ATLAS Annual Conference 2018

Destination Dynamics

Copenhagen, Denmark
26-29 September, 2018

Book of Extended Abstracts

Content

Introduction ........................................................................................................................................... 6

Organizers ............................................................................................................................................... 7

Extended Abstracts .................................................................................................................................. 8

Tourism phobia and gentrification in Málaga, Spain ............................................................................... 8
  Fernando Almeida-García, Rafael Cortés-Macías, Antonia Balbuena-Vázquez .......................... 8
Mobilising Society: Making the attraction-event of the Bornholm Stage Run ............................... 10
  Jørgen Ole Bærenholdt, Jonas Larsen .............................................................................................. 10
Tourism Development and Creative Sectors in Oman: the case of Mutrah Souk as a place of Knowledge co-production in a living tourism destination ......................................................... 12
  Angelo Battaglia ................................................................................................................................ 12
An exploration of food champions in destinations in Ireland ............................................................. 16
  Michelle Bermingham, Ziene Mottiar ................................................................................................. 16
The Next Tourism Generation: Framing Social Skill Sets for Sustainability via Soft Skills .............. 22
  Sheena Carlisle, Silvia Barbone ...................................................................................................... 22
Why do young people participate in religious events? A case study of Macao’s Catholic processions .................................................................................................................................................. 27
  Sok Teng Che, Ubaldino Sequeira Couto ......................................................................................... 27
Place-based Displacement: Exploring the Impacts of Tourism in a Residential Area...................... 35
  Agustin Cocola-Gant ..................................................................................................................... 35
Lifestyle Migrants in Tourist Cities ..................................................................................................... 39
  Agustin Cocola-Gant ..................................................................................................................... 39
Smart destinations - understanding aspects of smart destinations as complex and adaptive systems ........................................................................................................................................................................ 43
  Jennie Gelter ................................................................................................................................ 43
Expanding the conceptual framework of post-conflict tourism. Monitoring change through reconciliation dynamics ................................................................................................................................................... 47
  Monica Guasca, Dominique Vanneste ......................................................................................... 47
Ecosystem alliances as drivers of tourism destination dynamics in Western Peloponnese, Greece ..........................................................52
  Antonios Klidas, Georgios Papageorgiou ..........................................................52
Tourism in Industry 4.0: Baby Boomers vs Echo Boomers ..................................56
  Saša Korže ........................................................................................................56
The Transformation of a Tourism City: Mental Health of Casino Employees ..........64
  Cindia Ching Chi Lam, Francis Cheung, Anise Wu ............................................64
Exploring the impacts of online social networks on people’s motivation to attend music festivals in China ........................................................................74
  Weng Si (Clara) Lei, Li Chun Chen ................................................................74
Attraction personality and destination loyalty: Conceptualisation and relation ........88
  Kim Ieng Loi, Weng Hang Kong, Jing Xu .........................................................88
Development of a method for filtering information for tourists associated with their needs ........................................................................................................102
  Hisashi Masuda ..................................................................................................102
Urban Tourism: Opportunities For Creative Entrepreneurs and Sustainable Tourism Development ..................................................................................................105
  Shirley Nieuwland, M. Lavanga .......................................................................105
Identifying tourism destinations from customers’ gaze .......................................108
  Isabel Paulino, Lluís Prats, Sergi Lozano .........................................................108
Authenticity vs Experience. Is Cultural Tourism still Alive in Art Cities? ............114
  Valeria Pica .........................................................................................................114
Tourism in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bangladesh: Political economy and ethical considerations ..........................................................................................118
  Sabiha Yeasmin Rosy ........................................................................................118
Wine & more… - Role of wineries in local tourism development .........................121
  Judit Sulyok ........................................................................................................121
Skills and transversality - a myth or a reality ......................................................126
  Lily Terzieva .........................................................................................................126
International PhD students as hosts and guests in VFR tourism .........................133
  My Tran, Kevin Moore .......................................................................................133
Evaluating academic events: one step deeper

Thomas Trøst Hansen, David Budtz Pederson, Carmel Foley

Destination resilience through diversity: a resident-based approach for inclusive tourism development

Lauren Ugur, Sarah Radzanowski

Developing the Brussels’ Art Nouveau into a themed landscape: towards new dynamics in Heritage Tourism

Dominique Vanneste, Kaat De Ridder

Modelling development of online peer-to-peer accommodation services: an agent-based approach

Evgeni Vinogradov

Concerns in Nairobi National Park; an Actor-Network theory perspective

Beatrice Waleghwa

Social Tourism and the Sustainable Way to Local Development

Prosper Wanner, Valeria Pica
ATLAS Annual Conference 2018  
Destination Dynamics  
Copenhagen, Denmark  
26-29 September, 2018

Introduction

Welcome to a dialogue about the places and people of tourism. During this conference, we explore tourism destinations as relational, intersectoral, collaborative, networked, hybrid, transnational and multiscalar endeavours. We expand on the connections between tourism and communities, value (co-)creation, rural and urban development, entrepreneurship and innovation as well as quality of life – to name just a few things. Essentially, we are interested in knowing more about how destinations change and how this relates to other parts of the social.

Welcome also to Copenhagen, a bustling Nordic capital experiencing increasing tourism numbers through a strong brand combining liveability, sustainability, food, design and diversity. Also, it is a destination which has declared war against “tourism as we know it” – at least in the newly launched and much-famed DMO strategy, Localhood. During the conference, we will get a first-hand look at how very different actors work together to develop tourism for the benefit of the destination, locals and tourist and also discuss the challenges and paradoxes ingrained in this ‘local’ tourism movement.

Lastly welcome to the home of TRU, the Tourism Research Unit at Aalborg University. As the heading for our research strategy, Destinations dynamics is a common denominator for the work and projects conducted under TRU. As hosts to the conference, TRU is committed to integrate the conference theme as a red thread throughout the keynotes, break-out sessions and general activities during the conference. We look forward to hosting you in our city and our university for some exciting days of sharing and co-creating new ways of understanding and engaging with Destination dynamics.
Organizers

The Conference is organised by ATLAS and Aalborg University in Copenhagen

Airth – the Alliance for Innovators and Researchers in Tourism and Hospitality – encourages contributions that strive to better understand innovation as a cornerstone of economic development. Contributions should align with the vision of Airth; that is: Understand, develop and implement tourism & hospitality innovations that sustainably create value for tourism, destination societies and businesses on Earth and beyond. More information at: http://www.airth.global

The conference is also made possible by:
Many cities have been transformed into cultural destinations taking advantage of the strong tourist growth recorded by many cities in the world. It is a global phenomenon that affects the traditional tourist cities (Venice, Salzburg, Bruges, etc.) and new destinations with cultural or heritage value. The online reservation platforms for tourist accommodation and low-cost flights has greatly increased the demand for trips to cultural cities. Malaga, a Mediterranean city in the south of Spain, has become a cultural destination, and some residents show an unfavorable attitude towards mass tourism.

On numerous occasions this process has caused the social unrest of traditional residents. This activity has given rise to two remarkable phenomena: gentrification and tourism phobia. This project is focused on knowing and analyzing the attitudes of these residents’ discomfort of the town center of Malaga.

The gentrification term is used for the first time by Ruth Glass in 1964 to refer to the residential change of the middle-class population to former lower-class areas of London (Gonçalves, 2009). The gentrification is a social, economic and urban phenomenon that occurs with intensity in tourist spaces that become attractive for new residents of greater purchasing power. Tourism phobia is being used to define residents’ rejection attitudes towards tourism (Huete and Mantecón, 2018). This rejection of tourism has been linked to social criticism, led by some associations and political groups, whose aim is to denounce a capitalist, extractive and socially predatory model, which uses tourism intensively. This phenomenon has spread to most of the historical centers of the tourist cities of Europe. Historic destinations with nearby airports and traditional cultural destinations are under greater pressure.

This study has been carried out by administering questionnaires in the historical center of the city of Malaga. We have administered 373 questionnaires that have statistical validity for a total population of 13,428 inhabitants, with a margin of error of 5% and a confidence level of 95. The first results show that there is a clear attitude of rejection towards the aspects most related to gentrification, while the attitude of tourism phobia is only found in some residents (30%) with a high level of education, own house and without a job directly related to the tourism sector. Although it is not the majority, a significant proportion of the resident population shows tourism phobia. We should note that this situation is striking a tourist destination that has almost 120 years, with a population that has always been pleasantly tourists. Conflicts with tourists are located in housing blocks, in which the activities of residents and tourists are mixed.

Residents who suffer most directly from gentrification are those who live on rent who cannot support the increase in prices and those who have lower incomes (elderly people, immigrants, young people, etc.). Tourism based on tourist housing has accelerated the process of expulsion of the population in the historic center of Malaga.
This project shows results and is financed by the projects: "Tourism-phobia and tourism-philia, Conflicts between residents and tourism in the city of Malaga". Malaga University. Andalucia Tech; and "Transformations of the historic urban landscape induced by tourism: Contradictions and controversies, governance and governance" (CSO2016-75470-R). Ministry of Economy, Government of Spain.
Mobilising Society: Making the attraction-event of the Bornholm Stage Run

Jørgen Ole Bærenholdt, Jonas Larsen
Roskilde University
Denmark
job@ruc.dk

Tourist events can play a significant role in mobilising society through the high amount and the intense quality of efforts and engagements involved. People increasingly see such events a crucial in the making and re-making of society. The paper investigates a case of this kind of mobilization. Thereby, it adds further dimensions to the understanding of tourism and sports as parts of the experience economy, where the experience economy is increasingly entangled with local inhabitants, visitors, cultural practices, material artefacts and so on, co-creating experiences (Fuglsang et al. 2016; Lorentzen et al. 2015).

Russo and Richards (2016) identify a ‘creative turn’ in tourism research, showing how the experience economy discourse includes more actors, potentially engaged in cultural practices and manifestations in mundane spaces. Events attract co-producers from near and far away, producing moving assemblages engaged with place-specific events, also at a distance (Bærenholdt 2017). Knudsen et al. (2015) describes a turn to citizen-driven intensive environments where attractive places themselves become drivers. And Edensor and Larsen (2018)) has shown how a Marathon run exemplifies ‘the contemporary eventification of place’, organised and staged through very specific rhythmic procedures securing the logistics of events with ‘military’ precision.

While there has been an idea about tourism and events as marginal things taking place at the fringe of what is really society, economy and everyday life, people in many places increasingly experience the opposite. Tourism and events are becoming central engines and markers of societies, unfolding and expanding networks beyond traditional territorial container-models of society. Tourism increasingly is acknowledged as a producer of society, where ‘tourism mobility has been constitutive of societal formations’ (Bærenholdt 2007: 153), and people’s coping practices contribute to regional and local development.

This paper investigates how society is mobilised on the island of Bornholm (with less than 40,000 permanent residents) in the yearly Etape Bornholm Stage Run. The Bornholm Stage Run is interesting since it has emerged as an attraction-event in the middle of processes of regeneration in the periphery of Denmark. Bornholm is a remote island, but it is also a society of people living in multiple places. The Stage Run, alongside many other sports – and other – events mobilises networks of participants, fans, other spectators as well as organisers. The efforts of the sports club Viking Atletik organising the event is recognised as contribution to develop Bornholm, and volunteers preparing and assisting the event see their contribution as aligned with the aspirations of local politicians to develop Bornholm in new ways, where the participation of people from inside and outside of Bornholm is seen as constitutive for regional and local development. People are mobilised to organise and take part in events that are seen as part of ‘our society’, performed through the unity and atmosphere around a certain place. The sports club Viking organising the run exemplifies the kinds of actors becoming involved in not only the touristification of society and the eventification of place, but also the making and mobilisation of society.

The research is based on interviews with runners, organisers and spectators as well as participant observation at the 2016 run. In addition, comes follow-up interviews in winter of 2018. The paper concludes on how the making of the stage run has become an important part of mobilising society.
References


Tourism Development and Creative Sectors in Oman: the case of Mutrah Souk as a place of Knowledge co-production in a living tourism destination

Angelo Battaglia  
Oman Tourism College  
Oman  
angelo.battaglia12@gmail.com

Today the tourism industry is one of the most important driven forces of economic growth worldwide, and Sultanate of Oman is playing a crucial role in this trend, mostly in reference to the unique geographical environmental system located in the Middle East and Gulf Region (UNWTO, 2016). After many years of rapidly development, the GCC Countries (Gulf Cooperation Countries) are paying more and more attention to the tourism economy, further because they are implementing in terms of diversification and advanced multi-segmentation of tertiary sector their local economies. Regarding GCC Countries (Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, Oman, Qatar, UAE), the main purpose consists in diversifying the local economic productions (not only based oil and gas industries), by addressing the policy actors and decision-makers to enhance broaden their horizons (implementing new alternatives of development) within their regional economic systems (TANFEEDH, 2017). Following this assumption, at this time the tourism represents the main economic and cultural pivot for re-thinking a new form of qualitative growth that is supposed to hold the sustainability and the environment principles as the main paradigms of reference.

Therefore, we also need to look at the underlying factors which have resulted in some profound changes to tourism worldwide and in Middle East and at how new forms of tourism (in contrast to mass or mainstream tourism) have emerged and are emerging in developing countries. This is not to argue that mass tourism to these countries, particularly in UAE, has been magically displaced, but alternatives to such tourism are now well establishing. We know that new destinations based on cultural and eco-tourism features are increasing everywhere, mostly in Oman, so we need to pay attention to these local and regional phenomena in order to face and understand their impacts (natural, social, cultural, economic, political, and environmental) and effects in the Sultanate (UNWTO/GTERC, 2014).

The emergence in Oman of new forms of tourism in terms of sustainable, cultural and eco-tourism is testimony to the rising of new characteristics of tourism and hospitality industries, which need to upgrade and work together in order to foster the level of development of tourism sector in the Country, both in conceptual and in a planning strategy approaches. It is known that the “new” in tourism also helps us to trace the relationships with new types of consumer (known as the middle class from emerging countries), new types of institutional, local and political linkages and new forms of economic organization/productions related to this particular region, which is experiencing a huge growth based on tourism and hospitality industry (UNWTO/GTERC, 2017).

This current research aims to clarify the potential development of tourism and local economic growth in the Sultanate of Oman, by presenting a particular case study located in the emerging creative and traditional area of Muscat. According to Florida (2002), many cities in developing countries have realized how they could take tourism, culture and creative industries as a strategic tool to expand productions opportunities and therefore, contribute to the growth of their local economies and societies. In addition, urban tourism is expanding and it takes place in cities that have the great concentration in cultural heritage, museums and historical buildings, which play significant part in tourism development of emerging destinations. In other word, the urban tourism consists of visits and experiences, focused on town and city destinations, which have a significant and vibrant cultural atmosphere. Muscat and its souk are a great example of this significant role played by culture and creative sector, mostly these days where the local economic players are
trying to implement the synergy and the connectivity among the cultural and creative actors which are shaping the new city’s landscape. The main purpose of this paper is to verify if it is possible or not to explore the knowledge co-production and co-creation dynamics in the living old city of Mutrah by studying the role of local community, local producers and tourists in terms of urban creativity and socio-territorial innovations within their historic souk (Porter, 1998; Castells, 2004; Camagni and Maillat, 2006; Xiang and Rongqiu, 2008). This new approach of urban creative regeneration in Oman implies that economic and cultural dynamics based on knowledge co-production and co-creation stimulate and support socio-economic development for specific and historical sites as a relevant tourist destination attractiveness (Santagata, 2002; Bagwell, 2008; Paiola, 2008). The socio-cultural elements that design the history of the place as well as its economic and tourism regeneration dynamics based on a co-creation experiences and values produced by tourists and local players, should drive the process of territorial growth based on the development of a creative ecosystem in the ancient city of Mutrah (Florida, 2002; Scott, 2006; Potts and al., 2008; Cohendet, 2010).

The Mutrah souq and its current re-development as historic city and waterfront could be a potential model of tourism development based on co-creation and co-production of consumers/tourists’ values and experiences, unique in the cultural framework of Middle East. In this light, consumers are co-producers and co-creators of value. The notion of the co-creative consumer should be particularly interesting to the tourism industry and destinations, in particular, since it is now commonly acknowledged that every tourist is different in its unique blend of experiences, motivations and desires. Our understanding of the consumer has evolved from the passive consumer to the active one and now the active consumer is transforming into the co-creative one. Finally, if we take in consideration the Mutrah Souk as living heritage destination, we could argue that co-creation concerns all the stakeholders involved in the process of tourism experiences. The entire Souk, embedded in the historic city of Mutrah, as tourism destinations become a place of co-creation and co-production where producers, suppliers, tourists and local community are participating actively in the process of creation.

The focus on the urban tourism in Oman has increased constantly in the last years, especially when it comes as economic driver for the Sultanate. Moreover, with the development of urban tourism, hospitality industries are being built in a way that concentrates on the quality, sustainable and the efficiency of its services and products to ultimately meet the high expectations of tourists/consumers. Furthermore, since tourist destinations and hotels reflect on the country’s face and reputation, it is necessary to find innovative ways that will catch the attention of tourists and convince them on why they should choose that particular destination as an attractiveness place of co-creation and co-production, despite the cultural barriers and/or differences.

However, even though urban tourism has many opportunities, it is also facing many challenges in Middle East like the overuse and deterioration of resources, over development of facilities, city congestion, and reduced quality of life for locals and for visitor’s experience. On other hand, there are as well some positive elements of urban tourism such as growing the income of country, employment, investment (domestic and foreign), and city promotion in terms of cultural identity and cultural heritage.

Hence, by recognizing these current challenges, we could argue that the Muscat urban tourism as emerging destination should be ready to turn into this potential urban model of development based on the ancient characteristics of the historic city and on its creative regenerate souk (Markusen, 2006; McCarthy, 2006; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004). This study considers urban tourism and territorial innovations as an integrated strategy for developing the tourism attractiveness in the port and in the historic souk of Muscat. The destination needs to think carefully about the aspects of creativity that are linked to the particular qualities of place, and which give to the creative tourists a specific motivation to visit (UNWTO, 2007). It is also important
for local actors like DMO (Destination Management Organizations) to implement the level of socio-innovations based on creativity, which is also anchored in the destination dynamics. To conclude, the destinations can be thought of as experience and living spaces, in which local communities and consumers can co-create their personal meanings through engagement in authentic experiences (UNWTO, 2017). Oman as an emerging tourism destination represents a very good example of uniqueness and authenticity, based on their traditional identity and on new modernity.

References


UNWTO/GTERC (2014), Asian Tourism Trends, Madrid, UNWTO.

UNWTO/GTERC (2017), Asian Tourism Trends, Madrid, UNWTO.

UNWTO (2007), A Practical Guide to destination Management, Madrid, UNWTO.

UNWTO (2016), Tourism Highlights 2016, Madrid, UNWTO.

UNWTO (2017), Annual Report 2016, Madrid, UNWTO.

An exploration of food champions in destinations in Ireland

Michelle Bermingham, Ziene Mottiar
Dublin Institute of Technology
Ireland
d10119877@mydit.ie

Food tourism has been growing over the last 10 years, receiving interest in academic research as well as in industry (UNWTO, 2012). The Global Report on Food Tourism (UNWTO 2012) highlights the fact that food tourism is playing a significant role in enticing tourists to particular destinations and according to the World Food Travel Association, global food tourism is a $150 billion per year industry. Much of the literature in food tourism focuses on tourists and their experiences (Everett, 2016), the impact of a destination's food offering on the tourist's decision making (Sengel, Karagoz, Cetin, Dincer, Erugral & Balik, 2015), and the marketing of food tourism products and services (Adeyinka-Ojo & Khoo-Lattimore, 2016). There is a gap in understanding about food tourism providers and the factors which lead to the development of successful food tourism destinations. This research focuses on the role of leaders in food tourism.

In terms of the development of tourism destinations generally, the key role of leaders is recognised (McGehee, Knollenberg & Komorowski, 2015) During the initial stages, their role is perceived as of vital importance as often it is these persons who motivate and encourage the development, keeping in mind the overall goals and vision of the community (Poskas & Messer, 2015). Collinge et al (2010) note the important role that effective leadership can have in terms of taking advantage of opportunities and consequently making a destination more competitive. There have been few studies that have explored these leaders in terms of their role and the characteristics and skills that are required to carry out the role. Haven-Tang & Jones (2012) recognise that for rural tourism development to be successful, a solid leader is necessary for cross-sectoral relations amongst rural tourism businesses, carrying out tasks that require risk taking to improve the destination and establish strong connections between the various sectors within the rural economy. One particular study carried out by Long and Nuckolls (1994), concentrated on the leadership traits required for rural tourism development. They established that to be successful in developing sustainable rural tourism the leader should be knowledgeable, enthusiastic, energetic, and motivated.

In food tourism literature, the importance of a ‘champion’ has been identified (Hall, 2003; Hall & Gossling, 2016). These champions play a key role in the development of the food tourism concept, encouraging others to engage in this activity and also aide the development of a local vision, creating a diverse range of food tourism product offerings to cater to food tourists. While their important role has been highlighted, to date there has been little research on these champions. This paper asks what is the role that food champions play in developing food destinations? What were their motivations in taking on this role? What characteristics and skills do they believe they have that allows them to play this role? How do they interact with others inside and outside the destination?

Leadership in Food Tourism

Literature in food tourism discusses the importance of a ‘champion’ in networks and clusters, as well in food tourism strategies. Hall (2003) recognises that successful regional food tourism business strategies involve the formation of intangible capital which is converted from intangible assets, namely intellectual property, network, brand and talent. The talent and management of suitable knowledge bases are vital for food tourism and in the knowledge economy, regions and firms must entice, keep and grow the best of their people (Hall, 2005). The role of the champion was highlighted as of particular significance in the development of food tourism networks and
clusters (Hall, 2003). This is reflected by Stafford & O’Leary (2013, p.34) who highlight the significance of champions in developing food tourism initiatives, as individuals who are enthusiastic who have a vision, and who “act as catalysts of change”. These persons may be considered as leaders by other network members and they are frequently seen at the forefront of individual projects.

A champion (as described by Mair & Laing, 2012, p.686) is “an individual who encourages or is an advocate of a particular cause or way of thinking.” Frost, Laing, Best, Williams, Strickland & Lade (2016) suggest that in context of food tourism, it can be used to describe individuals who have played a significant role in emphasising the importance of food heritage in their region or country. It is interesting to note the use of the word champion rather than leader to describe this role in the literature. While it is not overtly discussed, this preference seems to reflect the fact that often this role is more of a facilitator or advocate rather than a more traditional leader who holds significant power and plays the role of a decision maker.

However, despite the recognised importance of leadership in food tourism, little is known about these champions. As O’Leary & Stafford (2013) point out, the significance of a champion and the leadership they deliver has been identified as crucial in food tourism development, however what is just as important, is understanding how these champions carry out this role. That is the focus of this paper.

**Food Tourism in Ireland**

Food tourism is becoming increasingly important within Ireland and Failte Ireland have developed Food Tourism plans with the objective of increasing the number of visitors to the country, employment and revenue. The vision of food tourism for Ireland as a destination is that “Ireland will be recognised by visitors for memorable food experiences which evoke a unique sense of place, culture and hospitality” (Fáilte Ireland, 2016).

To achieve these goals Fáilte Ireland provides support and tools for food tourism product providers. In addition to this in 2013 they selected 21 ‘Food Champions’ to help to lead the development of food tourism in their regions. (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). The food champions are “people on the ground with proven ability to champion Irish food, influence Irish cuisine, promote and develop Irish food tourism; individuals recognised locally as doers, networkers, connectors; people who know how to talk the talk, but also walk the walk”. These food champions were all nominated by their peers and selected by Fáilte Ireland to come together to form part of the food tourism development network.

**Methodology**

This article is a result of a methodological approach that utilises qualitative techniques, namely in-depth, semi-structured interviews. The researcher conducted the interviews with nine of the current food champions, who are proactive in the development of food tourism in Ireland. In depth interviews are extremely useful in interpretivism and involve the researcher interviewing informants face-to-face in order to comprehend their views on their experiences of life or situations, in their own words (Kumar, 2011, Stacks, 2011).

As well as allocating specific questions for the respondent to answer, semi structured interviews allowed the researcher to ask other questions to expand on answers that may have been given but are out of the ordinary or unforeseen (Mitchell & Jolley, 2013). This tool allows for more flexibility than the structured interview and allows the researcher to choose the direction they want to go with the interview (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003; Currie, 2005).

**Discussion**
The purpose of this study was to understand the role that food champions play in developing food destinations? This was done by asking questions such as: What were their motivations in taking on this role? What characteristics and skills do they believe they have that allows them to play this role? How do they interact with others inside and outside the destination?

**Motivations and Objectives**

The interviewees were motivated to be a part of the Fáilte Ireland food tourism network for different reasons. For some it was an opportunity to promote their local area, develop food tourism in Ireland and change the perception of Irish food. But in addition to the benefits for their local areas and food tourism generally there were also personal benefits. One interviewee spoke about the opportunity it brings:

“The food champion role just gives you a certain amount of validity, and a certain, a slightly bigger voice… [becoming a champion has], got me mentors and advisors, and in front of the right people to talk about things, that helped them with the projects they were working on in 2018” (Interviewee 7).

It was agreed amongst other champions that having the title of food champion helped them get other local producers and providers involved. It was also evident from several of the champions that they were already championing Irish food before they became Food Champions:

“I suppose my role in food, and what I've been doing over the past years with Irish food and being here. I've always been a champion of local product, and local food” (Interviewee 8).

Others felt this was an opportunity to drive something:

“I've great pride in Ireland and Irish food, and our industry, and what our industry is, and what our industry can become, and I love that if I'm given an opportunity to help drive something like that forward and make it a better place for everybody else both people working within the industry, and then experiential for people viewing the industry, and viewing Ireland as a whole” (Interviewee 7).

