirm this but also point to problems in being able to estimate population data historically in many societies. Indeed, although much has been made of the importance of hospitality in the early-modern period (Heal, 1984, 1987, 1990) and beyond Forster and Ranum (1979:x) observe that; "at least three-fourths of Europe's population was close to the subsistence level from the sixteenth to the late ninteenth century."

Use of the economists' concept of the production possibility frontier, or curve, may be helpful here. This indicates the total quantity of resources available to produce alternative combinations of products and/or services and demonstrates the principle of opportunity cost, i.e. the amount of the alternative that has to be foregone in order to use these resources to produce hospitality. Of course, as the quantity of these resources increases over time, due largely to population and economic growth, the ability to generate a surplus rises and so does the potential for hospitality to be offered (Rosenberg, 1968). Indeed, as Visser (1991:2) states; "Civilisation itself cannot begin until a food supply is assured," and the very existence of 'advanced civilisations' from the ancient world onwards only became possible because of food surpluses (Civitello, 2008).

As societal evolution proceeds from the predominance of primitive to more advanced societies not only does the scale of resources available increase substantially, i.e. the production possibility frontier shifts to the right thereby enabling a higher volume of good and services to be produced and consumed, regardless of any alternative choice combinations, but it also leads to a much higher proportion of this total output being available as surplus. Hence, the ability to make different choices concerning which forms of production and consumption are more, or less, desirable is enhanced. Therefore, it is reasonable to hypothesise a relationship between the size and scale of societies, and their relative access to resources, and the volume and diversity of hospitality to be expected. Although this is likely to be a non-linear relationship, and one that will exhibit varying rates of change over time and volumes across different spatial locations (Goody, 1982; Mennell, 1985), it nevertheless constitutes one of the basic reasons for differing quantities and forms of hospitality across time and space in both longitudinal and cross-sectional perspectives.

What is also important is a society's ability not only to discover and acquire resources but to be able to exploit these resources in an effective and efficient manner. The potential embodied in a greater availability of resources is invariably realised through innovative ideas, technologies and techniques that enhance the productive capacity of these resources and/or the ability to convert these into enhanced inputs to facilitate a greater incidence and diversity of hospitality morphologies. That said, one crucial issue that is as pertinent in some countires today as it was in others in the past, is the ability to realise these opportunities. One important aspect of this is not just food production but its preservation and distribution to population centres. As Revel (1979) points out organising and managing food supplies to cities even today 'poses specific problems' and that until the economic and technological transformations that occurred from the mid-nineteenth-century onwards, this was a major issue for growing urban centres in many countries.

Hospitality Morphologies and Societal Tectonics

However, there is no a priori causal link between an increase in resource potential and a consequent expansion in hospitality provision. This involves the type of opportunity cost choices outlined earlier. Such choices reflect societal values, preferences and priorities and,hence, are inextricably linked to the societal forces, or tectonics, that create and structure such influences. As these vary cross-sectionally and temporally the relative predominance and importance of alternative hospitality morphologies also varies and, given that resources and choices are not unlimited and equal in these contexts, a choice to increase one, or more types of hospitality morphology is likely to lead to other types being diminished or 'crowded out.'

Although perhaps a rather a sweeping generalisation it is reasonable to contend that, relatively speaking, the volume and importance of private or domestic hospitality has declined over time, certainly in the Western World, whilst that of commercial hospitality has increased (Walton, 2000). Similarly, from the middle of the twentieth-century, it is also evident that societies have tended to value 'branded' commercial hospitality provision more than that of an individual or artisan nature. The consequence being that there has been a general crowding out of the latter by the expansion of the former. However, neither of these, more general or specific, trends are universal in the sense that exactly the same pace and extent of such shifts has been evident over the last sixty years or so in all societies and all socieities are not at the same point now because many began from a different starting point at the outset of this process (Mennell, 1985; Slattery, 2009).

The question then arises; what are these societal forces, or tectonics, that act to create and change hospitality morphologies temporally and spatially? In some respects, the answer to this is quite a simple one. Hospitality does not exist in a vacuum and is therefore subject to the same tectonic forces that other forms of human activity occuring within human societies are, i.e. political, economic, social, cultural, environmental and technological. These forces combine and conspire, from local to global levels, to push and pull socieities on evolutionary, and sometimes revolutionary, trajectories of change and development. They are not always equally important, temporally and/or spatially, to the outcomes of this process and neither are they equally influential over time or across space. Similarly, they may be centrifugal or progressive, or centripetal or conservative, in their effects (Brotherton, 2006).

Greifer (1945) contends that that in primitive societies the social structures and patterns are largely fixed due to physical and social isolation and the consequent dominance of the centripetal forces of habit, tradition, custom, etc. Conversely, as societies develop they evolve and change due to the influence of centrifugal forces. In this context Olesen (1994:189) refers to Simmel's (1950) concept of social form and suggests that; "hospitality has been and is a shifting social form". Traditional forms become modified and changed by social change, i.e. the old 'rules' become less certain and rigid. Olesen (1994) also makes the point that a human activity, such as hospitality, conducted within a particular context or situation, needs not only to be studied within this context but also seen as something that is linked to larger and wider social forces. Inded, as Walton (2000:73) succinctly points out, "The modern hospitality trades represent both a continuation and break with traditions that extend through millennia."

Revolutionary Forces

However, in any specific location and/or time period there may exist a decisive change in one force that acts to make it the 'key driver' of change in that particular context. In its most extreme form this would be regarded as a significant discontinuity, or indeed a revolution. Though these do exist within all the types of tectonic forces, and have quite dramatic consequences when they occur, they are relatively rare compared to the more evolutionary process associated with these forces. Nevertheless, many of these have had profound and enduring effects on the nature of human societies that continue to be influential for decades, if not centuries, beyond their origins. At a societal level such revolutionary events and periods are well known but they also arise at much more limited and specific spatial levels where they are particularly associated with individual agency.

At a societal level economic revolutions such as the agrarian and industrial revolutions that ocurred in Europe and North America have all had significant national and international impacts on societies and hospitality morphologies. In particular, through their effects on urbanisation, mobility, and living standards. Similarly, political revolutions such as the American, Russian and French revolutions all created 'new' societies that, either rather quickly or over time, had quite transformative effects on hospitality. As Spang (2000) and Mennell, Murcott and Van Otterloo (1992) record it was the impetus of the new societal structures and republican values generated by the French Revolution that provided a major stimulus to the emergence of the restaurant as a new and distinct hospitality morphology initially in post-revolutionary France and thereafter in other countries. However, although this revolutionary event undoubtedly created a major stimulus to the emergence of the restaurant there were also important antecedents. Mennell (1985), Mennell et al (1992), Pitte (1999), Spang (2000), Keifer (2002) and Carlin (2008) note that reforms to limit the monopoly powers of the 'guilds' in France and England in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries enabled existing hospitality institutions, such as inns and taverns, to offer either or both of 'all-inclusive' fixed price menus or 'a-la-carte,' individually priced menus.

Technological revolutions have also contributed to the emergence of new hospitality morphologies. As numerous authors, including Borer (1972) ,Simmons (1984), Towner (1996), Van

Hoof, McDonald, Yu and Vallen (1996), Lane and Dupre (1997), Powers and Barrows (1999, 2006), Dittmer (2002), Turkel (2009) have recorded revolutionary new transport technologies such as the railways, the automobile and commercial aviation have all led to growth and decline in both existing and new hospitality morphologies and continue to do so. The more recent Digital Revolution also is having widespread effects, in particular on the marketing and distribution systems associated with commercial hospitality but also on hospitality morphologies in terms of operational systems and customer interaction (Ritzer, 2017). Furthermore, the effects of this revolution are also being felt in the private, non-commercial sphere through enhanced information on the location and availability of commercial hospitality morphologies.

Although fundamental change to hospitality morphologies can clearly be influenced by such grand scale revolutions there are equally more localised and specific revolutions derived from significant changes to the structure, form and function of these morphologies themselves. Both Spang (2000) and Cocks (2001) comment that, in France and the USA respectively, essentially the same localised revolution led to a quite fundamental change in hospitality morphologies. The movement from *'service a la francaise'* and '*table d'hote'* to *'service a la russe'* and *'a-la-carte'* in the early part of the nineteenth-century in France and that from the 'American' to the 'European' plan, which enabled separation of room and board, in American hotels that became the norm in 'large, urban first-class hotels' in the nineteenth-century (Spang, 2000). Along with the adoption of service a la russe and menus in the hotel dining rooms, and the kitchen revolution associated with Escoffier and many others which began to simplify food production and menus to fit in with the adoption of service a la russe (Driver, 1983), this had quite profound consequences. These hospitality morphologies and experiences were transformed from the more communal/collective forms of the past to those of a more private/individualistic experience.

In turn, of course, these changes in food preparation, production, and service heralded the age of waiters. Under the previous systems of *table d'hote and service a la francaise* and the all inclusive American Plan, which also embraced the same foodservice features, there was really no need for waiters because all the food was placed on the dining table at the same time and the diners all ate together communally at this time so individual orders were non-existent. That said, such organisational and systemic changes do not always occur simultaneously across all hospitality morphologies, even those of the same basic type. For example, Turkel (2009:xvi) makes the point that, even in 1908, it was commonplace to find that; "about 90 percent of hotels were American Plan, with cheap, unlimited food included in the room rate."

Equally one other, more 'localised,' source of innovation which has generated 'revolutions' in hospitality morphologies should not be overlooked. This is the impact that the agency of individual entrepreneurs have had. In both London and Paris, the introduction of coffee and the establishment of coffee houses and cafes in these cities in the seventeenth-century was largely the product of immigrant entrepreneurs from the eastern mediterranean (Leclant, 1979). A whole host of flambouyant and imaginative individuals exploited the increasingly fashionable practice amongst the elite and bourgeoisie of sampling the 'arabesque liquor' to develop a new hospitality morphology that had dramatic effects on the establishment and enhancement of civil society.

Indeed, Sandoval-Strausz (2007) and Habermas (1989) contend that the development of civil society and greater social cosmopolitanism were facilitated by the coffeehouses which, in turn constituted public spaces where commercial information relating to trade – both nationally and internationally – and government policy could be discussed critically by the clients and further used to influence wider public opinion.

Commenting on the development of the hotel industry in the USA, Sandoval-Strausz (2007:1) concludes that; “The hotel as we know it today did not evolve randomly or naturally, nor did it develop as some sort of automatic response to structural needs. Rather, it was the deliberate creation of an identifiable group of people who lived in a specific place and time: the cities of the United States in the early days of the republic.” Turkel (2009) also provides extensive evidence of the roles played by numerous hospitality entrepreneurs in the USA. Apart from the well known story of the McDonald brothers and today’s global McDonalds Corporation Turkel highlights the contribution made by individuals such as George Pullman (the founder of Pullman railway sleping and dining cars), Conrad Hilton and Kemmons Wilson (the founder of Holiday Inn), who saw opportunities in exploiting changes in one or more of the wider tectonic forces (Dittmer, 2002) and who created what we now recognise as global hotel brands (Strand, 1996; Lane & Dupre, 1997). This confluence of societal level changes and individual agency has been, and continues to be, a significant source of new, quite revolutionary, hospitality morphologies.

Evolutionary Forces

Despite change arising from revolutionary forces, at societal or more individual levels, or indeed some combination of the two, most change is more likely to be evolutionary than revolutionary and tends to involve a confluence of forces from interrelated but alternative sources, the relative influence of each being often difficult, but not necessarily impossible, to ascertain or estimate. Slattery (2009) provides an example of this. The central thesis of his book (The Economic Ascent of the Hotel Busines) is; “that the size, structure and growth of the hotel business in a country are functions of the prevailing economic structure. Thus, fundamental to comprehending the economic ascent of the hotel business is an understanding of the structural development of the economies in which hotels operate and which provide the fertility for hotel demand and supply to grow” (Slattery, 2009:viii). Of course, if the structural development and contemporary economic structures differ between countries then one would expect a lack of uniformity in the development and patterns of hotel business in these countries. Slattery illustrates this by comparing Europe/North America with the rest of the world, noting that the ratio of the supply of hotel rooms to population size differs dramatically between these two. In the case of the former he suggests that this ratio is in the order of 14 hotel rooms for every 1,000 citizens, whereas for the latter it is only one room for the same number of people.

Broadly speaking, his explanation for this is the stage of economic development these two groups of economies have achieved, with Europe/North America clearly identified as advanced, tertiary economies and many of the rest as being underdeveloped and largely dependent on agriculture and extractive industries. This, of course, begs the question of what causes or drives such similarities and differences. Slattery (2009) suggests that the supply volume differences between the US and UK, that became increasingly pronounced over the 20th century, can be accounted for by differential rates of structural change and development to a 'service-driven' economy and by differences in the political philosophies of the two countries (US – small government, UK – large government) that, in turn, facilitated or inhibited the rate of transition from a manufacturing-based economy to a service one.

In terms of the general evolution of hospitality forms or morphologies, it is also clear that the volume and frequency of travel and transient strangers, both locally and at a global level, has had a significant relationship with the dominant thinking concerning the most appropriate form of hospitality to meet prevailing conditions (Ohler, 2010). Increases over time in both the volume and frequency of travel have progressively led to the simultaneous increase in commercial forms of provision and the concomitant decline in domestic provision. As mobility in general increases individuals gradually become increasingly de-coupled from place and community. Over time mobility has increased due to expansion in local, regional, national and then international trade, industrial, political, technological and commercial revolutions, population growth and urbanization, developments in transport technologies and individual/societal freedoms occasioned by greater degrees of political, economic and intellectual liberalization (Aitchison, Macleod and Shaw, 2000; Bernstein, 2004).

Indeed, the unprecedented social changes, that began in early-modern times but exploded during the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth centuries, associated with population growth (Flandrin, 1999; Morineau, 1999), industrialisation and urbanization (Mennell, 1985; Pillsbury, 1990; Beardsworth & Keil, 1997; Dittmer, 2002) and political/personal freedoms combined to generate levels of mobility previously unseen. Not only did the growth of cities and other urban areas generate intra-urban mobility but it also gave rise to significant levels of inter-urban mobility, in both national and international contexts (Urry, 1995). In turn, this facilitated an explosion in the incidence of the stranger and the concomitant issues associated with dealing with this phenomenon amongst communities previously unaccustomed to having to cope with such volumes. Indeed, when the need to deal with the stranger in terms of greater frequency, volume and diversity, became a social reality some existing forms of hospitality provision were found to be inadequate and this prompted the development of new morphologies and styles.

The reasons, or motives, which appear to drive the provision of hospitality include; fear of the stranger who, historically, was imbued with mystical and magical attributes, explicit religious and/or superstitial commands or dictates (Gray and Ligouri, 1980; O'Gorman, 2005), the need to support commercial trading activity (Peyer, 1999; Constable, 2003), those more associated with personal self-interest, i.e. to display wealth, power, cultural capital, conspicuous consumption, fashionability and to cultivate social status (Kierner, 1996; Strong, 2002), and curiosity, i.e. a desire to obtain and exchange news (Ohler, 2010). Although historically the provision of private hospitality often tended to be a social, economic, political or religious obligation derived from the prevailing societal conditions, now it is largely a matter of individual discretion (Heal, 1990). This means that private hospitality, relatively speaking, has become less integral to a society's culture and more incidental. As societal cultures, generally speaking, have become less formalised and rigid in their structures and actions so informality and casualisation have become more prominent, reflecting greater social and personal freedoms (Visser, 1991).

CONCLUSION

To bring together this discussion of the effects that macro/external and micro/internal forces have on hospitality morphologies is no easy task. However, one thing is clear, all hospitality morphologies across time and space are 'situated.' They exist within particular configurations of the actions and effects of the forces identified earlier along with those of human agency. At specific times and in specific places or contexts there exist specific conditions which may be described as periods, ages, epochs, or indeed milieu. These are identifiable temporal and/or spatial configurations that can be distinguished from those that precede and follow them and, as such, are both the consequences of structural conditions and human agency in relation to what has come before and the antecedents of what is to follow (Bourdieu, 1984; Ritzer, 2001).

As Mennell (1985, 1992) observes although, in broad terms, the societal development of both England and France has been quite similar the culinary cultures, and consequent hospitality morphologies, that emerged are quite distinctly different. Also, although writing in the context of of comparative food history and diet, but transferable to hospitality, Teuteberg (1992:115) makes the pertinent point that; "with good reason it is thought that by way of dietary customs [substitute 'hospitality morphologies'?] demographic, economic, politico-judicial, sociocultural and even climatic and ecological phenomena can be combined in homogeneous categories which can be compared to each other outside of the bounds of time and space." Their specific configuration and conditions being derived from the recursive nature of the duality of structure and agency (Giddens, 1984, 1991) and the product of the dialectic relationship between the antinomic forces (Warde,1997) - centripetal (habit and tradition) and centrifugal (imagination and innovation) - existing at that time (Mennell, 1985), with the relative strength of the latter being subject to the moderatng force of expectations (Brotherton, 2002, 2005). Where the former is relatively stronger Visser (1991:42) suggests that attitudes based on 'neophobia' (the fear of the new) would be in the ascendency and coversely that 'neophilia' (the love of the new) would be the dominant driving force where the latter was stronger.

Thus there is an iteration between the general and the particular. It would be unrealistic to claim, as Slattery (2009) does, that a 'structural determinism' perspective explains all and equally it would be indefensible to suggest that hospitality morphologies emerge and develop in isolation from the societal conditions they are situated within. Indeed, as Massey (1992:5) points out; "It is not spatial form in itself…..that has effects, but the spatial form of particular and specified social processes and social relationships," Therefore, a concentration on general processes alone does not explain an event, or events, that are happening at a particular time or place. That said any explanation of the particular cannot be successful without a consideration of the general processes that have acted to, at least in part, shape it. In turn, it is equally true that a given general process can produce different outcomes in different times and places because it interacts with the specificity evident in those times and places. As Teuteberg (1992:4) makes clear; "we can conlude that there is a range of possibilities within which the process of adapting to natural conditions and socio-cultural prerequisites which allow the emergence of completely different answers to the same historical question."

Therefore, synthesis derived from the use of comparative methodology provides the necessary link. As Allen (1992:107) puts it this is concerned with; "how the general and the particular are combined in explanation, how the particularity of place is preserved and modified within the generality of social change to produce different outcomes in different places." For Giddens (1984, 1991) this illustrates the importance of agency where agents reflexisively monitor their actions and external structures and subsequently rationalise them to develop transformations in both structures and agency. This is also very similar to Elias's (1978) concept of 'figurations' that are; "contingent on the particular time and culture in which they occur, often changing in response to conflcit and competition between social groups, and to wider socio-economic and political factors" (Germov and Williams, 1999:302). It is also reasonable to contend that the boundaries between different milieu tend to be 'fuzzy' and that they overlap, creating 'zones of transition' within which the 'present' milieu is not fully formed or the next is not yet established as the new one (Clarke, 1992).

Exploring such spatial and temporal similarities and differences, and the reasons for these, is really the sine qua non of comparative research in its many and varied forms. Utilising either multiple case study and/or variable-based approaches both convergence and divergence in hospitality morphologies can be systematically explored by establishing a sound comparative base capable of enabling the identification of both generic and context specific causal factors.. To achieve this it needs to contain conceptual and metric equivalence to facilitate the transferability of results from one context to another (Brotherton, 1999b, 1999c, 2000, 2003b, 2015).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

An earlier, shorter, version of this paper has been previously published as follows – Brotherton, B. (2017) Hospitality – A Synthetic Approach. In Lashley, C. (Ed.) The Routledge Handbook of Hospitality Studies, Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.

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Perceived impacts of tourism by shop owners: the case of Porto, Portugal

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ABSTRACT

This paper proposes to disclose the perceived impacts of Tourism for a specific group of stakeholders, namely the owners of shops located in the historical center of Porto, in Portugal, a city which witnessed a significant increase in Tourism in recent years. Shop owners' perceptions about tourism have been practically ignored by the existent literature, despite the significant impacts felt by them. A questionnaire is applied to shop owners and a statistical analysis is performed, presenting and discussing the obtained results. The results evidence that shop owners tend to support the benefits of Tourism, even though they feel some reserves regarding its potentially negative impacts. Some policy directions and possibilities for further research are evidenced through this analysis.

Keywords: Porto, Tourism, Perception of impacts, Shop owners, Historical shops

INTRODUCTION

The role of Tourism as a significant economic activity has been much discussed. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council annual report, the tourism sector currently accounts for 10.4% of world GDP and 313 million jobs and, in 2017, the travel and tourism sector achieved 4.6% growth over world economic growth (WTTC, 2018). Tourism has direct impacts in economic, social, cultural, environmental and political terms, impacting society's daily life and making it dependent on the goodwill of the inhabitants, due to the importance of their support for the development and sustainability of the activity (Jurowski, 1994).

The number of low-cost air travel has significantly increased, expanding accessibility to a wide variety of destinations and leveraging the rapid development of different types of accommodation such as hotels and short-term apartments, among others. This evolution of the activity has potentiated, on a large scale, the visit of other cities and, currently, a growing share of world tourists opt for short-term travel over long vacations (Dunne et al., 2010), seeking to experience the region's authenticity in those travels (MacCannel, 2013).

Research on urban tourism emerged in the 1990s and, according to Castela (2018), the most recent studies have focused on the cultural tourist center of cities. However, there is little research on the sociocultural impacts on these centers. By assessing the Tourism impacts on the cities and local communities, it is possible to foresee disparities due, for example, to the different interpretation that residents have about their effects. In addition, the inconveniences associated with tourism may lead the population to develop and express negative behaviors and attitudes towards it, being this a stream of research of special interest since this may influence the entire tourist destination environment. Most of the studies are based on psychological and anthropological perspectives, assuming that communities are not homogeneous groups and may or may not support the tourism sector (Gursoy et al., 2002), frequently resulting in contradictory conclusions.

According to Timur and Getz (2008), understanding the perceptions of stakeholders (local authorities, government agencies, companies, and communities) can contribute to the development and implementation of policies that minimize the negative impacts of tourism growth and maximize its benefits. Ven (2016) states that stakeholders' attitudes evolve over time in a continuum that varies from homogeneity to heterogeneity. In this context, different studies analyze the residents' attitudes regarding the development of the sector and how that affects their behavior. However, the literature presents a substantial gap in the perception of shop owners in relation to the impacts of Tourism. So, the main objective of this paper is to study the perceptions of the shop owners of Porto towards the evolution of Tourism, clarifying which impacts they identify at the level of the community and, more specifically, those that affect their business. Thus, it is intended to contribute to the development of knowledge about Tourism in an area where it is clearly emerging.

The rest of the paper develops as follows. The second section comprises the literature review, where the different categorizations of factors and the different approaches and models of measurement of the social impacts of Tourism are mentioned. The third section begins with the presentation of the methodology, which briefly summarizes the analyzed territory, including the justification of the measurement instruments used for the collection and analysis of the results and the sample design. In section four we proceed to an analysis and discussion of the results obtained, interconnecting the theoretical to the empirical component. Finally, section five presents the main conclusions obtained, presenting the contributions of the present study in the selected area, as well as its main limitations and suggestions for future studies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Attitudes and reactions to tourism have been studied exhaustively in the literature, with the results showing that the host population is influenced by the perceived impacts of tourism. Luštický and Musil (2016) presented a summary of the findings found by different authors, classifying the impacts of tourism into three categories: (1) economic, (2) physical, and (3) social. At the same time, they also grouped these same impacts into four dimensions: (1) physical/

environmental; (2) sociocultural; (3) psychological, and (4) political / administrative. Currently, the use of three basic categories of economic, environmental, and sociocultural factors is consensual (Gursoy et al., 2000; Murphy, 1985). Researchers such as Stylidis et al. (2014) found that it was possible to distinguish the impacts of tourism through three approaches: i) the cost-benefit approach - which assumes that there is a direct negative relationship between stakeholder support for the development of tourism and the costs they perceive, and vice versa that there is a positive direct relationship between benefits and support of stakeholders; ii) the approach that relates impact factors and their cost-benefits - this approach takes into account the nature of the impacts (positive / negative and benefit / cost) and the existing factors (economic, environmental and sociocultural), following the same rationale of the cost benefit approach; iii) the non-forced approach - this approach focuses on the relationship between identified impacts and support for tourism development, through direct questions to stakeholders, among which is the collection of their perceptions of the importance of impact (positive / negative) that Tourism has in the life of the community. This approach assumes the interdependence between the perceptions of impacts by stakeholders and their willingness to support the development of Tourism.

Several researchers analyze different links between impacts and behaviors before tourism, comparing the different levels of participation of each resident (Keogh, 1990; Perdue et al., 1987). Thus, it was possible to identify that, in this dynamic relation, decisive factors are: the connection with the community or the length of residence on the spot (Um & Crompton, 1987); knowledge about the industry (Davis et al., 1988); contact with tourists; the proximity to the commercial zone (Sheldon & Var, 1984); the sociodemographic characteristics (Ritchie, 1988); the type and form of tourism (Murphy 1985; Ritchie 1988), and the economic benefits derived from industry (Ap, 1992).

Methodological approaches to measure attitudes

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) has been used by several researchers (Ap, 1992; Jurowski et al., 1997; Gursoy et al., 2002) to study the different attitudes of residents. This theory is related to the "interpretation of resource exchanges between individuals or groups during an interaction" where each actor "offers a resource of great value" (Ap, 1992, p.668). According to Moore and Cunningham (1999), SET specifies the exchange of tangible and intangible resources that residents and tourists receive or give in a specific tourist region. Residents are willing to exchange resources with tourists if they receive more benefits than costs (Jurowski, et al., 1997). The interactions will continue if both parties perceive that they have more benefits in what they receive than in what they are giving away (Lindberg & Johnson, 1997; Nunkoo, 2016). As such, depending on the nature of the impact, the residents support may be adjusted. A positive impact induces residents to support politicians and public initiatives that seek to strengthen tourism development, whereas, on the other hand, when the impact is negative, this may lead residents to withdraw their support (Woo et al. , 2018). It should be noted that tourism support by residents is essential for competitiveness, sustainability and tourism development (Gursoy et al., 2002).

Sociocultural factors, benefits and costs

Teo (1994) defines social and cultural impacts as the way in which Tourism contributes to a change in the system of moral values, individual behaviors, family relationships, lifestyle, traditions and community organization. On one hand, at the sociocultural level, tourism provides new opportunities for change (Harrison, 1992), new leisure and business alternatives and improved access to services (McCaughey et al., 2018), fosters the preservation of monuments and archaeological places, enhances business networks between regions (Andereck et al., 2005; Almeida-García et al., 2016) and contributes to the preservation of the region's identity and culture (Andereck et al., 2005). In addition, the increase in tourism strengthens the demand for local art and cultural traditions (Meimand et al., 2017).

On the other hand, researchers also explored the existence of negative effects (Gursoy et al., 2000; Jurowski et al., 1997; Keogh, 1990; Milman & Pizam, 1988). Among them, we have impacts on family traditions and values (Kousis, 1989), the possible creation of immoral behaviors (Andereck et al., 2005) and cultural differences in the welcoming region (Tosun, 2002). However, in addition to these negative effects, the most recognized impacts by stakeholders are the increase in traffic congestion and crime (Jurowski et al., 1997; Keogh, 1990; Milman & Pizam, 1988). Other researchers such as Lindberg & Johnson (1997) and Muler Gonzalez, Coromina & Galí (2018) also include overcrowding of public and leisure spaces; the increase of parking problems and an excess number of people using the same services. Another impact that has been identified in more recent studies is gentrification (Gant, 2016), which includes the replacement of the residents by the tourists and the changes in the neighborhoods' lifestyle and typical essence. We can also refer commercial gentrification, in which traditional shops disappear and are replaced by new spaces and services designed to attract tourists (McCaughey et al., 2018: Castela, 2018). Thus, whether negative or positive, social impacts are related to changes in people's daily live in the community of the tourist region, leading to an immediate impact on quality of life, while cultural impacts lead to a gradual long-term change in values, cultural practices, habits and architecture of the welcoming region.

Knowledge about tourism

One of the sociocultural factors studied in the literature is the knowledge that communities have about Tourism and its effects on its perceptions of cost-benefit. The Social Exchange Theory behind this issue is centered on ideas and perceptions and the way communities think. Davis et al. (1988) show that residents' knowledge of the economy and local tourism allows them to predict their attitudes toward development. Caneday and Zeiger (1991) conclude that the higher the individuals' levels of education, the more easily the negative impacts are detected. Meimand et al. (2017) mention that the greater the knowledge degree that people have on the subject more apologists will be of Tourism growth. Additionally, Muler Gonzalez et al. (2018) state that education is an important variable associated with tourism perceptions. Still, it is widely agreed that individuals with a lower level of education are more dependent on tourism than those with a university degree and people working in the industry more easily recognize the negative impacts.

Intrinsic motivation

Theoretically, motivation represents the reasons for people's actions, desires, and needs. It can also be defined as a behavioral direction or cause of a person wanting to repeat a behavior (Elliot, Gable & Mapes, 2006). Several authors relate the social benefits and the intrinsic motivation regarding the support for Tourism development (Correia, Kozak & Ferradeira, 2013). However, these studies have been centered on tourists' opinions regarding factors such as knowledge, achievement, self-satisfaction and adventure, with few referring to residents or shop owners in the studied places.

Meimand et al. (2017) mention some intrinsic factors for the motivation of the residents, such as the opportunity to be a host and play a role in Tourism, the opportunity to create a relationship, the feeling of being necessary to work together with the community and gain respect for oneself. It should be noted that intrinsic motivation has not yet been addressed at the level of shop owners, who have a preponderant role in the industry, so it is important to consider their desires, needs and interests in Tourism development.

Relation with the community

From a sociocultural perspective, the link between people and their community is an important factor in their perception of the impacts of tourism and their support (Um & Crompton, 1987). Some studies show that individuals living in a community for a long period of time are more likely to have negative attitudes towards tourism (Huttasin, 2008). In contrast, Davis et al. (1988) suggest that the native population has more positive attitudes toward tourism than short-lived residents. Jurowski et al. (1997) argue that community dwellers are more likely to form positive perceptions of economic and social impacts, showing that they are more concerned about the potential benefits. However, in the study by Gursoy et al. (2002), it was not possible to prove a direct link between the relationship with the community and the community's perceptions about the impacts of tourism, even if they argue, theoretically, that a greater connection with the community should lead to the residents' best understanding of the costs and benefits of Tourism. Nonetheless, the literature remains somewhat contradictory as the link with the community constitute a significant factor in the perception of the impacts of Tourism and in the support for its growth.

Economic dependence

Most residents see Tourism as a tool for economic development (Keogh, 1990; Walpole & Goodwin, 2000), with economic benefits being the most prominent (Muler Gonzalez et al., 2018). Thus, there is an interest in research on the relationship between perceived economic benefits and existing positive attitudes (Keogh, 1990; Gursoy et al., 2000; Jurowski et al., 1997). The Social Exchange Theory is also widely used to explain the psychological and material influence on individuals' perceptions. This theory allowed researchers to formulate the hypothesis that the more an individual or community is dependent on the money provided by Tourism the more positive attitudes they will have for their development.

Tourism progress can result in a number of benefits such as increased family income, living standards and / or tax receipts for a destination (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2018). In addition, it can also bring advantages by creating job opportunities, especially in the service sector (Jaafar et al., 2015); of investment in housing and construction with the intention of receiving the largest number of tourists (McCaughey et al., 2018); and in creating the demand for local products (Aljohani, 2018). In rural areas, Tourism creates diversification in the local economy, reducing community dependence on a particular source of income (Aljohani, 2018).

On the negative side, Tourism can lead to an increase in the cost of living (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2018); an increase in house prices and an increase in rental prices and short-term contracts (Castela, 2018). Other identified negative impacts deriving from tourism growth have been the low wages in the sector, long working hours and seasonal and precarious employment (Boley et al., 2018; McCaughey et al., 2018; Almeida-García et al., 2016), the increases in land values (Dimitriadis et al., 2013, Aljohani, 2018), in the price of goods and services (Haley et al., 2005), in taxes (Dimitriadis et al., 2013), and inequality in the distribution of economic benefits among communities (Aljohani, 2018).

Use of touristic resources by the community

Residents' perceptions can also be influenced by the impact that tourism growth has on the availability and possibility of residents to use the resources created for tourists. They may react positively if they believe that Tourism improves the recreational infrastructure they enjoy, or lead to the creation of new leisure facilities for the community (Gursoy et al., 2002). However, this creation can generate negative impacts if residents are of the opinion that it has attracted too many people (O'Leary, 1976).

The users of leisure activities and infrastructures have a greater perception of the negative impacts that the development of tourism brings, since they understand the changes in the associated costs due to the use by tourists (Perdue et al., 1987). Authors such as Gursoy et al. (2002) found an inverse but not significant relationship between tourism resources and the benefits of tourism. In the study by Muler Gonzalez et al. (2018) it is showed that residents do not want an increase in the number of tourists due to the negative impact of the lack of space that exists in the areas shared with them, however, those who do not frequent the tourist areas tend to disagree.

Environmental concerns

In the literature it is mentioned that the support of the residents to the growth of Tourism can also be influenced by the perceived impacts on the environment (Sinclair-Maragh et al., 2015). The perceptions of each individual are different because they are influenced by their values and preferences in the preservation of the environment and in the use of environmental resources, as well as by the relationship that each establishes with the environment.

Authors such as Uysal et al. (1994) argue that residents and tourists with environmentally friendly values have a higher preference for resources to be used while preserving the environment, while others prefer that resources be used for a transformation in the environment to meet the needs and desires of the population (Jones et al., 2000). On one hand, tourism growth can be seen as a mechanism for reducing pollution and decreasing pressure on resources, leading to improvements in infrastructure and facilities for the community (Dyer et al., 2007; Nunkoo & Ramkisson, 2011; McCaughey et al., 2018); creation of natural reserves, environmentally-friendly infrastructures, conservation of natural resources, increased resource management (Aljohani, 2018), and increased concern of residents to preserve the environment (Hall, 2008; Mason, 2008). On the other hand, tourism activities also have a negative impact on natural resources and the environment (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005), with noise and air pollution (Andereck et al., 2005; Aljohani, 2018), the destruction of beaches and soil erosion, the increase of garbage, the destruction of natural habitats, the destruction of wildlife due to fishing and hunting (Andereck et al., 2005; Hall, 2008; Mason, 2008), or increased drug and alcohol problems (Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009). There are also environmental impacts that cause disturbances in humans, as inadequate architectural styles, vandalism and graffiti (Andereck et al., 2005; Aljohani, 2018).

Models to measure the social impacts of tourism

With the development of tourism it is inevitable that a series of impacts will arise for the welcoming communities, both positive and negative. An activity such as tourism cannot take place without a sustainable, scientific, and responsible planning that seeks to reduce negative impacts and increase the quality of life of current and future communities. It is therefore necessary to rely on more specific models, theories and concepts.

Irridex model

The "Irridex Model" which was first developed by Doxey (1975) evaluates attitudes towards Tourism, seeking to identify and explain the cumulative effects of tourism development on social relations and the evolution of the community residents' attitudes toward tourists. Doxey's model implies four behavioral phases of the population in a tourist region and its main idea is that the increase in the number of tourists and the growth of tourism in a given destination will result in the "irritation" of the local community.

In the first state of tourism growth, residents have a better acceptance of new tourists and the money they can spend on their business, and this phase is called euphoria. Over time, the community will have more tourists and some individuals begin to have more commercial advantages with this growth. This phase is called apathy, with the presence of tourists being no more a novelty. The continued growth of tourism leads some residents of the community to become dissatisfied – the irritation phase - with the number of tourists and become concerned about the impacts they can generate. At this stage, public and private entities continue to create more facilities to meet the needs of tourists and expand accommodation infrastructures, increasing the real estate pressure. In the final stage, called the antagonism phase, the locality has already become a mass destination for tourists, creating a situation where residents do not want more tourists, assume positions of hostility and indifference and create negative stereotypes about tourists.

However, this model has some limitations, because it assumes that the whole community goes through these 4 phases, which will not always be true (Scholtz, 2014). Few communities are homogeneous, and individuals have different opinions about the various factors. Moreover, the model does not take into account the diversity of cultures and types of tourists, aspects that will affect the perceived impacts.

Butler model: the life-cycle theory of the touristic area
Butler (1980) adapted the product lifecycle model to the tourism lifecycle. This model is translated by an "S" shaped curve that establishes the relationship between the number of tourists and the stage in which Tourism is located, albeit not all regions go through all phases of this cycle, as clearly as others. The phases are: "exploration", "involvement", "development", "consolidation", "stagnation", "decline" and "rejuvenation".

According to Butler (1980), the exploration phase is characterized by the reduced number of tourists, attracted by the unique culture and landscape of the region. The social environment is not changed by tourism and these flows of tourists have a reduced impact on the residents' economic and social life. With the increase in the number of tourists, some of the residents move on to the involvement phase, since they are now providing the essential services, which will allow their relationship with tourists to continue growing. In this phase, the seasonal periods begin to appear, as well as the promotion of the region to attract more tourists. The development phase reflects a period in which there is an increasing promotion of the region.

Traditional and cultural attractions will be developed and commercialized, which will lead to physical changes in the region, which may be not well accepted by the resident population.
In the consolidation phase, the growth rate of the number of visitors will decrease but the total number will continue to increase, until the number of visitors will eventually exceed the number of residents, causing a part of the local economy to become dependent of Tourism. With the increase in tourists, the number of infrastructures will continue to grow, which will lead to an increase of opposition and discontent among residents, especially those who are not involved in the sector. As the region is entering the stagnation phase the number of tourists will have reached its peak. Capacity levels may already have reached or even exceeded their maximum, leading to social, environmental and economic problems. The region will cease to be fashionable and great efforts will be required to maintain the high number of visitors, with the city's genuine cultural attractions probably replaced by imported or artificial structures.

In the declining phase, the region will not be able to compete with the new existing attractions, entering in a phase of decline in the area's economic activity. Properties begin to change from activities aimed at tourists to activities for non-tourists and buildings that once were hotels are now apartments or retirement homes, because the attractiveness that in the past has brought tourists is equally attractive for, for example, retired people. In the extreme phase, the region can continue with a low level of Tourism or completely lose the tourist function. Alternatively, the region can move to the rejuvenation phase, however, according to Butler (1980) this will only happen if it undergoes a radical change. Alternatives presented by Butler (1980) are the construction of casinos or the use of natural resources of the region that have not yet been explored. However, the author points out that in order to really have a continuation of tourism in the region it is necessary to have something unique that continues to arouse the interest of tourists, over time, as for example with Disneyland.

Like the Doxey model, Butler's model was also criticized, since the pace of transition from phase to phase is different depending on the region, reflecting different variables such as development rate, number of tourists, accessibility, government policies, and the number of similar competing regions.

Typologies

From the models described earlier, other researchers sought to construct different classifications or typologies. Rothman (1978), using the Irridex model, classified three groups living on the coast of Delaware, USA, through their behavior towards tourism development in the region: 1) the community would be better off without tourism in the region; 2) those who support tourism; 3) a majority group that has no definite idea, being ambiguous towards the industry. From the classification of Rothman (1978) researchers like Davis et al. (1988) segmented the residents into five categories: “tourism haters”, “lovers”, “in-between”, “cautions romantics”, and “love for a reason”. Other researchers like Ap and Crompton (1993) defined four strategies that were used by a community in Texas, USA, in response to the impacts of Tourism being these “acceptance”, “tolerance”, “adjustment” and finally “withdrawal”. The acceptance phase is known to be the favorable phase of tourism promotion, which is more likely to occur when individuals receive direct benefits from the industry; tolerance is described as the stage where there is slight acceptance, meaning that residents pay more attention to the costs and drawbacks of the industry’s impacts. Residents who reach the adjustment stage are those who accept the reality of living with Tourism in their daily lives and do not express any opinion what they think about Tourism. Finally, Ap and Crompton (1993) characterize the withdrawal phase with silent acceptance.

