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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. 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*, nor the College of Tourism and Hotel Management.

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NOTE FROM THE EDITOR

Now that the journal has been active for more than two decades, we have shown ourselves to be survivors and we continue to publish with the support of The College of Tourism and Hotel Management.

In this issue, we have a very interesting mix of articles from several different countries. It is fortunate that we continue to attract articles from authors in many different countries and continents. Our founder, Antonis Charalambides, would have appreciated giving opportunities to scholars to disseminate their research to the world. At any rate, *Tourism Today* remains a testament to his long-term thinking, giving scholars from throughout the world the opportunity to present their research to the entire world.

Scholars from the European Union are well represented in this edition of *Tourism Today*. Pandelis Mitsis explores the pricing of hotel room prices in Cyprus. Also based in Cyprus, Roxana Michaelides writes about the educational system in Cyprus with regards to hospitality and tourism education. Ioanna Karantza and Sotirios Vlachakis explore issues related to brand positioning and life cycle, in the hospitality industry in Greece. Kitti Hiezl and Petra Gyurác-Németh use data from a Hungarian survey to explore Generation Z and its needs with regards to hotel service. Paweł Różycki and Kinga Kostrakiewicz-Gierałt explore sacral buildings in Krakow as tourist attractions.

However, there are many scholars from other countries that are represented, as well. Suosheng Wang, based in the USA, in his article discusses the social impact of tourism in developing and developed countries. Godfred Osei Boakye, based in Scotland, discusses tourism-related risks in West Africa, based upon data from a case study from Lake Bosomtwe. Adewumi Badiora and Sunday Omoniyi, based in Nigeria, explore issues of safety of tourists in their study on tourists and residents in a Nigerian tourist city. Finally, Ha Van Trung, based in Vietnam, explores issues related to agritourism in Vietnam.

The journal continues to function as planned. We provide a useful and welcoming outlet for researchers around the world. The diversity of scholarship is testament to our desire to

NOTE FROM THE EDITOR

see different approaches and types of scholarship represented in every edition. The Editorial Board, to whom I am very grateful, is also a testament to the diversity of representation throughout the world and the good relationships that we at Tourism Today have worked to maintain for over two decades.

As has been the case since the first edition of Tourism Today, comments that assist us in improving the journal are welcome. We encourage readers to support us by submitting original research, joining the Editorial Board, and telling friends and colleagues about the journal. We wish you an enjoyable read and this journal.

Craig Webster
Editor-in-Chief, Tourism Today

Comparative Social Impacts of Tourism on Developing and Developed Countries

*Suosheng Wang*¹

ABSTRACT

The synthesized major factors influencing tourism impacts on host communities include the type of tourism activities, the features of the host communities, and the nature of the interaction between tourists and host communities. The international tourism flows mainly feature tourism mobilities among the developed countries and from the developed countries to the developing countries. Given the economic and sociocultural differences between the developed and developing countries, it is deemed that the social impacts of tourism in the developing countries will be greater than in the developed countries, and more attention should be given to the host communities in the developing countries. Yet, no comparative social impacts of tourism are reported between the developed and developing countries. This study attempts to address this gap and alert people to the negative social impacts of tourism in developing countries.

Keywords: social impacts; host communities; comparative; developing countries; developed countries

INTRODUCTION

The largest factor in worldwide international tourism is holidays taken by people from industrial countries, and although they predominantly still travel to other industrial countries, an ever-increasing number of people are visiting developing countries (Iwersen-Sioltsidis & Iwersen, 1996). On the one hand, tourism is considered as a main driving force of economic growth in many countries; especially, tourism has been widely regarded as an effective means of achieving development and poverty alleviation in non-industrialized countries (Binns & Nel, 2002). On the other hand, tourism development is accused as an agent (if not the sole agent) of rapid social and cultural change in host communities (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

Recent studies have paid more attention to tourism's social impacts (see e.g., Jaafar et al., 2017; Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017), as the key aspects of social impacts of tourism are related to host communities' quality of life and sense of place (Godfrey & Clarke 2000). The social impacts of tourism have been described as the changes in the quality of life of residents within tourism

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destinations that are a consequence of any kind of tourism in that destination (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). It refers to how tourism is contributing to social and cultural changes which arise from the presence of tourists at destinations and their interactions with host communities.

Given the economic and sociocultural differences between the developed countries and developing countries, it is assumed that the social impacts caused by international tourism would be greater in the host communities of the developing countries. Yet, no comparative studies on the social impacts of tourism between the developed and developing countries have ever been reported. This study congregates the case studies on tourism's social impacts being published in the first two decades of the 21st century and detect in detail how the impacts have been different between the developed and developing countries, and how the negative impacts have been made on destinations in the third-world countries.

Identifying social impacts is necessary and important to ensure sustainable tourism development, as local communities increasingly play a relevant role in assessing tourism impacts (Monterrubio et al., 2012). By recognizing the social impacts taking place in the developed and developing countries, respectively, it is expected that the host communities and tourism policymakers and planners in both the developed and developing countries will become more aware of the social benefits and costs of tourism on their host communities, and endeavor accordingly to create more sustainable communities that are resilient enough to survive in the highly volatile international environment.

CONTENT ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

This study uses the online tool Google Scholar to broadly search for scholarly case studies on tourism's social impacts occurring in host communities. To showcase the recent case study examples, only the case studies published in English language journals or conference proceedings in the first two decades of the 21st century have been selected. As a result, over 100 articles reporting host communities' social impacts of tourism are collected. Notably, most of these case studies were conducted through interviews or surveys or a comprehensive approach including both interview and survey. Also, more case studies are found to focus on destinations in the developing countries, indicating a shift of researchers' emphasis from the developed countries to the developing countries with regards to the social impacts of tourism. The purpose of this study is to compare the social impacts of tourism between the host communities in developed and developing countries. This study has excluded the countries which cannot be clearly defined as developed and developing countries based on multiple criteria, and has given only to the well-defined developed countries (e.g., USA, West Europe, Australia) and developing countries (e.g., countries in Africa and Latin America) (see the case study examples in Table 1).

Table 1. Positive social impacts of tourism

Positive social impacts	Case study examples
Enhancement of destination image	Andereck et al., 2005 (Arizona, USA); Besculides et al., 2002 (Colorado, USA) Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2007 (Mauritius); Singla, 2014 (India); Tangit et al., 2014 (Malaysia); Zamani-Farahaniab & Musa, 2012 (Iran)
Enhancement of community pride	Tovar & Lockwood, 2008 (Tasmania, Australia); Gjerald, 2005 (Norway) Huttasin, 2008 (Thailand); Sebastian & Rajagopalan, 2009 (India); Suntikul & Dorji, 2016 (Bhutan); Tangit et al., 2014 (Malaysia).
Stronger sense of ethnic identity and/or cultural identity	Andereck, et al., 2005 (Arizona, USA); Besculides et al., 2002 (Colorado, USA); Peters et al., 2018 (Austria) Huttasin, 2008 (Thailand); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Okech, 2010 (Kenya); Tangit et al., 2014 (Malaysia)
Preserving cultural heritage and promoting cultural exchange	Besculides et al., 2002 (Colorado, USA); Gjerald, 2005 (Norway); Peters et al., 2018 (Austria); Sharma et al., 2008 (Sunshine Coast, Australia) Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Zamani-Farahaniab & Musa, 2012 (Iran)
New job opportunities	Tovar & Lockwood, 2008 (Tasmania, Australia); Gjerald, 2005 (Norway) Huttasin, 2008 (Thailand); Zamani-Farahaniab & Musa, 2012 (Iran)
Improvement of infrastructure and public/recreational facilities	Andereck et al., 2005 (Arizona, USA); Besculides et al., 2002 (Colorado, USA); Peters et al., 2018 (Austria); Tovar & Lockwood, 2008 (Tasmania, Australia) Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Monterrubio et al., 2012 (Mexico); Okech, 2010 (Kenya); Zamani-Farahaniab & Musa, 2012 (Iran)
Improvement of quality of life	Andereck et al., 2005 (Arizona, USA); Besculides et al., 2002 (Colorado, USA); Gjerald, 2005 (Norway) Bello et al., 2007 (Malawi); Huttasin, 2008 (Thailand); Okech, 2010 (Kenya); Singla, 2014 (India); Tangit et al., 2014 (Malaysia); Zamani-Farahaniab & Musa, 2012 (Iran)
Empowerment of women	Huttasin, 2008 (Thailand); Nzama, 2008 (South Africa); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Nunkoo, R. & Ramkissoon, H. (2016, Mauritius)

Through a thorough review and content analysis, all the main social impacts of tourism reported in each case study are collected and categorized. All the major reported positive and negative social impacts are displayed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 2. Negative social impacts of tourism

Negative social impacts	Case study examples
Overcrowding and limited community support for residential rights	Besculides et al., 2002 (Colorado, USA); Gjerald, 2005 (Norway); Sharma et al., 2008 (Sunshine Coast, Australia); Tovar & Lockwood, 2008 (Tasmania, Australia) Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Gutberlet, 2016 (Oman); Huttasin, 2008 (Thailand); Jaafar et al., 2017 (Malaysia); Okech, 2010 (Kenya)
Increase in crimes, gambling, drugs, and/or prostitution	Gjerald, 2005 (North Cape, Norway) Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2007 (Mauritius); Okech, 2010 (Kenya); Sebastian & Rajagopalan, 2009 (India); Tosun, 2002 (Turkey); Wanjohi, 2002 (Kenya)
Altering community structure and weakened community cohesion, breaking up of traditional family structure	Gjerald, 2005 (North Cape, Norway) Alobiedat, 2018 (Umm Qais, Jordan); Bello, et al., 2007 (Malawi); Wanjohi, 2002 (Kenya)
Negative impacts on young people (e.g., bad behavior, vulgar language, dropping out of school, sexual permissiveness)	Alobiedat, 2018 (Umm Qais, Jordan); Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Gössling et al., 2004 (Madagascar); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Wanjohi, 2002 (Kenya)
Exclusion of community residents from access to recreational places or amenity resources	Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Singla, 2014 (India)
Displacement of residents, relocation of local communities	Alobiedat, 2018 (Umm Qais, Jordan); Gutberlet, 2016 (Oman); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Sebastian & Rajagopalan, 2009 (India)
Decline of traditional culture and customs, decline of traditional economic activities	Alobiedat, 2018 (Umm Qais, Jordan); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Singla, 2014 (India); Wanjohi, 2002 (Kenya)
Demonstration effect and acculturation	Alrwajfah et al., 2019 (Petra, Jordan); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana)
Racial discrimination, exploitation of local workers	Alobiedat, 2018 (Umm Qais, Jordan); Bello, et al., 2007 (Malawi); Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Singla, 2014 (India); Suntikul & Dorji, 2016 (Bhutan)
Enclave tourism, with little economic multiplier effects	Mbaiwa, 2005 (Botswana); Monterrubio et al., 2012 (Mexico); Nunkoo, R. & Ramkissoon, H. (2016)

POSITIVE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

As indicated in Table 1, tourism can bring various positive impacts to host communities, no matter whether it occurs in developing countries or developed countries. These impacts include enhancement of destination image, enhancement of community pride, a stronger sense of ethnic identity and/or cultural identity, preserving cultural heritage and promoting cultural exchange, new job opportunities, improvement of infrastructure and public/recreational facilities, improvement of quality of life, and empowerment of women. Most of the results are comparable with the previous studies conducted before the 21st century. For instance, Ap and Crompton (1998) observed that tourism can improve quality of life, increase the availability of recreational facilities, improve quality of public social services such as fire and police protection, improve understanding of other cultures, preserve cultural heritage and promote cultural exchange.

Notably, as shown in Table 3, most of the positive social impacts are identified in both developed and developing countries. Among the positive social impacts, tourism can encourage social mobility through changes in employment from traditional agriculture to service industries and may result in higher wages and better job prospects. This positive impact is reported in both the developed and developing countries (see, e.g., Alrwajfah et al., 2019; Huttasin, 2008; Tovar & Lockwood, 2008; Zamani-Farahani & Musa 2012). For instance, the villagers of Baan Rawai, which is a tourist village in North Thailand, strongly agreed that tourism reduces the unemployment rate, gives villagers additional job opportunities, and consequently increases family income and their living conditions (Huttasin, 2008).

Table 3. Social Impacts of Tourism Reported in both Developed and Developing Countries

Positive impacts
- Enhancement of destination image
- Enhancement of community pride
- Stronger sense of ethnic identity and/or cultural identity
- Preserving cultural heritage and promoting cultural exchange
- New job opportunities
- Improvement of infrastructure and public/recreational facilities
- Increased property value or land value
- Improvement of quality of life
Negative impacts
- Overcrowding and limited community support for residential rights

Another example of positive social impact is infrastructure and facilities being added or improved for attracting tourists which also benefit residents in both developed and

developing countries (see, e.g., Andereck et al., 2005; Besculides et al., 2002; Peters et al., 2018; Okech, 2010). These benefits include transport facilities, public, social, medical facilities, and accommodations. For people living in many developing countries who are still battling poverty, tourism infrastructure and facilities could be something lavish to them. A great many infrastructure measures would not have been realized in the developing countries if there had been no tourism (Iwersen-Sioltsidis & Iwersen, 1996). In the case of Jaipur, India (Singla, 2014), residents believed that infrastructural developments such as hotels, educational institutes, malls, shopping complexes, eating outlets, etc. have substantially decreased the out-migration of young adults from families.

In contrast, among all the reported positive social impacts, one is found to uniquely belong to the developing countries (i.e., empowerment of women). In developing countries, tourism development can act as a true vehicle for women's empowerment (UNWTO, 2010). With more females involved in the tourism industry, the traditionally male-dominated society experienced a shift, with many males being placed in subservient roles to women in developing countries. In Nunkoo and Ramkissoon's (2016) study in Mauritius, an interviewee working in hotel resort business in Mauritius commented that hotel resorts trained local people with low levels of education and from a deprived area and made them skilled; many of the local people were women who were offered training in handicraft and were awarded a certificate at the end of the training. Nzama's (2008) study in South Africa showed that men felt pressured by women's new empowered position as they got involved in tourism-related jobs outside of the domestic space.

NEGATIVE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

As shown in Table 2, tourism does not only provide social benefits to the local communities, but it also brings a variety of negative impacts. The positive and negative social impacts are twins as a consequence of tourism development, coexisting in the hosting communities in both the developed and developing countries. The negative social impacts include overcrowding and limited community support for residential rights; increase in crimes, gambling, drugs, and/or prostitution; altering community structure and weakened community cohesion, breaking up of traditional family structure; negative impacts on young people (e.g., bad behavior, vulgar language, dropping out of school, sexual permissiveness); exclusion of community residents from access to recreational places or amenity resources; displacement of residents, relocation of local communities; the decline of traditional culture and customs (problem of authenticity and its retention or loss through commoditization); demonstration effect and acculturation; racial discrimination, exploitation of local workers; enclave tourism, with little economic multiplier effects; and exploitation of local workers. The results based on the recent studies are generally consistent with what was reported before the 21st century (e.g., Mason, 1995).

The common negative social impact reported in both developed and developing countries

is overcrowding and limited community support for residential rights (see Table 3), which seems to be an issue commonly concerned by all the mass tourism destinations across the world. When mass tourism is prevalent, traffic congestion, noise, pollution, and similar problems ramp up which directly affect local people's daily life.

There are two other negative social impacts – 'increase in crimes, gambling, drugs, and/or prostitution' and 'altering community structure and weakened community cohesion, breaking up of traditional family structure', which are commonly observed in the developing world. Moreover, these two impacts are also observed in the case study in Norway which is a developed country. It is noted, however, that the site in Norway is a remote and isolated fishing village. The most northerly point of Norway, the North Cape fishing village is like a quasi-developing-country destination within a developed country, which depends on tourism to improve its economy and living standards and make connections with outside people coming from more developed areas. Thus, these two social negative impacts are not common in developed countries and seem more feasible to be discussed in the context of the developing countries.

NEGATIVE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

As shown in Table 4, many of the negative social impacts are mainly found in the developing world. These negative social impacts specifically or mainly observed in the developing world include:

- Increase in crimes, gambling, drugs, and/or prostitution
- Altering community structure and weakened community cohesion, breaking up of traditional family structure
- Negative impacts on young people (e.g., bad behavior, vulgar language, dropping out of school, sexual permissiveness)
- Exclusion of community residents from access to recreational places or amenity resources
- Displacement of residents, relocation of local communities
- Decline of traditional culture and customs, a decline of traditional economic activities
- Demonstration effect and acculturation
- Racial discrimination, exploitation of local workers
- Enclave tourism, with little economic multiplier effects

Table 4. Social Impacts of Tourism Reported Mainly in Developing Countries

Positive impacts
- Empowerment of women
Negative impacts
- Increase in crimes, gambling, drugs, and/or prostitution
- Altering community structure and weakened community cohesion, breaking up of traditional family structure
- Negative impacts on young people (e.g., bad behavior, vulgar language, dropping out of school, sexual permissiveness)
- Exclusion of community residents from access to recreational places or amenity resources
- Displacement of residents, relocation of local communities
- Decline of traditional culture and customs, decline of traditional economic activities
- Demonstration effect and acculturation
- Racial discrimination, exploitation of local workers
- Enclave tourism, with little economic multiplier effects

Increase in crimes, gambling, drugs, and/or prostitution

Many studies indicate that an expansion of tourism may transform a destination’s norms and traditional values, increasing immoralities such as crimes, gambling, drugs, and or prostitution, which were observed in both developed and developing countries. For instance, In Kenya, sexual permissiveness, especially among the youths, was perceived to increase because of an expansion of tourism. In addition, drug-taking, alcoholism, prostitution, gambling/illegal games, organized crimes, individual crimes, and general morality were perceived to worsen (Wanjohi, 2002).

Yet, it is hard to establish whether crime increases simply because of tourism or the increased population density or urbanization (Cooper et al., 2008), but rather that tourism development has created locations and environments for the immoralities. As indicated in the case studies, an increase in the crime rates due to tourism can be more of an issue in developing countries with high rates of poverty where there is a big economic gap between wealthy tourists and locals. For instance, in Port Louis, Mauritius, most prostitution clients were foreigners (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2007).

Altering community structure and weakened community cohesion, breaking up of traditional family structure

Research indicates that tourism was responsible for the weakened community cohesion and cooperation as they are replaced by new values which encourage competition and entrepreneurship. Residents have to modify their way of life for at least part of the year in

destinations where tourism is a seasonal activity. Such changes can lead to the breakdown of the conventional family structure and relations or alter the structure of the community which further undermines the stability of the community. Huge structural changes have come about in several developing countries due to the boom in international tourism. Antigua is a typical example of how deeply a developing tourist economy can alter the structure of a country – from the sugar industry to tourism (Iwersen-Sioltsidis & Iwersen, 1996).

Negative impacts on young people

Residents in host communities are the final recipients of all the types of impacts made by tourism, and young hosts are particularly susceptible and easily influenced by foreign lifestyles and cultures (Leiper, 2004). Tourism studies show that negative social impacts of tourism are mainly made on young people and children in developing countries. A common issue raised in these seminal works was the demonstration effect of modern Western ways of life, leisure, and consumption on young Indigenous populations (Canosa et al, 2016). For example, Gössling et al.'s (2004) study in Madagascar shows that tourists' monetary donations to street children are potentially detrimental to their livelihoods, placing them in danger of sexual exploitation.

Exclusion of community residents from resources and services

The development of tourist facilities in host communities may limit residents' access to their local resources; traditional services may be replaced by businesses that serve tourists' interests. Residents may temporarily and seasonally experience a shortage in water, power, and fuel supply. Also, increased pressure on the infrastructure may create other types of restricted access for residents. Subsequently, residents may lose control over the community's resources and services. Such negative impacts have been found mainly in developing countries (see, e.g., Alobiedat, 2018; Alrwajfah et al., 2019; Singla, 2014). For instance, in the case study of tourism in Umm Qais, Jordan (Alobiedat, 2018), the tour guides asked the residents to keep a distance between themselves and the tourists, otherwise, they must deal with humiliating consequences from the tourist police. The international non-Arab tourists are a protected class, who have overpowered locals within the heritage site, receiving blind protection from locals by the tourist police.

Displacement of residents, relocation of local communities

Over-dependence of host communities on tourism and displacement of locals has been identified as another major negative impact of tourism. In a place with overdevelopment of tourism or over-dependence on tourism, local people may be excluded from enjoying the natural environment of their place of residence. Especially in developing countries, the arrival of too many visitors can cause local people to leave their settlements and move to new areas where they can remain undisturbed (Archer et al., 2005). One example is the Omani capital, Muscat. Gutberlet (2016) explored the social impacts of large-scale cruise line tourism on a traditional

bazaar (Souq) located opposite the port in the Omani capital, Muscat. Findings indicated that the Souq, overwhelmed by cruise tourists, had become “the core of a tourist bubble,” where crowding was a major problem and residents avoided the place. As a result, Omani vendors left their businesses and rented their shops out to expatriates.

Decline of traditional culture and customs, decline of traditional economic activities

According to Bello et al. (2017), in most developing world destinations, international tourists find their encounters with local communities fascinating and unique as the host is usually from a different culture. Local hosts may take advantage of such encounters and become exploitative by providing tourists with simplified and condensed experiences of the area (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). As such, tourism may commercialize the usual spontaneous hospitality activities in these destinations. Cohen (2004) argues that commoditization can lead to the exploitation of the residents and their cultural resources by outsiders as the process is mostly initiated by culture brokers and entrepreneurs from outside the local community. This eventually can cause traditions to become routine and inauthentic. Hence, the cultural products may lose their traditional significance and simply become a tourist attraction that is no longer meaningful to the community. In the case study of Umm Qais, Jordan (Alobiedat), the rug and basket production depended on agriculture and animal husbandry. However, practicing agriculture and keeping animals became significantly less extensive than before the confiscation process for tourism. As a result, traditional handicrafts passed down for many generations in Umm Qais are disappearing.

Demonstration effect and acculturation

More prominent negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism are the demonstration effect and acculturation in the host culture, which arises in many developing countries especially to young people. The demonstration effect occurs when observing tourist actions that lead to behavioral changes within the host population. The difference between demonstration and acculturation is that the former means simply observing tourists will lead to behavioral changes in the community while the latter may occur when the host and guest interactions are longer and deeper (Williams, 1998). Acculturation takes place when two or more cultures come into contact for a sustained period and exchange ideas (Liu & Var, 1986). This becomes more of an issue when there is a big cultural gap between tourists and locals. Traditional non-industrialized cultures tend to become overwhelmed by tourists from more developed Western countries (Weaver & Lawton, 2001).

Racial discrimination, exploitation of local workers

Several studies have noted the emergence of racial exploitation as a negative consequence of tourism in developing countries (Bello et al, 2017; Mbaiwa, 2005) where higher-level better-paying tourism jobs become dominated by expatriates and local workers end up getting low-paying jobs (Mbaiwa, 2005). In such destinations tourism is associated with leakage since

a significant portion of tourism revenues is transferred from the developing destination to tourist origins (Mathieson & Wall, 1982); local workers even become subject to discrimination, inadequate work conditions, unfair treatment, and dismissal by foreign managers (Mbaiwa, 2005). According to Mbaiwa's (2005) study in Botswana, racial mistreatment mainly came from white expatriates to local black workers, and educated black locals were unlikely to get managerial positions since high-rank high-salary jobs were reserved spots for white expatriates.

Enclave tourism, with little economic multiplier effects

Enclave development results in an economy of foreign domination where local people cannot exercise control over local resources (Sharpley, 2001). Enclave tourism is known to have a weak multiplier effect (Oppermann & Chon, 1997) and has been found to aggravate the problem of social inequality and disparity (Sharpley, 2000). For instance, in the case study by Mbaiwa (2005), the tourism industry in Okavango Delta, Botswana is largely owned and controlled by foreign safari companies and investors; the planned tourist centers have failed to link with other sectors in the area (e.g., farming), and therefore have become enclaves with little to nonregional economic multiplier effects.

Enclave tourism especially in small islands can develop in a way that resembles historical patterns of colonialism (Lea, 1988). In the case study conducted by Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2016) in Mauritius, one theme being identified is that enclave tourism has led to sociocultural destruction and has denied local people freedom. The residents commented that, with more foreign tourists coming into Mauritius, the resort enclave creates a disparity between local people and foreigners and gives the feeling of deprivation and inequality to Mauritians; it is a sort of colonization process going on for Mauritius and it seems that history is repeating itself.

CONCLUSION

Based on the above, a summary of the study of the comparative social impacts of tourism is displayed below:

- Unlike the previous studies on social impacts of tourism which have mainly focused on the host communities in the developed countries, many of the studies conducted in the first two decades of the 21st century is found to focus on the host communities in developing countries.
- Diversified social impacts of tourism - positive and negative - are identifiable in both developed and developing countries.
- Many of the reported positive social impacts are found in both developed and developing countries, except for 'empowerment of women which is a positive impact solely reported in developing countries.

- In contrast, many of the negative social impacts are only existing in developing countries, yet, ‘overcrowding and limited community support for residential rights’ is a common social negative which is found common in both the developed and developing countries where over-tourism is allowed.
- Based on the fact that most of the negative social impacts are only observed in the developing countries, the host communities in developing countries seem to be more susceptible to the negative social impacts of tourism.
- While the host communities in the developed countries may be immune from many of the negative social impacts of tourism, those places which are remote and isolated (like North Cape in Norway) also tend to be susceptible to some negative social impacts of tourism as reported in the developing countries (e.g., ‘increase in crimes, gambling, drugs, and/or prostitution’ and ‘altering community structure and weakened community cohesion, breaking up of traditional family structure’).

The reason for the developed countries being less susceptible to the negative impacts could be that, in the developed countries, the people of the host communities are generally well educated, and do not rely on tourism as the main source of income (e.g., Peters et al., 2018). When encountering social conflicts caused by the mass tourism that affect residents’ interests, they can lodge complaints and protests through effective channels (e.g., NGOs and civic action groups) and force tourism organizations to take alleviative actions. In the developing countries, however, the host communities are relatively composed of less educated and less skillful residents and have a substantial number of households below the poverty line who are highly dependent on tourism to improve their lives. When exposed to ill-treatments or negative impacts from tourism, what the residents could do is to keep silent or take passive measures, expecting involvement or concern from the international NGOs or social media.

The greater the difference of characteristics (race, nationality, appearance, affluence) between the interacting groups, the greater the potential for negative social impacts. In most developing world destinations, residents find their encounters with international tourists from modern societies amazing and fascinating. After meeting the people from the developed countries, most host communities in developing countries start to desire foreign commodities or adopt ways of living displayed by tourists (Shaw & Williams, 2002). The local population’s aspirations to the material standards and values of tourists lead to the copying of tourists’ consumption patterns and the young members of the community are more susceptible to the demonstration effect (Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

In developing countries, the increased employment opportunities provided by tourism development help solve unemployment and under-employment problems, but many of the jobs created are relatively unskilled, low-waged, and lacking in opportunities for advancement. Moreover, the tourism industry can be largely owned and controlled by foreign companies and investors (e.g., enclave tourism) which usually appoint expatriates to occupy the middle and top-level management positions. The local employees and residents can feel unequally treated, exploited, and discriminated against.

The developing countries are eager for foreign currencies, and tourism is a fast and easy way to achieve it. To create a 'friendly' ambiance for international tourists, the governments in some developing countries tend to set up tourism policies favorable to international tourists by sacrificing the residents' interests (e.g., prohibiting the locals from contacting international tourists or denying their access to tourist areas). For instance, socioeconomic apartheid, as in Cuba, where Cubans are denied access to hotels, bars, restaurants, and "dollar shops" unless accompanied by a foreigner (Pattullo, 1996), is common in many of the Caribbean and Latin American beaches, and feel inferior to the international managers and tourists. The residents in the developing countries feel that tourists overpower the locals and are given preferential treatment over the locals (e.g., Suintikul & Dorji, 2016).

Social fragmentation and incoherence result from income inequality. In the developing countries especially in the remote and isolated communities, tourism was responsible for the weakened community cohesion and cooperation as they are replaced by new values which encourage competition and entrepreneurship. Tourism provides jobs and benefits to women in developing countries, women's control of an independent income can often lead to conflict within the family, as the male's breadwinner role and control of household resources are undermined. Likewise, the negative social impacts, like prostitution, crimes, degradation of morality are more prevalent in developing countries than in developed countries with a mature and stable economy (Ryan et al., 1998). For instance, sex tourism and romance tourism are also driven by residents' desire for more income and better life, which impact local gender relations and family structure. Those romanced often hope to immigrate, and some do visit their clients abroad and marry them (or hope to do so) (Cabezas, 2003).

In sum, this study indicates that tourism can bring a variety of positive social impacts to host communities in both developed and developing countries. In contrast, the host communities in developing countries are more susceptible to negative social impacts than the developed countries. As indicated by the case studies, the tourism impacts on host communities appear to be affected by a wellbeing gap between hosts and guests; the unequal distribution of the benefits of tourism in the community; sociocultural dissimilarities between residents and tourists; the non or passive involvement of local communities in the process of development, and the irresponsible local or central governments. All these have played together to make the social negative impacts obvious in the developing countries.

With regards to mitigation and control of negative social impacts of tourism, more challenges can be faced by the host communities in developing countries. This is because, in the developed countries, the concerns of specific stakeholders, for example, the residents, the government, investors, non-profit organizations, and the media, etc. can all bear responsibility and risk together in the planning and management of tourism development. In the developing countries, the negative impacts can be accelerated by the government which makes preferential policies to international investors and tourists over its residents, and by the ignorance of social and legal measures that should have been taken to minimize negative and maximize positive impacts of tourism development (Tosun, 2002). Hence it is extremely important

that detailed and careful planning should be required when expanding the tourist industry in developing countries (Iwersen-Sioltsidis & Iwersen, 1996).

Active participation of local people in the process of tourism planning and management is key to ensuring sustainable tourism development. Tourism developers and policymakers in the developing countries should enhance the local investments and the involvement of host communities in tourism projects, in a way to boost the local economy and fair distribution of benefits among the residents and avoid enclave tourism.

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The Determinants of Hotel Room Price in Cyprus

Pandelis Mitsis^{1,2}

ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study is to explore the price determinants of the hotel rooms in Cyprus, a competitive Mediterranean tourism destination. The author employs a hedonic pricing method in order to analyse the impact of a variety of characteristics and attributes. The choice of variables follows recent literature, while data have been obtained from a private travel agency. Research results suggest that in case of Cyprus, the most substantial impact is generated by hotel core attributes that potentially determinate whole hotel product, including star rating (25.5%) and spa facilities (33.2%). The main limitations of the study are the reliance on a single data source and not examining impacts from seasonality. Despite those shortcomings, findings provide a valid starting point for any future analysis and useful scientific implications to researchers and practitioners involved in the strategic planning process in the hotel industry. The practical implications of this type of research include demonstrating to hotel owners which features should be maintained and enhanced in order for their revenues to be most significantly increased.

Keywords: hedonic pricing method, hotel room, price determinants, Cyprus.

INTRODUCTION

In tourism, pricing decisions are often complex. For example, the price of a hotel room may be affected by seasonality, type of room, facilities provided or attributes of the external environment, such as location or outside views (Papatheodorou et al., 2012). Research on price determinants may facilitate such pricing decisions and consequently provide investiture with the desired amount of feedback. Therefore, the concept of the hotel product and its price determinants are being widely explored in the literature. Some of the researchers focus on seasonality (Juaneda et al. 2011; Schamel, 2012), some examine effects from the type of room and the facilities provided (Haroutunian et al., 2005; Mandic and Jurun, 2018), while

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² I am grateful to Ms. Elena Tanou, Vice President of Top Kinisis Travel Plc, for data provision and for sharing substantial insights into Cyprus hospitality market. The views expressed here are personal and any errors are mine.

others investigate how hotel prices are influenced by the external environment (Lee and Jang, 2011; Pawlicz and Napierala, 2016).

In Cyprus, the tourism sector is considered as the backbone of the island's economy, accounting for a substantial percentage of the island's national income.³ Despite the highly competitive tourism market in the Mediterranean region (of which the country consists a part of), Cyprus currently ranks third worldwide in terms of prioritization on travel and tourism (World Economic Forum, 2020), with substantial public and private expenditure diverted towards its hospitality sector. However, in terms of price competitiveness in travel and tourism, Cyprus ranks the lowest among competitor markets, something that is not currently explored in the literature. The current study aims to address this research gap.

With the application of a hedonic regression model, the author examines the influence of many different variables on the room prices of 92 hotels in Cyprus. The hedonic pricing model assumes that each product is a bundle of specific attributes or characteristics which affect its price. Therefore, the price of any given good (or service) is the sum of the prices which consumers attribute to its quality characteristics. The model has been applied to many markets for differentiated products, such as automobiles (Griliches, 1961), agricultural products (Waugh, 1928) and housing units (Wolverton and Senteza, 2000). It also has an increasing number of applications to the tourism industry (Aguilo et al., 2001; Chen and Rothschild, 2010; Wang et al., 2019).

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 provides the literature review, while section 3 describes the data set used. Section 4 provides the methodological framework, section 5 presents the estimation results and concluding remarks are provided in section 6.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The main premise of the hedonic price analysis (HPA) is that it views goods and services as collections of attributes and characteristics, with each of them having a specific effect on the price of the final product. It was first applied by Waugh (1928), who used it to examine the effects of vegetable quality on their prices, but the theoretical and statistical foundations of the hedonic pricing model were created later on, by Lancaster (1966) and Rosen (1974). HPA has been applied ever since to many fields related to the pricing of products, such as computers (Chow, 1967), housing units (Goodman, 1978) and wine (Combris et al. 1997).

In tourism and hospitality, HPA was first applied by Hartman (1989), who analysed the pricing of luxury hotels, and by Sinclair et al. (1990), who investigated how the attributes of

³ According to the official website of the Statistical Service of Cyprus, the revenue from tourism in 2019 accounted for the equivalent of 12% of the nominal Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country.

holiday packages implicate on their overall price. It has been used ever since by scholars to analyse the pricing of many different tourist products, such as airfare (Schwieterman, 1995), package tours (Thrane, 2005) and ski-lift tickets (Falk, 2008). However, the focus of the HPA research in travel and tourism has always been the analysis of hotel accommodation pricing (Portolan, 2013). The implicit prices estimated by the hedonic model reflect the consumers' willingness-to-pay, which offers a relatively objective way to analyse the determinants of hotel room pricing.

Studies based on HPA have focused on many aspects of hotel characteristics (Espinet et al., 2003). The related attributes may be categorized into internal and external factors (Chen and Rothschild, 2010). Internal factors contain the facilities and services provided by the hotel. They include, but are not limited, to the following attributes: star rating (Israeli, 2002), chain (Agmapisarn, 2014), hotel size (White and Mulligan, 2002), hotel amenities, such as swimming pool (Andersson, 2010) and fitness centre (Mandic and Jurun, 2018); and room amenities, such as satellite television (Portolan, 2013) and internet connection (Tung et al., 2011). External factors refer to the location characteristics of the hotel, such as the distance to the centre of the tourist resort (Pawlicz and Napierala, 2016) and the distance to the nearest beach (Yalcin and Mert, 2018). In addition to internal and external factors, the relevant literature also examines effects from seasonality (Wang et al., 2019) and online user ratings (Gavilan et al., 2018).

In regards to analysing the determinants of hotel room prices in each country separately, the list of studies applying HPA in Mediterranean destinations include Israeli (2002), Espinet et al. (2005), Portolan (2013) and Yalcin and Mert (2018), who applied the hedonic pricing model for the hotel rates in Israel, Spain, Croatia and Turkey, respectively. Studies applying the hedonic pricing model for hotels in the entire Mediterranean region include Papatheodorou (2002), Pashardes et al. (2002) and Haroutunian et al. (2005).

A major conclusion in Haroutunian et al. (2005) is that hotel room price variation is often more associated with the country of destination, rather than with the attributes of the hotels themselves. The empirical findings in Papatheodorou (2002) and in Pashardes et al. (2002) both suggest that the price of the tourist product of Cyprus indicates a price premium (as compared with other tourist destinations) that cannot be fully attributed to the quality characteristics of the Cypriot hotels. In other words, there is strong evidence in the findings of these studies, that the hotel rooms in Cyprus are inexplicably more expensive than in the rest of the Mediterranean countries.

DATA

Most hotels in Cyprus appear on the lists of more than one travel agent. Given the nature of the tourism market and the way that hotels advertise themselves, price differences between travel agents tend to be negligible. For this reason, it is considered appropriate by the author

of this study to use data from only one tourist agent, *Top Kinisis Travel Plc*. These data refer to the month of September 2017 and concern 92 hotels located all over the island. The study is restricted to a single month in order to avoid problems due to seasonality. For each hotel, information about characteristics, such as location, amenities and room types are obtained. In order to standardise the comparisons, only the rate for a one-night stay in a double room is recorded in each hotel. Hotels contained in the data set represent quite a homogenous group, which is a precondition for application of HPA (Haroutunian et al., 2005). Most of the hotels in the sample are three or four stars rated and they cover six different districts in the island: Nicosia, Larnaca, Limassol, Famagusta, Paphos and the Troodos mountains.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.
Price	The logarithm of the price of the hotel room (in €)	4.190	5.165
Location:	The district where the hotel is located		
Nicosia	The hotel is situated in the district of Nicosia (#)	0.098	0.299
Larnaca	The hotel is situated in the district of Larnaca (#)	0.152	0.361
Limassol	The hotel is situated in the district of Limassol (#)	0.217	0.415
Famagusta	The hotel is situated in the district of Famagusta (#)	0.174	0.381
Paphos	The hotel is situated in the district of Paphos (#)	0.315	0.467
Troodos	The hotel is situated in the Troodos area (#)	0.043	0.205
Hotel Size	The logarithm of the hotel's total number of rooms	4.981	0.607
Star Rating	The official star rating of the hotel (2 to 5)	3.803	0.872
Spa	Whether the hotel has a spa (#)	0.098	0.299
Playground	Whether the hotel has a playground (#)	0.087	0.283
Telephone	Whether the room has a direct-dial telephone (#)	0.543	0.501
Air Condition	Whether the room is air conditioned (#)	0.565	0.498
City Centre	Whether the hotel is located near the city centre (#)	0.380	0.488
Bus Station	Whether the hotel is situated near to a bus station (#)	0.043	0.205

Notes: The sample originates from the private tourist agency 'Top Kinisis Travel Plc' and it consists of 92 hotels that were in operation during September 2017. The symbol (#) denotes dummy variables (i.e. variables taking the value '1' when a specific characteristic or attribute is present and the value '0', otherwise). A distance within 5 km signifies a hotel located 'near the city centre', while 'near a bus station' is interpreted as that a bus stop is directly opposite the hotel. Of the variables listed above, only 'Nicosia' is not included in the subsequent estimations. This is equivalent with rendering the hotel rooms offered in the district of Nicosia as the 'reference group', that is the group with which all comparisons presented in Table 2 are being made.

It is expected that only those variables that provide a significant impact on overall hotel stay experience (by changing it substantially) will be recognised as price determinants. Therefore, only such variables are selected for consideration in the current study. In line with the theoretical guidelines for selecting independent variables in hedonic models (Andersson, 2000), the variable selection (see Table 1) is based on previous studies: Israeli (2002) regarding internal factors (star rating and scale), Yalcin and Mert (2018) regarding hotel amenities (existence of spa and playground), Mandic and Jurun (2018) regarding room facilities (air conditioning and direct-dial telephone) and Wang et al. (2019) regarding external factors (e.g. access to a bus station and proximity to the tourist resort's centre).⁴

METHOD

Hedonic Price Analysis (HPA) is an economic valuation technique based on revealed preferences. It has recently received considerable attention in the tourism literature as a result of various developments in the sector (Papatheodorou et al. 2012). As mentioned previously, this technique is based on Lancaster's (1966) approach to consumer theory and has been inaugurated by Rosen (1974). In the last few decades its application in the context of the tourism industry is becoming more and more frequent in use (see, e.g., Aguilo et al., 2001; Thrane, 2005; Juaneda et al., 2011; Wang et al. 2019). The issue of determining the most appropriate functional form of the related regression model has also received a lot of attention in the literature (see, e.g., Espinet et al. 2003; Thrane, 2005). Most of the researchers apply the log-linear form. This form requires the dependent variable (i.e. the hotel room price) to be expressed as a logarithm.