It is interesting to note the different motivations identified, from those who saw it as a formalising of the role they already played, to those who saw the role as a way of effecting local change and bringing people together and then those who saw it from a personal perspective as a role that gave them power and influence. This reflects the findings of O'Leary and Stafford (2013) who also identified a range of different motivations for food tourism network membership. It seems likely that different motivations would result in different approaches and strategies and so while all of the individuals were appointed to the same role of ‘champion’ the way they operationalised this role could be quite different depending on their motivations and thus their primary objectives.

**Characteristics & Skills**

The interviewees were asked if there are any characteristics or skills they feel are required to be a food champion. Being knowledgeable about the industry and passionate about what you do was ranked high amongst all the champions:

“It's also like everyone was chosen because they have a lot of experience in what they're doing. I think I was probably nominated because I am very passionate about local producers. I think it is a case that you need to be passionate about what you're doing and have some kind of information about the industry” (Interviewee 6).

Other qualities that appeared important included being pro-active, motivated, strong minded, trustworthy, assertive and opinionated. One interviewee also spoke of the importance of being a
networker. These characteristics reflect those identified in the literature on leaders in tourism destinations by Long and Nuckolls (1994).

**Relations**

A key role for the champion is to encourage others in the area to develop food tourism as an offering. As shown above for some it was their ability to interact well with others in their locality that they saw as a key characteristic for the role of a food champion. As one champion noted “we work very closely with all of our neighbours” (Interviewee 7).

But working well with others wasn’t always easy, some mentioned the difficulties of working with other providers. When talking about the relationship with the local vegetable supplier, one interviewee noted:

> Just a conversation I had this morning with the vegetable man, and I asked him, “where is my Irish veg? It really frustrates me when they try to push non-Irish produce. You invest in your community, and it comes back to you. If we don’t invest in our farmers, we’ll die” (Interviewee 8).

The difficulties of developing local co-operation was mentioned by one of the champions. They spoke of a local food trail which was set up and was free to join but how they had decided to charge a membership fee this year and that had impacted the interest in the trail. They discussed the challenge of not having a template or a structure that they could use when they set up and how funding was an issue, hence the introduction of the membership fee. (Interviewee 3).

The interviewees spoke openly about their relationship and interactions with other champions. It was evident that most felt that becoming a Food Champion had not only brought together a group of like-minded people with whom they could interact with on a business level, but also with whom friendships had formed:

> “Yeah, very much friendships. I mean we’re all great friends, and you know, and it’s great having different kind of link ins all over the country, you know” (Interviewee 7).

> “The amount of positive things that are happening that I’d attend as a food champion, and the circle of people in the food champion initiative is amazing” (Interviewee 4).

This indicates an additional positive effect of the Failte Ireland champions strategy as a network of champions has been developed which may have an impact beyond the local effect in individual destinations which was the specific objective. This network has the potential to have a role in the development of food tourism at a national and strategic level as these experts pool their knowledge and experiences.

All of the champions agreed that they will continue to work together even when their time as a Fáilte Ireland Food Champion comes to an end. Many of the champions have collaborated together on projects with major brands such as Guinness and featured on National Television to spread the word about Irelands Food Tourism offering. They spoke of the creation of a Whatsapp group and a twitter hashtag that would allow them to keep in touch and share what real Irish Food is. They emphasised their reliance on each other as individuals with a wealth of knowledge to whom they could turn to for advice and assistance.

**Conclusion**

The significant role of the leader or champion in the development of food tourism has been highlighted in food tourism literature. These individuals have been recognised for the role that they play in encouraging and motivating others in their area and creating a vision for their area.
This research has considered the motivations of the Food Champions operating in Ireland as part of the Food Champion Programme. It has shown that the champions can have a range of motivations which lead to them taking this role and that a key role they play is encouraging others to be part of the development of food tourism and this requires particular personal characteristics. Of particular interest is the finding that these leaders themselves create a network of experts and this is a contribution to our thinking as in the literature the focus tends to be on leaders and their relationship with followers (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2012) but this research has identified the importance of the relationships of leaders with other leaders. The findings of the study have implications for policy makers planning on using food champions as a way of developing food tourism and as this research continues it is expected that deeper exploration of individual leaders and their roles and relationships will provide us with lessons that will inform our thinking about these important stakeholders in food tourism.

References


UNWTO (2012) Global Report on Food Tourism, Spain: UNWTO.
There are many aspirations and principles of sustainable tourism, which advocate social values and ethics in destinations to support a better society. This can be realized by the means of a friendly welcoming destination for visitors; a fair, respectful and progressive environment for employees and a comfortable and healthy environment for residents (UNWTO 1999; Smith and Duffy 2003; Fennell 2006). However, such principles need matching social skill sets to achieve the goals of sustainable and responsible tourism and bring change within organisations and attitudinal change in employees. Innovative education, training, awareness raising and knowledge development can make a difference to people’s lives and the local landscapes of tourism destinations. Until recently, this need for a comprehensive skills strategy that can integrate with local sustainable tourism frameworks and strategies, training and knowledge providers and tourism industry sectors, has largely been ignored. This lack of a holistic approach to sustainable tourism training and education that brings together all destination stakeholders including education providers, government, businesses and employees is starting to gain momentum. This led to a new ground-breaking 4-year project entitled the *Next Tourism Generation (NTG)*, which started in January 2018. Funded by the European Commission, to secure sector skills alliances within member states and establish a Blueprint Strategy for Sectoral Skills Development in Tourism (European Commission, 2017), the project hopes to respond to the fast changing and increasing skills gaps in digital, green and social skills sets. The Blueprint for Sectoral Cooperation on Skills brings together businesses, education and training providers, professional associations, chambers of commerce, social partners and other relevant stakeholders to develop a targeted strategy and concrete action plan to close the skills gap in the tourism sector.

In particular, the NTG project aims to create transformative cooperation in key tourism sub-sectors including food and beverage, visitor attractions, accommodation, destination management and tour operators through the development of a scalable mechanism and model for sustainable and digital curricula that can be utilised by industry and education providers at regional, national and European level. In order to achieve this the NTG project will develop, deliver and test NTG Skills Products, such as a comprehensive sustainable tourism skills matrix, skills toolkit and a wide range of skills delivery methods and content that can be adopted by professionals, trainers, students, university tourism departments, local authorities and companies.

There are many university tourism and hospitality undergraduate and Masters degree programmes which deliver sustainable tourism content and knowledge via modules. Additionally, sustainable tourism certification schemes and qualifications are delivered by international and independent organizations (i.e. World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) World Travel Tourism Council (WTTC) Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC), Foundation for European Sustainable Tourism (FEST), which advocate knowledge and understanding of sustainable tourism principles, issues, challenges and case study scenarios. However, the translation of knowledge of sustainable tourism principles to actual implementation within businesses, government and destinations is not always straight forward and requires a range of soft skills to implement policies, projects, programmes and initiatives. One of the key variables of sustainable tourism, which is considered particularly complex to bring change at a company or destination level, is the socio-cultural pillar (for example: working conditions, residents and tourists needs, cross-cultural understanding). Essentially these core factors reflect the needs of the destination
society and visitors and are often ignored in destinations and can lead to resident frustration towards to tourists and the tourism industry. Therefore, a new training approach is needed to support the integration of soft skills in the industry and educational systems. This supports Baum’s (2018; Davidson & Wang, 2011) call for a more comprehensive attention to sustainable human resource management in tourism organisations.

A detailed breakdown of skills required for sustainable tourism implementation is lacking and this paper aims to unpack the soft skills required to deal with negative social impacts of tourism and provide a framework that can help to underpin future training courses and module content as well as facilitate industry led partnerships for skills development.

A new development within the tourism sector is given by the European Commission which has prioritised skills as the vehicle to tourism growth. The EU approach has invested in the creation of the “Blueprint for Sectoral Cooperation on Skills” (European Commission, 2017) which fosters sustainable partnerships among stakeholders to translate tourism growth into a comprehensive skills strategy and to take action to address sectoral skills needs. As an example, from the national prospective, Wales has started to recognise the importance of acting on skills development in sustainable tourism, which fits the Wellbeing of Future Generation (Wales) Act 2015 (Welsh Government, 2015). The Welsh Government has started to implement the Regional Skills Partnership Strategy via local government, businesses and trade associations to improve delivery of skills. This indicates the importance of public and private collaboration to develop a new strategic and operational approach to skills, training, education, provision for all sizes of businesses.

The NTG project will provide for the first time a skills matrix of the basic, operational and managerial skills required to implement sustainable tourism in 5 subsectors. The matrix will be built through a collaboration among training providers, companies, public authorities and trade associations. A skills-based pathway targeted at different levels can also help people to progress in their careers in tourism and develop sustainable and responsible practice. This in turn could help improve the poor image associated with tourism employment. There is a two-pronged necessity to demonstrate how soft skills are required in order to implement strategies underpinned by sensitivity, empathy and care for destination well-being. Firstly, there is a rising importance of emotional intelligence and understanding of different groups of visitors, employees and residents in society and their complex needs. For example, certain issues require a prerequisite to understand how to respond to issues related to the elderly, disability access, gender equality, cross-cultural characteristics and host-guest relations. Additionally, where over-tourism, excess carrying capacity and overcrowding put pressure on destination groups, it is becoming increasingly important to consider destination and business management responses to these factors from a public and private sector perspective. Secondly, there is a need for a more comprehensive and informed set of skills such as ethical decision-making, problem-solving and teamwork, related to implementing projects to support these key stakeholder groups. This could also relate to change management strategies to bring a significant change in attitudes, innovation and transformative leadership within an organisation to develop actions and provide creativity and originality in response to such destination, society based issues.

A greater depth and detail is required to the skills required to manage complex social issues and impacts arising from tourism and hospitality practice to bring solutions to challenging scenarios. This is essential for government, industry and academia to apply social sustainability principles within destinations and businesses. This necessitates a shift in opinions, attitudes and thereby practice within tourism and hospitality organisations (Baum, 2015). Such complexity of sustainable tourism principles requires effective project management supported by appropriate soft skill sets to respond to these principles in a dynamic yet sensitive and respectful manner. The new Project Management for Sustainable Development (PM4SD) training certification is a
useful and practical tool to support the implementation of sustainability-based projects and to empower leaders, managers and staff members (Barbone, 2018). Project Management for Sustainable Development (PM4SD™) is a specialized training scheme for organizations and professionals working in the tourism sector. This training scheme forms an important benchmark for competitiveness and growth in the tourism industry and the achievement of sustainable development goals.

PM4SD™ is especially relevant for project managers, policy makers, tourism organizations as well as associations, governments, construction managers, universities, training organizations, NGOs, researchers, students involved in small, medium and large tourism development projects. In essence this training tool will facilitate a better working environment and mindset for projects that are implemented between stakeholders from different working areas (e.g. public and private sector, but also coming from different thematic backgrounds e.g. culture, hospitality, agriculture, transport, etc.). PM4SD™ addresses the needs of businesses, destinations and host communities to plan and manage sustainable tourism initiatives and projects of any size. The approach is transparent and holistic, with a focus on delivering long-term benefits for all involved stakeholders. The learning outcomes include soft skills such as: strategic thinking, leadership, policy making, project management, entrepreneurship, planning, problem solving, ethical decision making, cultural understanding.

The development model in Figure 1, Soft Skills for Sustainable Tourism, illustrates the basic core skills required to work with a range of social issues and themes in tourism development. The model also illustrates the opportunity to progress using those skills to supervisory and senior management levels to ensure the integration of social sustainability principles, indicators and associated programmes into long-term innovation and practice that can positively influence society. The model helps tourism organisations to focus on more tourism employees to acquire the core set of competences and skills necessary to work in destinations with a sustainable management approach and with innovative mindsets. This will help and enhance the potential of tourism to contribute to well-being of destination societies through work and visitors.

![Figure 1: Soft Skills for Sustainable Tourism Development](image-url)
These soft skills for sustainability represent a core part of the Next Tourism Generation Project, which brings together key actions within the Skills Agenda for Europe supported by the European Commission to better address social issues within destination societies. This includes a review of the social skills between level 3 and level 7 to utilise the European Qualifications Framework for a better understanding of existing tourism and hospitality qualifications and how they can be upgraded with digital and sustainability skill sets for the labour market that are relevant to particular strategic and policy developments. The Blueprint for Sectoral Cooperation on Skills fundamentally aims to improve skills intelligence, mapping and needs matching to address skills shortages in tourism. The skills mapping process will lead to the development of a Next Tourism Generation Skills Matrix, which can integrate with the existing Europass and ESCO job search frameworks (European Commission 2016, 2018). These aim to offer potential tourism and hospitality employees with better and easier-to-use tools to present their skills and get useful real-time information on skills needs and trends that can help with career and learning choices. In order to help address social issues within tourism it is vital that future students and current employees can access Vocational Education and Training (VET) by enhancing opportunities to undertake a work-based learning experience and promoting greater visibility of good labour market outcomes of VET (Pernham, 2001; leader, 2003). Through the effective mapping of sustainability skills, matched with job roles and responsibilities new delivery methods, content of training, education can be developed, and best practice identified.

The NTG Consortium brings together a unique multi-disciplinary trade and education partnership, which comprises fourteen partners: seven industry trade associations and six universities and the Association of Tourism Lecturers and Students ATLAS in Europe. The aim is to address the identified gaps in provisions of skills on levels 3 to 7 in education with a multi stage, varied methodology approach. This encompasses secondary and primary quantitative assessment approach to assess current gaps and skills provision, qualitative approaches engaging industry professionals via Industry Skills led groups, followed by the development of the skills matrix based on the findings. Secondary research has been completed (although this will continue throughout the project) and the partners are currently working towards completing quantitative stage of research.

References

Baum, T. (2015), Human resources in tourism: Still waiting for change, Tourism Management, 28, 1383-1389

Barbone, S. (2018), Project Management for Sustainable Development - PM4SD®, TSO

Davidson, M. and Wang, Y (2011), Sustainable labor practices? Hotel human resource managers views on turnover and skills shortages, Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism, 10(3), 111-120

European Commission (2016), A New Europass Framework: helping people make their skills and qualifications more visible, Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion, European Commission

European Commission (2017), Blueprint for sectoral cooperation on skills, Tourism Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union


Fennell, D. A (2006), Tourism Ethics, Channel view Publications, Clevedon


UNWTO (1999), Global Codes of Ethics, WTO general Assembly, Santiago, Chile

Introduction

Macao was the longest European colony in the Far East. With over 450 years of Portuguese culture, Macao inherited the food, rituals, language and architecture. Although Macao is religiously neutral, it is probably second to the Philippines in Asia in terms of how Christianity plays a role in daily life. Macao was the base for Christian evangelization of China and Japan. Local people of mixed Portuguese and Chinese ancestry are known as the Macanese people. The majority of Portuguese and Macanese people are Roman Catholics. Like the majority of Catholics in the world, they attend mass at church, celebrate Christmas and Easter, as well as other Catholic events and even public holidays dedicated to Catholic feast days. The Portuguese also influenced Macao’s festivals and events, one of which is the Catholic processions (Couto, 2010).

The Encyclopædia Britannica (2009) describes a Procession as an organized body of people progressing formally or in a ceremonial manner as a part of a Christian religious ritual or as an expression of devotion. Processions are often joyful religious occasions, bringing the devout together to celebrate. In Macao, there are two major Catholic processions, the Procession of Our Lady of Fátima and the Procession of the Passion of Our Lord Jesus. These processions are devoted to Jesus Christ and to the Our Lady of Fátima, which is a reminiscent of Macao’s colonial past and attachment to the Portuguese.

In the research of Emmons (2005), University male students have the lowest level of spiritual strivings; however, church-going females and elderly tend to have the highest levels. Besides, younger people are also less likely to be religious, particularly with today’s proliferation of smart technologies. Younger population in Macao was not brought up with a western and/or Catholic influence. Therefore, it is uncertain as to how young people perceive the Catholic processions and what motivates them to attend.

Crompton and McKay (1997) stated three reasons why it is important to research on event motivation: to design offerings to festival visitors, to understand the relation between motives and satisfaction and to find out decision processes of festival visitors with motives. Religion has been a key motive for travelling to sacred sites, religious events and festivals.

Using a qualitative approach by semi-structured interviews and observations, this study aims to explore the motives of young Catholics participating the Procession of the Passion of Our Lord Jesus. This research allows the procession organizer to understand the participation of young Catholics and their motivations of attending religious procession to achieve adequate transmission and safeguarding a religious procession for Macao.

Literature Review

The ‘iceberg model’ is typically used to explain the different layers of culture. Similar to an iceberg, part of a person’s culture is ‘above water’ which is noticeable and easy to know, which includes clothing, language, religion etc. However, the majority of a culture is submerged ‘in the water’,
which includes aspects of culture such as justice, education and group norms. They drive the behaviors of the people who have same culture (Hanley, 1999). Collier and Thomas (1988) explained cultural identity as the identification to be accepted into a group that shares a set of symbols, meanings and norms. Taylor and Usborne (2010) stated cultural identity as a cultural template of an individual, which provides norms, values and behavioral scripts. The more this commitment is, the more significant the role is to an individual’s identity.

Methodology

Data collection was conducted in two phases over two Catholic processions in Macao. In each phase, data collection was primarily by semi-structured interviews, supplemented by observations.

Phase 1 of the data collection was conducted on Oct 13, 2017, during the 100th Anniversary of the Apparition of the Virgin Mary Procession to celebrate the last Marian apparition, which was 100 years ago in Fátima, Portugal. Interviews in the first phase were done like a casual conversation. The major questions of where the participants from and what were the motivations were asked to all six respondents. Observation was adopted in both phases which field notes and photos were taken to record how people behaved in the procession. By combining observation with other data collection methods, researchers are allowed to collect relatively “objective firsthand”. Age range of participants, ethnicity, the dressing style and the items they carried were observed in phase 1.

Phase 2 of the data collection was conducted February 17-18, 2018, during the Procession of the Passion of Our Lord Jesus. The main purpose of conducting semi-structured interviews was to understand how younger Catholics were motivated to attend the Procession of the Passion of Our Lord Jesus. Thirteen open questions were developed from the four research objectives (see Appendix A for the interview questions). Three interviews were conducted onsite and one was conducted one week later. Observations in phase 2 was conducted by observing group patterns, facial expression, atmosphere and language of mass were noted down which cannot be identified in pictures.

Purposive sampling was used to pick respondents in both phases. All interviews were transcribed verbatim for content analysis. Thematic analysis was adopted to analyze interviews. Pre-defined codes representing themes identified the textual data had been created serve as a template for coding. As the interview transcript was being coded, more codes would be created fitting into pre-defined codes or added to the list of codes as new codes. The process of creating themes involved analyzing codes and considering how different codes may combine to form an overarching theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Results

Table 1 shows the profile of interviewees for Phase 1. They came in different groups, families with children, high school students from the two schools nearby with their teachers, a Catholic group from Shenzhen, and Vietnamese Catholics. Younger Catholics were observed coming with friends, with Catholic organizations or taking on a role in the procession.
The interviewees mentioned their religious belief as the key motivation for them to attend. “I came because of my faith in God.” (Interviewee D)

Interviewee J said the reason she came from Hong Kong to join the procession was because of the peaceful feeling after joining the procession “It feels good. My heart feels peaceful.” (Interviewee J)

In Phase 2, the scale of the Passion of Our Lord Jesus procession was larger. It was a solemn procession commemorating the sacrifice of Jesus Christ. The procession participants were mainly Chinese and Macanese. Fewer Catholic groups and organizations were publically identified. Younger Catholics were not actively joining this procession. Table 2 shows the profile of respondents. Due to confidentiality issues, interviewees were referred as Alex, Ben, Cody, Don and Elaine (not their real names).

Table 3 presents a thematic analysis of the interview transcripts, which were coded and categorised as per usual practice. A total of four main themes that summarise 38 sub-themes were found: “Perceptions”, “Meanings”, “Motives” and “Outcomes”
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions</td>
<td>Know procession information from social media and their parish priest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Know procession information from Catholic friends and teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommended to join by their parish priest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procession represents the start of Lent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A reminder of Jesus’s crucifixion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A strong feeling of solemnity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A time to recall faults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A get together time for Catholic people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An Opportunity to know religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strengthen religion identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meanings</td>
<td>To remind me to take responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The procession is a reminder of Lent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reminder to have self-control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The procession is a preparation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Way to Strengthen place identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A must- join event for Catholic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>As a new Catholic to know more about the religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Safeguard a religious event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motives</td>
<td>Peer Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Went with Catholic friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A get together time for Catholics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Religious identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A procession set by the Macao Diocese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepare for Lent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do missionary work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>See the procession as a pilgrimage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>Make new Catholic friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minor change to devoutness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More people know the information about the procession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do missionary work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflection of the past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Become a better person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Showcase the religious identity to people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Macao’s special event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Safeguard tradition events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Showcase Macao as a tourism city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special experience of the procession on busy street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The rarity of the procession in surrounding region</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Perceptions**

All respondents considered the procession as a time to recall faults and do reflection. Don believed the procession was related to Lent and to prepare for Good Friday.

“This religious event resembles the start of Lent. We meditate on Christ’s sacrifice for 40 days, deepen devotedness for Good Friday.” (Don)

**Meanings**

Two respondents also mentioned what the procession meant to Macao, as a tourism city. As Macao was being promoted as a tourism city, religious processions should be safeguarded.

“It is a traditional event for the religion. The near regions of Taiwan, Mainland China lack events like this one. Catholics from those regions are coming for this procession. Second, Macao as a tourism city, has many world heritage sites, it should keep tradition events.” (Don)

**Motives**

Alex liked to participate in processions. It was a time for him to gather with friends.

“I think it (the procession) is meaningful, because I can see all the Catholics friends.” (Alex)

Don explained that they should attend Catholic processions and other events as Catholics.

“Because this is an event set up by the Macao diocese to recall Jesus’ crucifixion, to prepare ourselves for Lent.” (Don)

Cody, who was from Hong Kong viewed the procession as a getaway trip.

“I see it (the procession) as a pilgrimage, getting away from Hong Kong. Being here disconnected from the internet, I can keep myself calm and focus on the walk.” (Cody)

**Outcomes**

Ben explained that non-Catholics would be attracted by the procession crowds. The procession was a channel letting people know more about the religion.

“Other than Catholics, non- Catholics are also attracted to watch the procession. It is also a kind of missionary work.” (Ben)

“Holding religious processions regularly is such a benefit to the Macao diocese. It is a channel letting people to know this religion, encouraging Catholics who are less- active to attend religious events.” (Alex)

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The findings of this research are the four themes identified, which were “Perceptions”, “Meanings”, “Motives” and “Outcomes”. The research aimed to explore the motives of young Catholics attending procession. Only the theme “Motive” would be further discussed. The three major motives of the respondents attending the Procession of the Passion of Our Lord Jesus were religious identity, social interaction and escape. Don and Elaine attended the procession because of religious identity. They explained the need to attend was simply because a Catholic should actively join Catholic activities. The second motive was the need for social interaction. Alex mentioned he came because he looked forward to meeting his friends and the first-timer Elaine attended because her friends invited her. In contrast, the motive of Cody, who was from Hong Kong, wanted to get away from his living place. He enjoyed staying in an unfamiliar place disconnected from internet. By knowing what motivates young Catholics to Catholic procession. It benefits the transmission and safeguarding of Catholic procession. It is vital that younger Catholics are actively involved into this unique procession in order to ensure the importance of it. As social interaction being one of the motives, Catholics school and Catholics groups could arrange visit to the procession, which motivate their participation by satisfying the social need. Since the major motive of attending the procession was religious identity as a Catholic. Macao Catholics schools and Catholic groups could work to strengthen their religious identity. It is
suggested assigning roles to young Catholics to help at church events in order to frequently perform their roles.

Catholic processions as special events foster Macao to be an eventful city. As Macao was built into a World Centre of Tourism and Leisure, Catholic processions brought tourists to Macao. Event is a tourist catalyst which offers the opportunity to overcome low season by making up for travel activity, increase the number of tourists, lengthen their stay and enlarge their expenditure. Many cultural events are recreation of past rituals and traditions. However, in order to be successful, cultural events need to be authentic (McCartney & Osti, 2007). With the participation young Catholics, the re-enactment of Catholic procession could be as genuinely as possible to the original form.

Catholic processions are hard to imitate. It is not just about money and space. But the number of participants, the Catholics, the right to use public space and the cohesiveness of the community. Even though Catholic processions cause disturbance in the city in Macao, the community and the pilgrims have been tolerating each other for many years. Western events have been celebrated along Chinese festivals, and neither the Chinese nor Portuguese, complained each other's presence (Couto, 2010).

Therefore, it is important for organisers and policy-makers to embrace this important and unique harmony through Catholic festivals. The lessons learnt should be applied into other events in order to achieve positive benefits in the society. Finally, emphasis should also be made in young people's interest in traditional festivals in order these festivities remain authentic and continue to survive.

References


Taylor, D. M., & Usborne, E. (2010). When I know who “we” are, I can be “me”: The primary role of cultural identity clarity for psychological well-being. *Transcultural psychiatry, 47*(1), 93-111.

Appendix 1: Interview Questions

Objective 1. To identify the perception of younger catholic to towards the Procession of the Passion of Our Lord Jesus procession

1. What do you think of the procession?
   你對聖像巡遊有甚麼印象/睇法?

2. How did you know about the procession?
   你如果得知道你對聖像巡遊的消息?

3. How will you describe the procession to a friend/tourist?
   你會如果對一個朋友或遊客描述聖像巡遊?

Objective 2. To find out the meanings of the procession to younger catholic

4. What does the procession mean to you?
   這次的聖像巡遊對你有甚麼意義?

5. What is your role in the procession? (e.g. procession participants, performers, bearer)
   你在聖像巡遊的角色?

6. What will you do in the procession?
   你在聖像巡遊中做甚麼?

Objective 3. To examine the motivation of younger catholic attending the procession?