Other authors have sought to construct a rigorous instrument to measure perceptions at a global level or in a specific aspect. Lankford and Howard (1994) developed a multiple-item attitudinal scale for the measurement of residents’ attitudes in order to analyze the effects of certain variables that are being identified in the literature. The scale developed and tested was designated by TIAS (Tourism Impact Assessment Scale), consisting of the evaluation of 28 items. The authors summarized these items in 2 factors, with the first factor referring to the concern with local Tourism, which includes the impacts of the quality of the recreation of the city; the time residents live in the area; if they work in a tourism-related job; the knowledge of the local economy and the level of contact with Tourism. The second factor refers to personal and community benefits. Besides, Ap and Crompton (1998) argue that these two factors are not in accordance with the literature, which led them to develop a scale of perceived impacts consisting of: (1) identifying a component by classifying the level of change associated with 35 items by respondents, and (2) a component in which residents are asked to rate the level of content on each item.

Through this disagreement between the authors we can see that the literature, depending on the impacts and the scales of development, reach different conclusions. This illustrates the difficulty to develop a tool capable of providing sufficient information about residents’ attitudes that can be applied to different destinations in order to assist in Tourism management.

METHODOLOGY

Area of study

The city of Porto was chosen as the focus of this study due to the strong growth is has registered in the tourism sector and because it is the second largest tourist destination in Portugal. According to the *Tourism Marketing Strategy of Porto and Northern Portugal*, Tourism in Porto is centered on city short breaks, low cost stays and cultural and landscape touring, attracting senior tourists (over 45 years old), couples with children and young travelers aged 20 to 29. The city of Porto receives about 8 tourists per resident and, according to data presented by the "Profile of Tourists", it is estimated that each tourist has an average consumption per visit of € 568, staying an average of 6.37 nights.

The city has witnessed a strong real estate investment, with data from *Confidencial Imobiliário* showing in 2017 a rise of 10.3% compared to 2016 in house prices in the city. Rent values reached a peak in the third quarter of 2017. In 2017, the parish union of *Cedofeita, Santo Ildefonso, Sé, Miragaia, São Nicolau and Vitória* registered a rent value of €6.98 / m^2, above the average value of the municipality of Porto (€6.77 / m^2). On the other hand, the parish of *Campanhã* (€5.78 / m^2) presented the lowest value of new lease contracts among the parishes of the municipality of Porto.

Objective and design of the sample

The objective of this work is to study the perceptions that the shop owners of the city of Porto have about Tourism growth. In order to carry out this study, a questionnaire was distributed to a sample of shop owners, distributed in 3 zones of the city center, between July and October 2018. Zone 1 (East zone) comprises the zone north of *São Bento* railway station and east of *Aliados* Avenue; zone 2 (South zone) covers the zone to the west of that station and south of the *Clérigos* Street and zone 3 (North zone) covers the zone to the north of the *Clérigos* Street and to the west of the *Aliados* Avenue.

The questionnaire was delivered directly to the selected shop owners from an initial list of own elaboration that consisted of fifty-eight shops. These shops were selected based on the antiquity of the business and due to being covered by a program of the Porto City Council, designated "Porto Tradição". However, in order to increase the number of responses, shops not included in this program were added, obtaining in the end a total of 46 valid questionnaires. Despite the reduced number, we consider that the sample is representative of the population studied, that is, the traditional shops located in the center of the city of Porto.

The questionnaire was organized in 3 sections. The first section consisting of 7 questions regarding demographic factors: gender; age; type of business; education; residence; year of foundation of the establishment and also a question as to whether the owners have any other business outside the municipality of Porto. The second section was composed of two questions (8 and 9) where the respondent could choose between 5 options according to the Likert scale, 1 = "Strongly disagree"; 2 = "Disagree"; 3 = "Neither disagree nor agree"; 4 = "I agree"; 5 = "Totally Agree".

Question 8 was divided into 29 statements with each one intended to study the different factors listed in the literature review, and question 9 referred specifically to the respondents' business, being assessed their perceived impacts from the direct and indirect contact with Tourism. This question was divided into 11 statements and respondents had the same five options to answer.

Measuring instruments

Prior to the statistical analysis, a univariate analysis was performed for items related to demographic factors. Then, these same factors were used as independent variables and questions 8 and 9 as dependent variables. Since the sample size comprises 46 respondents we can assume, by the Central Limit Theorem, that they follow a normal distribution (Pereira, 2006). However, when we want to assess the impacts in the different zones, our sample is divided, respectively, into twenty-six, fifteen and five individuals. The same happens when the variables education and age are studied, in which the sample is also divided into small subgroups. In this case, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk test were performed for both questions 8 and 9 for each variable to be tested to determine if the samples had a normal distribution. According to Marôco (2011), the Shapiro-Wilk test is preferable to the K-S test for small samples ($n < 30$).

When tested for normality for the independent variables (zone, education and age) in relation to the dependent variable (Question 8) it is verified by the Shapiro-Wilk test that parameters are recorded where p-values are higher than the usual levels of significance (10%, 5%, 1%). For example, in the question about the quality of life in zone 3, a p-value $(0{,}314) > \alpha$ is obtained, so that the null hypothesis of normality of the evaluations carried out by the shop owners is not rejected. The same applies to the independent variable (education) in the question related to the creation of new infrastructures, with p-value $(0{,}217) > \alpha$; for the secondary level studies, with the same conclusion being drawn that this variable follows a normal distribution. We can also find the same situation with the independent variable (age), in the question related to whether Tourism improved public services, with p-value $(0{,}364) > \alpha$ having the same conclusion as the previous variables. However, it is also possible to verify the existence of parameters in which p-values are lower than the usual significance levels (10%, 5%, 1%), in the dependent variables leading to rejection of the hypothesis for example, whether the city of Porto was to become an even more attractive destination in zone 1, to a level of secondary education, and to the ages between forty-five and sixty-four, obtaining all a p-value $(0.000) > \alpha$.

The same test was performed with the independent variable (education, type of business, and age) but with question 9 as dependent variable. It arises a situation similar to question 8, where for certain parameters the p-values obtained confirm the rejection of the null hypothesis of normality, while others confirm the non-rejection. Since the scales are ordinal and the results of the Shapiro-Wilk test gave the rejection of normality, the most indicated test to apply is the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test. The level of significance chosen for the rejection of the null hypothesis, in which the dependent and independent variables were not related, was 10% for all tests.

The value of Cronbach's α was calculated to ascertain the fidelity of the scale referring to question 8 of the survey being the result of 0.695, showing a satisfactory consistency of the scale to study the different factors of Tourism impact. In general, an instrument or test is classified as having adequate reliability when α is at least 0.70 (Marôco, 2011). However, according to Malhotra et al. (1996) values greater than 0.6 can ensure reliability and consistency of the scale. However, the value obtained for Cronbach's α from question 9 of the survey was 0.503 for the 11 items, thus considering that this scale does not have adequate reliability.

To summarize, through question 8, the main objectives are to understand the perceptions that shop owners in different zones have of the impact of tourism and how age and education can influence this perception. With question 9 we will understand the perceptions of impacts in the various businesses, specifying the five types of business with the most respondents and how education and age affect their perception of the Tourism effects. Throughout the analysis will be added some perceptions obtained from the shop owners' personal comments expressed while answering the questionnaire. Demographic factors such as gender, residence, and whether the respondents had any other business outside Porto were not investigated due to the large discrepancies among the respondents.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sample analysis

The final sample consisted of 46 shop owners, of which 14 (30.4%) of the respondents were female and 32 (69.6%) were male. In terms of activities, we have 7 Food Products shops; 3 of Accommodation and catering; 6 Goldsmiths; 4 Bookstores; 8 Clothing, Accessories or Footwear; 2 of Religious Articles and a shop classified as "other business areas".

In terms of the distribution of the sample by the city zones, zone 1 (East) comprises 26 shops (56.5% of respondents); zone 2 (South) consists of 15 (32.6%) and zone 3 (North) has 5 respondents (10.9%). Zone 1 is the one that presents a greater diversity in the business activity of respondents. Most respondents are between 45 and 64 years of age, and the age groups between the ages of 30 and 44 and over 65 also have some weight in the response rate. The average respondent age was approximately 56 years. Regarding the education variable, it is verified that the majority of respondents have secondary studies (43.5%). Of the remainder, 30.4% had higher studies, 23.9% had the basic level and, lastly, 2.2% of the respondents had only the primary studies. It should also be noted that 65% of the surveyed shop owners live in the municipality and 85% only possess one commercial establishment. There is also a great discrepancy in the longevity of different businesses. Most businesses are between 50 and 150 years old, reflecting the familiar and historical character of the commercial sites surveyed. From the direct contact with the shop owners it was possible to verify that some of the most recent businesses that were interviewed had to leave their old location due to the sale of the buildings or the high rents, having to reopen elsewhere.

Perceived impacts in Porto

Table 1 shows the results obtained albeit due to space limitations the specific results for each zone are not presented. Regarding the statements with respect to socio-cultural impacts, 39% of the respondents disagree with the statements and 37% agree with them, while 17% of the respondents do not have a concrete opinion. Each statement is about negative or positive impacts, with the purpose of ascertaining if the shop owners of the city of Porto identify these impacts as such.

Forty-five percent of respondents believe that Tourism has led to an increase in the quality of life in the city of Porto, while 26% disagree with this statement, and 28% do not have the perception. When we talk about an improvement in public services, we see that 59% of the shop owners think that there has not been an improvement in public services, as opposed to 15% of the respondents.

Shop owners are aware that there has been an increase in the number of festivals because of tourism (52%), however 37% of respondents do not agree, stating that although there is an increase in festivals, theaters and exhibitions (in terms of quantity) remain the same. When we talk about traditional festivals, 45% agree that there is a stimulus for the festivals to be held because of tourism, however, 35% disagree that it is because of tourism and 17% do not perceive this social benefit. But when it is stated that Tourism generates the loss of the cultural traditions of the city, 72% of the shop owners have the opinion that Tourism does not generate this negative impact in the community.

According to the literature, Tourism can generate an increase in alcohol and drug consumption as well as an increase in crime. According to the shop owners' perceptions, 56% agree with the increase in crime, while 32% disagree and 11% do not have the perception. Regarding alcohol and drug consumption, 41% agree, and 11% fully agree that there is an increase caused by Tourism, but 33% do not have the perception of this impact and 15% think that the increase is not related to Tourism. Congestion and difficulty in parking is also seen by the majority of shop owners as one of the negative causes of Tourism.

Table 1: Frequency table (in percentage points)

Questions	**Porto city**				
Likert scale	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Sociocultural	**4**	**37**	**17**	**39**	**4**
Tourism has increased the quality of life	4	22	28	43	2
Tourism has improved public services (places for sports, health centers, ...)	2	57	26	15	0
There are more theaters, exhibitions and festivals because of tourism	2	37	7	52	2
Tourism stimulates the traditional festivities of the region (fairs, ...)	2	35	17	43	2
Tourism generates the loss of cultural festivals and traditions	0	72	7	17	4
Tourism increases drug and alcohol consumption	2	13	33	41	11
Tourism causes greater crime	2	30	11	54	2

Access facilities are better because of Tourism	2	48	22	28	0
Tourism produces greater congestion, accidents and parking problems	0	35	17	41	7
The expansion of Tourism leads to a decrease in the number of people who have to leave the cities	24	46	11	17	2
Tourism has led to greater creation of roads / streets and urbanizations	4	39	9	46	2
Economic	**2**	**17**	**11**	**54**	**17**
Tourism is today the main economic activity in Porto	0	20	15	61	4
Tourism has increased the number of job opportunities	0	9	7	76	9
There has been an increase in the prices of goods and services due to Tourism	0	2	9	59	30
The government / autarchy has spent more money in the city due to the increase in Tourism	7	26	17	48	2
Tourism generates instability in employability	0	30	20	39	11
Tourism attracts more investment to the city of Porto	0	2	4	85	9
Tourism leads to a rise in the price of homes and rents	0	0	2	43	54
Environment	**2**	**24**	**13**	**46**	**14**
New infrastructures have been created to attract more tourists	0	7	15	67	11
There are more public gardens and parks due to Tourism	2	74	20	4	0
Tourism encourages the restoration of historic buildings	7	9	4	63	17
Tourism increases pollution, noise, waste, etc.	0	15	7	63	15
The construction of hotels / local accommodation has destroyed the city environment	2	15	22	35	26
Knowledge	**1**	**22**	**13**	**63**	**2**
Tourism provides more incentives for the protection of natural resources and preservation of local culture and tradition	4	41	11	43	0
The increase in the number of tourists in a certain area will boost this economy	0	13	17	70	0
The experience of our culture and traditional lifestyle is the reason why tourists visit the city of Porto	0	17	4	72	7
Government / autarky investment in tourism development is money well spent	0	17	20	61	2
Tourism Support	0	11	9	70	11
The city of Porto should become an even more attractive destination	0	20	11	61	9
Tourism will continue to play an important role in the city of Porto	0	2	7	78	13

Note: Likert scale 1="Strongly disagree"; 2="Disagree"; 3="Neither disagree nor agree"; 4="I agree"; 5="Totally Agree".
Source: Own elaboration

One of the negative impacts generated by tourism is the displacement of residents out of the city and, according to the shop owners' perception, 46% agree, and 24% fully agree with this negative impact. When asked if shop owners had the perception that tourism led to greater creation of roads / urbanizations and streets, 46% agree while 39% disagree.

Now on the impacts on economic factors, 71% of shop owners agree with the statements, whereas 19% disagree and 11% have no opinion. For most shop owners in the city (65%), Tourism is the main economic activity of the city, however with that came negative effects, some of which were selected to study if shop owners had the perception if they were present in the city, such as: the increase in the price of rent and housing (43% agree and 54% totally agree), the increase in prices of goods and services (59% agree and 30% totally agree) and instability in employability (39% agree and 11% totally agree). However, they also identify positive effects caused by tourism as: increased job opportunities (76% agree), the larger investment by the municipality in the city (48% agree, but 26% disagree), an increase in investment in the city from private or foreign sources (85% agree and 9% totally agree).

As for environmental impacts, it was possible to analyze that the majority of respondents (46%) perceived that Tourism led to the creation of new infrastructures to attract more tourists and the restoration of historical buildings, in which 63% agree, with 17% totally agreeing. However, regarding the benefits that are identified in the literature, the shop owners realize that they have had no effect in Porto, such as the creation of gardens and public parks, representing 74% of the respondents. As negative impacts we have increased pollution, waste and noise (63% agree) and destruction of the "traditional" environment of the city because of hotel construction (35% agree and 26 totally agree).

When the shop owners' knowledge about Tourism was approached, it was possible to conclude that 43% have a positive perception regarding Tourism to provide incentives for the protection of natural resources and preservation of local culture and tradition and that the increase in the number of tourists helps to boost the economy (70% agree). The majority of shop owners (72%) have the opinion that it is due to the lifestyle of the Porto and the experience of their culture that tourists come to the city of Porto. However, some respondents claim that tourists visit the city due to low prices and the low-cost flights and the sense of security conveyed by the city and the country. Others claim that due to this increase in tourism many things have been tampered with, such as typical products.

When asked if the money that the municipality spends in the city is well spent, 70% agree and 11% fully agree. When analyzing the support to Tourism, it was possible to find out that 91% of the shop owners support and believe that Tourism will continue to grow and play an important role in Porto and that this will continue to be an even more attractive destination (70%). However, although in statistical terms the shop owners show a positive opinion about Tourism, most of them verbally transmit a totally different picture, speaking in a "Barefoot Tourism". However, since there was a decrease in the number of city residents, they report that they now need the tourists to survive.

Impact of independent variables on perceptions

In order to evaluate whether there are significant differences between the three areas surveyed, education and age of respondents with the factors to be studied, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used. Considering the variable "zone", Table 2 presents only the seven impacts, among the five factors analyzed, for which statistically significant results were found.

In terms of sociocultural factors, the improvement in access facilities due to tourism (p-value (0.086) <0.10) and the decrease in people leaving the city (p-value (0.032) <0.10) present a statistically significant difference between the different zones. The same happened with regard to economic factors when it was affirmed that Tourism is today the main economic activity of Porto (p-value (0.079) <0.10) and if that leads to an increase in the price of housing and rents (p-value (0.053) <0.10). There are also statistically significant differences between the three zones in relation to the increase in pollution (p-value (0.037) <0.10); to if tourism will continue to play an important role in the city (p-value (0.056) <0.10) and also regarding the knowledge, there were differences in relation to the perception if the increase of the number of tourists in a certain area will turn this economy more dynamic (p-value (0.032) <0.10).

Table 2: Kruskal-Wallis test: variable "zone"

Factors	Kruskal – Wallis H	Degrees of freedom	Assymptotic significance
Sociocultural			
Access facilities are better because of Tourism	4.913	2	0.086
The expansion of Tourism leads to a decrease in the number of people who have to leave the cities	6.898	2	0.032
Economic			
Tourism is today the main economic activity in Porto	5.066	2	0.079
Tourism leads to a rise in the price of homes and rents	5.871	2	0.053
Environment			
Tourism increases pollution, noise, waste, etc.	6.599	2	0.037
Knowledge			
The increase in the number of tourists in a certain area will boost this economy	6.907	2	0.032
Tourism Support			
Tourism will continue to play an important role in the city of Porto	5.775	2	0.056

Source: Own elaboration using SPSS

Tables 3 and 4 present statistically significant results in the perception of Tourism impacts in the city of Porto, when considering, respectively, the variables education and age. We can see that in relation to education there are only 4 factors where there are statistically significant differences, of which the impact referring to the knowledge factor also had statistically significant results in the test performed allusive to the zones. The education variable had no impact on environmental factors. The education variable is important for the perception of cultural impacts as the greatest existence of theaters and exhibitions (p-value (0.027) <0.10); in the perception of the investment that the Tourism has brought to the city (p-value (0.088) <0.10). It is also influential in the perception of whether Porto should become an even more attractive destination (p-value (0.025) <0.10).

Table 3: Kruskal-Wallis test: variable "education"

Factors	Kruskal – Wallis H	Degrees of freedom	Assymptotic significance
Sociocultural			
There are more theaters, exhibitions and festivals because of tourism	7.191	2	0.027
Economic			
Tourism attracts more investment to the city of Porto	4.850	2	0.088
Knowledge			
The increase in the number of tourists in a certain area will boost this economy	5.275	2	0.072
Tourism Support			
The city of Porto should become an even more attractive destination	7.389	2	0.025

Source: Own elaboration using SPSS

Table 4 - Kruskal-Wallis test: variable "age"

Factors	Kruskal – Wallis H	Degrees of freedom	Assymptotic significance
Sociocultural			
Tourism stimulates the traditional festivities of the region (fairs, ...)	6.085	2	0.048
Access facilities are better because of Tourism	6.050	2	0.049
Tourism has led to greater creation of roads / streets and urbanizations	6.650	2	0.036
Economic			
Tourism attracts more investment to the city of Porto	6.654	2	0.036
Environment			
Tourism encourages the restoration of historic buildings	8.083	2	0.018

Source: Own elaboration using SPSS

Through the analysis of Table 4, we see that age is a factor that creates statistically significant differences in relation to sociocultural, economic and environmental factors. These differences were related to the statements about whether Tourism stimulates the traditional festivals of the region (p-value (0.048) <0.10); the improvement of access facilities (p-value (0.049) <0.10); the greater creation of roads / streets and urbanizations (p-value (0.036) <0.10); the perception of the investment in the city (p-value (0.036) <0.10) and in the restorations of historical buildings (p-value (0.018) <0.10).

Perception of the impacts in commerce

As we can see in Table 5, when shop owners are asked if they are satisfied with where they are and if they preferred to have their business in the city of Porto, on average more than four in five, shop owners agree with these statements. When asked if it is an excellent zone to have a business 79% say yes, however in zone 3, forty percent of respondents disagree with the statement.

As we could see earlier, shop owners agree that there has been an increase in investment in the city, but when asked if this investment was beneficial to their business, 48% of them have a positive perception, while 24% disagree. This disagreement is more noticeable in zone 2 (27%) and zone 3 (60%), in which 53% and 20%, respectively, agree that it was beneficial.

The majority of shop owners agree that the price hike has been impacted by tourism growth, but when questioned about that impact on their business 52% of the respondents disagree with this negative effect. Another impact studied above was the creation of roads and streets where there was proximity in the responses' percentages. In this case, with regard to the impact on their business, 48% of the shop owners have the perception that in no way affected its shop.

As for the increase in spending by consumers caused by tourism, 57% felt this benefit in their shop, as opposed to 30% who disagree, and 13% who do not have any perception. In zones 3 and 1 it was where a greater percentage of discord was registered, being of 60% and 31% respectively. Due to the increasing opening / creation of hotels, one of the statements was if these have been damaging the commerce in the city of Porto, nevertheless, the majority answer from shop owners (66%) was that they have not been harmed.

Table 5: Respondent answers about perception of business (percentage points)

Questions	Zone1					Zone 2					Zone 3					City of Porto				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I'd rather have my business in the historic center than elsewhere	0	4	4	69	23	0	13	0	67	20	0	0	20	60	20	0	7	4	67	22
I am satisfied with where I am	0	8	4	62	27	0	7	0	80	13	0	0	0	80	20	0	7	2	70	22
The investment made in Porto has been beneficial to my business	0	19	19	50	12	0	27	20	53	0	20	40	20	20	0	2	24	20	48	7
The city of Porto is a great area to have a business	0	0	8	85	8	0	7	27	60	7	0	40	20	40	0	0	7	15	72	7
The improvement of roads / streets and urbanization has been essential for the growth of my business	0	27	27	46	0	7	67	7	20	0	0	100	0	0	0	2	48	17	33	0
Tourism stimulates higher spending by consumers	0	31	19	50	0	0	20	7	73	0	0	60	0	40	0	0	30	13	57	0
The price increase has negatively affected my business	4	38	23	31	4	0	67	13	13	7	0	80	0	20	0	2	52	17	24	4
The construction of hotels / local accommodation has hampered my business	12	46	23	8	12	0	80	0	13	7	0	60	0	20	20	7	59	13	11	11
Tourism creates more job opportunities for outsiders than for city residents	0	19	46	31	4	0	40	13	47	0	0	60	40	0	0	0	30	35	33	2
Tourism encourages the preservation of traditional trade	12	23	4	54	8	20	20	0	53	7	20	60	0	20	0	15	26	2	50	7
Tourism has increased my quality of life	4	50	23	23	0	13	47	20	20	0	20	60	0	20	0	9	50	20	22	0

Note: Likert scale 1="Strongly disagree"; 2="Disagree"; 3="Neither disagree nor agree"; 4="I agree"; 5="Totally Agree".

Source: Own elaboration using SPSS

The increase in tourism results in the creation / opening of new commercial spaces, which may negatively impact traditional commerce. From Table 5, we see that 57% of shop owners agree that the increase in tourism has led to the preservation of traditional commerce, but 41% disagree. In zone 3, 80% of shop owners answered in the range of 1 and 2 of the Likert scale. When questioned if tourism had led to an increase in the quality of life in the city of Porto, we see that most shop owners have a positive perception. It should be noted that when questioned about the increase in their quality of life, 59% disagree that there was a positive impact.

Impacts of independent variables on perceptions in each business landscape

In order to study whether there is a statistically significant effect on the perception of the impacts on each shop activity relative to the independent variables (business type, education and age), the Kruskal-Wallis test was performed again. It is necessary to take into account the reliability result of the scale, which had a low value.

Table 6: Impact on perceptions by type of business

Factors	Kruskal – Wallis H	Degrees of freedom	Assymptotic significance
The investment made in Porto has been beneficial to my business	14.739	2	0.005
The city of Porto is a great area to have a business	11.393	2	0.022
The construction of hotels / local accommodation has hampered my business	9.895	2	0.042
Tourism encourages the preservation of traditional trade	11.096	2	0.026

Source: Own elaboration using SPSS

Table 6 shows the statistically significant results for the five types of businesses with the most respondents (Accommodation and Catering, Food Products, Jewelry, Bookstores and Clothing / Accessories / Footwear). It should be noted that there is a statistically significant difference in relation to the incentives for traditional commerce preservation (p-value (0.026) <0.10); to the negative impact of housing construction (p-value (0.042) <0.10); to the positive effect in business caused by the investment realized in the city (p-value (0.005) <0.10) and if the Porto area is good for a business (p-value (0.022) <0.10). As mentioned above, it was also tested whether the level of education and the age of shop owners in the city of Porto would influence the perception of the impacts on their business, however, no statistically significant results were found.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this paper was to gather, through the implementation of a questionnaire, the shop owners' perceptions about the impact of Tourism in the city of Porto. That is the main contribution of this paper since this is an issue practically ignored in the literature.

Data collection proved to be a more difficult process than expected. Due to the low level of adherence by shop owners throughout the inquiry process, it became necessary to widen the range of respondents. After the data collection, a sample of 46 respondents was statistically analyzed.

Faced with cultural factors, according to Andereck et al. (2005), Tourism helps to preserve culture and traditions. The general perception of shop owners is that tourism has led to more exhibitions and festivals and traditional fairs although many have the opinion that nothing has changed. When we talk about the economic factors, although most realize that there was a greater investment by the local authorities and foreigners, creating more job opportunities (Jaafar et al., 2015), they have the opinion that costs are more relevant, as the instability in employability (Boley et al., 2018; McCaughey et al., 2010), often caused by seasonality (Gárcia-Almeida et al., 2016), increases in house prices and rents (Castela, 2018) and in the prices of goods and services (Haley et al., 2005). However, when specifically analyzing their business, most shop owners did not feel this negative effect. Many of the benefits mentioned in the literature have not been recognized by shop owners, such as the creation of more parks and public gardens (Aljohani, 2018) with the majority of shop owners agreeing that there were no improvements at that level. In relation to environmental factors, shop owners consider that tourism growth has been beneficial because it has led to the restoration of historic buildings (Andereck et al., 2005).

However, they consider that the city environment has been destroyed (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005) due to the construction of hotels, ceasing to be the typical city that it was. Another negative impact is the increase of pollution, waste and noise (Andereck et al., 2005) that was perceived by most shop owners. As for social impacts, respondents agree that there was an increase in the quality of life in the city but when questioned if it had a positive impact on them, the majority answered negatively. It was identified that there was a greater creation of infrastructures for tourists and that many shop owners were dissatisfied not only by the increase of competition but also because this is one of the reasons that sometimes imply the expulsion of people from these places (Castela, 2018), identifying thus a further negative impact. Other negative impacts were congestion (Muler Gonzalez et al., 2018); the increase in crime (Jurowski et al, 1997; Keogh, 1990) and the increase in drug and alcohol consumption (Diedrich & García, 2009). Factors in the literature considered as benefits, such as road building and urbanization (Gárcia-Almeida et al., 2016) recorded almost as many respondents agreeing that it had a positive effect as negative opinions. As for improving access facilities (McCaughey et al., 2018), this was not recognized by shop owners. When questioned regarding the effect on their business, most have an opinion that did not have any impact.

The age factor also showed statistically significant impacts on sociocultural, economic and environmental factors. As for the individual business scenario in the test carried out for the five types with the highest number of respondents, it was possible to verify that there are statistically significant effects on the investment made in the city having a beneficial impact on the business; preservation of traditional trade; the city of Porto is a great area to have a business and if the construction of hotels has hampered their particular business.

Although the statistical results show that shop owners support the increase in tourism, due to the questionnaire's closed questions they could not truly express their opinion. That is, even identifying the positive impacts of Tourism, they are dissatisfied with the negative impacts, showing that the benefits do not cover the existing costs.

The present paper presents some limitations that end up being opportunities for future research. As future research it is proposed to conduct open-ended interviews with a larger number of shop owners, allowing them to truly explain their opinions. It would also be interesting to expand this study to other geographic areas of the country, allowing comparisons and evaluating the main differences between regions or major tourist destinations. Conducting the study with a larger sample would allow an in-depth statistical analysis to identify the inequalities between different zones, types of business, education levels and others, also allowing the identification of other positive and negative impacts that have not been considered. This analysis could also allow better management and planning of the tourism sector and the creation of public policies to better protect the traditional commerce and the traditions and culture of the regions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work has been in part financially supported by the Research Unit on Governance, Competitiveness and Public Policy - GOVCOPP (project POCI-01-0145-FEDER-008540), funded by FEDER funds through COMPETE2020 - Programa Operacional Competitividade e Internacionalização (POCI) – and by national funds through FCT - Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia.

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Residents' perceptions of tourism development in developing countries: the case of Malawi

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims at examining residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development in developing countries. The paper is based on results of a survey of 196 households in Mangochi, Malawi. The findings indicate that residents have strong support for tourism development. It was revealed that local residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development are not varied by place of living of residents nor whether they economically depend on the tourism industry or not. Gender, a socio-demographic factor was also explored and it was revealed that it does not affect residents' attitudes toward tourism development. The level of tourism impact on the quality of life for the community was also found to be higher than at personal level. Even with the positive perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development, it is recommended that tourism planners involve local residents in the planning development of tourism.

Key words: residents' perceptions, tourism development, tourism impacts, Malawi

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a multi-faceted activity that links the social, economic and environmental components of sustainability (Muresan et al., 2016). Many non- and post-industrialised countries and regions have turned to tourism as a possible alternative source of growth due to the problems of declining terms of trade for agricultural products and high levels of protection against manufacturers (Sinclair, 1998). This has made tourism to become an ideal development agent and ideal economic alternative to more traditional primary and secondary sectors in some developing countries (Opperman & Chon, 1997). Due to tourism's rapid and continuing growth and associated potential economic contribution, it has been widely regarded as an effective means of achieving development in non-industrialised countries (Sharpley, 2002). As a result Binns & Nel (2002) note that in most developing countries, the promotion of tourism development has been identified as one of the key strategies that can lead to economic development and poverty alleviation. Similarly, Puczkó and Rátz (2000) state that if a community plans to use tourism as an alterative way of strengthening its economic development, it must develop sustainable tourism to meet the demands and needs of its residents.

The benefits of tourism development in non-industrialised countries can be felt at macro and micro levels. At macro or national level, tourism can foster economic growth through foreign exchange earnings and an increase in state revenue from tax while at micro or sub-national level, tourism improves people's well-being in areas of employment opportunities and income distribution (Dieke, 2003). It is argued that tourism is a pleasurable activity, a form of relaxation or a necessary evil as its consumption pattern has demonstration effects in developing countries. In industrialised countries, tourism is a social activity with economic consequences while in non-industrialised countries; it is largely an economic activity with social consequences which also include cultural and environmental impacts (Dieke, 2005). In the 1980s, due to social and environmental consequences of poor tourism planning, a number of governments began considering environmental, social and cultural issues when planning (Tosun & Jenkins 1998). From the 1990s, tourism planning now incorporates a sustainable community approach (Yang & Wall, 2008).

For a sustainable industry to strive, support of host communities is argued to be a precondition hence tourism impact studies are a crucial input to tourism planning and decision making (Gursoy & Rutherforld, 2004; Nicholas, Thapa & Ko, 2009; Tovar & Lockwood, 2008). This realisation has eventually led to increasing attention being given to the perceived impacts of tourism development (Ap & Crompton, 1998). In most cases, tourism development is wrongly accused of being the sole agent of rapid social and cultural change in host communities as the attention given to the negative changes overshadows the positive contributions of tourism development (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Though this is the case, Sharpley & Telfer (2002) argue that socio-cultural impacts in a destination area occur not only through tourism but also due to a range of other reasons such as globalisation and international media. There has been a proliferation of theoretical and empirical studies on residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development worldwide especially in developed countries (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt, 2005; Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002; Lee, Kang, Long, & Reisinger, 2010; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Sharpley, 2014; Sirakaya, Teye, & Sonmez, 2002), but there is need for more studies in the developing-world context like Malawi. Therefore this paper examines residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development in Malawi, a developing country in the Sub-Saharan Africa.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Impacts of tourism development

Many studies categorise residents' attitudes toward tourism development under the economic, social and environmental dimensions (Jimura, 2011; Ghaderi & Henderson, 2012; Nicholas, Thapa & Ko, 2009). In any destination, tourism development and the presence of tourists bring with it economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts. Each element of tourism impacts has both positive and negative impacts (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012).

Economic Impacts

The economic benefits of tourism in a destination include: foreign exchange earnings and balance of payments, generation of income, generation of employment opportunities, improvement of economic structures, encouragement of entrepreneurial activity and stimulation of regional economies (Hanafiah, Harun & Jamuludin, 2010; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). International tourism is an important source of foreign exchange earnings and its potential contribution to the national balance of payments makes it a desirable development choice for developing countries (Sharpley, 2002). For instance, in Kenya and the Gambia, tourism has been a major foreign exchange earner (Sinclair, 1998). The foreign currency receipts from tourism have in turn provided an important means of economic development by providing finances for imports of capital goods necessary for the growth of the manufacturing industry (Sinclair, 1998).

Tourism development creates employment opportunities in both formal and informal sectors (Cukier, 2002). In the Caribbean countries, Harrison (1992) found out that tourism was the predominant employer and a favourable option by the local population. Harrison (1992) also noted that though in other cases direct employment rising from tourism may be little, indirect and induced employment are also created in other sectors which do not wholly depend on tourism such as taxis and other public transport, restaurants, bars, theatres, cinemas and a country's arts and crafts. Ghosh, Siddique and Gabby (2003) gave an example of Seychelles where in 1991, direct employment attributable to tourism was 3, 772 and the total direct and secondary employment generated by tourism was 8, 312. This meant that in Seychelles, an average direct job in tourism supported additional 1.2 secondary jobs (Archer & Fletcher, 1996).

Tourism provides a direct source of income or revenue. Direct revenue obtained from tourists' expenditure in a country leads to indirect revenue by way of series of forward and backward linkages (Ghosh et al, 2003). Tourism in developing countries provides tax revenue for the government and increases the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and personal incomes (Sinclair, 1998). Sinclair (1998) further argued that though tourism receipts are small in developing countries relative to world totals, they make an important contribution to their economies in terms of income and employment generating effects and foreign exchange provision.

Opperman and Chon (1997) indicated that tourism brings in investments into general infrastructure of a country such as road upgrading and construction, provision of electricity and fresh water, waste disposal and sewage treatment, and airport construction and expansion. Tourism also offers developing countries an opportunity to develop their own handcraft industries out of the local materials and Kenya and Indonesia are two countries that have developed their handcraft industries successfully (Christie, 2002). The other sector which is boosted by tourism is the agriculture sector which offers local meat, fruits, vegetables and other produce for consumption in the tourism sector (Christie, 2002). The economic impacts of tourism in a country are generally positive but there are also some negative aspects. The economic costs of tourism development include: the danger of overdependence on tourism, increased inflation, higher land values and an increased propensity to import (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Heavy reliance on tourism renders a host community vulnerable to changes in tourism demand as tourism is highly susceptible to changes from both within and outside the industry (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Economic downturns in main tourist – generating markets can result in large deficits in tourism's balance on the current account. This just shows that tourism is mainly a dependent sector such that developing countries need to be conscious when choosing it as a development strategy. Dieke (1989) indicated that the type of tourism developing countries develop is usually determined by forces outside their control and the development is greatly influenced by international corporate actors in tourism source markets who dominate the hotels, airlines and tour operations.

Dieke (2005) also argued that gross tourism earnings calculations mostly ignore the leakages, for example, foreign exchange expenditures made in attracting tourists, money spent in importing goods as well as factor payments such as management fees, remuneration of foreign staff and profit remittances for foreign companies. Tourism development also increases demand for land and as a consequence land prices rise, thereby encouraging local people to sell their land, obtaining short term gains and they are left landless with only low paid work available (Archer et al, 2005).

Environmental Impacts

Tourism development has effects on the natural environment and the human made or built environment. Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill (2008) indicated that as tourism activity takes place, there are changes and modifications to the environment to facilitate tourism or through tourism production process. Archer, Cooper and Ruhanen (2005) argued that the environmental damage of tourism is related to the magnitude of development and volume of tourists, the nature of the environment and the adopted planning and management practices before and after tourism development. Tourism has both positive and negative environmental impacts. According to Cooper et al. (2008), direct positive environmental impacts associated with tourism development include: the preservation or restoration of ancient monuments, sites and historic buildings; the creation of national parks and wildlife parks; the protection of reefs and beaches; and maintenance of forests. Revenue from tourism is also used to conserve and improve the natural and manmade heritage, and tourism can further be used to provide use for otherwise redundant historic buildings and generate income (Archer et al. 2005).

Tourism has direct negative environmental impacts on the quality of water, air and noise levels. Water is polluted through sewage disposal into water from tourist facilities and through the use of powered boats (Cooper et al. 2008). Tourism contributes to the high levels of air pollution through the transportation networks and some tourist activities in urban areas can dramatically increase noise levels through night clubs and other forms of entertainment (Cooper et al. 2008). Tourism development can destroy irreplaceable natural environments such as marshlands and mangrove swamps and in some mountainous areas, forests have been depleted to create ski slopes leading to soil erosion, flooding and mud slips causing loss of life and damage to property (Archer et al. 2005). Wall and Mathieson (2006) also indicated that tourism exists in conflict with the environment through the trampling of vegetation by tourists, pollution of resort beaches and irresponsible behaviour of tourists disrupting the feeding and breeding habits of wildlife. In other areas, improper solid wastes have been a major despoiler of the environment causing serious health risks to both humans and wildlife, camp fires have destroyed forests, sand dunes have been damaged and eroded by over-use, coral reefs have been despoiled and alien forms of plant life have been introduced into delicate ecosystems by tourists (Archer et al., 2005; Cooper et al., 2008). As tourism development and related activities lead to the physical, chemical or biological pollution of land, air and water; Cooper et al. (2008) indicated that the resulting effect of any loss to biological diversity is an increased threat to the food chain, thereby creating an imbalance in the life of most species and soil formation. Furthermore, tourism activities put scarce natural resources such as water in some areas under severe pressure as tourists tend to be extravagant with their use of water and some activities such as swimming pools and golf courses require more water (Cooper et al. 2008).

Socio-cultural impacts

Tourism also contributes to changes in social conditions that may lead to serious problems in a host community, such as changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective lifestyles, traditional ceremonies or community organisation (Milman & Pizam, 1988). The socio-cultural impacts of tourism are seen through a number of aspects ranging from the arts to the fundamental behaviour of people (Cooper et al. 2008). The social and cultural impacts of tourism are viewed together because of the difficulty in differentiating sociological and cultural impacts as they overlap to a large extent (Cooper et al. 2008).

Tourism development brings changes to a host community which can affect people's habits, daily routines, social lives, beliefs and values (Dogan, 1989). Some of the major negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism include: commodification of culture and traditions, staged authenticity, loss of amenities for residents, neo-colonisation, relocation of traditional settlements, and increase in crime, prostitution, overcrowding, drug abuse, alcoholism, vandalism, and breaking up of traditional family structures (Mbaiwa, 2005; Shaw & Williams, 2002). Some of the positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism include: improving quality of life; increasing the availability of recreational facilities; improving quality of public social services such as fire and police protection; improving understanding of other cultures; preserving cultural heritage; and promoting cultural exchange (Ap & Crompton, 1998; Besculides, Lee, & McCormick, 2002). The economic benefits of tourism which include provision of income and employment improve people's quality of life in a destination (Snyman, 2012; Strickland-Munro & Moore, 2013) can thus also be considered under the umbrella of socio-cultural impacts.