The log-linear form approach enhances coefficient interpretation as a percentage change in the dependent variable associated with one-unit increase in the independent variable (see, e.g. Fleischer, 2012). However, this straightforward interpretation does not apply in the case of dummy variables' coefficients. In such case, the desired value is calculated according to Halvorsen and Palmquist (1980), that is: by taking the antilog of the related coefficient minus one. The basic hedonic log-linear model to be estimated (incorporating all independent variables) is as follows (Espinete et al., 2003):

$$P_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad (1)$$

where P_i is the natural logarithm of the price of each hotel room, α is the intercept of the regression, X_i is a vector of characteristics or attributes of the hotel which may affect the

⁴ Given the well-known problem of multicollinearity in this kind of hedonic analysis (see Espinete et al, 2003) and the relatively small number of available observations in the current study, stepwise regressions were used in order to narrow down the number of variables to those for which the parameter estimate has a p-value less than 0.1 (that is, significant at the 10% level). The selected variables are the ones presented in Table 1.

accommodation price (e.g., hotel's star rating, whether the hotel amenities include a spa, and so forth), β is a vector of coefficients which account the degree that each of those characteristics or attributes may affect the price of the hotel room (i.e. the hedonic prices) and ε_i is the residual term, assumed to be normally distributed and with an expected value equal to zero. Summarising the information presented above, the current paper applies a semi-log form of hedonic regression model, where the hotel room price is seen as the dependent variable and all the other variables listed in Table 1 are seen as the independent regressors.

RESULTS

Table 2 lists the hedonic pricing model analytical results and diagnostics. The model fits the data well, with an adjusted R-squared equal to 0.746, while the p-value of the F-test (0.000) suggests that the regressors are significant (as a group), in explaining the variable of interest. Mean Variance Inflation Factor is 2.23, indicating that multicollinearity can be eliminated as a problem (Chen and Rothschild, 2010). Furthermore, the clearly insignificant tests for misspecification (RESET) and heteroscedasticity (Breusch-Pagan and White tests) indicate no such problems with the model, either.

The estimation results indicate that nine variables generate a significant impact on the prices of the Cyprus hotels. Five of those variables influence hotel rates with a confidence level of 1% (hotel location: district of Larnaca, official star rating, existence of spa, playground and air conditioning), two variables affect hotel rates with a confidence level of 5% (hotel location: Troodos mountains and the existence of direct-dial telephone in the hotel room) and two variables with a significance level of 10% (hotel's total number of rooms and proximity to a bus station).

The intercept term of the regression refers to the room rate of an economy-class hotel (i.e. rating: 2 stars) located in the district of Nicosia and that has none of the attributes indicated by the independent variables in Table 2.⁵ The price of this hotel consists the reference group in the current estimations, that is the 'typical' hotel against which all comparisons are being made. Therefore, the results in Table 2 indicate that, as compared with this 'typical' hotel room in Nicosia, a hotel room in Larnaca is 18.3% cheaper, *ceteris paribus*. At the same time, compared with the typical hotel room in Nicosia, a room offered at a hotel located in the Troodos area is 31% less expensive, all else being equal.

⁵ The imputed price for a one-night stay in a hotel located in the district of Nicosia and that has none of the attributes examined in the current study is equal to €15 (see Wooldridge, 2000, p. 203-4, on how to transform log variables to level-form variables).

Table 2: Estimation Results and Diagnostics of the Hedonic Pricing Model

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	Interpretation
Location:			
Larnaca	-0.202**	0.095	-18.3%
Limassol	-0.013	0.094	
Famagusta	0.074	0.102	
Paphos	0.046	0.098	
Troodos	-0.371***	0.134	-31.0%
Hotel Size	0.115*	0.061	
Star Rating	0.255***	0.037	
Spa	0.287***	0.085	33.2%
Playground	-0.235***	0.082	-20.9%
Telephone	0.148**	0.068	16.0%
Air Condition	-0.197***	0.071	-17.9%
City Centre	0.065	0.051	
Bus Station	-0.194*	0.115	-17.6%
Intercept	2.724***	0.229	
Number of Observations:		92	
Adjusted R-squared:		0.746	
F-Test (p-value):		0.000	
Variance Inflation Factor (VIF):		2.23	
Ramsey RESET (p-value):		0.135	
Breusch-Pagan Test (p-value):		0.148	
White Test (p-value):		0.881	

Notes: Table 2 presents results from estimating a hedonic pricing model for the hotels in Cyprus. The estimated coefficients express the effects of various attributes on the hotel room price, as compared with the reference group (i.e. economy-class hotels located in the district of Nicosia). Statistically significant coefficients of dummy variables are interpreted according to Halvorsen and Palmquist (1980). (***) denotes statistical significance at 1%, (**) at 5%, and (*) at 10%.

Hotel size (i.e. total number of rooms) is not highly significant, but it has a positive effect on room rates (White and Mulligan, 2002). Turning to the star rating variable, this also has a positive and pronounced effect on overall hotel room prices. More precisely, the analysis

above suggests that one more star in the hotel's official rating is associated with a 25.5% increase in the hotel room rates.⁶ The official star rating has previously been proved as a regular size hotel price determinate, among others, by Thrane (2005), who indicates that hotel star category mediates the effects of the other variables, and by Schamel (2012), who finds that star rating accounts for 29.9% of the overall hotel price.

Regarding the dummy variables' coefficients, it is reminded that the interpretation of statistically significant coefficients of dummy variables should be performed by calculating their antilogarithmic values, as suggested in Halvorsen and Palmquist (1980):

$$100 \cdot (e^{\text{coefficient}} - 1) \quad (2)$$

Those values correspond to the percentage differences between the attributes of interest and the intercept term (i.e. the reference group). The calculations (reported in column 3 of Table 2) suggest that, similarly as in Wang et al. (2019), a spa located at the hotel drives up the price of its room by 33.2%, whereas the existence of a playground at the hotel reduces the hotel room price by 20.9%. The latter finding is consistent with Haroutunian et al. (2005), where it is concluded that offering a playground is not a main attraction for an expensive hotel, as it may be for a hotel of average quality targeting families with children.

In the same manner, the results in Table 2 suggest that hotels informing their potential clientele that their rooms are air conditioned, those tend to be cheaper about 17.9% than the ones who do not advertise such as feature, *ceteris paribus*. A similar finding is included in the study of Portolan (2013). By the same logic, a hotel room that features a direct-dial telephone is 16% more expensive than a hotel room where such an amenity is not advertised.

Turning to the external factors, the results of the current study suggest that, similarly with the findings of Espinet et al. (2003), proximity to the town centre has no significant effect in the hotel room prices. The empirical estimations also indicate that, contrary to Tung et al. (2011), accommodation in hotels with a better access to public transport, in Cyprus, is less expensive than in hotels without an easy access to mass transportation. More precisely, the analysis suggests that rooms in hotels next to a bus station tend to be 17.9% cheaper than rooms in hotels where such an amenity is not advertised in the travel agencies' catalogues. This result is hard to explain with the available information.

CONCLUSIONS

The idea embedded in hedonic price theory is that the price of a product may be understood

⁶ It should be mentioned that the effect of the hotel star rating was also examined using three dummy variables, with the 3-stars rating as the reference category. Since this procedure gave similar results as the reported ones, the linear approach is chosen for the sake of parsimony.

as an additive function of its characteristics or attributes (Rosen, 1974). With this serving as a point of departure, the purpose of the current study has contributed to this literature, by examining how a number of attributes may affect the overall pricing of hotel units in Cyprus. The paper concludes that the number of rooms, the official star rating, some hotel amenities and the distance to bus stations have all significant effects on the prices of hotels in Cyprus. Economic theory suggests that these characteristics are also vital in the consumers' assessment of the Cyprus tourism product.

Policy Implication of Findings

The paper finds that top-priority considerations that consumers have in mind when choosing a place to stay in Cyprus include the number of rooms of the hotel, its official star rating, leisure facilities and room amenities. The apparent influence of the number of rooms on the pricing decisions of the hoteliers suggests that hotel units in Cyprus suffering from poor operating performance, by increasing their capacity they may achieve economies of scale and, therefore, increase their revenues. The findings of this study also suggest that an addition of leisure facilities and room amenities may significantly enhance accommodation prices and increase hoteliers' remunerations. Therefore, old leisure facilities and hotel room equipment should be both regularly replaced and upgraded, in order to enhance hotel performances and increase the related money streams.

Limitations of the Study

Despite the limited number of hotels included in the sample (n=92), findings provide valid conclusions regarding the determinants of the Cyprus hotel rates. However, the study has certain limitations. Due to data availability, the research focusses on information obtained only from a single private tourist agent. Therefore, it does not include variables which the literature considers as important price determinants, such as online user ratings. Also, by focusing on observations derived from a single month, it does not allow examining the effect of seasonality, which is yet another factor considered in the literature as a very significant hotel room price determinant.

Suggestions for Future Research

In conclusion, this study has demonstrated the usefulness of the hedonic pricing model in explaining hotel room prices in Cyprus, a country which contemporary research indicates that in terms of price competitiveness it ranks the lowest among its tourism competitors. A number of the attributes examined, such as the hotel official star rating, explained a fair amount of the variance in the Cypriot hotel rates. Yet, the literature suggests that there are other important determinants of hotel prices, for which data was not possible to obtain in the current study, such as seasonality and online user ratings. Future research, therefore, should usefully explore the consumers' evaluation and the implied willingness-to-pay for hotel rooms. This may be achieved by using data collected from internet sources and for a

considerably longer time period, in order to explore the impact of seasonality. This type of research may improve the way the hospitality industry works by identifying hotel attributes which consumers particularly enjoy and, therefore, increase accommodation prices the most. This would indicate to hoteliers features which, if effectively enhanced and promoted, may contribute to a significant and steady revenue increase.

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The Repositioning Process Associated with Positioning and Life Cycle: Case Studies in Tourism Sector

Ioanna Karantz¹ and Sotirios Vlachakis²

ABSTRACT

The purpose is to develop a comprehensive understanding of the factors that contribute to the repositioning process and the reflection of brand positioning and life cycle, in the hospitality industry. After an insight of the literature review, a qualitative analysis is adopted, based on the building theory strategy, concerning the hospitality sector in Greece. A conceptual framework was created, to provide a comprehensive understanding of the repositioning strategies. The initial positioning of the hotel and the life cycle have a significant role in the repositioning strategy that was adopted and the differentiate factor chosen by each hotel. This study provides a perspective at the under-researched issue of repositioning, and by empirically validating the situation of the real-life industry. This paper is among the first to investigate the repositioning process based on the life cycle and the initial positioning in the hospitality sector.

Keywords: Branding, Positioning, Repositioning, Hotels, Brand Equity, Life Cycle

INTRODUCTION

Significant product and service proliferation, as well as intensified demand, have prompted marketers to the need for impeding branding and positioning strategies to remain competitive in the industry. Jack Trout and Al Ries (1981), in their analysis of the “positioning” term, described it as “the battle of the mind.” Therefore, the ongoing emergence of consumers’ desires and demands requires businesses to adopt a repositioning strategy. According to Turner (2003), repositioning is a conscious adaptation to an evolving environment that reflects a profound shift in the valuation of a business. It could be also considered as parallel to the recovery, each focusing on improving the business proposal.

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The repositioning has been used as a critical mechanism for corporate change in several aspects (Dunphy and Stace, 1993), as a component of business management (Thompson and Strickland, 2003), as a sustainable solution in harsh conditions (Eisenhardt and Brown, 1999), as an essential part of strategic competitiveness (Porter, 1996), as a justification for network management (Powell, 1990) and as a stakeholder analysis strategy (Johnson et al., 2005).

In the hospitality industry, the ability to adapt continuously to the new environment is a significant component in business success. Thus, this sector is an attractive one for this study, because of its extraordinary rate of change.

The core principle of the paper is ground theory building, which includes the induction of findings from field-based case data. We selected grounded theory building due to our curiosity in studying a scarcely studied concept of “repositioning” and the components that should be considered during the implementation of this process. Although some of the literature reviews imply that the repositioning process might be taken into account fast when is needed, repositioning could not solve the emerging problems without considering the initial positioning of the firm and its brand equity. In such cases, this kind of approach is more likely to produce new and reliable insights into the phenomena under study than to focus on either previous studies or office-bound thought experiments (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). After providing an insight into the existing literature review, we proceed on presenting the data and the insights derived through theory-building and the multiple case method in the hospitality sector (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Brand Equity and Consumer Behavior

According to Kotler (1991), competition takes place at the level of product enhancement by constantly displaying advantages and features aiming to maintain the product’s competitiveness. Hence, firms are compelled not only to highlight their promise of value but to enhance their excitement as well. Keller (2008) suggests that emotions and the successful development of a brand image have a significant role in customer purchasing behavior. In particular, when the brand image is related to the profile of the customer, they are far more likely to demonstrate their preference for that brand, a phenomenon called ‘self-concept theory.’ (Graef, 1997)

According to Zhang (2015), companies are already focusing on promoting the quality of their goods while also striving to reach out to customers emotionally, as studies have proven that consumers are making emotion-based purchases. However, the emotional reach of customers could also be fatal, as they might develop unpleasant feelings towards the brand, called “Brand Hate” (Sinha et al., 2011). Keller (2003) presented the concept of “equity-based brand name,” according to which the brand image and its awareness are the foundation of Brand Equity. He suggested that a positive brand image could be developed by connecting

the uniqueness of the brand and its strong brand position to customers' brand memories through marketing strategies.

Oliver (1980) argued that the indicators for recognizing customers' behavior are their degree of satisfaction and their commitment to the brand. Consumer satisfaction refers to the overall evaluation of the customer's purchasing experience as well as perceived quality (Kotler and Keller, 2006, p. 276). Specifically, customer expectations and expectation disconfirmation are the key components that indicate the extent of customer satisfaction, which leads to brand loyalty (Aaker, 1996, p.20). Ghodeswar (2008), created an empirical model for brand building in competitive markets called the PCDL. This model includes four components namely "Positioning" the brand, "Communicating" the message of the brand, "Delivering" the brand performance, and "Leveraging" the brand equity.

Additionally, the term "Brand Salience" refers to the degree to which the brands appear in the consumer's mind during their purchase of goods. Focusing on this principle, when the company is unnoticed, it creates almost no positioned brand (Malik and Sudhakar, 2018). In the hospitality industry, according to Brown and Ragsdale (2002), market-inefficient hotel brands have faced more guest complaints, employed a lower-quality workforce, frequently struggled to maintain their facilities, and charged higher costs than warranted.

Brand quality is yet another crucial component of brand equity (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003). Perceived quality was characterized as the "perception of the overall quality or superiority of the product or service concerning the relevant alternatives and with respect to its intended purpose" (Keller, 2003, p. 238). Quality perceptions of a destination brand are likely to be improved by brand salience due to customer awareness of the brand and involvement in the perception set. Also, consumers' judgment of quality is not "rational" and is based on elements such as color, taste, or functionality (Baalbaki and Guzman, 2016). Keller (2002) argued that strong brand equity enhances the perceptions concerning the efficiency of a certain product, increases customer loyalty, makes a brand less susceptible to competitive marketing strategies and a collapse in the industry of business, provides opportunities for greater margins, develops an inelastic market response towards a rise in prices, and improves the effectiveness of marketing activities.

As far as the hotel sector is concerned, the main competitive strategies to maximize their brand equity is the introduction of new products, joint ventures, repositioning of brands, technological development, database marketing, pricing strategies, diversification, quality of service, staff as valuable assets, conservation/ecology programs, and management information systems (Olsen et al., 1998). King et al. (2011) also revealed that brand marketing is one of the relative alignments of hospitality analysis and business preferences. In addition, research on brand management has examined new aspects of brand equity and the transition impact of brand interactions with the theoretical grounding and conceptual rigor that are specifically attributable to the hospitality industry (Hsu et al, 2012; Tasci and Guillet, 2011)

Strategic Importance of Branding

It's been more than 30 years since Ries and Trout floated the concept of 'positioning' and since then the brand positioning framework has been a vital tool for marketers in all its different shapes and sizes. Kotler and Keller (2006, p.310) defined positioning as the foundation for Brand Management's decision-making. The main objective of the positioning is to conquer a spot in the consumer's mind by using a specific range of components in a competitive environment. This approach enables a connection to be established between brand positioning, brand image, and brand identity.

Ries and Trout (1981) mentioned that there was a product era in the 1950s, which was turned into an image era and ended today as a positioning era, which consists of various benefits. Similarly, Trout and Rivkin (1995) state that today is more the time for repositioning than positioning. Initially, commercial identities allow customers to be held accountable to a specific manufacturer or distributor (Keller, 2003). They even highlight certain features or strengths for achieving competition distinction and informing customers (Keller et. al., 2008). Kotler and Keller (2006, p.310) integrate the concept of positioning within the STP, namely; "Segmentation", "Targeting", and "Positioning". Therefore, to identify a branding strategy, an organization should divide its market, define a target audience, and position it in its mind accordingly.

The strategic significance could be divided into two dimensions, both external and internal. Based on the external dimension, positioning serves as a guide to the activities planned and implemented by the brand while helping to coordinate the operations carried out by the business and contributing to the communication strategy. On the external dimension, a well-positioned brand should include all the employees who can affect the brand image. The internal strategic dimension of positioning often demonstrates control of the brand. Regular research on the brand image in the context of its compliance with the appropriate positioning could contribute to the effectiveness of the specific activities of the administrative unit (Janiszewska and Insch, 2012).

In the same way, the success of a hotel relies on a variety of external and internal factors. External influences include a variety of macro-environments, such as demographic, technological, etc., and thus businesses have little or no leverage over these factors (Gursoy & Swanger, 2007). Internal factors include a range of expertise, manufacturing facilities, buildings, personnel, capital, marketing skills, and other business assets that could affect the degree of performance of the company. These internal influences may be defined as the competencies of the company (Harmsen et al., 2000).

Fahy et al (2000) assume that maintaining a defensive position provides one of the firm's best competitive assets, which leads to a positive, consistent consumers' perception and improves business profits over the long term. Previous scholars have identified many of the positioning strategies that a company might use to achieve strategic advantage and improve the productivity of an organization, such as "impressive facility", "attractiveness", "top range/high

end”, “value for money”, “durability/reliability”, “selectivity” and “branding” (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007). Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010) consider that an effective positioning strategy, combined with the market orientation culture of a business, could create powerful brands, whereas weakly positioned brands with poor market orientation would spell a company’s failure.

As far as the hospitality industry is concerned, hotels are seeking a robust emblem positioning by offering and transmitting unique tangible and intangible advantages that are difficult for competitors to replicate, expressed by differentiated facilities, costs, services, or consumer communication (Torres and Kline, 2006; Anderson et al., 1999). Looking at the various techniques used to evaluate hotel brands, the reduction evaluation tends to be one of the extensively implemented strategies to assess the way that brands relate to specific attributes in consumers’ minds (Mazanec, 1995). Hence multi-dimensional aspects of the brands and their associated features are typically simplified into a low-dimensional spatial representation.

Mass consumption seems to be another phenomenon impacting the corporate divisions and could be distinct in tourism: the use of touristic goods has become a growing phenomenon. There are fewer and fewer places in the world that are not targeted by tourism activities. Thus, mass consumption tends to be a response to the demands of the majority of travelers. Chain hotels offer similar facilities, regardless of their location (Janiszewska and Insch, 2012).

According to Kapiki (2012), if hoteliers would like to be successful and profitable, they need to provide a warm and welcoming environment with high-quality services, focus on the associates’ training and motivation, implement pricing strategies, invest in systems that would result in a high-security level and a rise in hotel sales, organize events and activities, use the social media and word of mouth advertisement and other organizations in the hospitality industry to promote their quality and attract tourists, and to collaborate with other tourism stakeholders.

Differentiation Factor

Keller (2008, p.107), argues that brand positioning involves determining the brand’s “Points of difference” and the “points of parity”, which are connected to the customer frame of reference. The points of parity are the similar features that also other brands in the same competitive possess. They can either exist at the generic product level or the expected product level and can be designed to negate competitors’ points of difference. On the other hand, points of difference are the true source sources of competitive advantage. Only when the consumers find the differentiating factor “desirable”, the brand will reflect strong associations. The criterion of desirability needs to reflect: relevance, distinctiveness, and believability associations to the consumers. This will diminish the brands’ vulnerability against competitive brands and increase the effectiveness of marketing communications (Keller and Lehman, 2003).

Repositioning

Although the concepts of repositioning and rebranding are two separate terms, are often misunderstood. Repositioning is a conscious adaptation to an evolving environment or a shift in the promise of a brand that reflects a profound change in the valuation of a company. Rebranding, on the other hand, is an identity change. These adjustments could be implemented together or independently. (Ryan, et al., 2007). No matter which strategy the company applies to position its brand, the “life of the brand” will never be a peaceful one (Gwin, 2003). The repositioning of a brand is often a way forward for certain companies to “breathe a new life into a stagnant product or service” (Azzarello, 2009).

Ryan, et al (2007) stated that, in certain circumstances, the brand does not meet the consumer’s needs nor adapt to the changing environment, leading to a decline. When expectations surpass the performance of the product (Oliver, 1980), repositioning is seen as a crucial prerequisite for achieving progress at the organizational level and also as a viable approach to dynamic environments. (Menon and Yao, 2017). Since the 1970s, the entire marketing brand cape has greatly evolved and academics conclude that much of the existing models are no longer applicable. They also note that the current models are far more suitable for the development of a single-minded proposition and are too “narrow-minded” for today’s brands where awareness is essential (Jowit and Lury, 2012).

Nevertheless, repositioning a brand as a strategic decision will prove challenging. A survey by Copeland (2001) also revealed that executives might be more displeased with the consequences of repositioning their brands. Excessive campaign expenditure to maintain or boost the position of a brand in the minds of customers does not necessarily contribute to any change. Trying to retain the same consumer base is the first challenge that marketers have to face when repositioning a company. Therefore, a repositioning plan must be “customer-sensitive” (Ewing et al., 1995). The next major challenge for marketers is to turn their promises into actions (Copeland, 2001). Additionally, Zhou and Kong (2019) note that, when companies compete under uncertainty, commitment and choices are important not only to the business decision-making but also to all opposing parties.

There are several reasons why a company should be reinstated. In certain situations, the brand needs a slight update when new products and rivals are joining the market. However, the most critical thing is that repositioning could be appropriate when a shift in the 4P product is observed (Branding Strategy Insider, 2014). Goi (2011) identified some of the causes that could lead to repositioning as well: emerging industry trends and consumer demands, severe and intense competition, financial crisis, lack of awareness of the brand by the consumers, and failure to respond. Muzellec and Lambkin (2006) suggested that the merger between two companies or acquisitions could be another cause.

As far as the hospitality industry is concerned, it faces heightened competition, market saturation in certain sectors, and challenges for consumers to understand and assess a large number

of hotels and restaurants on the market. Hospitality firms had to constantly reposition their brands and distinguish their product offerings for sustainable success. In consideration of all this, a limited number of major hospitality firms have established several different brands and have created brand portfolios, primarily through the introduction of brand extensions and/or mergers and acquisition strategies. The literature review reveals that hotel positioning and property renovation are inseparable in the hospitality sector, as most improvement is done by renovation. (King et al., 2011)

The concept of a resource-based perspective portrays each company as holding different assets and thus a certain degree of uniqueness that is perceived as 'resources.' These tools are the underlying factors that give a company a competitive advantage in the marketplace. In the hospitality sector, some resources are tangible and some intangible. As the hospitality industry is predominantly service-oriented, many brand identities and consumer preferences will rely on intangible factors such as service and brand name (Pierce and Moukanas 2002). Some special features distinguish a hotel from another such as a large swimming pool, accommodation quality, room environment, atmosphere, and related factors that can be distinguished or contrasted to rivals. When considering repositioning, some of the physical properties, in particular, the venue and the wider location-related environment, cannot be altered (Merriales and Miller 2008).

Life-Cycle Analysis

Research has proven that the life-cycle stage could affect the strategic challenges that the company faces and the style of management that is needed. Thus, each level of development would have its features and implications (Low and MacMillan, 1988).

There are three repositioning strategies according to the life cycle (The Harvard Business Review, 2005).

- **Reverse positioning:** used by businesses who assume that while consumers want more than just a commodity, they do not want to see the continuously new functionality. Thus, they intend to return the product to its original state and add the selected features. The product/service shall remain in the group and shall pass from the stage of maturity to the stage of production.
- **Breakaway Positioning:** In this scenario, the product/service departs from its category and is incorporated into another category in an attempt to modify how the product is consumed or used as well as the competitors themselves. It is implemented while the product/service is at the stage of maturity and the company needs to relocate it into the development phase.
- **Stealth Position:** In situations where customers are not satisfied with the brand, they hide the true nature of their products/services by relating them to a category, however without deceiving consumers as it is legally implemented. This strategy leads from the introduction to the developmental stage.

Repositioning Typologies

To identify the most appropriate type, marketers have to evaluate their brand attributes based on their client's needs, the existing consumer environment, the company's strategy, and the customer target group. Most organizations rely on gradual repositioning, which requires continuous planning and adapting to the market environment. Instead, radical repositioning requires significant strategic adjustments, as soon as managers realize the ever-increasing gap between what the business should offer and what the customer needs (Cant et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2005). Another alternative available to businesses is the so-called "innovative repositioning", which entails developing a different positioning that enables the organization to establish a new position in the market and to leverage business opportunities that are either untouched or unused that rivals have not yet detected (Lancaster et al., 2011). Finally, once the unexpected preferences of the consumer change, the decision to reposition is like making that choice to be closer to the new preferences of the customer or restoring those preferences to be closer to the current position of the company. This successful repositioning technique is characterized as "optimal repositioning". (Villas-Boas, 2018).

RESEARCH METHOD

Due to the scarcity of information about the term "Repositioning" and additional case studies, it requires an interpretative approach to gain rich insights into the complex process that a business needs to undertake for the implementation of this process. Thus, a qualitative analysis is carried out, based on Theory Building (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) to achieve deeper insights (Chalhoub-Deville and Deville, 2008). Van Maanen (1979, p. 520) defines the qualitative approach as, "an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world."

The structure of the study is multiple-case that enables a "replication" logic (Yin, 1984) in which cases are treated as a range of independent experiments that confirm emerging insights. Therefore, three hotel case studies in Greece were selected, to make comparisons and provide a stronger base for theory building (Yin, 1994). The hotels were chosen based on their size (number of employees and profitability), their initial situation before the repositioning process, and the marketing strategies that apply. The first is a four-star Imperial Palace in Thessaloniki, the second is a three-star Plaza Hotel in Thessaloniki, and the latter is the Barbarousis Hotel, a family-run hotel in Seli.

Additionally, a conceptual framework (**Figure 1**) was implemented, to contextualize formal theories into the study as a guide (Ravitch and Carl, 2016), and to make the findings more meaningful (Akintoye, 2015)

The objectives of the study are the following:

- Understand the causes that led to the need for the repositioning process in each of the three cases

- The strategies and techniques used to achieve the repositioning of each hotel and the results that occurred
- The significance of the effect of Initial Positioning and Life cycle in the process of repositioning.
- The consequences of repositioning on Brand Equity.

Each interview lasted about one hour with the presence of the researcher and the marketing manager. The questions were selected based on the research objectives. The interview had three sections. It began with the background of the hotel, and the competitive sector. The second part concentrated on the repositioning process that was adopted by each hotel and the strategic decisions while the third part focused on the outcomes of the process. Managers' responses were interpreted to conclude based on in-depth interviews and literature review. In time to enable distinctions between hotels, the format of the questions was the same. There were some exceptions, though, as each hotel had different features. The management also provided access to the study of a section of the operation file during the repositioning process. Throughout interviews, researchers were extensively engaged in, enhancing the permeability of their understanding by the information collected (Stiles, 1999). After the study of interviews, a second meeting was held with the managers to verify the collected data.

As a trait of inductive analysis, the data were analyzed by constructing individual case studies and then comparing them to establish a conceptual framework (Eisenhardt, 1989). Although we noticed similarities and differences with other cases, we conducted further study until we completed all the case writings to guarantee the independence of the logic of replication. A second researcher read the original interviews and offered an individual interpretation of each case. To ensure the validity of the interviews, a guide was used based on Brink (1991, p.176) by integrating, "Stability", "Consistency" and "Equivalence". The questions were selected based on the objects of the study. More specifically, we established "Stability" by asking identical questions at different times, "Consistency" through the integrity of issues within the questionnaire so that the respondent's answers on the given topic remain concordant, and "Equivalence" using alternative forms of a question with the same meaning during the interview.

FINDINGS

A conceptual framework was created to make the findings and the results more comprehensive. Based on the literature review there seems to be a connection among some of the main concepts of marketing (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Framework of the Repositioning Process and its components

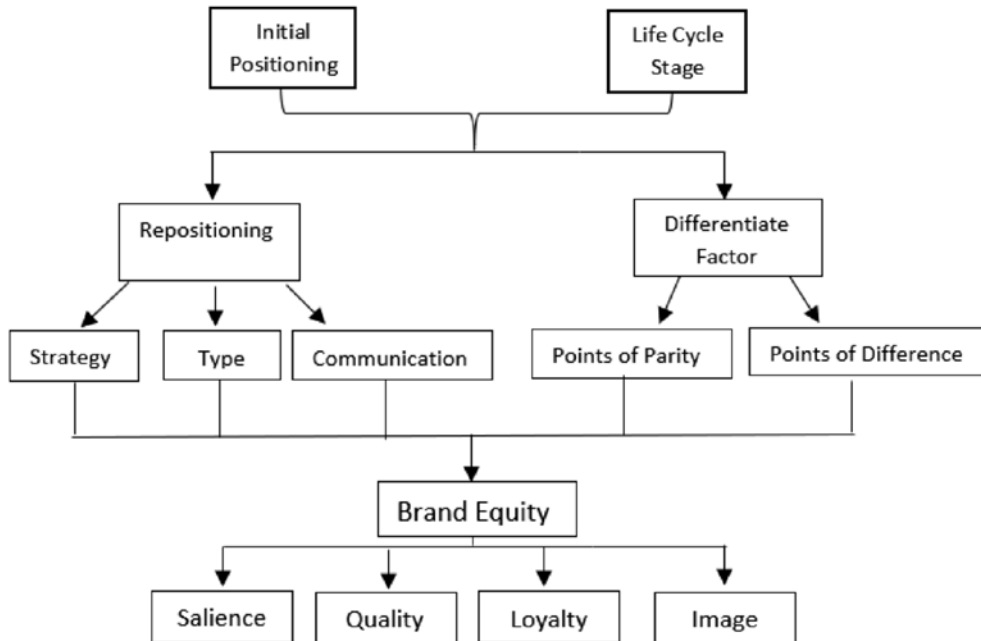


Table 1: Initial Positioning and Life Cycle Stage

Cases	Positioning	Communicating	Delivering Performance	Life Cycle Stage
Imperial Palace	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Quality of services ▪ Decoration ▪ Highlighting the advantages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Radio ▪ TV 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Customer Satisfaction ▪ Loyalty 	Maturity
Plaza Hotel	No attempt for positioning	No attempt for communication	Customer Dissatisfaction	Maturity
Barbarousis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Decoration ▪ Welcoming environment ▪ Focus on quality 	Word of Mouth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Customer Satisfaction ▪ Loyalty 	Maturity

Imperial Palace, the four-star hotel was founded in 2001 and is located in the center of the city. Since its inception, (see **Table 1**) the hotel management has attempted to create a respectable image, highlighting its benefits. In addition, the Victorian decoration design was chosen to align with the historical image of the region. The marketing activities of the managers were based on the competitiveness of the city. The visitors became aware of the hotel due to the mixture of the availability of high-quality facilities and the use of ads by radio and television. At the time the hotel started operating, the majority of tourists visited Thessaloniki for commercial purposes. At first, the hotel tried to attract more business tourists, without excluding other tourists, since Thessaloniki was primarily a business district. The attraction of these visitors was accomplished by encouraging their location and emphasizing that transferring to all convention centers was immediate.

Plaza Hotel, the three-star hotel in Thessaloniki was renovated by “Philian Hotels and Resorts” in 2001. Before the hotel was renovated to its present condition, it was a notorious location and was not the ideal choice for a visitor. The facilities were in poor condition, the staff could be described as being indifferent without contributing to the hotel brand image and there was no effort to communicate with the visitors. Soon, the state of the hotel’s condition has driven it into decline. At the time, the Philian Hotels and Resorts Company agreed to acquire and upgrade the hotel at a low price to expand its business in Thessaloniki, since there was no chance to establish a new one (See **Table 1**).

Barbarousis Hotel, the family-run business, started operating as a hostel in 1950 and provided visitors with a café-restaurant and three rooms. Since it was a family-run business, the family was focusing on building a warm and friendly atmosphere for those who visited the hostel. There’s no one in charge of marketing or one with solid managerial experience, so there was no promotional effort. Due to their friendly environment and the fact that it was the first and also the only hotel in the tourist area at the time, they managed to attract loyal customers from all over Greece (See **Table 1**).

Table 2: Repositioning Components

	Imperial Palace	Plaza Hotel	Barbarousis Hotel
Causes for Repositioning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Non-emotional connection with the tourists ▪ Lack of adaptation to new changes ▪ Competition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of positioning ▪ Unexperienced Management ▪ Inability understanding tourists’ needs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of adaptation to new changes ▪ Competition
Repositioning Strategy	Stealth Repositioning	Breakaway Repositioning	Breakaway Repositioning
Repositioning Type	Gradual	Innovative	Radical
Differentiation Factor	Quality of service	Value for money	Employees

Imperial Hotel, with the prevalence of the Web on the market, attempted to draw the rest types of tourists, and not only those who were visiting the city for business reasons. Following, the management implemented branding components such as slogan, emphasis on colors, brand image, and brand name. The promotion of the hotel has been accomplished via the website and on social media (Twitter, YouTube, Instagram, and Facebook). The repositioning strategy that was implemented was “Stealth Repositioning” with a “Gradual Type” (see **Table 2**) as the hotel had created a positive image from the start and provided all the required number of rooms. What the management needed to do was keep adapting to market conditions, empowering the target audience, and constantly adding new services. The outcomes of the success were obvious in the Brand Equity, which was enhanced (see **Table 3**).

The Plaza Hotel reportedly developed one of the most difficult repositioning processes, as there was a high risk of continued customer disapproval. The hotel had been led into decline and through the strategy of “Breakaway Repositioning”, accompanied with an “Innovative” type (see **Table 2**), was able to lead to the development stage. The lack of initial positioning, coupled with the lack of good quality services and facilities, resulted in a non-communication, which in turn contributed to the development of a bad image in the minds of tourists and their disapproval. Plaza Hotel followed a radical upgrade (See **Table 2**). As the new administration launched the repositioning process, the hotel started to be constructed from the start. It had to be rebuilt and promoted with twice as much strength as a new hotel, as it was important to restore the reputation of the hotel to the visitors’ perception. The added services were the same as those provided by the other hotels of the company, a logo was created and a website was designed to inform visitors. Later, the hotel started to apply the value-for-money strategy, which is now highlighted on its website. The administration intended to highlight the history of the area “Ladadika” that was located and the fact that the hotel now belonged to the Philian Hotels and Resorts Group. The name of the hotel remained the same due to the word “Plaza”, which indicates a commercial square that used to describe the area in which the hotel was built.

The advertising and promotion that were implemented were continuous, for a long time to make the tourists notice the change of the management. The cost of setting up a new hotel by the group would be much less than the expenses needed to restore the hotel. With these branding actions implemented we could say that the hotel tried to create an initial positioning to emphasize the presence of the hotel by the group, while at the same time adding repositioning actions to change the image of the hotel (See **Table 3**). *Barbarousis Hotel* faced increased competition. The repositioning strategy that was used by the Manager was the “Breakaway Repositioning” with a “Radical” type (See **table 2**). Specifically, the hotel had to build from scratch to increase the number of rooms due to increased competition. The type of repositioning was “Radical” as they noticed that competitiveness and the number of tourists increased.

The family decided to improve their business by moving to a two-story building. Downstairs there was a restaurant-café, which was available not just to the tourists staying at the hotel,

but also to the rest who were just visiting the area, while upstairs there were nine rooms. An online website containing images, service details, and contact phones were developed. In addition, the hotel was promoted on other websites, which included other hotels in the area and encouraged the tourist to make comparisons. The constant aim of the family was to establish friendly ties with the staff to have a good service in the hotel and to make the customers more satisfied. On many occasions, clients noticed the intimacy between the family and the staff and felt more relaxed in their stay, thus many of them even formed friendly relationships with each other (See Table 3).

Table 3: Brand Equity Components

Cases/Brand Equity	Sallience	Quality	Loyalty	Image
Imperial Palace	"After the success in attempting to attract more tourists and their dedication it was worth it to establish a second hotel, the "Imperial Plus"."	"The visitors are aware of the high-quality services that we provide through social media"	"Loyal customers have increased, and employees are given tremendous value to satisfy them"	Nowadays, the hotel is considered to be among the most reliable hotels in the city.
Plaza Hotel	"We feel satisfaction when we see that customers show their preference to us, again and again"	"Everyday we are doing our best to provide high quality services and satisfy the tourists."	"These days we have loyal customers that enjoy our services and their staying in the hotel."	"Exterior and interior changes were necessary to restore the hotel's brand image."
Barbarousis	"Through our efforts, we have succeeded to gain one of the highest customer base"	"We are providing high quality services accompanied with a welcoming environment".	"Loyal customers are increasing each year through the word of mouth"	"We have noticed that the majority of the customers prefer us due to the welcoming environment"

DISCUSSION

Initially, opposed to product brand repositioning, the hospitality industry must focus on emotional tourist attraction. Booking a room is not a tangible asset. In particular, the tourist seeks to find the best available option of supplying him warm hospitality, contributing to loyalty, which seems to be another crucial element in the repositioning process. Li and Green (2011), discussed that in a tensive competition, loyalty towards a brand is noteworthy for the success of the organizations. Although the Barbarousis Hotel and Plaza Hotel used the same strategy (See Table 2), the attempt to reposition themselves in the minds of the tourists was different, as the first had already earned the trust of the tourists and had become the most welcoming hotel in the region. This situation could be parallel with Aaker’s (1991) theory, claiming that repositioning a brand is one of the “seven avenues for the revitalization of the brand” (increasing usage, finding new uses, entering new markets, repositioning the brand, augmenting the service, obsoleting existing products, and brand extension). None of them, though, are

exclusive. A significant point to note is that, in his viewpoint, some of these “avenues” could come up with the same strategy for revitalizing an organization, demonstrating how deeply complicated and challenging it can be to define such revitalization strategies. The degree of complexity faced by hotels in their repositioning process is also reflected in the type of repositioning that followed. Imperial Palace was accompanied by a gradual repositioning when attempting to keep up with the changes. Plaza Hotel used innovative repositioning as the management had to replace the entire image in the minds of visitors, while the slightest error would have resulted in opposite consequences, such as brand hate. Although this fact contradicts the view formed by Aaker (1991), who pointed out that the revitalization of a brand is usually less costly and risky than introducing a new brand, further research should be made to verify it.

Further, all hotels used a differentiation strategy (See Table 2). The first one preferred to emphasize the quality of its services and facilities. The second emphasized the technique “value for money” to highlight the good prices in terms of the offered quality. The third one through good relations with the employees tried to create a friendly environment, which has shown to increase the number of loyal customers significantly. As far as brand equity is concerned (see Table 3), we can draw some conclusions from their current positioning after their repositioning process. Imperial Palace is not only a four-star hotel, as it has also found a second “Imperial Plus” hotel. In comparison, the Plaza Hotel is now a three-star hotel with a good reputation and image in the city of Thessaloniki. Barbarousis Hotel, amid the economic downturn that has plagued the resort area in which it is located, remains one of the most preferred hotels for visitors.

CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This study attempted to analyze the terms of brand equity, branding, positioning, and repositioning through the literature review and a survey conducted in three hotels, which followed a repositioning process. Based on the literature review, a conceptual model was constructed to represent the findings comprehensively. Results suggest that customer attitude, communication, and perspectives are a chain process. More precisely, to satisfy consumers and keep them loyal, it is important to achieve a successful initial positioning and take into account the life cycle stage of the firm. Data further showed the impact that positioning can wield by emotions, as it is related to the fact that customers make purchase decisions primarily based on emotion. Keller (1993) argued that brand loyalty generates significant advantages such as the spreading of word-of-mouth. This technique may prove to be one of the most effective advertisements, as the Barbarousis Hotel has not only managed to work at a time when ads were practically impossible to implement, but also to keep growing. Another differentiation is that companies that adopt the method of repositioning on products prefer to rely mainly on the target market and to aim towards a limited spread. On the contrary, in the tourism sector, repositioning not only reflects on the already existing target community but also aims to make it much more extensive.

Once again, the strategic importance of positioning in the operation of the company has been confirmed. The literature review compared to the findings of the study revealed that poor initial positioning and the life cycle stage could lead to a challenging repositioning process, involving a high level of risk and increased financial costs. In particular, fundamental improvements are required in corporate identity, brand image, and the way an organization operates. Organizations could achieve strategic advantages by adopting a repositioning strategy. However, the company must maintain that it does not deviate from its core. Management must do their utmost to develop their brand to respond to changes in the environment, in particular the technological environment. Management must therefore realize that employees are one of the most effective agents in Repositioning, as they are a significant part of the organization.