7. Why did you come?
   有甚麼原因令你參加聖像巡遊? 動機?

8. Do you come with friends and family?
   你是與朋友與家人一起來的嗎?

9. Would you come alone? Why?
   你會自己一人來參加聖像巡遊嗎? 為什麼?

10. Will you revisit again? Why?
   你會再次參加聖像巡遊嗎
Objective 4. To identify the outcomes of younger catholic attending the procession

11. How do you feel after attending?
   參加完聖像巡遊有甚麼感受/感想?有

12. Do you have negative or positive opinions towards the procession?
   你對聖像巡遊有甚麼意見評價正面或反面?

13. How the procession affects you? In both short and long term (e.g. change of attitudes, religiousness, awareness of heritage/history)
   你認為聖像巡遊對你有甚麼影響?從長期和短期來說?
Place-based Displacement: Exploring the Impacts of Tourism in a Residential Area

Agustin Cocola-Gant  
University of Lisbon  
Portugal  
agustincocolagant@campus.ul.pt

Introduction

This paper explores the impacts of mass tourism in a central neighbourhood of Barcelona. It has been suggested that in the 21st century tourists consume residential areas that have not been planned as tourist spaces (Maitland, 2010; Quaglieri-Domínguez & Russo, 2010) and that the sharing of space between residents and tourists may be a source of conflict that revolves around competition for resources, facilities and the rights of access to these (Robinson, 2001). In such contexts, increased community opposition to urban tourism has been noted at an international scale (Colomb & Novy, 2016), and this is also the case in Barcelona (Cocola-Gant, 2015; Russo & Scarnato, 2017).

The examination of the impacts of urban tourism and the way residents experience the process should distinguish between changes in housing dynamics and changes in neighbourhood life. On the one hand, the growth of tourism in residential areas may pose additional pressures to an increasingly unaffordable housing market (Cocola-Gant, 2016; Gotham, 2005). On the other hand, tourism may affect the nature and use of entire neighbourhoods, not just the dynamics of the housing market. The aim of my research is to explore this latter point. How residents experience the transformation of their places by urban tourism has not been fully addressed by the literature and this is why authors have suggested that future research should examine this issue (Ashworth & Page, 2011; Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012). Rather than analysing changes caused by tourism, my objective is to examine how residents experience them on a daily basis.

I draw on the literature of place-based displacement and loss of place suggested by studies on gentrification. This is because, paradoxically, tourism research does not provide useful conceptual frameworks that enable researchers to explore the impacts caused by tourism in urban communities. When it comes to exploring the impacts of the leisure industry on cities, tourism research has traditionally focused on the economic impacts (Ashworth & Page, 2011). Researchers that have explored the host community’s perceptions of tourism normally focus on coastal and rural destinations (Brunt & Courtney, 1999) and on developing countries (Mowforth & Munt, 2015). However, research has not looked into how residents cope with tourism in the context of European urban centres (Pinkster & Boterman, 2017). In addition, quantitative methods have dominated research which has led to a narrow understanding of the issues surrounding socio-spatial impacts caused by tourism (Deery et al., 2012). In contrast, the literature on gentrification-induced displacement provides a conceptual framework to explore how indigenous communities are affected by processes of neighbourhood change and the arrival of new users. Research on displacement traditionally focused on the out-migration of residents but the true is that in many cases people find ways to survive and remain. In fact, according to Clark et al. (2017), staying is the usual practice and moving is a relatively rare event. In line with this, authors have explored the lived experience of residents that remain in gentrifying neighbourhoods and show that the transformation of the area is experienced as a sense of loss and dispossession due to the alteration of a familiar place (Cocola-Gant, 2018; Davidson, 2009; Shaw & Hagemans, 2015; Valli, 2015). This understanding of place-based displacement is crucial to assessing the impacts of tourism. I show that people with secured housing is not spatially dislocated but the arrival of visitors causes disruptions in the daily lives of residents that effectively displace them from the places they belong to.
Case study and methodology

My case study is the Gòtic neighbourhood in the historic centre of Barcelona (Cocola-Gant, 2014). It is probably the area most impacted by tourism in the city and so is a paradigmatic case in terms of exploring the impacts of the process. I adopted an ethnographic approach as the intention was to articulate a bottom-up view of place and give voice to long-term residents. I used participant observation, structured observation of public spaces used by residents and visitors, conducted 42 in-depth interviews with long-term residents and 14 interviews with key informants. To complement the ethnographic research, I surveyed 220 residents.

Results

My findings show that residents experience the transformation of the area as a process of dispossession. The growth of tourism causes daily practical and material disruptions that make everyday life increasingly unpleasant. The space has changed from being a place that provided services and gathering areas for the community into a space dominated by visitors and facilities catered to them. The result has been commercial gentrification, privatisation of public space, a lack of facilities to sit on, over-crowding of public areas and a continuous movement of transient consumers. Those changes results in lack of stores that residents need, noise, overcrowding, lack of public space and gathering places, and, ultimately, loss of community life and social bonds. In such a context, my findings show that the practical problems linked to these disruptions cause a sense of emotional loss whereby residents feel that they are dispossessed from their place. Most participants are not spatially displaced and wish to remain. I suggest that it is for this reason they experience a process of place-based displacement. It is not an impact that can be measured but it is bodily experienced on a daily basis. Below I list how changes at the neighbourhood scale affect the lives of residents on a daily basis.

Consumption facilities. Changes in commercial services are a central concern expressed by residents. The facilities that residents need on a daily basis such as bakeries, greengrocers, pharmacies or supermarkets are disappearing. Retail change is experienced by residents as a daily disruption and, importantly, as a process in which they feel dispossessed from the neighbourhood:

“Shops are for tourists. But I am not interested in them. And there are many. And bars, those which used to sell sandwiches now sell tapas and inauthentic food. The restaurants we use are disappearing. And we are lost like we are in a desert”

Public space. The overcrowding of public space causes mobility disruptions that severely undermines the quality of life of residents. This issue is a central point of distress and has been highlighted by several residents as a daily annoyance that makes the area increasingly unliveable. In addition, the removal of places to sit down and the growth of terraces means that public space is no longer a place for encounters and communal use. In the process, residents have been displaced from a place that is central to everyday life:

“We lived in the streets. Now it is not possible because reference sites have gone. Bars, shops, places to sit down in the shade where people can rest and talk – we do not have them anymore. The urban landscape has changed 100%. It has gone from being a place to be in and to socialise, to a place either to pass through or to consume and leave”.

Noise. Noise is probably the most dramatic disruption that undermines the quality of life of residents. The majority of participants agree that noise makes the neighbourhood an irritating place to live in. It is an issue of public health:

“Trying to live here is almost heroic, especially because of what happens at night. Tourists spend all night singing in the street and they use the lobbies of apartment buildings to
have sex. When you must battle every day just to be able to sleep, you have enough. Not sleeping affects your health”.

Loss of community life. My findings show that the loss of mutual support that results from the disintegration of the community make residents question whether it is convenient to continue living in the area. Importantly, participants relate the loss of community life to the growth of tourism. In this regard, the lack of gathering places is crucial. Such spaces of encounters for the indigenous community were squares, bars, shops, and ultimately the streets. However, many of these places have disappeared or residents have been displaced from them as they are now increasingly used by visitors. Also, the loss of community is linked to the lack of mixing between residents and visitors:

“The circulation of the street is transformed. They are not neighbours that go from one shop to another. But it is transformed into a thematic street for the procession of bicycles, segways or hordes of visitors. It is impossible to generate some kind of bond with these people”.

The important point is that those changes are experienced as a process of loss and dispossession in which the place now belong to ‘others’. Also, those disruptions express the existing tension between loss of place and place attachment. Although the place is less and less liveable, the majority of participants agree that they will not move out of the Gòtic area because it is the place in which they belong. However, ‘staying put’ becomes a ‘daily fight’ or a ‘battle to remain’:

“We are having a hard time. It is not possible to live here without being angry. But I do not want to leave. It is not fair. It would be really difficult for us to leave. I bought this house twenty years ago. All my time, effort, and love is invested in this place”.

Conclusion

My findings show that the transformation of the nature of the place is key to understanding the impacts of tourism. The fact that residential neighbourhoods become spaces of entertainment and consumption for visitors leads to a daily pressure that dramatically undermines the quality of life of residents. My argument is that place-based displacement occurs at two levels that mutually reinforce each other: a material loss and an emotional loss. Residents have lost critical resources for their everyday lives such as public space, stores, or human bonds. In addition, tourism causes other disruptions such as noise and overcrowding. These material resources are essential for their quality of life and are the material foundations to any sense of belonging in which one feels at home. However, the loss of these material resources leads to an emotional upheaval that is expressed in frustration, hopelessness and despair. These material resources were the familiar environment in which they were attached and so their disintegration produces an emotional loss. It leads to anger, mental stress, and to the feeling that the place now belongs to others. The loss of place, I suggest, should be understood as the combination of these two interwoven senses of loss.

References


Lifestyle Migrants in Tourist Cities

Agustin Cocola-Gant  
University of Lisbon  
Portugal  
agustincocolagant@campus.ul.pt

Introduction

The literature on lifestyle migration has shown how coastal and rural tourist areas became destinations for lifestyle migrants, particularly retired individuals (Benson & O’Reilly, 2009; Huete, Mantecón, & Estévez, 2013; O’Reilly, 2003). However, I agree with King (2017) that the lifestyle migration framework should be applied to young people moving to cities and, I suggest, in particular to tourist cities. Rather than retirement migration, globalisation has facilitated the mobility of young middle-class people across the globe, which in the European Union has been particularly significant since the free movement of people was introduced in the 1990s (O’Reilly, 2007). This include (i) mobile professionals working in advanced services, (ii) freelancers and flexible young professionals encouraged by the possibilities of working from home that move to places with better quality of life and consumption opportunities; (iii) young people and ‘neo-bohemians’ (Quaglieri-Domínguez & Russo, 2010) that as part of their transition to adulthood wish to have the experience of living in an exciting and vibrant city (King, 2017); and in relation to this, (iv) international students that choose their academic destination attracted by leisure activities and the image of cities as places to have fun (Malet-Calvo, 2017). What they have in common is that they form a group of transnational mobile consumers that decide where to locate according to possibilities for leisure rather than work. My argument is that as these young mobile consumers are examples of fluid forms of leisure and non-work-driven mobility (Servillo, Atkinson, & Russo, 2012), they should be considered lifestyle migrants.

The literature on lifestyle migration has highlighted that there is a significant relationship between the reception of tourism images and where leisure migrants wish to locate (Benson & O’Reilly, 2009; Huete et al., 2013; O’Reilly, 2003). As Benson and O’Reilly (2009: 614) state, “tourism facilitates this form of migration by constructing and marketing ideals” in a process in which lifestyle migrants generally visit the place as tourists and then decide to migrate. My argument here is that this link between tourism and lifestyle migration also takes place in cities and so it makes sense to assume that the growth of urban tourism will be followed by an increased number of young transnational migrants in urban centres.

The paper explores the case of the Gòtic neighbourhood in Barcelona, an area impacted by tourism but one that has also become a destination for young European and American migrants (Cocola-Gant, 2014). The growth of visitors and transnational migrants arriving to Barcelona took place simultaneously and the size of both groups rose particularly since the late 1990s and early 2000s. The aim of the research was (i) to explore the motivations behind the decision of lifestyle migrants to settle in the area. I wanted to explore whether the arrival of these migrants was linked to the development of tourism in the city; and (ii) to examine the cultural and spatial effects of lifestyle migration in the area. I this regard, I explored how long-term Spanish residents experienced the arrival of these migrants from more advanced economies. I conducted 42 in-depth interviews with residents living in the neighbourhood. Among the residents, 16 were from Western Europe or the United States and 26 were Spanish.
Results

My findings suggest that there are two key factors that link the development of tourism with the arrival of migrants: place promotion and opportunities for leisure and consumption. First, interviews with European and North American residents reveal that the representation of Barcelona, socially organised by the tourism industry (Russo & Scarnato, 2017; Smith, 2005), marketed ideals about the place that influenced their decision to migrate. All participants stated that prior to their immigration they had an idea of Barcelona as being an exciting place. For instance, a Swiss lawyer explains that she had professional opportunities in different cities but she chose Barcelona because “everybody knows that this is a fantastic place”. It seems that the expectations of transnational migrants mirror the ‘anticipation’ of the tourist gaze in which it is virtually impossible to have the desire of visiting a place without having an idea about it (Urry & Larsen, 2011). Second, participants suggest that the provision of leisure facilities, nightlife, culture, architecture as well as the weather and the cost of living are key pull factors. The leisure-led regeneration of Barcelona and the creation of a fun city that have been linked to the growth of tourism (Russo and Scarnato, 2017) has also been successful in attracting transnational migrants. Consequently, the expansion of tourism and transnational migration went hand-in-hand, particularly because the symbolic power of images that are so important in facilitating the occurrence of tourism also facilitated migration.

Migrants are predominantly young professionals who do not rely on the local labour market and already have a job or capital before settling in the city. I discovered a few cases in which migrants moved to Barcelona to find a job but they are highly paid professionals such as architects or lawyers. As they possess greater economic capital than the local population, the most prominent spatial impacts have led to gentrification (Cocola-Gant, 2018). This is in part because these migrants are typically privileged consumers of housing.

My findings suggest that lifestyle migrants tend to settle in the historic centre of Barcelona, particularly the Gòtic area, rather than in other parts of the city. I suggest that this spatial imprint of lifestyle migration is a strategy of self-protection and cultural reproduction. Lifestyle migrants do not identify themselves as tourists but they live in a holiday space. In other words, they feel more comfortable living in tourist areas and sharing spaces with visitors. The sense of integration of migrants in a tourist area is also explained by the facilities that they find in the neighbourhood. In particular, the provision of cafes and restaurants catered to transnational consumers rather than to local residents is an important point (Cocola-Gant, 2015). In such places, English is the main language and they serve food and drinks that have more to do with standards marked by transnational franchises and less with Spanish culture. The coexistence in similar places of transnational migrants, visitors and other transient users such as international students is another reason why the lifestyle migration framework should be applied to the locational decisions of the former. As it has been suggested by Benson and O’Reilly (2009), lifestyle migration per se emphasises ‘tourism as a way of life’, and this seems also to be the case here.

The view of long-term Spanish residents suggests that they feel excluded by culture and lifestyle and not only by economic factors. Firstly, the spaces frequented by visitors and transnational migrants are the places that long-term Spanish residents usually avoid. As a participant explains, “bars are not a reference point for us anymore because the people you meet there are precisely the people that you want to escape from. They sell ‘brunch’ and things that are not for us”. Secondly, for long-term residents it is increasingly difficult to distinguish whether transnational migrants are tourists or not. Migrants are seen as ‘permanent tourists’ rather than as part of the community. Lifestyle migrants are arguably not well integrated. Language abilities contribute to segregation but also their lives are marked by the temporary and transient nature of tourism. As a long-term resident explains, “those who move in disappear before you even try to get to know them”. For long-term residents, transnational migrants are a transient and floating population and
this adds its weight to the feeling that they are perceived as permanent tourists. Migrants form a
group of ‘fast movers’ that contrast with the lifestyle of residents who are ‘locked in’ (Servillo et
al., 2012). Furthermore, from the perspective of long-term residents housing in the neighbourhood
has been appropriated by tourism and by consumers from higher latitudes. Lifestyle migrants are
privileged consumers of housing in an area highly impacted by holiday rentals (Cocola-Gant,
2016). The feeling is that only foreign users from countries better positioned in the global division
of labour can access housing and this involves a sense of exclusion and dispossession.

Conclusion

My findings suggest the need to stretch the understanding of lifestyle migration from retirement
migration to coastal and rural areas and to consider the leisure-led mobility of young adults that
settle in urban centres, particularly in tourist cities. The motivation of migrants behind their
decision to settle in Barcelona shows that migration is clearly linked to tourism lifestyle and ideals
marked by the tourism representation of the city. In addition, this paper showed how lifestyle
migrants settle in a tourist area, live alongside tourism and overlap with international visitors rather
than mixing with long-term Spanish residents. This suggests the importance of further exploring
how lifestyle migration and tourism coexist and lead to the formation of ‘foreign only enclaves’.
My finding suggest that this coexistence is crucial in understanding the socio-spatial effects of the
process and how long-term residents are affected by them. As has been noted in other cases,
such overlap of tourism and lifestyle migration may lead to a process of ‘foreignization’ (Hayes,
2018) in which residents see that housing markets, commercial facilities and public spaces are
appropriated by consumers from wealthier economies that usually do not speak the local
language and possess distinctive patterns of consumption. I suggest that this may be also the
case of other Southern European cities but further exploration is needed.

References

Benson, M., & O’Reilly, K. (2009). Migration and the search for a better way of life: a critical exploration of

Cocola-Gant, A. (2014). The Invention of the Barcelona Gothic Quarter. Journal of Heritage Tourism,
9(1), 18–34.

reality. RC21 Conference (pp. 1–25). Urbino: ISA.

Online, 21(3), 10.


Huete, R., Mantecón, A., & Estévez, J. (2013). Challenges in lifestyle migration research: Reflections and
findings about the Spanish crisis. Mobilities, 8(3), 331–348.


transnational urban consumers. The example of Erasmus students in Lisbon (Portugal). Urban Studies,
online fir.

Tourist Studies, 3(3), 301–317.


Digital development has resulted in the concept of smart cities, and from it, the concept of smart destinations has emerged. Hence, adapting to the emerging technologies, will open up new challenges within tourism, destination development and as a consequence for DMOs. By applying the theoretical contexts of system and complexity theories to analyse the concept of emerging smart destinations, this research project will focus on how destinations and DMOs act in relation to a transition into this new digital landscape and the concept of smart development. I will use system, complexity and narrative theories to understand the crucial aspects of the development of the concept of smart destinations, defined as complex adaptive systems (Vargas-Sanchez, 2011). The overall aim is to understand how destinations and DMOs on a system level, adapt and convert to the development of becoming smart destinations. The scientific approach will be both qualitative research on stakeholder’s narratives and also, semi-quantitative research will be conducted through analysis of system elements using Systemic Indicator Systems approach. Research questions for this project will be: (1) How can an emerging smart destination be understood and conceptualized as a complex adaptive system? (2) How can differences in knowledge/interpretation among involved stakeholder types (professional, local, tourist, governmental) be understood related to smart destination development? (3) How can emerging smart destinations be understood as models of complex systems to show how planning, development, managing and organisation will be affected by smart development?

Background

During the mid-1990s, tourism scholars began to promote the ‘systemic approach’ to tourism, which implies a more comprehensive understanding of tourism destinations, considering tourism in the context of other systems that interact with the tourism industry (Jovicic, 2017). Leiper (2000) argues for destinations as open and flexible systems with a high degree of interactions between its elements, such as firms, residents, local authorities and tourists. Furthermore, Baggio and Cooper (2010) problematise a destination as a network of connected stakeholders/organisations, who is very important for the function of the destination. Thus, the academic discourse has embraced the topic of tourism destinations as complex adaptive systems (Baggio & Sainaghi, 2011), which implies destinations as systems of many components (Jovici, 2017). A key feature of adaptive systems is that they form structures which maintain their integrity, even affected by change, showing the ability to recover. Complex, self-organising and adaptive system are thereby dynamic and the self-organisation is a result of learning processes within the structure of the network (Fuchs & Baggio, 2017). This research approach can contribute to the current discourse that relates to smart tourism development, and to respond and act on the conditions of how destinations organise themselves as complex adaptive systems and their future behaviour.

Methodology

Complexity is essential of our present society with technological advances increasing interactions with more people, objects, organisations and systems. The complexity theory emerged when research on isolated parts of complex systems, such as tourism destinations, revealed only limited information about the behaviour (Vargas-Sanchez, 2011). Reducing a smart destination as a complex system to its elements and model it in terms of those elements, will not generate an
understanding of the system as a whole as it consists of numerous interconnecting parts. Hence, these parts will gain different properties together than separated, thus requiring a holistic research approach. Applying insights from complex system analysis could enhance our understanding of how a system behave in relation to internal and external disturbances. Also identifying elements that are locked-in to existing technologies and established products and services, preventing resilience. For a complex system, resilience is related to the magnitude of a shock that the system can absorb and still maintain the capability for the system to self-organise endogenously (Baggio, 2008). Hetherington (2013) argues for seeing the world from a complexity perspective means viewing it as a network of multiple, connected and open systems with the opportunity to dramatically varying due to trajectories of emergent development and interactions with other systems. For this research project, a methodology called Systemic Indicator System (SIS) will be applied, which uses a complex adaptive systems (CASs) approach, combining complexity science with system analysis.

The SIS approach brings together concepts of resilience thinking and adaptiveness through CASs approach, based on the understanding that social systems are self-organised, adaptable and interdependent. The aim with this approach in the context of smart destinations, is through smart development build resilience to change and shock in tourism destinations and strengthen the system’s capacity for learning and adaptation (Schianetz & Kavanagh, 2008). A complex adaptive system per se self-organise, learn and actively adapt to and shape changes. Olsson et.al. (2004) emphasise that the self-organising process of adaptive development has the potential to expand stability and make a system more robust to change. It is important to enhance the understanding of interconnections, behaviour and thresholds within the system of emerging smart destinations. Hence, the SIS assist in the definition of goals and priorities that lead to maintenance of the system functions when adapting to smart development (Bossel, 1999; Schianetz & Kavanagh, 2008). Despite the uncertainty of smart development, it is essential to identify components and indicators that can provide information about the system. This is to gain indicators which guide decisions and these indicators must be representative for the system and not identified ad hoc that just seem to be currently relevant (Bossel, 1999). Indicators should be comprehensive and covering all relevant aspects of the system and as well be identified and evaluated participatory to ensure the indicators encompasses the vision, sensemaking and value of the system. A deeper look at the tourism system reveals many relationships and components which are important to the system but not all are immediately obvious. Hence, a systems view is required for understanding essential relationships, and these processes require choice and selection at every stage guided by the participants knowledge and experience. Systems must be compatible with their system environment and its characteristic properties to stay viable and these properties orient the system’s function, development and behaviour. Learning to handle a complex system means to learn to recognise indicators as well as analysing the entire complexity of the system.

Before identifying indicators, one must first look for the ‘orientors’ of systems, and Bossel (1999) applied seven basic system immanent ‘orientors’ (Schianetz & Kavanagh, 2008): (1) Existence – the system must be compatible with and be able to exist in its natural environment. (2) Effectiveness – the system should over the long time be effective in the effort to secure required scarce resources. (3) Freedom of action – the system must have the ability to cope in various ways with challenges, to cope with different situations, different people etc. (4) Security – the system must be able to protect itself from detrimental effects of external variability, i.e. fluctuating and unpredictable conditions outside the normal environment. (5) Adaptability – the system should be able to learn, adapt and self-organise to generate more appropriate responses to surrounding challenges. (6) Coexistence – the system must be able to modify its behaviour to respond appropriately to the behaviour of the other systems in its environment. (7) Psychological needs – an additional orientor for sentient beings that must be satisfied like identity, avoidance of stress etc.
Bossel (1999) argues for indicators to be identified for each orientor and the indicators are needed for the tourism destination, as well as for the destination’s contribution to a bigger system – the tourism ecosystem. Hence, large amount of information will be condensed to indicators that facilitate orientation in a complex system. Hence, the indicators should provide relevant information about current and possible future developments (Bossel, 1999). For this research project, a comprehensive set of indicators for smart destination development will be identified where neither the system perspective (how the destinations and the DMOs will be organised/re-organised to convert and adapt to the ‘smart’ landscape – the destination as part of a bigger societal system) nor the human perspective (locals, tourists – how the human perspective is an important and integrated part of smart development) are overlooked. The Systemic Indicator System (SIS) combines three different tools to select and assess variables of complex adaptive systems, CAS: (1) A Criteria Matrix to verify the selected indicators and that they represent the system. (2) A Correlation Matrix or pairwise comparison of indicators to evaluate their direct influence on each other and degree of interrelatedness. (3) An Effect Analysis Diagram for the assessment of the systemic role of the indicators.

For each of the criteria, Smart Destination Indicators will be identified through bottom-up by listening to stakeholders’ narratives. The Correlation Matrix is based on pairwise comparison to assess the strength of an indicator’s effect on another indicator. The Effect Analysis Diagram represents the indices calculated by the Correlation Matrix and it is constructed by positioning the indicators within a two-dimensional diagram. The Effect Analysis Diagram consists of nine sectors which define the indicators according to their use for system control, enhancing effectiveness as well as prevention of negative side effects of possible mitigation measures (Schianetz & Kavanagh, 2008). The proposed SIS methodology here could potentially improve the understanding of the complexity within systems, such as emerging smart destinations and the interconnectedness and system behaviour. The method can be applied at an early construct phase of a destination to become smart and it also support the collectively learning process about smart development related to the local context. The SIS incorporate both expert knowledge from top-down but also the bottom-up perspective from the community. Assessing indicators in the Criteria and Correlation Matrix is valuable for the definition of goals, priorities and for the local learning process. The interpretation of the sectors in the Effect Analysis Diagram can be useful for implement impact minimisation and mitigation measures on the system (Schianetz & Kavanagh, 2008). Variables that can be used as indicators must not only be recognised, but also known for what role they play in the system and how essential they are for the viability of the system. Indicators are defined by two set of questions: (1) What is the viability of the affecting system? And (2) How does each affecting system contribute to the viability of the affected system? The SIS methodology proposed here is a way of taking proactive measures within complex adaptive systems such as emerging smart destinations to strengthen resilience through smart destination development.