Factors influencing residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development

The tourism impacts as perceived by local residents that influence their attitudes to tourism development in a destination. It is argued that the speed, size and concentration of tourism development are important influencing factors on the magnitude and direction of social and cultural impacts of tourism (Cooper et al. 2008). Pizam (1978) also confirmed that heavy concentration of tourists in a destination area leads to negative residents attitudes and that the nature of the host – guest relationships also influence socio-cultural impacts of tourism. In studying the residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development, many scholars have considered a number of factors that influence residents' perceptions and attitudes (Lai & Nepal, 2006; Lepp, 2008; Milman & Pizam 1988). Common socio-demographic factors include gender, level of education, level of income and age (Abdollahzadeh & Sharifzadeh, 2014). Other factors include distance from the main concentrations of tourists, economic dependency on the tourism industry, community attachment, perceived benefits, the scale of the tourism industry in the region, characteristics of host communities, the type of tourists the region attracts and the nature of interactions between tourists and residents (Butler, 1974; Gurosy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002; Madrigal 1993; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Milman & Pizam 1988; Nicholas et al. 2009; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). Studies have revealed one or more of these factors influence the perceptions and attitudes residents have towards tourism development. Some studies have found positive correlation, some negative, while other studies have found no significant correlation between one or more of these factors and residents perceptions towards tourism development. This paper therefore focuses on how one demographic factor; gender, as well as economic dependency and proximity to tourist destinations influence residents' attitudes and perceptions toward tourism development in a developing country.

Theories and Frameworks for measuring residents' attitudes towards tourism development

A number of approaches have been developed as frameworks for understanding residents' reactions to tourism (Dorcheh & Mohamed, 2013; Hernandez & Cohen, 1996). The theories and frameworks include those developed by Doxey (1976), thus the Doxey's Irritation Index, Butler's (1980) theory of tourism life cycle, Dogan's (1989) host response to tourism development, the social exchange theory application to tourist – host encounters by Ap (1992) and the host response to tourism activity developed by Ap and Crompton (1993).

Doxey's (1976) Tourist Irritation Index

Doxey (1976) developed the tourist irritation index, a framework which is also known as Doxey's Irritation Index or Doxey's Irridex (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). The framework was proposed in the mid-1970s when there was growing concern about both the potential and the real negative impacts of tourism and it indicates that as the number of tourists increased, a greater hostility from locals would emerge (Mason 2008). Doxey's Irridex is dependent on the value system of a destination and indicates that the responses of residents in different destinations will be different and the responses change in a predictable sequence comparable to that of the tourism area life cycle (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). The framework indicates that tourist destinations get successively through stages of euphoria, apathy, irritation, antagonism and to the final stage (Cooper et al. 2008).

At euphoria stage, residents are enthusiastic and thrilled by tourism development and tourists are welcome while at the apathy level, tourists are taken for granted as the industry expands and contact between the hosts and the tourists becomes more formal as there is an emphasis to profit making (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). The irritation level occurs when the industry gets closer to saturation point and locals cannot handle tourist numbers without expansion of facilities while antagonism level is reached when residents' irritation is more overt and tourists are seen as those who have brought bad things to the community (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). At the final stage, residents have forgotten what they cherished and their environment is destroyed and the social impact is comprehensive hence tourists move to different destinations (Copper *et al*, 2008; Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

Doxey's Irridex model is useful in exploring the reaction of local residents to increasing tourism development pressures (Shaw & Williams, 2002). Although Doxey's framework gives some understanding to residents' perceptions, Wall and Mathieson (2006) argued that the framework is applied to the prevailing mood of a resort in its entirety ignoring groups and individuals within a single resort. The framework treats a local community as a homogeneous entity along a single perceptual trajectory and in real life; a community has an array of reactions to tourism at any given stage of development (Weaver & Lawton, 2006). The inevitability of the sequence of residents' attitudes moving from positive to negative has also been questioned as the opposite can also be a possibility (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Mason (2008) also argued that the framework implied that destinations may not have the ability to grow without check and the whole framework was only based on conjecture at a time when researchers were considering the negative and positive impacts of tourism. The framework is also criticised for its assumption of a reactive rather than a proactive community response (Weaver & Lawton, 2006) because communities implement official and unofficial measures to cope with tourism development, pre-empting antagonism responses. Hernandez and Cohen (1996) also criticised the Irridex model for not including a pre-development phase such that it is only concerned with tourism developments which grow slowly excluding the more instant resorts.

Butler's (1980) theory of tourism life cycle

The other theory used in understanding residents' reactions and attitudes to tourism development is Butler's theory of tourism life cycle. Butler (1980) suggested that tourist destinations develop and change overtime and evolve through a six or seven stage process: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, decline and rejuvenation stages.

Exploration is the first stage in the development of a destination and is characterised by small numbers of visitors who are mostly independent or other explorer type tourists who are well received by the local residents (Sharpley, 1999). At the involvement stage, visitor numbers increase and local residents start providing facilities and accommodation signifying a commercial host-guest encounter but maintaining a harmonious relationship (Sharpley, 1999). Sharpley (1999) further stated that at the development stage, when unknown destinations transform into fully-fledged resorts, local communities are marginalised as tourism is dominated by external interests. From the development stage, the destination gets into the consolidation stage as the destination loses its exclusive and unique selling points and the tourism businesses become more concerned with cost controls (Sharpley, 1999). Mason (2008) indicated that after consolidation, the destination could stagnate, thus there is no increase or decrease in tourist numbers as no new tourists are attracted and thereafter the destination could either decline or rejuvenate. Butler's model has been identified as one of the most significant paradigms in examining tourism development process (Karplus & Krakover, 2005). Butler's theory of tourism destination life cycle shows dynamism as resorts do change overtime (Mason, 2008) but it is criticised in the same way as Doxey's Irridex model for granting attitude and community reactions to tourism development a degree of homogeneity which has been questioned by many researchers who have reported diversity of residents attitudes heterogeneity of community responses (Ap & Crompton, 1993; Broughman & Butler, 1981; Husbands, 1989).

Social exchange theory

Ap (1992) indicated that social exchange theory can be used as an appropriate framework in order to understand residents' perceptions on tourism. Social exchange theory has been the most instrumental framework in investigating residents' perceptions towards tourism development as it allows for the capturing of different views based on experiential and psychological outcomes (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo & Alders, 2013). Sutton (1967 in Ap, 1992) recognised exchange as a social characteristic outlining the social interactions of travel between hosts and guests. These interactions either provide an opportunity for rewarding and satisfying exchanges or may stimulate exploitation on the part of the host and suspicion and resentment on the part of the tourist (Sutton 1967 in Ap, 1992). Ap (1992) indicated that residents evaluate tourism in terms of social exchange; that is expected benefits or costs in return for the services supplied. Residents who find the exchange beneficial have positive reactions to tourism development while those who regard the exchange as problematic will oppose tourism development (Abdollahzadeh & Sharifzadeh, 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011).

Ap (1992) observed that at the collective level, it is possible to have subgroups which do not share the views of others, for example; business people, government officials and residents may have different opinions on an issue on tourism development. Thomason, Crompton and Kamp (1979) showed that perceptions of tourism impacts vary significantly among different groups and further Brougham and Butler (1981) also found out that residents attitudes on tourism impacts varied according to locational and personal characteristics. This makes the social exchange theory limited at collective level hence there is need to identify the relevant subgroups as residents perceptions vary with the level of rewards obtained from tourism (Ap, 1992). The social exchange paradigm provides a useful theoretical framework which accounts for both negative and positive impacts of tourism through the propositions pertaining to the antecedents of the exchange relation. Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) state that the three main elements of the exchange process are sociocultural, economic and environmental benefits/costs. Sharpley (1999) further argued that in order to sustain the tourist-host encounter, the exchange should be reciprocal and roughly equivalent so that no party should feel being exploited.

Dogan's (1989) host response to tourism development

The other framework was developed by Dogan (1989) on host responses to tourism development. Dogan (1989) indicated that the strategies developed by residents to cope with the effects of international tourism include: resistance, retreatism, boundary maintenance, revitalisation and adoption. On resistance, Dogan (1989) suggested that tourism development can lead to widespread enmities and aggression against tourists such that local residents who are not given the opportunity to utilise the tourist facilities and whose interests are negatively affected usually develop feelings of resentment towards tourism and tourists. Differences in dressing styles, speech and behaviour can also increase tensions between tourists and the local residents

(Dogan, 1989). Dogan (1989) further indicated that when tourism brings changes not approved by local residents, their reactions can take a form of closing into itself avoiding contact with outsiders. This is what was termed retreatism as local residents are not involved in any active resistance towards tourism. Boundary maintenance occurs when a community accepts tourism after getting economic benefits without any resistance and this is achieved by setting a well-defined boundary between foreign and local cultures (Dogan, 1989). In this case local traditions are presented to tourists in a different context to minimise any foreign influence (Dogan, 1989). On revitalisation, Dogan (1989) indicated that tourism can be a factor in the preservation of traditional culture as tourism brings an opportunity to show such resources to others. Blomstrom (1978 in Dogan, 1989) gave an example of Panama where schools were opened to develop traditional arts and to train artists as a result of tourism. Adoption happens when a host society displays an active effort for the demolishment of their traditional social structure by adopting western culture symbolised by tourism (Dogan, 1989). In Dogan's (1989) framework, the power structure and heterogeneity levels of local residents determine responses to tourism but in some areas the power structure can regulate the responses by suppressing certain forms of reactions to tourism. In the framework, revitalisation does not represent a distinct strategy of host residents' response to tourists but it may be a tactic coexisting with either boundary maintenance or adoption.

Ap and Crompton (1993) host response to tourism activity

The framework on the host response to tourism activity developed by Ap and Crompton (1993) focuses upon individual residents, their adaptations and adjustments; and four types of response were identified: embracement, tolerance, adjustment and withdrawal. Embracement involves enthusiastic welcoming of tourists while tolerance occurs when residents are prepared to accept the inconveniences of tourism, cognisant of its benefits to the community (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). Adjustment occurs when residents change their behaviours to avoid the inconveniences caused by visitors by rescheduling activities or using different facilities to avoid the presence of tourists while withdrawal is the physical moving out or psychological movement by staying silent and not getting involved with tourists (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). Ap and Crompton (1993) framework is not prescriptive as it incorporates diversity of reactions to tourism activity in a community and the four strategies can be adopted concurrently and overtime residents can shift from one strategy to another in any direction. Most studies confirm the adjustment response by residents as they usually reorganise their daily routines to avoid tourism areas and this is usually reflected in shopping patterns, travel activities and recreational behaviours where local residents avoid congestion and interaction with tourists (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). The segmentation approach is also proposed by Liu and Var (1986) and Pearce (1998) but the sequential process of the model is questioned. Brown and Giles (1994) also found limited support for the embracement condition in Ap and Crompton Framework in their research.

METHODOLOGY

The data on the residents' attitudes and perceptions on tourism development were collected using a questionnaire survey. The sample size for the study was 200 but 196 questionnaires were administered. In the tourist zone which comprised Maldeco and Cape Maclear areas, 99 questionnaires were administered while in the area outside the tourist area around Mtakataka Road turn off area, 97 questionnaires were administered. Due to lack of reliable sampling frame for the households in the study area, the quasi-random sampling method was used. In quasi-random sampling, the first item is selected at random and the subsequent selections are systematically related to the first (Clark, Riley, Wilkie & Wood, 1998). After the random selection of the first household, the questionnaires were being administered at every seventh household in the study area. The villages in which this research was carried out have a population of about 5, 939 and according to the National Statistics Office (2008) the average household size for Mangochi district as a whole is at 4.3 therefore households in villages under study were estimated at 1, 381 hence the questionnaires were being administered at every 7th household. Clark et al. (1998) indicated that the systematic selection in the quasi-random sampling gives an unbiased sample for a research project.

The data was then analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). In the analysis, the author used a combination of frequencies, crosstabs, means, standard deviations and t-tests in reporting the results. Independent sample t - tests were used to test factors that influence residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development. These relationships included:

- Residents' perceptions on effects of tourism development vary with distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists
- Residents employed or dependent on tourism are more favourable towards tourism
- Residents' perceptions towards tourism development vary with gender

Out of all the respondents, 133 were male representing 67.9% and 63 were female representing 32.1%. Most of the respondents in this research were aged between 25 and 34 representing 42.86% of all the respondents as shown in Table 1 and those above 65 years were the least.

Table 1: Age of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent
15-24	60	30.61
25-34	84	42.86
35-44	23	11.73
45-54	17	8.67
55-64	10	5.10
65+	2	1.02
Total	**196**	**100.00**

The local residents in the study area have low levels of education as 70.41% of the respondents had only gone as far as primary school with their education, 27.04 had finished secondary school education and only 2.55% of the respondents had college qualifications. According to Mangochi District Assembly (2009), the low education levels in the district are attributed to high dropout rates in primary schools and the reasons for these high dropout rates include early marriages, juvenile employment, long distances to school, lack of interest, initiation ceremonies conflicting with school calendar, fishing and engagement in business ventures. In this research, 42.9% of the respondents work or one of their family members works in the tourism industry while 57.1% of the respondents do not economically depend on tourism.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Residents' perceptions towards tourism development and the presence of tourists

The respondents were asked to rank their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism development and the presence of tourists in the study area. The ranking was on a Likert scale of 1 – 5, where 1 = strongly oppose, 2 = Oppose somewhat, 3 = neither oppose nor favour, 4 = Favour somewhat and 5 = strongly favour. As shown in Table 2, 56.1% of all the respondents of which 32.7% are from inside the tourist area and 23.5% are from outside the tourist area strongly favour tourism development in the study area. Only 6.1% of all the respondents strongly oppose tourism development in the area. This shows that over half of the respondents from both inside the tourist area and outside the tourist area support tourism development.

Table 2: Residents' Perception on Tourism Development

	Inside the tourist zone or area	**Outside the tourist zone or area**	**Total**
Strongly Oppose	5 (2.6%)	7 (3.6%)	12 (6.1%)
Oppose somewhat	5 (2.6%)	7 (3.6%)	12 (6.1%)
Neither oppose nor favour	11 (5.6%)	16 (8.2%)	27 (13.8%)
Favour somewhat	14 (7.1%)	21 (10.7%)	35 (17.9%)
Strongly favour	64 (32.7%)	46 (23.5%)	110 (56.1%)
Total	99 (50.5%)	97 (49.5%)	196 (100.0%)

Belisle and Hoy (1980) indicated that residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development vary with distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists. An independent sample t - test was used to test this relationship and the results are shown in Table 3.

H_0: Residents' perceptions towards tourism development is not varied with distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists

H_1: Residents' perceptions towards tourism development is varied with distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists

Table 3: Independent Samples t – test: Residents' perception towards tourism development vary with distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances							95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
How do you feel about tourism development in your area?									
Equal variances assumed	0.821	0.366	1.932	194	0.055	0.334	0.173	-0.007	0.676
Equal variances not assumed			1.93	191.954	0.055	0.334	0.173	-0.007	0.676

The results shown in Table 3 indicate that $t = 1.932$ and $p = 0.055$. Since the $p > 0.05$, hence, the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted. Therefore, the resident's perception towards tourism development is not varied with the distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists, confirming findings by Weaver and Lawton (2001) whose study gave no significant results in relation to this variable. This means that people living inside or near tourism areas have the same perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development in Mangochi as those who live outside tourism areas. This result contradicts findings of Belisle and Hoy (1980) who indicated that residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development vary with distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists after carrying out a study in Santa Marta, Columbia. Similarly, Sheldon and Var (1984), Jurowski and Gursoy (2004), and Haley, Snaith, and Miller (2005) found that the distance between the resident's home and the tourism centre influence perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development. However, it should be noted that a study in Florida by Davis *et al* (1988) found out that place of living and other demographic characteristics did not explain the attitudes of residents towards tourism. In the case of Mangochi residents' perceptions, it should be noted that tourism is still in its development stage in the destination and it is the major economic activity in the study area and most of the infrastructure development projects undertaken are justified through tourism as they are meant to service the tourism industry.

Residents' perceptions according to economic dependency on the tourism industry

Madrigal (1993) indicated that those who worked in the tourism industry would have more positive attitudes towards tourism. The results in Table 4 show that 56.1% of all the respondents of which 28.1% each from both groups (those working or with a family member working in the tourism industry and those who were not) strongly favour tourism development in the study area. Only 6.1% of all the respondents of which 3.6% worked or had a family member working in the tourism industry and 2.6% do not work nor had no family member working in the tourism industry, strongly opposed tourism development. As the results show, more than half of all the respondents favour tourism development in Mangochi.

Table 4: Residents' Perception on Tourism Development according to Economic Dependency on the Tourism Industry

	Do you or any member of your family work in the tourism industry or any business related to tourism?		
	Yes	**No**	**Total**
Strongly Oppose	7 (3.6%)	5 (2.6%)	12 (6.1%)
Oppose somewhat	4 (2.0%)	8 (4.1%)	12 (6.1%)
Neither oppose nor favour	8 (4.1%)	19 (9.7%)	27 (13.8%)
Favour somewhat	10 (5.1%)	25 (12.8%)	35 (17.9%)
Strongly favour	55 (28.1%)	55 (28.1%)	110 (56.1%)
Total	84 (42.9%)	112 (57.1%)	196 (100.0%)

An Independent Sample t – test was used to test the relationship that residents employed or dependent on tourism are more favourable to tourism development (Milman and Pizam, 1988) and the results are shown in Table 5.

H_0: Residents' perceptions towards tourism development is not varied by economic dependency on the tourism industry

H_1: Residents' perceptions towards tourism development is varied by economic dependency on the tourism industry

Table 5: Independent Samples t – test: Residents' perception towards tourism development vary with economic dependency on the tourism industry

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
How do you feel about tourism development in your area?									
Equal variances assumed	0.754	0.386	0.963	194	0.337	0.170	0.176	-0.178	0.517
Equal variances not assumed			0.949	168.5	0.344	0.170	0.179	-0.183	0.522

The results shown in Table 5 indicate that $t = 0.963$ and $p = 0.337$. Since the $p > 0.05$, hence, the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted. Therefore, the resident's perception towards tourism development is not varied by economic dependency on the tourism industry. This also means that people working or have family members working in the tourism industry have the same perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development in Mangochi as those people who do not work or have no family member working in the tourism industry. This result contradicts Milman and Pizam (1988), who indicated that residents employed or dependent on tourism are more favourable towards tourism. Additionally, from the economic view point, many other studies found that residents who are economically dependant on the tourism industry for instance through employment, investments in local businesses tend to have more positive perceptions of tourism than others (Almeida-García, Peláez-Fernández, Balbuena-Vazquez & Cortes-Macias, 2016; Andereck et al. 2005; Bestard & Nadal, 2007; Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Hanafiah, Jamaluddin

& Zulkifly, 2013; Kuvan & Akan, 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010; Pham, 2012; Sirakaya, et al, 2002). Nevertheless, findings of this study are in contrast with the social exchange theory which has been used to assess the relationship between tourism dependency and attitudes toward tourism in the studies of Ap (1992), Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal (2002), Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) and Gursoy and Rutherford (2004). Interestingly, Teye, Sirakaya, and Sönmez, (2002) question the direct relationship between tourism dependency and a positive attitude towards it. Their study conducted in Ghana found that the residents that work in tourism related businesses bear negative attitudes towards the sector. It should be noted that while Brougham and Butler (1981) and Dogan (1989) supported that those economically dependent on tourism would have more positive attitudes towards tourism, Liu and Var (1986) found no difference between the two groups. The fact that tourism is the major economic activity in the study area would probably explain this finding as tourism has stimulated the local economy in the area hence most of the infrastructure and facilities brought into the area due to tourism are enjoyed by all local residents.

Residents' perceptions towards tourism development depending on Gender

According to Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996), though tourism development opens opportunities for women in a community, the results of their study indicated that male and female respondents did not have any statistically different opinions towards tourism development. The results in Table 6 show both male and female respondents support tourism development in the study area.

Table 6: Residents' Perceptions towards Tourism Development Depending on Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
How do you feel about tourism development in your area?	Female	63	4.17	1.199	0.151
	Male	133	4.09	1.234	0.107

An independent samples t – test was carried on the residents' perceptions towards tourism development depending on gender and the results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Independent Samples t – test: Residents' perception towards tourism development depending on Gender

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
How do you feel about tourism development in your area?									
Equal variances assumed	0.072	0.789	0.451	194	0.652	0.084	0.187	-0.284	0.453
Equal variances not assumed			0.456	125.048	0.649	0.084	0.185	-0.282	0.451

The results show that $t = 0.451$ and $p = 0.652$. Since the $p > 0.05$, it means that there is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of both male and female respondents towards tourism development in Mangochi. Studies by Davis et al. (1988), Ryan and Montgomery (1994), and Ribeiro, Valle, & Silva (2013) also found no effects of gender on residents' perceptions of tourism. This shows how the local residents highly value tourism as an economic activity in the area and this result is consistent with the findings of Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).

Other studies found a significant relationship between gender and perceptions toward tourism development. For instance, Abdollahzadeh and Sharifzadeh (2014) found that women are more positive about tourism development and this is attributed to their high chances of being employed in service positions in the tourism industry as compared to men. On the other hand, Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012) assert that gender is a good predictor of both positive and negative attitudes towards tourism. Their study concludes that the women were more likely to perceive the negative impacts of tourism and, therefore, support the tourism industry less than men. Similarly, Mason and Cheyne (2000) found that women opposed tourism development more due to the negative impacts it brings such as crime and traffic. Pham and Kayat (2011) also found that males are more supportive of tourism development than females. However, Ritchie (1988) concludes that despite some differences in perceptions between women and men, there are a great number of common elements between both sexes.

Tourism impacts on quality of life

One of the objectives of this study was to understand residents' perceptions on the impact of tourism on quality of life at personal and community levels. The respondents were asked to rank their perception on the impact of tourism on their personal quality of life and on the impact of tourism on the quality of life of the whole community. A Likert scale of 1 – 5 was used where 1 = significantly worsened, 2 = Worsened somewhat, 3 = No difference, 4 = Improved somewhat and 5 = significantly improved.

Table 8: Tourism impacts on Quality of Life

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Has tourism improved your personal quality of life?	196	1	5	4.31	0.970
Has tourism improved the quality of life of the local community?	196	2	5	4.49	0.705

The results shown in Table 8 indicate that tourism development in the study area has significantly improved personal quality of life of residents (Mean = 4.31) and also significantly improved the quality of life of the local community as a whole (Mean = 4.49). Though the means indicate that tourism has significantly improved the quality of life at both personal and community levels, a One Sample t – test was conducted to find out if there is any statistically significant difference in the two means and the results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: One Sample t – test on impact of tourism on quality of life at personal and community levels

	Test Value = 4.49					
	t	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**95% Confidence Interval of the Difference**	
					Lower	**Upper**
Has tourism improved your personal quality of life?	-2.653	195	0.009	-0.184	-0.32	-0.05

The results of the One Sample t – test on the impact of tourism on quality of life at personal and community levels show that $t = -2.653$, $p = 0.009$. Since $p<0.05$, it means that the difference between the two means is statistically significant at 95% confidence interval such that the level of tourism impact is higher for the community than for residents' personal quality of life. This result shows that the community is heterogeneous such that though quality of life of the community as whole improves as a result of tourism development there are also other people within the community who do not perceive any effect on them personally.

On community benefits, Andereck et al. (2005) explain that stakeholders' attitudes toward tourism in their communities will be influenced by their evaluations of the actual and perceived outcomes tourism has in the communities. Furthermore, Lindberg, Dellaert and Rassing (1999) indicate that residents are prepared to put up with the negative impact on the individual for the collective community benefits of tourism. As indicated by Wall (1983), Wiiliams and Lawson (2001) and Andriotis (2004), it should be noted that those affected by the tourism industry cannot be homogeneous in their reactions to tourism. Findings of this study are in line with Andereck and Vogt (2000), Moyle, Croy and Weiler (2010) and Muresan et al. (2016) who found that tourism development improves local residents' quality of life due to its impacts on economic development of the area.

CONCLUSION

In general, the local residents in Mangochi support tourism development and the presence of tourists in their area. Although, it is argued that residents' perceptions and attitudes vary with distance they live from the main concentrations of tourists (Belisle & Hoy 1980); local residents in Mangochi, both those inside a tourist area and outside have the same perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development and the presence of tourists. The residents' perceptions towards tourism development are also not varied by economic dependency on the tourism industry. This finding however, contradicts Ross (1998) and Milman & Pizam (1988) who indicate that people who own or operate tourism businesses and those working in the businesses are more likely to have prominent and positive attitudes to tourism than those who have no direct involvement or perceive that they derive no benefit from tourism. Further, this finding is in contrast with the social exchange theory which states that positive perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development will emerge as a result of benefits perceived from tourism development and vice versa. Additionally, the study revealed that gender does not have any significant impact on how residents perceive tourism development.

Improvement of quality of life of people is one of the benefits of tourism (Pizam 1978; Inskeep 1991). This study confirms that tourism improves quality of life of residents in host communities but on different levels considering the impact at a community as a whole and at personal level. The study found that the level of impact is slightly higher for the community than for personal quality of life meaning that communities are heterogeneous such that though quality of life of the host community improves as a result of tourism development there are also other people within the community who do not perceive any effect on them personally.

According to Lee (2013), tourism development contributes to various economic, socio-cultural and environmental changes on the host community's life, some of which are more beneficial than others. The results have indicated that residents have positive perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development, however, there are implications for tourism planners and developers. The development of sustainable tourism requires that residents be considered as important stakeholders who must be involved in tourism development for instance in the decision making process, rather than being treated as customers who need to be convinced to endorse tourism. Therefore, extensive consultation, participation and support of local communities are imperative for the sustainability of the tourism industry at any destination (Laing, Lee, Moore, Wegner, & Weiler, 2009; Pham, 2012). Understanding the residents' perspective can facilitate policies which minimize the potential negative impacts of tourism development and maximize its benefits, leading to community development and greater support for tourism.

Even though the findings indicate more favourable perceptions towards tourism development, there is a still a small percentage of residents who have negative perceptions towards the development of tourism, therefore, tourism planners and businesses have to engage in educative and internal marketing programs to help residents understand the positive and negative impacts of tourism and develop more favourable perceptions and attitudes. Further, they should ensure that negative impacts of tourism on the economy, society and environment are minimised or mitigated while at the same time enhance positive impacts (Prayag, et al. 2013). This can be achieved through monitoring residents' attitudes towards tourism development (Prayag et al, 2013; Stylidis, Biran & Szivas, 2014; Vargas, Plaza & Porras, 2011), even better before the actual development of tourism (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Pham, 2012).

This study was limited in several ways which provide opportunities for further research. The study was conducted in only two areas in Mangochi selected using quasi sampling therefore they do not represent other tourism areas at similar development stages. Further studies would be conducted using stratified random sampling so that other similar destinations can be well represented. Additionally, the same study could be conducted in other communities with different levels of tourism and economic development. Secondly, according to Butler's model of tourist area life cycle, and Doxey's irridex model, residents' attitudes vary according to different developmental stages of tourism. This study was conducted during a single stage of tourism development therefore the findings may not be a true reflection of residents' attitudes during other important stages of tourism development. On the same note, Zhou and Ap (2009) indicate that residents and host communities may differ in development experiences and stages. Therefore, longitudinal studies could be conducted to examine residents' attitudes toward tourism development at different stages of the tourism development cycle to compare the changes overtime (Stylidis et al. 2014). Thirdly, this study only examined three factors that influence residents' attitudes and perceptions, thus other researchers should consider other factors like community involvement, community attachments, level of tourism development, nature of host-guest interaction; as well as other demographic factors like age, income levels and education levels. Finally, this study exclusively employed quantitative methods which only tested the relationships among variables that influence residents' attitudes and perceptions towards tourism. The quantitative approach describes what residents perceive but is limited in terms of explaining reasons behind the perceptions (Sharpley, 2014). Thus, further studies employing a qualitative analysis would be useful to strengthen the explanations provided, for instance through in-depth interviews (Deery, Jago & Fredline, 2012).

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The study of health tourism in Hungary within the framework of GIS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the study is to examine the baths of Hungary with respect to Budapest and the 19 counties of Hungary. The analysis reveals the regional differences and with the uses of GIS and privately made maps, it depicts the changes between 2010 and 2017. The study extends to the categorization of the types of baths (medicinal, thermal, adventure spas). It states that the most medicinal and thermal spas are situated in the North-Plain (Észak-Alföld) area, while the most adventure spas are created in Transdanubia (Dunántúl). Within the examined period of time, the number of spas doubled. When studying baths, the opening hours, which influences the opportunity of the optimization of the guest turnover and the revenue, is a crucial point.

Key Words: health tourism, types of bath, guest turnover of bath, GIS, the county-wide distribution of bath

INTRODUCTION

The definition of health tourism has not been defined with a universally accepted definition for the concept. However, in 1973, The International Union of Tourism Organizations (IUTO) announced that health tourism is “the exploitation of medical facilities using the country’s natural forces, especially medicinal waters and the features of the climate.“ (Smith and Puczkó, 2010, p.19.) So, while there may not be a universally accepted definition of what it is, there is some indication it is a growing sector of the tourism economy.

In the 21st century, the typical areas of health tourism have expanded. When hearing the expression “health tourism,” people traditionally associated with medicinal places built on natural medical factors and services (medicinal baths, sanatorium). The understanding of this idea today has two dimensions. On one hand, it is not only about healing, but also the protection of health and offers recreation that sends people to health centers and wellness hotels. On the other hand, the present centers of health tourism are based on concentrations of medical technology and knowledge, therefore the medical services have become a fast developing business (medical tourism). No wonder, both the notion and the content of health tourism has totally changed (Kincses, 2010) in recent years. Consequently, there are two sub-sectors within health tourism: medicinal tourism and wellness tourism (Balog et al., 2007).

In Hungary, the Széchenyi Terv (Plan) initiated the introduction of a health tourism product to the market in the second half of the year 2000 (Boros et al., 2011). The beginnings of regional development and management of medicinal and thermal tourism in Hungary dates back to 2001. Significant state-sponsored improvements were launched due to increasing competition for tourists in the thermal tourism market (Aubert – Miszler 2004).

A significant contribution was made by the Hungarian Tourism Ltd, which declared 2003 the Year of Health Tourism, and the year 2008, the Year of Waters. Since then, Hungarian Tourism Ltd. Has invested a great deal of time and effort into focusing on the popularization of health tourism. This institutional support and energy has led to the implementation of innovations and the related changes and developments in health tourism (Boros et al., 2011).

The time limit of the Hungarian National Tourism Development Strategy (NTS) accepted in 2005 was 2013, it was adjusted to the EU budgetary period, and was the first step of the tourism development strategy for the planning period of between 2014 and 2020. According to the vision of the concept set by the strategy, Hungary is poised to be the most popular medicinal tourism destination of Europe in 2020. The Ministry of National Economy would like to perform the building and development of 3-5 international renowned complex medicinal places and 8-10 regional medicinal baths (Horváth, 2013).

The target countries and the sender countries are interrelated with each other in an orderly way. Hungary largely caters to guests from western European. Other countries also have cultural and historical ties with their tourists. For example, the UK has been nurturing a fruitful touristic relationship with Malta and Cyprus, as her roots were set there in the past (Muscat et al., 2006). However, the closeness of the destination is not always the decisive factor in the travel decision of tourist, especially when a medical treatment is needed (Exworthy and Peckham, 2006).

Like the choice of location of the destination, the service requirements can equally seem to be lacking any system (MacReady, 2007, Gray and Poland, 2008). We must take into consideration the volatile market forces, and the changes in the consumer's interest. The existing providers together with the national government are under constant challenge (Smith et al., 2010). Moreover, there are numerous platforms that promote health facilities worldwide including brokers, fairs, and several internet sites in order to cater for emerging needs on the tourism market. What makes consumers contemplate their choices and seek alternatives are the fluctuation of exchange rates, some legal constraints on travel, and certain concerns about the security of the destination. Another concern is the decision by tourism experts is whether health tourism is a luxury or not. In this case, tourists spend relatively more money on medical treatments as a result of their increase in their salaries, but, having said that, the demand may decrease immediately if the incomes become lower, leaving a medical facility deprived. Nevertheless, if the source country's public health care sector limits the number of cheap or state financed services, people might be forced to look for medical treatment in another country where the waiting lists are dependent on money possessed by the patient and needs are catered for regardless of different medical criteria. (Lunt et al. 2011).

There are destinations with labelled marketing like Singapore as being a Biomedical city with biomedical and biotechnological activities (Cyranoski, 2001). The Dubai Health Centre also prides itself on high quality medical service (Connell, 2006). Also, Hungary is the center of dental tourism with its widely marketed reasonable –priced facilities (Terry, 2007).

Situation of baths in Hungary

In the health tourism Hungary offers, the international market, health spas and thermal waters deserve special attention. Among countries so endowed, Hungary is the fifth country in the order of the countries the richest in thermal waters after Japan, Iceland, Italy and France (Papp and Kovacsics, 2008). Hungary enjoys a special advantage over the other countries because while Japan and Iceland have high-temperature but low mineral content waters and Italy and France mainly possess high mineral content but low-temperature waters, Hungary has waters that are both high in mineral content and temperature. Due to its hydrogeological conditions, the four-fifths of Hungary is specifically blessed with mineral and thermal waters. There are only few areas in Hungary in which one cannot find thermal waters. There are more than a thousand thermal wells with waters warmer than 30 º C (Balog et al., 2007). According to the State Healthcare and Chief Medical Offices Service's registry Hungary possesses the following features: 274 acknowledged mineral waters, 270 acknowledged medicinal waters, 98 medicinal baths, 31 medicinal places, 5 medicinal caves, 6 natural medicinal clays, 40 medicinal hotels, 2 medicinal gases (ANTSZ.hu, 2019).

Budapest is the only metropolitan area in the world where more than a hundred thermal springs and wells are located. The abundance of medicinal waters of Budapest is unique within an international framework as well (Papp and Kovacsics, 2008). So there is a natural advantage that Budapest has, as a city for a particular type of health tourism.

In summary, we can state that Hungary is endowed with a significant number and quality natural resources by nature; whereas we must see that the health tourism experience can be implemented with innovative solutions, too. Therefore, countries without any medicinal factor (medicinal water, climate) can compete for a market share just by creatively setting up their unique product (Sziva, 2010). Health tourism is nurtured by the roots of bath history (Boros et al., 2011) and Hungary has a lot of that.

After having investigated both the professional and the foreign literature on the topic, the study is searching answers to the following questions: From what aspect can the baths of Hungary be categorized and to what extent did change occur from year 2010 to 2017? One of the ways to increase guest turnover is the lengthening of the opening hours. Therefore, the question is asked what changed to make major changes within the examined seven-year period. The examination covers both the amount and the composition of the change.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, I am examining the trends of the formation of baths with reference to the years of 2010 and 2017 dividing Hungary into counties and using the GIS. The GIS facilitates the integration of special information made up through linking different data collections (e.g. statistical data referring to settlements) (Pődör, 2010). Changes within the given time interval are illustrated by maps made by the author. The first part of the study analyses the formation of the different types of baths (medicinal, thermal, adventure baths). After grouping the baths according to their character, the second part of the study compares the permanently and seasonally open baths focusing on the aspect of the opening hours. The opening hours is a remarkable influencing factor in the case of guest turnover numbers. In the third part, the map illustrates the formation of the guest turnover.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Basic pattern

In the study, the data are both presented in the county and the tourism area breakdown, which are depicted as a basic pattern in the Figure 1. and Figure 2.

Figure 1: Counties
Source: https://hu.wikipedia.org/wiki/Magyarorsz%C3%A1g_megy%C3%A9i, 2019

Figure 2: The touristic regions of Hungary
Source: http://www.logsped.hu/regiok.htm, 2019

In the course of the joining the European Union, a hierarchical regional coverage system had to be devised which correlates with the Union's system, i.e. the NUTS' (Nomenclature des Territorials Statistiques) requirements.

The term and area of the seven planning statistical regions are formed as follows:
Central Hungary (Közép-Magyarország): Budapest and Pest county,
Central Transdanubia (Közép-Dunántúl): Fejér, Komárom-Esztergom and Veszprém county,
West Transdanubia (Nyugat-Dunántúl): Győr-Moson-Sopron, Vas and Zala county,
South Transdanubia (Dél-Dunántúl): Baranya, Somogy and Tolna county,
North Hungary (Észak-Magyarország): Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén, Heves and Nógrád county,
North Alföld (Észak-Alföld): Hajdú-Bihar, Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok and Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg county
South Alföld (Dél-Alföld): Bács-Kiskun, Békés and Csongrád county.

The grouping of baths
According to the types of baths
According to the branches developing within the framework of the previously described areas of health tourism, baths can also be categorized into different groups: medicinal, thermal, and adventure spas. According to the valid legal regulation, a thermal water is any water found in nature whose temperature at the place where it reaches the surface is above 30°C. Mineral water is any water found in nature whose dissolved mineral content is more than 1000 mg per litre

or in some cases when it has between 500 and 1000 mg of it, it owns more than the threshold level of some biologically active substances legally defined. Rare elements like Fluor or Iodine need to be present in some milligrams in order to make the water qualify. Medicinal water is any water that has medicinal effect supported by medical experiments. To be qualified as medicinal water, it has to undergo many years of examinations (Bender, 2008).
Figure 3. depicts the county distribution of different types of bath within the health tourism offer of Hungary in 2017.

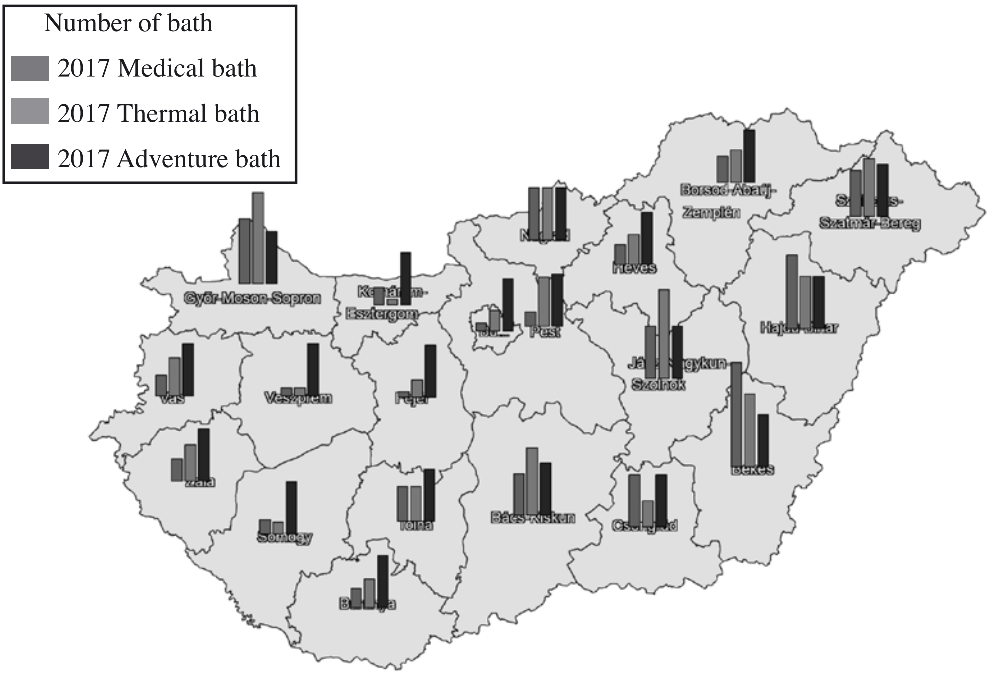

Figure 3: Distribution according to types of baths in 2017
Source: KSH database (www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xstadat/xstadat_eves/i_fur001a.html), private editing

According to the database of KSH in 2017, there are only 103 medicinal baths in Hungary, most of which can be found in the Alföld (Hungarian Plain) area (Northern Alföld-30, Southern Alföld 24). In the Transdanubian region there are 29 waters that are qualified as medicinal bath, most of which springs in the western Transdanubian region (15), it is followed by the Southern Transdanubian area (10) and the Central Transdanubia area with 4 baths. In the northern part of Hungary, there are 10 medicinal baths, and in the Central part of the country 10 can be found as well.