One of the most significant factors for attracting customers is the high quality of service. Promoting an efficient brand image, achieving a consumer-friendly attitude, and enhancing quality could lead to customer long-term relationships. Consumer satisfaction and continuous adaptation to the environment are essential pillars of company philosophy and culture since a satisfied customer would be the greatest advertisement. One limitation was the fact that although the term “Repositioning” is often identified in marketing strategies, studies and references are scarce. The literature is not extensive, but its significance could be found in a wide range of strategic references. Finally, this opens up the avenue for future studies, based on Aaker’s Brand Equity Ten model, which can lead to a deep analysis of the brand repositioning process by examining all the components of Brand Equity.

The symbolic elements of the brand image are of the utmost significance to the understanding of the brand by the stakeholders. Brand managers should be aware of the core principles of a brand when seeking to reposition it and evaluate the significance of each aspect that can be repositioned as well as the Life Cycle. The conceptual framework (**Figure 1**) specifically highlights that shifts to the brand elements could result in changes concerning the brand image in the customer’s perception, either rationally or emotionally.

Furthermore, no substantial damages in brand equity have been found as the results demonstrate that the Managers have effectively moved Brand Equity to the current Brand Image. As the literature points out, major improvements in the company could undermine current brand value. The challenge is to pass the equity along with the improvement and at the same time concentrate on developing it (Aaker, 1991; Muzellec and Lambkin, 2006). Consumer-based Brand Equity constructs are based on consumer perception and experiences, which describe the discrepancies found between pre-and post-repositioning parameters. This contributes to the foundation of the literature review, which notes that establishing and preserving a good reputation, quality of services, and brand value is a continuous long-term endeavor (Muzellec and Lambkin, 2006).

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Effects of Tourism-related Risks in West Africa: Evidence from Lake Bosomtwe

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ABSTRACT

Understanding risk as a major challenge in the tourism industry has received limited literature. This has necessitated the need to look into details the increasing risks in tourist destinations in West Africa using Lake Bosomtwe, Abono as a case study. The study aimed at identifying common risks and their management systems with a focus on supporting local tourism growth. An exploratory research design was utilized to discover how health and security risks are reversing sustainable tourism development in Abono. Charts, correlation, and descriptive analysis have been employed to present 378 responses gathered. Findings conclude that poor sanitation, unsafe areas, drowning, insecurity, theft, and motor accidents were some of the common risks that are faced by tourists at the lake. The study recommends a collaborative initiative between stakeholders to provide robust health and safety structures like health centers, lifeguards, and security patrols to reduce risks at the site.

Keywords: Tourism risk, health infrastructure, travel decision, tourism development

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, the tourism industry has greatly influenced global economic developments. It raised more than US\$ 7 trillion in 2016 and created about 300 million employments globally. According to Travel and Tourism Economic Impact (2017), the industry contributed to around 10% of global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) during the same year (2016). Additionally, income from the tourism industry has also impacted environmental sustainability (Athari et al., 2021; Akadiri et al., 2019). The tourism business has become one of the fastest expanding industries, however, it has experienced certain hurdles due to risks (Garg & Kumar, 2017).

The Oxford English Dictionary (2018) defined risk as “Exposure to the possibility of loss, injury, or other adversarial situation”. Tourist enterprises and tourism locations as a whole are negatively affected by risk. Unforeseen forthcoming actions, such as a harmful climate, environmental or societal hazards, criminality, assaults, burglary, a bad travel experience,

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viciousness, and accidents are risks in tourism (Dolnica, 2005), or anything alleged by tourists as to have unwanted outcomes (Yia et al., 2020; Olya & Al-ansi, 2018).

It is widely understood that fruitful tourism is the one with fewer risks. Many researchers in the tourism space have examined perceived risk in a wider sense (Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). For instance, studies such as (Akadiri et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020; Wang, 2015) have been done to help reduce, if not eliminate all, risks attached to touristic activities and experiences. Akadiri et al. (2020) studied how geopolitical risk shakes tourism and economic growth in the case of Turkey. Similarly, George (2003) assessed tourists' perception of crime as an aspect of safety and security within attraction areas. Ruan et al. (2017), also studied how tourism risk intrudes foreign tourists' welfares and benefits. To Ritchie et al. (2017), tourism risk is among the factors that impact tourists' decisions and satisfaction (Qingin & Chaowu, 2019). A critical analysis of the aforementioned studies has proven that there is a common goal. Thus, to create a platform to help reduce risk in tourism. According to Mura, the idea of risk will make it difficult for travelers to travel to places with a bad image because, safety is a basic need of mankind (Mura, 2010).

A review of tourism studies has shown that literature established in the tourism space has failed to provide the analytical information needed by tourism stakeholders in their quest to pursue sustainable tourism development. It is argued that most existing empirical tourism literature often lacks an appropriate process of examination (Chen et al., 2017). Little knowledge is known on the effects of risk on tourism development in developing countries in West Africa like Ghana. In this virgin field that this study provides a critical understanding of how risk in tourism may affect local tourism development in Africa, Ghana using Lake Bosomtwe in Abono as a case study. The study aimed to produce evidence-based knowledge as a guide for tourists, practitioners, governments, and tourism destinations. The study sought to preview common risks associated with local tourism and how to manage them towards sustainable tourism development (key target of the United Nations World Tourism Organisation) (UNWTO, 2015). To achieve the aims of the research, the study found answers to the following questions.

- (i) What are some of the tourism risks at Lake Bosomtwe?
- (ii) What are the experience and perceptions of locals and tourists about risk at the lake?
- (iii) What are the existing health and safety infrastructure and services at Lake Bosomtwe, and how do they contribute to risk management?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Risk and Tourism

Risk is damagingly affecting the growth of tourism (Murthy, 2008). Over decades, risk has been noticed in tourism studies (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998), specifically among individual

tourists and tourism service providers (Cartwright, 2000). Risk has been defined by many authors. The UNISDR (International Strategy for Disaster Reduction) explains it as the “probability that a threat will turn into a disaster”, furthering that ‘susceptibility and dangers are not risky when considered separately. But together, they become a risk. Risk also refers to the possibility of a disaster occurring (UNISDR, 2009). In terms of travel, Saayman & Snyman (2005) categorized it into two; internal travel risks (fraud, crime, fires, bad state of facilities, poor management, and unsafe transport) and external travel risks (natural disasters; tidal wave, tornados, droughts, floods, diseases, and bad weather).

The United Nations World Tourism Organization identified some sources of risk in tourism (UNWTO, 2015) which are:

1. Individual risk of individual travelers (causing conflict with residents, visiting dangerous places, poor health, crime, loss of money and documents, others)
2. Physical risks from the environment - natural, climatic, epidemics (visits to unsafe areas, during natural disasters).
3. Man and institutional environment (social conflicts, crime wars, terrorism, human trafficking)
4. Tourism sector (disrespect of contracts, frauds, unsatisfactory level of hygiene, fire)

Tourism research sees risk as serious attributes manipulating tourists’ behavioral intention (Ritchie et al., 2017). For example, Lee et al. (2012) suggested a model that considers perceived risk from an influenza virus as a hectic that could discourage tourist flow in foreign lands. Tourism data from throughout the world clearly show that when the impression of a destination is associated with risk, it affects the operations of the concerned travel industries (Garg, 2015; Yang et al., 2013). Risk and security perceptions, as well as travel experiences, are likely to impact travel decisions. Studies of tourist decisions, risk opinions, and the impact of past travel experiences can help predict future travels (Polas et al., 2019). However, negative experiences may cause potential tourists to be hesitant about making future decisions (Chen et al., 2017).

Experience/Perception of Risks and Insecurity

According to literature, the terms “security,” “safety,” and “risk” are all used interchangeably and can be confusing (De Nardi & Wilks, 2007). The word insecurity is widely known as the inability to protect oneself against danger, hazard, or uncertainty. Insecurity is inextricably linked to service industries like tourism (Poku, 2016). Researchers have looked into risk in the service industry extensively. Williams & Buswell (2003) argued that one needs to know the characteristics of services to understand the nature of services in the tourism industry, travel necessities, and expectations. This is predominantly important because tourists are human beings, and each human being is unique. Tourists would need different types and levels of satisfaction based on their individual choices, experiences, and perceptions.

Tourists frequently suffer high levels of anxiety when going international (Korstanje, 2011). Tourists are always looking forward to having an enjoyable and memorable experience. Risk perceptions, whether genuine or imagined, can become the driving force behind travel decisions. For instance, Kumar (2017) employed a quantitative research methodology and a stratified sampling method to select (287) tourists about their perceptions of safety and security extortion. The study further deliberates on tourist risk perception concerning sociocultural, media, and demographic factors. According to the author, the findings of the study reveal that tourists' risk perception influences their travel decision-making process in destination selection.

Danger perception about international travel has been linked to a variety of factors, including the type of risk, culture or nationality, proximity to the origin, and worldwide media coverage. Agnieszka (2017) said that tourists are most at risk when visiting regions where indigenous offenders who are already involved in high levels of criminality are most likely to come into contact with them.

Health Infrastructure and Services at Tourist Destinations

As per Lubbe (2003), a tourist destination is characterized as a geological territory where attractions are found. Aside from attractions, other important facilities that support tourism development exist. Characteristics of these facilities as tourism infrastructure comprise of fundamental devices, structures, and service supporting industries, whose presence is vital to the tourism, economy, and destination as a whole. As defined by Jovanovic & Ilic, tourism infrastructure refers to the supplementary and complementary buildings, equipment, systems, procedures, and resources that are required for every tourist attraction to operate (Jovanovic & Ilic, 2016). Prideaux (2000) agreed that the development of a destination needs critical and vital preparation and administration, taking into account the need to enhance these facilities because tourism superstructure determines the volume and structure of the tourism movement (Adebayo & Iweka, 2014). In this regard, infrastructure development is promoted to increase tourism opportunities to attract large numbers of visitors (Ogechi & Olaniyi, 2019).

Healthcare systems differ significantly from one country to the next, or even between regions within the same country (Béland et al., 2018). Tourist treatment is one of the areas where it is possible to make a substantial contribution to improving tourism (García-Altés, 2005). According to research, how the healthcare systems of a destination deal with international visitors and its impact are very crucial (Johnston et al., 2018). For instance, countries that attract a large number of medical tourists, for example, may see price increases (Hall et al., 2011) and the local community will also benefit from these services. This means tourism may be sustainable if it is planned and handled with guests and the local community's health care facilities in mind (Perkumiene et al., 2019). People are reported to journey from emerging to developed countries to benefit from improved medical amenities (Ghasemi et al., 2021). People also go from developed to developing countries because of the lower cost of medical care (Kim et al., 2019).

Many authors have proposed a firm link between tourism development and infrastructural development (Adebayo & Iweka, 2014). Even if a region has several natural attractions, the lack of convenient services and high-quality healthcare infrastructure might stymie tourism development. Due to this, there has been a rising interest in the development of tourism facilities over the last two decades, resulting in the establishment of tourism-related facilities and services at tourist destinations (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Despite this, the World Health Organization (2020) insists that most rural communities especially those in developing countries are lacking quality infrastructure like health care facilities. Therefore, one of the prerequisites for tourism initiatives, particularly in rural regions, is the establishment of basic medical and emergency facilities (Bazini, 2008). However, Wilks (2006) argued that although there is a need for health infrastructure in tourism, yet, some tourism operators do not follow important health and safety management practices leading to more health challenges in tourism.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework was adopted from (Polas et al., 2019). The framework has been used in the study to provide a clearer picture of risk and tourism. According to the framework, all tourists seek memorable experiences. These experiences are made of four elements: regular, outstanding, cognitive, and emotional experiences, all of which are useful in comprehending consumer experience in the tourism industry (Chen et al., 2020; Walls et al., 2011) due to its subjective nature (Cutler et al., 2010). Tourist experience has a short-term and a long-term influence on tourists' actions and inactions during and after their activities (Kim et al., 2012). According to Polas et al. (2019), there is a strong link between visitor experiences and risk perception. Thus, the flow of tourist experience influences risks perception. Furthermore, tourist attitude is continuously altered because of the tourism experience (Ward & Berno, 2011).

Conceptual Framework of the Study

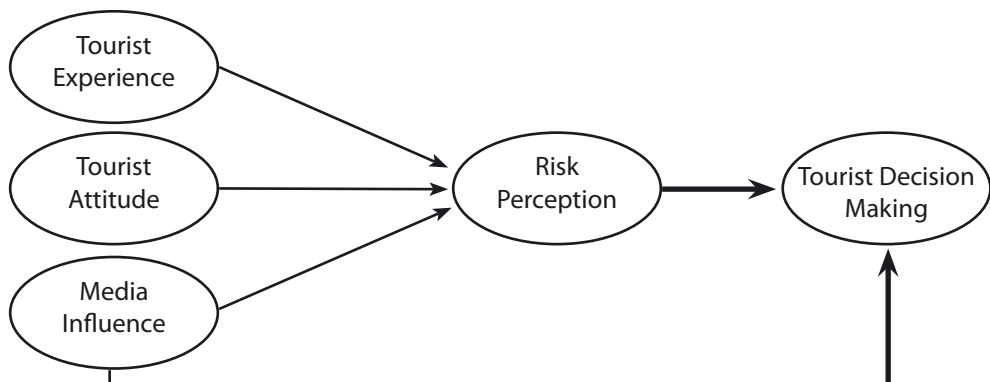


Figure 1: adopted framework from (Polas et al., 2019)

Past travel experience is a valuable source of knowledge and, as a result, a valuable source of attitude development (Cooper, 2011). Importantly, tourists' perceptions toward vacation spots may be influenced by important factors about the destination (Musinguzi, 2016). Although the media plays an important role in tourism promotion, it also educates tourists about tourism destinations, both positively and adversely, as well as the potential risks. The media has infiltrated all sectors of tourism, resulting in significant changes in the way vacations are planned, consumed, reviewed, and advertised (Ulrike, 2018). In light of this, the impression of risk of a destination is influenced by tourist experience, tourist attitude, and the media (Waade, 2020). The incorporation of risk into touristic choices according to the framework has the potential to alter regular decision-making. This means many tourist's decision is influenced by their risk aversion to a certain location. Risk perception has a significant impact on destination choices according to the framework.

Following a thorough investigation, it was discovered that tourists' risk perceptions of Lake Bosomtwe influence their travel decisions to the location. This specifies that a time will come where tourists visiting the site may find another place with less risk fascinating and may visit those places. Tourist perceptions according to Jafari are important for tourism development because, they influence local economies, societies, cultures, and environments, as well as their intention to revisit a destination (Jafari, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted at Abono, a town located inside the Bosomtwe District in the Ashanti region of Ghana, specifically, at Lake Bosomtwe the major tourist destination in the district. This area was selected for the study mainly because of high tourist receipts and its recognition as the only closed (endorheic) lake in Ghana and Africa, and the third-largest closed lake in the world (Amu-Mensah et al., 2019).

Figure 2. Map of Ghana showing the study area

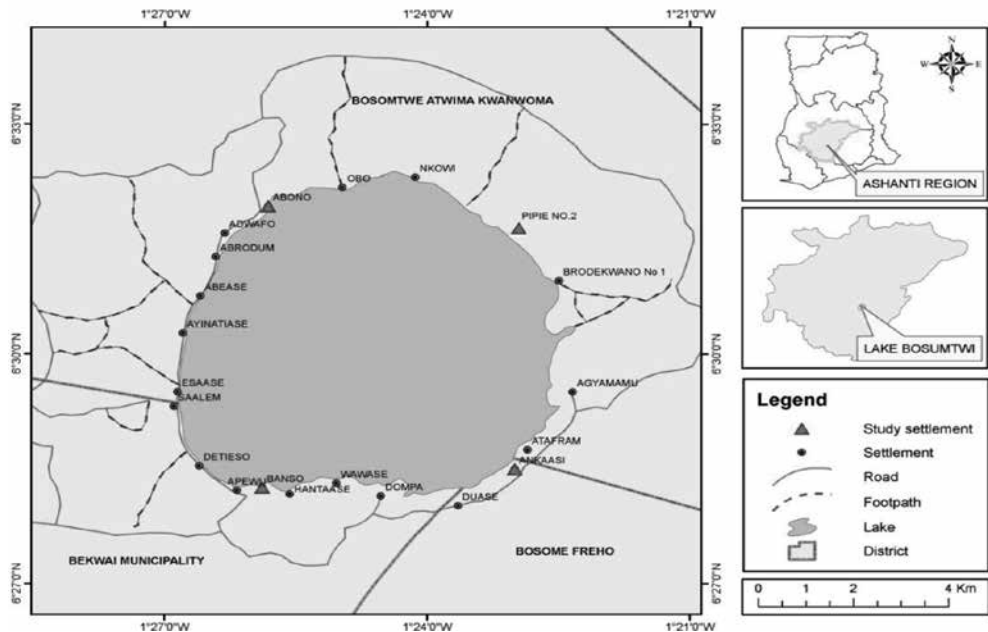


Figure 2: Profile of study area, Lake Bosomtwe, Abono (Mohammed, 2018)

RESEARCH DESIGN AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

An exploratory research design was employed for the study. It was adopted because little is known about problems associated with tourism risks (Tesfaye, 2018). The design assisted in the establishment of a link between tourism-related risks and the promotion of local tourism. Accidental and convenience sampling techniques were used to select respondents. On one hand, an accidental sampling strategy was utilized to choose (213) local respondents in the Abono community. This method was developed to ensure that each community member could be randomly selected for the study (Battaglia, 2008). On the other hand, a convenience sampling technique was employed to pick (174) tourists who were committed to participating in the study (Saunders et al., 2012). This sampling method made it easy to access respondents (Etikan et al., 2016).

DATA COLLECTION AND INSTRUMENTATION

A mixed-methods strategy was used in the study, which included both quantitative and

qualitative methods. To quantify the problem, a quantitative research approach was used to assess the breadth and depth of tourism risks at the site (Oberiri, 2017). Both tourists and residents of the Abono local community were queried through the issuing of questionnaires. Additionally, qualitative data was obtained from a semi-structured interview with the respondents. The interview aided the study to identify unexplained challenges of risks in tourism which was of interest to the study (Rahman, 2019). Moreover, it was included to know the experiences and perceptions of respondents to obtain additional information on health and safety risks occurring at the site. Lastly, an observation technique was utilized to gather adequate information which helped in reaching the study's goal (Ciesielska et al., 2018).

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics were created using the program IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20. Quantitative data were analyzed using Chi-square, frequencies, and percentages, and were presented on tables and charts. The data was first checked to eliminate any foreign responses that were not required for the study, but none was discovered. In addition, the study utilized qualitative data from the interviews (semi-structured) that were taped, transcribed, and critically analyzed through open content analysis. This technique was chosen because it is one of the best methods for extracting precise meaning from data. Further, responses were organized into themes and graded according to the study's aim after rigorous evaluation. Finally, quotations from the transcribed data and observations from the grounds were used to support the study.

RESULTS

Findings from the study are presented in this section. The results are presented and discussed based on the objectives of the study. Responses gathered were about understanding risk and tourism, locals and tourists' experience/perceptions of tourism-related risks, the existing health and safety infrastructure and services at Lake Bosomtwe, and how to manage those risks.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Residents of 213 and 174 tourists participated in the study. Their characteristics such as gender, age, and level of education are presented in table 1. Comparably, more residents were used because they have a longer stay in the community witnessing the happenings rather than visitors who tend to leave the location after their short visits.

Among the total local respondents who participated in the study, there were 60.1% males and 39.9% females. With regards to tourists, there were 51.1% females and 48.9% males. From this, it can be concluded that most tourists who travel to the lake are females. On grounds of

education, most of the tourists have had tertiary education compared to the locals. Primary education was what most of the locals have had.

Table 1: Demographic features of respondents

Elements of respondents	Type of respondents	Frequency	Percentage (%)	
Gender				
	Male	Tourists	85	48.9
		Locals	128	60.1
	Female	Locals	89	39.9
	Tourists	85	51.1	
Age	Tourists			
	<i>Below 18</i>	13	7.5	
	<i>18-39</i>	139	79.9	
	<i>40-59</i>	20	11.5	
	<i>60 and above</i>	2	1.1	
	<i>Total</i>	174	100	
	Locals			
	<i>Below 18</i>	22	10.3	
	<i>18-39</i>	99	46.5	
	<i>40-59</i>	58	27.2	
	<i>60 and above</i>	34	16.0	
	<i>Total</i>	213	100	
	Education	Tourist		
		<i>None</i>	3	1.7
<i>Primary</i>		22	12.6	
<i>Lower secondary</i>		0	0	
<i>Upper secondary</i>		62	35.6	
<i>Tertiary</i>		87	50	
<i>Total</i>		174	100	
Locals				
<i>None</i>		40	18.8	
<i>Primary</i>		61	26.8	
<i>Lower secondary</i>		50	23.5	
<i>Upper secondary</i>		27	12.7	
<i>Tertiary</i>		33	15.5	
<i>Total</i>		213	100	

Source: Fieldwork, 2021

Pearson chi-square test was devised between the variables; key safety issues tourists face during their activities and the effects of safety hazards (risks) on tourist activities at the lake. Results demonstrate a statistically significant connection between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 37.084$, $df = 15$, $p = 0.001$) see table 2. From the result, it can be concluded that risk has an influence on tourist activities at the Lake.

Table 2: Perception of risk and safety issues on tourist activities at the Lake.

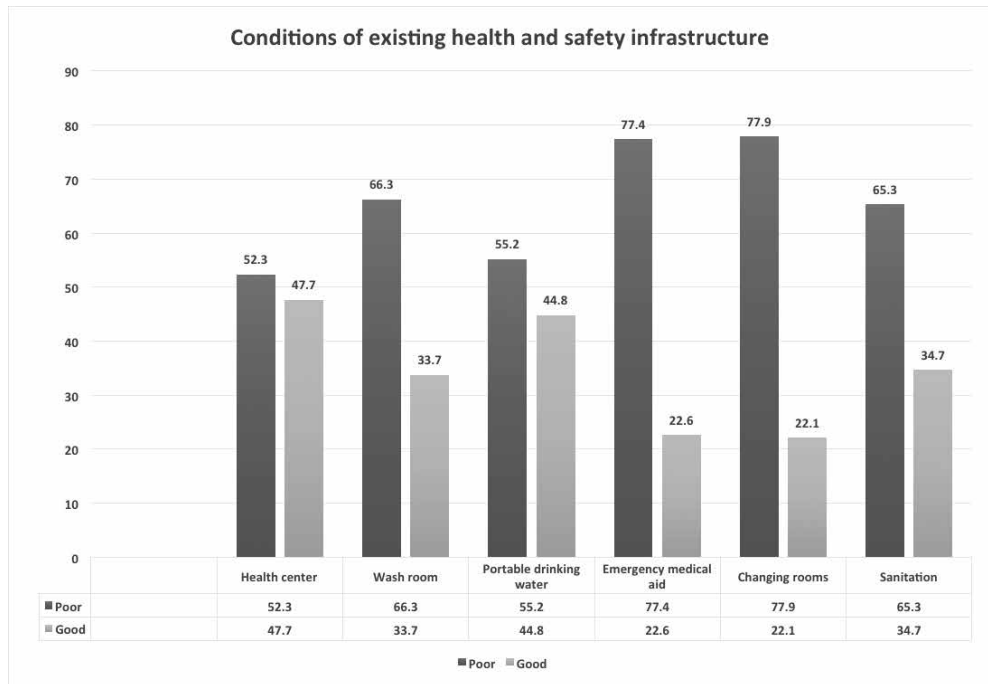
Chi-Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.084a	15	.001
Probability Ratio	32.807	15	.005
Direct by-Linear Association	10.166	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	213		

Source: Fieldwork, 2021

On health-supporting amenities, the local respondents accepted that there is a public health center in the community as confirmed by other tourists. Aside from this facility, there was potable drinking water, but not available everywhere as revealed by most of the respondents. One of them lamented that: *“Although there is potable drinking water in the community there are not enough standpipes to cater for the whole community”*. On contrary, some tourists disapproved of the worth of this portable drinking water.

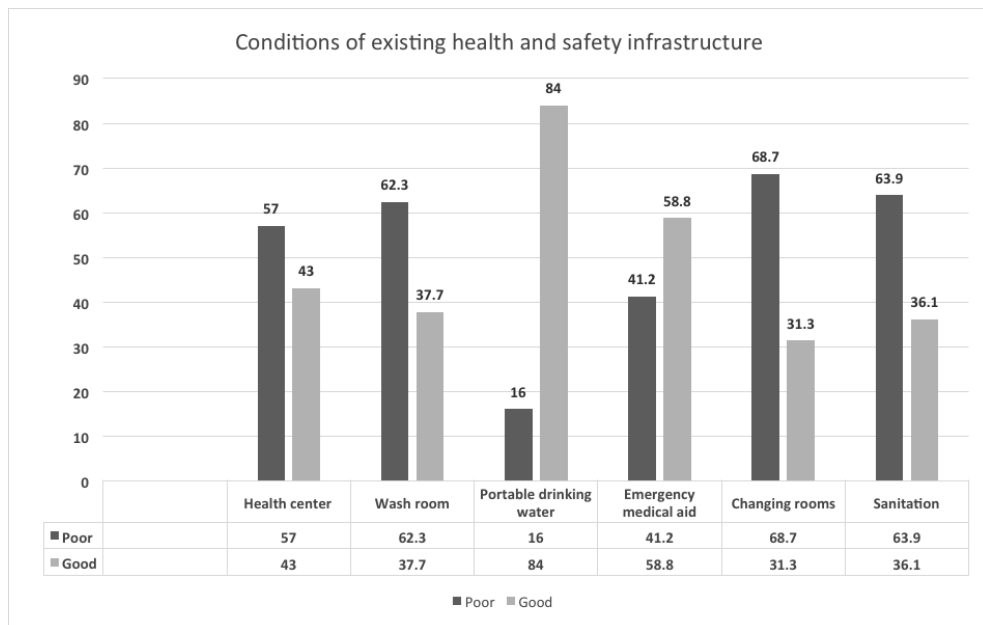
Figure 3: Conditions of existing health and safety infrastructure at Lake Bosomtwe (Tourists)



Source: Fieldwork, 2021

Tourists were allowed to express their opinions on the condition of the available supporting health infrastructure at the site. A majority of the respondents, (52.3%) indicated that though there is a health center, it is in a poor state. Several tourists, (66.3%) were of concern that the state of the washrooms at the site are not appealing see figure 3. It was also noted from the tourists, (77.4%) that the emergency medical aid at the site cannot fully contain terrible situations like motor accidents. Sanitation issues are very important so far as tourism is concerned due to its ability to degrade the ambiance of an attraction site. From the findings, the provision of dustbins to support cleanliness in the site was not enough as it should be. Giving birth to poor sanitation as indicated by many tourists. Moreover, most of the tourists registered their concern about the displeasing nature of the changing rooms on the site. According to one of them, *“The nature of the changing rooms is in a poor condition which makes it unappealing for us to use”*.

Figure 4: Conditions of existing health and safety infrastructure at Lake Bosomtwe (Locals)



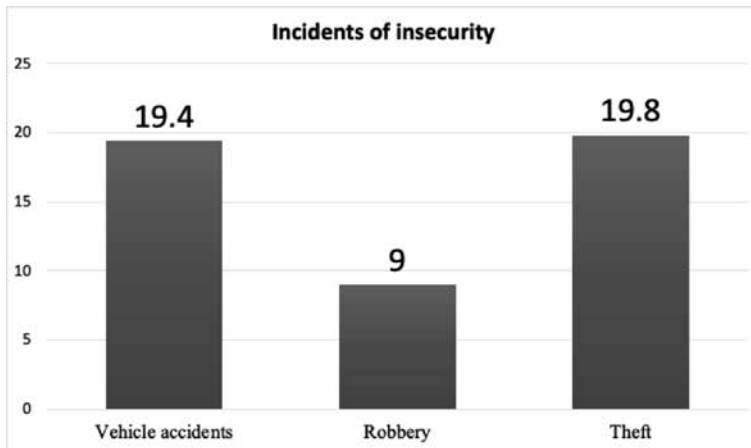
Source: Fieldwork, 2021

On contrary to tourists’ perception of the state of emergency medical aid at the site, the majority, (58.8%) of locals were of the view that it was in a good shape. Rather, the changing rooms were the facility which was in a bad state as revealed by 68.7% of them see figure 4. Several of the locals also corroborated with the tourist on the poor state of other facilities like washrooms and sanitation at the site.

Experience/Perception of Health and Safety Risks in Abono

On risk encounter, 19.4% have experienced theft cases while the rest did not. As well, others had experienced vehicle accidents and robbery cases see figure 5.

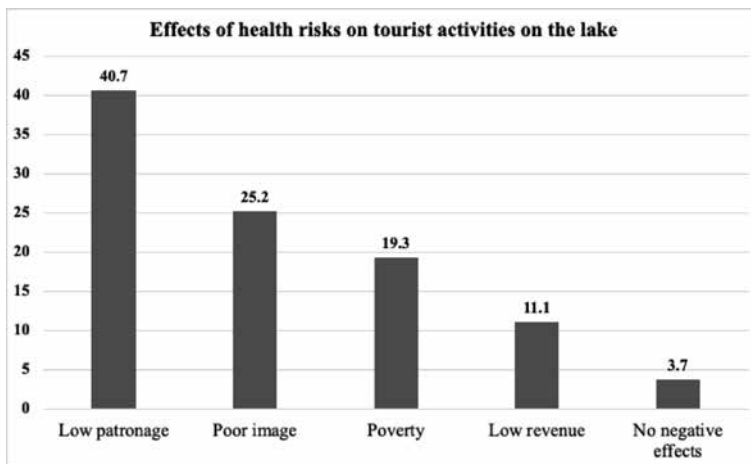
Figure 5: Tourists’ experiences of insecurity during their visit to the lake.



Source: Fieldwork, 2021

Furthermore, the study presented to respondents, some of the effects of health and safety risks on local tourism development. From the responses, health risks at the lake will result in low patronage because few travelers are “risk-tolerant” (Swarbrooke et al., 2003). To others, it will create a poor image of the site see figure 6.

Figure 6: shows the effects of health risks on tourism development at the Lake



Source: Fieldwork, 2021

Additionally, others were also of the view that it will result in low income and poverty to the community, Abono.

DISCUSSION

Wrapping up, this section summarises the findings and suggests actionable steps that stakeholders of local tourism should take to reduce risks on local tourism development in Abono. There is a health center in the Abono community as attested in the study. The health facility was mainly built to support the local health system. However, some tourists did not agree with the existence of the health center because they have no idea of its presence. On availability of good drinking water, the locals, 84% revealed that there is potable drinking water in the community for both tourist and local usage but were limited to a few areas.

To the majority of the respondents, tourism development facilities such as health centers and washrooms at the site were in a poor condition. Putting lives in Abono at risk. The tourism industry has witnessed all kinds of accidents in the industry globally. One of them is motor accident (Bellos et al., 2020). This was evident in the study when some tourists shared their views on accidents they have encountered during their trip to the lake. These kinds of accidents usually occur due to bad road networks in most tourist destinations including that of Abono.

From the interview, some respondents indicated that the only security post at the site is not equipped and as a result, robbery cases were mounting. Lifeguards were also not enough to protect the lives of tourist who engages in beach-related activities like swimming. Out of the safety issues and risks experienced by tourists, theft dominated. In summary, the study has clearly shown that among tourism risks at Lake Bosomtwe poor sanitation, poor emergency aid, contaminated water, drowning, and slip were some of the health hazards most tourists have experienced during their visit to the lake. The available washrooms, dustbins, changing rooms, and other tourist supporting facilities present at the site were not in a good state as expected by respondents.

CONCLUSION

In reality, the risk is present in every economic activity in varying quantities which cannot be eliminated (Garg & Kumar, 2017). Indeed, risk is viewed as the opposite of pleasure because satisfactory tourism is built on the ostensible absence of risk (Williams & Baláž, 2015).

Concluding the study, it was found that some tourism risks are associated with Lake Bosomtwe. For instance, the site record several motors accidents due to the rough nature of the roads. Risks certainly influence travel and tourism patterns (Shaw et al., 2012). Many tourists have experienced theft cases so far as tourism is concerned both at the study area and other tourist destinations globally, putting many tourist sites in danger (Dejan et al., 2020). Through this, general tourism development in several local communities is affected (Lisoka, 2017).

The study affirms that tourists are likely to face risks when they visit some tourist destinations in West Africa as it is so in other parts of the world.

In summary, a key thing to be noticed is that the identified risks in the study have the tendency to contribute to tourist's risk perception (poor image) of Abono and Africa as a whole, and may have a negative influence on travel decision-making of actual and potential tourists as elaborated by the framework adopted for the study see figure 1.

The study expands on gathered knowledge and posits that safety and security risks at Lake Bosomtwe will lead to low tourist arrival which will affect the development of the site if appropriate health and safety measures are not taken.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The goal of the research was to gain a better understanding of how risk in tourism might affect tourism development. The study aimed to come out with evidence-based knowledge as a guide for tourists, practitioners, governments, and tourism destinations towards sustainable local tourism development. Which is also one of the key areas of the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO). In this lens, the study closes with several recommendations that if implemented by tourism stakeholders, will help to promote local tourism growth in Abono, Ghana, and West Africa as a whole. These recommendations support the application of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 1, 2, 3, 6, and 11 in tourist destinations of West Africa. The following suggestions are offered in this regard.

First, the study recommends that education on good sanitation practices should be given to the local communities (host). This will help to avoid any occurrences of diseases like cholera and malaria in the community. Lifeguards should be given the needed education with regards to their mode of operation at the destination to reduce, if not to avoid all, any hazardous incidents at the site. Moreover, road ramps, road signs, and posts should be installed along the roads to and around the lake, as a guide to reduce motor accidents. Further, road safety awareness campaigns should be undertaken by the National Road Safety Commission of Ghana to educate both locals and tourists about reckless driving and the dangers associated with it. Furthermore, hard policies should be implemented at the site to deter the locals from using pesticides and weedicides that may pollute the lake, putting locals' and tourists' lives at risk.

Second, on the existing health and safety infrastructure/services, it is recommended that the local authorities should collaborate with the inhabitants and manage the Lake together. This will assist in identifying the right health and safety infrastructure, mechanisms, and services needed in the community. Aside from that, the major stakeholders of the site (government, Ghana Tourism Authority) should amass enough resources to support the development of infrastructure in the Abono community. Specifically, infrastructure such as ambulance services, security posts, life jackets, changing rooms, washrooms, trash cans should be provided to support the existing ones.

Relevant stakeholders of local tourism development at Abono should also intensify education

and focus on training personnel to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills. To sustainably manage and maintain health and safety infrastructure and services at the site.

The study ends by suggesting two fundamental roles for risk management. First, there should be a partnership with government and agencies in the development of coordinated risk management plans, systems, procedures, and processes to enhance local tourism growth in Abono. Second, stakeholders should develop plans and procedures appropriate to the site, well-designed roles, and responsibilities for immediate practitioners, and approved regular tests of plans, personnel, and procedures with subsequent updates and amendments (APEC International Centre for Sustainable Tourism (AICST), 2006).

SUGGESTIONS TO FUTURE RESEARCHERS

The study has thoroughly discussed the very common risks associated with tourist destinations, with evidence from 387 tourists and residents of Abono. It is important to note that this study is not a simplified generalization of all tourism-related risks. There were other areas (for example, psychological risks, economic risks, and other socio-cultural and environmental risks) that were not fully touched. This is not to say the study is shallow or inking, because it has provided into detail some of the risks prevalent in tourism. On this note, the study suggests to future researchers who would wish to research on this topic or related topics in other touristic destinations to consider psychological risks, economic risks, sociocultural risks, and other environmental risks.

Study Limitations

The only limitation the study encountered was the initial refusal of some respondents to participate. However, inductive education was provided to explain the research's impact and benefits, allowing them to participate. As a result, the required information to assist the study was obtained.

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Comparative Analysis of Crime Experiences and Perceived Safety among Holidaymakers and Residents: The Experience from a Nigerian Tourist City

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ABSTRACT

Evidence suggests that tourists are at great risk of being victims of violent and property crimes in the cities they visit. In contrast, some findings submit that an increase of visitors and tourists, attracted to a city could bring about greater crime risk for the residents. However, this has rarely been studied in a comparative approach, mostly, in Africa settings, despite having many tourist cities and destinations. Besides, how visitors' and residents' fear of crime are influenced by the tourist city's environmental design (e.g. building and architectural contexts) and personal factors have scarcely been investigated. Thus, this study examines tourist and resident populations' crime experiences, perceived safety and identifies personal factors as well as elements of the built environment that affect their perceptions of a Nigerian tourist city. The study obtained data from visitors of Olumo international tourist sites and residents living around this location in Abeokuta, Nigeria. The respondents completed a questionnaire on crime victimization experiences, concerns for safety, demographics among others. Data were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, charts, mean ranking, and Chi-square. Findings show that crime victimization experiences of residents and tourists differ significantly in types but not in volume. Results show that tourists and residents vary significantly in their perceived safety; with tourists having more concerns for safety compared to residents. Results further provide evidence of crime and fear concentrations and support for Routine Activities (RA) theory. Overall, findings show that respondents' perception of safety is dependent on some factors; some are related to socio-economic and demographic factors while others are linked with environmental design characteristics of the tourist site and that of its immediate environment; some vary with days of the week and time (e.g. day and nighttimes, weekdays and weekend) while others vary with season (e.g. dry and raining seasons). These outcomes call for a holistic approach to enhancing the safety of tourist sites and their host Nation, cities, and immediate communities.

Keywords: Crime victimization; Perceived safety; Tourist city; Environmental Design; Holidaymakers; Local residents.

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INTRODUCTION

One of the fastest-growing sectors of the economy worldwide is the tourism industry (United Nations World Tourism Organization [UNWTO 2015]). The UNWTO forecasts that international arrivals will reach nearly 2.6 billion by the year 2025 (Hall, 2008). As many countries have managed to increase their participation in the global economy through the development of international tourism, the fast growth of tourism has become an important economic backbone for certain towns and cities. The high potential of tourism and its economic impacts have been described as very beneficial to a city (Giriwati, Homma & Iki, 2013). As a developing economy, Nigeria is not left out of this global opportunity for economic diversification. After oil exploration and perhaps, agriculture, the country's economies are greatly dependent on tourism. The Nigerian government views tourism as one of its important industries as it contributes up to 34% yearly to the country's gross domestic product (GDP) and 20% of the Nation's employment (National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2017). It is impossible to deny Nigeria its pride of place among the richly endowed potential tourist destinations in the world. It boasts of numerous tourist attractions, such as waterfalls, springs, hills, mountains, islands, excellent beaches, a range of special and common species of tropical wildlife, and a diverse socio-cultural heritage. According to UNWTO's 2015 evaluation, Nigeria is fast becoming a sensational destination for international tourists from the UK, Brazil, Germany, Netherlands, France, Italy, and the USA among others. Whatever thing that deters holiday-makers is a threat both to the tourist industry and to the wider economy. Thus, violent crime, public disorder, political unrest, and terrorism are therefore of particular importance to the country's tourist industry.

In recent times, Nigeria developed an ill reputation for being an unsafe place. This is not surprising as the country unexpectedly has an unusually high level of violent crime such as kidnapping, homicide, robbery, bombing, drug, and human trafficking, illegal immigration, and gang violence. This is supported by the World Bank (2016), which indicates that the country is gradually becoming home to a substantial network of organized crimes. Besides, the Overseas Security Advisory Council (OSAC) 2019 statistics indicated that Nigeria has an exceptionally high level of kidnapping and killings compared with those in several countries in the West of Africa, Latin and North America, and Europe. The OSAC's 2019 information shows that there were 118 killings in Nigeria per 100000 of the population. Nigeria's record of kidnapping (for ritual and/or ransom or financial gain) stood at 309 incidents per 100000 of the population. Indeed, such crime statistics have led to Nigeria being labeled "unsafe". In 2019, OSAC assessed Nigeria at "Level 3"; indicating holidaymakers should reconsider traveling to the country due to crime, terrorism, civil unrest, and kidnapping.

While many of these violent crime data or incidences are undeniable, tourism-related crime may be different. The fact that the amount of crime has recently increased in Nigeria is thus, no guarantee that the crime against tourists will rise during the tourist season. Nonetheless, it does appear that many tourist cities do experience higher than average crime rates (Mawby, 2014). For instance, contrasting three tourist cities with three non-tourist cities,

Walmsley, *et al.* (1983) concluded that crime peaked in the tourist season in the former. Related findings were stated by Fujii and Mak (1979) in Hawaii, Jud (1975) in Mexico, and Kelly (1993) in Queensland, Australia. In the UK, Mawby (2007; 2014) concluded that tourism was a significant crime generator in some of the major tourist cities. However, not all study is categorical. Pizam (1982) established that tourism effect was at best insignificant while Pelfrey (1998) also found inconsequential evidence that tourist quantities pushed the violent crime rates.