**Narrative Approach on Complex Adaptive Systems**

Narrative research enables to explore the meanings of human action and phenomena constructed in narratives. Narrative is the study of the ways humans experience the world and the narrative approach play a key role in the humanities and social sciences (Vaara et.al., 2016). For this research project, stakeholders’ narratives will be in focus as discursive constructions. Both complex science and narrative theory are concerned with the representation of processes and complexity science and narrative studies could have much to gain from their encounter, with insights in the phenomenon of emergent behaviour and interpretation of complex systems. Complexity is not only a feature of the system, it is also a matter of the way in which one organise its thinking about the system.
Narrative serves as a linguistic expression of sensemaking, simultaneously a means of encoding knowledge (Ivanova-Gongne and Törnroos, 2017). A micro-narrative or an individual story reflects his/her own perception of a phenomenon (Vaara et.al., 2016) while the strategic narrative is usually top-down and has a value for moving forward through change in organisations (Vaara et.al., 2016). The emerging smart development for destinations is a matter of change and thus it is important to understand how particular narratives may play a crucial role in mobilization for change. It is important to identify narratives that capture the collective meanings of a group of organisational members and this will according to Vaara et.al. (2016), allows for examine plurivocality and thus elaborate on the ways people involved, interpret and respond to change. The future of smart destinations and cities is unpredictable and the future is inherently unstable. Development patterns also emerge from bottom-up, hence, only top-down strategies to manage and organise smart destinations will be problematic.

References


Expanding the conceptual framework of post-conflict tourism. Monitoring change through reconciliation dynamics

Monica Guasca, Dominique Vanneste
University of Leuven
Belgium
monica.guasca@kuleuven.be

Introduction

Tourism has proven to play a key role in many national economies, providing jobs, income, and positive economic outcomes (Mayer & Vogt, 2016). While tourism scholars and practitioners engage further in critical inquiry and development outcomes, the impacts of tourism have started to be analysed beyond its financial benefits, expanding its vision from an industry that enhance economic performance to become a social force that can contribute to non-economic values, such as equality, justice, and peace (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006).

Within this expanded vision of tourism, governments, industry, and academia representatives have seen an opportunity to propose tourism as a tool for economic reconstruction and peacebuilding initiatives in post-conflict territories. However, tourism as a mediator of peace is a contested idea that has raised the scepticism of various scholars (Salazar, 2006; Farmaki, 2017). Critics rightly argue that research in the field has been mostly exploratory, and a causal relation between tourism and peace has still not been proved. And yet, neither has it been disproved.

This paper highlights the need to go beyond the descriptive nature of post-conflict tourism studies and to give stronger theoretical bases that contribute to systematic research in the field. Tourism scholars must embrace complexity and interdisciplinary, acknowledging a non-linear relation between peace and tourism and recognizing that knowledge from disciplines like political sciences and conflict studies are not only useful but necessary when studying peace dynamics in post-conflict areas with tourist vocation.

The emerging field of post-conflict tourism

Research on the negative impacts of conflict in touristic destinations (Lepp et al. 2011; Fuchs and Pizam, 2011), lead to a widespread consensus that violent conflict in a territory is a deterrent for tourism development. Fortunately for some territories, war is not a never-ending state. At some point, it can be considered that violence is left behind and that they are ready to move to a post-conflict era, where tourism can (re) flourish and can help in the territory reconstruction.

The development of tourism in post-conflict areas has awakened the interest in analysing how tourism is constrained, shaped, re-defined or even strengthened by the previous conflict (Moufakkir & Kelly, 2010). The approaches to the studies in this field are numerous. Among the multiplicity of research options, some scholars have focused, for instance, on how sites use their violent past as a way to attract a particular segment of tourists (Stone and Sharpley, 2008), how post-conflict destinations recovers after conflict (Voltes-Dorta et al., 2016); the challenges of their marketing and branding (Volcic et al., 2014; Devine et al., 2017) or what is the role of the private sector in peace-building (Boudreaux, 2007; Banfield et al., 2006; Alluri, 2009). Others have focused on studying heritagization processes of warfare (Causevic & Lynch, 2011; Logan & Reeves, 2008; Henderson, 2000); the use of narratives in dealing with a violent past (Cochrane, 2015) or trying to find a more explicit link between peace and tourism (D’Amore, 1988; Higgins-Desbiolles, F., 2003).
The evolution of ideas in the research field has brought scholars to identify some of the challenges that could hinder the potential of tourism as a leverage sector for economic stability and social integration in post-conflict territories (Novelli et al. 2012). More recently, some academics have started to bring elements from political sciences to support the analysis of tourism and peace and have warned that tourism per se does not bring peace and, if not well-managed, it can even drive communities away from peace (Farmaki, 2017).

The present paper builds on top of the recent developments on tourism, peace, and conflict studies. Based on literature review, the paper proposes a conceptual framework grounded in political science theory and tourism studies, contributing to the development of systematic research to the studies of post-conflict tourism and its relation to peace.

The conflict-tourism nexus

This conceptual framework proposes to look at the tourism-conflict nexus as a bilateral relationship where the previous conflict might have an influence on the touristic product, and where tourism could also influence the conflict dynamics. This two-fold analysis allows identifying interdependencies between the dynamics, looking if changes in one end produce changes in the other end, reinforcing the cycle and moving towards or away from peace.

Figure 1. The bilateral relation between the previous conflict and tourism development.
Own elaboration.

The framework suggests, on the one hand, to identify how significant is the previous conflict in the development of a tourism product. The guiding question is if the previous conflict itself is presented as a tourism subject (and how) or if it is absent from the touristic product. On the other hand, the framework puts the attention on identifying the influence of the tourism development in the post-conflict dynamics. The guiding questions examine 1) if tourism contributes to healing processes, becoming a vehicle for reconciliation 2) if on the contrary, it is influencing the re-emergence of violent conflict or 3) if its development is neither contributing to reconciliation, nor to conflict re-emergence.

Reconciliation as a proxy for positive peace

Peace scholars have long discussed the definition of peace. Although a consensus might not be reached, the concepts of positive and negative peace proposed by Johan Galtung, known as the founder of the discipline of peace and conflict studies, have found general acceptance among academics. He defines negative peace as the absence of direct violence (e.g. a ceasefire), while positive peace is the absence of structural violence (e.g. equity) (Galtung, 1996). Within the
positive approach, reconciliation has been invariably recognised as a condition *sine qua non* for sustainable peace. Hence, this paper posits reconciliation as an indicative variable for peace and focuses the analysis on how tourism is related to reconciliation processes.

Reconciliation in itself is also a debated and multidimensional concept that has different meanings for different people. Attempts to define it are multiple and diverse, but scholars have found a common denominator: the (r) establishment of relations between former antagonists (Rettberg and Ugarizza, 2016; Aiken, 2010; Bar-Tal & Bennink, 2004). On the basis that reconciliation is about ‘bringing together’, destinations can be analysed from their role as sites of encounters where relationships can be created, strengthened or broken. Conflict and tourism scholars have recognized the potential of relations and interactions, which is theorized in literature as the “contact hypothesis”.

The contact hypothesis defends the idea that increase direct contact between former antagonists, under certain conditions, can lead to the reduction of prejudice (Allport, 1954). Scholars in conflict and peace studies continue building on this hypothesis, although identifying its weaknesses and filling the gaps (Pettigrew and Linda, 2006; Ugarizza and Nussio, 2017). The concept has been also used by tourism academics, under the premise that tourism enhance intercultural exchange and so, host communities and tourists will be less prone to prejudice. Nevertheless, some scholars see the contact hypothesis as rather naïve and too simplistic (Becken & Carmignani, 2016; Tomljenovic, 2010) while others argue that contact can even reinforce prejudices (Etter, 2007; Pizam et al., 2000).

Research supporting or contesting the contact hypothesis in tourism studies have centred their attention on the relationship between hosts and guests, focusing mainly on intercultural exchanges between people that were not former antagonist in an intra-state conflict. The paper revises the role of the contact hypothesis in post-conflict destinations, putting special attention on the exchange between antagonist that engage in touristic activities and how these social dynamics influence reconciliation processes.

Following a revision of literature, different dimensions of reconciliation have been identified and will be taken as variables for analysis. The dimensions are truth, safety, forgiveness, empathy, empowerment, and restoration. If tourism wants to assess its contribution to reconciliation, it is necessary to assess its contribution to each one of these dimensions.

Finally, the paper recognises the role of people in being the main protagonist of change and the importance of human agency in dealing with conflict in non-violent ways. By doing so, the study of post-conflict destinations from the lenses of reconciliation is coherent with the current academic interest in the discipline of conflict studies in studying bottom-up approaches that supports “everyday peace” (MacGinty, 2014), which could unleash the potential for new initiatives that would not have been possible in the presence of violent conflict.

**Conclusion**

Post-conflict territories offer a unique setting to identify the opportunities tourism has to offer for peace-building initiatives, and also the existing limitations in such fragile environments. There are evident challenges in measuring reconciliation as an indicator of positive peace. Firstly, the process of reconciliation is long and complex, as societies need to overcome a past of violence, re-think present relations and prepare for a future that involves coexistence with former enemies.

---

1 The three main conditions under which conflict antagonists can be expected to develop positive changes of attitude are having a balanced discussion format that is sanctioned by a commonly accepted authority and which focuses on a common task (Allport, 1979).
Secondly, peace-building is not an exact science and contextual factors will always play a role in the outcome. Thirdly, the touristic activity is always embedded into a wider configuration of strategies, actors, and interests that might influence reconciliation processes, which makes it more difficult to identify the exact influence of tourism in reconciliation outcomes.

Despite the various obstacles, this paper defends the idea that it is possible and suitable, to have a conceptual framework that allows scholars to move beyond descriptive research where conclusions can only be applied to the specific case study. Post-conflict tourism and its connexion to peace and reconciliation can be object of deeper scientific analysis and more generalized theories that might allow comparison between cases. Certainly, the aim is not to reach a standardized formula, but a more structured conceptual framework that helps navigate more effectively the complexities of this emerging field of research.

Clearly identifying how and under which conditions tourism could be used as a tool for reconciliation in post-conflict territories, would help to better design and implement touristic strategies either top-down or bottom-up. Hence, being able to produce knowledge that can drive social change in war-torn societies is a call difficult to ignore; especially in present times when violent conflicts seem to escalate worldwide.

References


Ecosystem alliances as drivers of tourism destination dynamics in Western Peloponnese, Greece

Antonios Klidas, Georgios Papageorgiou
deree-The American College of Greece
Greece
a.klidas@acg.edu

Introduction

Adopting an ‘ecosystem perspective’, this study examines the extent to which ecosystem alliances (Bremner, Eisenhardt & Hannah, 2017) can enhance tourism destination dynamics to deliver value for a destination as a whole and related industries within the ecosystem. Such alliances are particularly important in an era of “alliance” or “relational capitalism” (Dunning, 2009: 7) as they are more likely to lead to sustained competitive advantage. Despite growing reference to ecosystems in the mainstream business literature the concept has not been widely explored in tourism with a few exceptions (e.g. Tham, Ogulin, Selen & Sharma, 2015). The study draws on the relational view (Dyer & Singh, 1998) to explore ecosystem collaborative arrangements between the tourism sector and related sectors in the fast-growing tourism region of the Western Peloponnese in Greece. Specifically, it aims to examine the extent to which such arrangements take place and their effectiveness in creating value for the region as well as the broader ecosystem, and identify key drivers to their success or factors hindering their development.

Ecosystem alliances in tourism

In business, the term ‘ecosystem’ usually refers to communities of interacting firms including actors beyond traditional supply chains, such as universities, government actors, industry stakeholders, etc. (Letaifa, 2014), often considered essential in the innovation process (e.g. Letaifa & Rabeau, 2013). Alliances constitute key drivers of success in increasingly competitive environments, and the relational view argues that competitive advantage may also reside in “idiosyncratic interfirm linkages” which generate “relational rents” that cannot be generated by firms in isolation (Dyer & Singh, 1998: 661). Such linkages are essential in an era of increased specialization and technological advancement where firms focus on their core competences and seek complementary resources and capabilities in alliances or networks. Central to ecosystem accounts are the notions of co-opetition and co-creation of value (Letaifa, 2014).

In tourism, the relational view is embedded in numerous accounts referring to tourism clusters and networks. The emphasis on clusters stems from the essentially cross-sectoral nature of tourism product provision by a complex supply chain involving tour operators, transportation, accommodation, attractions, etc. In contrast to the clusters approach, which focuses on the agglomeration effects of tourism activity on regional economic development, this paper employs the term ‘ecosystem alliances’ to emphasize that these take place at the macro- or ecosystem level, they may include actors beyond the tourism supply chain and value-creation may extend beyond the tourism sector. Such alliances may primarily be locally embedded, yet the possibility that ecosystem alliances will extend beyond spatial boundaries should not be excluded.

The emphasis on cooperation permeates the tourism literature. More recent literature on co-creation underline the imperative of cooperation in the delivery of the tourism experience (Campos, Mendes, do Valle & Scott, 2015). The predominant focus of these accounts, however, seems to remain within the confines of the tourism industry usually within a tourist destination (e.g. Rodriguez-Diaz & Espino-Rodriguez, 2008). Co-creation literature also seems to
overemphasize a utilitarian marketing perspective (Campos et al., 2015) and highlight obvious value-capture opportunities in the short run. Some accounts, however, adopt a more strategic perspective emphasizing the role of partnerships in “shaping the dynamics and evolution of business through their impacts on innovation and learning” (March & Wilkinson, 2009: 456), echoing the discourses in business ecosystem literature. Arguably, a broader, macro perspective of collaborative arrangements deserves more attention in tourism research.

In exploring ecosystem alliances, we employ the relational view, which identifies four determinants of relational rents, namely: the complementarity of tangible and intangible resources and capabilities; investment in relation-specific assets; knowledge-sharing routines; and effective governance to ensure that partnering actors will engage in value-creating activities and that value capture will be equitable (Dyer & Singh, 1998). The latter point is argued to be critical in ecosystem alliances. If the value created by the alliance is captured only by one or a few actors, other actors will be less inclined to participate and co-create value.

Kanter (2012) further identifies four areas where collaboration should take place in order to enrich the business ecosystem. Three of these areas appear to be relevant for ecosystem alliances in tourism: connecting SMEs and new ventures to large companies; linking educational institutions with the industry; and, “uniting leaders across sectors to develop ecosystem strategies” (p. 141). The study focuses on the tourism region of the Western Peloponnese in Greece in order to examine whether such ecosystem links are present and what their role is in creating value for the actors involved and the broader ecosystem.

**Methods and findings**

A pilot round of in-depth, semi-structured expert interviews with local tourism industry stakeholders underlined the salience of a number of factors that were deemed critical in ecosystem collaborative arrangements. At this stage, the researchers’ intention was to identify examples of ecosystem alliances aimed at creating value for tourism and the broader ecosystem. Collaboration, cross-sector synergies, collective action and strategic value co-creation constituted key notions that were explored during the interviews. The respondents identified elements that contributed decisively as success factors, but also reflected on contextual factors that may have hindered potentially successful initiatives.

The first initiative identified was the state-led ‘Forum of Agriculture, Industry and Tourism’, aimed at fostering synergies between these sectors throughout Greece. The Forum was established in 2016 by the Ministry of Economy and Development and its objectives seem to fit well the type of ecosystem collaborations suggested by this study. Two years after its launch the forum has not progressed beyond an initial study conducted by a consulting firm, which, unsurprisingly, uncovered a low level of cross-sectoral synergies between tourism, agriculture and industry. This underlines the slow and cumbersome progress of state-led, top-down initiatives, which seem to be unable to establish ecosystem collaborations or maintain momentum.

The second initiative identified was the so-called Kalamata Tourism School, which comprises a series of seminars offered free of charge by experienced professionals in the areas of tourism, gastronomy, events, etc. The name denotes the educational character of this initiative, but there is no formal educational structure or accreditation of the attendees’ learning attainment. This grassroots initiative stemmed from an identified gap in the supply of qualified labor for a growing tourism industry in the region of Western Peloponnese. The initiative was the result of two tourism professionals’ ‘crazy idea’ of organizing a non-profit seminar-based educational platform with no budgetary provision other than sponsorships in kind (e.g. event venue, accommodation, food and beverages, technical coverage, secretarial assistance, etc.) and the involvement of instructors who donated their time and expertise pro bono. The Tourism School’s success mobilized the support of diverse actors including hotel companies, local entrepreneurs, the European University
of Cyprus, the local Chamber of Commerce, the Prefecture of Peloponnese, the Ministry of Tourism and other stakeholders. This concept became an approximately annual event that now enjoys such recognition and praise that in its most recent organization it registered more than 1,200 students of all ages and education and experience levels from across several sectors.

The Kalamata Tourism School forms a very apposite example as it embodies all the notions of an ecosystem collaborative arrangement among private and public actors from diverse sectors, also beyond the tourism industry. An in-depth interview with one of its founders offered insight into the challenges encountered at different stages of the School’s development and key factors that contributed to its success. Most pertinently, the respondent identified the aforementioned need for qualified tourism personnel as a key driver. Furthermore, the fact that the entire concept was built on voluntary donation of goodwill, know-how, persistence, and the personal touch of the two founders, whose vision, drive and reputation empowered them to overcome structural and cultural obstacles and leverage the support of other stakeholders, created a sense of trust and enhanced participation. This in turn multiplied the benefits for the wider region, not only in the sense of the educational value that was co-created, but because it helped establish a collectively ‘owned’ collaborative frame that increased the sense of collectivism and a culture of contribution – in itself a perhaps more significant outcome.

Various respondents acknowledged that it was because of its *pro bono* and informal character that the event became so successful. The lack of central funding, which could be regarded as a hindrance, seemed to have actually inspired local actors to get involved. Respondents also expressed that sometimes unofficial collaboration works more effectively than institutional frameworks as, for example, the aforementioned state-led Forum. This would support the notion that grassroots development can build on local expertise and harness the collaboration potential of individual businesses more effectively than formalized top-down policy approaches.

The third collaborative initiative respondents identified was the work carried out by the non-profit Captain Vassilis Foundation that manages the endowment of a prominent resident of Messinia, whose legacy is connected to the economic development of the region and a major investment in the form of a luxurious resort in the area. The significant difference from the previous example is the financial ability and formal approach of this Foundation, which led to several of its efforts being initially greeted with mistrust by locals who saw the involvement of a large investor as a potential attempt to gain control rather than contribute.

One of the Foundation’s efforts is a series of seminars on Messinian gastronomy, which were planned, implemented and fully funded by the Foundation. These seminars intended to foster knowledge and quality upgrades through a collaboration between the tourism and agricultural sectors and between smaller and larger businesses. Despite the more formal nature of the event’s organization in comparison to the Kalamata Tourism School, the *pro bono* character of this initiative was again highlighted as a key success factor that helped dispel a prevailing mentality of doubt about potential vested interests and create a sense of anticipation for the benefits that could be derived.

**Conclusion**

By way of this brief initial account of the pilot study’s findings, it is evident that the forms of collaboration identified by Kanter (2012) as key elements of ecosystem alliances would seem to be present in the examples and views proposed by respondents. While the identified initiatives confirm the potential for cross-sector synergies and concomitant benefits for local stakeholders, further qualitative data collection and analysis will seek to delve more deeply into the factors that may play an instrumental role in harnessing this potential by establishing ecosystem alliances,
without, however, sacrificing the contribution of relational and cultural factors that may have constituted key success ingredients – at least in the setting under review.

References


Tourism in Industry 4.0: Baby Boomers vs Echo Boomers

Saša Korže
Vanadis Ltd.
Slovenia
sasa.zupan@vanadis.si

Abstract

The fourth industrial revolution is characterized by a range of new technologies that are fusing the physical, digital and biological worlds (Schwab, 2016); it affects all disciplines, economies and industries, including tourism. In spite of tremendous influence of technology on tourists as well as on the suppliers of tourist services, the research about this topic is in early stage; this paper aims to contribute to the development of the research in this field. The main purpose of the study is to provide an exploratory review of technology changes – so called Industry 4.0 – and their impact on tourism industry. The goal of the research is to investigate the most visible examples of the use of new era digital technologies (within the paradigm of Industry 4.0) in tourism, and specifically, to explore and evaluates the differences in the use of those technologies between the two major market cohorts in tourism: the baby boomers and the echo boomers (or millennials). The research paper and its goals required a descriptive type of methodology. Data were collected from academic, institutional and professional literature. The methods of description, compilation, comparison and inductive reasoning were used accordingly. Findings suggest that important differences in the use of technology between baby boomers and echo boomers do not exist anymore. The latest data and research clearly suggest that the “stereotype” of baby boomers being “digital immigrants” is far from being true. In the last few years, the technology gap between those two generations in tourism has been narrowing. The contribution of this paper is in providing new and fresh insights of baby boom and echo boom market segments in tourism in relation to major technological changes introduced by Industry 4.0. Study contributes to the body of tourism literature on technological changes and market segmentation. As such, it is applicable not only for academia, but also for practitioners and students who are interested in those topics..

Introduction

After the turn of the millennium, digital technologies of Industry 4.0 have become increasingly sophisticated and integrated in such a way that they radically transformed societies and global economy (Schwab, 2016). Even in tourism industry, professionals realize that the travel business is actually becoming a technological business (Hausold, 2018). However, the academic theoretical and empirical research on impact of the Industry 4.0 on tourism has stayed somewhat scarce. With this research, the author advocates the thesis that the gap in technological literacy of both major market segments in tourism – baby boomers and echo boomers, has been shrinking fast.

Literature review

The term Industry 4.0 was coined by the German government in the context of its high-tech strategy, introduced in 2011, related to the “factories of the future” or “smart factories”. From that year on the paradigm of Industry 4.0 has explosively become global (Rodič, 2017). According to European Parliament (2016, p. 20) definition, Industry 4.0 “describes the organisation of production processes based on technology and devices that autonomously communicating with each other along the value chain in virtual computer models”. This definition complies more with the definition of Internet of Things (IoT). However, IoT is only one among many of the key enabling technologies and development trends in Industry 4.0, which are big data, autonomous
robots/systems, horizontal and vertical system integration, cybersecurity, augmented reality, the cloud etc. (Rodič, 2017). According to Schwab (2016) Industry 4.0 is based on certain megatrends of technological drivers: a) physical (autonomous vehicles, 3D printing, advanced robotics, new materials), b) digital (internet of things – IoT, distributed ledger technology – blockchain, technology-based platforms) and c) biological (genetics). The combination of those drivers can disrupt entire industries and enables the creation of new business models and absolute customisation of products and services (Schwab, 2016). The Industry 4.0 concept seemed to have been fully embraced in tourism; a new term was thus coined – Tourism 4.0. It is now frequently used by policy makers and practitioners, but who understand it, however, in rather different ways. In Slovenia, the term has been implemented recently “for the current trend of big data processing collected from a vast amount of travellers to create personalised travelling experience; it is based on variety of modern high tech computer technologies” (What is, n. d.).

With international tourist arrivals worldwide, expected to reach more than 1.8 billion by 2030 (UNWTO, 2017) heterogeneous tourist related businesses are offered tremendous opportunities for development. Technology is one of four megatrends that are likely to have significant impacts and relevance for tourism development (OECD, 2018). Thus, to develop right strategies for survival and growth, it is vital that tourism related businesses acquire deeper understanding about technology proficiency levels of the different groups/segments of travellers (Sigliano, 2017).

Industries use different types of segmentations. In tourism, the most frequently used segmentation is based on Kotler et al. (2006) – stating geographic, psychographic and behavioural dimensions of segmentation. Demographic variables (age, life-cycle stage, gender, income) are most commonly used since they are usually easy to measure (ibid.). A generational group thus includes those who share historical and social experiences that distinguish one generation from other (Smola and Sutton, 2002).

Recent body of research focuses on mostly two generational groups (Smola and Sutton, 2002; Bainhoff, 2011). The first group are individuals, who represent the so called baby boom generation (Smola and Sutton, 2002; Kotler et al., 2006; Beinhoff, 2011; Kaifi et al., 2012; Santos et al., 2016; Kotler et al., 2017) consisting of individuals, born between 1946 and 1964. The second group are individuals born in 1980s and 1990s, called echo boomers (Kaifi et al., 2012; Santos et al., 2016). However, the periodization and grouping is not unified (Smola and Sutton, 2002). For OECD (2018), echo boomers are individuals born in the early-1980s to mid-1990s, while the name for the following generation – born in the late-1990s to early-2010s – is generation Z. Rosen (2011) advocates that echo boomers are actually of two subsets: those born in 1980s and those born in the 1990s and beyond, which are also labelled the iGeneration (from iPhone, iPod, Wii, iTunes etc.).

A plethora of synonyms has emerged for echo boomers (Beinhoff, 2011). Most commonly used names for them are millennials, generation Y, tech generation, www generation, N-gen, net or web generation, digital generation etc. (Santos et al., 2016; Kotler et al., 2017). Baby boomers and echo boomers are also the most relevant cohorts or segments identified and profiled in tourism; their importance derives from their number and interest in travelling (Santos et al., 2016).

The researchers’ interest in baby boom segment is growing because of the aging population (Santos et al., 2016). It is a large group that has become one of the most powerful forces shaping the marketing environment (Kotler et al., 2006). In the developed world they account for 25% of all population but earn more than half of all personal income (Kotler et al., 2017). Baby boom generation has more time and financial resources, and a growing need for personal fulfilment.
Many baby boomers met their retirement during the recession 2008 (Kotler et al., 2017) or have been starting to retire in the last few years (Kaifi et al., 2012).