There are 155 thermal baths whose waters spring in Hungary. The Alföld region also has the most of this kind with 63 baths (Northern Alföld 37, Southern Alföld 26). However, there is not as big distributional difference between the areas possessing thermal baths as in the case of medicinal baths. In the Transdanubian area there are 57 thermal baths, from which 32 are located in West Transdanubia, 18 in South Transdanubia, while 7 in Central Transdanubia. Central Hungary precedes North Hungary with one, where there are 18 and 17 thermal baths.

Among the bath types, the number of adventure spas is the highest, 220. Unlike in the previous cases, Transdanubia possesses the most of this kind, 112. In the biggest range, West Transdanubia has the most, 40, South Transdanubia 39, Central Transdanubia 33. This is followed by the Alföld region, (North Alföld 27, South Alföld 22), then comes Northern Hungary (31) and finally Central Hungary with 28 adventure spas.

In summary, Hungary possesses a remarkable amount of natural resources of high quality, but it must be stated that the health tourism experience can be initiated with innovative solutions as well. It is interesting to see how the data of bath types in 2010 and 2017 correlate, as depicted in Table 1.

Table 1: Quantitative changes in the bath types from 2010 to 2017

Year	Types of bath		
	Medical bath	**Thermal bath**	**Adventure spa**
2010	98	104	102
2017	103	155	220

Source: KSH database (www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xstadat/xstadat_eves/i_fur001a.html), private editing

According to the regulations of authorities in Hungary, the category of medicinal bath is the hardest to achieve. Therefore, the smallest quantitative change is supposed to have happened in this area, while the number of adventure spas has more than doubled. The fact that they can be implemented anywhere has contributed to this increase, and also the fact that the wish for adventure by tourists plays an ever-increasing role in the tourism business. It is interesting to note that the adventure spas prevail mostly in the West Transdanubian area of the country, i.e. with a comparatively wealthy population living there.

The grouping of baths according to their character

When we study baths, it is important to know the opening hours, according to which we can differentiate permanently operating and seasonally operating baths. See figure 4.

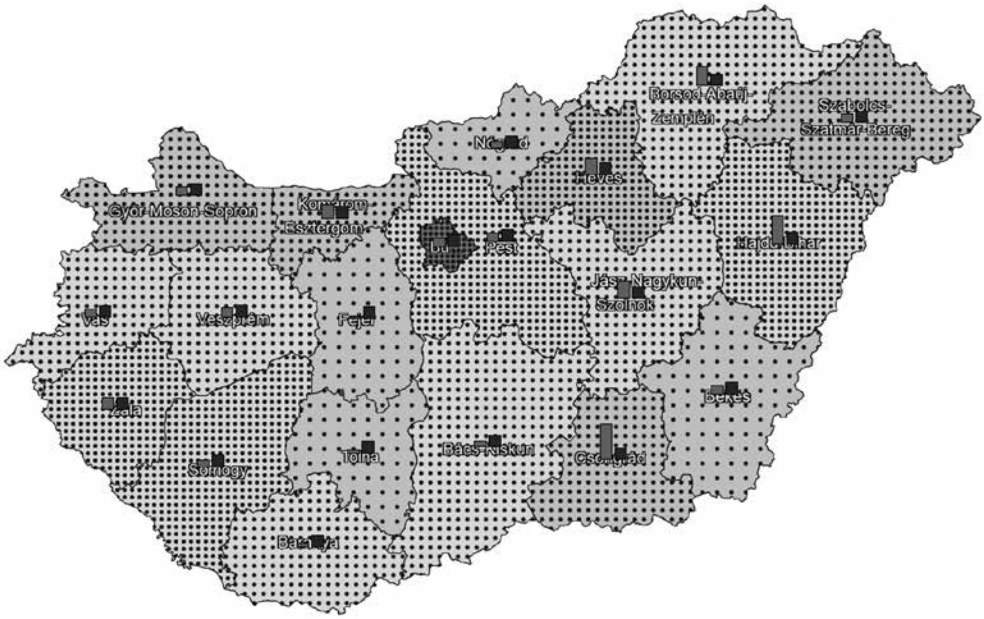

Figure 4. Permanently and seasonally operating baths in 2010 and 2017
Source: KSH database (www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xstadat/xstadat_eves/i_fur001a.html), private editing

Permanently operating bath in 2010 (number)	Column diagram	Permanently operating bath in 2017 (number)
1-10	Seasonally operating bath in 2010	2-12
11-20		13-23
21-30		24-34
31-40	Seasonally operating bath in 2017	35-45
41-50		46-55

In 2010, the number of permanently operating baths was 10 or fewer in Győr-Moson-Sopron, Komárom-Esztergom, Fejér, Tolna, Nógrád, Heves, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg, Békés and Csongrád counties. The number of permanently operating baths was between 11 and 20 in 2010 in Vas, Veszprém, Zala, Somogy, Baranya, Pest, Bács-Kiskun, Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén, Hajdú-Bihar counties. The most permanently operating baths were in Budapest, 49. By 2017 the amount of permanently operating baths increased with 46 %. It is Budapest that still possesses the most permanent baths. There was a decrease in the number of seasonally operating baths in the area of Borsod – Abaúj - Zemplén, Csongrád, Hajdú –Bihar, Heves, Jász – Nagykun – Szolnok counties.

In summary, we can state that while the number of seasonally operating baths was 130 in 2010 and that of the permanently operating ones was double the amount (260), this proportion became impartial in 2017, when the seasonally operating baths' number was 149, and that of permanently operating ones was 380. The reason for this was the increase in turnover by using the facilities all year round. In many baths, due to the developments, covered areas were built, therefore prolonging the seasonality of the bath.

The guest turnover of bath

The type and character of baths largely defines its clientele. Figure 5 depicts the overall guest turnover of counties with reference to years 2010 and 2017.

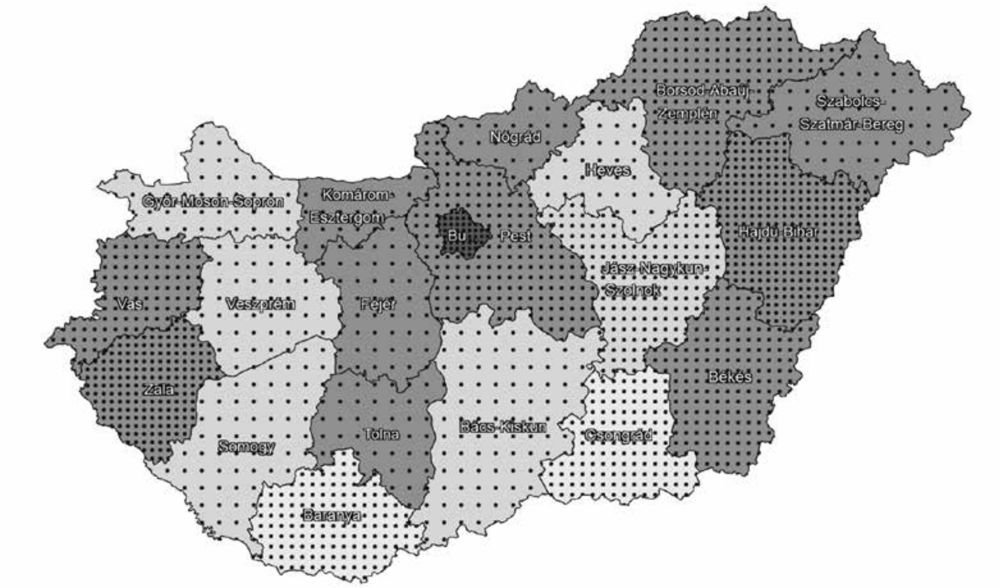

Figure 5. The guest turnover of Baths in 2010 and 2017
Source: KSH database (www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xstadat/xstadat_eves/i_fur001a.html), private editing

The guest turnover of baths in 2017 (number of thousand)	The guest turnover of baths in 2010 (number of thousand)
128 - 1657	70 - 1190
1658 - 3186	1191 - 2310
3187 - 4715	2311 - 3430
4715 - 6244	3431 - 4550
6244 - 7773	4551 - 5670

In 2010, the guest turnover of baths regarding their areas can be put into four categories. Most counties belong to the group where the 70-1190 thousand guest frequent the baths: Győr – Moson – Sopron, Veszprém, Somogy, Komárom – Esztergom, Fejér, Tolna, Bács – Kiskun, Nógrád, Heves, Szabolcs – Szatmár – Bereg counties. This is followed by baths having a 1191 and 2310 thousand guest turnover: Vas, Baranya, Borsod – Abaúj – Zemplén, Jász – Nagykun – Szolnok, Békés, Csongrád és Pest counties. The third category counts 2311-3430 thousand guest turnovers: Hajdú – Bihar and Zala counties, while the biggest turnover is done by Budapest 5670 thousand guest turnovers.

In the year 2017, it is clear in the chart that the smallest ratio in turnover was 128-1657 thousand people. According to the KSH database the highest turnover was registered in Central Hungary (10045 thousand), followed by West Transdanubia (8025 thousand) and North Alföld (6696 thousand). The list was different from 2010, the second and the third place changed. During the investigating period, the guest turnover increased with 40 %, while the number of medical bath almost the same (+ 5,1 %), the number of thermal bath increase with 49 %, and the number of adventure bath more, than doubled. It means that the number of turnover is thanked to the thermal and adventure bath. Comparing the data of the two years, we can state that the leading role of Budapest has not changed. Due to the tremendous marketing work done in the interest of the country image, the historical baths and the role of the capital, there has been significant increases in those visiting thermal baths.

CONCLUSION

Baths can be classed into three categories according to their character: medicinal, thermal, and adventure baths. The findings state that while in 2010 there was hardly any remarkable deviation in the number among the different types, by 2017, there was a huge increase. According to the data of the KSH, in 2010 there were 98 medicinal baths, 104 thermal baths and 102 adventure baths, by 2017 the number of medicinal baths increased to 103, that of thermal baths to 155 and that of the adventure baths 220. All these mean that the biggest change was from those visiting adventure baths, their number more than doubled. There are two reasons behind this change: on one hand, the building of an adventure bath is the easiest due to the simplicity of its water composition, and on the other hand, due to the highest demand for the fun baths among all of these. In contrast, the smallest change occurs in the number of medicinal baths, only a 5 % increase within the 7-year period of examination. The reason for this lies in the difficulty to meet the strict requirements concerning the composition of the water, also in the fact that licensing takes a lot of time. Another reason might be the lack of marketing concerning the advantages and the usefulness, which can serve the interest of medicinal baths by advertising preventative aims.

Examining the territorial coverage, we can state that the number of medicinal baths decreased in Central Transdanubia from 9 to 4 and in Central Hungary from 15 to 10, in the case of all other types the numbers increased in area coverage. In both years the most medicinal and thermal baths were located in the Alföld region, (North Alföld), while the most fun baths were in the

Transdanubian region (West Transdanubia). It is worth mentioning here that the Western Transdanubian region is inhabited by relatively wealthy population, given this fact, the situation was shaped alongside their needs. The opening hours of baths can be both permanent or temporary. The study shows that regarding the opening hours, the number of permanently operating baths increased with 46%, while the number of seasonally open baths increased only with 14,6% from 2010 to 2017. The reason for this is that the permanently open baths can offer longer opening hours for the guests therefore can realize higher incomes. The study aims to categorize the study of baths according to some points. The research brings up new questions, so the author goes on with the research.

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Tourist experience and tourist satisfaction: a case study of Goa Pindul, Yogyakarta

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the relationship between tourist experience, destination image, destination quality, tourist satisfaction, return to visit, and e-wom. This investigation will look into how tourist satisfaction differs from the intention to recommend a destination. It will also explore and test a formative model which describes how the differences in facets the tourist experience influence destination image, destination quality, tourist satisfaction, return to visit, and e-wom. Therefore SmartPLS is used to analyze the model and the data is collected by the convenience sampling. There are 260 domestic visitors in Goa Pindul, Yogyakarta as a sample. The empirical results show that tourist experience has a positive influence on destination image and return to visit; conversely, the result is obtained on destination quality. Then, destination image and destination quality have a positive influence on tourist satisfaction. Furthermore, tourist satisfaction has a positive effect on return to visit and e-wom.

Keywords: Tourist experience, Destination image, Destination quality, Tourist satisfaction, Return to visit, e-WOM

INTRODUCTION

The development of tourism is considered essential all over the country in Asia including Indonesia (Kusumawati & Huang, 2015; Tay & Chan, 2014; Teh & Cabanban, 2007; Wassler & Schuckert, 2017). The Government of Indonesia directs its focus on tourism resources that belong to the more developed and introduced all over the world (Kusumawati & Huang, 2015). The tourism sector in Indonesia each year continues to increase both domestic and overseas travelers thus contributing to the country's largest foreign exchange goals to the growth of the economy of Indonesia (Farina, Sukandar, & Soehadi, 2016). Indonesia has become the main destination for tourists (Mutanga, Vengesayi, Chikuta, Muboko, & Gandiwa, 2017).

Tourists become assets for a country and boost the economy in the tourism sector, especially with revisits (Tan, 2016; Whang, Yong, & Ko, 2016). Tourists are returning to visit specific sights due to the uniqueness of the tourist objects that can not be found elsewhere (Abubakar et al., 2017; Shawn & Feng, 2007). Some consider a return visit as experience in travel. Trips made by tourists should give a positive impression of a certain attraction to create a destination image satisfied in travel. Tourist experience can also give an impression to travelers if travel is done with quality or not (Tan, 2016). When the journey is done, then destination quality tourist will make a return visit. Furthermore, some of the reasons tourists would recommend sights to visit are caused by tourist satisfaction (Shawn & Feng, 2007). Tourist satisfaction is the reason for travelers to return and give recommendations to other people (Cong, 2016). Satisfaction can be influenced by the destination image and destination quality (Martín-Santana, Beerli-Palacio, & Nazzareno, 2017; Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017). If the destination image and destination quality felt by tourists is positive, tourists will be satisfied in the journey.

This research discusses in more detail how tourist experience, destination image, and destination quality influen tourist satisfaction, return to visit, and e-wom. The research is done in Goa Pindul, Yogyakarta.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Relationships between tourist experience, destination image, destination quality, and revisit intention

Tourism is inherently experience-based and there is a consensus in the literature on the need to create tourist experience (Tan, 2016; Wassler & Schuckert, 2017). Experience has a significant role in a tourist attraction. When tourists are on the way to visit certain destinations, they will provide a value whether or not according to the wishes of they journey (Whang et al., 2016). Tourist experience gives reason for a tourist attraction's viability. Tourist experience provides perspective for any vacationers, thus creating destination image and destination quality in travel (Stylos et al., 2016). When tourists travel, tourists will be able to sense whether the destination image of a place is in accordance with the expectations, so that it can pass judgment on a journey in creating a destination image (Reza et al., 2012). Some research about the relationship between tourists experience and destination image exists. In Tan's research (2016), he explains that during the tourist's experience, the journey is carried out according to expectations and reality will be able to give a positive impression so that it can create destination image. It is also described by Tosun, Lu, and Fyall (2015) that destination images that exists in certain tourist attractions are affected by impression tourists every visit and consider the following hypothesis:

H1: Tourists experience significantly influence destination image

Destination quality also plays an important role in a travel experience (Ferns & Walls, 2012). The ride quality will provide a positive experience for the tourists when making visits against the specified object (Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017). Tourists' experience gives the perception of the quality of that obtained when tourist visit (Woo, Jin, & Sanders, 2015). Some research discusses the relationship between tourists experience and destination quality. Research suggests that tourists' experience provides a positive impact on destination quality (Wassler & Schuckert, 2017) because when the tourists take a trip, travelers will assess whether or not the journey is quality. It is also described by Cong (2016), that tourists' experience provides a positive influence towards the destination quality in tourist attractions visited and consider the following hypothesis:

H2: Tourists experience significantly influence destination quality

Revisit intention is stressed to tourists within a certain period so as to create the intention for a revisit (Chiu, Liu, & Tu, 2016). According to Kim and Jun (2016), return to visit tourist intentions are formed through rationality and the process of the decision taken by tourists. Tourists who have already visited will be visiting back when the perceive experience is positive (Tan, 2016). The experience of being determinant for tourists to revisit. In some of the research results (Mutanga et al., 2017; Tan, 2016), tourists' experience greatlyinfluence the tourists to revisit through the tourist experience and is acquired when traveling; and postulates the following hypotheses:

H3: Tourists experience significantly influence revisit intention

Relationships between destination image, destination quality and tourist satisfaction
The main purpose is the destination for the tourists when visiting (Martín-Santana et al., 2017). Each visit undertaken will give the impression towards destinations visited. Destination delivers perception to tourists about the image and the quality of travel on certain attractions (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007). Some of the perceptions about destination at certain attractions include destination image and destination quality. An image is defined as an individual's representation concerning the mental knowledge (faith), feelings, and perceptions of the overall against the weaker object (Lai & Chen, 2011). The destination image is an impression or the expression obtained by travelers against his trip (Ramseook-Munhurrun, Seebaluck, & Naidoo, 2015). Selection process based on a positive image will give effect to the satisfaction of the consumer. Tourists' satisfaction is the result of the evaluation of the experience which is already going through feelings and emotions that are significant and positive to establish, maintain, and develop identities through memory (Hultman, Skarmeas, Oghazi, & Beheshti, 2015). As a result, the destination image is a positive and significant effect on satisfaction (Assaker, Esposito, & Connor, 2011; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015) and postulates the following hypotheses:

H4: Destination image significantly influence tourist satisfaction

Destination quality is a perception that comes from experience, feelings, and overall perception when visiting a particular destination (Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017). The conceptualization of the destination image, as a formative build throughout all of the entries, were sourced from experiences such as transportation, attractions, and entertainment; and give the impression that appeals to holidaymakers (Cong, 2016). Some research connects destination quality and tourists' satisfaction. One definition of satisfaction as a composite construct of an overall evaluation is the degree to which the level of fulfillment is pleasant or unpleasant. Research results (Hussain, Nasser, & Hussain, 2015) indicate that destination quality as a quality impression can give impact on tourist satisfaction and postulates the following hypotheses:

H5: Destination quality significantly influence tourist satisfaction

Relationships between tourist satisfaction, revisit intention and e-wom
Tourist satisfaction is currently the focus of attention by almost all parties of good government, businesses, and consumers. This is due to the increasingly good understanding of the concept of

satisfaction as a strategy to increase revenues and improve the macro and micro-economic sectors (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015). Tourist satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable feeling of fulfillment resulting from the tourist's comparison of product performance to some pre-visit standard. Others define tourist satisfaction as an individual's emotional state after experiencing the trip (Mutanga et al., 2017). In the literature, the purpose of satisfaction of tourism refers to the emotional condition which is reflected in the assessment done by a tourist who chooses goals, has a satisfying experience, and chooses to revisit (Veasna, Wu, & Huang, 2013). Tourist satisfaction has a role in the decision to take a travel experience, evaluation, and intention to behave in the future (return to visit and e-wom) (Stylos et al., 2016). In the literature, tourist satisfaction has a relationship with revisit intention and e-wom. Revisit intention is a result of the perception they have of their previous range of travel experiences (Horng et al., 2012). Revisit intention is also defined as a willingness to visit certain destinations (Chen, Shang, & Li, 2014). Some of the results of such research (Jeong & Shawn, 2011; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015) argue that tourist satisfaction can influence revisit intention. Thus, the study tests the following hypotheses:

H6: Tourist satisfaction significantly influences revisit intention

Satisfaction also gives effect to the tourists who would recommend his experience on internet (Williams et al., 2017). The development of information technology requires every tourist to deliver experience over the internet, including e-wom (Abubakar et al., 2017). E-wom is communication through the websites twitter, facebook, instagram, and web-based platforms (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). Tourist satisfaction as an evaluation of what is obtained when traveling can provide motivation to tourists in order to recommend particular tourist attractions via e-wom. Some research results explain the relationship between satisfaction and e-wom. Research results (Cong, 2016) suggest that tourist satisfaction can be given recommendations to travelers via e-wom. Thus, the study tests the following hypotheses:

H7: Tourist satisfaction significantly influence e-wom

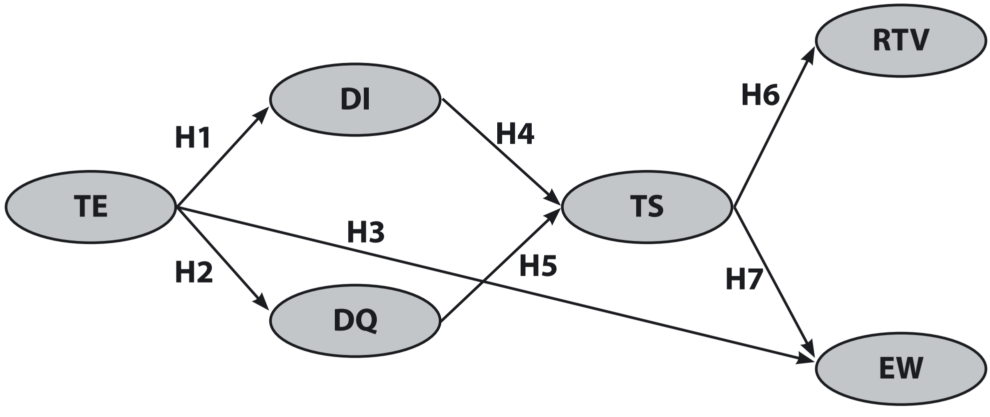

Fig. 1. Model Research

RESEARCH METHOD

Sample characteristics

Empirical studies have been done on the Goa Pindul, Yogyakarta. The target of the population is a sample of the domestic tourist. Accurate data concerning both the size and location of the population could not be known so it cannot use probability. This study used a sample collection techniques, with non-probability sampling using purposive sampling. The model used in this research is PLS-SEM with SmartPLS statistical techniques as a tool t test the data. For the size, 280 questionnaires were distributed and 20 questionnaires were rejected because they were not filled out properly. Eventually, 260 respondents produced responses that could be used for research. Questionnaires were distributed in April 2017. Then, questionnaire data was processed individually by the researcher. The resulting 69% of respondents are men and 31% of respondents are women. Most respondents are senior high school students as much as 60%, and the least is postgraduate students as much as 8%. The average age of respondents was 20-40 years as much as 59.3% and the least is aged > 40 as much as 13.4%.

Table 1:Socio-demographics of the sample

Variables	(N = 260)
Gender (%)	
Male	69%
Female	31%
Level of education (%)	
High school	60%
Diploma degree	22%
Bachelor degree	10%
Master's degree	8%
Age (%)	
< 20	27,3%
20 – 40	59,3%
>40	13,4%

Source: Source : Primary data, 2017

Questionnaire Instruments

Tests of statements or items adapted from an instrument which is used in research, examine variables adapted from the tourist experience research (Tan, 2016), that dimensional of the tourist experience that is divided into escapism and entertainment. Furthermore, to test the destination image variables adapted from research (Reza Jalilvand et al., 2012), that dimension is divided into cognitive and affective. Then, to test variables destination quality adapted from research (Cong, 2016), that dimension is divided into transport and hospitality. For further, to test variable tourist satisfaction adapted from research (Cong, 2016), that dimension is divided into visit satisfaction. For tasting variables revisit intention adapted from research (Tosun, Dedeolu, &

Fyall, 2015), that dimension is divided into frequently. Finally, to test variable e-wom adapted from research (Cong, 2016), that dimension is divided into recommendation

Data Analysis

In this research, reliability is measured by using composite reliability. Generally, the value of the composite reliability is 0.9. All variables have reliability, since their respective values are shown to surpass the required value. Composite reliability of tourist experience 0.935; destination image is 0.942; destination quality is 0.905; tourist satisfaction is 0.815; revisit intention is 0.891; and e-wom is 0.959. There are two measurements of composite validity. The first measurement is convergent validity, minimum convergent validity requaremenet in this research is set at 0.7 (Ringle et al., 2014). Tabel 2 shows all the indicators in this research are valid. The second measurement employed is the average variance extracted (AVE). The following are the AVE values for each variable, respectively of tourist experience 0.742; destination image is 0.844; destination quality is 0.706; tourist satisfaction is 0.692; revisit intention is 0.676; and e-wom is 0.886. The overall AVE values are calculated at above the required. Therefore, all variables are confirmed as valid.

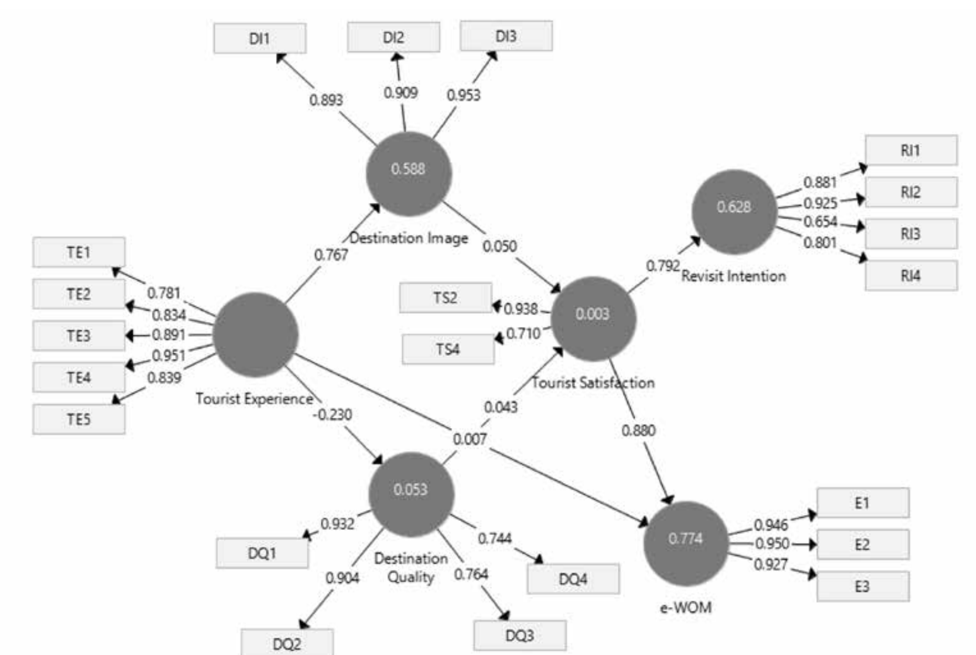

Fig 2. The result SEM-PLS

Table 2: Value factor loading from each latent variable

Question Items		Factor Loading	Construct Reliability	Cronbach Alpha	AVE
Tourist Experience					
I felt I was in a different world	TE1	0.781	0.935	0.914	0.742
pletely escaped from reality	TE2	0.834			
I forgot all about time	TE3	0.891			
The visit was entertaining to me	TE4	0.951			
The visit was fun	TE5	0.839			
Destination Image					
Goa Pindul offers exciting and interesting places to visit	DI1	0.893	0.942	0.907	0.844
Goa Pindul has beautiful scenery and natural attractions	DI2	0.909			
Goa Pindul has a pleasant climate	DI3	0.953			
Destination Quality					
Quality of roads	DQ1	0.932	0.905	0.873	0.706
Safety of roads	DQ2	0.904			
Hospitality of people	DQ3	0.764			
Friendliness of people	DQ4	0.744			
Tourist Satisfaction					
I am satisfied with my decision to visit Goa Pindul	TS2	0.938	0.815	0.593	0.692
This was a pleasant visit	TS4	0.710			
Revisit Intention					
I would like to revisit Goa Pindul in the near future	RI1	0.881	0.891	0.834	0.676
If had to decide again I would choose Goa Pindul again	RI2	0.925			
I would come back to Goa Pindul in the future.	RI3	0.654			
I would more frequently visit Goa Pindul	RI4	0.801			
e-WOM					
I would recommend Goa Pindul to others people via internet	E1	0.946	0.959	0.936	0.886
I speak positively about Goa Pindul to others people via internet	E2	0.950			
I am willing to recommend Goa Pindul to others people via internet	E3	0.927			

Source: Source : Primary data, 2017

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The test resultsare supported by hypotheses H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, and H7. The tourist experience has a positive and significant effect on destination image (H2), tourist experience has a positive and significant effect on revisit intention (H3), destination image has a positive and significant effect on tourist satisfaction (H4), destination quality has a positive and significant effect on tourist satisfaction (H5), tourist satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on return to visit (H6), and tourist satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on e-wom (H7). On the other hand, H1 indicates that this effect has proven to be insignificant. Tourist experience does not have a significant effect on destination quality (H1). See the result of the hypothesis testing in table 3 and the path diagram in the figure 2.

Table 3: Result of hypothesis testing

	Propesed effect	Path Coefficient	Result
H1	TE ➔ DI	0.767	Significant
H2	TE ➔ DQ	-0.230	Insignificant
H3	TE ➔ RTV	0.007	Significant
H4	DI ➔ TS	0.050	Significant
H5	DQ ➔ TS	0.043	Significant
H6	TS ➔ RTV	0.792	Significant
H7	TS ➔ E-WOM	0.880	Significant

Source : Primary data, 2017

Effect of tourist experience on destination image
The result shows that the relationship between tourist experience and destination image is significant. This means H1 is accepted (see table 3). This result is consistent wit previous studies (Tan, 2016), stating that the tourist experience as an experience of belonging to tourists when they visit certain attractions will get the impression that it can create the destination image is positive in Goa Pindul.

Effect of tourist experience on destination quality
The result shows that the relationship between tourist experience and destination quality has been rejected (H2). The results of this research show that it cannot be concluded that the experience in travel can provide quality through the hope that chill the tourist when making a visit. This is not in line with the statement (Cong, 2016), stated that the tourist experience on destination quality is significant.

Effect of tourist experience on return to visit
The result shows that the relationship between tourist experience and return to visit is significant.

This means that H3 is accepted (see table 3). This result is consistent with the previous studies (Cong, 2016), stating that based on the experience of tourists when making visits can determine whether the tourists revisit or not. Some of the reasons including such a wonderful experience and quality will make tourists revisit Goa Pindul

Effect of destination image on tourist satisfaction
The result shows that the relationship between destination image and tourist satisfaction is significant. This means that H4 is accepted (see table 3). This result is consistent with the previous studies (Assaker et al., 2011; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015), that image is perceived positively when travel by tourists, will be able to make the tourists be satisfaction based on a reality that is felt when visiting in Goa Pindul.

Effect of destination quality on tourist satisfaction
The result shows that the relationship between destination quality and tourist satisfaction is significant. This means that H5 is accepted (see table 3). This result is consistent with the previous studies (Hussain et al., 2015), stating that tourists will get satisfaction, based on the quality of the journey that was received when travelling. During the trip, then tourists revisit in Goa Pindul.

Effect of tourist satisfaction on return to visit
The result shows that the relationship between tourist satisfaction and return to visit is significant. This means that H6 is accepted (see table 3). This result is consistent with the previous studies (Jeong & Shawn, 2011; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015), stating that based on the evaluation of tourist satisfaction it brings about when to travel can affect return to visit in Goa Pindul.

Effect of tourist satisfaction on e-wom
The result shows that the relationship between tourist satisfaction and e-wom is significant. This means that H7 is accepted (see table 3). This result is consistent with the previous studies (Cong, 2016), stating that tourist satisfaction can influence e-wom because the satisfaction it brings will make travelers provide information about what is perceived and expect others to revisit through the medium of the internet.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of this research, it can be concluded that the tourist experience, satisfaction, and tourist destination, are the most important parts for tourists to get a positive impression and influence in the decision. In this research, tourist experience effects destination image and revisit intention; but is unable to influence destination quality. The destination image and quality has a necessary role in providing impressions and certain object descriptions affecting tourist satisfaction in Goa Pindul. Furthermore, tourist satisfaction effects return to visit and e-wom.

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Understanding the motivations to travel through destination images and sources of information: Amsterdam and its relationship with the Spanish people

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ABSTRACT

This article looks into the motivations for Spanish tourists to visit Amsterdam. As seen in the results of this research, the most important motivations for Spanish tourists to travel according the respondents were in the following order: to enjoy and have a good time, to discover new places, and to escape from the daily routine. The information sources that were the most important sources of where the respondents actually did hear about the city Amsterdam were through Word of Mouth in the form of family and friends who did tell them about the city, but also the internet in the form of social media, blogs, and sites like TripAdvisor.

Keywords: Travel motivations, travel source information, destination image, personal factors to travel, motivation theories

INTRODUCTION

The most famous city and capital of The Netherlands, Amsterdam, is a very popular destination among tourists. Every year, tens of millions of visitors flock to the City. The city is well known for its unique and curious aspects, such its Coffeeshops and the famous Red Light District; the water canals and canal houses. But Amesterdam is also a City that has no lack of culture and is filled with art, and museums.

Previous studies illustrate that motivations are key when it comes to understanding tourism behavior and the choices people make concerning traveling to a certain destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Also, several aspects related to motivations such as the actual image people have of a place, personal factors as motivations, socio-demographic characteristics, and other factors as information sources play a role in the final decision.

As the researcher of this study has been living in Spain for many years but origins from The Netherlands, a personal interest developed itself in getting to know the motivations and other factors behind the Spanish people's choice in visiting the city, Amsterdam. This research is groundbreaking, since no previous research seems to have looked into the motivations and other factors of this specific market (Spanish people and the city Amsterdam).

The aim of this research is to be able to answer the two aspects where this research is focused on. On one side, the main question:

1) What motivates Spanish people to visit Amsterdam?

And on the other side, to understand;

2) How several factors such as destination image, personal factors like socio-demographic characteristics, and information sources influence a tourist's final decision to travel to Amsterdam?

In the first part of this investigation, the topic of this research will be introduced, including aspects as its justification, objectives, and an overall structure of this research. The second section consists of the theoretical framework in which a literature review is done, collected from previous studies and researchers. And furthermore, at the end of the section, an own established model is proposed based on previous ones, which will be tested in the survey-questionnaire of this research. The methodology of this research is elaborated in the third section. In this part the research method is explained, as well its questionnaire design. In the fourth section section, the results of the collected data are studied. And the final section contains the discussion and conclusion, wherein a combination of the elaborated theoretical framework is combined with the results of the research itself.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Destination Image

The image of a destination plays an important role for tourists in their selection process of a destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). There are many definitions of destination image made over the years by several authors and researchers in the field. These all agree that the concept of destination image is used in different contexts but that there exists a lack of a good provided framework of the concept itself (Beerli & Martín, 2004).

To start with Hunt (1975), who describes a destination image as perceptions that people might have about a certain place. Meanwhile, Crompton (1979, p. 18) defines it as a '"sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination." Dichter's (1985) definition of image lays focus on the three main components of a destination image and describes it as when the evaluation of an individual, in the form of cognitive and emotional content, results in a final impression of a place. On the other hand, Pearce (1988, p. 162) argues that "image is one of those terms with vague and shifting meanings." Gartner (1989, cited in Echtner & Ritchie, 2003, p. 41) agrees and describes it as "a complex combination of various products and associated attributes." Echtner and Ritchie (2003, p. 41) add that there is "a frequent usage of the termdestination image, a precise definition of it is often avoided''. According to the authors, image is often described as "impressions of a place" or "perceptions of an área."

Destination Image Components

Most researchers who have tried to define destination image itself and describe the components of destination image, agree that there are three main ones:

1) Perceptual/cognitive, which refers to "the beliefs or knowledge about a destination's attributes."
2) Affective evaluations, referring towards feelings or attachment.
3) The global image or overall image of a place, which is formed by the previous ones perceptual/cognitive and affective images together. (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999, p. 870).

Beerli and Martin (2004) agree on the three main components and add that there is a general agreement from a theoretical view that the concept of image is formed by the interrelated two components of perceptive/cognitive and affective evaluations. On the other hand, the model of destination components, presented by Echtner and Ritchie (2003), has a totally different approach, and according to them it could be perfectly used as basis for the conceptualization of destination image. Their presented model is also divided into three dimensions:

1) Functional-psychological
2) Attributes-holistic
3) Common-unique

The first two dimensions together divide the destination image concept into four components (functional, psychological, attributes, holistic). The functional characteristics are defined as the ones who are directly observable or measurable, for example; attractions of a place and its accommodation facilities. The psychological characteristics are the ones that cannot be directly measured, for example the friendliness and the atmosphere of a place. Although, it is important to know that these four components are overlapping each other, as the ''holistic impressions are based on combinations and interactions of attributes, and attributes may be influenced by overall impressions'' (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003, p. 41).

However, the authors admit that there is one overlap between the functional and psychological characteristics that is not directly clear. Some examples of these overlapping components would be as followed: the functional-holistic are based on physical or measurable characteristics, for example a mental picture or physical characteristics of the destination. While a good example functional attributes would be the climate of a destination.

The psychological-holistic images, which are mainly concerned about the feelings or an overall impression, for example the atmosphere or general feeling of a destination. The psychological attributes might be for example related to safety or friendliness in a destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003).

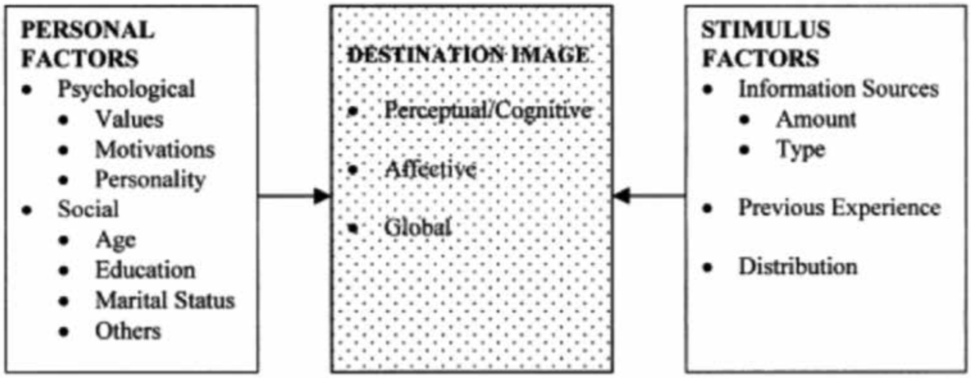
Going back to the three dimensions of Echtner and Ritchie, they concluded later on that there was one overlooked in previous research, there third additional dimension (common-unique), in which common refers to functional and psychological traits, and unique to features, events, or feelings.

Destination image formation process

Reynolds (1965, cited in Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, p. 38) defines the formation of an image as "the development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a flood of information'', in which they refer to the several factors that influence the formation of an image, after that a destination image can be formed.

Baloglu and McCleary (1999) proposed a general framework of the destination image formation, based on previous literature (figure 1). They and several other researchers in the field agreed that the destination image is formed by two major forces: the stimulus and personal factors. The stimulus factors refer to previous experience and information sources. While personal factors refer to the social and psychological characteristics of the perceiver.