Tourism-related crime could be a case where residents are the perpetrators. It could also be a case where tourists are criminals (Cohen 1997). High tourists' volumes often pose a threat to tourism and decrease the quality of life for residents (Vu, Muskat, Li & Law, 2020). A consistent finding is that residents blame tourism for many of the crime problems in their area (Mawby, 2014). This is particularly the case in developing countries, where local people perceive the tourism impact on crime to be both wide and intensive (Mawby, 2014), but also applies in developed societies (Mawby, 2007). Some authors have suggested that residents and tourists stand an equal chance of becoming a victim. Remarkably, Harper (2001) notes that the crime experience of residents was greater than that of tourists contrary to Schiebler, Crofts, and Hollinger's (1996) Florida study. Nevertheless, Harper concluded that as the crime experience increases for residents, it also tends to increase for holidaymakers. Prideaux (1996) has proposed that in the normal course of an event, tourists may expect to have at least, the same probability of becoming victims of crime as residents of the area they are visiting. Gunn (1983:143) supports this notion, claiming that: "*crime can be an irrational concern and that statistically; visitors have an equal or greater risk of being involved in a deadly car accident or suffering a household injury at home*". To this end, the critical factor in tourism is the concern for the safety of both the tourists and the residents. Undeniably, explicit within the concepts of safety and security are the daily routines occurring between people and their environment (Ceccato, 2019). For instance, how tourists and residents perceive their environment may serve to explain how safe they feel. Thus, the environmental design supports and develops great ideas on perceived safety. This is based on the proposition that the appropriate design and application of the built and surrounding environment can improve the quality of life by deterring crime and enhancing perceived safety (Cozens 2014).

Although many studies have assessed environmental design and safety nexus, most have done this at the recreation centers (e.g. Odufuwa, Badiora, Olaleye, Akinlotan & Adebara, 2019), business and shopping centers (e.g. Badiora & Odufuwa, 2019), and transport places (e.g. Ceccato, 2019). As well, perceived safety has been sparsely examined in tourism research with very limited studies in Africa: in Ghana (e.g. Boakye, 2012) and South Africa (e.g. George, 2003; 2012). Even at this, there are no studies (to the best of our knowledge) on how environmental design shapes crime victimization and perceived safety within and around tourist cities and destinations in sub-Saharan Africa cities, particularly in Nigeria. Few western studies which attempted this (e.g. Scheibler, Crofts, & Hollinger, 1996; Harper, 2006; Maruthaveeran, & Van den Bosch, 2015) predominantly focus on tourists while those that included residents (e.g. Harper, 2001) only examined police reports of crime. Because victim surveys generally target residents and exclude tourists, previous studies largely

depend upon very unreliable police department statistics. These are further undermined by the fact that recorded crime data are usually presented as rates based on the normal resident population, taking no account of the fact that the population at risk is swelled during the tourist season (Mawby, 2014).

In a nutshell, previous studies on the safety perception of tourism cities have predominantly focused on the holidaymakers' view and unreliable police data and have given limited attention to other stakeholders as well as how environmental design shapes crime incidences and perceived safety. Therefore, the justification of this study draws on the stakeholder principle, which recognizes the existence and significance of various stakeholders and their needs in relation to tourism planning (Murphy, 1985; Stylidis, Sit & Biran, 2016). In tourism, key stakeholders include tourists, tourism business organizations (e.g., travel agencies), the city government/council, and residents (Goeldner & Ritchie 2009; Stylidis, *et al.*, 2016). Unlike previous victim surveys that generally target residents and exclude tourists, this study targets both residents and tourists. In a novel approach, this study focuses on exploring holiday-maker and resident populations' crime experience and perceived safety as well as the environmental design features that trigger these in Abeokuta, Nigeria.

Accordingly, this study provides answers to the following research questions: What are the crime experiences of tourist and resident populations in Abeokuta, Nigeria? How do holidaymakers and residents perceive their safety? What elements of the urban design of the study area affect their crime experiences and perceived safety? Do significant variations exist between holidaymakers' and residents' crime experiences and perceived safety in the study area? In a unique approach, this study will provide insights into crime victimization experiences and perceived safety among residents and tourists and identify elements of environmental design layout and that of the host community that imparts these with a view to achieving safe cities that would encourage visitors without discriminating against the residents' rights to safety. In addition to providing an outlook of Nigeria regarding safety in the international tourism debate, this study is also helpful in contributing to the literature on the less considered area of the leisure industry in sub-Saharan Africa.

Environmental Design Factors Influencing Crime victimization and Perceived safety: A Literature Overview

A tourist city's design offers social, cultural, physical and aesthetic aspects where tourist activities can occur. This urban design-form shapes experiences as tourists can interact with places of attractions in the host city. Similarly, tourism infrastructure in a tourist city can be generally developed for: non-tourism purposes, residents and other local economic activities (Giriwati, *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, it is practically impossible for both visitors and residents not to interact in the host city. These routine interactions can bring together offenders and potential victims. In this regard, many theories have suggested the importance of people's daily interactions and opportunities provided by the environmental design in understanding crime incidences, safety and security. In this study, however, three mutually supportive theories

are summarized: Routine Activity (RA) theory; Problem Analysis Triangle (PAT) and Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED).

Cohen and Felson (1979) developed the Routine Activity (RA) theory to describe why crime happens. The theory employs a social explanation to explain fluctuations in crime incidence. It focuses on opportunities and risk, rather than on offender motivation, and is based on the idea that for an understanding of criminal behavior, one needs to comprehend how individuals routinely use their time (Breetzke & Cohn, 2012). This theory postulates that individuals generally follow strict daily, weekly, monthly and even seasonal routines, which affects opportunities for crime and risk of victimization. Some of these routine activities are obligatory, with a reasonably fixed duration, and are difficult to change (i.e. work) while other activities are discretionary (i.e. *site seeing, socializing*), and individuals have a greater amount of choice as to whether they will engage in these activities and when they will occur (LeBeau & Corcoran, 1990; Breetzke & Cohn, 2012).

The RA also postulates that there are three components of direct contact predatory crime in a place: *motivated offenders, suitable targets, and the absence of capable guardians* (Cohen & Felson, 1979). The guardian here is not usually a police officer or security agent but rather anybody and/or environmental design whose presence or proximity would either prevent or discourage a crime from happening. Thus, the property owner, tenants, a neighbor, or co-worker, security cameras, burglar-proof and barriers among others would tend to serve as guardians by being present or installed. Therefore, most importantly, it is when there is no form of guardians (*human and/or physical designs*) that a target is especially, subject to crime risk. In RA theory, the term “target” is preferred over a victim, who might be completely absent from the crime scene. For instance, the owner of a car is usually away when a burglar takes it. The car is the target and it is the absence of the owner and/or any other forms of guardians that makes the theft easier. The crime targets can be a person and/or an object, whose position in space and/or time puts it at more or less risk of criminal attack. Felson (1987), as well as Roncek and Maier (1991), have clarified the applicability of RA to the urban built environment. Moreover, by focusing on land-use attractors, serving as lures for potential offenders and victims, Pelfrey (1998) has laid the groundwork for suggesting that an increase of visitors, attracted to a city (i.e. *tourist city*), could serve as potential victims, absent suitable guardians. This proposition is supported by Roncek and Maier (1991) although, they studied the effect of locations of recreational liquor establishments on crime. Their research results reiterate the value of RA theory that now stresses the importance of built environment facilities.

Consistent with RA propositions, PAT upholds the principles that any crime requires a victim, an offender but not necessarily the absence of a capable guardian against criminal behavior but rather, a location, environment or place that makes it possible. These three elements (*a victim, an offender and an enabling environment*) must come together for crime to happen successfully. Nevertheless, a crime incidence can be averted by controlling or adapting one of these elements (Armitage, 2016). For instance, if the location or place was adopted or

controlled for (*i.e. through planning and design*), the opportunity for the victim (*e.g. properties, female, male, youth, aged, foreign nationals or indigenes among others*) to emerge would be eliminated or at least, reduced. Since crime events are associated with opportunities created by a place or location, manipulating the built environment (*through planning and design*) to affect users' behavior will reduce crime and the fear of crime. Supporting PAT perspective, Jacobs (1961) posits that urban planning, building types and architectural designs influence what occurs in them and their immediate surroundings. This ideology stimulates what is known as CPTED. According to Cozens (2014), CPTED is a process of analyzing and assessing crime risks to guide the design, management and use of the built environment (and products) to reduce crime and promote perceived safety, public health, sustainability and quality of life.

Originally, CPTED focuses on seven concepts. Although the construct continues to evolve, modern CPTED are defined by the following concepts: surveillance, territoriality, access control, activity support, and image maintenance (target hardening and wider environment). These five concepts are interrelated, forming the mainstay of modern CPTED approaches. Territoriality (*e.g. signage; well-defined spaces*) refers to designing spaces in a way that provides a sense of ownership and proprietary concern by users so that they potentially, are more likely to act as guardians (Peeters & Beken, 2017). According to this concept, a place that is continuously controlled by its users, who share a sense of community, can be more effective than police enforcement (Jacob 1961). Access control is related to territoriality in that it helps define private and public spaces and controls who enters a specific site and this can include card entry systems, security personnel, fencing, and walls (Atlas, Sorensen & Hayes, 2008). Surveillance is the ability to observe what happens in the area or around the immediate environment. It is linked to how visible the site is to neighbors and users (Armitage & Joyce, 2017). The use of good lighting, closed-circuit television (CCTV) and security guards are means of promoting the opportunities for surveillance (Ziegler, 2007).

Activity support is achieved through the thoughtful design of spaces and the use of local events, functions, and other land-uses to attract legitimate users. It is argued that with higher levels of "eyes on the street," criminals potentially, are less likely to offend since they may have increased risks of being seen and potentially apprehended (*Atlas et al., 2008*). The concept of image maintenance could be traced to Zimbardo's 1969 social experiment and Wilson and Kelling's 1982 Broken Window theory. In Zimbardo's experiment, findings show that in unmaintained surroundings with no signs of ownership, vandalism and other crimes are heightened. The broken window theory considers a building with a few broken windows. If the windows are not repaired, the tendency is for offenders to break a few more. Eventually, they may even break into the building, and if it's unoccupied, perhaps become squatters (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). Also, Abdullah, et al (2014:32) found that physical incivilities, particularly "*the actual presence of disorder-related cues*", negatively influenced crime-related problems. Thus, rapid removal of graffiti is means of promoting environmental image and maintenance.

Target hardening focuses on making crime more difficult by limiting opportunities for crime. It includes using stronger doors and windows and more efficient locks and alarms and seeks to harden targets by increasing the effort required to commit a crime (Peeters & Beken, 2017). Wider environment refers to the influence that nearby land-uses and what such activities may have on the safety and security of a particular site (Newman, 1973). This particularly relates to land-uses that tend to generate crime, such as alcohol outlets, clubs, bars and cafeterias, hotels, vacant lots/buildings, and cash converters outlets (Newton, 2014).

Environmental design has been found in previous literature as one of the attributes of perceived safety. For instance, findings show that physical boundaries of an environment can limit the prospect and possibility for potential victims to escape and can make hiding places for potential offenders (Appleton 1975). When possibilities to escape are low, concerns for personal safety can be high (Nasar & Jones, 1997). Therefore, fences and the existence of buffer zones in tourist site that restricts users to leave immediately when needed, may provoke fear and cause a lower sense of safety (Stamps 2005). Connected with this, long view distance and access to nearby streets and buildings are important to enhance sense of security (Müderrisoğlu & Demir, 2004). In some cases, visual and physical enclosures of tourist sites may provide restorative effects, when users would like to be alone in nature, probably because of control, safety or privacy needs (Nordh & Ostby, 2013).

In terms of green spaces, studies have suggested that high, dense and unmaintained vegetation is positively associated with the higher concerns for safety because it permits perpetrators to hide (Lindgren & Nilsen, 2012). Many researchers have stated that good green design enhances perceived safety (Forsthy, Musaccio & Fitzgerald, 2005). Well-designed and maintained flowerbeds and hedging have enhanced feelings of both safety and attractiveness in urban tourism and recreation parks (Woosnam, Shafer, Scott & Timothy, 2015). On the other hand, graffiti and litter have decreased perceived safety ratings in tourism parks (Schroeder & Anderson, 1984). Additionally, increased overall background activity both in parks (Marcus & Francis, 1998) and surrounding neighborhoods is an important factor to help people to feel less intimidated and feel safer, since being alone evokes fear in some people (Crewe, 2001).

Studies also support a correlation between the presence of physical disorders and perceived safety (e.g. Medway *et al.*, 2016; Sreetheran & Van den Bosch, 2014). Physical disorder refers to a neighborhood's overall appearance and signs. This includes signs of abandoned buildings, graffiti, unmaintained vegetation, trash and damaged properties (Skogan, 1999). When incivilities are not resolved quickly, the people around may interpret neighborhood decline which increases concerns about safety (Skogan, 1990). For example, poor lighting may contribute to concerns for safety in public spaces. Improved lighting is not only favored by many crime prevention professionals, but also one of the most common suggestions made by people who are fearful of using the public spaces as a means of both crime prevention and fear reduction (Atkins, Husain, & Storey, 1991).

Furthermore, the literature indicates variation perceived safety among socio-demographic

groups such as gender (Schafer, Huebner and Bynum, 2006; George, 2012; Ahmad, *et al.* 2015); age (Rand, 2008; Boakye, 2012); ethnicity or race (Lane & Meeker, 2003; Sampson *et al.*, 1997); income and education level (George, 2003; Maruthaveeran & Van den Bosch, 2015). Furthermore, (in)direct experience of victimization (past victims) was also observed to heighten perceived safety (Crank, Giacomazzi & Heck, 2003). Also, it has been established that perceived safety varies with times and seasons (White & Muldoon, 2015; Badiora, Afon & Dada, 2017; Cecato, 2019; Odufuwa *et al.*, 2019; Drawve, Kennedy & Caplan, 2020). For instance, these studies have shown that women's fear of crime is slightly higher than that of men. When people have the higher level of education and a higher the class status, the level of their crime-risk perception is stronger. Furthermore, these studies have revealed that urban residents have a stronger risk perception than rural residents.

From the above, safety appears to mean different things depending on location and time. For example, some people may be afraid inside their homes, but not outside while some may be afraid in restaurants, but not in shopping centers, and vice versa. Put another way, different people feel unsafe in different places and times. It is imperative to analyze a generalized picture of safety since the internal structure of crime and safety varies within and between places (Michalko, 2004). Besides, there are very limited studies in Africa, except for a few efforts (e.g. Odufuwa *et al.*, 2019; Badiora & Odufuwa, 2019; Boakye, 2012; George, 2003; 2012). Cross-cultural understanding is essential because findings from developed nations are not automatically transferable to developing nations (Adu-Mireku, 2002); thus limiting the generalization of findings. The ideas of this study are to find out patterns of residents' and holidaymakers' crime experiences and perceived safety in Abeokuta, Nigeria and establish whether specific environmental design layout or perhaps, personal factors, are related to their crime experiences and safety perceptions in Abeokuta. Through this research, it is hoped that findings will provide further input towards enhancing the security, physical and environmental design aspects of tourist sites.

The Study Area: Abeokuta Nigeria

In Nigeria, every town and city (*whatever its inherent natural characteristics, terrain and man-made problems*) has a potential that stems from its natural form, sense of place and history, spirit and beliefs. Different Nigerian towns and cities have different kinds of historical descriptions. Some are known as religious, agricultural, industrial and commercial towns while some as metropolitan and others as tourism cities. Among the perceived tourism cities, Abeokuta is noticeable. The city is an example of an urban area that has a special service for the leisure industry because of its attractiveness that has a natural specification and heritage, tradition and is culture-based.

Abeokuta is situated in the Southwest, Nigeria, which is one of the country's seven geopolitical zones. It is the capital of Ogun State. Abeokuta is located on latitude 7°9'20N and longitude 3°20'42E. The climate of Abeokuta is within the tropical zone and enjoys a truly seasonally damp and very humid climate, which is dominated by the West African monsoon

system. It experiences two major seasons per year: rainy and dry seasons. The rainy season starts in March and lasts till Mid-October with a peak period in June. Although there is usually “August break”, the rainy season picks up briefly again from early September to Mid-October. The dry season starts from late October and lasts till early March with peak dry conditions between early December and late February. The period witnesses the prevailing influences of the dry and dusty north-east winds, plus the ‘harmattan’ conditions. With an estimated mean annual rainfall of over 2000 mm, temperature varies in the city with the highest average monthly temperature being 35°C while the lowest is 28°C (Nigerian Meteorological Agency, 2016). Abeokuta is the southwest second-most metropolis after Lagos.

The broad physical planning of Abeokuta has two major objectives: first is the development of a city in which every resident feels safe and secure and that the city is a good place to live, work, recreate and raise families. Second is the development of the city as a destination – whether for tourism, manufacturing, business, education, or making a home. The city environmental design program that became the priority includes: (a) enhancement of the natural and built landscape (b) arts, culture and heritage (c) environmental best practices (d) community participation and empowerment (e) healthy lifestyle and (f) strategic planning. A top priority for Abeokuta is a long-term development program that aims to build a community in which residents can form and actively take part in rich and rewarding networks; to create a community full of vitality; security and sustainability.

Tourism is considered as one of the leading economic activities in Abeokuta compared to some other towns and cities in Nigeria. The city authority has given great attention to tourism, making it a sensational destination for domestic and international tourists. The several types of tourism that the city has are: (a) natural tourism – e.g. the Ogun River which spread over all districts in Abeokuta; (b) archeological, historical and heritage tourism – the city has many historical shrines for Ogun, Igunnuko, Egungun, among others and has some landmark structure – e.g. Olumo castle. Traditional and old Yoruba houses, theaters and museums are spread all over the city core; (c) Leisure tourism and contemporary culture – the city offers pop art museums, theaters, cinemas, parks, gardens, game parks, and also shopping centers; (d) business and conventional tourism – the city offers a commercial and industrial center, where businessmen travel across the country for trade or spending holidays and also to attend commercial and industrial exhibitions; (e) Medical tourism – the city has many hospitals; public and private which offer a lot of medical services. As a result of these facts, Abeokuta is one of several main tourism cities in Nigeria. It is home to some of the country’s top tourist attractions and draws about a quarter of all international tourists to Nigeria (NTDC, 2019). The main tourist attraction and most visited is Olumo (NTDC, 2019).

Ultimately, the Olumo tourist site (*and its immediate environment*) has been chosen for this study. The site and its immediate environments are among the busiest areas in Abeokuta (Ayodele, 2014). The tourist site is managed by the Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC). The site and its surroundings attract users both during the day and at night because of the heavy presence of night activities: bars, restaurants, hotels, clubs and night

shopping. This attractiveness is further enhanced by the existence of the “Itoku” market and its many shops, varieties of cultural and modern goods and teeming users. The market lies just outside the tourist attraction site. Besides, the site is surrounded by low-quality or high-density residential areas because of its location within the pre-colonial neighborhoods of Itoku, Isale-Ijeun, Sodeke, Ikija, Ilawo, Ikereku, Idomapa and Ajitaadun in Abeokuta.

Olumo is a popular attraction site with global recognition (Ajadi, 2012). For instance, the attractiveness of Olumo Rock has resulted in the steady growth of the Nigerian tourism sector over the past few years (NTDC, 2019). The government has also spent significant amounts of the fund on renovation and marketing the site to holidaymakers. The renovations completed in 2012, upgraded the infrastructures to take account of international travel demands. The tourist site has been described as “an American tourist destination” (Ayodele, 2014:1) and it remains even to date. Olumo is just about an hour’s drive from Lagos; the country’s commercial hub and the West Africa megacity.

METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Two sets of data were used. First was the site visitation data and the second was the questionnaire administration. The visitation record of a period of 12 months (*prior to the survey*) was collated from the city/site’s register and analyzed using frequency counts and percentages. Regarding questionnaire administration, a face-to-face interview was carried out in 2019. This method is adopted because it permits researchers to answer questions, ensure survey completion and check the quality of the interview process (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2007; George, 2012). A total of 296 holidaymakers completed the survey. This is based on first, the anticipated number of holidaymakers at the facility and second, on the convenience of the authors. This convenience sampling allows the researchers to obtain the needed data due to the lack of a sampling frame and a predetermined working population.

To select residents, buildings within the environs of Olumo were distributed along three strata to show if evidence of spatial influence exists in respondents’ perceived safety. The first stratum is in the radius of fewer than 300 meters, the second stratum (300-600 meters) and the third stratum (601-900 meters). This was done to determine whether perceived safety varies in these strata. The use of a Geographic Information System (GIS) revealed that within the first, second and third strata, there were 402, 765 and 802 buildings respectively. Using a systematic random sampling technique, one of every tenth building in each stratum was surveyed. Therefore, 40, 76 and 80 buildings were respectively, selected for the survey. A household representative person was selected per building floor. In all, a total of 223 residents completed the survey.

The distribution of the final respondents is as follows. Regarding tourists, 63% were between 16 and 60 years of age. Results also showed that 53% were male. Furthermore, 25% were identified as foreign nationals while 55% were married. Most of the visitors (95%) had formal education. There were also some 78% earning income above ₦200,000.00k (average

of above 278USD) on monthly basis. The majority of the respondents (63%) were between the ages of 41 and 60 years. Most of the visitors (91%) had a formal education. It is evident therefore that, affluent people visit the site as compared to their counterparts. This may be because of the fee required to access the site. Besides, this pattern may have some implications on crime incidences that will be discussed later in this article. Furthermore, only 20% were visiting the site for the first time, 21% for the second time; 12% for the third time while 38% had visited the site more than five times. It was also revealed that some 71% of the tourists interviewed have at least one accomplice (*including colleagues, personal staff, a family member [wife, husband, children among others] or friend*). Many of the respondents (77%) confirmed using public transport while in the tourist city. For residents, 64% were below sixty years; male (81%) while 71% had lived in the area for more than 15 years. All the respondents in the residents' category were native Nigerians with 82% identifying their ethnic group to be Yoruba ("Egba"). Thus, this area is occupied by the local indigenes. Furthermore, 75% of the residents sampled were married; 68% had formal education while only 24% had their monthly income above 278USD per month. Significantly, none of the socio-demographic variables were similar in proportions. This gives the impression that there is no problem with skewness.

Crime experiences were measured by asking respondents about the previous victimization and witnessing of crime events. This was assessed as 'yes' or 'no', with 'yes' being that the respondents have been a victim and/or witnessed a crime and 'no' as have not. This was analyzed using a chart with frequency counts and percentages.

To assess perceived safety, respondents were required to rate their perception asking about their safety; the safety of their families and friends; time and places they felt unsafe and the overall perceived safety. They were to express their opinion on this using one of the five-point Likert scales of 'Very Safe' (VS), 'Safe' (S), 'Neither' (N), 'Unsafe' (U), and 'Very Unsafe' (VU). In other to measure respondents' perceived safety, an index termed Perceived Safety Index (PSI) was developed. To arrive at PSI, the following procedures were followed:

- a. A weight value of 5,4,3,2 and 1 were respectively attached to 'Very Safe' (VS), 'Safe' (S), 'Neither' (N), 'Unsafe' (UN), and 'Very Unsafe' (VUN). Summation of Weight Value (SWV) which is the addition of the product of the number of responses to each safety variable and the respective weight value attached to each rating.
- b. The index for each safety variable was arrived at by dividing the Summation of Weight Value (SWV) by the total number of responses.

This is mathematically expressed as

$$SWV = \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i y_i \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

Where: SWV= Summation of Weight value; x_i = number of respondents to rating i ; and y_i = the weight assigned to a value ($i=1, 2, 3, 4, 5$). SWV was then divided by the number of respondents to arrive at each safety variables PSI.

This is expressed mathematically as:

$$PSI = \frac{SWV}{\sum_{i=1}^5 i = X_i} \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

The following scale measurement was used regarding mean scores, where 1 = Very unsafe (≥1.00 and ≤1.80); 2 = Unsafe (≥1.81 and ≤2.60); 3 = Neutral (≥2.61 and ≤3.40); 4 = Safe (≥3.41 and ≤4.20), and 5 = Very safe (≥4.21 and ≤5.00). For analysis of the internal reliability of the items in the questionnaire, Cronbach’s alpha values were tested with a cut-off value of 0.73 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The specialists in Social Psychology have been consulted to check the developed scale before the application. A pilot study has been conducted and some items of the scale have been revised before the main application. Reliability analysis has also revealed that our scale is highly reliable (alpha coefficient: 0.83). For the identification of significant relations between variables, Chi-squared test (X^2) was applied.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Survey findings are as discussed under various subsection headings as follows. Unless where otherwise stated, the tables and charts through which findings are summarized, are the products of a survey carried out by the authors and trained fifth-year Olabisi Onabanjo University Urban and Regional Planning students in 2019.

Characteristics of visits

Findings show that sightseeing (84%) was not the only motive for visiting the study area. Rather, research and education (10%), as well as business or work motives (6%), had their share of visitation purposes. Results also show that majority of the tourists did not visit the site alone (98%); they were either accompanied by friends, families or associates. With an approximate average of 180 visits daily, findings show that the site was often visited on the weekend (Fridays, Saturdays and Sundays) compared to the weekdays. This perhaps indicates that visiting attraction sites are mainly weekend affairs probably because of that break from work.

Table 1: Pattern of visit to the tourist site

Visit		Day (%)		Week (%)		Season (%)		Morning Evening	
Time	Counts	Morning	39.0	Weekdays	40.0	Rain	35.0	Weekday	281.0 38.0
Daily	.18	Evening	61.0	Weekend	60.0	Dry	65.0	Weekend	72.0 62.0
Weekly	1.26	Total	100.0	Total	100.0	Total	100.0	Total	100.0 100.0

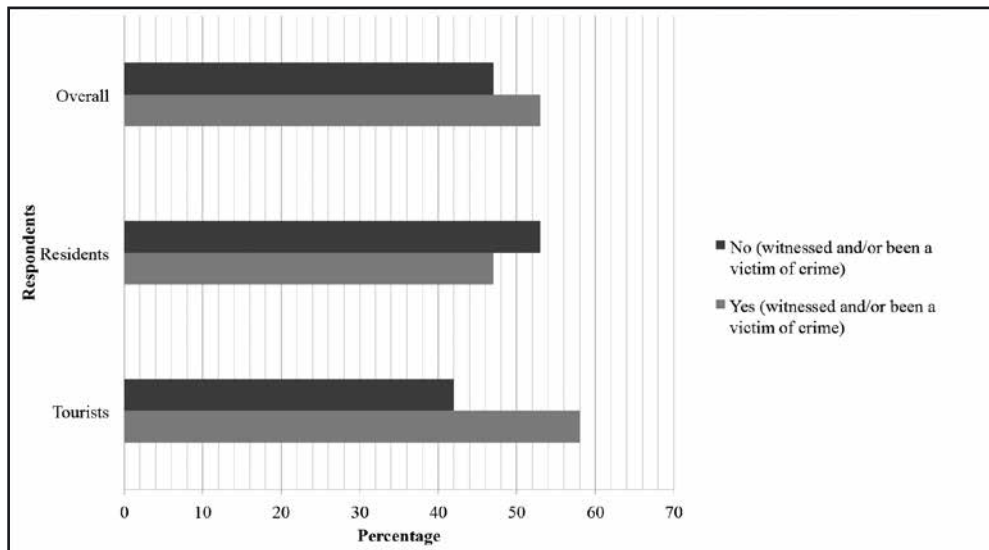
Source: Archive (summarized by authors)

Note: Total number of visits = 65524

The available records further show that the site was frequently visited in the dry season. This corroborates Idachaba, (2004) and Odufuwa, *et al.*, (2018) who assert that in a hot dry season in Sub-Saharan, people are more likely to be outdoors for leisure and vacation activities. This may also likely be as a result of some of the local cultural festivals as well as the Christmas and New-Year holidays which usually occur in the months of dry seasons (*usually from October till early March*) in the study area. It is a global common practice that people explore these holidays for visiting tourism cities and places of attractions (*See for instance*; Dibiagu, Kure & Haruna, 2003; Idachaba, 2004; Ahmad, *et al.* 2015; Badiora, Afon & Dada, 2017; Odufuwa, *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, findings show that the city/attraction site is often visited in the evening time. A cross-examination of days in the week and time showed that there were more visits (69%) to the study area in the evening during weekends than in the evening during weekdays. Similarly, there were more visits (72%) in the morning during weekends compared to the morning during weekdays. In summary, all these may have implications on crime victimization experiences and perceived safety, which will be discussed in the next sub-sections.

Crime victimization experience

Regarding respondents' crime victimization experience, results show that a significant fraction (58%) of the holidaymakers interviewed has been a victim (*actual and/or attempt*) or witnessed crime victimization in the study area. However, as to residents, slightly less than half (47%) of the residents cross-examined confirmed that they have witnessed and/or experienced (*actual and/or attempt*) crime. Like Harri's (2012), this study demonstrates that tourists are more likely to experience crime than are residents. Nevertheless, further analyses show no significant variation between holidaymakers and residents' crime experiences in the study area. The chi-square values ($\chi^2 = 9.09$, $p < 0.11$) confirm this. Hence, as shown in previous studies (e.g. Gunn, 1983; Prideaux, 1996; Schiebler, *et al.*, 1996; Harper, 2001; Vu, Muskat, Li & Law, 2020), holidaymakers may expect to have at least, the same volume/level of crime victimization as residents of the study area in the normal course of the event. Overall, findings show that slightly above average (53%) of the study's respondents have been a victim (*actual and/or attempt*) or witnessed crime in the study area (*See Figure 1*).

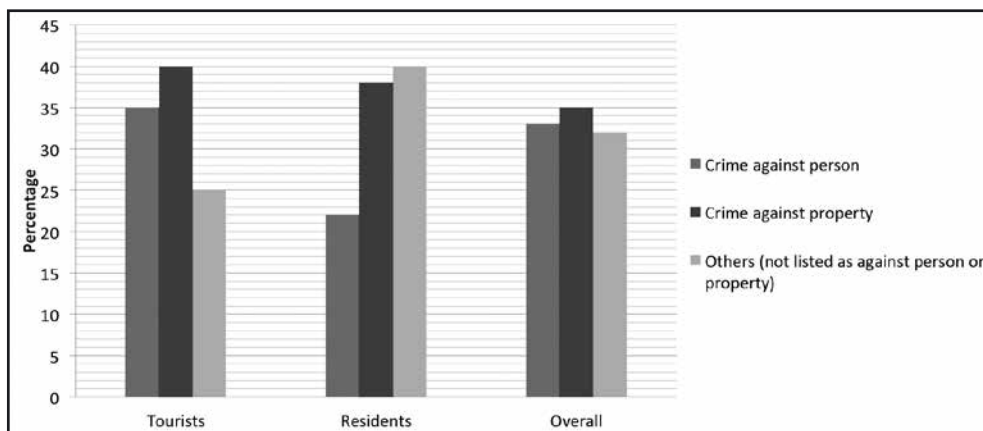
Figure 1: Have witnessed and/or been a victim of crime

When asked about the type of crime experienced and/or witnessed (*See Figure 2*), tourists (40%) rated property crime far above crimes against persons (35%) or other crimes (25%). In contrast, residents (40%) confirmed they have experienced more other crime types compared to crime against a person (22%) and property (38%). Nonetheless, overall, respondents rated property crime (35%) higher than a crime against a person (33%) or any other crime (32%). Unlike the level/volume of crime experiences, significant variation was found in the types of crime experienced by tourists and residents in the study area. The chi-square values ($\chi^2 = 69.09, p < 0.02$) confirm this. Therefore, findings indicate that the crime experience of tourists and resident populations differ in type but not in volume.

From crime victimization findings, there is all indication that offenders are likely to target the affluent rather than poorer people, at least for these property offenses. Thus, in this kind of tourist site where holidaymakers are affluent relative to the immediate residents, tourists might be especially at risk. More generally, tourists tend to have in their possessions valuable items that might attract offenders: smartphones, laptops, cash and hi-tech equipment among others. Furthermore, findings show that offenders targeted holidaymakers compared to the locals, nonetheless. This is evident as more holidaymakers have experienced crime victimization compared to the residents. There may be many reasons why tourists are more at risk, but most importantly, holidaymakers might be more at risk due to their low levels of guardianship. This may happen on at least three levels: self, community and formal policing guardianships (Mawby, 2014). Regarding self-guardianship, holidaymakers at large display far less concern to minimize risk than they would at home. Indeed, a ‘culture of carelessness’ might flourish (Harper, 2006). At the same time, the ability of holidaymakers to rely on

others to provide guardianship and policing is restricted: a large number of tourists within a site would reduce the ability of fellow holidaymakers to act as guardians and self-police their environment (Stangeland, 1998), and holidaymakers may be outside the predictable formal policing arrangements.

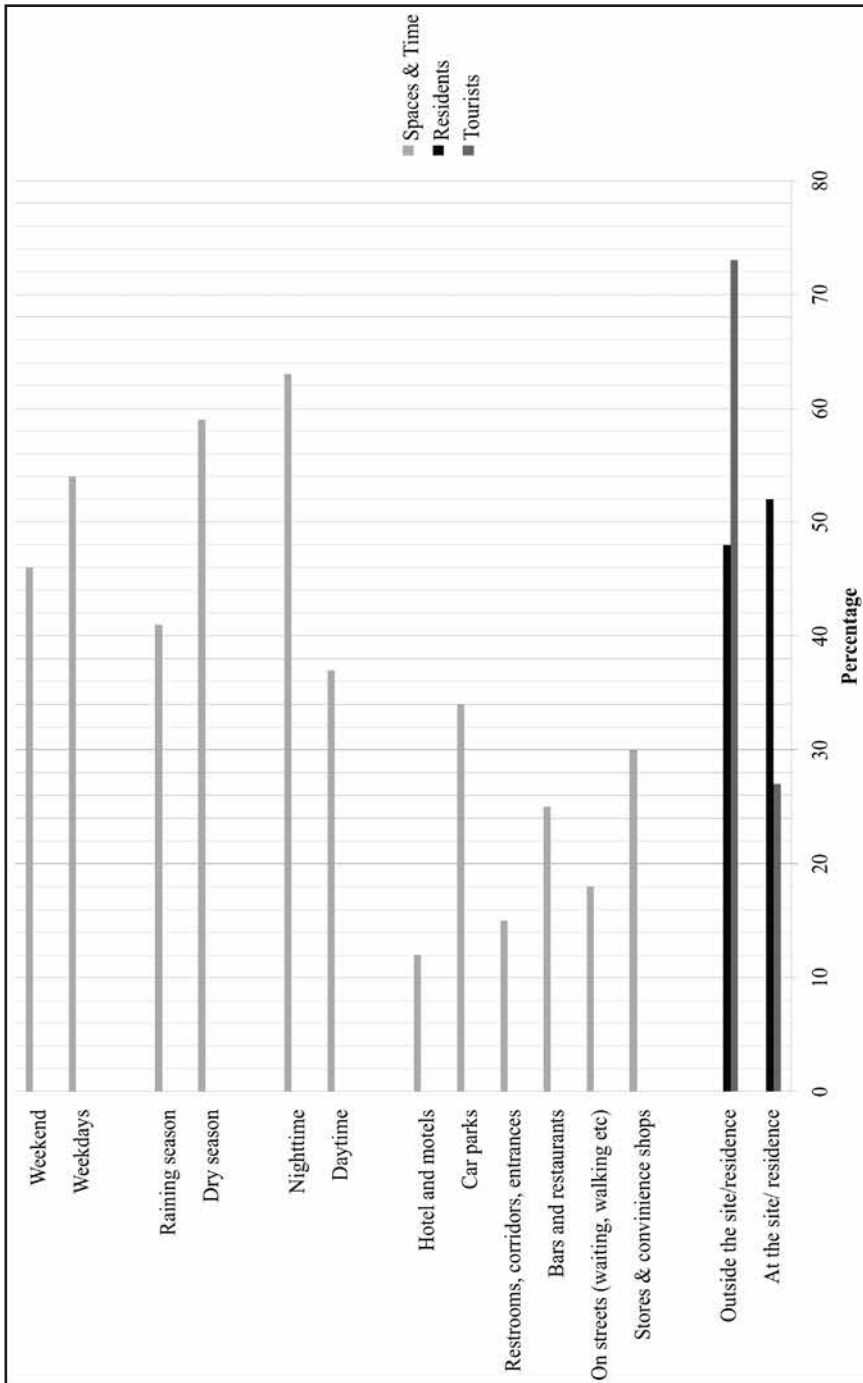
Figure 2: Experience of crime (victim and witness) by crime type



Note: Crime incidences are classified based on the Nigerian Police Crime code specification

The extent to which the offender is afforded easy access could be another reason for these findings. It may be physical (for example, no barriers restricting access) or social (for example, an offender lives near a potential target). Even though this concept has habitually been used in the burglary perspective (Mawby, 2001), the accessibility levels relating to tourists are contrary to that of the property owner, who may arrange a range of social, physical and technological methods of security. Tourist accommodation may not incorporate safes or security locks on doors, and where this prompts tourists to carry valuables on their person, their risk of street crimes increases (Mawby, 2014). Moreover, tourists may be more accessible targets because their routine activities bring them into crime hotspots and/or into proximity to criminals (Sherman, Gartin, & Buerger, 1989). To a large extent, this may be a matter of choice (Mawby, 2014). Moreover, the lack of awareness of space is an additional factor. Holidaymakers are often unaware of the predatory hotspots for crime and may undertake risky activities such as visiting nightclubs and bars at late hours or accidentally venturing into unknown parts of the host community which residents consider “unsafe” for strangers (Mawby, 2014).

Figure 3: Crime time and location



For holidaymakers, the majority (73%) of the crime victimization experience and/or witnessed happened outside the tourist attraction site (See Figure 3). Furthermore, findings show that stores, convenience shops, bars and car parks shared a greater amount of crime victimizations around their locations compared to other places. Further analysis show significant variation ($\chi^2 = 56.22$, $p < 0.01$) in places and locations where crime victimizations occurred. This is similar to White and Muldoon (2015) who found common places for crimes against holidaymakers to include convenience shops, hotels/motels, bars/nightclubs, retail stores and parking lot/garage. Similar to White and Muldoon (2015), findings show that crime events vary significantly by season and time. The chi-square computed ($\chi^2 = 56.22$, $p < 0.01$) confirms this. For instance, most crime events were experienced and/or witnessed in the nighttime, weekdays and dry season (See Figure 3). The peak at these times for all crimes is associated with people's patterns of routine activity (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Specifically, these periods (*except weekdays*) were when most visits were recorded (See Table 1). It may thus be that crime experiences increase with an increase in the number of holidaymakers in the city/ destination. The RA approach is the most obvious theoretical basis for this that crime rates will increase as does the number of visitors to an area. This pattern thus provides evidence of the law of crime concentration (Turkseven-Dogrusoy & Zengel, 2017) in the study area. It should be noted that the fact that the amount of crime increases during the peak tourist season is no guarantee that the crime rate has risen (Mawby, 2014). Findings here may also have implications on the perceived safety of respondents. These are discussed later in this study.

Perceived safety of respondents

Presented in Table 2 is the summary of respondents' perceived safety ratings. The final sample produced some noticeable results with a clear pyramid of concerns among residents and tourists. From these findings, the tourist attraction site can be described as "safe" from tourist perception. The overall perceived safety was 3.88 [Safe (≥ 3.41 and ≤ 4.20)]. Regarding the immediate environment of the site, tourists were not satisfied with their safety [PSI = 3.39: Neutral (≥ 2.61 and ≤ 3.40)], whereas, residents were satisfied with their safety [PSI = 3.99: Safe (≥ 3.41 and ≤ 4.20)]. This may be because tourists were away from home. It has been substantiated by previous studies (see for instance: Lynch 1960; Mawby, 2000; 2014) that when someone is unfamiliar with an environment, a person's fear is increased and they could feel less secure.

Despite being satisfied with their safety (PSI_{visitors} = 3.51; PSI_{residents} = 3.99), respondents were worried for the safety of their families and friends (PSI_{visitors} = 3.31; PSI_{residents} = 3.40), though, this was minimal with the residents as compared to the tourists. Accordingly, there were indications of unselfish concerns, where respondents are bothered by their accomplices (such as colleagues, a family member [wife, husband, children among others] or friend). This finding may be related to what Trickett (2009) calls altruistic fear. Overall, tourists were satisfied with their safety in museums, hotels, paved areas, picking facilities and parking areas. However, they are less satisfied with places like shops and convenience stores, ancient caves, on the rock, grassed and shrub areas, restaurants and bars, restrooms, toilets, entrances, exits and corridors. Previous studies have indeed suggested that high, dense and unmaintained shrub is positively associated with the higher fear of crime because it permits perpetrators to hide (e.g. Lindgren & Nilsen, 2012; Odufuwa,

et al., 2018; Ceccato 2019). Furthermore, respondents who feel insecure tend to be more anxious during the night hours. This is consistent with some studies (e.g.: Warr, 1990; Badiora, & Ntmark, 2016; Ceccato, 2017; 2019) who have found that darkness increases concerns for safety.