Echo boomers or millennials are even larger group than baby boomers (Kotler et al., 2017). They were born during the early stage of information age and are regarded as digital natives (Santos et al., 2016). Generally, a millennial’s profile is that of young man/woman with high level of formal education, rather limited resources but with extensive knowledge on information communication technology and internet (Brain, 2017). With the 1990s and the expansion of the World Wide Web out of the academic world, the power of cyberspace came to masses; thus, it is said they were born into the wired world (Smola and Sutton, 2002). Krishen et al. (2016) portrayed them as confident, connected, well-travelled, highly educated, tech-savvy and generally self-centred. They are constantly using their phones, checking mails, chatting on Whatsapp, posting on Instagram etc. (Meza, 2017). Taking holidays signifies an aspect of their lifestyle (Majendie, 2018). Having grown up with the quick and direct access to information enabled by digital technology, they are likely to be particularly demanding compared to previous generations (OECD, 2018). Moreover, they are open to temporarily accessing or renting products or services (modes of transport or accommodation), rather than owning them outright (ibid).

Methodology

This paper is of a descriptive type, based on relevant secondary sources on the researched topics. Academic, institutional and professional literature (websites publications, media news, relevant documents of EU and other non-governmental studies) was examined with the aim to provide an exploratory study on technological changes of Industry 4.0 in tourism, and characteristics of the two major generational segments in tourism. As technology changes rapidly, special attention was put on selection of information and data, published from 2015 and after. The methods of content analysis, description, compilation, comparison and inductive reasoning were used accordingly.

Results

The results are presented in three subparts, each dedicated to particular research goal.

a. The research suggests four findings on Industry 4.0.

Firstly, the fourth industrial revolution has been severely transforming the society and global economy. This development is evident in several industries, and represented in the form of new technologically based disrupting business models (e.g. Airbnb, Uber, Alibaba and the like – Zupan Korže, 2018), new strategic and marketing decisions of the businesses, as well as new consumption patterns. Secondly, even though Industry 4.0 and connected digital technologies have become an important subject of policy makers as well as industry practitioners, the academic research of this new phenomenon is surprisingly in its very early stage. Thirdly, the understanding of Industry 4.0 is not unified; at least two groups of definitions co-exist. The narrower definition is related mostly to the internet of things (IoT) and smart companies. This concept is addressed mostly by the policy makers – nationally and on the EU level. Broader understanding of Industry 4.0 is mostly embraced by practitioners and business and relates to power of digital and information technologies broader than just IoT, e.g. artificial intelligence (AI), advanced robotics, machine learning, big data analytics, cloud computing, distributed ledger technologies, autonomous vehicles etc. Fourthly, a new term has developed to describe technological evolution in tourism industry – Tourism 4.0. At the current state, the term embrace mobile technology, IoT, cloud, artificial intelligence, machine learning, big data, digital technology platform, robotics etc.
b. There are several examples of technical evolution in tourism businesses.

The most widely used technical innovation in tourism is internet. It is a result of the third technical revolution (Industry 3.0), however, in the fourth industrial revolution it has become affordable and of high-speed (European Parliament, 2015). Evident example of technical evolution on 21st century are new technology-based business models that create network matching buyers and sellers (Schwab, 2016). They make possible, what is called today a demand economy, referred to by some also as the sharing economy (ibid.). The implementation of big data in tourism means having real-time information about tourists, their movements, their preferences, their buying decisions, their aspirations etc. Big data are collected from different sources where the tourists leave behind their digital fingerprints: on social media, on tourists’ portals etc. (Dolgos, 2018). Virtual reality (VR) is also starting to play a big role in tourism. Tourist would like to make a virtual journey to the existing or fictitious places from the touch and 360-degree holidays videos with VR (Fes, 2018). Wearable technology (smartwatches, bracelets, glasses) is slowly becoming an everyday reality in tourism. Several ideas are popping-up for using digital ledger technologies (like blockchain) that enable higher degree of trust and authenticity (Hausold, 2018) to tourist. Robots in hotels and restaurants are probably the most popular sphere of new technological advances. They have been developed as combination of robotics and artificial intelligence. They perform different tasks in collecting all kinds of data about hotel guests and becoming “active mobile big data collectors”. Moreover, as they are connected to larger IoT networks, they not only serve as data collection points, but also interact with guests and complete other repetitive tasks (Hospitality technology, 2017). There are few examples of artificially intelligent robots in hospitality: Marion in Ghent Mariott hotel in Belgium (Hyland, 2017), Connie in Hilton hotel in McLean (Threjos, 2016). In several hotels in US, Aura, Botlr or Relay robots assist at delivery of towels, toothpaste or drinks to the hotels rooms (Wood, 2017). The Henna-na hotel (it means Weird Hotel) in Sasebo, Nagasaki, Japan, is the world’s first “no human employees” hotel. Even Pizza Hut announced that it would hire robot waiter, Pepper, to take orders and process the payment at its fast food restaurant (Curtis, 2016). Probably the most visible manifestation of artificial intelligence in tourism and hospitality at the present are chatbots – virtual assistants, which are able to hold a natural language conversation with human through bots and chat apps (e.g. Amazon’s Alexa) (Peterson, 2018). In tourism, mobile technology is the one that drives the innovation and monetisation of the business (Meza, 2017). According to the World Economic Forum (2017) digitalisation in travel industry is expected to create up to 305 billion USD of value until 2025. Mobile interface and devices will allow traveller to have their digital identity and carry it with them (World Economic Forum, 2018).

c. According to travel attitude and embracement of technology, the findings on two major generation segment groups in tourism – baby boomer and echo boomers are the following.

Baby boomers constitute the lucrative market for the travel industry, spending billions of dollars on travel. They look for value and they research their vacation in which they look for adventures, experiences with a strong physical component (Kotler et al., 2017).

The academic literature suggests different level of adoption of technology among baby boomers: from “digital immigrants” (Prensky, 2001, p. 2) to generation that has successfully adopted new technologies, although they are not as comfortable with it as eco boomers do (Krishen et al., 2016). However, the recent research on baby boomers being comfortable tech consumers support more Krishen et al. (2016) findings. Statista (2017) reports that at the beginning of 2017, distribution of internet users worldwide was almost equally distributed among five age groups. With share of 19.8% baby boomers are close to other age groups. Seven in ten Americans above the age of 50 own a smartphone and 9 in 10 own either a Laptop or a Desktop PC (Anderson, 2018). Some recent professional research divide baby boomers in to sub-segments: young boomers, born between 1955 and 1964, and older boomers (born between 1946 and 1954 (e.g.
Kh, 2017). Kh (2017) reports, e.g. that 81% of younger boomers go online and 76% of older boomers. Moreover, baby boomers has become the fastest growing segment of technology consumers that spend more money on tech than younger generations (ibid.)

*Echo boomers* are expected to become the largest group of travellers by 2020 (Santos et al., 2016). They are the first generation that have travelled frequently since their earliest year of life. They are looking for authentic experience and see themselves travellers rather than tourists (Santos et al., 2016). According to the market research of FutureCat, millennials spend around 200 billion USD on travel each year (Harrison, 2017). They are also more likely to travel independently compared to previous generation (OECD, 2018).

Echo boomers have in common fluency and comfort with computer, digital and internet technology (Kotler et al; 2017). Prensky (2001, p. 2) describes them as “digital natives”. They are always connected with peers through multiple platforms and feel psychologically rewarded when involved with virtual friends (Santos et al., 2016). For them, information must be available in different platforms, particularly mobile ones. As have grown up with technology and were raised with the Internet, Internet plays a key role in how they access, navigate and interact with different tourism products and services (OECD, 2018).

**Discussion, application and further research**

The paper explores the technology changes of Industry 4.0 in tourism. Furthermore, it compares the travel and technology characteristics of two major travel groups in tourism, baby boomers and echo boomers (millennials).

The findings reveal that providers of tourism services has fully embraced the technological changes in their business, particularly those based on internet, mobile technology and digitalisation. There are also several interesting examples of other technological innovations, e.g. IoT, robotics, AI, virtual reality. However, those tech innovations have not reached the widespread commercial use yet. The research clearly presents that technology has significantly changed the tourists way of exploring and organising their travel. It is somehow logical that echo boomers, who were born in the technological age, are technologically well-equipped travellers. Yet, the stereotype for the baby boomers regarding their technological literacy was until recently quite the opposite. This research, however, indicates that baby boomers has already widely embraced the technology and become one of the biggest tech market consumers. They are not “connected” all the time, as echo boomers are, but they have becoming the tech-skilled travellers.

The study suggests that with regard to the use of technology generational changes between baby- and echo boomers have been quickly disappearing. The adaption pace of baby boomers to mobile and digital innovation is faster than expected. Thus, from the point of generational perspective, there is actually no need to differentiate between on- and off-line businesses for baby boomers. There might be some differences in baby boom generation, but on the small segment which is not necessarily related to generational issues but to economic status, travel preferences, health concerns etc.

The findings suggesting the technology changes in tourism have been strongly embraced by baby boomers is applicable for designing a marketing mix that plays well to both market cohorts. Moreover, the study gives an important massage to tourism policy makers and providers of tourism services: from generational point of view in relation to technology, the business models for further tourism development can be the same, based on mobile and digital, including other technological subparts of Industry 4.0. However, slight modifications need to encompass the part of baby boom generation that stays or insist on non-digital personal tourist services.
The paper presents an initial step to the forthcoming longitudinal studies of this topic as well as to designing the theoretical framework for future empirical research.

References


What is (n. d.), “What is Tourism 4.0”, available at https://www.tourism4-0.org/ (accessed 30 May 2018)


The Transformation of a Tourism City: Mental Health of Casino Employees

Cindia Ching Chi Lam, Francis Cheung, Anise Wu
Institute for Tourism Studies
Macao SAR, China
cindia@ift.edu.mo

Abstract

Macao, and its gaming industry, encountered an economic contraction since 2015. The primary goal of the present study was to examine job insecurity as a work stressor predicting psychological distress, including depression, anxiety, and stress, among casino employees in Macao, China. The study was also the first one to test whether occupational future time perspective mediated the above relation. We recruited 1014 participants, who voluntarily took part in an anonymous survey in October 2016. Results suggested that job insecurity was significantly and positively related to depression, anxiety and stress. In line with our hypothesis, we also found that occupational future time perspective significantly mediated the association between job insecurity and psychological distress. The findings suggest that, in psychological health promotion campaigns among casino employees, job insecurity is a key factor to be addressed via organizational policies and activities.

Introduction

Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the contemporary era, it has transformed many economics from a manufacturing economy to a service provision destination. Whilst places highly dependent on tourism are reaping their fruits on uprising financial positions, at the same time they are suffering from the unpredictable turbulence. It is not atypical that changes in policies and economic situations can bring upon a sharp downturn on tourist arrival, which in turn leads to negative effects on the employment sector. Macau, located in Asia, is the highest gambling revenue generation city. More than 90% of the city’s gross domestic product (GDP) is contributed by the gambling industry, and around 20% of the population serves in the gambling industry. Past studies found that casino employees inclined to suffer from high stress level and stress-related health problems. Shaffer, Bilt and Hall (1999) reported that casino employees in the United States have alcohol problems, depression and higher prevalence of past-year pathological gambling behavior. Keith et al. (2001) also reported that casino employees in China mostly suffered from prior heath concern, though the sample size was small at 71. Similar findings were found from the research of Hing and Gainsbury (2011) on casino employees of Queensland, when they were found to have higher rate of problem gambling than the general public. From 2014 to 2016, the city experienced a sharp decline in gambling revenue of more than 35%. This has created substantial vulnerability to the employment environment. The mental health of casino employees thus becomes a concern.

The current research included a sample of 1,014 casino employees from more than 30 casinos of Macau. Through the application of two major scales, the DASS21 (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) and Occupational Future Time Perspective (OFTP) by Ho and Yeung (2016), the psychological condition of the casino employees was studied. The relationship between job insecurity, occupation future time perspective (OFTP) with the three constructs of psychological distress, namely depression, anxiety and stress were investigated. The findings will provide informative data for both organizations and the government, to understand the effectiveness of the existing casino employee systems and to provide solid grounds for necessary preventive and remedy action plans.
Literature Review

Economic Contraction in Macao
The gaming industry in Macao was liberalized by December 1999. In midst of the rocket growing economic prosperity from the flooding in of tourists that amounted to more than 30 million for a city with less than 600 thousand of population, the city has confronted from wave turbulence at times of two major recessions. One of which started in Mar 2001 and lasts for around eight months, when another started in December 2007 and lasts for 18 months until June 2009. Research studies done after these economic recessions indicated that economic recession is a major stressor of casino employees in Macao (Wan, 2010; Wong & Lam, 2013). After years of stability after the recessions, Macau encountered another an economic contraction in 2015, when the PRC government imposed stringent control over capital and currency flow. The gross gambling revenue and gross domestic product both dropped precipitously by 36% and 22% respectively in 2016 as compared to that of 2014 (Macao Statistics and Census Service, 2017). The gaming sector was vigorously affected and increased the vulnerability of casino employees to psychological distress.

Job Insecurity
In view of this economic contraction, the current study investigated the aftermath of job insecurity on psychological distress. Job insecurity is a subjective threat related with the continued availability of the job in the future (De Witte, 1999). It involved the negative evaluation and anticipation of keeping one’s current job in the future. According to Ashforth, Lee and Bobko (1989), it can be induced by actual or anticipated economic and organizational changes (. When workers perceive and believe that they may lose their job, they are not only less affectively and behaviorally committed to the job but also psychologically suffered (e.g., De Witte, 1999; Domenighetti, D’Avanzo, & Bisig, 2000; Rocha, Crowell, & McCarter, 2006). The uncertainty about the future job engagement would foster a sense of uncontrollability and would also diminish trust towards the company (Ashforth et al., 1989; Tian, Zhang, & Zhou, 2014). Unlike other forms of work stressors, such as actual layoffs, job insecurity represents constant uncertainty about job loss and becomes a chronic work stressor, making it difficult for employees to adopt effective coping strategies, thereby increasing psychological distress (De Witte 1999; Domenighetti, D’Avanzo, & Bisig, 2000; Hellgren and Sverke 2003; Rocha, Crowell, & McCarter, 2006). Based on the prior studies, the following set of hypothesis is established.

Hypothesis 1a/b/c: Job insecurity is positively correlated with depression/anxiety/stress.

Occupational Future Time Perspective
Occupational future time perspective (OFTP) refers to the perception of occupational future as of time and opportunities at the workplace, disregard the current organization or position (Zacher & Frese, 2009). OFTP is comparatively more flexible cognitive construct that will change over time (Carstensen, 2006; Weikamp & Görtz, 2015), than the future orientation concept (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). People with an expansive OFTP perceive that there are longer time and more opportunities in the future than those with a limited OFTP, and hence OFTP is negatively related with age (Zacher & Frese, 2009).

Job insecurity and OFTP
There are limited studies with focus on the association between job insecurity and OFPT. When employees perceive their jobs are secured, they will probably handle work related problems with more effective problem-focused strategies, as they will have the belief on a more sustainable working life (Ho & Yeung, 2016). Contrarily, if employees perceive their jobs are, it probably will affect their expectation on their working life sustainability and may be burdened by jitters of involuntary layoff.
The majority of the public revenue in Macao comes from the tourism and hospitality industries and they are recruiting the largest number of employees in the city. If the industry is insecure, it will affect a large portion of their employees. They have to face involuntary layout as well as the difficulties at finding work in other sectors. Therefore, the negative effect of job insecurity on OFTP should be particularly salient for full-time workers of the gambling and hospitality sectors in Macao. Based on the aforementioned, it is hypothesized that job insecurity will be negatively correlated with the perception of employees on OFTP.

Hypothesis 2: Job insecurity is negatively correlated with OFTP.

OFTP and Psychological Distress
Past literatures found that future-oriented perspective is associated with positive outcomes of lower levels of depression, anxiety, and suicide attempt (Beek, Berghuis, Kerkhof, & Beekman, 2010; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). Aside from the study of Ho and Yeung (2016), which found that OFTP was negatively related to psychological distress among 199 Chinese clerical workers, there are minimal studies related to the effect of OFTP on the psychological health of employees. When employees have low OFTP, they feel insecure with the future prospect of their occupation and this may in turn affect their tendency to take an active and positive role at problem solving, so less effective coping methods (passive coping) may be preferred. The selection of coping method would eventually predict psychological distress. The other possible mechanism of OFTP to psychological distress is observed when employees perceive a limited time span in their work life, they may perceive lower hope or optimism on at changing their work environment. Conversely, when employees believe they have an extensive time span, they may be more optimistic in thinking a new course of action to handle work stressor, such as job insecurity. Following this interlinkage, the following set of hypothesis is developed.

Hypothesis 3a/b/c: OFTP is negatively correlated with depression/anxiety/stress.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that job insecurity will be positively correlated to psychological distress, while OFTP is negatively correlated with it.

Methods

Participants and Procedures

The data collection followed a stringent plan and the ethical guidelines. This covered decisions on target participants, locations, data collection methods, recruitment and training of research surveyors, setting standard of procedures, when a pilot study was done with being data analyzed and questionnaire reviewed before the core survey was processed. Ethical approval for this survey has been obtained from the affiliated institute of the corresponding author. The target participants were full-time casino employees working in casinos, they were individually approached and recruited by carefully trained research assistants in October 2016. All participants were briefed on the study purpose and participants’ rights before they voluntarily joined the survey without monetary reward. A pilot study was carried out on 36 participants, the results and feedback were applied to modify the questionnaire, when all modifications related to the use of languages or structure of sentences, in order to improve the clarity of understanding. The revised questionnaire was used in the core survey, a total of 1,014 participants that worked in 39 casinos were approached using purposive sampling and all were successfully interviewed (response rate = 41%). The 39 casinos were located in six 3-star, ten 4-star and 23 5-star hotels, covering all casino hotels in Macao by the time of the survey.

Among the participants, there was a fair distribution between male (50.1%, n=506) and female (49.9%, n=508). The majority of participants were aged between 20 to 49 years (around 90%).
amongst whom 38% have attained tertiary education or above and 57% were married. Half of the participants worked as dealers (50%) and the other half worked at different positions of the casinos, most of them (89%) earned a monthly income between 10 to 30 thousands Patacas (around 1,250 to 3,750 dollars). The demographic profile of the current sample is shown in Table 1.

Table 2 - Demographics of participants (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response rate</th>
<th>Age (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 20</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Place of birth</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Monthly Income before tax</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Macau</td>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>&gt;5,001</td>
<td>Primary or lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Mainland China</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>5,001-10,000</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/Separation</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>Administrative Department (internal)</td>
<td>10,001-15,000</td>
<td>College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Administrative Department (external)</td>
<td>15,001-20,000</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25,001-30,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30,001-35,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35,001-40,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40,001-45,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45,001-50,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Measures**

The psychological distress of participants was measured by the 21-item Depression Anxiety Stress Scale (DASS-21) scale (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). It composed of three 7-item sub-scales to assess depression, anxiety, and stress, with a 4-point Likert response scale (0 = not applicable to 3 = most/always applicable). The raw scores were transformed into severity labels (scale scores) based on the guide to DASS-21 by Lovibond and Lovibond (1995) using a two-step approach, numeric rescaling and descriptive severity labeling. A higher scale score indicated a higher level of corresponding indicator of psychological distress. The Cronbach’s alpha of the three sub-scales depression, anxiety and stress were 0.75, 0.69, and 0.76 respectively.
For job insecurity, the short version of the job security scale developed by Kraimer et al. (2005) that comprised of five selected items has been applied. A sample item is “I am confident that I will be able to work for my organization as long as I wish”. A 7-point Likert response scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) was used, the reverse items were recoded and hence a higher scale score indicated a higher level of perceived job insecurity. The Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was 0.82.

The occupation future time perspective (OFTP) was assessed by the Chinese version of the 10-item Occupational Future Time Perspective Scale developed by Ho and Yeung (2016). A sample item is “Many opportunities await me in my occupational future”. Participants rated each item on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A higher scale score represented more expansive OFTP. The Cronbach’s alpha of the scale is 0.84 in this study.

The participants were asked on demographic data that includes their gender, age, education level, marital status, pre-taxed monthly income, current job position, number of years working in casinos and number of sick leaves taken during the past year.

**Statistical Analysis**

Data was analyzed using SPSS V24 and Amos 24.0. The internal consistency of the overall data and individual sections were checked by Cronbach’s alpha (Cronbach, 1951). This was followed by the descriptive analysis on the demographic characteristics and the three psychological distress constructs (DASS), depression, anxiety and stress. The hypotheses were tested by Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by Pearson correlation (Bobko, 2001). ANOVA was used to identify the variances between the different groups of samples with various level of job insecurity and OFTP. The Pearson correlation coefficient was then applied to indicate the direction and magnitude of the association between these different groups of samples to the three DASS constructs.

**Results**

**Psychological Distress**

Participants were found to be most stressful on “using a lot of nervous energy” (x̅=1.89), then “found it hard to wind down” (x̅=1.76) and “was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with what I was doing” (x̅=1.64). For anxiety, participants indicated they were most “aware of dryness of my mouth” (x̅=1.73), “worried about the situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself” (x̅=1.70) and “expressed breathing difficulty, e.g. excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion (x̅=1.48). In terms of depression, participants expressed that they most commonly “found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things” (x̅=1.68), “couldn’t seem to experience any positive feeling at all” (x̅=1.54) and “felt that I had nothing to look forward to” (x̅=1.50).

**Variances and Correlations**

The effect of job insecurity and OFTP on the three DAS constructs of depression, anxiety and stress was examined by ANOVA. As shown in Table 2, significant differences were found between job insecurity on the three DAS constructs, depression (F=5.86, p<.01), anxiety (F=4.40, p<.01) and stress (F=5.00, p<.01). Quasi findings were achieved between OFTP on the three constructs, depression (F=2.88, p<.01), anxiety (F=5.98, p<.01) and stress (F=6.02, p<.01). To further investigate the relations of the variables, the strength and direction of correlation were determined by Pearson correlation (Table 3).
### Table 2 - Analyses of Variances of job insecurity and OFTP on the DAS constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IV</th>
<th>DV</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity</td>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>1789.19</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>1509.93</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>2738.35</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OFTP</td>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>1256.59</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>2543.27</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>4142.63</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity</td>
<td>OFTP</td>
<td>42.57</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3 - Mean and kurtosis of job insecurity, OFTP, DAS constructs and the correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAS</th>
<th>Depression</th>
<th>Anxiety</th>
<th>Stress</th>
<th>Job Insecurity</th>
<th>OFTP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.65**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>.70**</td>
<td>.71**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Insecurity</td>
<td>-.11**</td>
<td>-.12**</td>
<td>-.15**</td>
<td>-.16**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.05

### Job insecurity

Detailed in Table 3, job insecurity imposed significant positive correlation with the DAS constructs, including depression \((r = 0.17, p<.01)\), anxiety \((r = 0.18, p<.01)\) and stress \((r = 0.18, p<.01)\). The results of Pearson correlation supported hypothesis 1 that job insecurity is positively correlated with the DAS constructs, amongst which it has slightly stronger correlation with anxiety and stress. Stress in turn is found to be most precarious \((M=2.93, SD=4.59)\), compared to anxiety \((M=2.06, SD=3.60)\) and depression \((M=1.77, SD=3.46)\).

### OFTP

As observed in Table 3, OFTP imposed significant negative correlation with the DAS constructs, depression, anxiety and stress. The results of ANOVA and Pearson correlation supported hypothesis 2 that OFTP is negatively correlated with the DAS constructs. Alike job insecurity, it demonstrated the strongest correlation in descending order with stress \((r = 0.15, p<.01)\), anxiety \((r = 0.12, p<.01)\) and depression \((r = 0.11, p<.01)\).

### Mediation Testing

The mediating effect of OFTP on the association between job insecurity and the DAS constructs was examined through three stages: testing the significant variance in group means, identifying the strength and direction of correlation and checking on collinearity (Table 4) and investigating the critical ratio (Table 5).
Table 4 - Regression and Collinearity on the mediating analysis of OFTP on Job Insecurity and DAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depression</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Collinearity VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP</td>
<td>27.10</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; DASS (D)</td>
<td>31.45</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP --&gt; DASS (D)</td>
<td>19.53</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anxiety</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Collinearity VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP</td>
<td>27.10</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; DASS (A)</td>
<td>33.49</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP --&gt; DASS (A)</td>
<td>21.17</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Collinearity VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP</td>
<td>27.10</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; DASS (S)</td>
<td>34.65</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP --&gt; DASS (S)</td>
<td>25.61</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 - The critical ratio on the mediating analysis of OFTP on Job Insecurity and DAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depression (D)</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>Critical ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JIS</td>
<td>PB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; DASS (D)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP --&gt; DASS (D)</td>
<td>5.111</td>
<td>-2.722</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anxiety (A)</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>Critical ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JIS</td>
<td>PB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; DASS (A)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP --&gt; DASS (A)</td>
<td>5.258</td>
<td>-2.933</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress (S)</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>Critical ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JIS</td>
<td>PB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; DASS (S)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS --&gt; OFTP --&gt; DASS (S)</td>
<td>5.203</td>
<td>-4.008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Job insecurity is found to have a significant effect on OFTP (F=27.10, p<.01, Table 5) and there is a negative correlation (p= -0.162, p<.01, Table 3). The association between job insecurity, OFTP and each of the DAS constructs, depression (F=19.53, p<.01), anxiety (F=21.17, p<.01) and stress (F=25.61, p<.01), are also found to be significant. The collinearity of the three sets of associations, examined by the variance inflation factor (VIF) is 1.027, which is well below the threshold of 10. This indicates that there is no collinearity between the three factors in each set
of the associations. To further examine the situation, the three critical ratios of Sobel (Sobel, 1982), Aroian (Aroian, 1947) and Goodman (Goodman, 1960) are checked. Aroian and Goodman tests are different versions of the Sobel tests, when the former has included the third denominator term and the latter has excluded it. According to Table 6, all the critical ratios for the three sets of associations are above the threshold of +1.96, which determined that the mediating effects of OFTP on the association between job insecurity and the three DAS constructs are significant. From the data, OFTP reduced the negative effect of job insecurity on depression ($B_1=0.518$ to $B_2=0.477$), anxiety ($B_1=0.556$ to $B_2=0.510$) and stress ($B_1=0.720$ to $B_2=0.640$). This supported hypothesis 3.