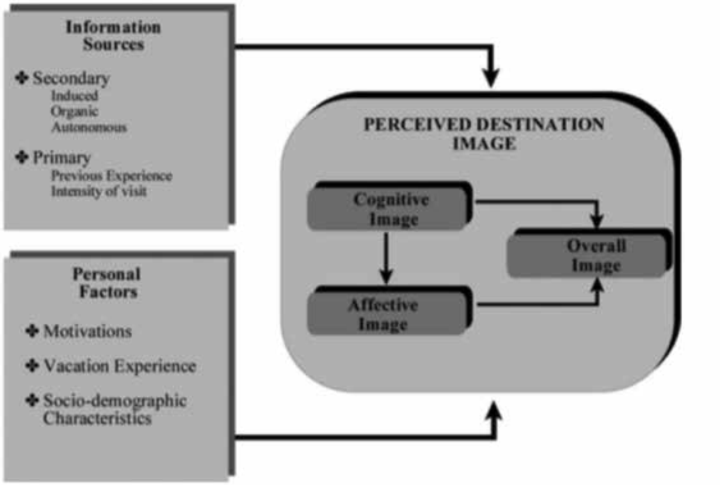
Figure 1: General Framework Destination Image (Baloglu&McCleary, 1999, p. 870)



Beerli and Martin (2004) created a very similar model of destination image formation. However, they based their model differentiating between first time and repeat tourist, something that Baloglu and McCleary (1999) did not do. Beerli and Martin (2004) differentiated them for the following reasons (figure 2):

- For the fact that there is a possibility of certain differences between the perceived image by each group of individuals that can have effect on the final results.
- Only in the case of visitors for the first time visiting a destination the relationship between the perceived image and secondary information sources can be analyzed, because visitors who previously visited a destination might have difficulties with recalling the information sources they used before visiting for the first time.
- There might be a possible difference between first time visitors and those who already have visited the destination before. These differences can be when it comes to their level of knowledge of the destination and their motivations.

Figure 2. Model of the Formation Destination Image (Beerli & Martin, 2004, p. 660)



To sum up, both presented models are very similar as the destination image is formed by the three same main components of perceptual/affective, cognitive, and overall image. They distinguish two different factors, so called the personal and stimulus factors or information sources. In the next paragraphs the personal and stimulus factors are further explained. The personal factors in the form of motivations and socio-demographic characteristics, while the stimulus factors in the form of information sources.

Um and Crompton (1990, cited in Beerli & Martin, 2004, p. 663) state that "beliefs about the attributes of a destination are formed by the individuals being exposed to external stimuli, but the nature of those beliefs will vary depending on the internal factors of the individuals." The personal factors are divided into the psychological characteristics (motivations) and socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, occupancy etc.

Psychological Characteristics (Motivations)
To begin with, it is important to understand the definition of motivations itself. Fodness (1994) defines motivations in the form of a process that can be very dynamic, in where psychological factors create different levels and even tension in the mind and body of an individual. We can think of psychological factors such as needs, wishes, and objectives. While Cooper (2005, p. 54) approaches the definition of motivations differently by explaining that it origins from two different words: "motivate, which is to cause a person to act in a certain way'', and "motive, which is concerned with initiating movement or inducing a person to act."

Based on several studies Baloglu and McCleary (1999) explain that people engage in tourism for different reasons or motives. Therefore, motivation is seen as the most important concept in understanding tourism behavior. Cooper (2005) agrees and adds that it is essential to understand motivation by asking the question "why do people travel'', in order to understand tourist behavior.

However, Goeldner, Ritchie, and McIntosh (1999, p. 254) do not agree and argue that instead of asking the question "why do tourists travel", we should focus on the question "why certain groups of people choose a certain holiday experience." They believe that by focusing on the similarities among certain groups of people and the kind of experiences they are looking for in a destination. Pearce (1995, cited in Baloglu & McCleary, 1999) believes that in order to better understand the motivation theory and tourist behavior, it is essential that the relationship between the destination image and motivations is better explored.

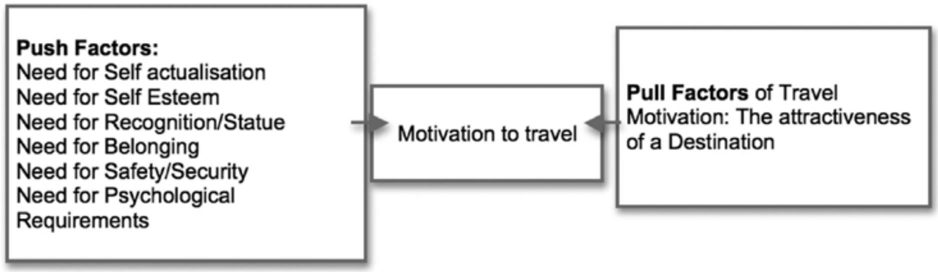
Moving on to the different motivation theories that exist, the probably best-known and the most fundamental one is Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1970, cited in Cooper, 2005) in Figure 4, which is based on a five staged model in the form of a hierarchy of a person's individual's needs. The needs lower in the hierarchy (basic ones) such as safety and physiological needs must be satisfied before an individual can satisfy the ones higher in the hierarchy.

Dann's (1977, as cited in Prayag & Ryan, 2011, p. 122) approaches the motivation theory in a different way by identifying two basic motivational factors: anomie and ego-enhancement. Anomie refers to "the desire to transcend the feeling of isolation inherent in everyday life." While ego-enhancement refers to "the need for recognition, which is obtained through the status conferred by travel". Later on, Dann (1981, cited in Cooper, 2005) focused the theory more specifically on the area of tourist motivation and identified seven approaches of tourist motivations:

1) Travel in the form of a response to what is lacking yet desired: to experience certain things that are different from the ones available in normal environment at home.
2) The destination's motivational pull and push factors: the level of desire (push) and the attractiveness (pull) of the destination.
3) Motivation as a fantasy: tourists travel in order to be able to undertake behavior that at the destination not is sanctioned culturally, like in their home setting.
4) Motivation as classified purpose: the main purpose of a trip, what can be visiting friends or relatives, enjoying certain leisure activities, or for study purpose.
5) Motivational typologies divided into behavioral typologies and the ones that focus on dimensions of the tourist role itself.
6) Motivation and tourist experiences: related to the debate that exists regarding the authenticity of tourist experiences and the types of experiences.
7) Motivation as auto-definition and meaning by in the way tourists define their situation and by observing their behavior, there will be a better understanding of the motivation itself.

Hudman (1980, cited in Chon, 1989) approaches the motivation theory as a push-pull tendency. Describing push as the factors that motivate an individual traveler. The push factors are provoked by the pull, which are the factors that make a destination attractive for tourists. As we can see in the Figure 3 below, Hudman based the push factors on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, as he believes they are a good basis.

Figure 3: Push & Pull Motivations (Hudman 1980, in Chon, 1989, p. 4) self-adapted



Another view on motivation is the theory of Goeldner, Ritchie, and McIntosh (1999) which they divided into four categories:

1) Physical motivators: referring to activities which will reduce tension in body and mind.
2) Cultural motivators: those who are interested in to see and learn about other cultures, lifestyles etc.
3) Interpersonal motivators: those who are interested in getting to know new people, visit friends or relatives, to escape from routine and to seek new experiences.
4) Status and prestige motivators: those who have the desire of personal development, ego enhancement, as well in the form of pursuit education and hobbies.

It can be stated that motivations are seen as the main determinants of tourist behavior and in several established motivation theory models they are explained through the push and pull factors of a destination, in where Maslow´s hierarchy of needs is used as basis.

Socio-demographic Characteristics
Another group of personal factors seen in both models Balogly and McCleary (1999) and Beerli and Martin (2004) are the socio-demographic characteristics of an individual that play a role in the destination image formation process. These can be gender, age, income, social class, occupation, and level of education. Although based on previous research on image and the role of personal factors, Balogly and McCleary (1999) conclude that the main determinants are age and education. As mentioned previouly one of the three main components of destination image formation is the perceptual/cognitive beliefs, which are formed by external factors in the form of information sources, or also known as stimulus factors (Um & Crompton, 1990; Um, 1993; cited in Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) argue that only the perceptual/cognitive component of destination image is influenced by information sources, and not the affective component.
Gartner (1993, cited in Beerli & Martin, 2004, p. 661); however, argues that a process of image formation can "be regarded as a continuum of different agents or information sources which act independently to form one single image in the mind of the individual." Classified as followed:

- Overt induced: found as typical advertising in the mass media, for example such as information provided from relevant institutions of the destination itself or tour operators and agencies.
- Covert induced: the use of celebrities in the promotion activities, reports, articles of a destination.
- Autonomous: form of mass media of broadcasting news, films, documentaries or a television program about the destination.
- Organic: here there is involvement of people such as family and friends, who are providing information about the place, which is based on their knowledge or experience. This information can be given on a volunteered or requested base.
- Actual visit to the destination: this is the end point of the continuum of the image forming process.

Traveler's buying behavior / decision making process

Several researchers who have studied travelers buying behavior and their decision making process, came to an agreement that a traveler´s buying process/decision making process is a multi-staged process (Chon, 1990).

Clawson and Knetch (1966) established a five staged model in which a traveler's buying behavior is divided into three main phases of the behavior before, during and after the purchase:

1) Anticipation: the traveler is thinking about the trip and making a planning.
2) Travel to the site: the traveler is going to the destination.
3) On-site behavior: the behavior of the traveler at the destination itself.
4) Return travel: the traveler returning home from the destination after the trip.
5) Recollection: the traveler will recall and reflect on their trip and therefore create memories.

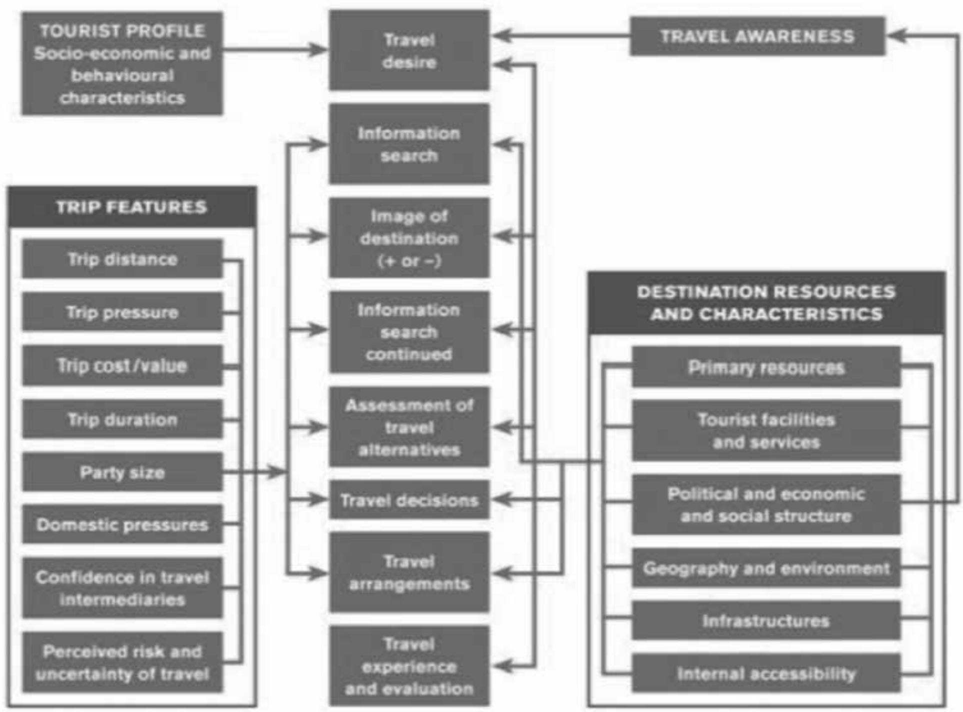
While Mathieson and Wall (1982, cited in Cooper, 2005) created a five staged model as followed (Figure 4):

1) Felt need or travel desire: there is a desire for travel, and in this stage the pros and cons are weighted.
2) Information collection and evaluation by image: the potential traveler is utilizing intermediaries that can be example advertisement, brochures, friends and relatives, or from experienced travelers. All this provided information is evaluated against the economic and time constraints, as well factors such as the alternative options and accessibility.
3) Travel decision: stage of advancement occurs with the selected destination, mode of travelling, accommodations and activities.
4) Travel preparation and travel equipment: Once the travel is booked and confirmed, budgets organized, other arrangements such as equipment are made, the travel takes place.
5) Travel satisfaction evaluation: the overall experience is evaluated during and after the travel. These results influence the subsequent travel decisions.

Their five staged model is influenced by a total of four interrelated factors, which are the following ones:

- Tourist profile: socio-economic behavioral characteristics such as the age, education, income, previous experience, and motivations.
- Travel awareness: the image of a destinations facilities and serviced.
- Destination resources and characteristics: the attractions and features of the destination.
- Trip features: trip distance, trip duration, perceived risk, and uncertainty of travel

Figure 4. Mathieson & Wall Model of Travel Buying Behavior (in Cooper, 2005, p. 70)



In their model, Mathieson and Wall recognize a holiday as a service product with the characteristics of intangibility, perishability, and heterogeneity, which in one way or another affect the consumer's decision making. Although to mention that their model is mainly focused on the product itself and less on the behavior of the consumer them-self.

On the other hand, Berkman and Gilson's (1986, cited in Chon, 1990) five staged model is more focused on a basic purchasing process in general, not specifically tourism related:

1) Need recognition: the antecedent condition for a purchase, that comes from biogenic or psychogenic needs, wants, desires of the buyer which are related to the product or service.

2) Information search: the buyer searches for more information about the product or service.
3) Evaluation of alternatives: the buyer searches for alternatives in relation to the product or service.
4) Choice of product or service: the buyer makes a decision for the certain product or service.
5) Post-purchase evaluation: the buyer evaluates the product or service after its purchase.

Another multi staged model established by Gunn (1989) is one which consists of a seven staged model in which the first three stages are actually related to the first anticipation stage of Clawson and Knetch´s model. Gunn argues that in the seven staged model there is a constant modification of images happening during the process:

1) Accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences
2) Modification of those images by further information
3) Decision to take a vacation trip
4) Travel to destination
5) Participation at the destination
6) Return travel
7) New accumulation of images based on the experiences

In the several provided multi staged models mentioned above of a consumer buying process, we can conclude that all of them include similar stages beginning with a traveler's feeling, a need or desire to travel, thinking about it and accumulating images. Followed up by further information about a destination that is obtained through different sources. After this follows the actual decision to travel to that destination, and during this process alternatives are looked at. Afterwards having experienced the travel itself, evaluation has been done and new images are based upon this experience.

Proposed research model

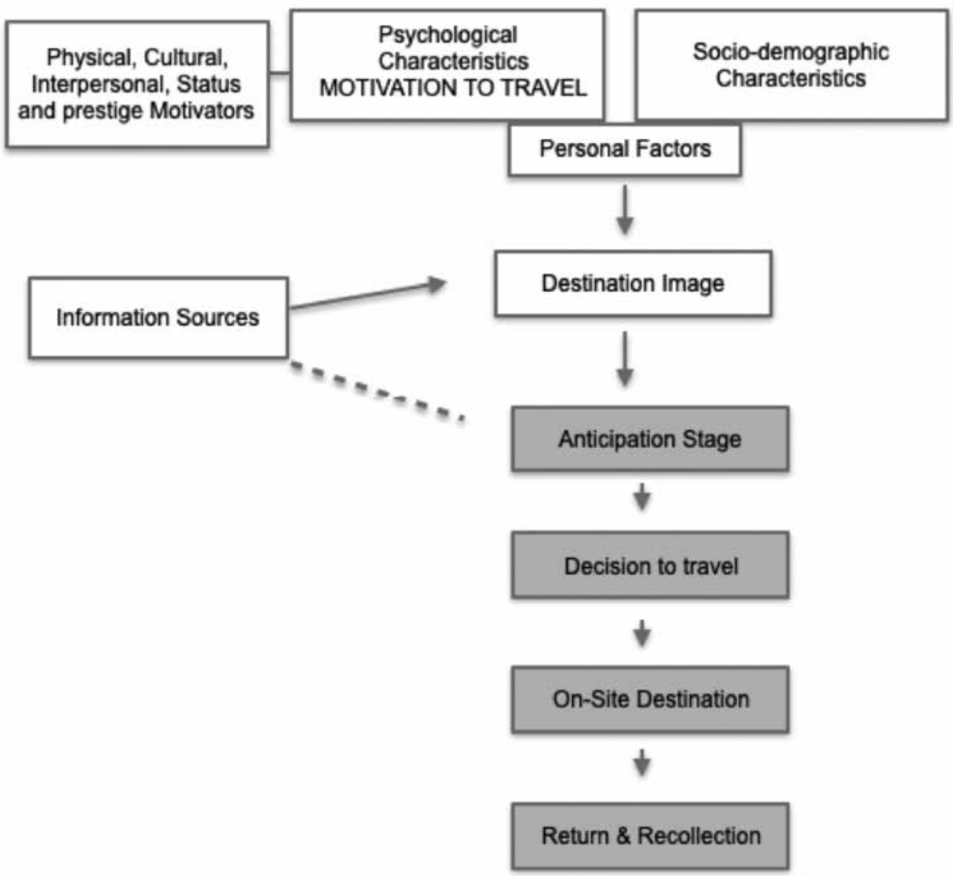
Based on the previous theories of the authors and researchers reviewed in this section, a self-elaborated conceptual model was established, which is proposed to be tested for this research. As we can see in the self-elaborated model (Figure 5) a traveler's buying behavior/decision making process is divided into the following four stages:

1) The anticipation stage: in this first stage the potential traveler is thinking about the travel and the destination to travel to. The image of the destination which is formed by several factors. Also, in this stage, further information is provided (from information sources) before moving to the next stage.
2) Decision to travel: the decision to travel to the destination is made, after the first; stage is completed, and alternatives are as well looked for.
3) On-site of the destination: the traveler has travelled to the destination and is experiencing their travel and the destination. Meanwhile experiencing, different images are accumulated and/or changed.

4) Return and recollection: in the last stage, the traveler has returned from the destination and is reflecting on their travel. As reflecting on their travel, a recollection is made in the form of memories but also a new image based on their experienced travel.

Before arriving to the first anticipation stage of the decision-making process, several aspects play an important role. The overall image of a destination is created by two main factors: information sources and personal factors. The information sources for this research include internet (social media, blogs, travel sites), television and documentaries, Word of Mouth (friends and family), travel books and guides, Newspaper and magazine articles, and Travel agencies. The personal factors are divided into the psychological characteristics as the motivation to travel. Which is based on the four motivators (physical, cultural, interpersonal, status, and prestige) of Goeldner, Ritchie, and McIntosh (1999). The second are the socio-demographic factors that play a role, such as: age, gender, occupation, marital status, education, and income.

Figure 5: Proposed Research Model, self-elaborated



Destination Amsterdam

Amsterdam, the capital of the Netherlands, is located on the west side of the Netherlands in the province North-Holland. The city that started its beginnings in the thirteenth century as a small village of fishermen, craftsmen, and tradesmen. Nowadays known as "the only city that counts in the Netherlands'', where everything happens and manifests itself before elsewhere; trends in fashion, literature, culture and art (Roegholt, 2006, p. 9). The city has a strong tradition of being the center of culture and commerce, having a significant role and being a major hub when it comes to business and tourism (Iamsterdam).

Every year in January, The Netherlands Board of Tourism & Conventions (NBTC) provides a report in the form of a magazine named "Tourism in Perspective'', in which trends and developments in the tourism industry in the Netherlands of the year before are shown and discussed. According to their latest publication "Tourism in perspective, January 2019'' of last year, 2018, the inbound tourism in the Netherlands has grown for the last past decades, excluded the crisis years of 2008 and 2009. In 2018, a total of 19.1 million international tourists visited the country for business or leisure purpose (NBTC, 2019).

Numbers, according to the NBTC, show that tourists with the Spanish nationality visiting the Netherlands have grown as well between the years 2015 and 2018. In the year 2015, the total of Spanish guests accommodating was 432.000, in 2016 a total of 444.000, in the following year, 2017, 467.000 and according to the first three quarters of last year's 2018, a total of 597.000. For the actual year of 2019, the NBTC made a forecast for inbound tourism in the Netherlands and its perspectives, predicting that at the end of 2019 the number of Spanish guests visiting the Netherlands will increase with a total of 6%, in numbers 525.000 (NBTC, 2019).

Most Spanish visitors visiting the Netherlands come from Madrid (26%), Catalonia (26%), and Andalusia (15%). The favorite destinations in the Netherlands by the Spanish traveler according to research are the main cities as Utrecht, Rotterdam, The Hague, and Maastricht. But one of them particular; Amsterdam (NBTC, 2018). According to the city hall of Amsterdam in their latest Year Book, "Amsterdam in cijfers 2018'' based on Spanish guest accommodating in the city show that the total was 245.000 (Gemeente Amsterdam, 2018).

Amsterdam has plenty of things to offer, from the ambience in the city itself to historical buildings, shopping streets, museums and art galleries, the many bike tours, and the unique canals and canal house that can be perfectly observed from the organized canal cruises. Even though there are plenty of things to do, the main highlights in the city are the Amsterdam Canals, the Red Light District, Coffeeshops, and art and museums.

The Amsterdam Canals, Canal Houses and Boat Houses

During the seventeenth century, also called the Golden age, was a century in where the Netherlands and Amsterdam in particular, where very prosperous and as the Dutch call it ''a time of glory'' (Roegholt, 2006, p.47). The city itself got expanded and the famous canal ring (Keizersgracht, Herengracht, and Prinsengracht) was developed. Since this development the canal ring of the city has become ''one of the world's most unique urban landscapes'' (Iamsterdam). Probably the best-known image that people have of Amsterdam are the many canals nowadays and the luxurious canal houses with their beautiful facades. The canal houses, once the homes of the wealthy society class in Amsterdam, nowadays the homes of museums, hotels and offices. In 2010, UNESCO added the canal district to their World Heritage List (Iamsterdam).

One of the most popular attractions in Amsterdam are the canal cruises that are organized by different operators. They are the perfect way for sightseeing and enjoying the city from a different view. Also, the canal ring plays an important role for various festivities on and alongside the water; on King's Day (previously Queen's Day) when everybody is dressed in orange or the Gay Pride in August, both celebrated once a year on the canals where plenty of boats can be found with people dancing, celebrating the festivities (Iamsterdam).

The Red Light District

The oldest and probably most popular district among tourist in the city, The Red Light District, or better known in the Netherlands as ''De Wallen'' or among the citizens of Amsterdam ''De Rosse Buurt'' (Iamsterdam). This district that is mainly focused on ''adult entertainment'' has many sex shops, peep shows, brothels, prostitution, and its famous so called ''red-lit windows'' can be found (Holland). In order to prevent forced prostitution or other illegal aspects such as human trafficking, the district's aim is "to be open and have an honest approach'', resulting in an industry in this particular district in where it's sex-workers have their own union (Iamsterdam).

The Coffeeshops

The city has a reputation when it comes to the legal consuming of soft drugs. Throughout the city many Coffeeshops can be found. In those so-called Coffee Shops, smoking cannabis or hashish is legal with a minimum age of 18 years old, only a permitted small amount and it is only allowed to smoke inside the establishment, as elsewhere in the city consuming is not allowed (Iamsterdam). The soft drugs policy and toleration is always a point of discussion in the Netherlands, but it is still allowed and attracts many tourists (Holland).

Art & Museums

In the city itself there are plenty of art galleries and all different kinds of museums. The best well-known are the following:

- *The Rijksmuseum*
    - The Rijksmuseum is one of Amsterdam's most famous and popular museums, and also described as "the principal national museum in Holland'' (Holland). The building itself is already quite impressive, as it is located on the city's Museumplein square.
    - The museum has a permanent collection but as well it hosts temporary exhibitions. It's collection features historic paintings from the Golden Age from artists as Vermeer's famous painting ''The Milkmaid'' and Rembrandt's ''The Night Watch'' (Holland).
    - But also, other works such as Dutch Delftware (blue pottery), sculptures, archaeological artefacts, clothing, and prints (Iamsterdam).

- *Stedelijk Museum Amsterdam*
    - The Stedelijk Museum Amsterdam is situated as well on Museumplein square. It is the largest Dutch museum that contains a large collection of contemporary and modern art and design (Iamsterdam). The museum has a permanent collection but has temporary exhibitions throughout the year as well. Its permanent collection exists out of paintings, sculptures, artworks, photographs, and media. The main collection includes works of artists such as Piet Mondrian, Monet, and Karel Appel (Holland).

- *Van Gogh Museum*
    - As the name of the museum already says, the Van Gogh museum contains the largest collection of works of the nineteenth-century Dutch artist Vincent van Gogh. The museum is also located at the famous Museumplein. The museum gives a perfect look inside the artistic world of Van Gogh, as there can be found over two-hundred paintings, five-hundred drawings and sevenhundred-fifthy written documents. Apart from Van Gogh's works they also have a collection of works created by other artists and painters, who were related to Van Gogh's works; friends or the ones who were simply influenced by him (Holland).

- *The Rembrandt House Museum*
    - Here as well as the name itself already says, the museum is the former house of Dutch painter Rembrandt van Rijn. He lived and worked here in the seventeenth-century, and shows a perfect look inside his world, as ''it still looks the way it did when Rembrandt lived there''(Holland). In the museum his story is told and gives you a look inside his living room, kitchen but also his studio where he created his works. To the museum's permanent collection of Rembrandt's works are now and then also added temporary exhibitions in which aspects related to Rembrandt's works are showed (Holland).

- *The Anne Frank House*
    - The Anne Frank House is located in the center of the city at one of the famous canals named the Prinsengracht. Anne Frank, the girl who became famous for her diary that she wrote during the Second World War, and her family were Jewish and were in hidingfrom the Germans for more than two years (Iamsterdam). Visiting this museum gives you a unique look inside the house, and the circumstances in which they had to live. Also, many historical documents, the original diary and notebooks can be observed (Iamsterdam). On the other-hand, there are also temporary exhibitions, which are focused on the persecutions of Jews during the war, and topics such as racism (Holland).

METHODOLOGY

This research focuses on two concrete aspects. The first one is what motivates the Spanish people to visit Amsterdam? And the second one, to understand how several factors as destination image, personal factors and information sources influence the final tourists' decision to travel.

This study is from academic research, as Veal (2006, p. 121) states "the aim of research of an academic nature is to add to the body of human knowledge." First of all, a theoretical framework was established and important concepts and information on the topic done by previous authors and researches was reviewed, as "a very important step in a research process is reviewing previous research or writing that has been done on a topic'' (Veal, 2006, p. 121). Furthermore, this section presents the research method that is most appropriate for this study, as well the design of the questionnaire that was made.

Research methods

The concrete research method chosen for this study was quantitative research. Greetham (2014, p. 192) explains that the aim of quantitative research is "to be as objective as possible by basing conclusions on statistical findings and other measurable empirical data." In other words, it must be able to be expressed in numbers. Greetham gives as examples population statistics, scientific findings, crime figures, economic and business data as the most obvious ones where quantitative research is applied to. But also adds that for example particular opinions or beliefs that people might have about a certain topic can be applied to the method of quantitative research.

Veal (2006) agrees that quantitative research involves statistical analysis, and for drawing conclusions it all relies on the numerical evidence that is given. In this research it was more likely to choose for a quantitative research, as due this method a larger amount of Spanish people can be reached.

In this quantitative research the method that will be used will be in the form of a survey-questionnaire. The survey-questionnaire doesn't include the whole Spanish population, but only a sample of its population. Stopher (2012, p. 8) describes a sample as ''some subset of a population." This can be a large amount or just a small amount of the population. In likely most cases it is recommended to measure on a subset of the population.

When measuring a subset of the population, it is important that the sample is small enough to be managed in an effective way, in terms of time and cost, but on the other hand must be large enough to generalize, therefore in this research a minimum of 100 respondents is needed (Greetham, 2004, p. 206).

Survey-questionnaire design

The survey was created as a self-administered internet survey, existing out of a total of 17 questions. The questionnaire was created with the program Google Survey and was conducted from Sunday the 24th of March 2019 to Sunday the 7th of April 2019. The survey was shared through different ways: in the professional tourism field (work area of the researcher herself), among students at Eserp Business School, and shared on social media platforms as Instagram and Facebook.

As this research has been focused on a sample of the Spanish population, the questionnaire was conducted in Spanish, in order to avoid the possibility of respondents not understanding certain questions, what could have led to misunderstandings. First, the respondents of the survey where informed with a very small introduction about what the purpose of the research was. Directly after that, general information and the socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, occupation, education, marital status, and income were asked. Also, other aspects more related to travel were asked such as with who they travel, which things are of importance to them when traveling. Later on, more focused on the destination Amsterdam itself asking the respondents about how much they would spend and probably in which season of the year for how many days if visiting the city.

Secondly, respondents were asked about their general motivation when it comes to travel, and about which of the aspects attracts them to visit Amsterdam. After that the respondents were asked about which aspects come to their mind when thinking of Amsterdam, and as well one open question was included which asked the respondents about their own global image that they have of Amsterdam. In the last part of the survey, two questions related to information sources were included. The first question was related through which of the sources they had heard about Amsterdam, followed by the second question which of the sources they had used in order to obtain more information about the city.

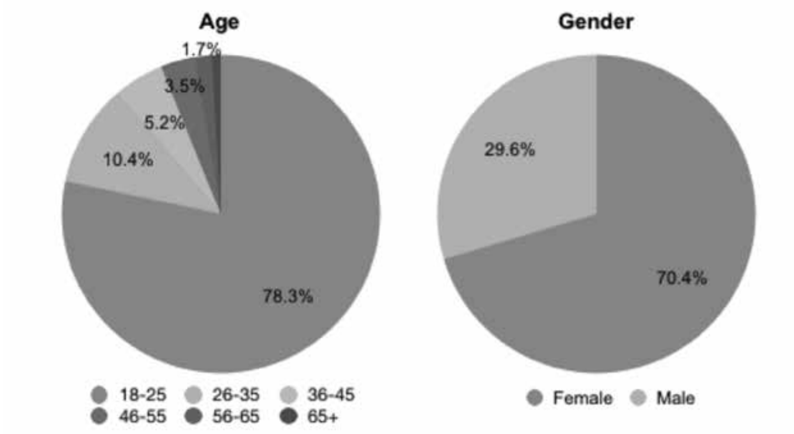
RESULTS

The research was conducted from March 24th until April 7th, 2019. In total, 115 people with Spanish nationality responded to the survey in a . This section is divided into four subchapters in which the results of each can be found.

General questions & socio-demographic characteristics

As shown in Figure 6, the majority, with a total of 90 (78.3%) respondents, were in the age range of 18 and 25 years old. The second largest group of 12 (10.4%) respondents between 26 and 35 years old, followed by 6 respondents (5.2%) between 36 and 45 years old, 4 respondents (3.5%) between 46 and 55 years old, a total of 2 (1.7%) respondents between 56 and 65 years old, and only 1 (0,9%) respondent older than 65 years old. In Figure 6, it is shown that most of the respondents, with a total of 81 (70,4%), were female, and 34 (29,6%) male.

Figure 6: The age and gender of the respondents



At least 90 of the respondents (78.2%) are still studying, this is due the fact that the majority of all respondents are between 18 and 25 years old. This followed by the second group with a total of 24 (20.9%) who responded to be employed. None of the respondents are un-employed at the moment and one of the respondents of 65+ (0.9%) responded to be retired.

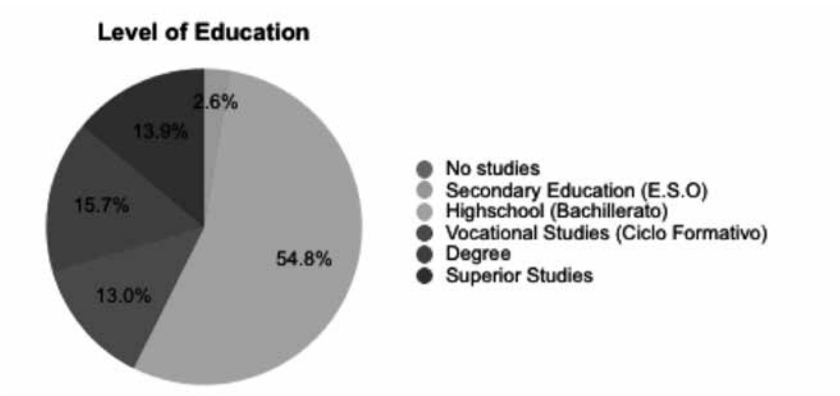
As we can see in Figure 7, when respondents were asked about their marital status most of the respondents are single, with a total of 103 (89.5%). With single we refer to without partner or with partner but not married. Only 11 respondents (9.6%) are married, and one person (0.9%) stated to be separated/divorced.

Figure 7: The occupation and marital status of the respondents

All of the people who responded to the survey have some kind of education completed, as none of them responded to be completely without any studies. Only 3 (2.6%) of them have completed secondary education so called in Spain E.S.O. The majority of 63 people (54.8%) completed two additional years of high school, in Spain called Bachillerato.

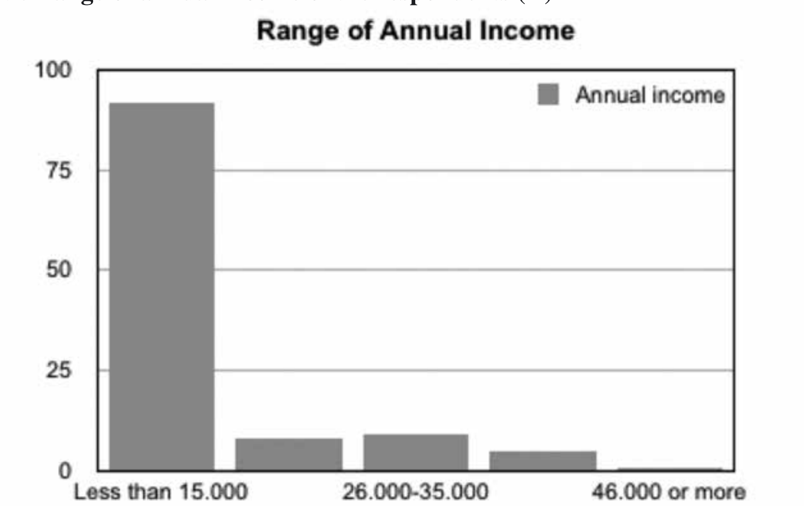
Another 15 (13%) of them stated they finished their vocational studies, in Spain called Ciclo Formativo. A total of 18 (15.7%) respondants have finished a degree, and 16 (13.9%) of them completed superior studies, which can consist of masters, Phd´s, etc.

Figure 8. Level of education completed of the respondents



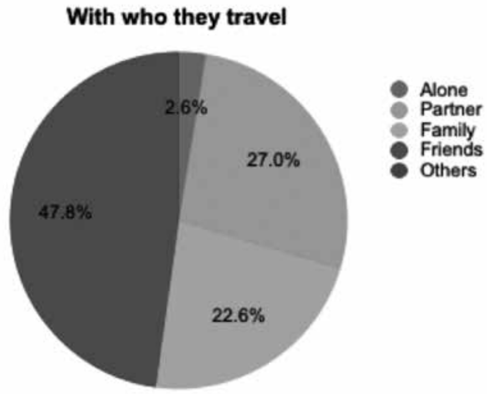
The range of annual income mainly is less than 15.000€ a year, as the majority of 92 (80%) people responded to this option. Other ranges are with 9 peoples' annual income in the range of 26.000 - 35.000€, 8 people in the range of 16.000 - 25.000€, 5 people in the range of 36.000 - 45.000€, and only one of them responded to having an annual income of 46.000€ or more on a yearly basis.

Figure 9: Range of annual income of the respondents (€)



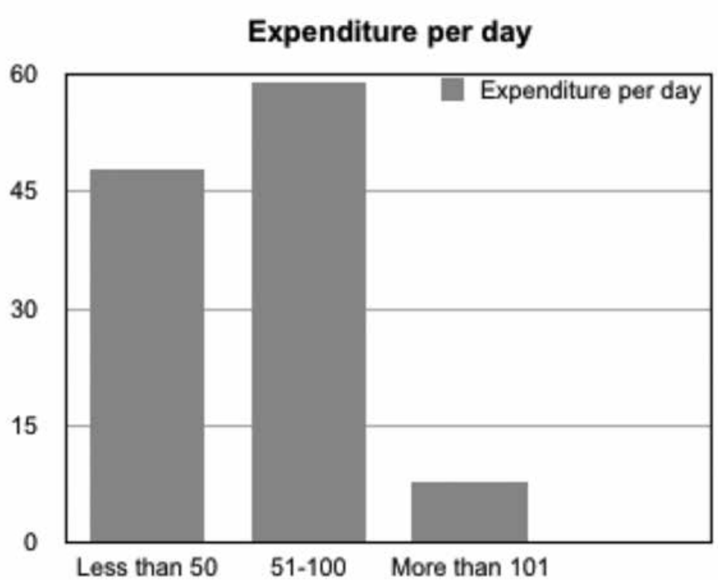
Furthermore, respondents were asked about with who they travel (Figure 12). Almost half of the people responded to travelling with friends, followed by people who travel with their partner, friends, and only 3 of all respondents stated to travel alone.

Figure 10: With whom the respondents travel



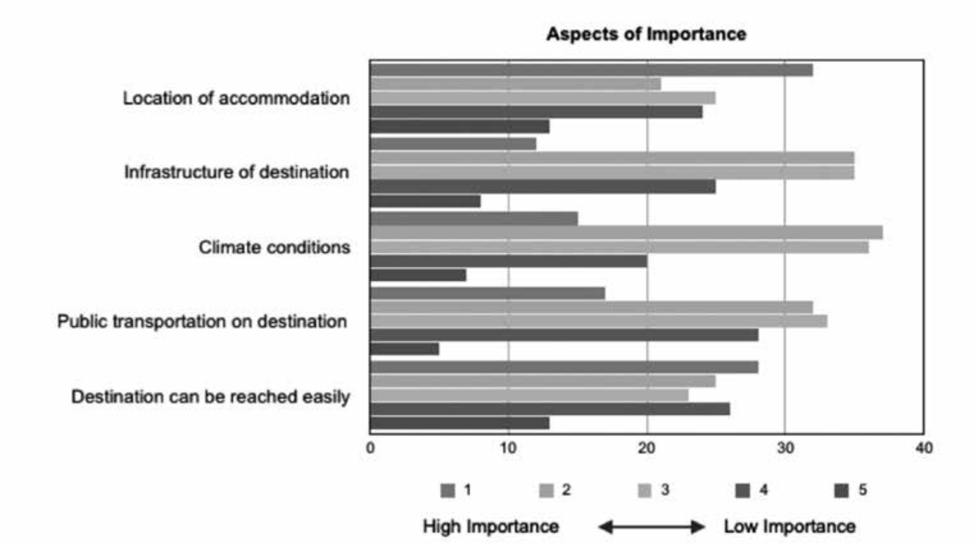
Most of the people stated to be willing to spend between 51 and 100 € per day, if visiting Amsterdam. Followed by others who responded to spend less than 50 € per day, and just a small amount responded willing to spend more than 101 € per day.

Figure 11: Expenditure per day of the respondents (€)



In the survey, respondents were also asked about some aspects they take into account when traveling to a destination. The following aspects such as location of the accommodation, infrastructure of a destination, the climate conditions of the place, public transportation on the destination itself, and if the destination could be reached easily. The respondents were asked to choose between the numbers 1 to 5, meaning 1 as high importance to them and 5 as no importance to them at all.