Following the avowals of Andrews and Gatersleben, (2010); Badiora, Popoola, and Fadoyin, (2014); Ahmad, *et al.* 2015); Ceccato, (2017) among others, that previous crime victimization experience influence concerns for safety, results of this study show that respondents who have previously been victimized are more likely to declare feeling unsafe in the evenings compared to those who have not been a victim of crime ($\chi^2 = 7.22, p < 0.02$). Similarly, respondents who have previously witnessed crime tend to declare themselves less safe compared to those who have not ($\chi^2 = 33.09, p < 0.01$). Respondents who have previously been victimized are more likely to have concerns about the safety of family and friends compared to those who have not ($\chi^2 = 66.11, p < 0.02$). Also, respondents who have previously witnessed crime tend to declare themselves less safe in the immediate surrounding compared to those who have not ($\chi^2 = 41.22, p < 0.05$).

Table 2: Respondents' perception of safety rating

Aspect of safety	Perceived Safety Index (PSI)		
	Holidaymakers	Residents	Aggregate
Caves	2.59	**	**
Dry months/season of the year	3.35	3.45	3.33
Entrances, exits and corridors designs on the site	3.11	**	**
Grassed or shrub area in the tourist facility	3.21	**	**
Hotels and accommodations	3.41	**	**
In the afternoon-evening	3.67	4.11	3.99
In the morning	4.01	4.22	4.18
In the nighttime or after the dark	2.44	2.66	2.53
In the weekdays	3.41	3.96	3.77
In the weekend	3.45	3.94	3.79
Museum	3.88	**	**
Overall perceived safety of the immediate surroundings	3.39	3.99	3.77
Overall perceived safety on the tourist site	3.88	**	**
Paved areas	3.55	**	**
Personal safety	3.51	3.99	3.91
Picnic facilities at the tourist site	3.55	**	**
Raining months/season of the year	3.55	3.56	3.55
Rest room and toilet	2.57	**	**
On the rocky area of the site	2.51	**	**
Restaurants and bars	3.40	3.77	3.61
Shopping & convenience stores	2.99	3.51	3.43
Safety of accomplice (e.g. family and friends)	3.31	3.40	3.40
When traveling/walking on the public transport or road	3.17	3.47	3.22
While using the facility car park	3.91	**	**

**Not applicable

Perhaps because of crime victimization experience and/or fear of being in an unfamiliar place or environment, results show that holidaymakers are likely to declare feeling unsafe compared to residents ($\chi^2 = 84.22, p < 0.05$). Following the works of Badiora and Ntamark, (2016); Badiora, *et al.*, (2014); Ahmad, *et al.*, (2015); Ceccato, (2017; 2019), results show that women are likely to declare feeling unsafe compared to men ($\chi^2 = 74.18, p < 0.05$). Results show that higher-income earners are more likely than low-income earners to feel unsafe ($\chi^2 = 59.44, p < 0.01$). Some previous studies (e.g. Scarborough, *et al.*, 2010; Maruthaveeran & Van den Bosch, 2015, Badiora & Bako, 2020) had also found that people with low economic status reported low levels of fear than people with higher economic status. Following Badiora and Bako's (2020), findings show that foreign visitors are less likely to feel safe than the local visitors ($\chi^2 = 57.11, p < 0.05$). Results show that respondents at 25 years old and younger visitors are less likely to declare feeling unsafe than respondents above 25 years ($\chi^2 = 73.32, p < 0.05$). This is not surprising as elderly people have been found more fearful of crime than young people and have avoided spending holidays in destinations where crime is perceived as a problem (See for instance: Hope & Sparks, 2000; Rand, 2008; Boakye, 2012). Furthermore, findings show that tourists who are married ($\chi^2 = 87.94, p < 0.01$) declare feeling worried about safety than single holidaymakers.

Results show that residents who live in less than 300m ($\chi^2 = 91.22, p < 0.00$) to the site are more worried about safety conditions than those who live outside this radius probably because the attraction site "absorbs" (Bowers, 2014) some of the criminogenic conditions of the surrounding areas. This group of residents are particularly dreadful in the nighttime ($\chi^2 = 32.33, p < 0.00$). Results show that newer residents ($\chi^2 = 69.91, p < 0.00$) and fresher tourists ($\chi^2 = 29.41, p < 0.00$) are more likely to be worried about their safety in the immediate environment of the attraction site. Comparable to Poyser's (2004); Ceccato's (2017) and the work of Odufuwa, *et al.*, (2019), findings show that tourists who have concerns about their safety on the site are likely to be fretful in convenience shops ($\chi^2 = 26.26, p < 0.01$) night bars and restaurants ($\chi^2 = 22.25, p < 0.01$), entrances, exits and corridors ($\chi^2 = 33.44, p < 0.02$), restroom and toilet ($\chi^2 = 44.11, p < 0.01$), ancient caves ($\chi^2 = 43.22, p < 0.00$) and grassed or shrub area ($\chi^2 = 23.24, p < 0.00$). Foreign tourists are less likely to feel safe ($\chi^2 = 66.11, p < 0.01$) in the immediate surroundings than local holidaymakers. Residents are more likely than tourists, to feel safe ($\chi^2 = 9.44, p < 0.01$) when traveling/walking on the streets. Furthermore, some seasonal variations were observed as respondents are more likely to be concerned for their safety in dry season ($\chi^2 = 77.11, p < 0.01$) and night-time ($\chi^2 = 47.91, p < 0.02$). Thus, findings suggest evidence of fear concentration and this is directly related to crime concentration earlier uncovered.

Linking respondents' crime experience and perceived safety, there is no disparity between when and where crime victimization was mostly experienced and when and where most respondents declared higher level of safety concerns. These patterns show that crime experience does equally translate to concerns for safety. For example, respondents declared less safe in shops, car parks, bars and restaurants where a higher crime was experienced compared to other places. Besides, respondents were declared less safe on the weekend, where higher

crime was experienced compared to the daytime when respondents declared a higher level of safety. Similarly, respondents declared less safe in the dry season when a high rate of crime was experienced. Similarly, in the case of times of the day, the highest for both (crime experienced and perceived safety) was in the nighttime. The peak at the evening hour is associated to people's patterns of routine activity (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

In summary, findings confirm that environmental design context has an effect on the perceived safety conditions in the study area. Findings here are associated with building types and architectural design, particularly, as it relates to surveillance, territoriality, access control and activity support. Similar to previous findings, the layout and design of toilets, transition areas (e.g. exits, entrances and corridors), public spaces (e.g. restaurants and bars), and of the immediate host community and surroundings did affect perceived safety.

CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This study contributes to the field of tourist place management, by comparing holidaymakers and resident population's crime experiences and perceived safety. Findings show that the crime experience of tourists and residents differ, both in types and volume. Besides, results support the idea of crime and fear concentration. Consistent with the literature, the present study demonstrates that perception of safety is dependent on multi-scale factors. Some of these are related to the socio-demographic characteristics while others and are associated with the environmental design, some of them varying over time and seasons. The findings from this study reiterate that an important aspect of destination management is related to perceived safety. Nonetheless, the promotion of safety is not enough to reduce perceived safety, but that risk reduction should be addressed to motivate risk-sensitive tourists to travel. Although risk is a multidimensional measure, health issues and crime threats such as theft and assaults are considered major risk dimensions within emerging tourism markets.

These outcomes call for a holistic approach to enhancing the safety of the tourist site and its host community. In the case of this study's findings, public, semi-public and private areas (such as the ancient caves, transition areas [exits, entrances and corridors], toilets, restaurants and bars) must be well supplied with security gadgets such as the installation of CCTV. Besides, having more formal surveillance (maintenance, security, or housekeeping personnel) more often in these places would be necessary. Since safety concern was higher during the nighttime; lighting improvement would be the most important possible way of enhancing safety during this time. Security personnel patrols also need to be increased at this time to make it safer for tourists to go out in the evening.

As shown in the findings, some incivilities in immediate surroundings affect crime and perceived safety. Hence, both streets and properties should be maintained so that an image of civility would be perceived by a potential offender. A range of programs and best practices to tackle these issues requires effort from various stakeholders in collaborative arrangements.

In essence, a coordinated effort by all is required to work towards providing a harmonious place for locals and visitors alike. Hence, law enforcement agencies and site management should coordinate efforts to implement CPTED measures. These comprehensive programs must continually adapt to changes such as increasing tourist and residents' population densities and diversity, new technologies, new ways of life, and emerging crime problems.

Furthermore, the development of tourism criminology that focuses on the situational context of the Nigerian industry seems appropriate since the crime experience of tourists and residents differ. In other words, there is the need for an all-inclusive theoretical approach directed at understanding the crime effects on tourism destinations in Nigeria. Also, from a practical and business viewpoint, the tourist site managers need to constantly take cognizance of the local crime situation and advise their visitors accordingly without deterring them from visiting or taking part in activities at the destination. For instance, on arrival, visitors could be provided with an information brochure which informs them what to do, where to go, how to use public transport among others. Similarly, the exchange of social media-based information for residents and tourists is part of the practice-based solution for better sustainable tourism planning (Vu, *et al.*, 2020).

IMPLICATION FOR FUTURE ANALYSIS

This study, like any research, has some limitations offering chances for further research. One of such is that caution should be applied in drawing any generality from a rather non-randomized selection of holidaymakers. Besides, the study covered only one tourist city and destination in Nigeria and not the entire country. Thus, the measurement has been developed based on a single tourist place and thus may limit the generalization of the results to other places. While the measurement of tourists and residents' perceived safety presented by this study exhibits sound construct and discriminant validity as well as reliability, it requires further validation with other tourist places both within and outside Nigeria. Moreover, the sample is small. This may mean that the statistical significant power may be little (e.g. *the capability to detect the accurate significant difference*). Future analysis may therefore consider a larger sample and new data collection methods to obtain time-series data of crime events, perceived safety and their influencing factors. The police data that identify victims as tourists and/residents may be used to compare the results of interviewing tourists. Also, coping mechanisms adopted by holidaymakers and residents should be examined in future studies. Furthermore, future studies should consider more robust techniques. For instance, using z-scores and/or minimum or maximum normalization (*multiplied by 100*), validation of the indices using factor analysis with varimax rotation. Future statistical analysis should conduct relevant diagnostics of the residuals check for more statistical interactions.

There is also the need to examine crime types that holidaymakers and residents are most worried about. Also, a future study may need to develop a quantified effect that the crime experience has on perceived personal safety. Moreover, studies need to continually monitor

tourists' views of safety at destinations through longitudinal studies. Furthermore, the relationship between important variables omitted in this study (e.g. purpose of visit, duration of stay, mass media portray of crime in the study area) and perceived safety is worth examining. A further suggestion is to include additional psychological factors (e.g., reputation and fame) (Echtner & Ritchie 1991), and affective attributes (e.g., relaxing, exciting, pleasant) (Lin *et al.* 2007) into the measurement of holidaymakers and residents' perceived safety of tourist cities and destinations. It is evident from this study that perceived safety analyses are not enough concerning CPTED theory and practice. What must, therefore, be considered in the future is how CPTED and its components work in tourist cities and destinations, where it works best and how to systematically evaluate its effectiveness (or otherwise), beyond a reasonable doubt. Finally, building on the work of Schroeder (1996) and Styliadis, Belhassen, and Shani (2015), it will be judicious to examine if tourists and residents' favorable (or unfavorable) view of a tourist city increases (decreases) their concerns for safety and security. Such research will be insightful, theoretically and practically, in understanding the relationship between tourists and residents' support and the success of tourism safety and security planning.

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Exploratory of Meaning of Plant Motifs in the Decoration of the Sacral Buildings of Krakow as Special Tourist Attractions

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ABSTRACT

The presented pioneer research focused on the interest in botanical decorative elements in the art of the historic churches of Krakow. The survey conducted on a representative group of tourists has shown that plant elements increase the cultural attractiveness of the church and the importance of the sacrum. Among the organs of plants, flowers attract the most attention, while among life forms — trees. The respondents appreciated the important decorative value of plant motifs in ornamental elements of churches.

Keywords: arts, culture tourism, ornaments, plants

INTRODUCTION

Background and purpose of the study

The tourist attractiveness of religious buildings consists of many elements, including religious and cultural details. Visiting churches, as well as tourism to sacred places, can be pilgrim, religious or cultural. Decorations are not always noticed, they are not important for everyone, they do not always have a symbolic meaning. To understand the importance of decorative motifs, including often botanical ones in the decoration of churches, it is necessary to define what pilgrimage, religious and cultural tourism in sacred buildings is. In the pilgrimage, contemplation, and prayer play a great role, and in general spiritual motives prevail over cognitive ones. In religious tourism, on the other hand, cognitive over spiritual motives play a dominant role. Cultural tourism in sacred places of all religions is about sightseeing and experiencing aesthetic experiences. It is implemented by non-believers or followers of other religions (Różycki 2017). David Lodge suggests that the pilgrimage can

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be divided into three phases of personal development. This view refers to Søren Kierkegaard's theory. These are the aesthetic, ethical, and religious phases (Lodge 1997).

For all those who visit churches, the aesthetic element is more or less noticeable. Tourists visiting and visiting the churches of Krakow also have a very different sphere of spirituality. Thus, they represent every form of tourism, whether pilgrim, religious or cultural. The purpose of the research was to demonstrate an interest in botanical decorative elements in the art of the historic churches of Krakow. The main focus was on the importance of botanical elements in the decoration of churches for tourists who treat these places both in the spiritual and cultural sphere. These elements appear in paintings, polychromes, sculptures, stained glass, and other architectural details. At the same time, it should be stressed that so far there has been no scientific study analyzing the importance of plant elements for tourists visiting sacral buildings in Krakow and Poland. The research undertaken is therefore pioneering and original. So far, we have not come across this type of research in the scientific literature. It seems that tourists pay attention to many elements in architecture and art, including sacred art, but what is important for them in floral ornamentation in sacred and historic buildings has never been explored. This is the originality of our presented research. All the more so as Krakow is an important cultural center and has impressive sacred interiors. Many churches contain ornamental details with floral motifs. However, botanical elements are not always visible and not always appreciated among many other decorative elements in art.

Analyses of some researchers interested in cultural tourism draw particular attention to art tourism. This is a new type and trend of tourism researches. Adrian Franklin rightly draws attention to the too-broad definition of cultural tourism. A more specialized area of study is needed. Museums and other facilities offering art objects to tourists need to focus more on the audience, i.e. the tourists visiting these places. Many disciplines are involved, including art, architecture, urban planning, museology, aesthetics, social anthropology, sociology, and art geography (Franklin 2018). Adrian Franklin has introduced a new term of "art tourism". This is not, however, a particularly distinct trend in cultural tourism, it occurs relatively often, sometimes unexpectedly, when practicing various forms of tourism. In the research conducted on the significance of botanical elements in the sacred art in Cracow, it was noted that many tourists are somehow unexpectedly surprised by the aesthetic and artistic value of the places they visit. Art was and continues to be created primarily in the world of art, not in and for the tourism industry. Although of course, it is difficult to see the boundaries in such a broad area of art tourism (Bennett 1995; Foster 2015; Smith 2012; Franklin 2018). The sacral art is particularly an example of creation beyond the tourism zone. Artwork and art in sacred interiors may inspire and surprise tourists to varying degrees. The aesthetic element is then highly important.

Aesthetics in art is subjective. In modern times, lifestyles and perceptions of art are changing. Today, art continues to spread into numerous areas of life, including advertising, decoration, and packaging. Art manifests itself everywhere, sometimes the works of art themselves are not appreciated as an artistic value and unique cultural asset (Origet du Cluzeau 2017).

According to Jacques Rancière, each artistic activity is an intrusion into the order of perceiving the world and may modify the model of perceiving the surrounding reality. Therefore, even in sacred objects, aesthetics, experiences, and art can affect the understanding and reception of the world in a transcendent sense as well. The essence of aesthetics as a particular experience leads to the idea of the pure world of art to an experience that may be called the aestheticization of life. Friedrich Schiller said that aesthetic experience will lift the structure of fine art and the art of living (Rancière 2010). Discovering botanical elements in the interiors of architectural buildings is also an aesthetic experience.

Beauty in art is enchanting, subjective, and transient. Alain de Botton notes that contact with beauty causes an overwhelming urge to hold it, possess it, and make it an important element of our lives. For tourists, aesthetics and beauty are a value they cherish. They may always recall it saying "I was here and it was important to me". The transitoriness of beauty in art is associated with the fact that the tourist will not see this place again. The perception and aesthetic analysis of that place are affected by light, seasons, climate, atmospheric conditions and the number of visitors at a time, mood, and many other factors (de Botton 2002). Research that aims to illustrate the value and perception of plant elements found inside a historic building does not analyze the influence of various factors, although they naturally exist. Primarily, the idea is to demonstrate how botanical elements affect the aesthetics of a place and their importance in art.

Sacred buildings as a pilgrimage and cultural area for tourists visiting Krakow

Krakow is one of the most important centers of cultural tourism in Europe and the world. Already in 1978, it was entered, as the first city in Europe, into the prestigious UNESCO World Cultural and Natural Heritage List. This proves a great cultural potential on a Polish scale, but also worldwide. The city is described as "Second Rome", as the city of John Paul II and Nicolaus Copernicus. In many respects, it is an important center of history, patriotism, and religion for Poles. This is where many saints were raised and worked. The "Route of Saints" runs through Krakow. The importance and reputation of the city are evidenced by numerous churches, almost without exception, of very high artistic and architectural value. The segmentation of tourists makes it possible to separate people coming mainly for pilgrimage purposes. Their interests are mainly directed towards churches with which Krakow's saints or images famous for miracles are associated. The second group consists of religious or cultural tourists who try to appreciate also or primarily the artistic value of religious buildings and their equipment.

Undoubtedly, the greatest value for pilgrims in Krakow is the Shrine of Divine Mercy in Krakow Łagiewniki. The main tourist traffic is concentrated there. Nearby, in Biały Morza, there is the Sanctuary of St. John Paul II which is also visited by pilgrims and tourists. In the center of the Old Town, pilgrims visit Wawel Cathedral and St. Mary's Basilica, and the "Papal Window" as well as the Franciscan Church and other religious buildings located in the center and on the "Route of Saints". The area of the Old Town in Kraków is almost the

whole, without exception, a unique cultural and landscape attraction. When visiting the city, many tourists pay special attention to the numerous churches, which in terms of architecture, is a varied mosaic of styles from Romanesque, through Gothic, Renaissance, Baroque to the 20th-century styles. Many of the churches are a mixture of styles, the shape of the church is different, the fittings from a different era are different, too. All this determines the uniqueness and charm of Krakow's temples. Each church is a cultural and architectural attraction itself, each with its unique features. Thus, they become not only spiritual temples but also temples of art, full of treasures from many eras. Among the many sacred buildings, it is worth mentioning the most valuable ones: St. Mary's Basilica, with the medieval altar, the work of Wit Stwosz — The Dormition of the Blessed Virgin Mary, which deserves special attention. Moreover, Baroque pearls must be mentioned, such as the Church of St. Peter and Paul and the Church of St. Anne, and the Church of St. Michael the Archangel on the Rock. In the city center, near the famous "papal window" in Krakow, in the Palace of the Archbishops of Krakow, there is the Basilica of Fathers Franciscans. In the gothic building, the Young Poland stained-glass windows and polychromy are of exceptional importance and will be the work of Stanisław Wyspiański. It is the uniqueness and specificity of this polychrome, abounding in floral motifs, that distinguishes this church from other churches in Krakow. The authors of the study attracted the interest of tourists in sacred art, not the art exhibited in museums, but appearing inactive objects of cult. Therefore, it was decided to examine how much botanical motifs influence the perception of tourists, both those with a religious attitude and those interested only in culture. Krakow offers numerous works of art, tourists can feel satisfied with the diversity and richness of works of art and the city's life in its various facets of everyday life and accompanying events. The perception of details, including the natural and especially botanical issues, may seem to be seemingly drowned out by the enormity of the experience, but as it seems, the decorations are of great importance to almost every tourist.

PLANT MOTIFS IN SACRED ART

Christian art

Sacred art, both Christian and Muslim, has its characteristics which, moreover, changed over the centuries and corresponded to cultures, regions, and architectural styles in different eras. Plant motifs in sacred art have never aroused controversy, both among Christians and Muslims. They only provided a neutral, natural beauty that emphasized the sublime of the sacred. It is precise because of its neutrality and beauty that it raised the artistry of decoration and the sublime relationship with the sacred. Only unfriendly, ugly, and dangerous plants could be controversial, but such elements were avoided, both in churches and in mosques. They very rarely appeared in Christian churches to show the menace.

Plants have been the inseparable companion of man since the beginnings of humans and all civilizations. They were a source of food, a source that gave life, and so attempts were made to almost sacralize them by raising them to the rank of the highest goods. This is also

reflected in the art of many cultures and peoples of all continents. In Europe, they have been perfectly inscribed in Christian art, mainly since the Middle Ages. For thousands of years, plants have been treated as sacred in all cultures and have occupied an important place in spirituality and folk rituals (Zemanek, Zemanek 2005). The rich symbolic meaning of many species (De Cleene, Lejeune 2003a,b; Kandeler, Ullrich 2009a-g) made their images commonly presented in temples. Tourists visiting museums, churches, monasteries, and cathedrals come across architectural or painting details all over Europe that refer to plant symbols. In sacral buildings of various denominations around the world, you can admire more or less realistic images of plants with symbolic meaning and decorative functions. Plant motifs are a popular ornament of altar tablecloths as well as robes and liturgical objects (De Giorgio 2006; Dautović 2014; Lukman et al. 2018). Moreover, they can often be found in elements of temple decor such as polychromes, paintings, sculptures, stained-glass windows, as well as in elements of their equipment such as benches, knees, pulpits, confessionals, or chandeliers. Examples of rich plant ornamentation have been noted in the decoration of many Catholic churches (Będkowska, Zemanek 2016; Tünde 2017; Kaczmarska, Zemanek 2019), Orthodox churches (Gamulin, Letilovic 2017; Kaczmarska, Zemanek 2019), synagogues (Ovadia 1986; Trzciński, Wodziński 1999) and Buddhist temples (Gupta 1996; Pertiwi et al. 2019; Yang 2019).

Muslim art

Plant ornamentation is particularly noticeable in Muslim temples. Islam forbids the representation of human figures and animals. In the mosques, however, there are elements and geometric or plant decorations. That is why these botanical decorations are particularly noticeable there (Hanifi, Maleki 2016). In mosques, the highest form of Islamic art and the most typical expression of the spirit of this religion is calligraphy. Language and writing have become a common treasure of all Muslims, which is why these calligraphic elements are found on the walls and decorations of many mosques. "God's Scriptures make the truth come out," says the tradition of the Prophet Muhammad. Muslims know how to use color in architecture and art very well. Decorations appeared on ceramic tiles. Three themes dominate the interior of the mosques. These were calligraphy, geometric figures, and floral motifs. In Islamic art, plant motifs are also found in prayer rugs and rugs. This distinguishes this art from Christian art, where carpets are not given the same role as in Islam.

The place of floral motifs in the tourist attractiveness of Krakow's religious buildings

The investigations of Bilska-Wodecka and Sołjan (2007, 2015), as well as Faracik (2011), showed the religious buildings of the Roman Catholic Church located in Krakow have long been of interest to tourists. At the same time, Bilska-Wodecka and Soljan (2015) emphasize that the temples located in Śródmieście (especially within the Old Town) currently attract tourists mainly due to their architectural and aesthetic values (as works of art) and the religious motive of visiting these places is negligible. One of the undeniable aesthetic values of the temples is their rich floral ornamentation. Floristic elements in the polychrome, sculpture,

and stained glass windows were found in the presbytery, transept, aisles, chapels, and the vestibule of St. Mary's Basilica (Brišová 2019), the Basilica of the Sacred Heart of Jesus (Będkowska, Zemanek 2016), as well as the Church of St. Joseph in Podgórze (Będkowska, Zemanek 2016). At the same time, it is worth mentioning, that flowers attract attention especially in the architecture of Krakow's Gothic and neo-Gothic churches. They are architectural details, made in the shape of flowers with spread buds surrounded by leaves, often on several levels. They are usually the culmination of the spires that are used as decorations on the outer buttresses. They refer to flower motifs or floral bouquets. In Krakow, they can be seen in the Church of St. Catherine of Alexandria and St. Mary's Basilica.

The plant ornaments in St. Francis of Assisi Basilica

According to the findings of Będkowska and Zemanek (2016), the botanical motifs can also be found in St. Francis of Assisi Basilica, where the famous polychrome and stained-glass windows with plant motifs were created by Stanisław Wyspiański — one of the most outstanding Polish artists of the turn of the 19th and 20th century. Approximately thirty taxa have been identified throughout the temple, including nearly twenty species of plants that grow wild in Poland and are grown in gardens. Polychromes show the roadside weeds that used to be common in the vicinity of Krakow, such as the chicory traveler (*Cichorium intybus* L.), the field borsch (*Agrostemma githago* L.), and the bird vetch (*Vicia cracca* L.), as well as plants of the former house gardens such as the greater nasturtium (*Tropaeolum majus* L.), the rose (*Rosa* sp.) or the sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.). On the stained-glass windows, we can admire, among others, images of wild species of aquatic plants or those preferring wet habitats, such as yellow-backed shrike (*Nuphar lutea* (L.) Sibth. & Sm.), white fungus (*Nymphaea alba* L.), yellow-backed shrike (*Iris pseudacorus* L.) or Siberian shrike (*Iris sibirica* L.). Plant motifs in polychrome, art, and ornaments of Basilica of Fathers Franciscans are relatively clear and noticeable, however, in many churches they are a complimentary, discreet element, emphasizing the importance of the sacrum. St. Mary's Basilica also has botanical ornamentation marked in the polychrome. This is the most visited church in Krakow.

Materials and methods

The research was carried out utilizing a diagnostic survey using a questionnaire. It consists of seven questions and specifications (see the Appendix to view the questionnaire). The survey was conducted on a representative group of Polish and foreign tourists in July 2020. 103 persons were examined, including 65 Polish and 38 foreign tourists. The period of our research fell on July 2020 in Krakow, when there was hope for the return of tourist traffic to normal, after being frozen in March 2020. Symptoms of this appeared in Małopolska because foreign tourists did not have to stay in quarantine after their arrival. There has been no additional research and testing. It was a time when tourists came back temporarily, initially as individuals and in small groups. Unfortunately, this time did not last long, but for our research, it turned out to be the only one possible, during which we examined a representative group from almost all over the world.

Representatives of these countries visit Krakow regularly, as shown by statistical data. The surveyed group was a perfect reflection of the current trends in tourist traffic. The drawing operation was representative of tourists coming to Krakow during the summer, holiday, and vacation period. Foreign tourists represented almost all continents and almost twenty European countries. Polish tourists were representatives of all sixteen Polish provinces. The situation related to government restrictions on tourism in 2020 was not significant and did not affect the representativeness of tourists, but the number of tourists only, which was much smaller than in previous years. An elementary condition for the representativeness of the sample is the origin from the population subject to the survey (Grabowski 2013). The sample selection was random and two-stage. All persons being tourists from Poland and abroad who visited the Basilica of Fathers Franciscans between 11:00 a.m. and 02:00 p.m. were examined. The place of research was the temple of St. Francis, which, as mentioned earlier, is one of the most frequently visited churches of Krakow.

Visitors answered the questions after leaving the porch. The sample size was adequate to ensure the statistical significance of the test results. The second research method was the analysis of source materials concerning cultural tourism and botanical elements in architecture and art. Due to the novelty and originality of the research, there was a lack of comparative materials both in Polish and foreign scientific literature. In addition, a visual method was used to assess the expert value of plant decorations and ornaments in churches in Krakow and other regions of Poland as well as in European countries and other continents. We believe that, as experts and researchers in tourism, cultural tourism, and botany, before we started our research, we made our own assessment of the places (also basing on the literature of the subject) where plant elements are found in the decorations of sacred objects. Both in Krakow, in Poland, and the world, also in Muslim countries. The statistical significance of differences in the percentage distribution of answers to individual questions provided by respondents representing different gender, age, nationality, and level of education was analyzed using the χ^2 test (Preacher 2001), as shown in the tables below.

RESULTS

Question 1 received a total of 251 replies, from which it was concluded that the decorative elements most appealing to tourists included historical painting (21.9 % of all replies) as well as elements related to the figures of Christ and Mary (17.9 %). The visitors were less attracted by the figures of saints (13.5 %) and plant elements in art (13.1 %). Geometric figures (11.6 %), live flower decorations (9.6 %) and angel silhouettes (6.8 %) were less frequently chosen. Much fewer tourists have chosen the answer "other elements" (3.2 %), "hard to say" (2.0%), and "I do not pay attention, I am only interested in the sacrum" (0.4%). The χ^2 test showed similar trends regardless of gender and nationality (Table 1). Statistical analysis confirmed that historical painting and elements related to the figures of Christ and Mary were the most popular choice of both men and women. The historical painting was most often chosen by both Poles and foreigners, especially by people over 19 years old with secondary or higher

education, while the attention of younger tourists was attracted mainly by elements related to the figures of Christ and Mary.

Table 1: Percentage of answers to question 1 ("Which decorative elements in churches attract your attention?") based on gender, nationality, age and education of tourists based on 103 questionnaires.

		Elements related to the figure of Christ and Mary	Saints' figures	Geometric figures	Historical Painting	Plant elements in art	Angels figures	Live flower decorations	Other	I don't pay attention, I'm only interested in the sacrum	It's hard to say	χ^2 test
Gender	Men	18.6	11.8	14.7	25.5	11.8	6.9	5.9	3.9	1.0	0	4.8 ^{ns}
	Women	17.4	14.8	9.4	19.5	14.1	6.7	12.1	2.7	0	3.4	(df=9)
Nationality	Polish	20.6	13.5	8.4	23.9	15.5	7.1	9.7	0.6	0	0.6	10.2 ^{ns}
	Other	13.5	13.5	16.7	18.8	9.4	6.3	9.4	7.3	1.0	4.2	(df=9)
Age	<19	22.6	9.7	12.9	16.1	9.7	9.7	19.4	0	0	0	78.8 ^{**}
	19–29	17.2	11.5	11.5	24.1	13.8	6.9	8.0	5.7	0	1.1	(df=45)
	30–39	20.8	16.7	6.3	22.9	10.4	6.3	12.5	0	0	4.2	
	40–49	16.1	19.4	12.9	19.4	12.9	12.9	6.5	0	0	0	
	50–59	15.2	13.0	13.0	23.9	15.2	2.2	4.3	6.5	2.2	4.3	
	>60	12.5	12.5	25.0	25.0	12.5	0	12.5	0	0	0	
Education	Basic	33.3	6.7	13.3	13.3	6.7	6.7	20.0	0	0	0	123.3 ^{***}
	Vocational	33.3	0	0	0	33.3	0	33.3	0	0	0	(df=27)
	Secondary	15.6	15.6	6.7	24.4	20.0	8.9	6.7	0	0	2.2	
	Higher	17.0	13.8	12.8	22.9	11.2	6.4	9.0	4.3	0.5	2.1	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤ 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001

To question 2 "Do plant elements in art increase the cultural attractiveness of the church?" 74.8% of the respondents answered affirmatively. According to 10.7% of respondents, plant elements do not increase the cultural attractiveness of the church, while 14.6% did not express an opinion. Although most tourists believed that plant elements increase the cultural attractiveness of the church, statistical analysis showed significant differences based on gender, nationality, age, and education (Table 2). Plant elements increase the cultural attractiveness of the church mainly according to women, tourists of Polish nationality, respondents over 30 years old, and people with secondary and higher education.

Table 2: Percentage share of the answer to question 2 ("Do plant elements in art increase the cultural attractiveness of a church?") based on gender, nationality, age and education of tourists based on 103 questionnaires.

		Yes	No	Hard to say	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	61.9	16.7	21.4	11.9** (df=2)
	Women	83.6	6.6	9.8	
Nationality	Polish	80.0	6.2	13.8	7.6* (df=2)
	Other	65.8	18.4	15.8	
Age	<19	75.0	16.7	8.3	111.0*** (df=10)
	19–29	70.6	17.6	11.8	
	30–39	76.2	0	23.8	
	40–49	92.3	0	7.7	
	50–59	75.0	10.0	15.0	
	>60	33.3	33.3	33.3	
Education	Primary	83.3	16.7	0	135.0*** (df=6)
	Vocational	66.7	33.3	0	
	Secondary	85.7	4.8	9.5	
	Higher	71.2	11.0	17.8	

Ns — not statically significant; *P \leq 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001

To question 3 "Do plant elements in the art and design of a church raise the significance of the sacrum of a place?" 54.4% of the respondents answered affirmatively. According to 21.4% of the respondents, plant elements do not increase the importance of sacrum, while 24.3% did not express an opinion. The statistical analysis showed no differences in the distribution of responses given by women and men and significant differences according to nationality, age, and education (Table 3). Plant elements increase the value of sacrum mainly according to Poles, tourists between 40 and 49 years old, and respondents with higher education.

Table 3: Percentage share of the answer to question 3 ("Do plant elements in the art and decoration of a church raise the importance of the sacram of a given place?") based on gender, nationality, age and education of tourists based on 103 questionnaires.

		Yes	No	Hard to say	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	54.8	26.2	19.0	3.2 ns (df=2)
	Women	54.1	18.0	27.9	
Nationality	Polish	61.5	13.8	24.6	12.3** (df=2)
	Other	42.1	34.2	23.7	
Age	<19	66.7	8.3	25.0	82.1*** (df=10)
	19–29	44.1	29.4	26.5	
	30–39	57.1	23.8	19.0	
	40–49	84.6	0	15.4	
	50–59	45.0	25.0	30.0	
	>60	33.3	33.3	33.3	
Education	Primary	66.6	16.7	16.7	77.4*** (df=6)
	Vocational	100	0	0	
	Secondary	76.2	9.5	14.3	
	Higher	45.2	26.0	28.8	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

In total, 228 replies were made to question 4, which concluded that the decorative elements most appealing to tourists included wall painting (46.7 % of all replies) as well as paintings and sculptures (35.8%). Visitors' attention was also drawn to stucco (12.1%) and other elements (6.7%). Statistical analysis showed a similar trend in the distribution of responses given by women and men as well as by Poles and foreigners (Table 4). Although wall painting attracted the attention of the majority of respondents, the χ^2 test confirmed significant differences in the distribution of responses according to the age and education of visitors.

Table 4: Decorative elements attracting tourists' attention (in %) based on gender, nationality of age and education based on 103 surveys.

		Wall painting	Pictures	Sculptures	Stuccos and fittings	Other	I don't pay attention to decorations	Hard to say	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	30.3	27.0	29.2	7.9	3.4	1.1	1.1	0.97ns (df=6)
	Women	36.0	25.2	23.7	9.4	5.8	0	0	
Nationality	Polish	34.5	28.3	26.9	8.3	1.4	0	0.7	6.65ns (df=6)
	Other	32.5	21.7	24.1	9.6	10.8	1.2	0	
Age	<19	42.9	25.0	28.6	3.6	0	0	0	164.0*** (df=30)
	19–29	31.1	24.3	28.4	8.1	8.1	0	0	
	30–39	35.3	29.4	27.5	5.9	2.0	0	0	
	40–49	35.5	29.0	19.4	12.9	3.2	0	0	
	50–59	30.8	23.1	23.1	15.4	5.1	2.6	0	
	>60	20.0	20.0	20.0	0	20.0	0	20.0	
Education	Primary	46.2	23.1	23.1	7.7	0	0	0	74.8*** (df=18)
	Vocational	66.7	33.3	0	0	0	0	0	
	Secondary	29.8	31.9	31.9	4.3	0	0	2.1	
	Higher	33.3	24.2	24.8	10.3	6.7	0.6	0	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤ 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001

Question 5 was answered 118 times and it was found that among the organs of plants placed in decorative elements, flowers (55.1% of all answers), leaves on the stems (35.6%), followed by fruit (8.5%) and other organs (0.8%) attract tourists' attention. Statistical analysis showed a similar trend in respondents of Polish and foreign nationality (Table 5). At the same time, the χ^2 test showed that the flowers attracted the attention of tourists of different ages, both men and women. People with basic education paid attention only to flowers and leafy stems, people with vocational education paid attention mainly to fruits, whereas respondents with secondary and higher education were attracted by flowers, leaves on stems, and fruits.

Table 5. plant organs in floral motifs attracting tourists' attention (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 103 questionnaires.

		Flowers	Fruit	leaves on the stems	Other	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	44.4	15.6	40.0	0	10.2* (df=3)
	Women	62.5	4.2	33.3	0	
Nationality	Polish	54.1	8.1	37.8	0	1.2ns (df=3)
	Other	56.8	9.1	31.8	2.3	
Age	<19	66.7	8.3	25.0	0	39.2*** (df=15)
	19–29	52.9	8.8	35.3	2.9	
	30–39	66.7	4.2	29.2	0	
	40–49	40.0	15.0	45.0	0	
	50–59	50.0	8.3	41.7	0	
	>60	66.7	0	33.3	0	
Education	Primary	71.4	0	28.6	0	115.0*** (df=9)
	Vocational	25.0	50.0	25.0	0	
	Secondary	63.6	9.1	27.3	0	
	Higher	52.9	7.1	38.8	1.2	

Ns — not statically significant; *P \leq 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001

Question 6 received 110 answers, based on which it was found that among the life forms of plants found in decorative elements, trees (47.2% of all answers), herbaceous plants (42.9%), and shrubs (10.9%) attract tourists' attention. The statistical analysis showed no differences in the distribution of responses among respondents of different genders (Table 6). At the same time, the χ^2 test showed that trees, herbaceous plants, and shrubs attracted the attention of Poles, while foreigners mainly paid attention to trees and herbaceous plants. The oldest and young respondents mainly paid attention to herbaceous plants, while others were mainly attracted by trees. Persons with basic education mainly paid attention to herbaceous plants, while respondents with secondary and higher education to trees.

Table 6: Life forms of plants in floral motifs attracting tourists' attention (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 103 questionnaires.

		Trees	Bushes	Herbaceous plants	Other	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	51.1	17.0	31.9	0	7.3ns (df=3)
	Women	44.4	6.3	47.6	1.6	
Nationality	Polish	42.9	17.1	40.0	0	17.3*** (df=3)
	Other	55.0	0	42.5	2.5	
Age	<19	41.7	8.3	50.0	0	57.7*** (df=15)
	19–29	36.1	13.9	47.2	2.8	
	30–39	52.2	17.4	30.4	0	
	40–49	57.1	7.1	35.7	0	
	50–59	59.1	4.5	36.4	0	
	>60	33.0	0	66.7	0	
Education	Primary	33.3	16.7	50.0	0	34.8*** (df=9)
	Vocational	33.3	0	66.7	0	
	Secondary	54.5	4.5	40.9	0	
	Higher	46.8	12.7	39.2	1.3	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

Question 7 was answered by 103 persons, based on which it was concluded that for the majority of respondents (85.4%) plant motifs in decorative elements of churches are an important decorative element. Only 7.8% of the respondents considered them to be an inert element, while 6.8% considered them to be redundant. Despite the recognition of plant motifs as an important decorative element by most respondents, statistical analysis showed significant differences in the distribution of responses between persons of different gender, nationality, age and education (Table 7).

Table 7: Importance of plant motifs in church decoration according to foreign tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 38 questionnaires.

		Superfluous element	Important-decorative element	Inert element	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	16.7	76.2	7.1	18.0*** (df=2)
	Women	0	91.8	8.2	
Nationality	Polish	1.5	92.3	6.2	15.0*** (df=2)
	Other	15.8	73.7	10.5	
Age	<19	8.3	91.7	0	90.0*** (df=10)
	19–29	11.8	79.4	8.8	
	30–39	4.8	81.0	14.2	
	40–49	0	92.3	7.7	
	50–59	5.0	95.0	0	
	>60	0	66.7	33.3	
Education	Primary	0	100.0	0	76.6*** (df=6)
	Vocational	33.3	66.7	0	
	Secondary	4.8	85.7	9.5	
	Higher	6.8	84.9	8.2	

Ns — not statically significant; *P \leq 0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

RESULTS, SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The results (and further analysis of the data are shown in the appendices) are difficult to relate to other analyses due to the lack of similar studies in the literature. The recognition of plant motifs as an important decorative element by most of the respondents is significant. So far, the presence of plant elements has been particularly appreciated by tourists visiting parks, botanical gardens, exhibitions, and flower festivals (Ates et al.2016, Duarte de Oliveira Paiva et al.2020). The obtained results refer to research by other authors (Ballantyne et al. 2008, He and Chen 2012, Ward et al. 2010) on the ecological awareness of tourists visiting botanical gardens. According to the above-mentioned research, tourists emphasize the pleasure of being surrounded by plants. According to the research carried out by the authors, the current perception of nature, and especially plants, is also possible for tourists in cultural facilities, including sacred ones. Research has shown that they are extremely often noticed by both domestic and foreign tourists. Most of the surveyed people interested in historic buildings had

higher education and they were mostly young and middle-aged. These factors also influence the perception of the value of decorative elements in art, including plant elements.