**Discussion**

The three major constructs of psychological distress, depression, anxiety and stress, are studied in the current research. Findings show that job insecurity is positively correlated with the psychological distress constructs, while OFTP is negatively correlated with them. This mirrored the findings in past literatures, however differ in magnitude and strength. Despite under the disconcerted economic vibrancies that resulted from the stringent policies imposed, together with an obvious drop in gaming revenue, casino employees are not found to suffer from serious psychological distress. The stress level in no doubt is of concern but data shows only a mean of 2.93 on a five point Likert scale. The depression level is even lower at a mean of 1.77 and anxiety at 2.06. This situation actually differs from times of preceding economic recessions, when economic recession by those times had magnified the stress of casino employees. The main difference between the current recession from those that happened in 2001 and 2007 is the transformation in the economic and social conditions.

The gaming industry of Macao was liberalized in 1999, by that time, the gross domestic product was low, Macao was known only as a colony of Portugal, the gaming industry is monopolized with one local casino and the number of annual tourist arrival is less than 500 thousand. While in 2014 to 2016, the gaming revenue in Macau already surpassed that of Las Vegas, has been classified as a UNESCO heritage site, have 6 casino (sub) concessionaires and 5 of which are international, the number of annual tourist arrival is around 25 million, which is 50 times from the first economic recession and is ranked as the fourth richest territory per capita by the World Bank (The Guardian, 2014). There are abundant job opportunities and those in their 20s have enjoyed comparative stable financial situation during their teens with the increase of family disposal income. The government has set up a healthy supporting web that covers free education (15 years), free medical support (children and elderlies), young entrepreneurs aid scheme, social security fund, economic housing and alike, which spread through different aspects of life. These changes in social and economic conditions may have contributed as the protective support to stabilize the psychological well-being of the citizens, including casino workers, leading to the unobvious depression state and moderate stress level even under economic recession. This provides meaningful implications for the psychological health crisis management of casino employees and the general working population. If an organized and well-developed supporting system is in place, even at times of economic recession, the extent of destructive impact may be minimized. This may extend to other risk situations, when crisis management is one of the critical challenges of contemporary management. The aforementioned variables that have been assumed to act as a supporting web have not been included in the current study. It is worth to investigate their practical effect in future studies.
References


Acknowledgement:

The project was funded by the Faculty Research Grant of Lingnan University
Exploring the impacts of online social networks on people’s motivation to attend music festivals in China

Weng Si (Clara) Lei, Li Chun Chen
Institute for Tourism Studies
Macao SAR, China
clara@ift.edu.mo

Abstract

The aim of this study is to explore the impact of online social networks on music festival goers’ motivation in China. The largest outdoor live rock music festival, the Midi Music Festival in China, is the case for the research. Primary data were collected through in-depth interviews with the festival attendees from 11 regions in China. Interviews were conducted via voice call by using Wechat. The research findings revealed the online behaviour of festival goers on social networks, and how social network participations influence goers’ motivation to attend festivals. The study results also revealed mixed motivational factors of music festival goers’ in China, where the outdoor music festival market has been booming in the last decades. This study contributes to the literature of festival attendance motivation and provides insights of festival goers’ behaviour on online social networks.

Introduction

Outdoor music festivals have been developed for over 40 years in the world. The most famous ones are Woodstock in the USA, Glastonbury in the UK and Roskilde in Denmark (CNN, 2009). Outdoor music festivals have created a kind of culture, in which cultural communication is exchanged through music, and music festival has been developed into an emerging cultural festival which is popular among many young people (Chen, 2013). The history of outdoor music festival in China is not long and has been introduced for approximately 10 years; however, outdoor music festivals have been developed rapidly. The numbers of music festivals has increased from a few dozens to more than a hundred in the last decade. In addition, these music festivals have a strong impact on the development of the music industry and become an important platform for music talents to flourish (Mo, 2013).

According to Scott (1995), numerous researches on the motivations of festival attendees have been explored after Ralston and Crompton’s first attempt in 1988. Li and Wood (2016) have also investigated people’s motivation to attend music festival in China. Meanwhile, social media has influenced and changed people’s behaviours to a great extent in the modern days. Social media has gradually become one of the most effective marketing tools, and social networks act as the core of our social activities and caused various social phenomena (Del Fresno García, et al., 2016; Ioanăs & Stoica, 2014; Rajan, 2015). Studies on the relationship between online social networks and motivation towards festivals attendance were seen in different regions, while many researchers found that the motivation to attend an event is likely to be reinforced by online social networks participation (Adamopoulos & Todri, 2014; Ghazali, et al., 2014; Lee, & Paris, 2013; Rajan, 2015; Valeri, et al., 2013); however, it is not automatic and does not happen to all events, as revealed by earlier research (Ghazal, 2011). This could be due to the distinctions among different scales and types of festivals as well as the particular condition of every region (Ghazal, 2011). In view of the growing popularity of outdoor music festivals in China and the new phenomena of social media, this study aims to explore the impact of online social networks on people’s motivation to attend music festivals in China.
This paper is divided into four sections. The research question demonstrates the purpose and the core questions of the study. The literature review examines the relevant literature concerning the study. The research method section explains the chosen case of this study, sampling strategies and stages of data analysis. It is followed by the research findings and discussion.

Literature review

Festival Motivation

Crompton and McKay (1997) raised three reasons to make efforts to research on the motivation of festival visitors. The first reason is to design offerings of the festival in order to satisfy the visitors by providing what they need. The second reason is to understand the intimated relationship between motivation and satisfaction as satisfaction could motivate and increase repeat visitation. The third reason is to understand visitors’ decision making process which is likely to make event marketing more effective. The research framework of Crompton and McKay (1997) adopted Crompton’s (1979) contains seven sociopsychological motivations - Novelty, Socialization, Prestige/Status, Rest and Relaxation, Education Value/Intellectual Enrichment, Enhancing Kinship and Relations/Family Togetherness, and Regression. However, several studies revealed that people have different motivations towards different events (Li & Petrick, 2016). In addition, attendees’ motivations identified under different cultural contexts have shown many differences and even some unseen factors, for example the research by Li & Wood (2016), on the Midi Music Festival in China, had identified seven motivations, which include spiritual escape, spiritual pursuit, togetherness, love of the music, novel experience, music sharing and educational enrichment.

Online Social Networks

Online social networks have been defined as a part of social media, which usually exist as social networking services or sites (SNSs) which link global users, who share same interests, hobbies, views and values, together (Ioanăs & Stoica, 2014). Social network sites (SNSs) are platforms that generate and collect profiles and information that registered users would share with others. Mostly, two users become linked once a user accepted the friend invitation of another. There are two kinds of activities that users are involved the most on SNSs: editing and updating their profiles like posting status and photos, uploading audios or videos and writing comment; acquiring the information others create, such as reading texts, looking at pictures and download audios (Trusov, Bodapati, & Bucklin, 2010). Majority of sites allow users to demonstrate themselves, interact with other users, build and maintain their social networks such as Friendster, CyWorld, and MySpace. Specially, some sites come with job or work related context such as LinkedIn.com, or aim to connect the offline networks online, for example Facebook.com (Ellison et al., 2007).

Foster et al. (2010) found five major motives of users to participate in online social networks. They are community membership, information value, participation concerns (involvement), friendship connections, and participation confidence (sense of belonging). In addition, Denis (1994) also concluded four main motivational needs of accessing online social networks: information (sharing and consuming content, debating), entertainment (Unspecified fun, time-killing), social interaction (Socializing, friends, family, New relations, free SMS), and personal identity (profile surfing).

Referring to Bogozzi and Dholakia (2002), Füller et al. (2009), Forman et al. (2008), Wasko and Faraj (2005), and Rajan (2015) studies, social media is identified as a large-scale information sharing platform, which further develops the market through bringing out more suppliers and various products and services providers. In addition, the users could associate with each other through these independent platforms, where contents, offers and suggestions could be created by customers. The innovation of online communication and electronic networks enable the social
platform user to share information rapidly worldwide. The social networks have been an effective method to attract customers' attention and launched a new era of content creation.

The previous researches on social and communication networks, opinion leadership, source credibility, and diffusion of innovations have revealed that the influence among the consumers is based on information sharing that does not require face to face interactions (Robins, Pattison & Elliott, 2001; Trusov, Bodapati & Bucklin, 2010). As the information spreads in digital form online, it is considered that there is a particular social influence that the behaviours of one user would change in response to the views and behaviours of other users (Trusov, Bodapati & Bucklin, 2010).

Social network websites have been included in the promotion channels nowadays as a new element with mass and personal communications that allow instant and simultaneous communications, multi media formats and plenty global reach platform (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). According to Adamopoulos and Todri (2014), the percentage of people who use social media has increased significantly; meanwhile, people tend to spend more and more time online. Thus companies devote more investment on the Internet and social media, in order to build close connections with customers and enlarge the social influence.

**Online social networks' Impacts on events attendees’ motivation**

Ghazal (2011) stated that online social networks have a significant effect on the success of events and festivals marketing. On the other hand, events with social media platforms could gain positive returns significantly in terms of new customer base for the brand. In particular, it is also illustrated by Adamopoulos and Todri (2014) that the marketing of events with a larger customer base are likely to be more effective on social media, as the message could be transmitted more rapidly and effectively which might lead to a “richer get richer” effect. Moreover, it is more receptive for customers to give suggestions and help the brands to make corresponding strategies accordingly.

In reality, social networks have already been used to share the word of mouth among communities; in the meantime, it may bring positive or negative impacts. Products and services with high quality usually gain more positive word of mouth while bad word of mouth could indicate defects (Cao, et al, 2009). On the other hand, the participants of online social networks are ideal target for word of mouth marketing as they are more open to the message and willing to share information in their online communities (Dwyer, 2007). Moreover, online social networks could reach customers who share common interests without any limitation on geographic boundaries, so that word of mouth information could be spread more rapidly and widely (Brown et al., 2007).

According to Yang, Dia, Cheng, and Lin (2006), customers are influenced strongly by their communities or social networks on their decisions or buying behaviours. In this case, Word of Mouth marketing has been applied extensively in social networks, which could be categorized into community marketing, referral programs and viral marketing based on the ways of spreading advertising information. Community marketing refers to forming people with common interest as communities, where they could share reviews and experience. In the referral programs, satisfied customers would recommend the products or services to their family and friends. Besides, viral marketing encourages customers to forward the entertaining and informative messages to their friends and then encourages their friends to forward the message to more people as a chain reaction of improving awareness (Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels, 2006).

Furthermore, enquiries on the relationship between participating in online social networks and motivation to attend festivals or revisit festivals have been explored. Rajan (2015) referred to the result of a survey conducted by consumer organizations, declared that the motivation of the customers, who have participated in social medias, will be reinforced. Lee and Paris (2013) also
revealed that participating in Facebook could significantly impact people’s intention to go to event. Beside, Valeri, et al. (2013) illustrated that people’s decision on whether to attend an event is affected by the ratings and comments of others that can obtain from online and offline word of mouth. Moreover, it is admitted by respondents that they have been influenced to attend an event after receiving the information through the SNSs as they believe the information firmly. Furthermore, event goers also agreed that the shared interest in an event always maintained as long as they are connected in online social networks (Ghazali, et al., 2014).

However, Ghazal (2011) verified that the use of online social networks did not promote the Asian Film Festival in Deauville effectively as a communication tool since there was not any impact on visitors’ satisfaction, recommendation and intention to revisit on Facebook and the group even did not motivate enough members to attend the festival. The reasons could be attributed to the weakness usage of online social network and low spread of the group or its weak activities.

As it is indicated that due to the limitation on various aspects such as time, space and statistical quantity, more researches on wider range of events and more regions should be applied. Due to the different conditions of every particular region, the researches, which are with the same purpose, taking place in different regions may have different results, or even the contrary results as it was demonstrated above (Adamopoulos & Todri, 2014; Ghazal, 2011; Ghazali, et al., 2014; Hudson, 2010; Lee, & Paris, 2013; Rajan, 2015; Valeri, et al., 2013).

Based on the literature review and the recent popularity of outdoor music festival in China, the researchers thus attempt to investigate and research how online social networks affect event goers’ motivation to attend music festival in China.

Research Method

The Case – Midi Music Festival

Hosted by the Beijing Midi Music School and Beijing Midi Performance Company since 2000 and with more than ten years of development, Midi festival has become the longest running and largest non-government music festival in China (Beijing Business Today, 2009). Every year, with hundreds of thousands of fans roll in from all over the country, dozens of well-known bands at home and abroad were invited to perform in the festival. Moreover, many domestic and international well-known media also focus on the recent years of the festival and report the related news. MIDI is also known as the “Woodstock” of China (Midi, 2014). Wei Dan, the current CEO of Midi music festival, stated that in the first decade of development of domestic outdoor music festival, the internet played a significant role in promoting bands, spreading music, establishing communities and so on, which was beyond the traditional medias. Moreover, in the recent six years, the development of mobile internet has boosted the interaction function of music festivals to a greater extent and brought more convenience for audiences in various aspects, for example, watching live broadcast, the online ticketing services, scheduling and socialization, etc. (China Economic Net, 2017). In this case, Midi has established many online forums to engage the participants, which include the official website, Midi Forum and official account on different social networking sites such as WeChat, Weibo, Facebook, Renren and Douban. The forums were managed by the organizer so they could post information and news for fans to communicate and share their opinions and thoughts. At the time of the research is written, 223,263 people have registered as members in Midi Forum and the official account of Midi has gained 254,511 fans on Weibo (Weibo, 2017; Beijing Midi School of Music BBS, 2017). Therefore, as a case study for this research, Midi Music Festival could offer a highly appropriate context to achieve the research objectives.
In order to obtain in-depth and comprehensive understanding on how participation in online social networks influence event goers’ motivation to attend music festival, qualitative research method, with in-depth interview as data collection tool was adopted for this study. Primary data was collected through in-depth interviews with the festival attendees, which enable the researchers to gain rich description and insights. The in-depth interviews were conducted by using semi structured interview questions, which are more flexible compared to full-structured interviews that could be adjusted properly based on interviewees’ different responses (Galletta, 2013).

Two pilot testing interviews were conducted to ensure the interview questions are understandable and sufficient to gain insights of the research topic. After the pilot interviews, it was found that the questions were well developed and organized that could obtain sufficient valid information. There were only minor adjustments due to word choices and usage. Thus the interview questions were adopted to conduct in-depth interviews with.

**Sampling**

Although there is not any official demographic statistics of the participants of this festival, Li and Wood (2016) have accessed to the internal data and claimed that 98% of the attendees were under 35 years old as recorded, which means the group was mainly dominated by youth. The research applied quota sampling that set a specific quota for certain types of individuals to be interviewed (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). Therefore, the research population was split into 3 age ranges which are 18-24 years old, 25-30 years old and 31-35 years old. Respondents were approached from the festival online community that were formed by the festival’s organizer on WeChat and the participants are the previous Midi festival goers. Wechat is one of the booming and most commonly used social network platforms in China (Tencent, 2016). Most of the approached members were very willing to take part in the research interviews and happy to provide rich source of information as far as possible.

The interview invitations were sent randomly based on the 3 age ranges in the online communities. Interview requests were accepted by members voluntarily and willingly. There were a total of sixteen members from the chat group accepting the invitation. Due to the geographic dispersion of the respondents across China, the interviews were conducted all in Mandarin and mainly conducted through voice call by using WeChat. There were two face to face interviews among all. With permission granted by all the interviewees, all interviews were digital recorded for transcribing and further reviewing as needed. The longest interview lasted for around forty minutes. After conducting 16 in-depth interviews, the data seemed saturated from new insights. There were no fresh, new information and comments has been discovered in the last two interviews. Data collection has reached saturation (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007).

The 16 interviewees were aged between 20 and 34 (six were below 24, six were between 25 and 30 and four were 31 and above); only 1 was from the host city - Shenzhen and 15 were from different regions in China, which covered 11 regions out of a total number of 34 in China (23 provinces, 5 autonomous regions, 4 municipalities directly under the Central Government and 2 S.A.R.), as illustrated in Figure 1. Furthermore, 6 were female and 10 were male; and frequency of attending the festival varied between first time and numerous times. The sample, therefore, provided an appropriate representation of festival attendee age ranges, geographic location and frequency of attendance.
Table 1 shows the demographics of all interviewees, which include their place of origin, age and gender. Based on the place of origin, every interviewee was allocated into different groups as shown in Figure 1, and a code was assigned to each respondent for data analysis. Therefore, each code refers to the specific interviewee listed in Table 1 accordingly.
Table 1. The demographics of interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Place of origin</th>
<th>age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1a</td>
<td>Tianjin</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1b</td>
<td>Liaoning</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1c</td>
<td>Gansu</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2a</td>
<td>Shanghai</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2b</td>
<td>Jiangsu</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2c</td>
<td>Jiangsu</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>Jiangsu</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2e</td>
<td>Jiangsu</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2f</td>
<td>Hubei</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2g</td>
<td>Hubei</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2h</td>
<td>Anhui</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3a</td>
<td>Hunan</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3b</td>
<td>Guangxi</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3c</td>
<td>Guangdong</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3d</td>
<td>Guangdong</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3e</td>
<td>Macau</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis

All interview records were verbatim transcribed into Chinese. The transcript of each conversation was summarized in English respectively. Meanwhile, the codes used for coding were generated from literature review, for example, socialization, community and etc. Thematic analysis was conducted in a systematic and rigorous way (Guest et al., 2011). The analysis procedures in sequence were open coding, axial coding and selective coding, which include the processes of generating initial codes, creating themes by grouping codes, connecting and recognizing relationships between the core themes, producing the explanation and report (Ap, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Codes were assigned to words, phrases and sentences found in the transcripts by chunks. Through classifying and grouping the codes of the same type, the resulting themes were created and kept for further analysis. Finally, the themes were reviewed to explore the relationship and connections between them and create patterns, which revealed the finding of this research.

Findings and discussions

The findings of the study are categorized under three major themes. They are 1. Festival Goers' Online Social Networks Behaviours; 2. Online Social Networks Impacts on Motivation to Attend Festival; and 3. Festival Attending Motivation.
**Festival goers’ online social networks behaviours**

Based on the data analysis, all respondents spend some time online every day, which varies from 1 hour to 8 hours (7 people spent less than 3 hours, 6 people spent 3 hours to 6 hours and 3 people spend over 6 hours per day). The main motivational needs for them to spend time online are to obtain information (visit websites, read information and news, advertising), interact with friends (communicating, looking at updates, posting comments), construct personal identity and maintain social network (maintaining/updating profile, sharing/watching photo/video/music, sharing personal thoughts and feelings) (Denis, 1994) and work (contact and receiving information).

On the other hand, most respondents would like to share information (music/photo/video, news of events, details of shows, good resources, article) or personal experience (own life, feelings/thoughts, fresh things) on social networks for the reasons of sharing common interests/feelings or helpful information, own interest/passion, generating publicity and letting people know and participate.

It is also recognised that online social networks have imposed influences on people’s life in terms of information spreading, communication, friendship/friend circle, self-improvement/learning and trading/shopping.

“There is a great impact. For example, it is more convenient to transfer files and exchange information in the work and online payment on WeChat brings many conveniences for our daily lives. I could deal with many things conveniently just with a mobile phone.” (Interviewee 1b)

The convenience that online social networks have in people’s work and lives was fully affirmed with the popularization of file transfer and online payment functions on social networks.

“We used to take cash when we go out, now we can use online payment on our mobile phones to buy anything we need. We start to reply on the smartphones, especially for planning a journey, such as making reservation, finding the way on map, etc. Many young people are addicted to smartphones now.” (Interviewee 1c)

As shown in below sampler quotes, some people have conducted transactions, which include making a reservation, booking tickets and shopping, on social networks. Moreover, with the people’s increasing dependence on them, social networks have been incorporated into people’s life inseparably.

“Definitely, it is a new and the main channel for me to know things happened around and get information.” (Interviewee 2f)

“It is the most convenient and efficient way for gathering publicity and learning.” (Interviewee 2h)

“Online social networks enlarge my friend circle and broaden my vision.” (Interviewee 3e)

“Convenient for communicating with friends and easy to make like-minded friends.” (Interviewee 2d)

In addition, since information was spread widely and rapidly on social networks, the social networks were utilized as an effective channel to get information as well as gather publicity. Online social networks have made communication more convenient and increased people’s interactions online, which helps people to make more friends and enlarge their friend circle. Last but not least,
online social networks are regarded as the fastest and most convenient way for learning knowledge and skills, hence self-improvement was also considered as an aspect of the impact.

“The reviews of music festival on the social media is more real and reliable since many reviews are real-time updated, the current feelings of participants could truly reflect their inner feelings during the festival. Besides, I could know many information about the music festival through the reviews without asking.” (Interviewee 3c)

“I think the comments are reliable as people wrote the comment seriously and objectively. The most of comments I have seen were favorable reviews, it encourage me to attend the festival to a great extent.” (Interviewee 2f)

Regarding the word of mouth and comments of music festivals on online social networks, the respondents took different attitudes for various reasons. 12 interviewees held positive attitude as the comments were real-time updated personal experience and real feelings of every participant, which were considered as true, consistent and helpful. Some interviewees noticed that most of the comments expressed favourable perception commonly, which encourage them to participate.

“I only believe my own experience, other’s experience might be different with mine, so I would not believe.” (Interviewee 3a)

“Everyone has their own different feelings, but I and my friends would share the most real feelings to others. I believe our sharing could help many people. However, the information has dual character that need their own judgments, people’s own experience is the most real.” (Interviewee 2c)

On the contrary, the rest 4 interviewees thought different people have different feelings, the comments were emotional and subjectivity that need people’s own judgement. They indicated that many comments only shared the happy side and they would only believe their own experience.

The findings indicate that people tent to spend more time on online social networks, which has a great impact on attendees’ daily life in information spreading, communication, friendship, shopping and self-improvement. Besides, it was proved that online social networks have become the main channel for people to get information and most interviewees tend to believe the information on the social networks, which were considered as real and reliable. Therefore, many music festival participants were motivated by the information shared by their friends through online social networks.

**Online social networks’ impacts on motivation to attend festivals**

The participation of online social networks has impacted many potential festival goers’ motivations to attend midi music festival. The quotes below illustrated how online social network participation influencing festival motivation:

“Absolutely. Firstly, the line-up is very important for me as well as gathering with friends from all over the country and we make appointment online. I have influenced many friends around, including the friends I made online. I used to share something on WeChat when I was watching the live shows, some friends saw my sharing and inspired, so they asked me to attend with them the next time.” (Interviewee 2g)

“Yes, I was motivated to attend by the experience and information shared by my friends on Weibo.” (Interviewee 2f)
“The influence of social networks is very important. We could only see the general information published by official sources, now we can see the live videos through online social networks, people who did not attend could see the festival in others’ view and be touched more easily.” (Interviewee 1c)

As many interviewees explained, they were introduced to the festival through the online social networks and most of them wanted to attend and experience after seeing friend’s sharing of experience, feelings, photos, live videos, etc. In this case, online social networks played a significant role in communication and spreading information among communities, which could motivate or encourage more participation and lead to further engagement. The following quotes reveal the phenomenon further:

“To some extent, I might only know but not to attend Midi by friend’s liking and recommends without online social networks. However, what motivated me is the recommendations of my friends and festival itself but not public opinions on the social networks, the social networks provided a channel for me to know and be engaged in the festival.” (Interviewee 3e)

While 5 interviewees did not fully agree that online social networks have impacted their motivation since they regarded online social networks just as a channel to spread information and would not be impacted by others’ opinions and feelings. The factors that really motivated them are indicated as the line-up, gathering with friends or the attributes of the festival itself, as illustrated with the quotes below:

“I think it did not have any impact on me, the information has more effects. The online social networks just play the role of spreading but not making decision. On the other hand, through the information shared and discussion on WeChat and Group chat, many people might be encouraged and appealed to attend the festival.” (Interviewee 2e)

“No, I would attend based on my own feelings but other’s.” (Interviewee 1b)

The results have also supported the previous findings that customers were influenced significantly by their communities on their decisions or behaviors (Yang, Dia, Cheng, & Lin, 2006). Besides, the positive attitudes toward the word of mouth on social networks have also proved that customers would be affected by the ratings and comments of others and influenced to attend an event as they believe the information shared on social networks firmly (Valeri, et al., 2013). In addition, it has been found through the interview that many people would spread the information they interested or trust by forwarding to others on social networks. In this case, the word of mouth marketing, which includes community marketing, referral programs, viral marketing (Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels, 2006), appeared to be very effective.

Finally, the results reveal strong similarities that participating in social network sites could significantly reinforce people’s intention to attend events and to share interest of an event on online social networks (Lee and Paris, 2013; Ghazali, et al., 2014; Rajan, 2015). On the other hand, the opposite opinion revealed the reasons of not being influenced or impacted, because potential ‘festival goers’ own will or feelings are being motivated by other factors which are not online social network related Ghazal (2011).

Festival Attending Motivation

The motivation of most interviewees was mixed, mainly composed of spiritual escape, spiritual pursuit, togetherness, love of the music, novel experience, music sharing, educational enrichment
(Li & Wood, 2016), socialization as well as relaxation (Crompton & McKay, 1997). The sampler quotation below illustrates:

“To see the live show of my favourite musician, it was a new experience that different with the experience of concerts.” (Interviewee 3a)

“I hoped to share my own music and spirit on the stage of Midi. In addition, I want to study and enjoy the live shows in Midi festival, it was really an extraordinary experience.” (Interviewee 2h)

“Midi festival is a conventionalized event for me to get together with my friends, we could enjoy the live shows, know more band and listen to their music, as well as interacting with other music lovers in the festival. Music festival is a more fashionable way of entertainment compared to dine together and seeing movie, more and more attendances focus on participation rather than music recently.” (Interviewee 1c)

The two complex motivating factors as spiritual escape and spiritual pursuit, which were discovered in this study, were revealed in previous research (Li&Wood, 2016). Spiritual escape was described as a form of relaxation through releasing oneself from the mental constraints of everyday life. Besides, spiritual pursuit reflected the faith and belief of building the “spiritual life” with the ideas of Utopian ideals, freedom, dreams (Li & Wood, 2016).