Figure 12: Aspects of importance according the respondents

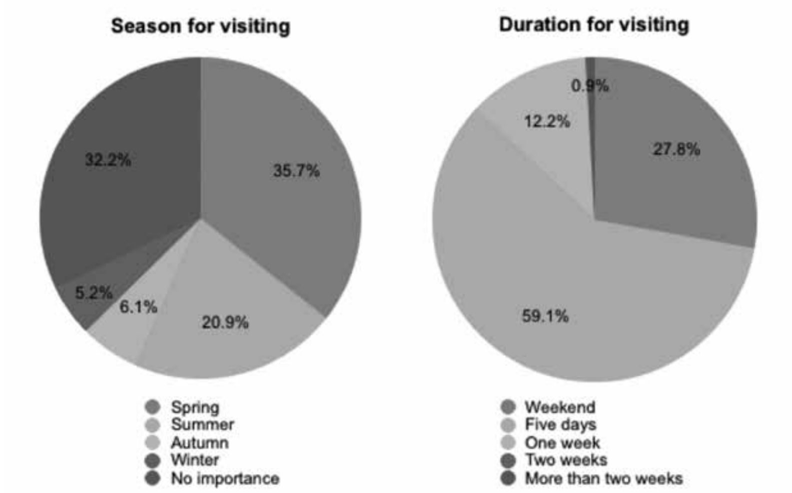


As we can see in Figure 12 above, the location of the accommodation was ranked (32 respondents) as the aspect of highest importance, secondly if the destination can be reached easily (28 respondents). In the following categories two and three, the aspects of importance were ranked almost by similar amounts of respondents, such as the infrastructure of the destination, climate conditions, public transportation on the destination itself.

If visiting Amsterdam, most of the people (35.7%) responded to be probably visiting the city during spring, followed by the ones (32.2%) who stated that the exact season of visiting Amsterdam is of no importance to them, which means it could be during all seasons. Another part (20.9%), prefers the summer season to pay a visit. While clearly less of the respondents stated to visiting during autumn (6.1%) and winter (5.2%).

As well, respondents were asked about how many days they would be planning to stay if visiting Amsterdam. More than half of them responded to be staying for 5 or fewer days (59.1%), followed by 27.8% of the respondents who stated to be visiting only for the weekend. Another 12.2% stated to be spending one week in the city, while only one person (0.9%) responded to be actually spending more than two weeks in the city, and none of them would be staying for two weeks.

Figure 13: Season and duration for visiting Amsterdam



Travel Motivations

The following subchapter contains the results of the motivations of the Spanish people for travelling to the city Amsterdam. First of all, the respondents were asked about their general motivations when it comes to travelling. The motivations were divided into four different motivators (physical, cultural, interpersonal, status and prestige). They were asked to rank them from 1 high importance to 5 less importance.

Physical Motivators, the group of physical motivators included the following aspects: to rest physically, to enjoy and have a good time, to relax mentally and to relieve stress. Cultural Motivators, the group of cultural motivators included aspects as: to learn about new cultures, to experience a different lifestyle, to visit cultural attractions and to discover new places and things.

Interpersonal Motivators, the group of interpersonal motivators included aspects as: to get away from everyday routine, to spend time with family, to spend time with friends and to meet new people. Status and Prestige Motivators, this group included the following aspects: to learn something new about myself, to increase my knowledge, to tell others about it (about the trip), to go to a fashionable place.

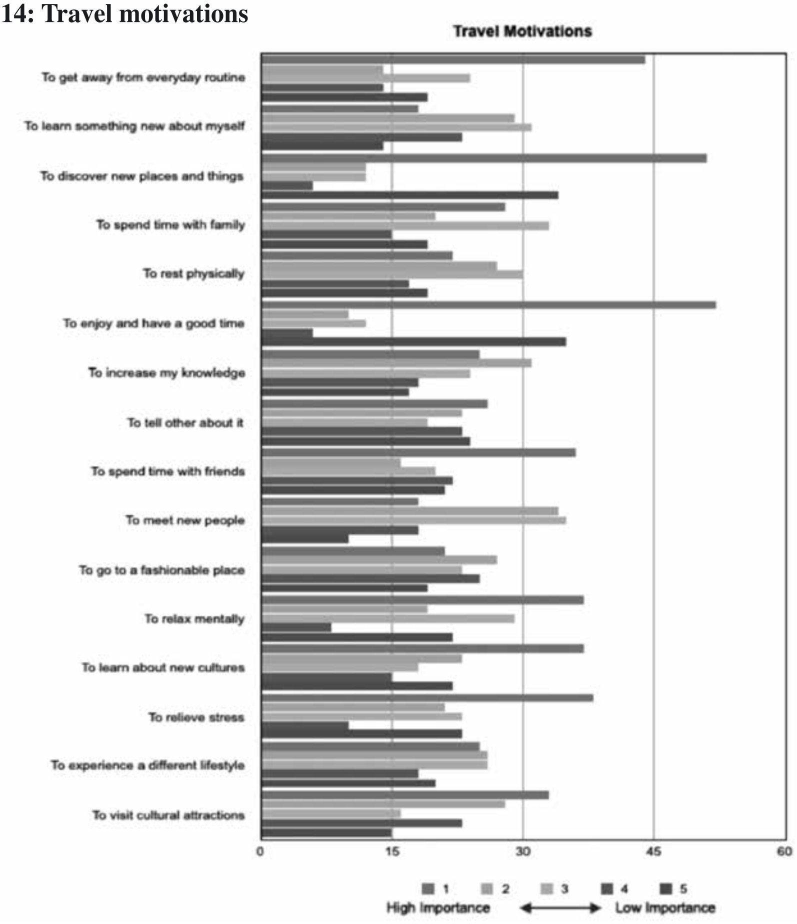
As Figure 14 shows, the highest ranking of importance (number one: blue color) according to the respondents were to enjoy and have a good time (52 respondents), to discover new places (51 respondents), and to escape from the daily routine (44 respondents). Followed by others as to relieve stress (38 respondents), to relax mentally (37 respondents), and to learn about new cultures (37 respondents).

Respondents found the following aspects to meet new people (34 respondents), to increase my knowledge (31 respondents), to learn new things about themselves (29 respondents), to visit cultural attractions (28 respondents), to rest physically, and to go to a fashionable place (both 27 respondents) as second highest ranking (number two: green color).

Respondents stated (number three: yellow color) that the following aspects as to meet new people (35 respondents), to spend time with their family (33 respondents), to learn new things about themselves (31 respondents), to rest physically (30 respondents) and to relax mentally (29 respondents) were not of high importance but also not of lowest importance to them.

Moving on to the aspects that were ranked as lower importance (number four: red color), the respondents stated that going to a fashionable place (25 respondents), to learn new things about themselves, to tell others about the trip, and to visit cultural attractions (all three with 23 respondents) were not as much of importance to them. In the lowest ranked aspects (number five: purple color) respondents clearly stated that to enjoy and have a good time (35 respondents) and to discover new places (34 respondents) were of no importance to them.

Figure 14: Travel motivations

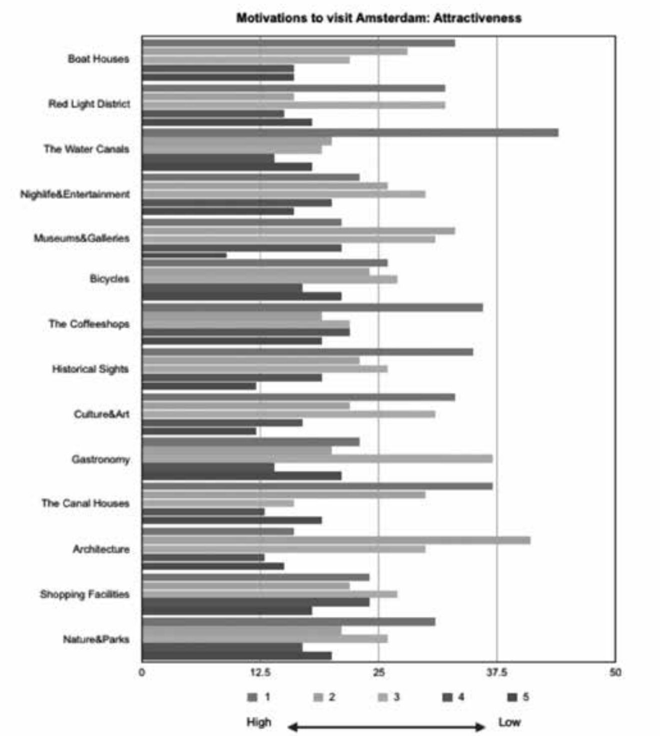


Afterwards, respondents were asked about which of the specific aspects of Amsterdam attract them to visit the city, results are shown in Figure 15. The most attractive aspects ranked highest (number one: blue color) that motivate the respondents to visit Amsterdam were the water canals (44 respondents), the canal houses (37 respondents), the Coffeeshops (36 respondents), and historical sights (35 respondents).

The second highest (number two: green color) ranked aspects are the architecture of the city (41 respondents), followed by museum and galleries (33 respondents), and the canal houses (30 respondents). Further, the respondents stated that aspects such as gastronomy (37 respondents), the Red Light District (32 respondents), museum and galleries (31 respondents), culture and art (31 respondents), the architecture of the city, and its nightlife and entertainment (both 30 respondents) were not of high importance but also not of low importance to them. In the lower ranked aspects (number four: red color) as the shopping facilities (24 respondents), the Coffeeshops (22 respondents), followed by museums and galleries (21 respondents) were not of high importance to them.

In the final lower ranked aspects according to the respondents of the survey bicycles (21 respondents), gastronomy (21 respondents), and nature and parks (20 respondents) were the lowest importance in their opinion.

Figure 15: Motivations to visit Amsterdam



Destination image of Amsterdam

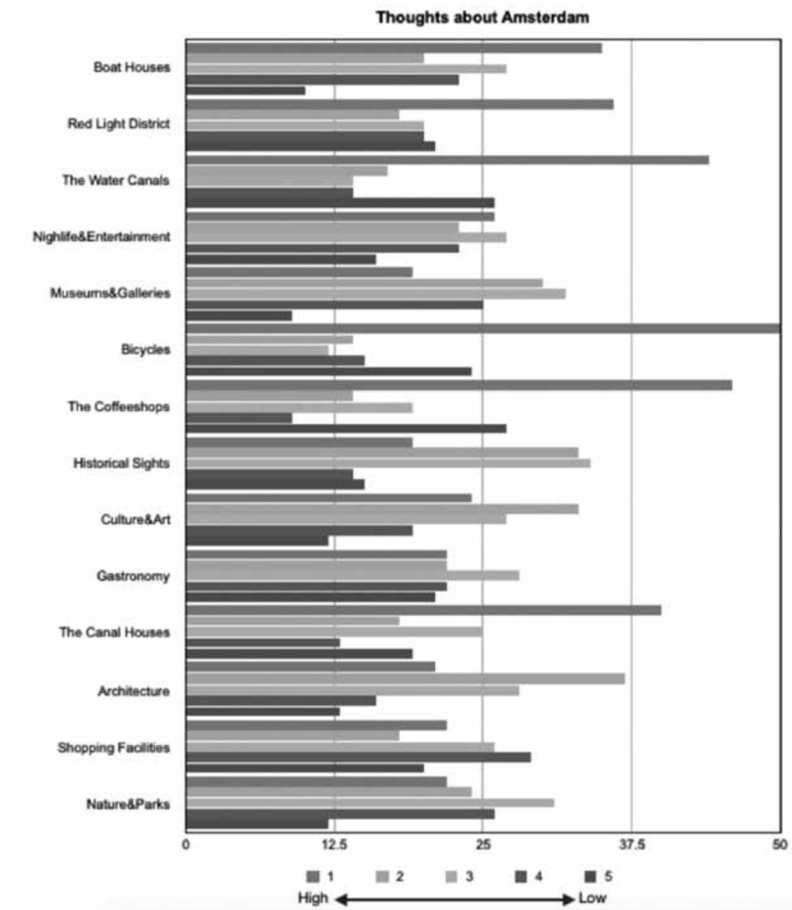
The following subchapter contains results about the image the Spanish people have about the city Amsterdam. The respondents of the survey were asked about which of the aspects come to their mind when thinking about Amsterdam. They were asked to rank them from 1 as coming to their mind to 5 not coming to their mind. The results are shown in Figure 15.

In the highest ranked aspects (number one: blue color), according to the respondents the aspects that definitely came to their mind when thinking about the city were the bicycles (50), the Coffeeshops (46 respondents), the water canals (44 respondents) and the canal houses (40 respondents). Other relatively high ones of importance were the Red Light District (36 respondents) and the boat houses (35 respondents).

In the second highest ranked aspects (number two: green color) the architecture of the city (37 respondents), followed by historical sights (33 respondents), and culture and art (33 respondents) were stated to be coming to their mind when thinking about Amsterdam. Aspects that were not directly coming as first to their mind, but also not at last (number three: yellow color) indicated to be the historical sights (34 respondents), museums and galleries (32 respondents), nature and parks (31 respondents).

In the following ranking stated as almost not coming to their mind when thinking about Amsterdam (number four: red color) were the shopping facilities of the city (29 respondents), followed by nature and parks (26 respondents), museums and galleries (25 respondents). Moving further to the aspects that according to the respondents were the things that came less to their mind when thinking about Amsterdam were indicated as the Coffeeshops (27 respondents), the water canals (26 respondents), and bicycles (24 respondents).

Figure 16: Thoughts about Amsterdam



When respondents were asked to describe in their own words what their global image was of Amsterdam, many different words were mentioned but could be easily categorized as different descriptions with the same meanings. Many described it in words such as beautiful, wonderful, a city with its own charm and character, a cosmopolitan city. Someone even mentioned it as Northern Venice (referring to Venice Italy but Amsterdam as the northern version of it). Most of the respondents also included descriptions related to culture and history, using the terms as multicultural, a lot of culture, a place of historical interest and a lot of history.

Another category frequently used were the words as marijuana and cannabis, joints, Coffeeshops, and city of drugs. Also, often used words were legal and freedom. Legal referring to aspects as coffeeshops, drugs, and prostitution that are found legal in the city of Amsterdam. One respondent described Amsterdam with the following sentence: where the illegal is legal.

Others used similar descriptions such as: liberal, a lot of freedom, and an open-minded city. Even few of the respondents (5 in total) used the word "tranquility'' and "quiet'' to describe the city. Some others chose to describe the city in more details, some examples:

- *"A cosmopolitan city, with a great nightlife and interesting architecture. The first thing that comes to your mind are the coffeeshops and bicycles."*
- *"Normally the image that people have is the legality of drugs, but I think it is a very beautiful city with a lot of history that deserves to be visited for more than only drugs."*
- *"I have an image of Amsterdam that probably does not correspond to reality and its most attractive points are probably very superficial, like the Coffeeshops."*
- *"Culturally and historically very rich, formed by canals. Famous or its architecture, local culture, museums and green áreas."*

Information sources

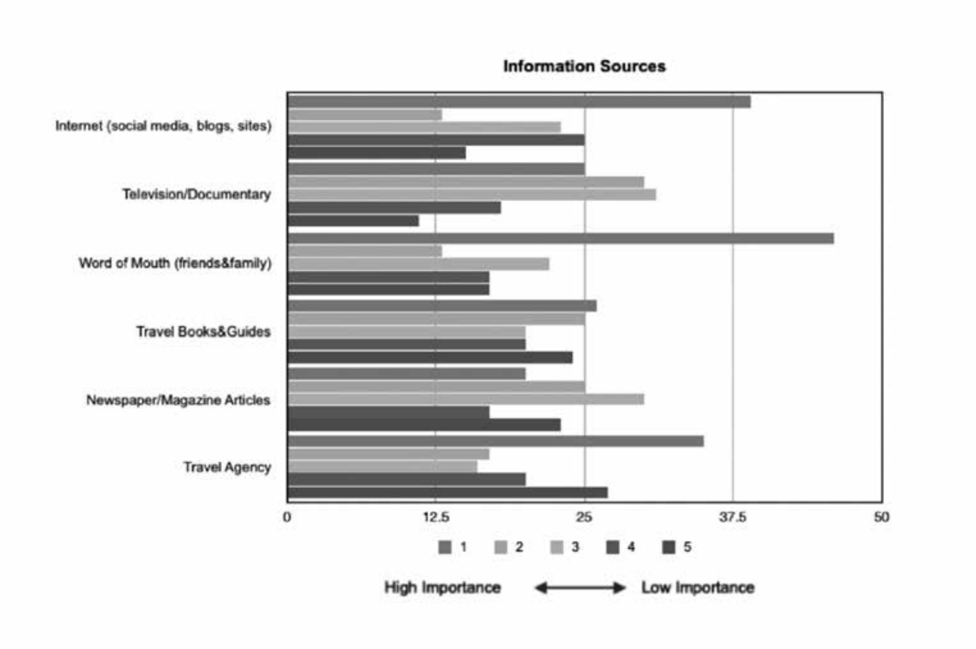
In the last part of the survey the respondents were asked about which of the information sources were of importance when hearing about Amsterdam and which of them were of importance when gaining further information about the city. The information sources provided in the survey were divided into the following categories: the internet (in the form of social media, blogs, and sites like TripAdvisor), television or documentary, Word of Mouth (friends and family), travel books and guides, newspapers and magazine articles, and travel agencies.

The most popular information sources with the highest ranking (number one: blue color) where respondents did hear about Amsterdam were through Word of Mouth, in the form of friends and family (46 respondents), secondly through the internet as on social media, blogs, or sites like TripAdvisor (39 respondents), followed by the travel agency (35 respondents).

In the second highest ranking (number two: green color) the highest were television and documentary (30 respondents), after that came travel books, guides, newspaper or magazine articles (both 25 respondents). The two information sources most ranked in the third (yellow color) meaning neither of high importance nor low importance when it came to where the respondents did hear about Amsterdam were television and documentary (31 respondents) and newspaper or magazine articles (30 respondents).

Furthermore, in the lower ranked group (number four: red color) the internet like social media, blogs, and sites like TripAdvisor (25 respondents), secondly with the same number of respondents (20) were travel books and guides, and the travel agency. In the last category (number five: purple color), the information sources with the lowest importance when hearing about Amsterdam, according to the respondents were the travel agency (27 respondents), travel books and guides (24 respondents), newspaper or magazine articles (23 respondents).

Figure 17: Information sources

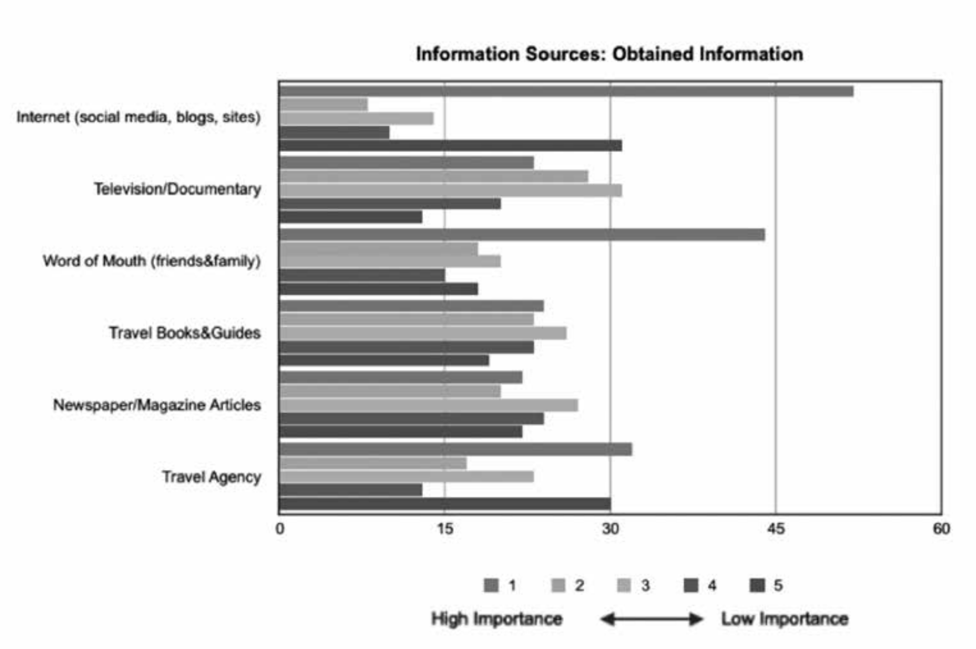


Further, shown in Figure 16 the information sources the respondents most frequently or less used when they obtained further information about Amsterdam. The most used information sources (number one: blue color) among the respondents was clearly the internet, in the form of social media, blogs and sites like for example TripAdvisor (55 respondents), followed by Word of Mouth in the form of friends and family (44 respondents). Another source was the travel agency (32 respondents).

In the second most used information sources (number two: green color), sources as television and documentary (28 respondents) and travel books and guides (23 respondents) were stated as most used. Moving on to the next one (number three: yellow color), in where the information sources were neither elevis less used, were elevisión and documentary (31 respondents), followed by newspaper and magazine articles (27 respondents), and afterwards travel books and guides (26 respondents).

Respondents stated that newspaper and magazine articles (24 respondents) and the travel books and guides (23 respondents) to them were of no importance nor frequently used information sources in order to obtain further information about the city. The information sources that were ranked as the lowest of importance, nor used to obtain more information were the internet (31 respondents) and the travel agency (30 respondents).

Figure 18: Information sources for obtained information



DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

What motivates the Spanish people to visit Amsterdam?

As mentioned before in the literature review, people engage in tourism for different kind of reasons or motives, and therefore according Baloglu and McCleary (1999), the most important concept when it comes to understanding tourism behavior is motivation. Researchers established different kind of motivation theories, and in the self-proposed research model for this research that is based on previous ones there was chosen for the motivation theory according Goeldner, Ritchie, and McIntosh (1999), who divided their theory into four different categories: physical, cultural, interpersonal, status and prestige motivators.

As seen in the results of this research, the most important motivations to travel according the respondents were in the following order; to enjoy and have a good time, to discover new places, and to escape from the daily routine. Surprisingly, the same aspects that are mentioned to be the most important motivations to travel are also by the respondents mentioned as the ones which less motivated them to travel; to enjoy and have a good time, and to discover new places. A conclusion that can be made is that in this case the motivation to travel also clearly depends on the own needs, wishes and objectives of an individual, as Fodness (1994) states as well. Furthermore, the aspects of the city which attracted the respondents the most and motivate them to pay a visit to Amsterdam were the water canals, the canal houses, the Coffeeshops, and the historical sights of the city.

How several factors such as destination image, personal factors like socio-demographic characteristics, and information sources influence a tourist's final decision to travel to Amsterdam? To begin with the destination image, that according to Baloglu & McCleary (1999), plays an important role for tourists when they are in their selection process of choosing a destination to travel to, and can be best described as the impressions that we have of a place (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003).

The global image the respondents have of Amsterdam is that it is seen as wonderful city with its own charm and character, where a lot of culture and history can be found. To add that, at the same time, Amsterdam is seen as a place where a lot of freedom can be found, and where illegal things like consuming soft-drugs and prostitution are actually legal. In the results, aspects that came immediately to the mind of the respondents when thinking about Amsterdam were the bicycles, the Coffeeshops, the water canals and the canal houses. We can conclude that the destination image of the city Amsterdam plays a role in the final decision when deciding to visit the city, as motivations and the overall image are similar. Only to add, that although bicycles are seen as one of the main aspects when thinking about Amsterdam, it is of no motivation to the respondents to visit the city for that.

Baloglu and McCleary (1999), as well Beerli and Martin (2004), both concluded that socio-demographics of an individual play a role in the actual image a person has about a destination. Therefore, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) concluded as well that the main determinants were age and education. In this research, there were no differences between the different age groups, gender, and other characteristics such as occupation, marital status, level of education, and annual income found.

As the results showed clearly that the majority of the respondents were in the age range of 18-25 years old and the majority was female. Concluding that due to the age range mostly young Spanish adults responded to the survey, other socio-demographic characteristics were influenced by that as to the question of what their occupation is most of them stated to be students, mostly single, all respondents completed some kind of education and the majority therefore high school (Bachillerato in Spain). The annual income stated to be the most of less than 15,000 euros per year and expenditure would be mostly between 51-100 euros per day if visiting Amsterdam.

Also what can be said is that most of them responded to be traveling with friends. The majority would visit Amsterdam for a duration of five days. The most popular season to pay a visit would be during spring followed closely by others stating that the season when visiting Amsterdam is of no importance to them.

Furthermore, other aspects of importance to take in account when choosing a destination to travel to resulted to be with a majority; the location of the accommodation and if the destination can be reached easily. Although, as well here it can be concluded that it depends on each individual as the same aspects are also stated to be the ones with the least importance according the respondents; if the destination could be reached easily and the location of the accommodation.

One of the components of the destination image formation is the perceptual/cognitive beliefs, which are formed by the information sources coming from the outside. (Um & Crompton 1990; Um 1993; cited in Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The information sources that were the most important sources of where the respondents actually did hear about the city Amsterdam were through Word of Mouth in the form of family and friends who did tell them about the city, but also the internet in the form of social media, blogs, and sites like TripAdvisor.

The information sources that were used by the respondents in order to gain further information about Amsterdam, stated to be mostly by the internet, here as well in the form of social media, blogs and sites like TripAdvisor. Followed by Word of Mouth (family and friends), and the travel agency. Surprisingly, two sources; the internet (31 respondents) and the travel agency (30 respondents) that were among the most used sources are also the ones that are used less.

For the information sources, we can conclude that the two main ones that helped the respondents when hearing about the city and obtaining further information were Word of Mouth (family and friends) and the internet (social media, blogs, sites like TripAdvisor), but here as well to mention that this depended on each individual, as the same sources were stated as of high and low importance.

LIMITATIONS & FUTURE INVESTIGATION

The limitation of this research is the fact that most respondents of the survey (78.3 %) are in the age between 18-25 years old, due the fact that the survey was shared at Eserp Business School itself (most students are between 18-25 years old), as well in the professional tourism field (work of the researcher herself) and on social media (Facebook and Instagram), all three were the younger population is more active. Only a small amount of people in other age ranges answered the survey. This leads to limitations in the research, as one of the objectives was to know how socio-demographic factors such as age and others influence.

Another limitation of the research could be the sample size, as 115 people with Spanish nationality responded the survey. This is a very small percentage of the whole Spanish population. Furthermore, another significant limitation in the research was that when analyzing the results and the conclusion of it, an important factor that played a role was the personality of each individual and his/her preferences. As seen in the results, some aspects in the same question were ranked as most important but at the same time as well as less import. Here we could clearly see that many answers were based on the individuals own personality and preferences.

In a future research, the personality should be investigated and analyzed to be able to make concrete conclusions on this aspect. Another possibility to investigate in a future investigation could be to differentiate the Spanish people into two groups; people who have visited the city before (previous experience) and the ones who haven´t. In this research there was no difference made between them.

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Training sustainability in Egyptian hotels: an exploration of employee desires and manager motives

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to find out the differences between opinions for managers and employees that positively impact training sustainability for the tourism sector of Egypt. Data for the study have been collected through primary source that are from questionnaires surveys. The sample of this study are employees and hotels managers. A survey of 540 employees via self-administrated questionnaire with the help of stratified sampling technique is conducted with a response rate of almost 80%. The data have been checked through statistical software SPSS 25 to perform Descriptive analysis, t-test. The findings were presented using tables and figures. There are statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the averages that the employees' contributed by paying part of the training costs in the tourism sector of Egypt. There are no statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the average attitudes that hotels should be sponsored by other bodies like MoT, TVET or ITC in bearing the cost of training in the tourism sector of Egypt.

Keywords: Financial Sustainability, Training Programs, Employees, Hotels Mangers.

BACKGROUND

Training is essential for hospitality facilities to improve employees' skills and upgrade the image of the tourist product among other destinations. Training gains support by governmental bodies as well as tourist operators themselves.

In Egypt, training efforts were always sponsored by the government for the past twenty years. Serious training efforts started since 1998 in collaboration with the American Hotel and Lodging Associations (AH&LA) for Four years till 2002. In 2003, MoT sponsored ETF training activities till 2015. In 2015 and 2016, MoT resumed sponsorship for training activities until it stopped completely in April 2016. In 2017, training activities were resumed sponsored by the European Union (EU) and Technical and Vocational Education and Training Reform Program (TVET) till now.

These multiple stops refer always to financial crises in training budgets. In other words, sustainability of training is temporary and is always subject to absence all of a sudden due to financial problems.

This study is focused on assessing and evaluating importance levels and ways of sustaining the tourism and hospitality workforce. For this purpose, a literature review was collected concerning approaches used to sustain training activities and practices around the world and other relevant topics.

Financial Sustainability

Nonprofits observe best business practices, measure effectiveness, report to stakeholders, and manage billions in investments. Nonprofits use volunteer management programs, marketing plans, and fund development operations to further their missions and improve their services. All of these functions are predicated on financial sustainability and require a strong understanding of the factors that affect nonprofit finances (Prentice, 2015b).

Unlike the situation with for-profit firms, where financial sustainability may, fundamentally, be measured by organizations continuing in the market, the same is not true for NPOs. Scholars have noted the difficulties of using for-profit measures, such as bankruptcy, for organizational survival or failure (Gilbert et al., 1990; Helmig et al., 2014: Hillegeist et al., 2004; Prentice, 2015b; Simon et al., 2006). Given these limitations, scholarship has addressed the use of specific accounting metrics as predictors of organizational vulnerability, usually defined as reductions in relative program expenditure or net assets in subsequent years [Most usually three years are used. See for example studies by Greenlee and Trussel (2000), Keating et al. (2005), Tevel et al. (2015), Trussel (2002), and Trussel and Greenlee (2004)]. As a contrast to this approach, Bowman (2011) proposes a normative model which requires NPOs to maintain relative capital over time.

In addition to metric-based research, scholars have also extensively examined the efficacy of a range of business tactics including the development of alliances, the importance of income diversity, and the accumulation of savings, aimed at reducing the probability of financial vulnerability and achieving financial sustainability (Besel et al., 2011; Bingham & Walters, 2013; Bowman, 2008; Gold, 2008; Gregory & Howard, 2009; Hunter, 2006; Leviton et al., 2006; National Audit Office (UK), 2009; Seel, 2006; Struthers, 2004; Weerawardena et al., 2010).

As noted by Weerawardena (2010); however, with the exception of scholarship in social entrepreneurship, much of this later work has been operational, fragmented, and under-developed. For example, in considering studies addressing the need to consider mission versus non-mission expenditure, Weerawardena et al. (2010) advise:

The issue of balancing mission and money has only been addressed as an operational issue that represents the symptoms of the core issue ... to build a sustainable organization that can continue [to] deliver social value via the pursuit of its social mission.

In addition, while there have been ongoing studies into the antecedents of financial vulnerability, viability and health in the NPO sector, scholars point to omissions in the research. These gaps include that there is no common conclusion on the use of financial ratios in the non-profit context (Helmig et al., 2014) and also that there are no theorized frameworks for financial analysis (Chen & Shimerda, 1981; Prentice, 2015a) or financial sustainability (Helmig et al., 2014; Leviton et al., 2006). Further, Chikoto and Neely (2013) consider that the research which has been undertaken has focused on the question of financial stability rather than the broader issue of financial capacity.

Prentice (2015), in a recent examination of the use of financial metrics to predict financial health, comments on both the need for financial sustainability and the need to understand its antecedents, to enable and underpin NPO accounting and operations. He, and other scholars, posit that the dialogue enabled by the use of financial metrics is helpful in facilitating an understanding of financial health and potential resource trade-offs, demonstrating the usefulness of the *internal* use of metrics by boards and management (Hager, 2001; Harrow et al., 1999; Hyndman & McKillop, 1999; Keating et al., 2005; Prentice, 2015b; Tevel et al., 2015).

Financial sustainability (along with the related constructs of financial vulnerability, viability, and health) is observed as a phrase implied in the literature, but one which is poorly defined and understood. After examining financial sustainability's meaning as used in the literature, the chapter considers the evolution of research which has sought to understand financial sustainability's antecedents and those of the related constructs of financial vulnerability, viability, and health. Finally, a set of potential metrics which may be used to inform financial sustainability is suggested.

Data Collection

In this study, the researcher used the descriptive analytical approach to reflect the phenomenon under investigation quantitatively and qualitatively. The approach describes and analyses the phenomenon. In addition, it reveals the relationships between its various dimensions to interpret and access general conclusions that may contribute, improve, and develop the reality.

For studying "Benchmarking of the Financial Sustainability for the Egyptian Tourism Workforce Skills Development Projects," the researcher used two major sources of information that can be classified as follows:

A- The Secondary Sources

The researcher used in dealing with the theoretical framework the secondary sources of information as the books, relevant references, periodicals, reports, articles, previous researches, and studies that dealt with the study subject. In addition, the researcher searched the various internet sites.

B- Primary Sources
In order to deal with the analytical aspects of the research, the researcher used the primary sources, i.e., a questionnaire as the main tool of research that is prepared specifically for this purpose. The questionnaire forms were distributed to highlight the benchmarking of the financial sustainability for the Egyptian tourism workforce skills development projects.

The Study Population and Sample
A- The Study Population
The research dealt with the benchmarking of the financial sustainability for the Egyptian tourism workforce skills development projects. Therefore, the dimension of the current study is restricted only to those working in Egyptian hotels (hotel managers and employees) as they have been trained by the project.

B- The Study Sample
For the survey, it aimed at verifying the hypothesis of the study and answering its questions depending on the method of complete enumeration. It consisted of (500) employees in hotels, (40) mangers of hotels. The researcher distributed (540) forms: (500) to employees in hotels, (40) to mangers of hotels. Some (470) forms were returned and thereby the returned of forms ratio is 80%, which proves the interest of respondents and their seriousness in participating in this research. Some (18) forms were excluded as they were unfit for analysis. Thus, the number of forms to be analyzed is (414) forms. This can be illustrated in the following table:

Table 1: The survey sample

Population	Sample	Returned	Return ratio	Invalid for statistical analysis	End sample valid for statistical analysis
Employees of hotels	500	399	79.8%	15	384
Hotels Managers	40	33	82.5%	3	30
Total	540	432	80%	18	414

Data Collection Instrument and Source
A- First: Descriptive research is used to portray characteristics of a population. Descriptive statistics offer frequency distributions and use measures of central tendency and other measures to describe a sample or population.

B- Second: The used questionnaires consists of (6) statements, mainly close-ended questions, scaled on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree” where 1 means strongly disagree and 5 represents strongly agree.

Likert scale was used to evaluate the questionnaire as shown in the following Table:

Table 2: Likert scale

Reply	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Degree	1	2	3	4	5

These answers were classified into five equal-range levels by the following equation:

Category Length = (the largest value – the lowest value) ÷ number of measure alternatives = (5-1) ÷ 5 = 0.80

To get the following value of weighted means of each description or alternative:

Table 3: Distribution of means according to the hierarchy used

Description	Weighted mean value
Strongly Agree	from 4.2 to 5
Agree	from 3.4 to less than 4.2
Neutral	from 2.6 to less than 3.4
Disagree	from 1.8 to less than 2.6
Strongly Disagree	from 1 to less than 1.8

The Data Statistical Analysis

After the tabulation of respondents' replies, the replies were coded and data entered using computer software. Then, the data were processed statistically using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version (22). In order to achieve the study objectives and analysis of the data collected, various statistical methods were used as follows:

Different statistical analysis used:

- Frequencies and percentages: to describe the characteristics of respondents.
- Mathematical "Mean": to find out how high or low the study population responded to the study and their replies to the statements of the questionnaire factors.
- Standard Deviation: to know the extent of deviation of the study sample responses on each statement of the questionnaire factors. It is noted that the standard deviation shows the dispersion in the study sample responses on each adequacy, whenever its value becomes closer to zero, responses become concentrated and their dispersion decrease in the scale.
- "Pearson" coefficient: to measure the Validity of the questionnaires in addition to the direction and strength of the correlation between various factors.
- "Cronbach Alpha" coefficient: to determine the reliability of the questionnaires.
- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Verifying the Tools Validity
The researcher conducted Validity tests on the survey sample in two ways as follows:

First: internal consistency:
The internal consistency meant the consistency of each statement of the questionnaire with the dimension to which it belongs. The researcher calculated the internal consistency of the questionnaire through calculating the correlation coefficients between each statement of the dimension of the questionnaire and the total score for the same dimension.

Second: structural validity
Structural validity is one of the standards of the tool validity which measures the extent of achieving the objectives that the tool wants to achieve. It shows the relevance of each dimension of study to the total score of the Statements of questionnaire.

Structural Validity of the Test Statements
The correlation coefficients between the value of each statement and the overall value of the fields of the questionnaire, which shows that the correlation coefficients that ranged between (0.519) and (0.882) shown is significant at the level of significance is less than 0.01 which demonstrates the validity of the statements of the questionnaire to measure the objective for which they were used.

Reliability of the Study Tools
The researcher conducted reliability test on the survey sample by applying Cronbach's alpha coefficient as follows: that reliability coefficient is high (0.812).Will be unacceptable if the reliability coefficient will be less than (0.6) according to Palevt (2000).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

1- Analysis of the Characteristics of the Employees Study Sample
A- Gender: Table 4 distribution of the study population by gender.

Table 4: Gender distribution of the employees' sample

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	331	81
Female	53	19
Total	384	100.0

From Table 4, it is clear that the number of males (n=331) represents (81%) of the total employees' sample. The number of females (n= 53) represents (19%) of the total employees' sample.

B- Age of Respondents: Table 5 shows distribution of the study population by Age variable

Table 5: Age distribution of employees' sample

Age	Frequency	Percent
Less than 30 years	136	35.4
30 to 40 years	101	26.5
40 to 50 years	90	23.4
More than 50 years	57	14.9
Total	**384**	**100.0**

From Table 5, it is clear that age group (Less than 30 years) (n=136) represents (35.4%) of the total employees' sample. Age group (from 30 to 40 years) (n=101) represents (26.5%) of the total employees' sample. Age group (from 40 to 50 years) (n= 90) represents (23.4%) of the total employees' sample. Age group (More than 50 years) (n= 57) represents (14.9%) of the total employees' sample. In other words, around to third of the people fall in the age bracket of less than (30 to 40 years).

B- Educational Qualification of Respondents: Table 6 Distribution of the study population by educational qualification.

Table 6: The educational qualification distribution of employees' sample

Age	Frequency	Percent
Mediate or less	29	7.6
Intermediate	65	16.9
University Graduate	271	70.6
Post-graduate	19	4.9
Total	**384**	**100.0**

From Table 6, it is clear that the number of mediate or less (n=29) represents (7.6) % of the total employees' sample. The number of intermediate level (n= 65) represents (16.9%) of the total employees' sample. The number of university graduate (n= 271) represents (70.6%) of the total employees' sample. The number of post-graduate (n= 19) represents (4.9%) of the total employees' sample. University graduates constitute the majority in the respect.

D- Lengths of Work Experience of the Same Hotel: Table 7 shows distribution of the study population by lengths of work experience at the same hotel.

Table 7: The lengths of work experience distribution of employees' sample

Lengths of work experience of the same hotel	Frequency	Percent
Less than 5 years	102	26.6
From 5 to 10 years	143	37.2
From 10 to 15 years	73	19
More than 15 years	66	17.2
Total	**384**	**100.0**

From Table 7, it is clear that the number of employees with less than 5 years' work at the same hotel (n=102) represents (26.6%) of the total employees' sample. The number of employees from 5 to 10 years' work at the same hotel (n= 143) represents (37.2%) of the total sample. The number of employees from 10 to 15 years' work at the same hotel (n= 73) represents (19%) of the total employees' sample. The number of employees with more than 15 years' work at the same hotel (n= 66) represents (17.2%) of the total employees' sample.

E- The Department: Table 8 distribution of the study population by department are shown below.