The natural environment is not always conducive to contemplating plants in parks or gardens, for example. Sometimes people staying there, including tourists, focus their attention on other things, talk, relax, and do not appreciate the uniqueness of the botanical environment. Therefore, perceiving plant motifs in the art can be a kind of balance for natural environments. Tourists are then more sharply attracted to the surroundings. In sacred objects, they can further enhance spiritual experiences.

The creators of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century were inspired by different plant organs: flowers, fruits, stems, as well as roots and buds (Wallis 1984). The survey conducted in the presented studies showed that among plant organs the vast majority of tourists paid attention to flowers. This may be due to their realistic approach, original color, and size selection. Flower motifs were very frequent in the art of the turn of the XIX/XX century. The artists often created images of flowers on tall stems, such as lilies, irises, gladiolus, foxglove, virgins, reeds (Makowska 2005). The above-mentioned author stresses that the Art Nouveau artists' predilection for the winding, a spiral line made them often reach for the motives of plants climbing with flexible, waving stems, such as floods, wild wine. Equally often trees were depicted as a symbol of the rebirth of life, youth, immortality, and wisdom (Wallis 1984). The research carried out showed that among the life forms of plants, the attention of the visitors to the church was attracted mainly by trees and herbaceous plants. At the same time, it is worth noting that similar plant motifs decorate numerous tenement houses in Kraków (Makowska 2005), as well as buildings throughout Poland (Pudelska, Mirosław 2015) and Europe (Madsen 2002). The survey showed that, in the opinion of tourists, plant motifs in the decorative elements of the church increase the cultural attractiveness of the church and increase the importance of the sacrum. Art allows tourists to see the value of this life in both its temporal and spiritual dimensions. Plants warm up the image of the clash of real and transcendent worlds. Tourists not only admire the craftsmanship of the artists who create plant motifs but also enjoy being in the temple of spirit, art, and nature at the same time. These three elements are perfectly harmonized with each other.

The conducted research has shown those plant elements in the decoration of sacral buildings of the churches of Krakow are a special tourist attraction. Usually, cultural tourists are well prepared for sightseeing, they are most often educated and see the beauty of architectural objects, their interiors, including those of sacred importance. It is almost obvious that for tourists, unlike the believers who are residents of Krakow, churches are most often a tourist attraction in cultural or religious and cultural terms. The desire to see, visit, and sometimes experience the sacred in a place of pilgrimage value is strengthened by aesthetic experiences. The obtained results obtained show that decorations in sacred buildings can be of great importance to visitors and attract attention not only with their sacred dimension or style but also with elements connected with nature, which is not always obvious. Similar work should be carried out in other countries, also in other cultures, including Muslim culture. This will

allow us to examine whether nature expressed through art in churches, mosques, and other temples, increases the tourist attractiveness of these places to a large extent. Thanks to these results, the tourism industry can expand its products in various cities and countries. In the tourist promotion, it is worth paying attention to details of design in churches and other temples. This tourist product should be aimed at people interested in art, but also botany. The combination of promotion and the creation of tourist routes based on art and botany is a great idea for the development of educational tourism.

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Appendices:

Table 8: Decorative elements attracting foreign tourists' attention (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 38 questionnaires.

		Wall paintings	Pictures	Sculptures	Stuccos and fittings	Other	I do not pay attention to decorations	Hard to say	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	31.0	27.6	24.1	6.9	6.9	3.4	0	8.1ns (df=2)
	Women	33.3	18.5	24.1	11.1	13.0	0	0	
Age	<19	33.3	33.3	33.3	0	0	0	0	163.0*** (df=30)
	19–29	34.3	20.0	25.7	5.7	14.3	0	0	
	30–39	42.9	14.3	14.3	28.6	0	0	0	
	40–49	37.5	37.5	12.5	0	12.5	0	0	
	50–59	26.1	17.4	26.1	17.4	8.7	4.3	0	
	>60	25.0	25.0	25.0	0	25.0	0	0	
Education	Primary	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17.8ns (df=18)
	Vocational	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Secondary	28.6	33.3	28.6	9.5	0	0	0	
	Higher	33.9	17.7	22.6	9.7	14.5	1.6	0	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

Table 9. Decorative elements attracting the attention of Polish tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 65 questionnaires.

		Wall paintings	Pictures	Sculptures	Stuccos and fittings	Other	I do not pay attention to decorations	Hard to say	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	30.0	26.7	31.7	8.3	1.7	0	1.7	2.1ns (df=6)
	Women	37.6	29.4	23.5	8.2	1.2	0	0	
Age	<19	45.5	22.7	27.3	4.5	0	0	0	614.4*** (df=30)
	19–29	28.2	28.2	30.8	10.3	2.6	0	0	
	30–39	34.1	31.8	29.5	2.3	2.3	0	0	
	40–49	34.8	26.1	21.7	17.4	0	0	0	
	50–59	37.5	31.3	18.8	12.5	0	0	0	
	>60	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	
Education	Primary	46.2	23.1	23.1	7.7	0	0	0	72.2*** (df=18)
	Vocational	66.7	33.3	0	0	0	0	0	
	Secondary	30.8	30.8	34.6	0	0	0	3.8	
	Higher	33.0	28.2	26.2	10.7	1.9	0	0	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

Table 10. Plant organs in floral motifs attracting the attention of foreign tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 38 surveys.

		Flowers	Fruits	leaves on the stems	Other	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	64.3	14.3	21.4	0	8.0* (df=3)
	Women	53.3	6.7	36.7	3.3	
Age	<19	50.0	0	50.0	0	83.0*** (df=15)
	19–29	62.5	12.5	18.8	6.3	
	30–39	66.7	0	33.3	0	
	40–49	50.0	16.7	33.3	0	
	50–59	53.5	6.7	40.0	0	
	>60	50.0	0	50.0	0	
Education	Primary	0	0	0	0	16.1ns (df=9)
	Vocational	0	0	0	0	
	Secondary	71.4	0	28.6	0	
	Higher	54.1	10.8	32.4	2.7	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤ 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001

Table 11. Plant organs in floral motifs attracting the attention of Polish tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 65 questionnaires.

		Flowers	Fruits	leaves on the stems	Other	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	35.5	16.1	48.4	0	24.4*** (df=3)
	Women	67.4	2.3	30.2	0	
Age	<19	72.7	9.1	18.2	0	128.4*** (df=15)
	19–29	44.4	5.6	50.0	0	
	30–39	66.7	4.8	28.6	0	
	40–49	35.7	14.3	50.0	0	
	50–59	44.4	11.2	44.4	0	
	>60	100	0	0	0	
Education	Primary	71.4	0	28.6	0	121.8*** (df=9)
	Vocational	25.0	50.0	25.0	0	
	Secondary	60.0	13.3	26.7	0	
	Higher	52.1	4.2	43.8	0	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤ 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001

Table 12. Life forms of plants in floral motifs attracting the attention of foreign tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 38 questionnaires.

		Trees	Shrubs	Herbaceous plants	Other	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	62.5	0	37.5	0	4.3ns (df=3)
	Women	50.0	0	45.8	4.2	
Age	<19	0	0	100	0	231.2*** (df=15)
	19–29	47.1	0	47.1	5.9	
	30–39	100	0	0	0	
	40–49	66.7	0	33.3	0	
	50–59	61.5	0	38.5	0	
	>60	50.0	0	50.0	0	
Education	Primary	0	0	0	0	14.7ns (df=9)
	Vocational	0	0	0	0	
	Secondary	75.0	0	25.0	0	
	Higher	50.0	0	46.9	3.1	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

Table 13. Life forms of plants in floral motifs attracting the attention of Polish tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 65 questionnaires.

		Trees	Shrubs	Herbaceous plants	Other	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	45.2	25.8	29.0	0	11.9** (df=3)
	Women	41.0	10.3	48.7	0	
Age	<19	50.0	10.0	40.0	0	161.6*** (df=15)
	19–29	26.3	26.3	47.4	0	
	30–39	45.0	20.0	35.0	0	
	40–49	54.5	9.1	36.4	0	
	50–59	55.6	11.1	33.3	0	
	>60	0	0	100.0	0	
Education	Primary	33.3	16.7	50.0	0	37.9*** (df=9)
	Vocational	33.3	0	66.7	0	
	Secondary	42.9	7.1	50.0	0	
	Higher	44.7	21.3	34.0	0	

Ns — not statically significant; *P ≤0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

Table 14. The importance of plant motifs in the decoration of churches according to foreign tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 38 questionnaires.

		Superfluous element	Important decorative element	Indifferent element	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	40.0	60.0	0	60.9*** (df=2)
	Women	0	82.6	17.4	
Age	<19	0	100.0	0	470.3*** (df=10)
	19–29	25.0	62.5	12.5	
	30–39	33.3	0	66.7	
	40–49	0	100.0	0	
	50–59	8.3	91.7	0	
	>60	0	100.0	0	
	Education	Primary	0	0	
Vocational		0	0	0	
Secondary		12.5	75.0	12.5	
Higher		16.7	73.3	10.0	

Ns — not statically significant; *P \leq 0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

Table 15. The importance of plant motifs in the decoration of churches according to Polish tourists (in %) based on gender, age and education based on 65 questionnaires.

		Superfluous element	Important decorative element	Indifferent element	χ^2 Test
Gender	Men	3.7	85.2	11.1	6.7* (df=2)
	Women	0	97.4	2.6	
Age	<19	10.0	90.0	0	507.5*** (df=10)
	19–29	0	94.4	5.6	
	30–39	0	94.4	5.6	
	40–49	0	90.0	10.0	
	50–59	0	100.0	0	
	>60	0	0	100.0	
	Education	Primary	0	100.0	
Vocational		33.3	66.7	0	
Secondary		0	92.3	7.7	
Higher		0	93.0	7.0	

Ns — not statically significant; *P \leq 0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

Survey questionnaire

Plant motifs in the interior of churches in Krakow as special tourist attractions

1. What elements in decorations do you primarily pay attention to? (you can choose up to three answers)

- (a) elements related to the figure of Christ and Mary
- (b) figures of saints
- (c) geometrical figures
- (d) historical painting
- (e) plant elements in art
- (f) silhouettes of angels
- (g) decorations of live flowers
- (h) other, please specify
- (i) I don't pay attention, I'm only interested in the sacrum
- (j) it's hard to say

2. Do you think that floral elements in art increase the cultural attractiveness of the church?

- a) yes
- b) no
- c) it is hard to say

3. Do plant elements in the art and decor of the church increase the significance of the sacrum?

- a) yes
- b) no
- c) it is hard to say

4. During visiting churches, what decorative elements do you pay special attention to? (You can choose up to three answers)

- (a) wall painting
- (b) images
- (c) sculpture
- (d) stucco and equipment
- (e) other, please specify
- (f) I don't pay attention to decorations
- (g) hard to say

5. Which organs in plant motifs draw your attention to the bridge:

- a. flowers
- b. fruits
- c. leaves on the stems
- d. others (please specify).....

6. Which life forms in plant motifs draw your attention the most:

- a. trees
- b. shrubs
- c. herbaceous plants

7. In your opinion, floral ornaments in churches are an element:

- a. superfluous
- b. important-decorative
- c. indifferent

Imprint

Nationality.....

gender.....

Age (<19; 19-29; 30-39; 40-49; 50-59; >60) Please, emphasize the proper!

Education (primary / vocational / secondary / higher) Please, emphasize the proper!



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Agricultural Lifestyle and the Attraction of Agritourism: A study from Tra Que (Hoi An, Quang Nam, Viet Nam)

*Ha Van Trung*¹

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the characteristics and activities of the "agricultural way of life" in the development of the "agritourism" in Tra Que vegetable village (Hoi An, Quang Nam) and to identify the level of tourist participation and their satisfaction in traditional agriculture activities. The questionnaire survey was conducted on 71 households and 100 tourists in Tra Que vegetable village (Hoi An, Quang Nam). After that, the author conducted in-depth interviews with 20 households and 03 groups of tourists to validate the data and semi-structured interview (SSI) of 03 people. The results showed that the diversity and distinctive characteristics of Tra Que's farming lifestyle have significantly affected tourists' engagement and satisfaction. One of the main determinants of tourists' appeal to Tra Que vegetable village is the agricultural lifestyle. Local authorities and citizens should pay more attention to the experience of tourists in developing agritourism facilities in a traditional agricultural way. This is a crucial consideration for the potential growth of sustainable agrarian tourism in the vegetable village of Tra Que. This study examines the characteristics of agricultural lifestyles; its tourism development potential and its role in attracting tourists to participate in local agricultural tourism. The results obtained from this study can be used to facilitate the adoption of an agricultural lifestyle in the organization of tourism services and activities to enhance effective tourism activities in the locality. The findings can also assist tourism agencies and local authorities in organizing agro-tourism activities. The limitations of this study include its scope limited to the agricultural lifestyle in agribusiness. Future research should further expand in adopting lifestyles in other areas for tourism development.

Keywords: agritourism, agricultural way of life, participation, tourist satisfaction, development

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INTRODUCTION

Agritourism is a form of tourism in which visitors are brought to a particular location for agricultural purposes. Agritourism has established a mental and psychological stimulation model by attracting tourists to agricultural territory, predominantly rural areas, that has become a rising trend in tourism, both recreational and experiential. This form of tourism can also be used to leverage the activities of farmers and entrepreneurs who want to improve economic development by growing hospitality on their farms. Farmers/entrepreneurs, as active stakeholders in fostering agritourism, should pay special attention to the recognition of the agritourism industry and the analysis of tourists' satisfaction toward agricultural heritage in this regard. For many decades agriculture and agricultural activities contribute a lions' share to the economy of the nation. Furthermore, the agricultural activities and their demand increase due to the food safety and security right of every citizen, Population, urbanization, and globalization.

Agritourism was developed as a separate sector as a result of evolving lifestyles and visitor preferences and perceptions, as well as consideration for cultural heritage, natural environment, and sustainable growth. Agritourism initiatives are increasingly being viewed as a diversification tool for agricultural entrepreneurs as well as a means of rural economic assistance (Canovi, M. & Lyon, A, 2019). Agritourism is an enterprise that connects the economic, social, and environmental pillars of sustainability, and it is closely linked to local communities and their attitudes toward tourism (Sonnino, R. 2004) so it will undeniably be one of the solutions for rural areas. Agritourism can be seen as a creative and leveraging approach for farms (United Nations, 2020), providing cultural and recreational experiences for tourists, with many economic and non-economic advantages for producers, travellers, and societies (Nidumolu, R.; Prahalad, C.K.; & Rangaswami, M.R. 2009) with a strong focus on ecological, sustainable, and bio elements in all aspects of human activities, wellbeing, and the atmosphere, in a nutshell, biodiversity (Ko, D.W. & Stewart, W.P. 2002, Muresan, I.C. et al., 2016). Agritourism has the potential to promote new directions in sustainable rural development, with unique impacts on the environment, agricultural heritage, and economic growth (Jauhari, V. 2014; Jenkins, I. & Schröder, R. 2013).

The agricultural way of life (AWOL) is a mix of two words such as the 'way of life' and 'agriculture'; hence it is necessary to define the Agricultural way of life (AWOL) in a fractional manner to give meaning and values to this present paper. Veal (1993) defines lifestyle as "a group's or individual's personally and socially distinctive pattern of behavioural characteristics." According to his work, lifestyle consists of the following element such as activities/behaviour, beliefs, and demeanour; individuals; coherence; recognizability; group interaction; and choices. Other definitions of a person's or a group's way of life include their behaviours, values, and customs. A person's way of life was often regarded as a significant work, activity, or other part of their life that had an effect on them (Merriam-Webster, 2020). When someone's behaviours are described as a lifestyle, it means that they have been very habitual and important in their lives rather than doing or doing anything sporadically. This demonstrates that the farm activity discussed in this study is compatible with a way of life.

Agritourism in rural and mountainous terrain is becoming more prominent and is gaining popularity among tourists as a second vacation choice. (Salazar, A. 2018, Ceballos-Lascurain 1996). As a result, agritourism is not a recent development; what is new is the agricultural way of life that entertains the tourists in every stage of their visit and derives the tourist satisfaction and destination experience. Agriculture of way of life is a strategic sum of activities offered by the agritourism process in the rural and suburban settings and varies from country to country such as Italy, Austria, Switzerland, Germany, Denmark, Spain, the Netherlands, Belgium. In the form of visiting the vineyards, cheese-making process, olive tree farming, etc.

The concept of AWOL attracts and benefits the tourists in a variety of ways by strengthening its constituents such as enhancing natural and built infrastructure, smooth environmental management and active engagement, protection and conservation of natural resources, promotion of indigenous rural products, support for rural traditions and culture projects, youth empowerment, and sustainable community development (Sonnino, R. 2004). Many authors adopt the term "working farm," where tourism services are provided besides traditional agricultural activities (Santeramo, F.G.; Barbieri, C 2017; Tew, C.; Barbieri, C. 2012 & Karabati, S. et al., 2009). The agricultural way of life revolves around the availability of infrastructure in place to provide different services that meet the needs of the tourists. The authors stress that tourism services offered on a working farm must be tightly linked and complementary to the agricultural entrepreneur's operation (Sonnino, R. 2004 & Marques, H. 2006)

The agricultural way of life links with two ends. One is 'connected', and another one is 'complimentary'. The connection signifies the activities of agriculture with raw materials in the farm premises, and complimentary denotes that these activities can not be operated outside the farm premises. In the research sense, the various agricultural activities refer to the tourism services offered by the farmers and entrepreneurs within their farm, also allowing visitors to take part, directly or indirectly, in agricultural activities. In particular, Agritourism farms can include hospitality, meal preparation, farm tours, on-site processing of agricultural products, pick-your-own activities, and so on.

Most studies (Abrudan, I. & Turnock, D.A 1998), found that tourism combined with rural services and traditional materials would be an effective "tool" for revitalizing rural, mountainous areas. According to modern trends of rural development, agritourism is the right leverage to ensure sustainable growth of rural settlements (Ammirato, S. & Felicetti, A, 2014). It combines the fair and organized use of agricultural resources with the value addition of rural areas' cultural and naturalistic heritage. Nowadays, agricultural tourism is an inevitable trend in tourism growth. It generates economic benefits, especially in rural areas, but it also aids in preserving the natural environment. Fifteen years ago, agri-tourism was gaining popularity in Vietnam (Hau, 2017). However, agritourism in Vietnam has not yet grown to the same degree as it has in other countries in the region and globally. Hoi An is one of Vietnam's most well-known tourist destinations. For agritourism development, Tra Que Village is the most popular site among ecotourism destinations in Hoi An. However, there are still many problems in the village regarding the utilization and preservation of agricultural way of life

(AWOL) values in order to improve agritourism. This paper aims to find out the characteristics of Tra Que agricultural village and analyze the tourist's participation and satisfaction of various agricultural way of life(AWOL) activities to prove that AWOL plays a crucial role in an agritourism tourist attraction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourist attraction

In the context of different activities of agriculture way of life (AWOL) and its various attributes attract tourists to the particular destination, the present researchers strive to focus on the tourist attraction and its manifold dimensions. A tourist attraction must have three components: a nucleus, a tourist, and a marker (Leiper, 1990). On the other hand, a tourist attraction has been described as events, encounters, phenomena, or a sense or feeling of belonging that draws tourists with a desire to leave their home or workplace to be fulfilled (Ngwira &Kankhuni, 2018).

In his early works on attractions, Gunn (1972) asserted that there are no visitors or travel without attractions. The alternative is also valid, as "tourism attractions" exist because of tourists, and they are "made" and "marketed" as such because tourists are available (Lew, 1987). According to Hu and Wall (2005), "tourist attractions are an important component for successful tourism destination growth." Harris and Howard (1996) suggested a new concept of attractions, claiming that it (an attraction) may be a physical or cultural feature of a specific location capable of fulfilling tourists' specific leisure needs. They embody the notion that these components may be the aroma of nature, such as environment or history, or unique to a region, such as museums or performances. Hu and Wall (2005) offer a more succinct explanation, stating that an attraction is a permanent resource that can be natural or man-made, and whose primary objective of creation and maintenance is to draw visitors.

Further, it is essential to focus on the tourism destination attractiveness and the various attributes in the study of tourist attraction. Hence in this present paper, it is pertinent enough to emphasize on different activities, phenomena, experiences, feelings, combined as an agricultural way of life (AWOL), that motivate the tourists in agritourism destinations. The attractiveness of agritourism is needed to be realized by defining its various concepts from its evolution. In recent years, agritourism has emerged as a rapidly growing segment of the tourism industry. The idea was inspired by western economies, where this initiative began and then expanded to other developing nations. The terms 'agritourism', 'agrotourism', 'farm tourism', 'farm-based tourism', and 'rural tourism' is also used synonymously (McGehee, N.G.2007). Agritourism, according to Barbieri and Mshenga (2008), is "any tradition built on a working farm to draw tourists." Farm tours, farm stays, and trail visits are becoming more popular tourists motivations to experience something new. Agritourism is one of the world's fastest-growing travel trends, with farmers allowing visitors to visit their farms or agricultural lands for a short time and partake in a range of activities (Agritourism World, 2008). As a result, it is a rural-urban

collaboration with the ability to bridge the gap between farmers and urbanites for mutual benefit. In the same instance, Agri-tourism is regarded as a successful way of sustaining local economies since it provides farmers with a valuable source of income diversification (Santucci, F.M. 2017), as well as a method of contributing to the restoration of agricultural landscapes and cultural values (Cerutti, A.K. et al., 2016).

When it has been used interchangeably, it is worthy of defining agritourism in rural settings as a form of rural tourism (Lane, B. 2009) a hospitality activity, performed by agricultural entrepreneurs and their families, that first of all, must remain connected to farming activities and complementary to developing tourism activities, that completes the income from agricultural activity (Garcia, H.B. 2003). Agritourism can be divided into three categories. Furthermore, agritourism can be classified keeping in mind the tourists' attraction and experience and nature of the agritourism attributes like working on a farm are the first; the second is kind of experiences available to visitors both on and off the farm, and the third is the tourists' view when staying on the farm (Phillip S, Hunter C, & Blackstock K. A, 2010).

In the light vein of tourist attraction, AWOL is a bundle of tourist attractions in the form of natural and man-made products and services from those tourists derive the experience by active engagement. Hence the activities associated with agritourism are things to see, 'activities to do,' and 'farm products to buy' (Adam, 2001). For instance, conducting farm tours, bed, and breakfasts, tractor/ bullock cart rides, maintaining grapes, mangoes, and other horticulture farms, birds/animal zoos, running cottage industries for making jam, chutney, curd, yoghurt, etc., and many other activities may be operated with little additional investment in labour (Agritourism Development Organization in India, 2008). Agriculture is the core activity in many countries; hence rural life has been embedded with a variety of agricultural activities. Many researchers wisely throw lights on rural tourism, in line with agritourism, as more people want a new space to avoid the city's hectic daily life (Lane, B.2009). Rural tourism has exploded in popularity (Schmidt, C.M. et al., 2016). Rural tourism is made up of a variety of practices that are in tune with nature, the history of the rural region, and the way of life of the locals. (Kallmuenzer, A. et al., 2018).

According to Bernardo et al. (2007), the list of agritourism activities continues to grow and might include a variety of participants and educational and spectator experiences such as outdoor recreation (farm visits, fee fishing, photography, etc.), educational experiences (demonstration programs, training sessions, guided farm tours, cooking classes), entertainment activities (harvest festivals, barn dances, hay tunnels), hospitality services (farm stay, home-stay, bed, and breakfasts), and on-farm direct sales (U-pick operations, sales centres, roadside stands). The activities in the agricultural way of life are a proper blending of attractiveness as well as economic benefits both for tourists and stakeholders. Thus, agritourism, as an engineering strategy, assists farmers in developing new income streams based on agricultural products and services (Van Sandt, Low, & Thilmany, 2018). Tew and Barbieri (2012) investigated how agritourism would contribute to the long-term viability of businesses, the preservation of agricultural heritage, and the maximization of production by offering

leisure opportunities and economic benefits to locals. Several motivations associated with the farming way of life inspired the tourist attraction, including a relaxing and uplifting countryside encounter, an escape from a busy lifestyle, a pleasant learning experience for children, a family reunion, nostalgia for past farm and countryside life memories, farmer hospitality, lifelong associations created with farmers (Ingram,2002). Furthermore, Choo and Petrick (2014) revealed that visitors' happiness with social encounters during farm visits was linked to their return. Other than the social interactions, farming tradition and agricultural landscapes were important to visitors (Leco, Hernández & Campón, 2012).

Research gap

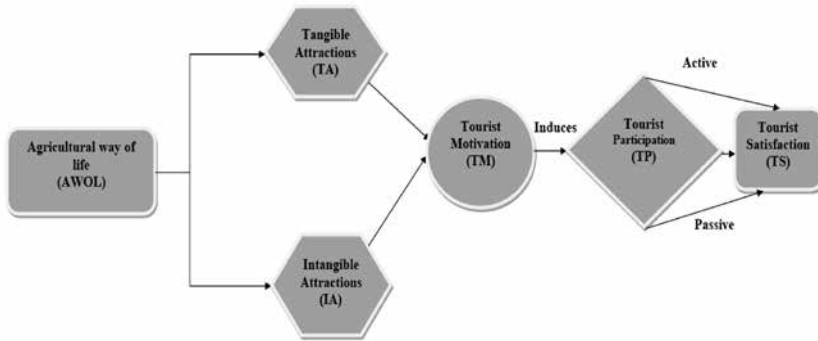
Attractiveness is a crucial perception of visitors who participate in tourism activities (Cheng, T.-M et al.,2013). AWOL attractiveness is the central factor impacting the motivation of the tourists and inhibits their active participation. Furthermore, AWOL is a prime agritourism attractiveness that may enhance the tourist's intention to revisit and key to deriving the tourist's satisfaction. Hence to identify the pertinent gap, the present author focuses on the existing attractiveness of different tourism destinations, such as the attractiveness of hot spring destinations (Lee, C.-F.et al., 2009) the attractiveness of exhibition destinations (Jin, X.et al., 2012) and the attractiveness of wellness destinations (Medina-muñoz, D.R.; Medina-muñoz, R.D.2014,) as well as their measurements and constitutive dimensions. However, little endeavours have been undertaken to date to consider the motivation behind the tourist attraction towards the agricultural way of life (AWOL). According to the agri-tourism literature, most studies have concentrated on the supply side of the industry and focus on entrepreneurial motivations (Tew, C.; Barbieri, C.2012). Few pieces of research have been conducted to examine tourists' reasons for visiting agri-tourism destinations. Some of them focus primarily on the leisure aspect of agri-tourism, such as spending time with family and experiencing natural scenery, smells, and sounds of nature. (Santeramo, F.G. &Barbieri, C 2017). Accurate to the best of knowledge concerned, there has been no research into the relationship between tourists' reasons for attracting towards agritourism through AWOL. Thus the current study strives to fill the gap by sufficiently contributing to the understating of AWOL as attractiveness for agritourism destinations.

Objectives of the study

- To study the various features and characteristics of the agricultural way of life(AWOL) in agritourism scenario.
- Investigate the level of tourists participation and their satisfaction towards the agricultural way of life (AWOL) in agritourism destinations.
- Also, identifying the significant influence of agricultural way of life(AWOL) affects tourists' engagement and satisfaction.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study



METHODOLOGY

Research design

Population

The study was conducted in Tra Que vegetable village, Quang Nam province, Viet Nam. The study population of Tra Que that, based on the latest data of the Statistical Office of Hoi An (SOHA, 2019), was 207 households.

Figure 2. Maps of Hoi An City and Tra Que Vegetable Village



(Sources: <http://www.uniotravel.com/tours/vietnam/hoi-an-tra-que-village-bike-tour.html> and <https://izitour.com/en/hoi-an-city-tour-tra-que-eco-farm-village>)

Sample size and sampling technique

Quantitative method:

This research used a quantitative method by applying the Taro Yamane formula. Theoretically, the sample size was 67 households as formula $n = \frac{N}{1+N e^2} = \frac{207}{1+207 \times 0.1^2} = 67$ households (n: Sample size, N: Number of Population, e: Level of precision). However, for research purposes, the sample size must be $73 + 73 \times 10\% = 74$ households. In reality, 71 local households took part in the research. Following that, a semi-structured group interview of 30 households was conducted to address the issues surrounding the agricultural way of life and tourist attraction.

The respondents for the study were chosen using a probability sampling procedure. Cluster sampling was used in this study. Then, in each hamlet, simple random sampling was used to ensure that different populations have equal chances of being selected.

Qualitative method:

The researcher considered a key informant as somebody sufficiently experienced and knowledgeable about the AWOL and agritourism in Tra Que village so that they could contribute to the necessary data of this study. The key informants (KIs) was interviewed individually during their most convenient time and place. Formal letters were sent to them in advance to ask for their approval for the said interview and inform them in advance about the discussion's subject matter. The flow of the interview was based upon a sub-topic generated earlier.

The Semi-structured interview (SSI) included three key informants who will compose ahead of the village, a Tra Que vegetable village manager and a director of a travel company who has been knowledgeable about the AWOL and agritourism in Tra Que village. In specific, the village headman gave information about the village and going-on activities as well as the difficulties they have been facing; the general manager of Tra Que village helped with some macro data such as government policy, the situation of development through years, and the planning in the future; and the director of a travel company that regularly takes visitors to Tra Que Vegetable Village provided information on the current situation of tourism exploitation in the village; the needs and desires of the visitors; as well as the company of the direction to exploit the agricultural tourism in Tra Que vegetable village in the future.

The researcher also conducted a group discussion, 20 households, by consulting with the villagers' opinions to help validate of data collected and guideline or recommendation for agritourism development at the end of data collection.

Data collection

During the data collection process for primary data, quantitative and qualitative approaches performed different activities. Secondary data was gathered for consultation from books, scholarly journals, and other documents.

A questionnaire survey, using the quantitative approach, was used to capture data from 71 households. It was structured to gather information about households' views on the study questions. After consulting with the advisor, the questionnaire was field-tested and updated. The qualitative approach consisted of a semi-structured interview with one group of 30 households engaged in agritourism and agriculture.

The qualitative approach was used to obtain aspects of the village's general agricultural way of life and more specific knowledge from village leaders and local government officials (the village manager).

Table 1. The keys informants of interviews

	Key informants	Age	Position	Date and time	
1	Ho Huu Chanh	35	Manager of Tra Que vegetable village	July 1, 2020	9.05 am -11.00 am
2	Trang Thanh Hung	56	Village headman	July 3, 2020	9.10 am – 11.15 am
3	Tran Dang Khoa	43	Director of Hoi An Eco Tour company	July 5, 2020	11.00 am – 1.30 pm

Data analysis

Descriptive statistical tools such as percentage, average, etc. were used to analyze and describe tourist response to the level of tourist satisfaction, then finding issues involving exploiting the agricultural way of life to develop tourism. The analysis was carried out using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS Inc., version 26)

RESULTS***Characteristics of the local way of life in Tra Que vegetable village******Handicrafts and traditional farming***

Tra Que is well-known for its farming, and they use their own patented technique of agro-production. They, for example, use river weeds to make manure, hand watering, and

conventional production tools for various stages of cultivation. According to the study, approximately 95 per cent of households cultivate vegetables using the conventional method. Using river weeds, in particular, helps to improve the nutrients and aromas of vegetables, eliminate pests, maintain soil fertility, and make vegetables healthier for consumers. As a result, they will grow a range of vegetable and herb varieties for local markets and supermarkets.

Mr Trang Thanh Hung, the Headman of Tra Que Village, said: "Currently, Tra Que Village has about 190 among 207 households planting 18.5 hectares of organic vegetables, with over 20 kinds of vegetables such as cabbage, lettuce, onion, water spinach, sweet potato. And herbs such as mints, basil, coriander, marjoram, and perilla to supply the market".

Visitors will relax and enjoy themselves, practice physically and mentally with agricultural practices, and observe a farmer's life nearby. Furthermore, conventional and organic agriculture production combined with tourist - experience is a sustainable development that many communities use to maximize economic gains and community development. As a result, agricultural activities are one of the reasons that draw tourists. According to the survey, the main factors for tourists visiting Tra Que are the locals' unique farming habits, the scenery, and their extensive indigenous agricultural skills. The level of satisfaction among tourists who engaged in agricultural activities was exceptionally high.

Cultural traditions can also be seen in other villages and nations. However, separate localities within the same country or between countries will manipulate different natural and cultural values depending on the opportunities available to produce their goods. Tra Que village would be no exception. Tra Que village has created major advantages that draw more visitors than other villages surrounding it due to its available potentials in nature, heritage, and convenient location with traditional organic crop growing methods such as using certain typical algae in the river to fertilize crops.

Some families also make traditional farm-production tools for the entire family, such as woven bamboo baskets, "gau nan" "gau xoa," bamboo rakes, and so on. In particular, tourists love the "gau nan," the "gau xoa" and weaving bamboo baskets." "gau nan" was once widely used, but seldom used rather than "gau xoa." Tra Que is a vegetable village that remains traditional 'gau nan' and 'gau xoa' for watering vegetables, whilst the other village has new watering techniques. When visitors hold "gau xoa" or "gau nan" on their shoulders and gather vegetables in woven bamboo baskets, they encounter a very traditional, imbued with Viet Nam's rich culture. Visitors have been shocked, excited, and amused by the practice of bringing water and watering vegetables. These events are among the draws for visitors, as they help them learn more about the local way of life. This is also one of the practices exploited by travel agencies as a stop on rural discovery tours.

Historical site

Tra Que has not only been recognized as a vegetable farming village but has also been maintained for a long time. The ancient tomb of Nguyen van Dien and the ancient water well of Champa are reminders of the village's long history. In tandem with other operations, the monuments are now seen in agro-tourism tours.

The phase of settlement and the long-term history of growth in a given region, linked with the living practices of local people, are proof of historical and cultural artefacts. At the same time, these artefacts are a tourist resource containing rich human values that require exploitation, preservation and promotion.

Gastronomy

One of the attractions for many visitors is the local cuisine. They went there to try their hand at making "banh xeo" - a rice pancake, "goi hoa chuo" - banana flower salad, "Tom huu" - shrimp, spice, and pork tied together with spring onion, "My Quang" - Quang Noodles, and "nuoc e" - basil tea. Many of the localities and specialities that make up local cuisine are represented, and all of the ingredients used in the cooking are derived from the Tra Que village.

The local cuisine has produced typical, conventional dishes that reflect the local culture's spirit, despite differences in natural conditions, ingredients, and cooking habits. As a result, each village, city, and nation has its culinary quintessences. This makes a difference in cuisine, inspiring and enticing visitors and adding to a community's tourism growth process.

Festival and beliefs

The preservation of Tra Que vegetable village's distinctive traditional culture contributes to the residents' spiritual wellbeing. Aside from worshipping family ancestors, the villagers still worship their gardens on occasion, and they worship Gods who influence their lives in many temples in the village. Ngoc princess temple, Nguyen Van family temple, Five elements temple, Local communal temple, and God of the soil temple are among the temples that can now be visited.

The "Cau Bong" Festival in Tra Que village attracts many participants and visitors, is one of the main festivals of agriculture. The festival is celebrated for the sake of fair weather, a good harvest, and fruitful and happy life.

Habits and behaviours

During the SSI of a community of people, one of the fascinating features of their way of life is that they have to take care of their gardens every day and harvest their vegetables in the afternoon or early in the morning. As a result, people would return and spend nearly all of

their time on the farm, where the atmosphere is lively and full of fun. They still treat people kindly in order to keep their good fortune in their work. They say that their smiles, hospitality, and friendliness are among the reasons that keep visitors coming back for more.

The participation level in agro-tourism activities of local tourists

There are many offering activities/service for the tourists. Therefore, they can experience different activities on a daily trip. However, some activities are not accessible to the tourists, either Vietnamese tourists and foreigners. Almost half of whole respondents (48/94 responses) have ever participated partially in the growing-vegetable experience, then the other activities such as making rice-paper noodles/crackers, riding water buffaloes, cooking class, cycling around village etc. In terms of full-time participation, cooking class (42/83 responses) and cycling tour around Tra Que village (48/88 responses) are activities tourist would like to participate in full-time the most, then making rice-paper noodles/crackers and riding water buffaloes.

Besides, there are many unpopular activities that tourists less participated in, such as weaving mat, cooking Vietnamese rice wine, transplanting/harvesting rice, weaving things from bamboo. Those are unpopular activities because there are just organize in a certain period, such as transplanting rice, or only at a few specific households remain these jobs. The others do not, for instance, few households produce traditional rice wine bamboo-woven works.

Comparing with the study of Tran and Lan (2012) about foreign tourists, the result is not far different. Following their study, 86.1% of guests participate in tourism activities in the vegetable village, 98.3% of guests enjoyed participating in these activities. With the number of activities in the vegetable village, 76.7% of guests thought it was an abundance of good activities, 15% thought it was just enough, and 8.3% felt it was not sufficient. With existing activities, up to 95.1% of the reviews are excellent or excellent. (Tran & Lan, Developing Tra Que vegetable village with tourism in Hoi An city, Quang Nam province, 2012). Table 3 below are the result of 100 local tourists survey demonstrate for the remarks below.

"At present, Tra Que has 12 restaurants, 06 homestays, and 05 villas providing services to tourism. Most of the homestays, villas have tourist services related to AWOL activities. Some local restaurants can also organize experienced farming activities if they have a reservation in advance, so they could join the agricultural activities with better conditions and quality. In the village, there are various tour activities and experiences for tourist such as tours as "One day to be a farmer" (6 hours), tours of visiting craft villages (5 hours), tours sightseeing combined learning how to cook traditional local foods (5 hours)", Mr. Ho Huu Chanh, Manager of Tra Que vegetable village said.

However, Mr. Ho Huu Chanh also shared that "most visitors visit Tra Que through tours provided from travel companies with short visit time (30 minutes), spent little time experiencing agro-tourism; In addition, a large number of visitors just go cycling through the vegetable village, not participating in the experience of agritourism.

Table 2. Level of local tourist's participation in agricultural activities

Participation level Activities	Not participation(1)		Partial participation(2)		Full participation(3)		Mean	Median	Mode	Total	
	Responses		Responses		Responses					Valid	Missing
	N	Per cent	N	Per cent	N	Per cent					
Transplanting vegetables	19	9.4%	48	18.3%	27	9.0%	2.09	2.00	2	94	6
Weaving mat	24	11.8%	26	9.9%	24	8.0%	2.00	2.00	2	74	26
Cooking wine	28	13.8%	20	7.6%	26	8.7%	1.97	2.00	1	74	26
Making rice-paper noodles/crackers	14	6.9%	28	10.6%	36	12.0%	2.28	2.00	3	78	22
Rice transplanting / harvesting	28	13.8%	22	8.4%	26	8.7%	1.97	2.00	1	76	24
Weaving things from bamboo	25	12.3%	20	7.6%	27	9.0%	2.03	2.00	3	72	28
Cooking class	15	7.4%	26	9.9%	42	14.0%	2.33	3.00	3	83	17
Cycling tour around											
Tra Que village	14	6.9%	26	9.9%	48	16.1%	2.39	3.00	3	88	12
Riding water buffaloes	23	11.3%	27	10.3%	31	10.4%	2.10	2.00	3	81	19
Others	13	6.4%	20	7.6%	12	4.0%	1.98	2.00	2	45	55
Total	203	100.0%	263	100.0%	299	100.0%					

5.3 Evaluation of Quality of AWOL's activities by tourists

Table 3. Evaluation of Quality of AWOL's activities by tourists in Tra Que vegetable village (1: Very bad, 5: Very good)

Units of evaluation	1		2		3		4		5		Missing		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Services (Local tour guides, etc)	0	0%	0	0%	32	32%	39	39%	26	26%	3	3%	100	100%
Agricultural activities	0	0%	0	0%	18	18%	52	52%	27	27%	3	3%	100	100%
Infrastructure	0	0%	1	1%	32	32%	43	43%	21	21%	3	3%	100	100%
Communication & language skills (guides and the local)	0	0%	1	1%	20	20%	48	48%	27	27%	4	4%	100	100%
Villager's attitude and behavior	0	0%	1	1%	15	15%	51	51%	29	29%	4	4%	100	100%
Cultural activities and landscape	0	0%	2	2%	24	24%	48	48%	22	22%	4	4%	100	100%

Table 4. Evaluation of Quality of services of Tra Que vegetable village (1: Very bad, 5: Very good) (Cont)

	Local tourguide service	Agricultural activities	Infrastructure	Communication and language skills	Attitude and behaviour	Cultural activities and landscape
Mean	3.94	4.09	3.87	4.05	4.13	3.94
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	4	4	4	4	4

Table 4 shows that almost all visitors agreed that the quality of products and services in Tra Que is fair. Notably, more than half of the respondents asserted that agricultural activities and the attitude of farmers toward tourists are pretty good. The number of respondents who evaluated good and more than good is more than one-fourth. They also thoroughly assessed enjoyable tour guide services and guides, villagers, and staff on serving agro-tourism. Nobody thinks the agro-tourism in the village is of low quality. However, only a few of the respondents feel bad about the quality of infrastructure, communication & language skills of guides, and specialization in organizing tours. In general, agro-tourism in Tra Que is highly appreciated by the excellent quality of activities and services they serve to tourists. The villagers and their activities accompanied by well-organized farm activities contributed to the quality of agro-tourism in the village.