“Midi is a kind of spiritual ballast or belief for me. I felt very depressed in my daily life and I could not be real-self most of time, Midi is a very good opportunity to relax and free myself.” (Interviewee 3b)

“It is a comprehensive need for me and it was changed with age. At the first time, I attended the festival because of my fond on music and togetherness with friend. After graduating from school, spiritual escape and pursue have become the major motivations. Besides, as I am working in tourism industry, educational enrichment is also an important motivation”. (Interviewee 2e)

In addition, novel experience, love of music, music sharing, togetherness and educational enrichment were illustrated and verified in below quotes. Moreover, it is recognised that all interviewees have shown multiple and mixed motives for attending the festival. On the other hand, collective memory is regarded as an important element of togetherness as many participants attended the festival for gathering with the friends they made and have shared experience in the festival.

“As our daily life is kind of boring, I want to go out and have some fun. I felt extremely happy and relaxed in the festival that I could release myself. Besides, I have made many friends in the festival, attending the festival is like going home now.” (Interviewee 2a)

“My motivations are to have fun, communicate with the younger ones and learn something new.” (Interviewee 2c)

Although Li and Wood (2016) have illustrated several motivations for people to attend music festivals in China, the research findings reveal other different factors. The two motivational factors of socialization and relaxation, which were identified by Crompton and McKay (1997), were revealed in the responses of the interviews in this study. In addition, the analysis on behaviors of using social networks and its impacts lend further support to the previous findings of Denis (1994) and Foster et al. (2010). People’s participation in online social networks are to satisfy the needs of obtaining information, getting social interaction (community membership, friendship
connection), constructing personal identity (involvement, sense of belonging). As a result, their participation created corresponding impacts in these aspects to people’s life afterwards. Furthermore, social networks also provide many conveniences to people’s life in terms of the two new discoveries as online trading and self-improvement.

It was also revealed that music festival is regarded as one of the fashion ways for gathering but not only the party for music lovers in modern life. Thus more and more people attend music festival just for participation instead of other purposes. Particularly, the first-timed participants were encouraged to attend the festival by the information on online social networks to a greater extent as they were not familiar with the music festival and focused more on participation. While, the repeat participants, who treasure more the music or collective memory in attending the festival, were mainly impacted by the line-up, music atmosphere and their friends’ decision. Regarding online social network, it serves as a channel for repeat participants to communicate and get more detailed information sooner and easier.

Furthermore, by sharing experience and information among online communities, the attitude and decision of community members would be affected or indeed changed. In particular, almost all the interviewees indicated that gathering with friends in order to share collective memory about the festival is one of the major factors for them to attend music festival. It is phenomenal because the festival goers are mostly coming from different regions of China. They get together in the festival every year as promised from the previous year. In this case, online social networks are considered as the most convenient channel for people to introduce, invite and make appointment with their friend to attend music festival together.

The analysis did show that as the main channel for young people to get information nowadays, online social networks play a significant role in promoting festivals, disseminating information, establishing communities and keeping customers engaged in the marketing strategy of music festivals in China. To summarize, the findings support that people’s motivation to attend a music festival could be reinforced by online social networks participation significantly.

**Conclusion**

This paper illustrated the impact of online social networks on festival goers’ motivation to attend music festival in China. The study results support previous research findings that people’s motivation could be reinforced by participating in online social networks. The results also provide further evidence of how online social networks could impose impact on people’s motivation to attend a festival. The chosen case is an important festival in modern China. It enables the research results shedding light on the online behavior of young Chinese music festival goers. It reveals that online social networks play an extremely important role in the event and festival marketing. At the same time, as similar research has not been identified in China, this study could provide references for the organizers or marketers to take into consideration for future festivals and events organization in China. It would help event and festival organizers to understand the importance and the role of online social networks in forming marketing strategies, with possible extension to customer relationship management and brand building as well in the future.

With the time constraints and geographic limitation of the current study, the result may only reflect the facts of this particular festival. Further research on other festivals in different region or bigger scale of a study are suggested to widen the horizon of this research topic.
References


China economic net (2017). Dan Wei, CEO of Midi: Decade of outdoor music festival, it is still like walking on the wire. Retrieved from: http://www.ce.cn/xwzx/kj/201702/20/t20170220_20351557.shtml


Galletta, A. (2013). Mastering the semi-structured interview and beyond: From research design to analysis and publication. NYU Press.


Attraction personality and destination loyalty: Conceptualisation and relation

Kim Ieng Loi, Weng Hang Kong, Jing Xu
Institute for Tourism Studies
Macao SAR, China
connie@ift.edu.mo

Abstract

Tourism offers an experience to the tourists. Many researchers have commented on the importance of the attractions for the development of tourism destinations. Attractions in the tourism destinations are one part of the tourism industry that acts as a catalyst or motivator for people to visit (Sharpley, 2007). While image has been extensively examined in relation to destination loyalty (Han, et al., 2018), the attraction sector has received little attention so far. Furthermore, there is a scarcity of research about how attraction attributes contribute to the destination loyalty. This study aims to coin a new concept of “attraction personality” which gets inspired from the existing destination personality and then tries to relate attraction personality to destination loyalty. Using Macao as the research context, the paper may help understand how tourists’ perception in attraction personality could assist Macao to formulate destination marketing and positioning strategies, both regionally and globally. Eventually this paper successfully applied the personality traits to a designated attraction by a total of 800 tourist respondents. Moreover, the positive and significant impacts of Attraction Personality on (i) Attraction Loyalty and (ii) Destination Loyalty are confirmed. Last but not least, the results also support the strong prediction effect of Attraction Loyalty on Destination Loyalty as a whole. Discussion and implication are also provided.

Introduction

With the increased competition between and among tourism destinations, destination loyalty has become important for destination marketing research in order to enhance competitive advantages (Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). As such, destinations continue to seek developing more distinctive characteristics and attributes. To this end, destination personality is often considered as a viable metaphor for understanding tourist perceptions of destinations and identify their uniqueness which is synonym to “personality” (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Similarly, the human personality traits can be used to describe a tourist destination (Chen & Phou, 2013) and differentiates it from other competing ones (Usaki & Baloglu, 2011). However, a destination is not a single phenomenon but a bundle including various components such as transportation, communications, accommodation and attractions. Besides tackling this issue at the destination level, many researchers have commented on the importance of the attractions for the development of tourism destinations. Attractions in the tourism destinations are one inseparable part of the tourism industry that acts as a catalyst or motivator for people to visit (Sharpley, 2007). While the overall destination image has been extensively examined in relation to the overall destination loyalty (Han, Hwang & Lee, 2018), the attraction attributes have received relatively less attention in the existing destination loyalty literature. Previous studies suggest that tourism destinations possess distinctive personality characteristics that can be the predictor of destination loyalty (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). However, none of the studies examines the so-called “personality” of attractions. Thus, this study is the first attempt to introduce the concept of “attraction personality”, taking reference of destination personality, and tries to explore whether such concept could be linked to destination loyalty. It endeavours to examine how destination loyalty can be built up through perception towards specific attraction attributes (hence “personality”) in a destination, which plays a pivotal role in destination management. The applicability and generalizability of this proposition will be tested using Macao as the empirical
setting. The paper may help understand how tourists’ perception in attraction personality could assist a destination to formulate marketing strategies and position itself as a preferred destination choice, both regionally and globally. The intended contributions of this study are therefore threefold: 1) it conceptualises the idea of “attraction personality” which takes reference from “destination personality”: 2) evaluates the relationship between attraction personality and destination loyalty in a tourism destination; and 3) promotes a better understanding of tourism planners and marketing professionals in developing attractions that fit the needs of their target tourist markets. The findings can enrich the knowledge and come up with both theoretical and practical implications for destination marketing and management.

Literature Reviews

Destination Loyalty

Customer loyalty is viewed as critical for business success (Sun, Chi & Xu, 2013). In the tourism context, loyalty can be interpreted and evaluated from attitudinal perspective (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Attitudinal loyalty is considered to be a sustainable direction because the mental impressions of a destination in tourists’ minds, image is a key antecedent of destination loyalty (Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu, 2014). An increasing number of academics have researched the loyalty concept in tourism context over the past years (Chi & Qu, 2008). Destination loyalty is often measured through “intention to return” and “willingness to recommend it” (Oppermann, 2000). From the existing literature of destination loyalty, a number of antecedents have been identified (Gursoy, Chen & Chi., 2014), for example, tourist motivation (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), service quality (Kim, Holland & Han, 2013; Lee, Graefe & Burns., 2007), tourist involvement (Lee, et al., 2007), destination image (Chi & Qu, 2008; Hernandez-Lobato, Solis-Radilla, Moliner-Tena & Sanchez-Gracia, 2006; Kim, et al., 2013), destination personality (Chen & Phou, 2013); perceived value (Kim, et al., 2013; Velazquez, Saura & Molina., 2011), place attachment (Su, Cheng & Huang., 2011), destination brand equity (Bianchi & Pike, 2011; Chen, 2010), and tourist satisfaction (Chen, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008; Lee, et al., 2007; Sun, et al., 2013; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). All these previous studies have proven that identifying the factors in determining loyalty is crucial to a destination (Prayag, & Ryan, 2012).

Destination Personality versus Attraction Personality

Aaker (1997) has proposed that consumers may possibly link human personality traits to the products, services and companies/brands. For example brand personality framework can be conceptualised into five dimensions including sincerity, excitement, ruggedness, sophistication and competence (Aaker, 1997). Brand personality concept can also be applied to tourist destinations (Kumar & Nayak, 2018). The destination personality is thus becoming a more viable metaphor for understanding tourists’ destination image and perceptions. It suggests that destination personality is can affect tourists’ buying behaviour (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Hultman, Skarmeas, Oghazi and Beheshti(2015) postulate that destination personality can promote tourists’ satisfaction, tourist--destination identification, positive word-of-mouth, and revisit intentions. Destination managers should consider the destination personality and then create unique touristic destination identities. Ekinci and Hosany (2006) ’s model of destination personality includes sincerity, excitement and conviviality. Chen and Phou (2013) further identify the destination personality traits such as original, interesting, exciting and friendly. Xie and Lee (2013) conduct the on-site survey for the tourists to Beijing, destination personality traits such as competence, excitement and sophistication are identified and it is proven that they can drive tourists’ behavioural intentions. In summary, because of the increasing competition among tourism destinations, destination managers have shifted their focus towards the more “personality” like attributes of the destinations (Kumar & Nayak, 2018).
As previously discussed, destination personality is an essential element in crafting destination image and affecting loyalty. While destination personality has become a widely accepted tool for destination marketing (Xie & Lee, 2013), recently there is an increased demand for marketing strategies with higher level of precision at a more localised scale (for example new marketing terms such as micromarketing, niche marketing have evolved). Destination is complex and multi-faceted that comprises various components such as attraction, accommodation, food and beverage, transportation and so on. A destination can be regarded as a combination of all products, services and ultimately experiences. Of these components, the attractions inside a destination are often regarded as an essential part of the package. In particular, attractions are considered as the core component in the tourism destination, developing one specific attraction may improve the physical and perceptual attractiveness of the entire destination (Huo & Miller, 2007). As such, it is crucial to know more about the attractions in the destinations so that potential tourists will be encouraged to consider them (Shanka & Phau, 2008). With this intention in mind, the authors are proposing to explore if the concept of destination personality could be extended and applied to characterise the attractions in a destination. The authors believe that it is necessary to identify attraction personality of each destination and this may contribute to the formulation of a positive and vivid destination image which is one of the main antecedents of destination loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008; Hernandez-Lobato, et al., 2006; Kim, et al., 2013). When a destination seeks to become more distinctive in an increasingly competitive market, attraction personality (if applicable) may be considered as an important marketing tool; assisting in building uniqueness of the destinations, understanding tourists’ perceptions of attractions, and promoting the destination at large.

Research Hypotheses and Conceptual Framework

In a nutshell, this paper tries to apply the concept of destination personality to attractions, coining the term “attraction personality” and testing it in Macao, a cosmopolitan city with over 30 million tourists a year and carried the reputation of being a World Heritage city and Creative City of Gastronomy by UNESCO. Secondly this paper tests if such perceived attraction personality may affect the level of destination loyalty. Furthermore, the loyalty parameters were repeated for both the destination (i.e. Macao) and the attraction specified by the respondent so that the inter-relationship between and among Attraction Personality, Attraction Loyalty and Destination Loyalty can be explored. Altogether three hypotheses were developed and diagrammed below (Figure 1).

H1: Attraction Personality is positively related to Attraction Loyalty.
H2: Attraction Personality is positively related to Destination Loyalty.
H3: Attraction Loyalty is positively related to Destination Loyalty.
Research publications focusing on attractions become to rely more on quantitative methods, particularly in relation to management issues experienced at attractions (Leask, 2016). This study utilised quantitative method with survey issues and data were collected from major tourist attractions in Macao. Since this study is part of a larger research a questionnaire was designed as the survey instrument to collect data for all the constructs covered in that research, including but not limited to “Destination Personality”, “Attraction Personality” and “Destination Loyalty”. Since the main objective of this paper is to test the applicability of a scale for measuring attraction personality which takes reference to destination personality, a list of personality traits was generated from previous destination personality scale. Initially the 42 items of “Brand Personality Scale” developed by Aaker (1997) were considered. However, since Aaker’s scale (1997) is too broad and may not be so applicable to attraction, the authors finally turned to create a shortlist of 15 items based on Bekk, Spörrle and Krus (2016). The loyalty measures for destinations were developed according to Yoon and Yuksel (2005) and Mohamad, Ali, Chani, Aubdulah and Mokhlis (2013). At the beginning of the survey respondents were asked to specify an attraction of Macao that they had visited and that came to their mind first. Thereafter all questions on attraction personality were based on this attraction, using a 7-point likert scale (Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman, 1996). Both English and Chinese versions of questionnaires were prepared and a pilot test with 100 college students in Macao was performed to check for clarity, based on which only minor wordings were corrected.

City images have been mostly focused on recent destination image studies, as countries may be possibly very large-scale (Sahin & Baloglu, 2011). Therefore, this paper has selected Macao as the setting. Macao is a small city with around 30 square km but more than 30 million tourists visit Macao. Tourism is Macao’s most important industry but with one dominating element (gaming industry). Usakli and Baloglu (2011) investigate Las Vegas that destination personality is significant in predicting tourists’ willingness to recommend the destination to others. Meanwhile, Macao is often referred to as the “Las Vegas of the East”, the only legal city in China providing luxurious gaming. In fact, Macao’s potential as a tourism destination goes beyond gaming. It has UNESCO’s World Heritage Site that was enlisted in 2005 and was designated with “Creative City of Gastronomy” by UNESCO. Macao government has been trying hard to diversify its tourism products and experiences, rebrand Macao as a multi-day tourism destination city both regionally and internationally (MGTO, 2017). Therefore, it is timely and appropriate to use Macao as the testing site for this study.
Sample

One the other hand, most literature has focused on understanding values of stakeholders other than tourists, thereby tourists' perceptions being largely ignored (Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Therefore, tourist opinions were solicited in the survey as they are the first-person in perceiving an attraction’s personality and will provide direct evaluation regarding their revisit intention to a destination. College students seasoned in conducting street survey were recruited to approach tourist respondents for data collection in major tourist attractions in Macao. They were briefed about the questionnaire content and were trained by the authors. During the data collection process, the potential respondents were approached and informed about the study, stating that participation was voluntary and the data would be kept in strict confidence. Applying the convenience sampling technique, a total of 800 usable questionnaires were completed successfully in 2017.

The profile of the respondents was summarised in Table 1. The sample consisted of more female (64.5%) than male (35.5%), who were mainly 18-35 years old (85.4%). A majority of the respondents (32.4%) earned less than USD 20,000 per annum with a second highest category (18.6%) of earning USD 50,001-100,000 per annum. It is worth-noting that around one fourth of respondents did not prefer to provide this information. Regarding place of origin, the majority (81.8%) of respondents came from Mainland China, followed by Chinese Taiwan (8.3%), Malaysia (4.3%) and Singapore (2.9%). As high as 97.3% of respondents had visited Macao previously with over 50% of them having visited Macao for 1 or 2 times before. Therefore, it is important that Macao continues to keep this market segment of repeated visitors.
Table 1 Respondents' Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Characteristics (n=800)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>47.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>37.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Annual Income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;USD 20,000</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USD 50,001-100,000</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USD 100,001-150,000</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USD 150,001-200,000</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;USD 200,001</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unstable</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No income</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer not to tell</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place of Origin</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainland China</td>
<td>654</td>
<td>81.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Korea</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of Visits to Macao</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2 times</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>56.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 times</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6 times</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 7 times</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not provided</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results Analysis and Discussion

The results generated from the 800 respondents were input and analysed using SPSS software for analysis. Demographic data were reported in the previous section to describe sample characteristics. In the section below each of the three hypotheses will be empirically tested using regression analysis. Validity is demonstrated through Cronbach alpha and a summary table is provided on the hypotheses testing results.

To begin with, since attraction is one of the main anchors of this study, the list summarising the top-mentioned attractions in Macao by the respondents is presented below (Table 2). The respondents were asked to name a visitor attraction that first came to their mind and which they visited within the last 12 months. From Table 2 below you can see that “Ruins of St. Paul’s” (n=379) was mostly mentioned as a visitor attraction in Macao, followed by “Senado Square” (n=72), “Avenida de Almedia Riberio” (n=46) and “Rua do Cunha” (n=36). From this ranking, all
the top four mentions are historic and social/cultural attractions while signs of gaming-related properties were also on the list (e.g. Galaxy Resort Complex, Parisian Hotel and Altira Hotel). This means that although the image of Macao as a gaming capital is very strong when it comes to tourist attractions people still would regard those historical and/or socio-cultural sites more. Therefore, the image of Macao is most often associated with history, cultural and particularly the coexistence between two cultures (East and West). It is worth-noting that a large count fell into the group of “Others” which contained all attractions with less than 9 mentions. This hints that the image of Macao in terms of attraction is quite scattered, except with a high concentration on a few “iconic” attractions, particularly the Ruins of St. Paul’s. The named attraction was used as the point of evaluation in the second part of the questionnaire which asked about attraction personality and attraction loyalty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attraction (n=800)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ruins of St. Paul’s</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senado Square</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avenida de Almeida Ribeiro (San Ma Lo)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rua do Cunha (Cunha Street)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galaxy Resort Complex</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parisian Hotel</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mount Fortress</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taipa House Museum</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-Ma Temple</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travessa da Paixão (Love Alley)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altira Hotel</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Attraction Loyalty and Destination Loyalty

Loyalty in the tourism context is mostly evaluated via the four aspects; (i) say positive things, (ii) make recommendations, (iii) intend to revisit and (iv) consider as first choice. These are often used in the literature when loyalty is concerned. This study uses these four statements to gauge the loyalty of the respondents at two levels, attraction and destination. Table 3 below shows the results. The two group means are the same at 5.62 (difference represented at the 3rd decimal place only). Overall the respondents were quite loyal to both the named attraction and to the destination of Macao since all the mean values were higher than 5 on the 7-point scale with a scale mean of 4. Individually speaking, respondents rated highest in willingness to recommend (5.95) and say positive things about the attraction (5.90). It implies that they have positive experience in the attraction they visited. Referring to Table 2, almost 50% respondents mentioned Ruins of St. Paul’s as the attraction and thus it is reasonable to think that these high scores were attributable to this attraction which is an amazing façade of a burnt down church that possesses intricate details manifesting co-existence of culture between East and West. The lowest score was given to considering Macao as their first travel choice (5.23). It echoes with the fact that many respondents have visited Macao for several times (Table 1), they may not consider Macao as the first travel choice in the future anymore. In addition, this means that Macao as a tourist destination is facing keen competition among other choices, further affirming the need of finding ways to strengthen its destination image which is an important antecedent of loyalty (Zhang, et al., 2014).
Table 3: Loyalty of Attractions and Destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Characteristics (n=800)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attraction Loyalty</strong> (mean=5.62)</td>
<td>Say positive things about this attraction to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommend this attraction to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have strong intention to revisit this attraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consider this attraction as my first choice when visiting the destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destination Loyalty</strong> (mean=5.62)</td>
<td>Say positive things about the destination as a travel destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommend the destination to others as a travel destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have strong intention to revisit the destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consider the destination as my first travel choice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Attraction Personality

As previously mentioned, the list of 15 personality attributes was adopted from the study of Bekk, et al. (2016) who used these on destination. In their study a destination is personified and characteristics (personality traits) are given and grouped into three categories - “Sincerity”, “Excitement” and “Sophistication” which cover all the 15 personality traits listed in Table 4. In our study the authors applied the same 15 characteristics but to an attraction. Table 4 shows that overall the respondents expressed higher-than-scale mean scores in all the items. Although all scores are above the scale mean of 4 two personality traits deserve more attention (“Daring” and “Exciting”) as both of them receive relatively low mean scores (4.23 and 4.13 respectively). As abovementioned, most of the attractions that the respondents come to mind are historic and cultural attractions, they may not perceive these attractions as daring and exciting when compared to the other attractions such as the newly established integrated resorts and shopping complexes. In addition, Macao is often directly compared with Hong Kong which is an internationally known as a cosmopolitan city one hour high-speed ferry away.

Table 4: Attraction Personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Traits (n=800)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>5.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliable</td>
<td>5.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>5.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthy</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daring</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Original</td>
<td>5.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirited</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young</td>
<td>5.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elegant</td>
<td>5.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophisticated</td>
<td>5.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charming</td>
<td>5.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glamorous</td>
<td>5.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stylish</td>
<td>5.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Model Testing

The data from the three constructs of Attraction Personality (AP), Attraction Loyalty (AL) and Destination Loyalty (DL) are analysed using regression. Results (Tables 5-7) show that Attraction Personality has significant positive relationship with Attraction Loyalty (H1); Attraction Personality has significant positive relationship with Destination Loyalty (H2) and that Attraction Loyalty has significant positive relationship with Destination Loyalty (H3), all to the .001 level. Therefore the three pre-set hypotheses are supported (Table 8 and Figure 2). The prediction powers of all the three propositions are all very high (B>.5) especially the strong impact of Attraction Loyalty on Destination Loyalty as a whole. This suggests that, at least in the case of Macao, many people would consider recommending/saying positive things about Macao or behaviourally supporting Macao by revisiting or placing Macao as first travel choice because of their attachment to a single attraction.

### Table 5: Attraction Personality as a Predictor of Attraction Loyalty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficientsa</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unstandardised Coefficients</td>
<td>Standardised Coefficients</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.573</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>12.934</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality_All</td>
<td>.564</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.482</td>
<td>15.549</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty_Attraction

### Table 6: Attraction Personality as a Predictor of Destination Loyalty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficientsa</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unstandardised Coefficients</td>
<td>Standardised Coefficients</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.625</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>13.475</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality_All</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.483</td>
<td>15.596</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty_Destination

### Table 7: Attraction Loyalty as a Predictor of Destination Loyalty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficientsa</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unstandardised Coefficients</td>
<td>Standardised Coefficients</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.599</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>11.784</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty_Attraction</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td>30.176</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Loyalty_Destination
Table 8: Attraction Personality as a Predictor of Attraction Loyalty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>B Coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: AP → AL</td>
<td>.564</td>
<td>15.549</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: AP → DL</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>15.596</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: AL → DL</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>30.176</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework - Tested

Reliability Test

To check for reliability of the data the Cronbach’s Alpha is performed and presented below (Table 9). All items used in the three main constructs are shown to possess high reliability as their Cronbach’s Alphas are all greater than .8 which indicates good internal consistency.

Table 9: Reliability Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attraction Personality</td>
<td>.904</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction Loyalty</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination Loyalty</td>
<td>.870</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion and Implications

The study results benefit both academics and practitioners, as well as tourists and local residents. It also contributes to the sustainable tourism by suggesting the application of a measurement tool that assesses an attraction’s characteristics from the viewpoint of tourists, metaphorising it with the description of a person’s characteristics and traits. The results not only confirm the inter-relationship between and among the three important constructs namely Attraction Personality, Attraction Loyalty and Destination Loyalty; it also highlights some image-related information of Macao. The top 3 mostly mentioned attractions in Macao (Ruins of St. Paul’s, Senado Square and Avenida de Almeida Ribeiro) are all located in close proximity and within walking distance.
Their joint frequency count exceeds 60% of the total attraction pool named by the respondents. This big attraction complex can be seen as the landmark of Macao. This area also overlaps with the Historic Centre of Macao which was inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage List since 2005. The other two named attractions (A-Ma Temple and Mount Fortress) are also part of this Historic Centre of Macao. Heritage tourism and its management has since then become one important issue for tourism planners in Macao. The previous literature in heritage management has focused on involving stakeholders and ignored in managing heritage attractions (Alazaizeh, Hallo, Backman, Norman & Vogel, 2016). The results of this study highlights such importance (perceived attraction personality has a strong influence on attraction loyalty which also leads to destination loyalty as a whole). Macao Government Tourism Office (MGTO) should consider launching media and other promotion activities emphasising the attraction personality in Macao. According to the results of this study, the attractions in Macao are considered mostly as successful, glamorous, trustworthy, charming, sincere, reliable and original. The glamorous and successful image may arise from the world-renowned gaming industry and the inscription on the World Heritage List. The trustworthy, reliable and sincere properties may be due to the fact that Chinese visitors often regard Macao as a place to shop and use service without major scams and risk of frauds, relative to the situation in Mainland China. The charming and original characteristics might be the legacy of Macao’s colonial past (a small fishing village under the governance of the Portuguese for over 400 years). MGTO can capitalise on these unique characteristics and promote Macao as a distinctive destination not only just in the region but also worldwide.