Table 8: Department distribution of employees' sample

Position/ Title	Frequency	Percent
Front Office	109	28.4
Housekeeping	131	34.1
Food and beverages	144	37.5
Total	**384**	**100.0**

From these tables, it is clear that the number of front office occupation (n=109) represents (28.4%) of the total sample. The number of housekeeping occupation (n= 131) represents (34.1%) of the total sample. The number of food and beverages occupation (n= 144) represents (37.5%) of the total sample.

F-Marital Status: Table 9 shows distribution of the study population in terms of marital status.

Table 9: Marital status distribution of the employees' sample

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	71	18.4
Married	273	71.1
Divorced	29	7.6
Widowed	11	2.9
Total	**384**	**100.0**

From Table 8, it is clear that the number of Single (n=71) represents (18.4%) of the total sample. The number of married employees (n= 273) represents (71.1%) of the total sample. The number of divorced (n= 29) represents (7.6%) of the total sample. The number of widowed employees (n= 11) represents (2.9%) of the total sample.

H- Governorate: Table 10 depicts distribution of the employees' sample by governorate.

Table 10: Distribution of the employees' sample based on governorate

Governorate	Frequency	Percent
Cairo	33	8.6
Luxor	123	32
Red Sea	169	44
South Sinai	59	15.4
Total	**384**	**100.0**

From Table 10, it is clear that the number of Cairo (n=33) represents (8.6%) of the total sample. The number of Luxor (n= 123) represents (32%) of the total sample. The number of Red Sea (n= 169) represents (44%) of the total sample. The number of South Sinai (n= 59) represents (15.4%) of the total sample.

2- Analysis of the Characteristics of the Hotels Managers Study Sample
A-Local versus international chain hotel: Table 11 distribution of the hotels' managers sample by local or international chain hotel.

Table 11: Local / international chain hotel distribution of the manager sample

Local versus international chain hotel	Frequency	Percent
Local Hotel	11	36.7
International Chain Hotel	19	63.3
Total	**30**	**100.0**

From Table (10), it is clear that the number of local hotels (n=11) represents (36.7%) of the total hotels' managers sample. The number of international chain hotels (n= 19) represents (63.4%) of the total hotels' managers sample.

B- Classification according to category: Table 12 distribution of the hotels' managers sample by classifications according to hotel category.

Table 12: The hotel category distribution of the hotel manager sample

Classification according to hotel category	Frequency	Percent
4 Stars	11	36.7
5 Stars	19	63.3
Total	**30**	**100.0**

From Table 12, it is clear that the number of 4 stars hotels (n=11) represents (36.7%) of the total hotels' managers sample. The number of 5 stars hotels (n= 19) represents (63.4%) of the total hotels' managers sample.

Descriptive Statistics

1-Explaining and analyzing the data of the employees' questionnaire.

This questionnaire includes (6) statements through which the researcher aimed at benchmarking the financial sustainability for the Egyptian tourism workforce skills development projects from employees' viewpoint.

Table 13: Responses of employee sample towards training / sustainability

No.	Questions		Frequency					Mean	Std.	Arrange	Approval
			S A	A	N	D	S D				Agree
1	Employee pays a partial share of the cost of training	F	132	95	101	31	25	3.724	1.2013	5	Agree
		%	34.4	24.7	26.3	8.1	6.5				
2	The hotel bears all costs of training	F	179	107	98	0	0	4.211	0.8238	3	Strongly Agree
		%	46.6	27.9	25.5	0.00	0.00				
3	The hotels should be sponsored by other bodies like MoT, TVET, ITC, ….etc in bearing the cost of training	F	145	108	75	32	24	3.828	1.2012	4	Agree
		%	37.8	28.1	19.5	8.3	6.3				

4	Agree that training courses help develop employees' skills	F	202	118	49	7	8	4.299	0.9091	2	Strongly Agree
		%	52.6	30.7	12.8	1.8	2.1				
5	Need training courses for employees	F	235	87	39	8	15	4.352	1.0137	1	Strongly Agree
		%	61.2	22.7	10.2	2.1	3.9				
6	Evaluate sustainability in training provided by official training bodies in Egypt	F	0	116	80	165	23	2.753	0.9533	6	Neutral
		%	0.00	30.2	20.8	43	6				

From table 13, it can be concluded that employees strongly support the need for training and see it as a good tool for developing their skills and that hotels should bear all costs of training all at the same level strong support.

However, some how they agree that they might partially pay for their training and support that MoT, TVET and ITC such sponsoring bodies should financially aid training activities at a lesser level of support.

2-Explaining and analyzing the data of the hotels' managers responses.
The same questionnaire that includes (6) statements was used by hotel managers to benchmark of the financial sustainability for the Egyptian tourism workforce skills development projects.

Table 14: Responses of hotels' managers towards training / sustainability

No.	Questions		Frequency					Mean	Std.	Arrange	Approval Agree
			SA	A	N	D	SD				
1	Employee pays a partial share of the cost of training	F	7	18	5	0	0	4.067	.6397	5	Agree
		%	23.3	60	16.7	0.00	0.00				
2	The hotel bears all costs of training	F	1	9	9	10	1	2.967	.9643	3	Strongly Agree
		%	3.3	30	30	33.3	3.3				
3	The hotels should be sponsored by other bodies like MoT, TVET, ITC, ….etc in bearing the cost of training	F	9	15	6	0	0	4.100	.7120	4	Agree
		%	30	50	20	0.00	0.00				
4	Agree that training courses help develop employees' skills	F	9	17	3	1	0	4.133	.7303	2	Agree
		%	30	56.7	10	3.3	0.00				

5	Need training courses for employees	F	12	16	2	0	0	4.333	.6065	1	Strongly Agree
		%	40	53.3	6.7	0.00	0.00				
6	Evaluate sustainability in training provided by official training bodies in Egypt	F	0	11	9	7	3	2.933	1.0148	6	Neutral
		%	0.00	36.7	30	23.3	10				

From table 14 it can be concluded that the hotel mangers strongly support that the hotels bear all training costs, and see it as a good tool to satisfy employees' needs for training.

However, somehow they agree that the hotels might be sponsored by other bodies such as MoT, TVET, or ITC and they also agree that training courses help development skills for employees at a lesser level of support (only agree).

Table 15: Results of T Test of the differences between opinions for mangers and employees' that positively impact training sustainability for the tourism sector of Egypt.

Statements	Sample	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	sig.
Employees pays a partial share of the cost of training	Employees	384	3.724	1.2013	412	-2.598	.012
	Mangers	30	4.067	.6397			
The hotel bears all costs of training	Employees	384	4.211	.8238		7.866	.000
	Mangers	30	2.967	.9643			
The hotels should be sponsored by other bodies like MoT, TVET, ITC,….etc in bearing the cost of training	Employees	384	3.828	1.2012		-1.892	.065
	Mangers	30	4.100	.7120			
Agree that training courses help develop employees' skills	Employees	384	4.299	.9091		1.177	.247
	Mangers	30	4.133	.7303			
Need training courses for employees	Employees	384	4.352	1.0137		.149	.882
	Mangers	30	4.333	.6065			
Evaluate sustainability in training provided by official training bodies in Egypt	Employees	384	2.753	.9553		-.994	.321
	Mangers	30	2.933	1.0148			

Table 15 shows the following results:

- There are statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the averages that the employees' contribution by paying part of the training costs in the tourism sector of Egypt. The value calculated (t) is (-2.598) that is less that the value of tabular

(t) that is equal to (1.984) at a degree of freedom (412) and the level of significance (0.05). In addition, the value of the level of statistical significance is (.012), which is less than the value of the significance level (0.05).

- There are statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the averages that the hotel's payment to all costs of training in the tourism sector of Egypt. The value calculated (t) is (7.866) that is less that the value of tabular (t) that is equal to (1.984) at a degree of freedom (412) and the level of significance (0.05). In addition, the value of the level of statistical significance is (.000), which is less than the value of the significance level (0.05).
- There are no statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the average attitudes that hotels should be sponsored by other bodies like MoT, TVET or ITC in bearing the cost of training in the tourism sector of Egypt. The value calculated (t) is (-1.892) that is less that the value of tabular (t) that is equal to (1.984) at a degree of freedom (412) and the level of significance (0.05). In addition, the value of the level of statistical significance is (.065), which is greater than the value of the significance level (0.05).
- There are no statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the averages that training courses efficiency develops employees' skills in the tourism sector of Egypt. The value calculated (t) is (1.177) that is less that the value of tabular (t) that is equal to (1.984) at a degree of freedom (412) and the level of significance (0.05). In addition, the value of the level of statistical significance is (.247), which is greater than the value of the significance level (0.05).
- There are no statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the averages that the need for employees' training courses according to the hotel category. The value calculated (t) is (0.149) that is less that the value of tabular (t) that is equal to (1.984) at a degree of freedom (412) and the level of significance (0.05). In addition, the value of the level of statistical significance is (.882), which is greater than the value of the significance level (0.05).
- There are no statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the averages that relevant to evaluation sustainability in training provided by official training bodies in Egypt and the hotel cat. The value calculated (t) is (-.994) that is less that the value of tabular (t) that is equal to (1.984) at a degree of freedom (412) and the level of significance (0.05). In addition, the value of the level of statistical significance is (.321), which is greater than the value of the significance level (0.05).

DISCUSSION

To further discuss results on using the responses to rank statements according to importance from the viewpoint of each of the investigated samples (employees, managers) and on using a three point lickert scale where strongly agree weighs 3 and neutral weighs 1 and weighing statements scores using weighted average method, many results were found. On a three-point lickert scale when strongly agree equal 3 points and Neutral equal one point, when calculating the response of hotels mangers next to those of employees and weighing these responses. The ranking of statements according to these weights become as follows:

The comparison between employees and managers views and finally the comparison between demand (beneficiary) side and Supply side (training suppliers) all resulted in highlighting many issues. The following paragraphs depict these findings.

Comparison between Hotels' managers and employees
On further scrutinizing the tables concerning employees' responses to the statement of the study and these of hotels managers in another table, it could be observed that both employees and mangers agreed on their employees need for training and that hotels should bear all costs of theses training. This agree with significant levels calculated in the tables aforementioned. Table 16 below summarizes the comparison between the responses of the employees and managers.

Table 16: Comparison between employees and hotels' managers

Statement	Employees	Managers	Weight	Ranking
1- Do you prefer that the employee pays a partial share of the cost of training?	Agree	Agree	4	3
2- Do you rather prefer that the hotel bears all costs of training?	Strongly Agree	Strongly Agree	6	1
3- Are you at the side that hotels should be sponsored by other bodies like MoT, TVET, ITC, .etc in bearing the cost of training?	Agree	Agree	4	3
4- Do you agree that training courses help develop employees' skills?	Strongly Agree	Agree	5	2
5- How often do you need training courses for employees?	Strongly Agree	Strongly Agree	6	1
6- How do you evaluate sustainability in training provided by official training bodies in Egypt?	Neutral	Neutral	2	4

However, despite the fact that employees strongly believe training helps them to develop better skills, hotel managers only agree to this. In other words, hotel managers looked to be less enthusiastic than employees in reference to benefits of training. However, all parties concerned should no significant differences on the importance of training generally.

This might be due to many reasons: i.e. it might be that mangers do not see or feel real change in performance after training their employees, this might also be due to the fact that employees benefit more (from their personal view point) other than hotel managers, this may also reflect the downgraded importance of training in the eyes of hotels managers.

Or at last, it may reflect a desire to among hotel managers to refrain from training their employees due to shortened labor budget or due to restricted numbers of employees in operations.

Training is essential for hospitality facilities to improve employees' skills and upgrade the image of the tourist product among other destinations. Training gains support by governmental bodies as well as tourist operators themselves.

In Egypt, training efforts were always sponsored by the government for the past twenty years. Serious training efforts started since 1998 in collaboration with the American Hotel and Lodging Associations (AH&LA) for Four years till 2002. In 2003, MoT sponsored ETF training activities till 2015. In 2015 and 2016, MoT resumed sponsorship for training activities until it stopped completely in April 2016. In 2017, training activities were resumed sponsored by the European Union (EU) and Technical and Vocational Education and Training Reform Program (TVET) till now.

These multiple stops refer always to financial crises in training budgets. In other words, sustainability of training is temporary and is always subject to absence all of a sudden due to financial problems.

This study is focused on assessing and evaluating importance levels and ways of sustaining tourism and hospitality workforce. For this purpose, literature review was collected concerning approaches used to sustain training activities and practices around the world and other relevant topics.

A field study on beneficiaries and suppliers was also carried out. Employees and hotel managers were approached with semi structured questionnaires to reveal their viewpoints regarding training importance and sustainability issues.

Responses were collected, tabulated, and analyzed using SPSS version 20. Both descriptive and analytical approaches were used.

The analysis of data revealed many facts as shown in conclusions and recommendations that follow.

CONCLUSIONS

Many conclusions were drawn out based on through analysis of data derived from employees and managers investigated. These conclusions are as follows:

1. Both beneficiaries (employees and hotels managers) agreed on the need for training that arise among hotels investigated aside from their category.

2. Both beneficiaries and suppliers came into agreement that training leads to upgrading their employees' skills.

3. Both beneficiaries and suppliers agreed that training activities should be continuous and sustainable, and all agreed on the need for these activities to be financially sponsored and supported all the time.

4. There is a difference in viewpoint between beneficiaries from one side and suppliers from the other side on whom to bear the cost of training. Beneficiaries want to pass the cost of training to suppliers and see this as an integral part of their role. Whereas, suppliers see that operators and employees should contribute to a share on the cost of training. Actually, both views are to be respected.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on findings of this study the following recommendations are set:

1. Training is essential since it shapes and fosters the image of the tourist product in Egypt. Finance for training activities should be secured all times to sustain these activities. This is role of the state, namely MoT and partially ETF mean while employees and operators have to perform their part of support.

2. Nominal fees for training have to be shared by both operators and employees as to partly secure finance and maintain a serious beneficiary situation this is the role of operators, managers and employees.

3. There might be a chance to use innovated technology in the training methodology and delivery.

4. Further research is required to create a model of finance that suits the Egyptian case. The model needs to take into account the vision of hotel managers and employees together there is an urgent need for that model to be structured so as to maintain sustainability in training activities for the tourism workforce in Egypt.

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Evaluating nature-based tourism in secured regions in developing countries

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ABSTRACT

Spatial appearance examples and its highlights on the nature-based travel industry are hard to survey utilizing just a field-based review, which is expensive, and work escalated. Be that as it may, comprehension of a secured zone's appearance status is basic, as it can emphatically impact the maintainability of normal assets. Henceforth, it is essential to distinguish 'where individuals visit' and 'why individuals visit,' to assess the highlights alluring to sightseers. In such manner, we proposed and applied social huge information to examine the nature-based travel industry in an ASEAN Heritage Park. By and large, our exploration had the option to viably delineate spatial examples of appearance utilizing 10 years of Flickr geo-labeled photos. Hotspots of high appearance were distinguished, while uncovering the neighborhood spatial effect of circulated qualities. This investigation offers bits of knowledge into the appropriateness of social enormous information to ensured zone the executives and its potential in strengthening existing field-based participatory methodologies.

INTRODUCTION

The nature-based travel industry is a social assistance characterized as 'the non-material advantages individuals acquire from environments through profound advancement, psychological improvement, reflection, amusement, and stylish encounters' (Assessment, 2005). Also, it offers the chance to encounter the different advantages of biological systems by encouraging the human-biological system relationship (Chan, Satterfield, & Goldstein, 2012; Daniel et al., 2012; Moyle et al., 2017; Torland et al., 2015). Truth be told, the expansion in open appearance, reflecting nature-based travel industry, may altogether affect the administration of secured territories (Dad). Real administration components of PA, for example, spatial zoning for supporting qualities (for example facilities, cafés), spending plan arranging, and improvement of entertainment programs, can be firmly impacted by the thickness and spatial variety of appearance. On the other hand, an expansion in monetary advantage alongside expanded guests bolster the money related soundness of protection exercises that upgrade the administration limit (Steven, Castley, & Buckley, 2013).

In such manner, the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) accentuated the significance of the assessment of the nature-based travel industry and regard for reasonable administration to drag out the advantages of diminishing neediness and advancing natural insurance (CBD, 2016).

In this vein, an appraisal of spatial appearance designs and their attributes is firmly required to acquire basic data on the travel industry executives.

The most agent strategy for assessing the nature-based travel industry is to evaluate the potential travel industry zones through land spatial examination, consumption investigation, and overviews of individuals' fulfillment/inclination through poll or meeting (Nahuelhual et al., 2013). Actually, in spite of the fact that distinguishing proof of spatial appearance examples has been accentuated, assessment of nature-put together the travel industry by and large has depended with respect to poll or meeting based evaluation that considers a portion of the assorted partners (Chan et al., 2012). Moreover, the gathered field data, as a rule, is frequently too restricted to ever be ready to completely mirror the spatio-fleeting attributes of appearance or consider multi-goals of guests (Hanson, 1980; Heberling & Templeton, 2009; Sessions et al., 2016; Önder, 2017). In this respect, there is a need to reflect different inclinations and impacts on traveler decisions in goals, and strengthen previous evaluated approaches toward social administrations (Assessment, 2005). Be that as it may, it is trying in actuality to consider an enormous number of guests on multi-goals, as the accumulation of such field information is costly and work concentrated (Heikinheimo et al., 2017). Subsequently, key inquiries in connection to open appearance, for example, 'Which areas do individuals like?', and 'What are the attributes of appearance examples with respect to highlights inside visitor goal Contrasted with field information, social information has increased critical acknowledgment for the exponential development of its utilization. The age of information, for example, geo-labeled photos and tweets, has been evaluated at 2.5 exabytes every day (Bello-Orgaz, Jung, & Camacho, 2016; IBM, 2015).

The development of social information is especially significant for the appraisal of the nature-based travel industry as a social assistance, since it can give bits of knowledge into the inclinations, thoughts, qualities, and conduct of the various gathering of guests (Willemen et al., 2015). In like manner, past investigations have distinguished the capacity of geotagged photos to adequately speak to by and large appearance drifts in a spatial setting (García-Palomares, Gutiérrez, & Mínguez, 2015; Kurashima et al., 2010; Salas-Olmedo et al., 2018; Wood et al., 2013). In particular, conveyances of publicly supported pictures transferred on Flickr connected well with watched appearance information at recreational destinations (Sessions et al., 2016; Wood et al., 2013). Utilizing social information, endeavors have been made to uncover the administration issues of PA, by examining the variety in spatial appearance examples and its relationship with the travel industry properties. For example, Hausmann et al. (2017) recognized that inclination to visit sub-Saharan ensured regions is expanded where key species are available (Hausmann et al., 2017). L. Sonter, Watson, Wood, and Ricketts (2016) found the impact of changes in scene qualities on the appearance rate, measured utilizing geo-referenced pictures on Flickr (Sonter et al., 2016). Such a utilization of enormous information is in its beginning periods.

To evaluate the relevance and adequacy of social information on PA executives, there is a need to check and look at the utilization of publicly supported data (Heikinheimo et al., 2017). Besides, because of the way that examining appearance fulfillment utilizing a field study is by and large led as opposed to social information examination, it is essential to offer bits of knowledge into how social huge information can enhance or fortify the prior methodology. Specifically, PAs in creating nations have high protection worth and acknowledgment yet poor field information is important to evaluate the nature-based travel industry. In addition, contrasted with novel qualities, the PAs in creating nations are encountering a fast development in appearance, contrasted with those in created nations (Balmford et al., 2009). In any case, supposedly, the utilization of social information to significant PAs in creating nations is infrequently led. In this manner, in spite of the fact that the use of social information is essential for application to each Dad, due to the biological and social significance and need, the relevance and adequacy of the social information approach ought to be likewise considered in creating nations.

Subsequently, this examination intends to apply and approve the imaginative demonstrating approach utilizing social huge information to offer key data supporting feasible administration at the ASEAN Heritage Park, which is the chosen ensured region with remarkable biodiversity over the ASEAN locale. Specifically, we intend to distinguish spatial appearance designs by applying 10-year-collected geotagged photos from Flickr (www.flickr.com). Moreover, to break down qualities of inclination, the spatial relapse connection between the distinguished appearance design and the dispersion of characteristics—regular and social attractions and the travel industry supporting curios—was explored by directing topographically weighted relapse. All in all, this examination offers knowledge into the utilization of social information for the travel industry executives in PA, including the adequacy and impediment of its use, what's more, its favorable position in strengthening a current field overview. It is normal that the aftereffects of this examination will add to giving a comprehension of the successful utilization of publicly supported enormous information for the reasonable the travel industry executives of PA, where field information might be restricted.

METHOD

Study area

Southeast Asia is topographically known for its novel gathering of nations that offer living being occupying biological systems that are normal to the nations in the locale. ASEAN Heritage Parks (AHPs) are hotspots for biodiversity, bragging a one of a kind gathering of biological systems that have in excess of 300 undermined and imperiled types of vertebrates. Specifically, AHPs are characterized as "secured regions of high protection significance, safeguarding altogether a total range of agent environments of the ASEAN area" (ASEAN Center for Biodiversity, 2017). The 38 AHPs speak to a bunch of environments that range from mountain pinnacles and gives in to mangrove timberlands and coral reefs. The coral-reef environments of Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand rival that of Australia's Great Barrier Reef. By chance, the seashores and mangroves of Southeast Asia are additionally rearing reason for turtles and different marine life, for example, sharks, reptiles, and flying creatures.

Moreover, there are 5 AHPs that are likewise assigned UNESCO World Legacy Sites, which concretes the status of AHPs as the key vaults of characteristic and hereditary assets as well as social assets that speak to the uniqueness of the district. This makes them an exceptionally helpful scene for biodiversity preservation as well as natural instruction and ecotourism (ACB (ASEAN Center for Biodiversity), 2017). AHPs advance the assistance of the nature-based travel industry and its economical travel industry board. In spite of the fact that each AHP has various attributes (e.g., availability, greenery, and fauna species), the status of the nature-based travel industry ought to be distinguished for whole AHPs. All the assigned AHPs are extensively overseen in a joint effort with ASEAN part states. To at first assess the utilization of social enormous information in such AHPs, in this examination, the 15 AHPs with the biggest number of geotagged photos were researched to investigate the materialness of social huge information (Fig. 1). Among the assessed AHPs, the AHP with the most elevated number of geo-labeled photos was assigned as the fundamental study site to offer bits of knowledge into the use of social information. In this respect, Tarutao National Marine Park, situated in Thailand, was assessed. The area of Tarutao National Marine Park and the researched 15 AHPs are represented in Fig. 1. was gotten utilizing Open Street Map (OSM; www. openstreetmap.com). Open Street Map is a publicly supported spatial data source, in which geological data is volunteered, empowering clients to get spatial information that is genuinely precise (Haklay, 2010).

Directions of significant vacation spots and supporting relics can be obtained as a point shape record, however certain PA may have constrained authority data. In this examination, an aggregate of 168 directions portraying regular attractions (e.g., cascade, seashore), social attractions (e.g., chronicled jail site), and the travel industry supporting antiques (e.g., settlement office) were gathered.

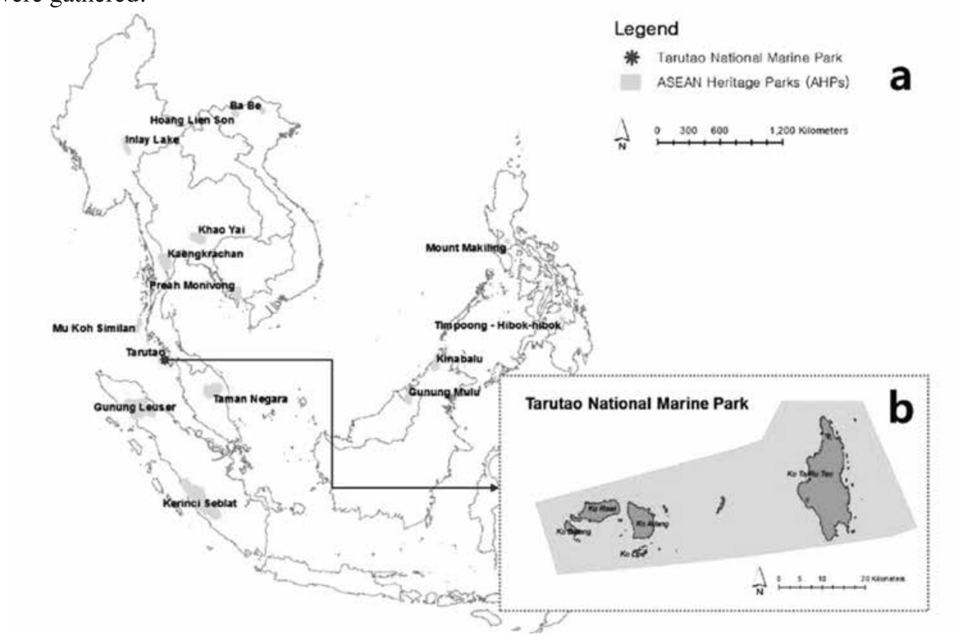

Figure 1: Guide of a) the assessed 15 ASEAN Heritage Parks (AHPs) and b) Tarutao National Marine Park situated in Thailand. Directions from retagged photos were assessed for the 15 AHPs utilizing social huge information, especially for Tarutao National Marine Park

Identification of spatial visitation pattern

Spatial appearance examples were distinguished by evaluating the intermediary 'photograph client day' (PUD), created by Wood et al. (2013). PUD is the evaluated intermediary for the quantity of guests. It demonstrates the yearly normal number of individuals in a day who transferred in any event one picture (Wood et al., 2013). In the event that PUD is evaluated as 10, it demonstrates that the site has a normal of 10 guests per day through the span of a year. The PUD itself ought not be utilized as a marker mirroring the real number of guests. Rather, it ought to be deciphered as an intermediary mirroring the variety in appearance densities for every region, as it can't speak to all past guests at the thought about site.

In this examination, PUD was determined per 1 km × 1 km network. Every framework was built in hexagonal structure. The width for every hexagon was 1 km. Specifically, the PUD worth dependent on the 10-year-collected geo-labeled photos from 2005 to 2014 was evaluated. The distinguished PUD was changed over into a guide utilizing ArcGIS 10.6, reflecting differing appearance densities. Tarutao National Marine Park, partitioned into 1 km × 1 km, contained a sum of 2076 hexagonal frameworks. The aggregate broke down zone was 1349 km2 . The quantity of hexagonal matrices containing at any rate one photo was complete 274. To delineate the appearance hotspot, each PUD esteem on study site was isolated into top 5%, 10%, 25%, and half, uncovering the appearance hotspots that have moderately high appearance

Validation of PUD

To approve the PUD esteems, we contrasted them and watched the travel industry income at the Tarutao National Marine Park. The gathered data on the travel industry income (e.g., affirmation charges) mirrors the exercises of the guests at their multi-goals. The incomes were collected on a month to month premise. In any case, as to the appearances that happened in 2014, Tarutao National Marine Park didn't account for the appearance income in July. Hence, 11 datasets, which incorporate month to month incomes in 2014 for all months aside from July, were looked at with every month to month mean PUD esteem. Specifically, we evaluated the Pearson connection coefficient as pursues: 1) Top 1% PUD qualities (appearance hotspots where individuals every now and again visit) were contrasted and the watched the travel industry income; 2) the general PUD esteems per 1 km × 1 km were contrasted and the watched the travel industry income.

Moreover, to approve the distinguished appearance design, face-to-face center gathering meetings were led with five local specialists counting provincial administration officials and researchers in AHPs. The appropriateness of the recognized appearance example contrasted with nearby learning was explored. The exchange was led on November 4, 2016 in Seoul, Republic of Korea. The meeting and discourse kept going around two hours.

Evaluating visitation pattern regarding distribution of attraction and artifact

In this examination, geologically weighted relapse (GWR) was performed to assess the attributes of inclination that uncover why individuals visit. With respect to dissemination of characteristic attractions, social attractions, and the travel industry supporting ancient rarities, the relapse effect of such properties on appearance example was examined utilizing spatial insights. GWR measures the neighborhood spatial effect among ward and autonomous factors by computing relapse coefficient at every individual area (Fotheringham, Brunsdon, & Charlton, 2003). Contrasted with conventional factual investigation, including standard least squares. (OLS) straight relapse, GWR can draw data mirroring the 'nearby spatial example.' It is a sort of nearby insights that shows how a relationship differs over space to comprehend conceivable concealed reasons for spatial examples (Fotheringham et al., 2003). R2 and relapse Fig. 1. Guide of a) the assessed 15 ASEAN Heritage Parks (AHPs) and b) Tarutao National Marine Park situated in Thailand. Directions from geotagged photos were assessed for the 15 AHPs utilizing social enormous information, especially for Tarutao National Marine Park. Y. Kim et al. The travel industry Management 72 (2019) 249–256 251 coefficients are evaluated by performing GWR, which uncovers an in subordinate variable's effect on a needy variable. In this examination, properties—characteristic attractions, social attractions, and the travel industry supporting antiques—were viewed as autonomous factors (S1, S2). The subordinate variable was PUD, the intermediary for appearance. To perform GWR, the bit (neighborhood) type and data transfer capacity (separation point of confinement of investigation) strategy were chosen utilizing ArcGIS10.6. We applied the versatile bit that mirrors the spatial thickness of the highlights. The data transmission is the separation around every perception point, which decide the size of the perception spatial range (Fotheringham et al., 2003). The data transfer capacity is characterized by choosing the quantity of neighborhood cells. On the off chance that the decided number of neighborhood cells is littler, the perception spatial scope of the spatial relapse investigation is increasingly bound. We performed GWR with a default estimation of '30' and a littler estimation of '10'. To mirror an increasingly kept effect run, we characterized the quantity of neighborhood cells as '10'.

RESULTS

Applicability of social big data in 15 AHPs

Conglomerating the publicly supported data from 2005 to 2014, Tarutao National Marine Park was resolved to have the most favored visiting spot—greatest PUD—among the 15 AHPs (Table 1). Considering the way that an AHP is a chosen secured zone with high levels of preservation and acknowledgment, Tarutao National Marine Park was surveyed to have an ordinarily high inclination in the ASEAN locale. The most elevated number of PUD in the hexagonal unit was 33.3. The 15 AHP spatial appearance inclinations were determined dependent on the gathered directions of geo-referenced pictures. The most extreme PUD for each assessed ensured territory and the middle estimation of PUD are shown.

Spatial visitation pattern of Tarutao National Marine Park

The utilization of social information for Tarutao National Marine Park distinguished the quantity of PUD, uncovering where individuals especially visit (Fig. 2). Visiting densities in each zone of the PA were recognized by creating the guide indicating varieties in the quantity of PUD. Hotspots having the top 5% appearance rates were uncovered in the investigation site (Fig. 2). The outcomes showed that Ko Lipe island and Ko Tarutao island were the most much of the time visited islands. Ko Adang and Ko Rawi islands were additionally distinguished as much of the time visited places. We approved the determined PUD inside the watched field-gathered information by performing Pearson connection examination (Fig. 3). The measured PUD was fundamentally connected with the appearance income ($r = 0.90$, $p < 0.001$). The estimation of appearance for the most visited hotspot (top 1% crosswise over Tarutao National Marine Park) likewise demonstrated a huge connection with the appearance income ($r = 0.83$, $p < 0.001$). Led center gathering meetings approved the distinguished spatial appearance example's pertinence. The assessments of provincial administrators and specialists on appearance hotspots and related appearance examples were thought about inside the distinguished PUD, relating admirably with the neighborhood information on where individuals generally visit and delegate appearance designs. In specific, the recognized guide was the best snippet of data to research congestion place and the territories where the travel industry exercises ought to be encouraged.

Table 1: Maximum and median PUD (Photo-User-Days/yr) per evaluated AHPs (ASEAN Heritage Parks).

Name of ASEAN Heritage Park	Country	Maximum PUD	Median PUD
Tarutao National Marine Park	Thailand	33.3	1.15
Taman Negara	Malaysia	20.6	0.7
Kinabalu	Malaysia	16.1	1.9
Inlay Lake	Myanmar	8.1	2.95
Khao Yai	Thailand	6.7	1.1
Mount Timpoong - Hibok-hibok	Philippines	6.7	0.45
Ao Phangnga - Mu Koh Surin – Mu Koh Similan	Thailand	5.4	1.45
Hoang Lien Son - Sa Pa	Vietnam	3.3	0.6
Preah Monivong	Cambodia	3.3	0.6
Kaengkrachan Forest Complex	Thailand	2.9	0.65
Mount Makiling	Philippines	2.8	0.9
Gunung Leuser	Indonesia	1.6	0.4
Gunung Mulu	Malaysia	1.6	0.6
Ba Be	Vietnam	1.2	0.55
Kerinci Seblat	Indonesia	1	0.45

Impact of attraction and artifact on visitation pattern

The consequences of GWR demonstrated the impact of three arranged properties— normal attractions, social attractions, and the travel industry supporting ancient rarities—on distinguished appearance designs (Fig. 4). R2 uncovered the legitimacy of the spatial relapse examination in regard to each considered quality and encompassing appearance design. The relapse coefficient shown the heading and size of the effect on appearance design for the three sorted qualities. The most noteworthy relapse coefficient was watched for the normal attractions (β=6.5), while the most reduced was identified for the tourism supporting ancient rarities (β=–0.3). In particular, contrasted with social attractions what's more, the travel industry supporting ancient rarities, normal assets had a more extensive effect on appearance densities. The solid effect of regular attractions was primarily recognized in the northern piece of Ko Tarutao, southern piece of Ko Adang, Ko Lipe, and Ko Batong. Then again, the effect of social attractions on appearance examples was for the most part found in the eastern piece of Ko Tarutao. With respect to the travel industry supporting antiquities, Ko Lipe and part of Ko Tarutao, Ko Rawi, and Ko Adang were zones indicating higher appearance because of the dissemination of tourism supporting ancient rarities.

DISCUSSION

ID of spatial examples of open appearance is important to assess the advantage and suitability of the travel industry exercises in PA. The significance of mapping and evaluation on the advantages of nature has been underlined, as it can adequately improve the procedure of choice making to oversee common assets (Burkhard, Kroll, Nedkov, and Müller, 2012; Daily et al., 2009; Daily and Matson, 2008). The issue is that the field information for PA is frequently too restricted to even think about quantifying the inclination of nature-based the travel industry with respect to genuine appearance designs. In this way, in this investigation, we have proposed and applied an inventive demonstrating approach that utilizations social enormous information to uncover spatial appearance designs inside ASEAN Heritage Park. Besides, as there is scarcely any data 'on the most proficient method to apply the social huge information in PA the board,' or 'the most effective method to supplement existing field studies on appearance fulfillment with the use of social huge information', we give understanding into the application of social enormous information for PA the travel industry the executives.

Applicability of social big data to evaluate nature-based tourism

Thought of differing guests and their multi-goals is a primary test in the travel industry board of PA. To defeat the test, mapping instruments, for example, open participatory geographic data frameworks (PPGIS) were built up that connect, open, and master observations of land data (Gregory Brown, 2004). Notwithstanding, work concentrated systems and time to apply such instruments on an enormous scale are required. Then again, removed GPS-based area data from internet-based life can be viably applied in huge scale evaluation. Utilizing GPS facilitates from Flickr geotagged pictures, the middle and most extreme PUD of the 15 AHPs, which were broadly circulated crosswise over different ASEAN nations, were measured. Since social enormous information grasps different spatio-fleeting scopes of assorted guests.

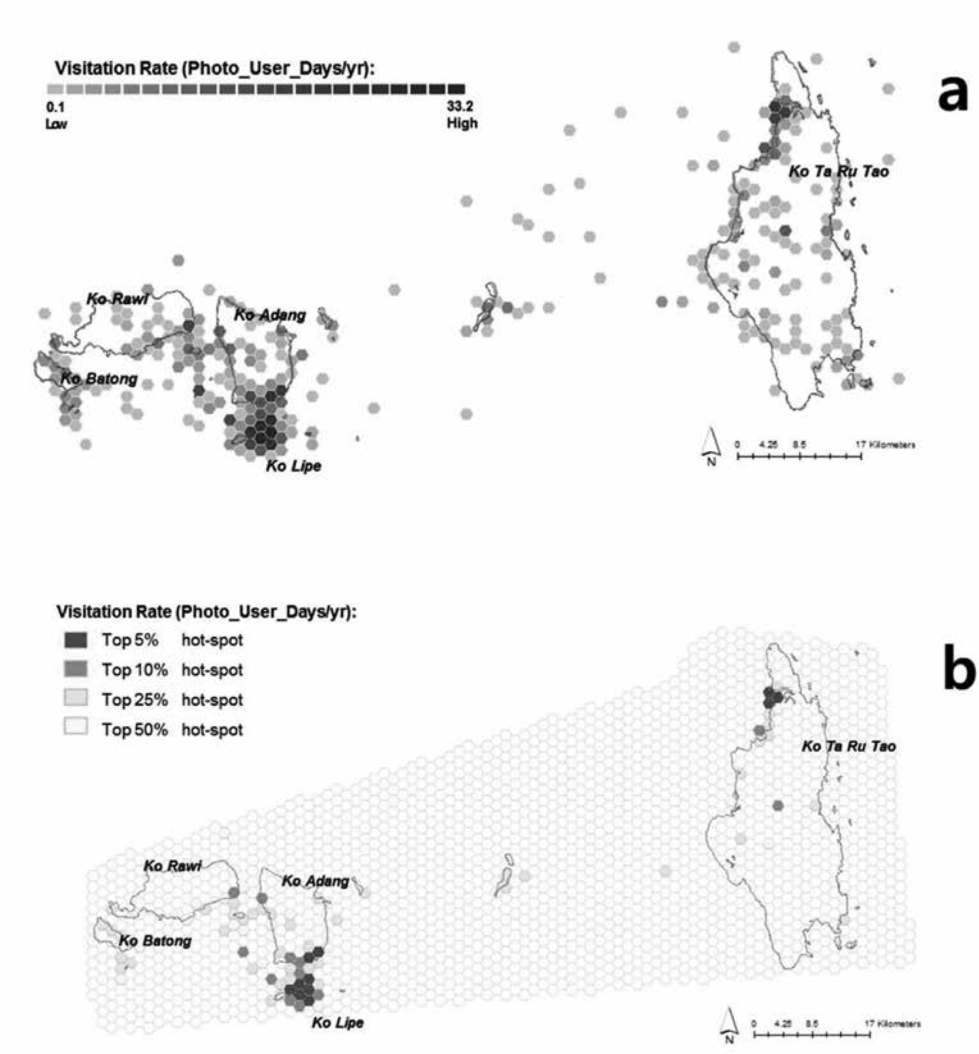

Figure 2: Evaluated spatial visitation pattern of Tarutao National Marine Park. a) Visitation rate expressed as PUD (Photo-User-Days/yr) of Tarutao National Marine Park; b) Visitation hotspots having top 5%, 10%, 25%, 50% PUD values.

With high cost-efficiency, we assumed that the PUD can be used for the comparison of nature-based tourism in a domestic and global context. In line with that, the identified PUD in Tarutao National Marine. Park was evaluated to be consistent with the observed data. The overall PUD in Tarutao National Marine Park showed a significant relationship with the observed tourism revenue (Pearson's r=0.90, p=0.001).While only considering the region with the top 1% in visitation, the Pearson coefficient indicated a high degree of correlation (r=0.83,p=0.001). In agreement with these results, S. Wood et al. (2013) and C. Sessions et al. (2016) validated the objectivity of PUD (Sessions et al.,2016; Wood et al., 2013). Regarding 831 tourist destinations in 31 countries, S. Wood et al. (2013) showed that PUD was consistent with observed number of visitors (Pearson's r=0.6–0.8). C. Sessions et al.(2016) verified the PUD for 38 U.S. National Parks, identifying that PUD is statistically significant with the observed monthly data (Pearson' sr=0.65). In this study, local knowledge of visitation hotspots was also matched with the spatial visitation pattern derived from PUD. Although further verification of social big data should be conducted with sufficient observed data, the results support the applicability of social big data to identify the spatial variance on overall visitation on tendencies and hotspots for tourism.