5.4 Local tourist's satisfaction

Table 5. Local tourist's satisfaction level (1-Very unsatisfied, 5-Very satisfied)

Satisfaction level Services/activities	1		2		3		4		5	
	Responses		Responses		Responses		Responses		Responses	
	N	Per cent	N	Per cent	N	Per cent	N	Per cent	N	Per cent
Massage service	2	25.0%	1	6.3%	16	14.2%	25	9.2%	5	8.5%
Homestay	1	12.5%	1	6.3%	9	8.0%	32	11.8%	8	13.6%
Restaurant	1	12.5%	1	6.3%	11	9.7%	45	16.6%	8	13.6%
Agricultural activities/tours	2	25.0%	1	6.3%	14	12.4%	37	13.7%	12	20.3%
Tourguide service	1	12.5%	2	12.5%	22	19.5%	45	16.6%	8	13.6%
Tourist supported service	1	12.5%	5	31.3%	17	15.0%	46	17.0%	9	15.3%
Infrastructure (car park...)	0	0%	5	31.3%	24	21.2%	41	15.1%	9	15.3%
Total	8	100.0%	16	100.0%	113	100.0%	271	100.0%	59	100.0%

Table 6. Local tourist's satisfaction level (1-Very unsatisfied, 5-Very satisfied) (Cont)

Services/activities	Valid (N)	Missing (N)	Mean	Median	Mode
Massage service	49	51	3.61	4.00	4
Homestay	51	49	3.88	4.00	4
Restaurant	66	34	3.88	4.00	4
Agricultural activities/tours	67	33	3.79	4.00	4
Tourguide service	78	22	3.73	4.00	4
Tourist supported service	78	22	3.73	4.00	4
Infrastructure (Car park...)	79	21	3.68	4.00	4

Table 6 shows of tourists' satisfaction level of 100 respondents who have visited Tra Que. Most tourists who have ever used services/activities are quite satisfied with what they experienced. Approximately half of the respondents answered that they are pretty confident with more agricultural activities, tours, and homestay. More than half of them stated that they are satisfied and very delighted about the quality of restaurants, tour guides, tourist supported services and infrastructure. However, some respondents also indicated that tour guide service and tourist support services are not excellent, and they felt unsatisfied.

Using Paired sample T-Test to verify the difference of average value (mean) between two groups of quality of agricultural activities (scale from 1 to 5) and Satisfaction level of farming activities and tours (scale from 1 to 5) in the same total group 100 people answered. Research results found no difference in the opinion between the quality of agricultural activities and tourist satisfaction level in terms of agricultural activities and tours ($p=0.003>0.001$) at a significant level of 0.001. Thus, there is no difference in average value (mean) between the quality of agricultural activities and tourists' satisfaction level of agricultural activities and tours. Accordingly, most of the respondents said that the service quality of agricultural experience activities was quite good (mean of 4.21), and their satisfaction level was average (mean of 3.79).

In general, in this study, more than half of the respondents (57%) are satisfied with what they experienced in the village, and the number of respondents who feel very satisfied is 17% of the total. On the other hand, there are still one-fourths of them (26%) are still not satisfied. This result is similar to Tran and Lan's research result about foreign tourists satisfaction (Tran & Lan, 2012), Trung & Mohanty (2020).

According to the sharing of Mr. Tran Van Khoa (Khoa Tran) - Director of Jack Tran Tours Company, he said that based on statistical data of SOHA in 2019, the number of Vietnamese tourists visiting the vegetable village accounts for a small number, while international tourists need to visit accounts for a significant number. And agro-ecological tourism accounts for a considerable number of both types of tourists in Hoi An. Most tourists prefer to visit Tra Que vegetable village because being in the role of a farmer is unique and exciting; The food is delicious and unique; the beauty of the vegetable village landscape and friendly people here. However, tourists are increasingly demanding high quality of service, experience as well as diverse tourism products. This requires travel companies to exploit the characteristics of traditional agricultural lifestyles, combine and create new tours, new products to meet the increasing needs of tourists.

Trang Thanh Hung, the village headman, also added some points. He said, "If they don't have appropriate actions, some types of algae will be at risk of being lost as the De Vong river has become shallowed and polluted, and this is affecting the conservation and development of traditional agriculture. Besides, some households lack production land, difficult to find product outputs, unstable prices of agricultural produces, market competition, and affected households' vegetable production, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic. Many families

do not have direct benefits from tourism, but the indirect benefits, through ticketing for sight-seeing tours, are not small. Developing agritourism is one of the necessary methods for preserving and developing the village. However, the local people do not have the capital, qualifications, and knowledge needed to develop tourism. So, the possibility of local households for developing their own agricultural tourism currently is not high enough. They cannot afford to develop agri tourism without appropriate help and support from the government such as capital source, knowledge, and skills.

Tourist's reflection after visiting Tra Que

Table 7. Tourist's reflection after visiting Tra Que

Tourist's reflection	N	Percent
Disappointed	2	2.0
As expected	49	49.0
More than expected	42	42.0
Missing (No answer)	7	7.0
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100.0</i>

Reflection of tourists after visiting Tra Que on the comparison with the number of tourists who have ever participated in agritourism before gave a positive direction. Following the result of the survey, 42 out of 100 tourists (42%), who have ever participated in agro-activities, got more expected than before the last time, and 49 respondents (49%) felt as their expected, and only two people (2%) felt disappointed.

Mr. Ho Huu Chanh, Manager of Tra Que Vegetable Village, shared, "The tourism development orientation in Tra Que is promoting the type of agritourism associated with agricultural production. Striving Tra Que to become an attractive tourists site and unique agricultural tourism destination of the city. Soon, when Co Co river is dredged and opened from Da Nang to Hoi An, Tra Que village will be included in ecotourism to become a destination of eco-agriculture tours, attracting a large number of tourists who prefer this type of tourism. Besides, currently Hoi An city submits "a project to develop community-based tourism in Tra Que Vegetable Village towards sustainable tourism", These will surely attract a huge number of visitors in the coming years".

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Tra Que's way of life is now widely esteemed thanks to the long-standing and well-preserved Tra Que village. This is clearly shown by agricultural production tools, such as typical organic crop cultivation practices that have been well maintained. In the face of accelerated

commercialization, globalization, and industrialization, Tra Que vegetable village preserves its traditional way of growing fresh, high-quality vegetables, which is genuinely important.

Tra Que's rural lifestyle is diverse. This is expressed in a wide range of farming traditions, religious values, and cuisines. The warmth and friendliness of the indigenous people and the high attraction for visitors to participate in tourism activities in the village have created a high attraction for visitors to participate in tourism activities in the village. The annual rise in the number of visitors visiting Tra Que vegetable village attests to this.

The distinctive characteristics of the inhabitants of Que tea vegetable village's lifestyle and practices have helped in drawing visitors to engage in agricultural tourism. According to research findings, many tourists engage full-time or part-time in agricultural tourism activities in Tra Que vegetable village. This demonstrates agricultural tourism's appeal and the potential to apply agricultural lifestyles to the locality's agricultural tourism production. According to the results of the study, the majority of tourists' evaluations of agricultural lifestyles and activities related to agricultural lifestyles and local tourism activities were good or very good. This shows the high standard of agri-tourism activities focused on the local way of life. Agriculture, villager attitudes and actions, cultural practices, and landscape must be among the most prominent. This result is also consistent with the study of Trung and Simaraks (2020) on attracting tourists through agricultural lifestyles and attracting Vietnamese tourists in the term of agricultural tourism development.

The diversity of agriculture-based tourism activities associated with high-quality agri-tourism facilities and activities has an impact on visitor satisfaction. This is illustrated by respect for visitors' expectations as well as their level of satisfaction with agri-tourism activities. More precisely, more than two-thirds of visitors were pleased with the above facilities, and the rest of the visitors reported that their experiences of Tra Que were as good as or better than their expectations. It can be concluded that the diversity and unique features of the agricultural lifestyle of Tra Que vegetable villagers have greatly influenced the participation of tourists and the level of satisfaction of visitors when participating in the activity. Agricultural lifestyle is one of the crucial factors determining the attraction of tourists to Tra Que vegetable village. Local authorities and residents should focus on the visitor's experience to enhance agri-tourism services based on an agricultural lifestyle. This is a decisive factor for the sustainable agricultural tourism development of Tra Que vegetable village in the future.

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An Investigation about the Interrelationship of Student-Teacher in Higher Hospitality Management and Tourism Education in Cyprus

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ABSTRACT

This study is intended to investigate the interrelationship of students- in private Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education in Cyprus. The researchers of this study formulated three main themes, especially sought to identify the qualities of a good teacher, positive relationship with a teacher, characteristics of caring academic demonstrate, and attributes of a good professor/lecturer. The purpose of this was to investigate the effects of student perceptions of their college teacher's interpersonal teaching behaviors on student achievement and effective learning outcomes. Analyses were conducted to investigate the effects of differing student perceptions of their teacher's interpersonal teaching behaviors. A qualitative approach was employed, whereby face-to-face and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 100 students in private tourism higher education in Cyprus. Using thematic analysis, the study concludes that teachers must develop positive academic relationships and establish close rapport with their students to facilitate the learning process.

Keywords: Academics/Teachers, Students, Tourism Colleges, an Analytical Analysis, Interpersonal Relationships, and Cyprus.

INTRODUCTION

Tertiary education's life is stressful and not easy, anxiety produced for the majority of students is due to a variety of factors such as social and academic competition, especially the separation from their families and the adaptation to a new educational system. Important researches have shown that students' perception of their teacher's interpersonal behavior is an important factor in explaining their cognitive and affective outcomes (Wubbels & Levy, 1993, Brekelmans, Wubbels & den Brok, 2002; Henderson, 1995; Rickards, 1998; den Brok, 2001). Several educationalists suggest that teachers ought to intentionally engender a sense of "community" (Diekelmann, 2002, Dunne, 1993; Palmer, 1999). Students should be invited with the help of words and actions to a greater openness of relationship as this facilitates a

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sense of kinship, with a cooperative spirit. Emphasis on the importance of teacher expectations over the past several decades supports the notion that teachers' attitudes and actions are critical to students' academic progress. Moreover, research on "*teacher caring*" (Noddings 1996), "*effective teachers*" (Ladson-Billings 1994), and "*cultural sensitivity in teaching*" (Delpit 1995) are examples of influential work emphasizing the centrality of teachers' attitudes and actions toward students to whether the connection is academically productive.

The importance of the lecturer/professor and student relationship has remained crucial to the educational process from many different directions and perspectives (Freire, 2003; Purpel & McLaurin, 2004). For others, the significant aspect of the relationship is what happens between the teacher and the student (Hartrick Doane, 2002). The important role of rapport and relational practice is "*fundamental to this human-centered process*" (Paterson & Zderad, 1975). Indeed, some argue that the teacher-student relationship is more important than the content of education (Bennett, 1997; Palmer, 1998; Tompkins, 2005). The teacher-student relationship helps to engage students in college, influence their motivation and learning, and avoid problematic behaviors in college. Hospitality Institutions of higher education are more multigenerational than ever before, where faculty and students create a multicultural academic society. The Hospitality higher education present in the modern era brings unique challenges to the engagement of students, creating a multi-dimensionality learning environment, including positive interactions and relationships, with positive effects on both students and faculty themselves (e.g., on teachers' positive emotions; Gerda Hagenauer & Simone Volet, 2014). A constructive relationship between an academic and students is the driving factor for a higher level of content acquisition (Pascarella and Terenzini 2005) and ethical and psychosocial development (S. Karau and M. Komorraj, 2010).

Due to the above-mentioned statement, it is significant to study teacher-student cooperation and relationship for teachers not to have a concerned disposition towards their students believe in their students' ability to learn, and establish a harmonious relationship with their students. Because, these relationships exert a stronger influence on personality development, encourage and nurture student motivation, can enhance the learning experience, and boost student achievement. The researcher's history with teaching in higher education has evolved to include an innovator role, reflecting over 25 years of work in hospitality and tourism faculties, teaching, consulting students, researching and practicing this field to become cognizant and competent in applying international hospitality informatics to education and practice.

Several previous pieces of research were focused on two critical aspects of the learning environment in higher tourism education (see Gerda Hagenauer & Simone Volet, 2014; Pascarella and Terenzini 2005; S. Karau and M. Komorraj, 2010): the student-teacher relationship and the communication between them. In this study, attention was given to the interpersonal relationship quality between teachers and students in tourism colleges in Cyprus.

The purpose of this study is to identify the quality of a good teacher through investigating the

interpersonal relationship quality between teachers and students. The specific objectives to be achieved in the research are:

1. To identify the qualities and attributes of a good professor/teacher.
2. To identify the positive-negative relationship between teachers and students.
3. To identify the characteristics which a caring academic demonstrate.

These questions are approached by studying the general trend of the development of student perceptions, the generalize ability of this trend across classrooms, and the relation of student perceptions related to each moment of interaction in classrooms.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Much emphasis has been placed on identifying what effective teaching is and how teachers, who are unequivocally at the center of the educational process, can equip effective teaching approaches. It is important to recognize that the teacher's teaching practices and approaches have a major impact, negative or positive, on student learning (Kember, 1998). Defining the effectiveness of teaching practice is a difficult task and there is much controversy over this term since "effectiveness" is a measurable component and can vary considerably from institution to institution and from country to country.

A good learning environment is the product of an honest piece of communication. For this reason, it is important for faculty to create a communication environment based on respect, love, tolerance, and trust in their classes. Therefore, they contribute to educating successful, happy, social, optimistic, and creative individuals (Selimhocaoglu, 2004). According to Cullingford (1995), an effective teacher has to have five qualities embedded in his teaching practice; integrity, learning, organization, communication, and humor.

Many researchers define the effective teaching style as those actions, interactions, and communications of the teacher with his/her students that are associated with positive student achievement and effective outcomes. Anderson (1959), in his literature review, suggested that teaching styles are arranged on a continuum from authoritarian at one end to democratic to laissez-faire at the other end and reported a direct correlation between democratic teaching methods and cognitive and affective achievement.

It was hypothesized that teachers and students form a community of learners who engage in social dialog and produce shared knowledge. Teachers were seen as facilitators who guide and enrich students' learning interests and activities, with students serving as co-contributors to the training process. Research indicates that caring and supporting faculty members who express concern for their students and act as mentors confidently can contribute to students' capacity to beat personal vulnerabilities and environmental adversities (Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1994). The methods to operationally define the theoretical construct of effectiveness-teaching styles haven't been stable within the literature (see Bennett, 1976; Flanders, 1960,

1964, 1965, 1970 1970a; Good, Biddle & Brophy 1975; Haige & Schmidt, 1956; Medley, 1977, 1979; Rosenshine, 1970; Stalling 1976; Soar, 1968; Tuckman, 1970; Veldman & Brophy, 1974; Wispe, 1951).

Instruments have now been developed to identify a good learning environment, for all levels: elementary and secondary level, tertiary institutions, using the School and University Classroom Environment Inventory (CUCEI) (Fraser, Treagust & Dennis 1986); computer-assisted instruction classrooms (Teh & Fraser 1994) and teacher interpersonal behavior within the classroom (Wubbels & Levy 1993; Fisher & Kent 1997; Rickards & Fisher 1998). Consequently, there is now a spread of well-tested and validated survey instruments available to teachers and researchers.

One of the advantages of the development in students' learning environments can cause improved student performance within the classroom (Fraser 1995; Fraser, Giddings & McRobbie 1995). All higher education teachers should play an equally significant role through solid and positive relationships with the scholars also as modeling positive socialization skills. The teacher's role in creating an environment and building relationships encouraging learning goes beyond the regular academic duties to incorporate the supply of additional support, help, and care. By developing positive interactions with their students, teachers can reduce the impact of certain fundamental factors that negatively impact a student's academic achievement.

All of the previous research on how relationships are formed and what determines the quality of those relationships is highly relevant to intervention efforts. Of particular concern are disruptive, aggressive, resistant students who present a particular challenge to many teachers. Teachers' interactions with these students are sometimes critical and punitive (Coie & Koepl, 1990) and are often characterized by high conflict, poor communication, and low affection. (Itskowitz, Navon, & Strauss).

Marland (1992) pointed out the importance of "teacher knowledge" and cites a considerable number of researchers who have coined terms that represent teacher thinking. Throughout history, hundreds of studies have been conducted on the student-teacher relationship, which takes place during the teaching-learning experience, and how professional life is interpreted and acted upon from the student's perspective.

Teachers in Higher Education have both a direct and an indirect influence on students. Thus, they contribute to the learning environment of these students. For example, academic experience and knowledge, behaviors, teaching styles, and student perceptions of the learning environment have been studied and found to be related to student learning (Bennet, 1976; Brophy & Good, 1986; Fraser et al., 1991). Specifically, in Hospitality Management higher education the role of the relationship between students and their lecturers should represent an important component of students' education.

The purpose of this paper is to reveal the factors which lead to a good student-teacher relationship during academic education in the field of Hotel, Tourism, and/or Hospitality management,

not only during holistic learning (presentations, assignments, discussions, and projects) but also during the experiential education of the students, to increase their motivation, self-confidence, and critical thinking. “Without academic intervention and support, student awareness of employability and careers services facilities is unlikely to increase.” (A Handbook for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, p.99). The future of Higher education is not just to prepare the students in their jobs with new knowledge of the world of work; the responsibilities of teachers in higher education are to prepare “ active, responsible and engaged citizens”. (The future of education and skills- Education 2030, p.3)

OVERVIEW OF HIGHER TOURISM EDUCATION IN CYPRUS

The Island of Cyprus is not only based on tourism business but represents a popular destination for Tertiary Education among international students. Nowadays Cyprus has the world's highest number of graduates' students per capita, and this creates a norm competition for all jobs in the public and private sector. The Tertiary Education in Cyprus is committed to developing and maintaining higher international standards for all levels: BA, MA, and PhD. Special emphasis is placed on research and innovation. Cyprus offers many fields of study and research to all students, encourages young talents by allowing them to develop scientifically -practically, and theoretically. Both private and public institutions and the study programs are recognized not only in the EU but also internationally, which has made Cyprus a real attraction for a large number of students.

Higher Education Institutions in Cyprus are represented by Public and Private Universities, Private Colleges, and Private Institutions of Higher Education. The Department of Tertiary Education of the Ministry of Education and Culture offers great importance to Quality Assurance for Higher Education Institutions in Cyprus. Nowadays, 43 private Institutions of Tertiary Education are registered in Cyprus, with the Ministry of Education and Culture. These Institutions offer academic and vocational programs of study at all levels- from undergraduate to postgraduate levels and all programs are accredited by the Cyprus Agency of Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education. The private Colleges in Cyprus have been established to meet the demand for higher education especially for the young generation who have financial limitations and do not have the opportunity to study abroad. These Colleges teach in Greek and/ or English and are flourishing and gaining profit. The majority of all students of these five Colleges are mainly from abroad (90% from all registered students); India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Nepal, Russia, China, and only 10% from Cyprus.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Approach and Sample

In this study a qualitative approach was employed, whereby face-to-face interviews were conducted with the targeted sample. Five private different Colleges from Cyprus participated in

this research: College of Tourism and Hotel Management, Nicosia, “KES” College Nicosia, “Larnaca College” in Larnaca city, “InterNapa College, Sotera, and “Atlantis” College” the Newest College in Liopetri village.

In the beginning, 120 participants have been contacted as they gave the researchers initial approval to participate in this study. The participants involved in this research were from Hotel and Tourism Management, Hospitality Management, Culinary Arts, and Business Administration Management (BA and MA). A qualitative approach was chosen, whereby face-to-face interviews were conducted with the target sample via semi-structured interviews. In this study, the students had the opportunity for critical reflection, recall of events, and comparisons with feelings then and now - all of which further contributed to the shaping of their ideas, theories, and views of the relationship with their teachers. However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, only 100 interviews (N = 100) were completed. This was done over two months and yielded a sample of 100 research participants (see table 1).

Each interview was in two main parts; the first part related to general information, this included questions related to demographic data such as interviewee place, level of the student education, gender diversity of students (male or female), and students' age groups (see Table 2 for additional details). The second part of the interview comprised of study questions. This part mainly covered four groups which were sought to identify the qualities of a good teacher, positive relationship with a teacher, characteristics of caring academic demonstrate and attributes of a good professor/lecturer. The interviews were conducted personally by the researchers; the interview schedule was developed based on some previous studies and reports (Dewhurst et al., 2007; Boada et al., 2012; Kadiresan et al., 2015; Paudyal, 2019). Moreover, the interview schedule was also updated after discussions with some experts in the area.

Table 1: Distribution of categories over colleges

Name of College	InterNapa	KES	Atlantis	Larnaca College”	COTHM, Nicosia	Total
Number of Participants	20	10	20	20	30	100

Instrument Analysis Research

Before discussing students' expectations, a clear point of reference for what high and low expectations look like is needed. Studies of students who have higher expectations show the following patterns: a warm positive attitude toward teachers, the provision of more difficult coursework, frequent opportunities for students to respond, and positive feedback with their teachers. Students with lowered expectations frequently exhibit differentiated behaviors towards perceived “*low achievers*” such as less class participation/time for answers, giving incorrect answers, giving overly critical feedback, and less effort to study. Research question

one deals with the aspect of developing or acquiring an instrument that could measure oral communication. It is capable of measuring oral communication skills needed to be ascertained.

Data interpretation and presentation

To analyze qualitative data, a textual and thematic analysis technique was utilized to handle and screen the data, then conduct a comprehensive analysis (Al-Weshah, 2019b). Also, a cross-interview analysis technique was used to develop different themes based on the interviews (Al-Weshah, 2018). The results were handled qualitatively using previously determined fields for discussion. The interpretation of the interpersonal relationship quality between teachers and students is discussed in depth to raise different issues that could measure oral communication skills needed to be ascertained.

In presenting the findings, great care has been taken to ensure that where a quotation is used, this is done to illustrate the main thrust of the analysis and bring clarity to the concepts being represented. On the few occasions where a quotation represents an atypical or idiosyncratic view, this is made clear. When presenting quotes, the interview number is shown at the top of each quote. The participants' own words are presented verbatim, using direct quote marks. However, there is some clarification to ensure normal speech. This is not considered to have any detrimental effect.

Interview format

The instrument used to collect student perceptions of teachers' interpersonal teaching behaviors was the semi-structured interview based on teachers' interaction and co-operation with the students. The researchers explained to students the goal of the interview is to determine the relationship between teacher and student, and the ability of a teacher to effectively communicate to his/her students in the classroom. Respondents were also informed that the data would be used to promote and improve professional education. Each interview covers the same questions.

In the first phase, the researchers explained and clarified to all students that their answers are very important and helpful to develop the relationship with the faculty members. This represents all the essential characteristics in the real actions of the students, as it is essential to understand their opinion about what they think to be fundamental in a good teacher. The interview format also includes a list with the attributes of interpersonal teacher behavior, important to characterize the teacher's cooperation with the students.

It was very important to explain and clarify to all participants that the main objectives of this research are:

- to improve the interrelationship and the communication between the students and their lecturers,

- how important is the influence of trusting relationships in higher education between students and lecturer,
- and how the positive relationship can enhance students' engagement in their learning and education process.

The interview was administered to every regular student, during class time, in the same manner, during their normal 150-minute block schedule. There was no time limit as there was usually no time limit in writing. Before each data collection event, all students were informed that their responses were confidential and would not affect their grades. They were further assured that their teachers would never see any of their responses or individual scores.

FINDINGS

Demographic data of interviewees

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. The following table provides a representation of the interviewees' demographic data. As shown in table 2, 60% of the interviewees (60) participants) were male, while 40% of them were females (40 participants). In terms of the education level, 70% of the total samples were BA degree students (70) and only 30% were MA degree students (30). In terms of students' courses, hotel and tourism management courses came first with 40%; other courses were equally represented 20% for each.

Table 2: Interviewees / Sample characteristics

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	60	60%
Female	40	40%
Education Level	(BA or MA)	
BA	70	70%
MA	30	30%
Courses	(BA and MA).	
Hotel and Tourism Management	40	40%
Hospitality Management	20	20%
Arts and Business	20	20%
Administration Management	20	20%

Analytical framework

The interviewees were asked the same questions. Based on data screening and thematic analysis, the study came up with four main themes specifically sought to identify the qualities of a good teacher, positive relationship with a teacher, demonstrate characteristics of a caring academic, and attributes of a good professor/lecturer. These themes are analyzed in detail using a cross-interview analysis approach (Al-Weshah, 2019a; Al-Weshah, 2019b).

Sought to identify the qualities of a good teacher.

The interviewees were asked to identify the qualities of a good teacher; their answers are shown in the following table.

Table 3: identify the qualities of a good teacher.

Identify the qualities of a good teacher.	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this need
To be friendly	1, 4, 5, 6, 11, 13, 14, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 27, 31, 33, 34, 42, 45, 50, 55	20
To know very well the content	1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 30, 32, 33, 35, 38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 50, 52, 54, 55, 57, 58, 60, 62, 63, 68, 70, 71, 73, 74, 75, 77, 78, 80, 87, 88, 90, 91, 94, 96, 97	52
To explain the contents well	8, 11, 14, 19, 22, 31, 35, 41, 45, 48, 53, 58	12
To know about the students'	3, 5, 8, 10, 12, 15, 16, 21, 28	9
Individual characteristics and be able to deal positively with students	6, 10, 14, 15, 16, 26, 28	7

As seen in Table 3, more than 50% of interviewees feel that competent teachers can better control the class and students listen to them, that they have a better relationship with the students, and that they succeed in motivating the students to study independently. From the

students' point of view teacher's competence refers to a difficult student's need to feel capable of academic work. For example, interviewee No. 22 stated that:

"I need more time to understand the idea, he/she [teacher] explain very well, simple phrases that I catch the meaning."

In the second place, the students choose that a friendly teacher is defined as a good teacher. According to students' comments, when there is an easy and friendly relationship between teachers and students, students may go to the teachers with any of their academic issues. Students' learning can be free from disinterest. They feel comfortable discussing with their teachers any lesson about how to do well in exams and assignments work. Students need and like it when their teachers will also feel energized to assist their students--their new friends. For example, interviewees' No. 11 and 42 respectively stated that:

*"I'm very pleased to study at our college. I think he is best teacher and he is my friend."
"I really enjoyed my stay in my college, I always met well-prepared teachers and nice and friendly."*

According to the student's answers, the researchers can conclude that for an effective dialogue between teachers and students is necessary that the teachers must be competitive, having the capacity to "arrange" his/her ideas and thoughts in a clear way, to demonstrate pedagogical professionalism. In case that the teachers can't communicate clearly with their students, they are considered as being uncooperative, unhelpful, uncaring, or impatient, they are demonstrating incompetence.

Completed the answers with a note: the faculty members with more experience, (longer profession experience, research, and consultancy, author) are more competent and their presentation, much be clear and attractive. For example, interviewees' No. 16 stated that:

"I think his experience is excellent! Because [the lecturer] always has excellent examples he very rarely has to resort to translation – very impressive".

According to student's answers the researchers can deduce the following conclusion: faculty-members need to use appropriate key concepts in their teaching, in such a way to promote communication and facilitate student's conceptual development.

These findings are supported by Marland (1992), as the author pointed out that the importance of "teacher knowledge" and cites the considerable number of researchers who have coined terms that represent teacher thinking. Throughout history, hundreds of studies have been conducted on the student-teacher relationship, which takes place during the teaching-learning experience, and how professional life is interpreted and acted upon from the student's perspective.

Motivates positive relationship with a teacher

The interviewees were asked to explain motivates positive relationship with their teachers, their answers are shown in the following table.

Table 4: Motivates positive relationship with a teacher

Motivates positive relationship with the students [^] teachers	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this need
tactful	1, 4, 5, 6, 11, 13, 14, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 27, 31,33,20,22,27,34,41	20
solidarity	1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 26, 27, 30, 32, 33, 35, 60,77	13
Trust	11, 13, 14, 15, 16,17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 50, 52, 54, 55, 57, 58,60,64,67,71,77,80,87,96	30
Public encourage	8, 11, 14, 19, 22, 31, 35, 41, 45, 48, 53	11
Patience	3, 5, 8, 10, 12, 15, 16, 21, 28,40	10
Cooperation	6, 10, 14, 15, 16, 26, 28,30,35	9
Appropriate jokes	2,4,5,7,60,71,83,91	8

The results of the second research were to determine and help the researchers further understand the complex nature of teacher motivation. The students' responses give the researchers a few ideas of what the elements for a positive relationship with their teacher are? The student's answers present different opinions, but the most significant is the element of *trust* (with 30%). Trust is associated with the feeling of friendship with the lecture. As stated by interview No. 14:

"... my teacher believes in me and empowers me for higher standards..."

Trust is a condition that often requires the work of both individuals in the interpersonal relationship, student and teacher. This was explained by interview No. 45:

"... After one semester I understood that she [the teacher] wants to help me, I trust in her work "

The rustle also indicted that the good relationship students-teacher is relating to the students' perceptions of their teachers as follows:

Firstly, students who believed that their teachers are *tactful* in their communication are more

satisfied with their relationship with the teacher. Second, the answer indicated that students, who perceived that their teachers showed *solidarity* with them, are more motivated and which affects the course and satisfaction with their teacher. *Public encourages* of the student, or teachers that occur in front of individuals to appreciate the good work and their effort, or otherwise make the student feel comfortable. Interviews No. 13 and 28 say that:

“He [the teacher] is always very positive and encouraging me. Good teacher!”

“I feel very comfortable to ask her many questions – she [the teacher] always encouraged my effort.”

Patience, or teachers that appear to be patient, respond to e-mail promptly or treat students as an individual with specific concerns rather than a number. Interview No. 40 expand that:

“... He [the teacher] never lose his patience with me, even when I had a bad day or was angry at myself for low marks”

Cooperation, or to cooperate with students’ needs and specific circumstances. As stated in interview No 28:

“My teacher has the ability to effectively cooperate with me, especially when I’m slow”.

Appropriate jokes, or have fun with the students, especially when students find the jokes to be funny or in good taste. Interview No. 5 stated that:

“She [the teacher], is intelligent and personal, we worked hard as well as has fun. I felt very comfortable and enjoyed her lessons. I couldn’t have asked for a better teacher”.

The results of the second indicated that there are differences in the student’s opinions according to the positive relationship with the teachers based on the types of communication they perceived by their teachers. The results would suggest that lecturers/teachers who build a positive relationship with their students may enjoy the following benefits: Increase the level of students’ interest in and enjoyment of the class. Students’ attendance and their interest in study or course, and increase the level of students’ academic achievement.

These findings are supported by the work of (Bligh, 1971; Sass, 1989) as they stated that many factors affect a given student's motivation to work and to learn interest in the subject matter, perception of its usefulness, general desire to achieve, self-confidence, and self-esteem, as well as patience and persistence. Moreover, Scheidecker and Freeman (1999) observed that *“Motivation is, without question, the most complex and challenging issue facing teachers today”* (p.116).

Identifying Colleges students' perceptions of their teachers, teacher's behavior that conveys caring.

The interviewees were asked to identify perceptions of their, teacher`s behavior that conveys caring. Their answers are shown in the following table.

Table 5: Perceptions generated about teachers

Identifying Colleges student's perceptions of their teachers	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this need
Provide general support: academic and personal	11, 13, 14, 15, 16,17,18,19 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 30,33,34,38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 50, 52, 54, 55, 57, 58,60,64,67,71,77,80,87,90,94,96	38
Responsive to their effort	1, 4, 5, 6, 11, 13, 14, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 27, 31,33,20,22,27,34,41,44,46,50,55, 67,72,77,84,86,100	30
Teacher's availability	4, 5, 6, 8, 26, 27, 28,30, 32, 33, 35, 60,66,67,77, 78,80,82,91,100	20
Listening on my opinion	8, 11, 14, 19, 22, 31, 35, 41, 45, 48, 53,66	12

Caring teachers may motivate all students differently, although this should also be reflected in their effort: classroom attentiveness, homework papers, activities outside of College. Those opportunities and connections may be more attractive if students perceive that the teachers trust them, offer more possibilities, involve them in different activities and give them responsibilities.

According to the findings (38%) of the students indicated that providing general support: academic and personal are essential. College' students view their teacher's candid concern and direct actions to improve failing marks as characteristic of a caring teacher. This belief is reflected in the following comments. Interviews No. 14 and 24:

"Offers me the chance to pass the semester with case studies and assignments"
"..not all teachers, but two believe in me, they give me courage to continue. I want to show my colleagues that I can pass with good results this semester."

The comments suggested that the students place on interpersonal relationships and more importantly, illustrate another aspect of caring teachers. Students who have grades lower than C or are at risk of withdrawing the semester may experience more caring teachers and attain higher grades if they feel that teachers care about them, and believe in their capacities.

These students may perceive teacher behavior that supports access to instruction as caring, especially if they have difficulties with learning or they are at risk of failing and withdrawing from courses, even all the semester. The characteristics of a caring teacher may assume different qualities depending on the academic position of students, as suggested by the strong and significant positive interaction terms for students' perceptions that teachers care and teachers' assessments that students are at risk of withdrawing from the semester or not to pass specific courses.

Students' participation will be higher if they find teachers *responsive to their efforts*. The students' reports about their teachers emphasize the teachers' genuine concern for student progress. As stated in interviews No. 34 and 41:

*"... My teacher cares about me and expects me to succeed in my life"
"When I work hard, my teacher praises my effort".*

The academic behavior of students may be more influenced by their perceptions of teachers' commitment for several reasons. Students may be more sensitive to teachers' opinions if they are on the margin of passing. For this category of students, the teacher's care may be an action of access to learning.

The third characteristic refers to the time afforded by the teacher to the student. To further illustrate similar viewpoints students expressed. Interview No. 5:

"Helps me always when I need her [the teacher]"

Listening, a fourth characteristic is demonstrated when a lecturer's interactions convey a sincere interest in what the student has to say. What are the student's expressions that the researchers as faculty members should listen to? Points of view, opinions, ideas, suggestions, worries, and concerns are obvious examples, some of which will relate directly to learning and teaching. Especially in a Higher Education institution with multi-cultural students, paying attention to the students, represent a form of caring, because the teacher communicates with them, pays attention to what they have to say. Some students commented that: Interviews No 11, 31, and 66.

*"Listens to me [the teacher] when I have a problem"
"..asks for our opinions [the teacher]"*.

"He [the teacher] appreciates my opinion for this course and what I want to change"

The statements reflect the importance of the student perceptions placed on being listened to as young adults and not only as college students, to prepare them not only for academic but at the same time as persons that in the future they will represent with pride the educational institution from Cyprus. This represents exactly what Plato transmitted to his students:

"From me [Plato]the student will learn and will proper care of his personal affairs, so that he may best manage his own household, and also of the State's affairs, so as to become a real power in the city, both as speaker and man of action' (Protagoras, 319a).

Attributes of a good Professor/Lecturer.

The interviewees were asked to identify proposed training methods; their answers are shown in the following table.

Table 6: Identifying the qualities of a good teacher

Attributes of a good Professor/Lecturer.	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this need
Leadership behaviour,	11, 13, 14, 15, 16,17,18,19 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 30,33,34,38, 40, 42	20
Helpful and friendly behaviour,	1, 4, 5, 6,8, 11, 13, 14, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 27, 31,33 ,34,35,37,39,41,43,44,45,46, 50,54,55,66,67,72,73,75,77,100	35
Understanding behaviour,	4, 5, 6, 8, 26,78,80,82,91,100	10
Tolerant behavior/giving students freedom and encourage them to research new ways and domains	8, 11, 14, 19, 22, 31, 35, 41, 45, 48, 53,66	12
Uncertain behavior,	43, 45, 50, 52, 54, 55, 57, 58,60,64,67,71, ,96	13
Dissatisfied behavior admonishing behavior	4,8,30,66, 94	5
Strict behavior	1,5,91,94,96,	5

As shown in Table 6, and as stated by 35 interviewees (35%) participants' views in this study stated that important as characteristic of teacher's behavior represents friendly and helpful behavior. For example, interviewee No. 5 claimed that:

“My teachers are friendly and seemed to have respect for the students. I think that helps us to have a friendly relationship”.

Students want friends and want to have a sense of worth, belonging, and bonding with

teachers. That accounts for the importance of a friendly atmosphere inside or outside of the classroom. In line with the previous interviewee, interviewer No. 66 said that:

“...we (students) have a lot to say about the course topic. The environment of our class is very active; everyone wants to speak out in her class”.

From students’ comments, the researchers also can present the “image” of the leadership-teachers, that students prefer to have: teachers as mentors, team leaders, designers of new teaching and assessment processes, with new ways of doing things, and help others to solve problems. For example, interviewee No. 22 claimed that:

“She [the teacher] is a leadership in my college; she meets regularly with the students, lead us to discover during the class”.

These findings are supported by Wubbels and Levy (1993); there are two types of best teachers. These include Cooperative Best Teachers and Dominant Best Teachers. Wubbels and Levy (1993) also identified three distinct types of worst teachers. These include teachers identified by their students as Repressive, Uncertain-Tolerant, and Uncertain-Aggressive.

CONCLUSIONS AND APPLICATIONS

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the interrelationship of student-teacher in the private Tourism Higher Education in Cyprus. The researchers of the current study formulated four main themes, especially sought to identify the qualities of a good teacher, positive relationship with a teacher, characteristics of caring academic demonstrate, and attributes of a good Professor/Lecturer. To achieve this end, a qualitative approach was employed, whereby face-to-face interviews were conducted with many students in Tourism Higher Education in Cyprus. Also, a textual and thematic analysis technique was utilized to handle and screen the data collected, then conduct a comprehensive analysis.

The first objective was to identify the qualities of a good teacher; the study found that modern teachers should enhance their general knowledge with historical, literature, geographical and social knowledge. Therefore, the study recommends that certain historical texts in educational thought can help to develop a richer appreciation of the educator’s communication with the students, and might help educators better understand student learning and the types of experiences that will promote learning. The proverb “As long as a man lives, he learns” has special importance in the vocation of a teacher. In higher education a good teacher is constantly concerned with his/her/their improvement, finding in himself infinite resources of will to evolve. The result also suggested that teachers today should be friendly and have a good relationship with the students; know how to explain the contents well; demonstrate competence (to know very well the content), and know about the students’ characteristics and be able to deal with. Factors such as teachers’ efficacy and competency should also be included in teacher skills today.

The result of this study also found that competent teachers can better control the class and students listen to them, that they have a better relationship with the students, and that they succeed in motivating the students to study independently. From the students' point of view teacher's competence refers to a difficult student's need to feel capable of academic work. According to the student's answers, the study concluded that for an effective dialogue between teachers and students is a necessary first in the practice that teachers must be competitive, having the capacity to "arrange" his/her ideas and thoughts in a clear way, to demonstrate pedagogical professionalism. In case that the teachers can't communicate clearly with their students, they are considered as being uncooperative, unhelpful, uncaring, or impatient, they are demonstrating incompetence.

The second objective was to investigate the positive relationship between teacher and student. The result presented different opinions, but the most significant was the element of trust. Trust is associated with the feeling of friendship with the lecture. Trust is a condition that often requires the work of both individuals in the interpersonal relationship of student and teacher. The result offered the image that trust is associated with more motivated and higher performance students (according to Student's Grade Report) clearly show that student-teacher interaction is an important variable in predicting motivation and as such teachers and counselors contribute to student positive teaching and learning environment by putting in place structures that help in providing an optimal learning environment for students.

The third objective was to identify the teacher's characteristics of caring academic demonstration. The result of this study found significant primary characteristics, those were: provide general support, academic and personal; responsive to their effort; teacher's availability; listening to student's opinion and building trust in students. Caring teachers may motivate all students differently, although this should also be reflected in their effort: classroom attentiveness, homework papers, activities outside from the College. Those opportunities and connections may be more attractive if students perceive that the teachers trust them, offer more possibilities, involve them in different activities and give them responsibilities.

The fourth objective was to find the attributes of a good professor/lecturer. The purpose of the objective was to establish whether there were significant differences in the perceptions of students. As identified by Wubbels and Levy (1993), there are two types of best teachers. These include cooperative best teachers and dominant best teachers. Wubbels and Levy (1993) also identified three distinct types of worst teachers. These include teachers identified by their students as repressive, uncertain-tolerant and uncertain-aggressive. The result of this study recommended that leadership behavior, helpful and friendly behavior, understanding behavior, tolerant behavior/giving students freedom, and encouraging them to research new ways and domains were the most variables found to describe the best teacher.

Practical implications

This study was designed to improve the skills and behavior of faculty members. The main

benefit of this study is that the faculty members can develop an effective student-teacher interaction process. Trust and understanding, cooperative discussions, and dialogues with students can assist students in attaining and retaining knowledge as a result of their active participation in interaction with their teachers.

Positive academic relationships are fundamental to success. When students feel supported, they develop a love of learning that will benefit them for their entire lives. Predict better knowledge, and have better academic outcomes. These students will be more engaged as skilled and critical thinkers, innovators, respectful, and so to become socially responsible citizens of tomorrow.

The result of this study shall increase students' interest in the college's community, and most students will discover that research, while extremely challenging is exciting. Specifically, some of the more important benefits include the opportunity to: become an emerging participant in the building of a specific area of cooperation and involvement, experience the excitement of observing and learning with new methods, (behavior change, dialogues, manages behavioral technique), and become a more sophisticated participant and consumer of research.

Moreover, the direction of this research will increase the faculty member's familiarity with the students and other faculty members, and the new applied experimentation can improve the professor's teaching effectiveness. This research suggests that teachers can motivate and improve their students' cognitive and affective outcomes through more positive and encouraging behaviors which have been identified as those of leadership, understanding, and helping teacher behaviors.

The result of this study administers that teachers can readily use to reflect on their interaction with their students as well as to monitor their students' perceptions of their class learning environment. The knowledge gained from this study can offer a basis for guiding systematic attempts to improve classroom management when working with various teaching strategies and international students.

To conclude, the goal of this study was to investigate the interaction students-teachers in five specific colleges in Cyprus, it was for the need to encourage students with supportive, healthy communities, then most likely such study could benefit by measuring not just the memories of those who made it to college, but also those who did believe that old methods could be helpful and valid currently in the higher education. Not to forget that our mission, satisfaction, and honor as teachers is to prepare today's generations for tomorrow's better world, as Plato said 2,500 years before: "A nation will prosper to the degree that it honors its teachers".

Limitations and future research

The most significant limitation of this study is that the possible lack of generalizability of the findings since the study is limited to only higher tourism education in Cyprus. Thus,

comprehensive future research is required on higher education in different countries with different students' cultural backgrounds. Another recommendation in this study is that since the qualitative approach was employed with semi-structured interviews in this research, therefore, future studies could adopt a quantitative analysis and hypotheses testing approach that might further increase the understanding and assessment of the interaction between students and teachers. Also, using focus groups and questionnaires as data collection methods in future studies could be fruitful.

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Hotel Service Personalization and the Willingness of Information Sharing: The Case of Generation Z

Kitti Hiezl¹ and Petra Gyurácz-Németh²

ABSTRACT

It is essential to cater to the customers' needs and wishes while providing quality service in tourism. Individuals have different preferences regarding their touristic endeavors, but we can cater to their needs by using personalized and customized services. To provide tailor-made service, service providers need the customer's data, which means a high focus on data collection is necessary. However, the future customers will be part of Generation Z, the most tech-savvy generation interested in unique experiences but aware of data collecting processes. Will, the need for a unique experience, outweigh the fear of data safety? Are they distrustful when it comes to their personal information, or will they trust the provider if it means they can get a unique experience? Four groups of hypotheses were phrased to investigate the relationship between trust and data sharing, the importance of personalization and willingness to share data, the willingness to pay for personalization, and reasons for fear of data sharing. The chosen population was the Tourism-catering BA students (N=81). Those who trust the hotel or value personalized service are more likely to share data and are willing to pay for certain personalized services. Also, when they are aware of the purpose of the data collecting, they are more likely to share information. Personalization is valued and can affect even the revenue, and the hotels should earn trust by ensuring the safety of the data handling system. When trust is created, more data is shared, and more personalization can follow.

Keywords: Generation Z, Hotel personalization, Data sharing, Trust, Hotel services

INTRODUCTION

The famously high-tech and co-creation preferring Generation Z is soon to become the primary spending customer of accommodation establishments, and hotels must have a different approach to appeal to them (Berkup, 2014, Turner, 2015). To be able to create “realness” (William and Page, 2011), hotels could use personalization as a tool to satisfy the individual

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needs and exceed expectations (Crosby, 1979, Grönroos 1984, Surprenant and Solomon, 1987, Parasuraman et al. 1988, Berry, Parasuraman, and Zeithaml, 1988, Kokko and Moilanen, 1997) of Generation Z customers, as they value co-created products and services (Williams and Page, 2011, Berkup, 2014, Fister-Gale, 2015, Turner, 2015, Sima, 2016 Fernandes and Radebe, 2018) and they prefer to have a product tailored to their specific needs. (Davies, 2013) Research concentrate on the online marketing aspects of personalization (Smith, 2017, Matveeva and Krasnov, 2019), however, there is a lack of understanding of how much data Generation Z would be willing to share and what data it would be. To be able to provide personalized service, data collection is inevitable.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The research focuses on a phenomenon containing three different areas: Personalization, Data sharing, and Generation Z. The goal is to analyze their relationships and find proof of the opportunity a hotel has to personalize to the needs of the new generation. Therefore, we formed four groups of hypotheses.

Personalization

Personalization can be defined in different ways, but one of the most basic concepts is providing a “good service”. The consumer will compare their expectations with the received service, therefore quality service is easiest achieved by satisfying the needs of the individual customer (Crosby, 1979; Grönroos 1984; Parasuraman et al. 1988, Berry, Parasuraman, and Zeithaml, 1988). As individuals have different quality expectations, the service providers have to differentiate the provided services; therefore, when we talk about personalization, we refer to any behavior occurring in the interaction intended to contribute to the individuation of the customer (Surprenant and Solomon, 1987).

Personalization can be anything from personal encounters where the service provider develops a deeper relationship with the customer (Surprenant and Solomon, 1987, Kokko and Moilanen, 1997) to different forms of personalized marketing. It can be the use of technology and customer information to create tailor-made advertising or open communication between businesses and between businesses and individual customers. Service providers can use either previously provided information or information given in real-time to fit the offers or advertisements to the need of the customer (Personalization consortium, 2005 as cited in Vesänen, 2007) Regardless if we define personalization as something that is done by the company (Allen, 2001, Imhoff et al, 2001, Cörner, 2003) or initiated by the customer (Wind & Rangaswamy, 2001, Roberts, 2003) the goal is to create a product or service that will fit the expectation of the guest better (Crosby, 1979, Grönroos 1984, Berry, Parasuraman, and Zeithaml, 1988, Parasuraman et al. 1988) lowers the cost or has some benefits (Peppers et al, 1999) and creates an individual experience (Allen, 2001).

Data Sharing

To be able to provide personalized service and give that individual experience, service providers will need to know what the customer wants. This process can lead to privacy issues. Privacy is “the ability of the individual to control the terms under which personal information is acquired and used” (Westin, 1967, p.7). New definitions have been developed with the evolution of technology, however, the main elements are mostly concern about privacy (Laufter et al., 1976, Stone et al., 1983, Culnan, 1993) and the effects on transparency in data handling (Stone et al., 1983, Goodwin, 1991, McKnight et al. 1998.). Initial trust levels depend on specific conditions of trusting intentions established before the encounter (McKnight, 1998), but fair and improved information practices will lead to more willingness to share information. (Culan and Armstrong, 1999, Milne and Rohm, 2000, Pheleps et al. 2000, Lee and Cranage 2011). In other words, when the customers feel that their data might be collected without their knowledge, it will create negative feelings towards the service they receive, possibly even diminishing the perceived benefits (Andrade et al., 2002, Joinson and Paine, 2007). This dynamic creates the so-called "personalization privacy paradox."

Changing the Paradox

The “personalization privacy paradox” can turn the service process into a negative experience, however, when privacy concerns are addressed, the customer perceptions of personalization could be more positive (Stone et al., 1983, Goodwin, 1991, McKnight et al. 1998, Lee and Cranage, 2011). Transparent and open communication and trust in the company will create positive associations therefore there is a higher willingness to share personal information; however, customers will only use personalized service if they feel it will be useful for them. (Schonenbachler and Gordon, 2002) Not all researchers agree that a consumer's value on personalization would depend on their privacy concerns. Chellappa and Sin (2005) concluded that the willingness of sharing information will depend on the "privacy calculus" an evaluation of the costs and benefits of sharing information. Therefore, if the customer finds the personalized service useful but the advantages are smaller than the disadvantage of sacrificing personal information, they will not provide it. We however would argue that addressing the privacy concerns would lower the disadvantage of sharing personal information and with transparent and open communication, service providers could make sure that the calculus would lean towards the advantages.

Generation Z as a tourist

Generation Z (born after 1995 (Bassiouni and Hackley, 2014; Fister-Gale, 2015)) is the youngest generation of customers; service providers must focus on. They have grown up during challenging economic and socio-cultural times (Sima, 2016); therefore, they are the new conservatives embracing traditional beliefs and seeking realness even in services (Williams and Page, 2011). They are true digital natives as they have grown up with technology (Berkup, 2014, Fister-Gale, 2015, Turner, 2015).

Generation Z can be categorized as "digital tourists" (Setiawan et al, 2018) They have high internet usage, as even in their free time, they are intensively using (six to 16 hours per day) their smartphones or laptops and technologies such as gadgets, social media, and the Internet. (Setiawan et al, 2018) When traveling, they use online media over conventional travel agencies to search for information and make reservations. (Setiawan et al, 2018) Thus, the extended usage of smart technologies influences their experiences; therefore, they can make a more educated decision than some other Generations before them. (Priporas et al., 2017, Salesforce, 2020). Although they prefer originality and realness in experience (Sima, 2016) and they prefer a beta product with the promise of a better outcome tomorrow, - where they could co-create the product (Davies, 2013), - they show less interest in personalization when it comes to marketing and mobile applications (Smith, 2017, Fernandes and Radebe, 2018) even though technological gadgets are an important part of their travels. (Setiawan et al, 2018).

Because of the nature of Generation Z and their need for uniqueness (William and Page, 2011) personalization should be appealing for them, but would they be willing to pay more for it is one of the questions. Sundar and Marathe (2010) conducted that non-professional computer users prefer personalized websites while professionals preferred customization (where they can take an active role) because they understood the underlying process of information collection, therefore, had more concerns. Will Generation Z have a similar awareness of the data collection, or they are more open to sharing their information? What is this information that they would be sharing with the service provider?

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

When the data is collected without the customer's knowledge, it will create negative feelings (Joinson and Paine, 2007); however, when privacy concerns are addressed, personalization could have a positive outcome. (Lee and Cranage, 2011). Therefore, being open about asking for specific data should have a different effect on guests compared to a normal hotel check-in data collection or data harvesting. When privacy assurance, like open communication, is present, there are fewer concerns (Culnan and Armstrong, 1999, Phelps et al. 2000, Lee and Cranage, 2011). Also, because of the "privacy calculus", if the consumer finds the personalized service is helpful, they might be happier to share specific information about themselves. In this exploratory study, we want to see if privacy assurance would lead to fewer concerns about personal privacy (Culnan and Amstron, 1999, Phelps et al. 2000, Lee and Cranage 2011) in case of Generation Z and what specific personal information the participants will be willing to share given that they value personalized service.

The research states the following hypotheses:

H1a: Those Generation Z tourism students, who trust the service provider in data handling will be willing to share information when asked.

Based on Schonenbachler and Gordon (2002) we know that trust in the company affects guest willingness to share data and based on Lee and Cranage (2011) research the customer will have a more positive perception of personalization when the concerns of data safety are addressed. Also, Rastega et al, (2021) found that self-service kiosks, which are not collecting information in an online setting, were also perceived more enjoyable and useful when the customers clearly understood and trusted them. We hypothesize that this phenomenon will be true for Generation Z and when they trust the safe data handling of the service provider, they will be willing to share personal information.

H1b: Those Generation Z tourism students, who value personalized services will be willing to share information when asked.

If we accept that Generation Z members understand the underlying process of personalization (Sundar and Marathe, 2010) therefore they are aware that without the collection of personal information it is impossible to create a personalized service, (Andrade et al., 2002), we conclude that those who value personalization (such as co-creation (Davies, 2013)) will be willing to share personal information about themselves.

H2a: Those Generation Z tourism students, who trust the service provider in data handling, will be willing to share specific personal information for service.

Addressing the concerns of data safety will create a more positive perception of personalization (Lee and Cranage, 2011), and trusting the company affects the willingness to share personal data (Schoenbachler and Gordon, 2002). As Generation Z are technologically adapted and prefer co-creation (Davies, 2013) we can hypothesize that they are aware of the fact that personalization needs specific data input from them. Therefore, they are not only going to share information, but they will be willing to share specific private information about themselves when they trust the company.

H2b: Those Generation Z tourism students, who value personalized services will be willing to share specific personal information for service.

Understanding the technologies' underlying processes (Sundar and Marathe, 2010) and the willingness to test a beta product to help and create a better product tomorrow (Davies, 2013) will also mean that for personalization when they value it, Generation Z will share specific private information about themselves to be able to receive a unique experience.

H3: Those Generation Z tourism students, who value personalized services are also willing to pay for them.

Generation Z is starting to grow into the age when they are capable of independently spending (Sima, 2016). As they value authenticity and "realness" (Williams and Page, 2011) they want a conversation about their "story", they want a product that has to have a social and

environmental benefit and they want to make the product better with their input. (Berkup, 2014; Sima, 2016) For such time and energy-consuming services the hotel needs resources. Therefore, those who like personalized services will also be willing to pay for them.

H4: Fear and concern about data safety give negative feelings when asked to share personal data.

Due to the ability of data collection to cause negative feelings or even diminish positive feelings the service created (Joinson and Paine, 2007), we hypothesize that the fear and concern of the data handling will harm the participants, and it will create a negative attitude when it comes to sharing data.

METHODOLOGY

Instrument

A quantitative survey was created given the research objectives demanding a quantitative approach. The questionnaire was comprised of 3 sections and contained 22 Likert items that are relevant to this paper. The scale went from "Strongly Disagree," "Disagree," "Neutral," "Agree," "Strongly Agree." As the participants are students and not experts, a 5-point Likert scale is easier for them to understand as it is less confusing (Babakus and Mangold, 1992; Devlin et al., 1993; Hayes, 1992) so they can identify and had a better understanding of the difference between the levels. The Likert items were based on past studies detailed in Table 1 below, therefore they were developed into a questionnaire first in English, then a Hungarian translation was created based on the original version. Examples of personal information a hotel could use were included such as birthday, anniversary, food and drink preferences, hobbies (Figure 1.) to be able to specify the type of personal data the participants would share.

Table 1. Development of Survey

<i>Author</i>	<i>Area</i>	<i>Findings.</i>	<i>Likert Items</i>
Chellappa and Sin (2005) Likert items taken	Researching Web personalization preferences	Online vendors can improve in obtaining and using customer information if they build trust.	I value Web pages that are personalized for the device (e.g., computer, palm, mobile phone, etc.), browser (e.g., Netscape, Internet Explorer) and operating system (e.g., Windows, Unix) that I use. I value Web sites that are personalized for my usage experience preferences. I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).
Nyheim et al. (2015)	perceived personalization, privacy concern, irritation and personalization on smartphone advertising	advertising irritation is positively related to advertising avoidance,	I prefer Personalized advertising on an application that makes purchasing recommendations that match my needs. Personalized communication makes me feel that I am a unique customer.
Lee and Cranage 2011 study (who adapted from Gefen, at all. (2003)	how privacy assurance and personalization jointly influence customer value perceptions and privacy concerns in online travel agency	that the presence of personalization leads to more positive perceptions about the usefulness of services on a Website	The service provider, in my opinion, only needs to know about what is most necessary about me. I am afraid if I provide my personal information, it can be misused. I trust that my data will be treated with confidence.

Source: Chellappa and Sin (2005), Lee and Cranage (2011), Nyheim et al. (2015)

DATA COLLECTION

The data collection sample consists of bachelor students, born between 1995 – 2002 studying tourism and catering at the University of Pannonia. We collected the sample in 2019 from March to May and invited third- and fourth-year students to participate from both the Hungarian

language bachelor program and the English language bachelor program. It was important to use students who have an understanding of hospitality as later we have asked them to evaluate the difficulty of the questionnaire. The information was obtained through two online questionnaires. The students participating in the Hungarian language bachelor course received a Hungarian questionnaire, while the students from the English language bachelor course received an English questionnaire as some of the students do not speak Hungarian. We obtained a total of 81 valid responses out of 97 students, of which 51 were females and 30 males. Most of the students filled out the Hungarian questionnaire 46. We have asked the participants in different ways if they would be willing to share their personal information for more personalized service. The questions had slight differences, such as if they are willing to share data in hope that later they will receive better service or when asked with the purpose to provide better service would they then give information. Would they share to help make it easier to provide unique service?

Measurement developments

The data of the Likert items were coded into SPSS (PASW statistic 18.) First, we analyzed the Frequencies of the data to see the attitude towards personalization and data sharing. After finishing the initial analysis of the responses, we looked for correlations between the statements. As the data is ordinal, Spearman rank correlation was used to determine the correlation between the different variables (Trochim, 2020, Dimitrov, 2014). Spearman rank correlation is a non-parametric variable of Pearson correlation. With Spearman correlation, we can measure the strength and the direction of the association between two ranked variables. The Spearman rank correlation test does not include assumptions about the distribution of the data, however, can be used for ordinal variables. (Molnár, 2015; Correlation - Pearson, Kendall, Spearman - Statistics Solutions, 2020) In Spearman rank correlation coefficients between 0.10 and 0.29 would be a small association, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate association, and coefficients of .50 and above represent a large association or relationship. (Correlation - Pearson, Kendall, Spearman - Statistics Solutions, 2020).

RESULTS

When we look at the questions asked about the willingness to share personal information, we see some differences in the answers depending on if they know why the information is collected. With the statement “they value goods and services that are personalized on information that they have voluntarily given out (such as age, Zip Code, name)” 41% of the participants agreed while 20% were neutral about it. These are the information that is part of the normal check-in procedure and hotels can use, for instance, the date of birth for personalized communication or surprise the guest with something special, but they can also try and sell a product based on this knowledge. Less of the participants, only 38.3% agreed to be willing to provide personal information if in return they can receive goods or services that match their needs better (while 25.9% were neutral). In this case, we wanted to know that when they assume that there will be a unique product or service in the end would they share information about themselves. In similar

numbers, 34.6% agreed that to make it easier to find the right offer (that will match their specific needs), they would happily share their personal information and preferences, while 35.8% were neutral. Here the goal of the information sharing is clear, the guest can help the provider so they can benefit from the interaction. Our final statement indicates that the guest is aware that the information is being requested from them so in return they will get a unique product or service. 'If a service provider requests my information to make a better offer for me, I am willing to provide it' statement was the most agreeable as 51.9% agreed with this statement and 34.6% were neutral.

H1a: Those Generation Z tourism students, who trust the service provider will handle their data in confidence will be more willing to share information.

As it was established (Lee and Cranage, 2011) when privacy concerns are addressed, the customer perceptions of personalization could be more positive, but will it also mean that they will be sharing more information about themselves? Table 2 shows that there is a strong moderate correlation between trust in the service provider's data handling and the willingness to share personal information to later get a better offer from the service provider 0.429. We have also found a small correlation with trust and both the willingness to share personal information in return they can receive a good or service that will match their needs better which was 0.260, and that to make it easier for the service provider to give the right offer they would be willing to share 0.229. This means that the more one trusts in the hotel's data handling the more likely that they will share personal information for personalized service both when it is clear to them that the data collecting is so they can get a unique product and also when they just assume that they will get something unique in return.

Table 2. I trust that my data will be treated with confidence.

	I trust that my data will be treated with confidence.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
If a service provider requests my information in order to make a better offer for me, I am willing to provide it.	,429**	,000	81
I am willing to share my personal information if in return I can receive goods or services that match my needs better.	,260*	,019	81
To make it easier to find the right offer (that will match my needs), I am happy to share my personal information and preferences.	,229*	,040	81

Therefore, we can accept H1a. as we could find significant correlation between trust and the willingness to share personal information even though the information sensitivity can be observed in case of the Generation Z tourism students.

H1b: Those Generation Z tourism students, who value personalized services will be more willing to share information for service.

As it was established previously, Generation Z likes uniqueness and originality, therefore personalization means value for them. When it comes to technology, 77.7% said that they value personalized Web sites and 41% of the participants agreed that they value goods and services that are personalized on information that they have voluntarily given out (while 20% were neutral). Personalized advertising and recommendation systems are preferred by 40.8% and 39.6% feel like a unique customer when communication is personalized. Therefore, based on their answers, at least 40% of the participants value personalized service. We have used Spearman rank correlation to analyze if there is an association between these statements. We found a small correlation with goods and services that are personalized on information that was voluntarily given out with the willingness to share information for better service.

Table 3: I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).

	I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
I am willing to share my personal information if in return I can receive goods or services that match my needs better.	,273*	,014	81

Also, we found a moderate correlation between happily sharing information to make it easier to find the right offer and the willingness to provide personal information when the service provider requests it (0.305). Therefore, we can see that there is a correlation between willingness to share information both if it is certain that the information sharing will result in a personalized service and when the participants only assume it will.

Table 4: To make it easier to find the right offer (that will match my needs), I am happy to share my personal information and preferences.

	To make it easier to find the right offer (that will match my needs), I am happy to share my personal information and preferences.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
If a service provider requests my information in order to make a better offer for me, I am willing to provide it.	,305**	,006	81

We found a moderate association (0.402) between valuing goods and services that are personalized based on voluntarily given information and valuing Web sites that are personalized for the user experience (0.402), and a small correlation with personalized advertising (0.244) and communication (0.233). This means that those who prefer website personalization, personalized advertising and communication will more likely value personalization based on voluntarily given information and not based on harvested data or not when being asked by the service provider. Therefore, even if digital-based personalization has value for many of the participants, they only value it when they shared the information voluntarily.

Table 5: I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).

	I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
I value Web sites that are personalized for my user experience preferences.	,402**	,000	81
I prefer Personalized advertising on application which makes purchasing recommendations that match my needs.	,244*	,028	81
Personalized communication makes me feel that I am a unique customer.	,233*	,036	81

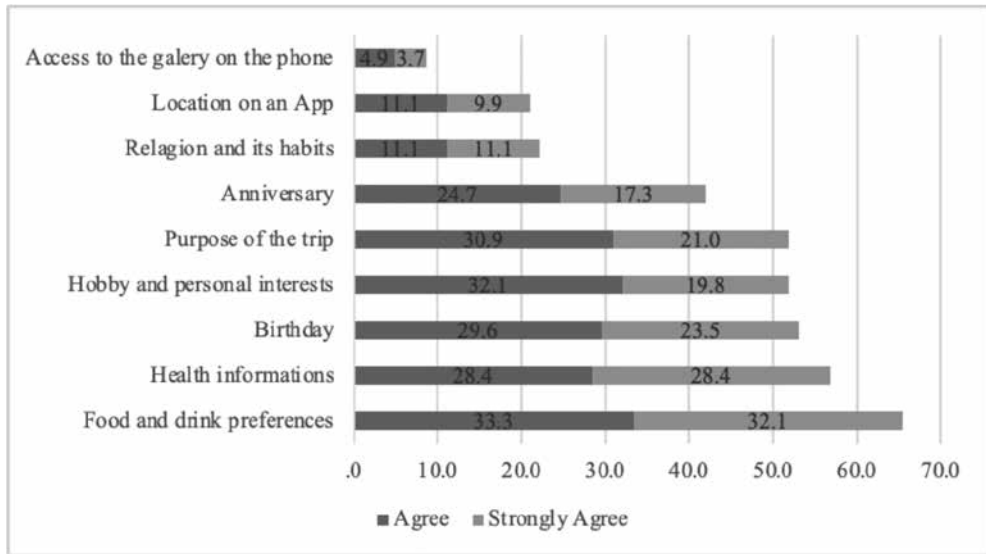
H1b was supported as we found that the more one values personalization based on voluntarily given information the more, they will be willing to share data and also that those who share information when the service provider ask for personalized service are more likely to happily help the service provider to create personalized service. We also found that those who prefer personalized websites, advertising, and communication will be more likely to voluntarily give information for such personalization.

H2a: Those Generation Z tourism students, who trust the service provider in data handling will be willing to share specific personal information for service.

It is important to know what kind of information exactly the participants would share with the service provider. When we look at the answers if in exchange for a unique service, would they give information without any worries we can see that more than half of the participants would share information about their food and drink preferences, health information, birthday, the purpose of their trip and hobbies and personal interests? More than 40% of the participants would share information about their anniversary. Religion and its habits, sharing the location on an app or giving access to the phone's gallery were however under 22%.

Even though technology and mobile phones are part of the life of Generation Z, and they have given high value when it comes to their personalization preferences on applications and web-sites, they have given really low scores for sharing their location on an application or granting access to their gallery.

Figure 1. Sharing specific information for unique service



Source: Self-edited

When we look into the relationship between specific data that the participants would be willing to share for unique service and trust we have found a moderate correlation with sharing food and drink preferences (0.323) and hobbies and interests (0.338) and a small correlation with the purpose of the trip (0.274). These are the special data that more than 50% agreed would be willing to share for unique service.

Table 6: I trust that my data will be treated with confidence.

	I trust that my data will be treated with confidence.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
Purpose of my trip	,274*	,013	81
Hobbies and interests	,338**	,002	81
Food and drink preferences	,323**	,003	81

When it comes to correlation with the level of trust, they have with the service provider data handling we have found a moderate correlation with personalization for the user experience (0.338) and with personalized application with purchasing recommendation (0.323) while small correlation between trust in data handling and the personalized web page preferences (0.274). The results show us that those who trust in the data handling of the service provider will more likely value web pages that are personalized for the device, and websites that are personalized on the user experience and also will prefer personalized advertising. Personalized advertising specifically has a high data need, so in the case of these personalized services, there is a clear connection with trust. Therefore, H2a: those Generation Z tourism students, who trust the service provider in data handling will be willing to share specific personal information for service, was proven in case of drink preferences, hobbies and interests and the purpose of the trip, and is true when it comes to web personalization.

Table 7: I trust that my data will be treated with confidence.

	I trust that my data will be treated with confidence.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
I value Web pages that are personalized for the device (e.g. computer, palm, mobile phone etc.), browser (e.g. Netscape, Internet explorer) and operating system (e.g. Windows, Unix) that I use.	,274*	,013	81
I value Web sites that are personalized for my usage experience preferences.	,338**	,002	81
I prefer Personalized advertising on application which makes purchasing recommendations that match my needs.	,323**	,003	81

H2b: Those Generation Z tourism students, who value personalized services will be willing to share specific personal information for service.

When it comes to voluntarily sharing data, we have found a small correlation with information such as food and drink preferences (0.262) anniversary (0.220), and health information (0.220).

Table 8: I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).

	I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
In exchange for a unique service, I would give information without any worries about my; ... Anniversary	,220*	,049	81
...Food and drink preferences	,262*	,018	81
...Health information	,220*	,048	81

When it comes to willingness to share information if in return, they receive personalized information we have found a moderate correlation with hobbies (0.457) and food and drink preferences (0.365) and a small correlation with the purpose of the trip (0.266) anniversary (0.244) and birthday (0.221).

Table 9: I am willing to share my personal information if in return I can receive goods or services that match my needs better.

	I am willing to share my personal information if in return I can receive goods or services that match my needs better.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
In exchange for a unique service, I would give information without any worries about my; ...Birthday	,221*	,047	81
...anniversary	,244*	,028	81
...The purpose of my trip	,266*	,016	81
...my hobby and interests	,457**	,000	81
...Food and drink preferences	,365**	,001	81

Correlation with happily providing information to help to find the right offer and sharing specific information we found moderate correlations with sharing the location on an app (0.383) hobbies and interests (0.356), the purpose of the trip (0.347), and anniversary (0.344) food preferences (0.303) and small correlations with birthdays (0.280) and health information (0.259).

Table 10: To make it easier to find the right offer (that will match my needs), I am happy to share my personal information and preferences.

	To make it easier to find the right offer (that will match my needs), I am happy to share my personal information and preferences.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
In exchange for a unique service, I would give information without any worries about my; ... Birthday	,280*	,011	81
... Anniversary	,344**	,002	81
... Purpose of my trip	,347**	,002	81
... Hobbies and interests	,356**	,001	81
... Food and drink preferences	,303**	,006	81
... Share my location on an app	,383**	,000	81
... Health information	,259*	,020	81

When the service provider requests the information to make a better offer has a high correlation with sharing the purpose of the trip (0.525) and moderate correlations with food and drink preferences (0.453) hobbies and interests (0.433), health information (0.394), birthdays (0.324) and sharing the location on an app (0.307), while a small correlation with anniversary (0.262).

Table 11: If a service provider requests my information in order to make a better offer for me, I am willing to provide it.

	If a service provider requests my information in order to make a better offer for me, I am willing to provide it.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
In exchange for a unique service, I would give information without any worries about my; ... Birthday	,324**	,003	81
... Share my location on an app	,307**	,005	81
... Anniversary	,262*	,018	81
... Purpose of my trip	,525**	,000	81
... Hobbies and interests	,433**	,000	81
... Food and drink preferences	,453**	,000	81
... Health information	,394**	,000	81

When it comes to sharing data about themselves, we found the following:

- With the statement ‘I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code)’ we found 3, among the information types we have asked, with an anniversary, food, and drink preferences and health information which were small correlations.
- With the statement ‘I am willing to share my personal information if in return I can receive goods or services that match my needs better’ we found 5, among the information types: birthday, anniversary, and the purpose of the trip which are low; and hobby and interests and food and drink preferences which are moderate correlations.
- With the statement ‘To make it easier to find the right offer (that will match my needs), I am happy to share my personal information and preferences.’ we found 7, among the information types: anniversary, the purpose of the trip, hobbies and interests, food preferences and sharing the location on a mobile app, moderate; and birthday and health information low correlations.
- With the statement ‘If a service provider requests my information to make a better offer for me, I am willing to provide it.’ we found 7, among the information types: the purpose of the trip high, hobbies and interests birthday, and sharing the location on an app moderate; and low correlation with the anniversary.

When guests are aware that the service provider is asking for certain information about them to create a better offer or to personalize service, they are more likely to share information about themselves. Therefore, we can not only see that when participants value personalization they will be willing to share specific information about themselves, but we can also see that the more obvious it is for the guest that the data is collected for the sake of giving them a better offer, the more often and more kind of information they will share about themselves.

Therefore, we can say that H2b was proven in all four cases, but we can find differences based on the awareness of the data which comes back to the trust and safety issues and the transparency of communication.

H3: Those Generation Z tourism students, who value personalized services are also willing to pay for it.

Personalization is human resource-demanding therefore it must have financial benefits for the hotel to actively try and not only satisfy but exceed expectations of the guest.

With the statement that they would be willing to pay more for personalized service 29.6% of the participants agreed while 33.3 % were neutral about paying. It is important to see with what other elements willingness to pay correlates.

We found a small correlation with the valuable goods and services that are personalized on information that was voluntarily given (0.235), with happily sharing information if that makes it easier to find the right offer (0.257) and the willingness to provide information when the service provider requests it (0.250). According to the results when the participants agree to share personal information about themselves be it voluntarily or by being asked, it is more likely that they are also going to agree to pay for such service. We also found that those who

feel like a unique customer because of personalized communication have a small correlation of 0.276. Beside that we have found four specific data that the participants would share about themselves for a unique service. There is moderate correlation with health information (0.346) and there are low correlations with birthday (0.298) anniversary (0.212) and the purpose of the trip. (0.232)

Table 12: I would be willing to pay more for a personalized service.

	I would be willing to pay more for a personalized service.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
I value goods and services that are personalized on information that I have voluntarily given out (such as age range, Zip Code).	,235*	,035	81
To make it easier to find the right offer (that will match my needs), I am happy to share my personal information and preferences.	,257*	,021	81
If a service provider requests my information in order to make a better offer for me, I am willing to provide it.	,250*	,024	81
Personalized communication makes me feel that I am a unique customer.	,276*	,013	81
In exchange for a unique service, I would give information without any worries about my; Birthday	,298**	,007	81
... anniversary	,219*	,049	81
... The purpose of my trip	,232*	,037	81
... Health information (like allergies)	,346**	,002	81

Based on these correlations we can conclude that personal information such as birthdays, anniversaries and the purpose of the trip not only they are willing to share but would be paying for special treatment. Health information has a moderate correlation as it could be even a necessity that one has to share such information or pay for more suitable options when it comes to the rooms or the food options.

Therefore, we can say that for this four specific information it is true that those who value personalized service would be willing to pay and H3 will be partially accepted.

H4: Fear and concern of data safety gives negative feeling when asked to share personal data

Sensitivity of data safety in case of Generation Z was evident from the answers as 54.3% did not like it when they had to give their personal data and 81.5% said that it is enough when the service provider knows only the most important things about them. 60.5% was afraid that when they give their personal data then it will not be handled with confidence. So, we can see that more the 50% of them shows some distrust with offering their data.

Table 13. shows moderate correlation between dislike of providing personal data and the believes that the service provider only needs to know the most necessary information, (0.452) and also moderate correlation with fear of the personal information being misused. (0.400). This shows that the more afraid someone is that their personal data will be misused the less they will like to share their data.

Table 13: I do not like it when I have to provide my personal information.

	I do not like it when I have to provide my personal information.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
The service provider, in my opinion, only needs to know about what is most necessary about me.	,452**	,000	81
I am afraid if I provide my personal information it can be misused.	,400**	,000	81

When it comes to being afraid, we have also found small negative association between fear of data safety and in the believes that the service provider only needs to know the most necessary things (0.256) (table 14). This means that the more afraid someone is, the more they will only want to share basic information about themselves.

Table 14: I am afraid if I provide my personal information, it can be misused.

	I am afraid if I provide my personal information, it can be misused.		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
The service provider, in my opinion, only needs to know about what is most necessary about me.	,256*	,021	81

However, we found a small negative correlation with sharing the location on the app. (-0.250) We have found small negative association with all three statements of distrust and the willingness to share location on an App for unique service on a 0.05 significance level. This means that the less afraid the participants are the more likely that they would share their location on an app which was one of the specific data that that only 21% of the participants would be willing to give. Here we can see the negative affect of being afraid and having negative feelings about the data handling. We can see that those who would share such information, are less worried about their data therefore there might be more participants agreeing to share information, when they have a better data assurance, therefore, H4 can be accepted.

Table 15: Sharing location on and app

	... share my location on an app		
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
I don't like it when I have to provide my personal information.	-,250*	,024	81
The service provider, in my opinion, only needs to know about what is most necessary about me.	-,270*	,015	81
I am afraid if I provide my personal information, it can be misused.	-,239*	,031	81

DISCUSSION

Our primary research shows, that fear of their data being misused will make Generation Z resist sharing information and they will more likely to think that it is enough for the service provider to know the basic information about them (H4). These findings match with the literature focusing on privacy issues (Laufter et al., 1976, Stone et al., 1983, Culnan, 1993). However, we have also found that when they trust the service provider, they will be willing to share information about themselves (H1a) which was also observed in literature (McKnight, 1998). In addition, we were also able to identify the specific information that they would be willing to hand over to the service provider for a more personalized service. We found when they trust the service provider (H2a) they will be sharing information about drink preferences, hobbies (and interests) and the purpose of their trip. This information can be used in catering, and in creating special offers or packages for the guest. Sharing the hobbies and interest or the purpose of the trip are truly personal information as these data the service provider could not collect based on the standard interaction with the guest therefore it shows that trust can make potential guest share data that the hotel could not gather without the help of the guest. This valuable information could then be used to provide added value to the guests, to make them satisfied and create guest retention.

As Generation Z is interested in co-creation (Davies, 2013) we also wanted to see that when they value personalization, is there a willingness to share information. We found that they will prefer personalized web sites, applications, and also personalized communication based on voluntarily given information. We have also found that when the service provider asks for data so they can create a personalized service they more likely to be happy to help and share for such service. (H1b) We were also able to identify what kind of specific information they would share on different levels of transparency and communication (H2b) and we have found that the clearer for Generation Z that the service provider asks for the information in order to create a unique service that they will certainly receive the more specific information they will share. When they value personalization on voluntarily given information, they share anniversary, food and drink preferences and health information. When it came to their willingness to share information so the service can match their needs better, they would share birthday, anniversary, the purpose of the trip, hobby and interests and food and drink preferences. To make it easier to find the right offer they would help with sharing anniversary, purpose of the trip, hobbies and interests, food and drink preferences, sharing the location on a mobile app, birthday and health information. When the communication is fully transparent, and the guest knows that the service provider asks for the specific information in order to provide a better service they would share the purpose of the trip, hobbies and interests, birthday, share the location on an app and anniversary. With the research we could prove that when personalization is important then Generation Z will be willing to share specific information about themselves and our findings match the literature that states that improved information practices will lead to more willingness to share information. (Culan and Armstrong, 1999, Milne and Rohm, 2000, Pheleps et al. 2000, Lee and Cranage 2011).

Finally, we have also answered the question if they would be willing to pay for personalized service (H3). We found that when they value personalization, or when they are aware that the service provider is collecting data so they can receive a unique service, we found which specific information they would share, and we have also found correlation with the willingness to pay. Therefore, transparent communication is not only affecting their trust and therefore the amount of data they would share with the hotel, but we also found correlation with payment for personalized service.

When personalized communication is effective, and the customer unique, it will also lead to willingness to pay for personalization. We were also able to identify three specific information that they would share about themselves for unique service and would be willing to pay for it, these are birthday, anniversary and the purpose of the trip.

Therefore, we can conclude that working on transparent communication and safe data handling the service provider can increase the trust in the company, this combined with the interest in personalization (which is present in Generation Z) the hotels can offer unique services and increase their revenue.

CONCLUSION

It is important for tourism businesses and service providers to keep their existing clientele but at the same time to prepare for the next generations to come, therefore it is advised that they offer tailor-made services. Personalization has high information need, which inevitably means the collection and storage of guest data which can cause mistrust and negative feelings towards the hotel (Andrade et al., 2002, Joinson and Paine, 2007), however, research shows (Stone et al., 1983, Goodwin, 1991, McKnight et al. 1998, Lee and Cranage, 2011) when this process is addressed then it is possible to compensate the negative feelings.

In our research, we focused on Generation Z as they are reaching the age when they can independently spend (William and Page, 2011) and they will become an important segment to cater to. Personalization can be a great tool to satisfy a co-creation preferring generation (Davies, 2013, Berkup, 2014, Sima, 2016); however, the high data need of personalization can create negative feelings toward the company. (Joinson and Paine, 2007). Given the peculiarities of the personalization – privacy paradox and the effects of trust toward the service provider, it is essential to look at the behavior of our future guests. Our goal was to identify if information collecting would create fear in Generation Z and if on the contrary trust in the company or value of personalization would make them more willing to help the process and share information. We also wanted to identify the specific information that they are willing to share about themselves.

There were four groups of hypotheses phrased, which aimed to cover the very vast topic. The results showed that trust can make Generation Z students open to sharing more personal information about themselves even very intimate information like their hobbies or health issues. We provided proof that Generation Z sees personalization as valuable and they value it so high, that they are willing to rise above their concerns about data sharing. They trust the hotel with specific information about their lives and interest if in return they receive something special. The importance of personalization or almost any action in the hotel sector can be only proven by its revenue-creating capability. That is the reason why the willingness to pay for personalized service topics became essential to test. The results show that the special treatment is appreciated by the Generation Z students, who are willing to pay for such a service. Fear is an essential part of the research about data sharing, and we could see that Generation Z is very concerned about how their data is being handled, although if they are assured that the process is right, they are willing to share. The research showed us that personalization is a good direction in winning over the hotel guest of the future, although hotels have a long way to go to assure the customers about data safety, make them trust the hotel, and introduce personalization techniques to the staff and their customers. Therefore, hotels and service providers that target younger customers should communicate with their customers and aim to be transparent about their data handling methods and reasons for data collection. With the right amount of communication and transparency, it is possible to build trust. When Generation Z customers trust the service provider, they will be willing to share data. Therefore, the service provider can differentiate themselves from the competition, and generate revenue as the participants of the study showed a willingness to pay for personalized services.

This study has its limitation as it focused on a small sample of university students. Also, there are differences between individuals and also between Generation Z students of different backgrounds. Therefore, the test will be repeated with first of all a bigger sample and following that with a sample of different cultural backgrounds. In our future research, we will extend the sample to the bigger population of Hungary and not only examine Generation Z but also compare preferences of other generations.

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- *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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