Moreover, the results of GWR between PUD and distribution patterns of attributes showed how the diverse attributes inside PA—natural attractions, cultural attractions, and tourism-supporting artifacts—had influenced public visitation. Visitation patterns from the three categorized attributes were clearly different, which revealed the characteristic of spatial variance of visitation. As location of attributes can be further obtained regarding crowd-sourced information, such as Open Street Map, further analysis of targeted tourism resources can be performed for different management purposes.

Fig. 2. Evaluated spatial visitation pattern of Tarutao National Marine Park. a) Visitation rate expressed as PUD (Photo-User-Days/yr) of Tarutao National Marine Park; b) Visitation hotspots having top 5%, 10%, 25%, 50% PUD values.

Effectiveness and usefulness for PA management

Considering that ASEAN countries, as well as other regions, have limited attempts to quantitatively assess cultural services at present (Shoyama et al. , 2017), new types of collected data may contribute to the combination of visitation values of cultural service with spatial management. Factual spatial visiting patterns can be reflected in PA management by supporting policymakers and park managers. In this study, we identified the degree of visit for each location across the PA. Moreover, we suggested how different types and distributions of attributes in the PA affect visitation patterns. Such information can be used in developing tourism management activities such as the creation of new recreation programs, facilities, or roads to facilitate cultural services in PA. Furthermore, as an unsustainable visitation pattern can turn nature-based tourism into a threat (Daniel et al., 2012; Liddle, 1997; Reed & Merenlender, 2008), social big data's ability to identify the degree of visitation in each location is essential to promote biodiversity conservation (Di Minin, Tenkanen, & Toivonen, 2015). Identified information on visitation hotspots are expected to be used for further analyzing the threatening areas that have exceeded their carrying capacity. Moreover, revealed spatial visitation pattern can contribute to develop focused management plan such as building viewing platform or alternative roadway for sustainable tourism.

Participation of policymakers and local managers can improve the quantity and quality of data by leveraging modern technology to evaluate specific subjects in a management agenda or certain needs of various visitors (Sessions et al., 2016). This means that the approach to analyzing the daily visitor count can also be extended to correlate the visitation pattern with weather or other subject of management interest (Sessions et al., 2016). In this regard, geo-tagged photographs can be further used to fulfill various objectives of management, such as 'surveying the visitation pattern in the off-season' or 'evaluating a specific location's visitation pattern, where accidents were frequently observed'.

Coordination with survey-based participatory approach

This study suggested that social big data can be a powerful tool to evaluate nature-based tourism. However, field surveys are required to investigate 'visitation satisfaction' or 'perceived value on nature-based tourism', which is related with public perception and emotion. For instance, the field survey at Tarutao National Marine Park was able to reveal public visitation satisfaction and willingness to pay at distributed attributes (S3). That is, the perceived value should be further investigated regarding people's subjective opinion or choice, since identified spatial visitation patterns cannot solely represent people's various emotions or diverse satisfaction rates for each tourism resource. Thus, in coordinating between the two methodologies, it is important to analyze not only the spatial characteristics of tourism but also the diverse perceived value of visitors.

Limitation and challenge

There are concerns that big data acquired from social media may have biases. First of all, the amount of social big data can vary depending on the visitor's characteristics and circumstances. For instance, the distance to their home location can impact the frequency of photo taking activities (Wood et al., 2013). Similarly, the percentage of foreign visitors and nationalities can influence the amount of social big data. Next, the GPS function of a mobile device can highly influence the quality of social big data. Thus, some PAs might have low credibility in the analyzed results due to the malfunction of the GPS signal. Finally, for each country or region, each social-media platform, such as Flickr, Twitter, and YouTube, may show different visitation patterns. Moreover, the number of photographs may differ depending on the user's age or characteristics of attraction. Therefore, in further analysis, we suggest using multiple big data to reveal the diverse preference across PAs. Furthermore, consideration of the affluent time range is required for data collection. In this study, social big data accumulated for 10 years was used. More attempts should be made to validate the credibility of social big data with sufficient field data. However, even though there are such limitations and obstacles, our findings show that PUD can reveal the spatial visitation patterns of public visitation with high cost-efficiency. To increase the applicability of social big data, the above-mentioned problems need to be considered during further evaluation.

CONCLUSIONS

This examination demonstrates how the utilization of geo-referenced pictures on Flickr can assess the nature-based travel industry in ensured regions. In spite of the fact that information from such sources might be restricted, the volume of such information has worth, and it is practical. It is proposed that such information can help the executives of secured territories by recognizing spatial examples of appearance, the progressions of conduct that can come about because of instigating changes in signposting, track the board and the burden of confinements and the arrangement of options, for example, seeing stages to control streams of guests. As unsustainable the travel industry can be a hazard to the whole biological system benefits in a PA, the capability of social huge information to observe such spatial appearance elements is a ground-breaking and inventive device to help the travel industry the executives. Consequently, with respect to the preferences and conceivable outcomes of social enormous information, leading recommended approach with existing field-based study can create vigorous data to accomplish supportable information.

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Harnessing the sustainable tourism of Idanre Hills and assessment of its effects on the community

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ABSTRACT

Idanre Hills (Oke Idanre) is a natural attraction with great ecological, cultural, and historical significance. A decline in tourists' satisfaction and patronage occur where needed facilities are unavailable or poorly managed. This study examined the state of Idanre Hills, a possible upgrade and its (perceived) effects on the host community. Tools used to gather information were structured questionnaires to tourists (n=150) and residents (n=150),in-depth interview sessions with the key informants, conducted for the king, principal officer (supervisor-in-charge) of the site, management at the Ministry of Culture and Tourism and the Deputy Director of Tourism, Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ondo State. Focus Group Discussions was also carried out to further validate the results obtained from the questionnaire administration. Infrastructure and facilities to be introduced and the ones in need of renovation were highlighted. The study thereby concludes that cooperation of all stakeholders to its inclusion on the UNESCO World Heritage List is paramount.

Key Words: Idanre Hills, Ecotourism, World Heritage Site, Ondo state, Nigeria, Community's Perception

INTRODUCTION

Idanre Hills (Oke Idanre) in Ondo state, Southwestern Nigeria, is a cultural landscape that was nominated and added to the tentative list of UNESCO World Heritage sites by the National Commission for Museums and Monuments on October 8th, 2007. It contains very important bio-physical and landform features whose interaction with the physical features created an enduring cultural landscape within the setting. According to UNESCO World Heritage (2016), Idanre hills authenticity and/or integrity is proved in that it is one of the most awesome and beautiful natural landscapes in Ondo state and Nigeria. Added to its beauty which fires human curiosity is the fact that the entire people of Idanre lived on these boulders for almost a millennium before their emigration downhill in 1923.

The target and desire of any government is to develop its country's tourism industry because tourism can contribute to GDP, generate employment (Sadeh *et al*., 2012), and a strong flow-through effect in other sectors such as retail, transportation, and construction (Hui *et al*., 2007). Enhancing tourist satisfaction should be one of the primary functions of any tourism centre and a goal behind the development of any strategy leading to a destination's enhanced attractiveness and its competitive positioning (Dmitrovic *etal*., 2009). This may not be possible where facilities are improperly managed and resources are being depleted in vast amounts rather than maximised, resulting in the need for upgrade and effective management where necessary. With the provision of well-functioning infrastructure and tourism facilities, Idanre Hills can be developed into a world-class standard to compete with countries where such facilities are readily available (Arowosafe *et al*., 2013). Emmanuel and Rotowa (2010) discussed the past efforts of the government and community at sustaining tourists' interest in visiting Idanre Hills, at the same time, stating the need for the sustenance of these efforts and improvement of the attraction.

Despite the excitement that the knowledge of the Idanre Hills creates and the interest it stimulates in tourists, there is room to put the tourist attraction in better shape as several facilities needed to enhance maximum visitor satisfaction are not in good condition. Several papers provide information on the array of attractions within the site, the state of facilities, visitors' satisfaction and development of the site. It is clear that the state is yet to fully harness the various potentials embedded in this tourist attraction revealing the need for improvement and upgrade of the attraction where necessary (Arowosafe & Omopariola, 2014).

Arowosafe *et al*., (2013) identified that infrastructural development would be a veritable tool for tourism development and economic benefits within the area and Ondo state at large. Having assessed the available facilities and the level of visitors' satisfaction with Idanre Hills, it is imperative to investigate the perception of the local community about tourism and to also check for the likely effects of an upgrade of this site on the residents. Innovatively improving the site will help in creating an image that appeals to more tourists and establish stronger loyalties that will manifest through repeat visits (Adetola *et al*., 2016). Hence, there is also a need to proffer suggestions on decisions which may assist policy makers in ecotourism development of the heritage site. This study was conducted with the aim of examining the possibility of an upgrade of Idanre Hills. This was with a view to assess the effects of the upgrade on the attraction site and perceived effects that this upgrade will have on the host community.

METHODOLOGY

Study Area

This study was carried out in Idanre Hills cultural landscape. Idanre Hills is located in ancient Idanre town, 15km South-West of Akure, the Ondo State capital, Southwestern Nigeria. Idanre town is bound by longitudes 5° 00' E to 5° 15' E and latitudes 7° 00' N to 7° 15' N, covering an area of 750 km^2. The terrain of Idanre town is gently undulating with a lot of mountainous areas and stands at a height of between 286 - 500 m above sea level (Ige *et al*, 2011). Idanre Hills covers about 50 km radius and takes a total of three days to be thoroughly traversed (Arowosafe and Omopariola, 2014).

Data Collection
Both primary and secondary data were collected for this research. Secondary data on the influx of tourist to Idanre Hills (2006 to 2015) was obtained from the Ondo State Ministry of Culture and Tourism (Table 1).

Table 1: Tourists' influx to Idanre Hills (2006 - 2015)

Year	Adults	Children	Foreigners	Total
2006	505	752	0	1257
2007	256	509	0	765
2008	1132	4115	80	5327
2009	1384	3824	62	5270
2010	2066	4791	102	6959
2011	2629	6083	127	8839
2012	3753	1519	0	5272
2013	2496	2458	0	4954
2014	1630	2063	0	3693
2015	1107	1186	0	2293

Source: Ondo state Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2017)

Primary data was collected using a set of 150 structured questionnaires to assess tourists' patronage and satisfaction with the site. Another set of 153 structured questionnaire copies was used to obtain information on Idanre community residents' perception of ecotourism, an upgrade of Idanre Hills and the effects it will have on them. Some aspects of the questionnaire were designed using dichotomous and multiple-choice questions, and the Likert scale format. Tourists' satisfaction was measured using 4-point scale and Pearson's Chi-square was used to test for the relationship between demographic characteristics and overall satisfaction with the study site. Community residents' perception of ecotourism in Idanre and their perceived effects of upgrading the site were measured using 5-point Likert scale format. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was further used to test for association between variables.

A semi-structured interview guide was developed to conduct in-depth interviews for key informants within the study area. In order to assess the state of facilities and infrastructure at Idanre Hills, in-depth interviews were conducted for the principal officer (supervisor-in-charge) of the site, the Head of Resort Centre Management at the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, and the Deputy Director of Tourism, Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ondo State. To assess the

personal and community's attitude towards ecotourism and their perceived effects of upgrade, the king (Owa) of Idanre town, represented by the High Chief Osore of the town was interviewed.
Focus Group Discussions were carried out with the community residents.The FGDs were conducted with Idanre community residents having six (6) to ten (10) members in each group.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure
The target population for this study consisted of tourists on visit to Oke Idanre, the staff of Oke Idanre, some residents of Idanre town (Atosin, Alade-Idanre and Odode settlements), the community leader, supervisor of Idanre Hills, and two officials of the Ondo State Ministry of Culture and Tourism.

With reference to the data obtained from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, an average of 1,696 adults visit Idanre Hills yearly and an average of 141 adult tourists on a monthly basis. Therefore, a total of 150 tourists (adults) were interviewed with the aid of questionnaires.

Idanre community is made up of three (3) main settlements –Atosin, Alade-Idanre, and Odode. Since the actual current population of Idanre town is currently unavailable, the sample size was determined based on an average estimate of households in the community.

A multi-stage sampling procedure was used. Idanre town was divided into three (3) main settlements and the three (100%) were sampled. Each of the settlements has an estimated average of sixty-eight (68) households, with an average of (5) members per household. This gave an average of 340 residents in each settlement. Purposive sampling was then used to sample adults who were deemed fit to have a better knowledge of the history of Idanre Hills and ecotourism's effects on their community. This restricted the sampling frame to 170 (which is 50% of 340 residents). This led to a total of 510 adults as the overall sampling frame. Using simple random sampling technique, 30% of the adults were selected in each settlement, and this gave a total of 153 adult residents (Yusuf, 2003). Administering 51 questionnaires in each settlement gave a total of 153 questionnaires. However, out of the 153 questionnaires which were administered, only 150 were subjected to statistical analysis because the others were not completely filled. This gave a return rate of 98%.

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the tourists and community residents are presented in Table 2 while their age group is shown in figure 1.

Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Tourists and Community Residents

Variables	Tourists F/%		Residents F/%	
Gender				
Male	93	62.0	82	54.7
Female	57	38.0	68	45.3
Nationality				
Nigerian	148	98.7	144	96.0
Foreigner	2	1.3	6	4.0
Origin				
Indigene	52	34.7	100	66.7
Non-indigene	98	65.3	50	33.3
Tribe				
Yoruba	111	74.0	135	90.0
Igbo	18	12.0	7	4.7
Hausa	10	6.7	3	2.0
Others	11	7.3	5	3.3
Religion				
Christianity	119	79.3	119	79.3
Islam	28	18.7	21	14.0
Traditional religion	2	1.3	10	6.7
Others	1	0.7	0	0

Table 3: Age group of respondents

Variables	Tourists (%)	Community residents (%)
<25 years	35	35
25-40 years	60	38
41-54 years	5	30
>55 years	0	7

Patronage of Tourists to Idanre Hills
Sixty nine percent (69%) of the respondents (tourists) visited Idanre Hills for the first time (table 4).

Table 4: Number of times tourists visited Idanre hills

Variables	Number of times visited
Once	69
Twice	18
Thrice	5
> Thrice	11

Tourists' perception concerning adequacy of the facilities in Idanre Hills
Majority of the respondents (97%), had a positive perception of the site's rich natural and cultural features. However, very few of them (19%) noted that the available facilities were in good condition.

Eighty two percent (82%)of the tourists attested to the fact that foreigners could be discouraged from visiting Idanre Hills because of the present state of facilities while 94% of them agreed that tourism in Idanre Hills would be more worthwhile if better facilities are provided for tourists.
On willingness to re-visit, 96% of the tourists would be willing to re-visit Idanre Hills if improved facilities are provided to cater for tourists' needs and 97% of the tourists noted that if Idanre Hills is upgraded, it will be better and will support tourism growth in Nigeria.

Tourists' Satisfaction with Idanre Hills
Using a 4-point Likert scale, tourists' satisfaction with Idanre Hills was measured. Majority of the touristswere quite satisfied with the location of the attraction, power supply, telecommunication facilities, car park, the great steps leading uphill, reception, games house, and car park. Conversely, the tourists indicated their dissatisfaction with the poor state or the unavailability of other facilities.

Significant relationship existed between tourists' satisfaction and their age, religion, employment status and annual income with Idanre Hills ($p<0.05$). (table 5).

Table 5: Relationship between tourists' demographic characteristics and their satisfaction

Variables	df	χ^2 – value	p – value
Age	4	21.88	0.00*
Gender	2	0.00	0.99
Origin	2	9.18	0.10
Tribe/Ethnic group	6	4.76	0.57
Educational level	6	8.71	0.10
Religion	6	14.68	0.02*
Employment Status	10	19.54	0.03*
Annual Income	6	42.00	0.00*

Community residents' perception of ecotourism

Ninety five percent (95%) of Idanre community residents who responded opined that ecotourism is necessary. Results further revealed that 97% noted that ecotourism conserves the environment and supports their wellbeing. 92% of the residents supported that ecotourism has positive results,only 19.3% of the residents indicated that ecotourism has more of negative results. 93% of the residents questioned, indicated their satisfaction with ecotourism activities and their willingness to see such grow in Idanre community. 96% of them agreed that a development of Idanre Hills will increase ecotourism activities in Idanre town while 97% indicated their interest in supporting a further development of Idanre Hills so as to give room for more tourists. They also posited that development of Idanre Hills will benefit both their community and the entire state. To this effect, a large percentage of them (79%) approved that Idanre Hills should endeavour to attract more tourists (figure 3).

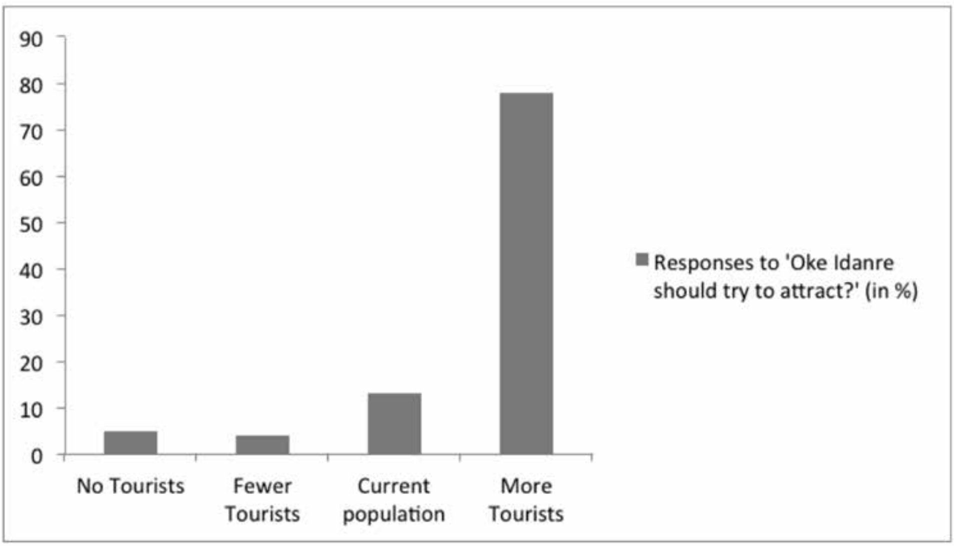

Figure 1: Residents' Opinion on Tourist Influx to Idanre Hills

Categorizing the residents' perception (favourable and unfavourable) according to the three (3) communities in Idanre, 98% of Atosin residents had a favourable perception of ecotourism. In Alade-Idanre, 96% of the respondents had a favourable perception of ecotourism while Odode, the closest settlement to the site, had 94.7% of her respondents with a favourable perception of ecotourism.

Community Residents' Perceived Effects of an Upgrade of Idanre Hills

Majority of the residents (95%), posited that upgrading the site in terms of facilities and infrastructure will have positive effects. 94% of them noted that an upgrade will attract more visitors from within and outside Nigeria to Idanre Hills. 98% of the residents agreed that it is necessary to upgrade IdanreHills. while 4.7% posited that upgrading IdanreHills would bring about inconveniencies to the community .

Table 6: Residents' perception towards inconvenience as an effect of upgrade

Variables	Percentages
Strongly agree	10
Agree	5
Undecided	4
Disagree	51
Strongly disagree	30

Majority of the respondents (table 6) disagreed that an upgrade will inconvenience them. Residents, (93.3%) agreed that an upgrade of IdanreHills will contribute to improvement in their living standards. On environmental effects, only 32% agreed that an upgrade of the site will have negative effects on the environment. Majority, (96%) of the residents were in agreement that upgrading IdanreHills will generally have positive effects on the community.

Interview with Supervisory Manager and Staff of Idanre Hills Heritage Siteand Deputy Director of Tourism (Ondo State Ministry of Culture and Tourism)
The interview conducted for staff of Idanre Hills in an attempt to assess the state of facilities within the site, revealed that infrastructural development commenced at the site in 1992. In response to the availability of facilities on the site, it was stated that there were no facilities that used to be in place but are now unavailable except for handrails for the steps. They explained that the handrails were initially available but had to be removed in order to be compliant with UNESCO World Heritage Convention standards that every human input on any site be as natural as possible. It was replaced with handrails constructed with natural materials such as ropes, so as to maintain the eco-touristic appeal of the site. Other facilities in need of renovation include bars and swimming pool, proper signage on the attractions which should contain relevant information about each one, renovation of the old chalets both at the hill top and at the base of the hills, installation of handrails for the steps using natural materials – manila ropes and treated iron wood, installation of elevators or motorised cable cars for tourists especially elderly people, the physically-challenged and children. Installing motorised cable car will actually bring in more tourists and much more revenue for the government though it is actually expensive to construct. Private-public partnership (PPP) would certainly help to achieve this. According to the supervisory manager, recently, the government just gave them a mandate to look for investors to manage Idanre Hills so they are working on bringing them in to assist because the much-needed capital really resides in the private sector".

The relics and structures up the hill were also mentioned to be in need of refurbishment; particularly the mausoleum, prison, palace, old court, belfry and some of the houses.

Unavailable facilities mentioned include accommodation, souvenir shops, camping equipment, signposts, maps, tuck shops, restaurant, elevator, sport facilities, first aid kit, museum or art gallery, children playground, Automated Teller Machine, and cable car. They identified poor maintenance, lack of governmental assistance/support, and long-term use as the reasons why most need facilities are unavailable or in need of renovation. According to the Deputy Director of Tourism, chalets downhill have been closed down because they are in a very deplorable state. Termites have greatly destroyed the wood used in constructing them. Currently, we are working together with the Ministry of Works to reinforce them with concrete beams and slabs.

In response to present challenges faced by the site, they emphasized that lack of government assistance, especially in terms of finance, leading to poor maintenance poses major challenge to the site. They made reference to the bureaucratic nature of government establishments which slows down procurement processes, decision-making and managerial actions. Challenges stated were poor advertisement of the site to the public, contributing to low awareness, inadequate water supply and shortage of staff. It wasaffirmed that the state government is responsible for most of these challenges and they recommended that Private-Public Partnership(PPP) be adopted for the management of the site. They are of the opinion that if private investors are allowed to manage the site with the returns being shared with the government, it would go a long way to enhance maximum productivity and smooth running of the site. They also believe that it would foster proper management of the facilities and would further boost tourists' satisfaction with the site.

Interview with High Chief Osore of Idanre Kingdom

The High Chief Osore started by giving a brief historical background of Idanre Hills. On the people's access to the hills, the high chief responded that the community residents are not allowed to visit the hills freely because not everybody has a good reason for wanting to climb the hills. In fact, this was part of what affected the site negatively initially. The community people were going up too frequently even for unnecessary reasons and this constituted pressure on the facility. However, since the place has become a national monument belonging to the government, the people are allowed to go only if they can convince the management that they have something important to do at the hill top but usually, they would be charged if they cannot convince the management that they are from this community and that they have something tangible to do up there. Nevertheless, during festivals such as Orosun festival, many of which come up yearly, the people are allowed to visit the ancient settlement up the hills free of charge and even live in their old houses up there.

He said that one major challenge of Idanre town is lack of access road. "If a road can be constructed leading into Benin city which borders Idanre on this side, it will increase the inflow of people into Idanre town and our economy will also benefit from this in terms of buying and selling, and provision of services," he said. Speaking of community involvement in decision-making, the government is solely involved in the process of deciding whatever is carried out in Idanre Hills. This is because it is now a government property.

He confirmed that Idanre people will support attempts of the government to upgrade Idanre Hills. Reporting that the community through the king (Owa of Idanre) has signed an agreement with the government to promote Idanre Hills into becoming a World Heritage Site, he explained that the government needs to play its role in developing the site infrastructurally. He also added that the Ministry of Culture and Tourism should have an office in Idanre and not Akure only, so as to enable closer monitoring of the operations within the site.

Finally, he added that Idanre needs a tertiary institution. According to him, aUniversity College of Environmental Sciences and Tourism may be a good starting point which will help to take charge and ensure that Idanre Hills is maintained and up to standard.

Result of Focus Group Discussions

Considering the responses of the residents within the three settlements (Atosin, Alade-Idanre, and Odode), it is clear that they have a fair knowledge of ecotourism. They see it as an avenue through which outsiders can come into their town to see what they have to offer the world, learn about their history and culture, and also appreciate and celebrate them.

The residents attested to the fact that they feel good about visitors coming into their community as long as they do not cause any trouble or abuse their culture in any way. Also, they confirmed that tourism has had great positive effects on them as a community especially in terms of supporting local markets and businesses. They commented that local residents are allowed to visit Idanre Hills freely during their annual festivals. However, they must comply with government standards and entry regulations at other times of the year except one is on a special assignment to the top of the hills either by the local leadership or the traditional priests.

According to them, indigenes are employed as staff of the site provided that they are qualified for the available positions and they follow the recruitment process laid down by the government. Nonetheless, local residents are allowed to apply for selling points (tuck shops) that are available at the site in order to sell food, drinks and other items that may be needed by tourists on visit.

Tourists' visit to Idanre Hills has posed very little or no challenge to the community except that the frequent movement of vehicles, especially large vehicles, has led to minor degeneration of the major tarred road leading into the town and the site. The residents attributed this challenge to the government's refusal to carry out periodic maintenance of the road.

Discussing the effects of Idanre Hills on their community, residents mentioned that the presence of the site within their community and the knowledge that visitors usually come into their town has further encouraged them to keep their environment clean at all times, coupled with the fact that they are naturally environmentally conscious. They also explained that Idanre Hills has helped them to preserve many of their wonderful plants and tree species that are no longer available down the hill due to development and construction. Therefore, they can visit the hilltop whenever there is need to use any plant part or tree bark, including games (bush meat) for feeding, medicinal or traditional purposes. In addition to this, the site also provides an avenue for them to have more visitors in their community because of the medicinal quality of the Arun River and other plants up the hill.

Economically, they explained that the presence of tourists as a result of the site has supported the marketing of their local goods and services. Socio-culturally, they referred to how ecotourism in Idanre Hills has led to more people being informed of their festivals and come from far and near to partake of them. They believe that this has added to their fame and importance nationally and globally. They see ecotourism as a means to propagate their culture and to enlighten the world about it.

On the question of upgrade, they were highly supportive and expectant about it. Some of them suggested that a higher institution of learning be established in Idanre town as well so as to contribute to the education of their people, modernization and development.

Idanre Hills, being an ecotourism site, stands a chance to contribute viably to tourism growth in Nigeria if it is well-equipped with standard tourist facilities and good infrastructure. From the research results, the tourists' demographic characteristics revealed that 62 % of the tourists were male. This suggests that the site receives a higher population of male tourists compared to the female gender. This is probably because men are more adventurous while women are usually more cautious. It may also be due to the fact that men seem physically stronger than women are. An overwhelming percentage of the tourists were between ages 25 and 40 years (61 %), with the elderly less represented. In fact, age group '55 years and above' was not represented at all. This is similar to the findings of Adetola et al., (2016) and Ogunbodede (2012), who observed that majority of the tourists to Idanre Hills were within the age bracket 20 - 40 and age bracket 21 – 40, respectively.Ogunbodede (2012) explained that this age group largely consists of economically viable set of people who are mostly employed and can afford to spend money on tourism. They are also physically strong enough to climb the great steps leading up the hill and move around the hill's 50km radius in a bid to visit attractions on the hilltop.

Majority, (99%) of the tourists were Nigerian which depicts that Idanre Hills presently receives more of domestic tourists probably due to inadequate tourist facilities or poor publicity. This may also be as a result of the security challenges currently existing within the nation, which have internationally produced a negative image and labelled the country as an unsafe tourism destination. With 74% of the tourists from the Yoruba tribe, it is an indication that most of the visitors to Idanre Hills were from the southwest, Nigeria. The lower percentages of other tribes and ethnic groups may be due to proximity, poor publicity of the site or tribalism. Ogunbodede (2012) confirms that patronage to Idanre Hills is still localized and restricted to the Southwestern part of the country where 94% of the patrons are confined.

On education, majority(90%) of the tourists attained tertiary education level. This suggests that most of them visit out of intellectual curiosity, research, field trips, holidays, recreation, adventure, festivals and other reasons many of which are fuelled by exposure and knowledge of tourism. This is in line with the study of Adetola *et al*. (2016) and Ogunbodede (2012).

Fifty-two percent (52%) of the tourists were employed either as full-time employees or self-employed while 35% of them were students. This is an indication that most of the people who visit the tourist site are income earners and so have enough disposable income to engage in tourism.

A good proportion of students also visit the site even though they are not income earners. Some of them may visit on excursions or field trips most of which are funded by their parents/guardians and/or institutions of learning. Also, the results on annual income of the tourists who visit Idanre Hills showed that on average, people who do not earn large income annually (#100,000 to 999,000 Naira) can still afford to visit the site. This implies that the amount of money that tourists are expected to pay, either as entrance fee or for tour guides, is not too expensive as to discourage tourists' patronage (Adetola *et al*., 2016).

It was realized that a great number of the tourists were visiting for the first time. This might be due to the fact that only people who have not visited IdanreHills before really feel a need to go there. It is also possible that tourists who have visited before did not derive enough satisfaction from the site such that they are not propelled to embark on repeat visits.According to Adetola *et al*., (2016) who gathered a similar result, it was explained that this might be due to the publicity of the site following its inclusion on the UNESCO World Heritage Site Tentative List in 2007. Where majority of the tourists (85%) indicated that they visit Idanre Hills because of the attractions present, it can be inferred that currently, the natural and cultural features within the site are the primary reasons for which tourists visit, and not necessarily the available facilities. This also suggests that it is possible that tourists are not motivated by other features within the site such as infrastructure and facilities because they are lacking or exist in a deplorable state. To corroborate this, Adetola *et al*., (2016) explains that lack of accommodation facilities on the hill might have also contributed to low number of visits. Tourists might visit the site more often if they have a place to stay overnight on the hill.

A general look at tourists' satisfaction with Idanre Hills revealed that majority, (77%) were partially satisfied. This is because even though the natural and cultural features are attractive to tourists, there are no sufficient facilities in place for tourists that could make the experience more worthwhile. An example is the unavailability of accommodation facilities. Many tourists probably would have loved to stay overnight or for a couple of days at Idanreparticularly because the attractions on the hill are quite distant from one another making it impossible to visit all the attractions in one day (Adetola *et al*., 2016). The provision of standard and habitable accommodation for tourists would most likely increase their satisfaction levels. Adetola *et al*., (2016) reported that from the overall satisfaction level of the respondents, majority of them (87%) were generally satisfied with their experience at the Idanre Hills. This might be because their experience at the site met their expectations and perceived values of the site (Lee *et al*., 2011; Xia set *al*., 2009) to an extent which is more than the money paid (Song *et al*., 2012; Chen and Chen, 2010). It has been proven that tourists' satisfaction is directly influenced by their perception (Sadeh *et al*., 2012).

With a large number of the tourists disagreeing that the management of Idanre Hills' facilities is highly efficient, it is not surprising that an overwhelming majority (92%) of them agreed that there is need for an upgrade of the site. This serves as the basis for their strong agreement (98%) to the fact that they would be willing to re-visit if Idanre Hills is developed to a world class standard.

On adequacy of facilities, 82% of the tourists attested to the fact that foreigners could be discouraged from visiting Idanre Hills because of the present state of facilities. This suggests that the state of the facilities within the site calls for an improvement. This improvement will include renovation/repair of the dilapidated or damaged facilities and provision of non-existent but needed facilities. If these are achieved, they would not only encourage more domestic tourists to visit the site but also attract more foreigners to the site.

No significant correlation between tourists' patronage ofIdanre Hills and their satisfaction with the site was established. This implies that the tourists' satisfaction level is not influenced by their patronage of the site and their satisfaction as well does not affect their patronage of the site. The test of correlation between tourists' perception of facilities and their satisfaction with Idanre Hills revealed that their perception of the facilities affects their satisfaction with the site. This implies that there was a significant association between their perception and satisfaction. In essence, the poor state of the facilities in the site contributed to the average satisfaction that the majority of tourists derived from the site. This further infers that tourists' satisfaction will increase if an upgrade of the site, in terms of facilities and infrastructure, is carried out. Some researchers are of the opinion that satisfied tourists tend to repeat their visit and transmit their positive experience to others (Alen *et al*., 2007; Opperman, 2000; Woodside *et al*., 2000). Tourists' satisfaction influences their choice of destination and the decision to return to a particular site in future. Therefore, enhancing tourists' satisfaction is a prerequisite for the development of strategy leading to a destination's enhanced attractiveness and its competitive positioning (Dmitrovic *et al*., 2009).

Options recommended by the tourists for an upgrade include renovation of guest chalets, construction of adequate accommodation facilities, provision of elevator or escalator, cable car, hand rails, functional resting points, restaurant, souvenir shop, sport facility, children play area, tourist guide/brochure, functional swimming pool, museum or art gallery, sign posts/labelling, camping facility, good landscaping, adequate power supply, availability of security personnel, tuck shops at the hill top, a gymnasium, good transport system, clean and adequate public convenience, adequate power supply, well-defined parking lot, bars, telecommunication facilities, good reception, Automated Teller Machine (ATM), educational centre, and a clean environment. The provision of some or all of these facilities will go a long way to improve Idanre Hills to a world class standard, attract more tourists from far and near, boost tourists' satisfaction levels and contribute to the site's inclusion in UNESCO's World Heritage Listings.

The community residents' demographic characteristics revealed that 55% of them who responded were male. This may be due to the fact that in many cases, African rural women are marginalized and so may feel unqualified to air their views publicly (FAO *et al*., 2012). With majority (96%) of the residents being Nigerian citizens and 90% of them being Yoruba, it indicates that Idanre town is predominantly made up of Nigerians and most of them belong to the Yoruba tribe.

On perception of upgrade of the facilities in IdanreHills, with only a small proportion of the residents having an unfavourable perception of 'upgrade', it is evident that the people of Idanre are in support of upgrading of IdanreHills. This may be due to the fact that they enjoy and appreciate the positive impact that tourists' visit to the site has had on their local businesses and community development, and therefore look forward to more. They may also see an upgrade as a means to further preserve their cultural heritage, increase their renown as a people and improve their living standards.

With the categorisation of residents based on the perception of upgrade (favourable and unfavourable)based on settlements, 41% of the residents had an unfavourable (negative) perception of an upgrade of Idanre Hills while 59% of them had a favourable (positive) perception of upgrade. Categorizing this result into settlements, 50% of Atosin respondents had an unfavourable perception of upgrade. It is understandable that Atosin, being the farthest of the three settlements from the tourist site may not feel the direct effects of the site as strongly as Alade Idanre and Odode do. This therefore explains their neutrality on how they perceive an upgrade of the site. Marfo (2014) explained such with a phenomenon known as the 'Gravity Theory' which holds the view that the shorter the distance between any community and the centre of interaction (tourist activity), the greater would be the rate of interaction between the two locations. Conversely, the greater the distance between the two locations, the lower the rate of interaction between them as a result of 'distance decay'.

The results of the in-depth interviews and the Focus Group Discussions further validated the questionnaire results in that the tourists are quite satisfied with the natural and cultural features of the site but not the facilities. However, this does not necessarily affect their patronage of the site. Providing the suggested tourist facilities would greatly increase their satisfaction with the site and will encourage willingness to revisit. It would also attract more tourists including foreigners to the site. In order to encourage tourists who are not physically fit to climb the steps, it was recommended that the introduction of cable cars or elevators may make it easier for them to visit the features on the Hills.

The community residents believed that the government has an important role to play in the development of the site to a better standard, and that this development would have lasting positive effects on their lives and their community. They are also certain that the establishment of a higher institution of learning in Idanre community would bring further modernization, attract more people to their town, create more employment opportunities, greatly contribute to the education of their people and development of their community.

CONCLUSION

Idanre Hills without doubt has great potentials and is capable of promoting tourism (ecotourism, aquatourism, geological, historical, cultural, medical, sports tourism) in Nigeria if maximally harnessed and properly managed. Its endemic natural and cultural features are very unique making it an attractive tourism destination and worthy of being listed as a property of UNESCO's

List of World Heritage Sites. However, its present state of facilities and the lack of adequate governmental support currently pose a challenge to its appeal as a tourism destination. All the stakeholders interviewed are in full support for an upgrade and they all highlighted the challenges and the way forward. Achieving this transformation through an upgrade and continued maintenance of the site will likely require the input of private investors in collaboration with the government as a matter of urgency.

Recommendations

1) Ten percent (10%) of the money tourist's pay should be allotted to conservation and maintenance of the site.
2) Provision of unavailable tourist facilities and needed infrastructure especially cable cars and affordable accommodation facilities for tourists who might want to stay within the site beyond a day. Student hostels should also be provided to cater for large population of students who visit the site on excursions and field trips.
3) Beautification of Idanre town with good landscape designs, planting of trees, walkways, streetlights, road repairs and regular environmental sanitation exercises should be carried out.
4) Souvenirs should be made available at the site consisting of both modern and locally crafted items which depict the culture of Idanre people and Nigeria at large for sale to tourists at affordable prices.
5) Partnership with private investors so as to ensure continued development and maintenance of the tourist site should be adopted.
6) All developmental practices and installations that will be carried out at the site during upgrade must adhere to ecotourism principles and World Heritage Convention standards.
7) More tourism personnel should be employed as part of an upgrade of the site and training of the staff should be provided regularly.

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Notes for contributors / sumbission guidelines

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Full papers should be between 6,000-9,000 words, excluding references. Research notes or case studies should be between 1,500-2,000 words long, excluding references. Commentaries should be about 1,200 words long. Book and conference reviews should be about 1,000 words long. Full papers and research notes must have up to six key words to indicate to readers the topic of the paper.

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- All submissions (full papers, research notes, case studies, commentaries, and book or conference reviews) must have a title of no more than 14 words.

- Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least a one-inch margin on all four sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively.
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- *First page:* title, subtitle (if required), author's name and surname, affiliation, full postal address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address. Respective names, affiliations and addresses of co-authors should be clearly indicated. Also, include an abstract of not more than 150 words, acknowledgements (if any), and up to 6 keywords that identify article content.
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In the text, references should be cited with parentheses using the "author, date" style - for example (Ford, 2001; Jackson 1998, 2002). Page numbers for specific points or direct quotations must be given. The Reference list, placed at the end of the manuscript, must be typed in alphabetical order of authors. The specific format is:

➢ *For journals*: Tribe, J. (2002) The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 338-357.
➢ *For books and monographs*: Teare, R. and Ingram, H. (1993) *Strategic Management: A Resource-Based Approach for the Hospitality and Tourism Industries*. London, Cassell.
➢ *For chapters in edited books*: Webster, C. and Ivanov, S. (2012) The Political Economy of Future Tourism. In J. Leigh, C. Webster, S. Ivanov (Eds.) *Future Tourism Political, Social and Economic Challenges*, London: Routledge.
➢ *For reports*: Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994) *Meetings and Conventions*. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.
➢ *For Internet sources*: Wirtz, J., Kimes, S., Ho, J., Patterson, P. (2002) Revenue management: resolving potential customer conflicts. Working Paper Series. School of Hotel Administration. Cornell University. URL: http://www.hotelschool.cornell.edu/chr/pdf/showpdf/chr/research/working/revenuemanage.pdf (Accessed on 16.12.2005)

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