Currently, Macao tourism planning mainly focuses on marketing and the clustering of attractions with similar background. For example, as previously mentioned the marketing of the Historic Centre of Macao as a whole and the initiative of the MGTO in launching the campaign “Step Out, Experience Macao’s Communities-Waling Tour Routes” since 2013 which includes 8 walking tour routes covering the older parts of the communities. These initiatives are all with good intention. Nevertheless, it may be time to consider expanding the effort by covering Macao (and its attractions) as a whole. Greenwood and Dwyer (2017) suggest that Macau tourism planners should instead devise measure which aim at developing the entire Macao as a “World Centre of Tourism and Leisure”. Macao is a tourism destination dominant by the gaming industry, in terms of both perceived image and actual tourism revenue. It is a challenge to dilute this image and try to balance out on a larger “tourism attraction portfolio”. This paper represents the first step to understanding what tourists think of the attractions in Macao and through this, hopefully the tourism planners can make use of such personality traits to capture desirable target markets more effectively, by identifying the factors that either facilitate or hinder their selection to visit certain attractions. Another key strategic direction to look at is to encourage tourists to undertake longer trips by seeking to strengthen the overall attractiveness of destination offerings. This could either be achieved by keeping people longer in one destination (by better attractions management) or linking close-by destinations into a multi-destination itinerary (Luo, Becken & Zhong, 2018). As mentioned earlier, this paper is part of a larger research; while the current phase of the study helps pave the way for the former (attraction management), phase two of this project may try to tackle the latter (intra-regional comparison and collaboration).

**Future Studies**

The authors admit that by focusing on one tourist destination (in this case Macao) it may limit the generalizability of the findings. In addition, the attraction personality dimensions are still new and require more researches to prove their applicability. Therefore, already in the pipeline of the authors’ research initiatives are (i) to apply the same set of personality traits to another selected city and (ii) to introduce more potential dimensions related to attractions into the function of destination loyalty.
Reference


Development of a method for filtering information for tourists associated with their needs

Hisashi Masuda
Kyoto University
Japan
masuda.hisashi.4c@kyoto-u.ac.jp

Background

Due to the high penetration of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) all over the world, tourists can gain easily a lot of information related to their destination. In this situation, FIT (Foreign Independent Tour/Free Individual Tourist) can pursue better experiences during their trip.

In terms of a side of tourism providers, they need to support their guests building the better experiences based on the current ICT environment. This is because of increasing the number of FIT and OTA (Online Travel Agent) worldwide.

However, SMEs (Small-and-medium sized enterprises) that have limited resources have difficulty to catch up with the new online trend and the marketing.

In tourism industry something that to support the online data analysis and the marketing is useful for such kinds of SMEs.

Research Question and Purpose

What kinds of data filtering method are required to support FITs’ decision making in their trip? In this paper, we proposed a data filtering method to support FIT and to enhance the online marketing for SMEs in tourism industry.

Approach

We propose a simple method for filtering information for SMEs in tourism.

We hypothesized that there are two types of tourists’ criteria. One is “standard criteria” that majority tourists have. The other is “individual criteria” that have a variety of the direction depended on each tourists.

As having this perspective, we are able to consider the balance between the standard criteria orientation for all tourists and the individual criteria orientation for specific tourists.

To confirm the two directions, we firstly prepare a questionnaire that covers information related to select sightseeing spots like a conventional tourism guide book. And we collect the data through the questionnaire from the actual tourists. The data include tourists’ evaluation with Likert-scale for each sightseeing spots like customer satisfaction or intention to recommend.

And we analyze the data based on the data shape, especially which is normal distribution or not. We interpret that normal distribution represents the standard criteria because of the similar directions of evaluation, and non-normal distribution represents the individual criteria because of the variety of the directions of the evaluation.
Filtering Information Method for Tourists in terms of Distribution

Data Collection
To make the filtering information by this method, we firstly prepare a questionnaire that covers information related to select sightseeing spots in the area like a conventional tourism guide book. And then, we collect the evaluation data from actual tourists. The data include intention to recommend to friends/colleagues of each sightseeing spots with 10 scale of Likert-scale.

Data Analysis
We analyze the data related to evaluation of each sightseeing spots on the basis of the shape of the distribution represents the data, especially which is normal distribution or not.

First Step
First of all, we see the collected evaluation data of each sightseeing spots as depicted statistics. Then, we divide them into two groups. The first group is related to normal distribution shape. Second group is related to other shapes. We use a statistical testing for making this judgement.

Second Step
For the first group related to normal distribution, we also divide it into two subgroups. Those are groups of positive or negative evolution from tourists. The positive evaluation subgroup include data with more than "6" of positive recommendation intention. The negative one includes data with less than "5" of negative evaluation. We interpret that the first group has criteria with similar evaluation directions. That is, we can treat this group as one segment.

On the other hand, for the second group related to other distributions, we also divide it into the positive/negative subgroups. We interpret that the second group has a variety of criteria consisted with different directions of their evaluation. That is, we should consider and know the characteristics and differences of the targeted tourist segmentation.

Empirical Study

The data collection
As the actual test, we selected Kyoto University as the sightseeing area for the validation of this approach. Kyoto University has the long history and an important role of research and education in Japan.

We got about 90 participants for this survey. They are students in Kyoto University. And we collected the data through the questionnaire that covers the sightseeing spots in the area that we call Yoshida Campus. The date that we conducted this survey was on February in 2018. We picked up 28 sightseeing spots that they are displayed in several the campus tour guide books or websites. The participants of this survey evaluated the spots in terms of their recommendation intention with 10 scale of Likert-scale. "10" means the highest recommendation intention to their friends or colleagues. "1" means the lowest intention. Participants pick up their destination from selected sightseeing spots freely.

Results
We divided 28 sightseeing spots into two groups. The first group is related to normal distribution and the second group is related to non-normal distribution. In the second group, there are differences between positive and negative evaluation subgroups against the first group.
Discussion

We could see that there are two types of tourists' criteria on the basis of normal distribution and non-normal distribution. In this paper, we call first one as "standard criteria," and second one as "individual criteria". Especially on the individual criteria orientation in business, we should know the tourists' attribution more closely than the standard criteria orientation. Because due to the several directions of the criteria, it may happen that some promotion works for some tourist segment but not for others and so on. This perspective is important in this current FIT booming industry.

While it is also important to balance between the standard criteria orientation and the individual one. If there is no preparation for the standard criteria orientation, we cannot collect a lot of customers. But is there is no preparation for the individual criteria orientation, it is difficult to attract specific tourist segments such as loyal customer segments and so on.

Conclusion

Our approach is the first step of tourist customization based on the distribution's shapes that represent tourists' evaluation to their sightseeing spots. We believed that based on this perspective to provide adequate information associated with tourist preference is efficient to enhance their high quality tourism experiences. As our next step, we will compare the proposed filtering method with traditional information like a conventional tour guide book in terms of the tourist evaluation criteria such as standard and individual criteria.
Cities in Europe are increasingly becoming more and more popular tourist destinations with visitor flows growing each year (Bellini & Pasquinelli, 2017). With anti-tourism sentiments in some cities following this trend, there is a clear need for developing more sustainable urban tourism strategies. In the past much of the tourism development strategies have been based on place branding the creative city, in which little investments were made in actually improving the quality of the city (Go, Lemmetyinen, & Hakala, 2014; Richards, 2017). It now seems that there has been a shift to creative place making that focusses more on co-creation of the city and its brand (Go et al., 2014). With place making cities should move away from the idea of place branding by for example boosting cultural tourism and cultural clusters but rather focus improving quality of life for residents as opposed to mainly attracting tourists and investors (Markusen & Gadwa, 2010; Marques & Borba, 2017; Richards, 2017). Where place branding often is superficial and only focusing on just one image or story, place making could also include alternative voices (Richards, 2017). Place making however should not be seen as only an intervention in the physical environment of a place but it should also involve changes in the lived space including thinking and doing (Richards, 2017). This includes resources, meaning and creativity (Markusen & Gadwa, 2010). An important function is ascribed to the everyday life of places and the daily rhythms. When areas become more pleasant to live in because of arts and folklore that is being preserved in areas, tourists will also like it more (Go et al., 2014). Hence involving all local stakeholders in place making, such as residents, entrepreneurs, local businesses and policy makers, is essential and will lead to an authentic and sustainable place brand (Go et al., 2014; Kavaratzis, 2017) with which both residents and tourists can identify themselves.

In order to make urban tourism sustainable by making it inclusive and in co-creation there should be integrated access in three areas that will allow all stakeholders to participate. All stakeholders should have economic access to tourism markets so that a large portion of the population can benefit from the benefits tourism can bring and there should be opportunities for entrepreneurs (Uğur, 2017). Especially creative entrepreneurs are considered essential when it comes to successful and sustainable placemaking since they function as local ambassadors of place because the creative experiences and products they offer (Go et al., 2014). There should also be spatial access meaning attention should be paid to exclusion and gentrification processes to ensure that everyone has physical access to tourism markets as well. Finally institutional access is something that needs to be considered which links to the ideas of inclusive place making. It means that locals should be involved in city branding and by supporting bottom-up initiatives (Go et al., 2014; Kavaratzis, 2017; Marques & Borba, 2017; Richards, 2017; van der Borg & Russo, 2008).

This research project will look into the role of creative entrepreneurs in tourism development in Rotterdam, the Netherlands as a possible way of developing tourism in a more sustainable way. As a post-industrial and second city, over the past years Rotterdam has been successfully branding itself as a creative city in order to attract tourists and residents. Since the creative scene in Rotterdam is one of the main draws for tourists coming to the city, Rotterdam makes an interesting and relevant case study. Initial informal interviews with different stakeholders in the city of Rotterdam have revealed that Rotterdam is looking for ways to develop tourism in a more sustainable ways that includes the identity and residents of the city. Ever since Rotterdam started
to grow as a tourism destination, concerns about how to move forward with this trend have risen as many compare the growth in tourism to Amsterdam, considering possible (negative) future scenarios. As regenerated areas are attracting tourists because it focuses on a certain lifestyle that attracts both local and foreign young people, there is the danger of touristification of neighborhoods (van der Borg & Russo, 2008). Related to this there are also concerns about gentrification and possible over tourism. Even though Rotterdam is still in its growth phase and not even near to being at Amsterdam’s tourism level questions arise on how Rotterdam can be further developed as a tourist destination without decreasing the quality of life for residents (Braun, van Haaren, van Oort, & Steijn, 2018).

Rotterdam is now at the point where it should decide how to move further with the tourism development strategies and would like to develop a form of tourism in which the DNA of the city is central. Investments in culture and leisure facilities can benefit both residents and tourists which is seen as the key to more sustainable and socially balanced regeneration processes (van der Borg & Russo, 2008). Entrepreneurs could and should adapt to that because it will help the city in developing quality tourism rather than a higher quantity of tourists because it will create crossover between tourists and residents. Since the creative scene is already what attracts tourists to Rotterdam, there could be a big role for creative entrepreneurs contributing to the place making process and developing urban tourism of which the entrepreneurs, the city and its residents could benefit themselves as well. At the same we should be aware of possible negative outcomes such as touristification of new areas in the tourist destination (Kavaratzis, 2017) and processes of gentrification and commodification (Markusen & Gadwa, 2010; Marques & Borba, 2017; Richards, 2011). Questions about who benefits of creative tourism should always be in the back of our minds as well questions about addressing the real issues of a city (Marques & Borba, 2017). At the same time instrumental use of artists without keeping their interests in mind should be avoided because this can lead to a commodification of cultural and artistic resources and the everyday creative life which does not necessarily benefit the artists themselves (Lavanga, 2013; Peck, 2005; Richards, 2011).

As many cities are currently struggling with this balance, it is thus clear that both in academia as well as in practice, there is a clear need for studying and developing ways to develop urban tourism while also keeping in mind the interests of the city and its residents, making this research very relevant in the field of urban studies and tourism studies as well as for many cities worldwide trying to develop more sustainable forms of tourism.

Methods

This project looks further into the opportunities related to tourism for creative entrepreneurs in Rotterdam. With the use of qualitative methods that allow for in-depth knowledge on the way creative entrepreneurs have been adapting to, and effected by increased tourism we aim to have a better understanding of the role of these entrepreneurs in sustainable urban tourism development. By using semi-structured interviews questions such as: ‘What changes have tourism brought to creative entrepreneurs?’, ‘How have creative entrepreneurs adapted to the interest of tourists?’ and ‘How do creative entrepreneurs experience tourism?’ those insights are revealed. When it comes to tourism studies, the production side of tourism is often neglected (Bellini & Pasquinelli, 2017) and especially the role of creative entrepreneurs is often overlooked in urban place making (Go et al., 2014) and the attraction of tourism. Our research thus adds to this knowledge by investigating the role of creative entrepreneurship in tourism development.
References


Identifying tourism destinations from customers’ gaze

Isabel Paulino, Lluís Prats, Sergi Lozano
University of Girona
Spain
isabel.paulino@gmail.com

The traditional and simplest way of delineating boundaries of tourism destinations has been following the administrative boundaries. On the basis of administrative boundaries, administrations promote and manage destinations as well as apply regulations and laws which regulate the tourism sector and other supporting sectors. However, several authors have put into question whether these boundaries are the most desirable spatial configurations to facilitate tourists’ flows and its services within a destination region (Blasco, Guia, & Prats, 2014b; Framke, 2002; Paulino & Prats, 2013).

Indeed, tourists do not stop at destination borders. Several cross-border tourism literature have found evidences of travel pattern which involves attractions from both sides of the border (Blasco, Guia, & Prats, 2014a; Ioannides, Nielsen, & Billing, 2006; Lovelock & Boyd, 2006). They even detected obstacles to the proper development of a cross-border destination when administrative interests of the neighbouring administrative areas differ from the interests of the cross-border destination. These kind of tensions and impediments are not only found between destinations internationally divided, but to more or lesser extent at all administrative levels.

Tourists are the one who finally consume the destination and they are relevant in the process of defining a tourism destination due to the activation or deactivation of tourism places as a consequence of their travel patterns (Beritelli, Reinhold, Laesser, & Bieger, 2015). Therefore, for functional reasons destinations’ delimitation should be tied to tourists’ travel patterns (Dredge, 1999).

Previous literature has understood the fundamental role of understanding tourists’ movements for the planning and management of the attractions, accommodations or transport links among others. They contributed both with grounded theory or case studies to the understanding of tourists’ travel patterns and the factors which explain travel patterns within a destination (Gunn, 1993; Lew & McKercher, 2006; Lue, Crompton, & Fesenmaier, 1993; McKercher, Wong, & Lau, 2006; Smallwood, Beckley, & Moore, 2012). However, most studies remain in the phenomenological analysis without challenging the destination limits (Framke, 2002).

Other, have even proposed to abandon actual destination limits advocating to manage and promote destinations according to tourists’ travel patterns (Baggio & Scaglione, 2017; Beritelli et al., 2015). These researchers have analysed tourists’ direct flows and their activated paths, though without considering the territoriality of tourist flows during its whole stay at the destination. Literature agrees that attractions are the main decisive pull factor which motivates tourist flows, supported by the service sector (Chhetri & Arrowsmith, 2008; Kušen, 2010; Leask, 2008; Leiper, 1990; Lew & McKercher, 2006; Richards, 2002); and that territoriality of the flows is affected by several friction factors related with the spatial distribution of attractions and accommodation offer, market access, distance decay, time budget, communication network and others including personal factors (Lew & McKercher, 2006; Mckercher & Lau, 2008; Mckercher & Lew, 2004, 2003; Nyaupane & Graefe, 2008).

This paper aims to propose coherent and functional areas for the tourist’s use which may overlap along the space (Dredge, 1999). We actually propose to deframe destinations tourism borders understood as all-inclusive geographical areas, and to reframe destinations into attractions
systems which are commonly consumed by tourists during their stay in the area. The focus is set on the attractions’ network arisen from tourists visits during their stay at a destination and not just from a particular flow. Aggregated individual destination-based networks are used to distinguish consumer-based latent destination.

The study cases consist of two European natural areas: A Mediterranean and a British one. The Mediterranean area is located in a cross-border area between Catalonia, Aragon and Valencia regions of Spain. The area includes a Biosphere Reserve (Terres de l’Ebre), a costal natural park (Ebro delta) and a Mountain Natural Park (Ports). It is a non-crowded rural area, but neighbouring two mature coastal destinations. The second case study is the British natural and rural area of Peak District, one of Europe’s most visited national parks and surrounded by some of the most populated English cities. Both areas encompass spatial dispersion of tourism assets characteristically from natural and rural areas, which induce to a predominance of car-based trips and multi-destination patterns (Blasco, Guia, & Prats, 2014; Connell & Page, 2008; Lue et al., 1993; Smallwood et al., 2012). The Higher tourists’ degree of freedom of tourists in these areas prevent the simple identification of travel patterns-based clusters without the proper analysis.

Data collection has been conducted using ‘in-situ’ surveys from preselected relevant locations. Tourists have been asked about the attraction places visited during their stay at the present accommodation. Visits done by tourists staying at accommodation outside the surveyed area have not been discarded, which has allowed to detect the cross-border patterns as well as to expand the area of study.

Individual data has been aggregated and transformed into a symmetric matrix where attractions are interrelated by the frequency that tourists have visited them during their stay. This information has been loaded to Gephi network analysis program (Bastian et al, 2009). This has allowed to visualise each case study as a system of (interconnected) tourist attractions, define communities of attractions from the strength (frequencies) of their linkages, and identify specific attraction bridging neighbouring communities. Communities have been obtained using the Lovaine method (Blondel et al, 2008), a form of clustering analysis that allow to tune the resolution so controlling the number of obtained clusters. Outputs are represented both, with network graphs, which are useful to distinguish the clusters and the interconnections between attraction, and with maps, which allows to identify the geographical representation of the clusters.

Finally, graphs and maps have been analysed to detect the reason why tourist mostly consume together attractions within the detected groups. To help the interpretation, time distance from attractions have been calculated using quickest driving route with Google maps.
Figure 1 - Mediterranean attractions' clusters (minimum degree range 24)
Outputs detect several attractions’ communities in each case study, evidencing how tourists commonly consume the destinations. None of the detected clusters follow the present administrative or tourism boundaries, which proves the existence of significant differences on how these destinations are nowadays managed and how they are consumed. These results denote an opportunity to facilitate and optimize the consumption of the detected destinations, as well as to manage and plan the destination in regard to tourists’ preferences.

Clusters group attractions which are more commonly consumed together during the same trip mostly affected by the specific location of accommodation hubs and the communication network (Lew & McKercher, 2006; Shih, 2006). Both factors are very much related with the time distance that tourist have to travel within the destination. Maximal time distance detected between further attractions within a cluster is 1h and 35 minutes’ time distance, which do not exceed in the maximum distance of 193km found by Smallwood et al. (2012). This evidence than resulting clusters are local-like destinations that can be consumed in a day-trip (Lew & McKercher, 2006; Paulino & Prats, 2013). Moreover, accommodation hubs are not located at the periphery of the attractions clusters, which ensures that hub-and-spoke travel pattern is likely to occur within the detected destinations (Lue et al., 1993).

However, the consumer patterns not only remain within the attractions of the detected clusters. Attractions located in neighbouring clusters still show certain degree of connections between them as the colour mix of links show. This is more frequently detected in the case of outstanding and neighbouring attractions, indicating that, although clusters have detected the predominant patterns, there may be a remarkable amount of flows for considering the overlay of the destinations.
In conclusion, this new approach to tourism destinations not only contributes to detect consumer gaze of the destination, but also offers the destination managers the opportunity to rethink the destination on the basis tourists needs in order to improve the managing and planning of the destination as well as to detect of new business and network opportunities. Furthermore, the analogous results obtained in two different natural areas indicates that other similar natural destinations should obtain comparable results.

Finally, this paper represents just a first step to rethink tourism destinations. The collaboration within actors of the resulting destinations for a proper governance has not been addressed in this article. Future research line, should be firstly focused on detecting to what extend the flows within the overlapping areas are frequent enough to consider areas, and secondly discuss the governance of overlapping destinations.

References


Authenticity vs Experience. Is Cultural Tourism still Alive in Art Cities?

Valeria Pica
University of Malta
Malta
valpica@gmail.com

Cultural tourism has been the first and more authentic way to experience a new place and get in touch with new communities spending time and devoting a sincere interest in this discovery. Clearly, it is not anymore the time of Montaigne, Stendhal or Goethe and one can partially retrace thought their words the places they saw and the emotions they felt visiting some European countries in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth centuries. It is also quite difficult to figure out the chance to have a self-discovery journey seeing how our art cities are lived and experienced. A self-discovery that was perceivable in the urban fabrics and the monuments. Currently, it seems more the result of marketing operations and, as a consequence of this, highly identified and iconic monuments are the only renowned and the only visited. Anyway, a new trend is the revitalization of delocalized areas that live a sort of rebirth through art and cultural actions.

This paper aims to analyze how the tourism experience in art cities determines, on the one side, a revitalization of marginalized districts and, on the other side, can lead to a loss of authenticity. It is part of a project that has been started within the Faro Convention Network on tourism and its implications. Three case studies can provide an interesting set of elements based on speculative observations and interviews to key informants in order to deepen this aspect as part of a contemporary cultural tourism.

Actually, the district of Mouraria in Lisbon is experiencing a period of great renewal and transformation thanks to the joint action of local associations that deal with social and cultural development, and the municipality. The Mouraria, or Moorish quarter, is one of the most traditional neighbourhoods of Lisbon, although most of its old buildings were demolished between the 1930s and the 1970s. It takes its name from the fact that after the reconquest of Lisbon in the twelfth century, the Muslims who remained were confined to this part of the city. For a long time it was one of the poorest parts of Lisbon with no interest or attraction from a touristic point of view. In the last few years, a renovation project has begun to refurbish old buildings and preserve the area's history, culture and way of life. At the same time, it aims to integrate residents (including the young and old and recent immigrants) while also opening the area to tourists. One negative outcome of this revitalization is the growing price of apartments that has rapidly increased forcing some residents to live their places and leave space for short-term stay houses, which are supposed to offer a different experience of living the city.

A similar effect has been visible in Rome where the Rione Monti was turned into a stylish district after being neglected for many decades. Since the Middle Ages the area was not densely populated due to the lack of water supply; in any case, the inhabitants of Monti, called monticiani, developed a strong identity: their Roman dialect was different from that spoken in the other districts in the city. Then, with growing urbanization at the end of the 19th century after Rome had become the capital of a united Italy, the great changes of the Fascist period completely changed the appearance of the area. In particular, between 1924 and 1936, a large part of the district, consisting of small streets and popular houses, was destroyed to make way for the Imperial for a way and the archaeological buildings of the Forum Romanum were excavated. Today, it is dotted with small restaurants, shops, cafeterias, and apartments usually rent to young foreigners or tourists who like to experience the “very heart” of the Eternal city on the basis of the historical tradition of the district.
In Valletta, the renovation project started in occasion of the nominee as European City of Culture 2018 has led to an impressive change in terms of attraction and infrastructures for the capital city of Malta. What residents and tourists were used to see as a city accessible only from 9 am to 6 pm because of the many government bureaus, museums and tourist attractions with limited opening hours, has now been turned into a more lively area where many investors decided to conduct their businesses. Valletta didn’t experience the same massive urban development that other Maltese towns are having due to its morphology. It is a walled city on the top of a hill, and it would be impossible to expand its building land. On the one hand, that preserved the typical grid layout and the sixteenth and seventeenth building; on the other hand, the real estate speculation has brought home costs at exorbitant prices and not always corresponding to the real value of the buildings. It means that locals are moving and more and more foreigners decide to stay in Valletta and live there.

The three cases highlight the contradictions between the tourists’ experience that need some specific elements - accordingly to a scale of values related to financial, functional, individual, and social variables - and the search for authenticity that somehow attract more and more tourists and can generate the change of status from linguistic, generational, and identity perspectives.

In some cases, modern cities seen as cultural tourism destinations are robbed of their identity to meet the tastes of public. Contemporary visitors literally consume the city. It is evident that the “food source” cannot be endless and new tourism policies are needed to avoid the consumption of major cultural sites.

Moreover, in these cities a restricted number of locations are usually promoted while the rest of the city, and the city herself, is not even considered as a cultural place rather than a “must see” or a “must be”. For instance, in the city of Rome modern tourists come to visit the Coliseum – that is located in the Monti district - and the Sistine Chapel, ignoring that the latter is not even in Rome or Italy, but in an independent country: the Vatican City. Experiencing the Coliseum is more and more complicated due to massive crowds - potentially dangerous - as a consequence of the geopolitical situation requiring adequate security systems that should prevent and protect tourists, employees, and first of all the monument. The concentration of tourists in a single iconic site is the result of a short-sight promotion policy, which tends to recreate lazy marketing formulas aiming at sites that certainly encounter the favor of tourists. This aspect also leads to a very painful point: the shaping of landscape according to the tourist’s sight, which decreases the locations’ peculiarity and specificity.

It seems that in the last few years the cultural experience has become consumption, and the solution might lie in the removal of the expectation of “must be”. The focus on local declination, however, may be the answer to a degeneration of the travel and tourism concepts.

It seems difficult to define "cultural" a type of tourism that assaults the city, forcibly directs the flow of tourists only towards limited locations, negatively affects the value of the offer, and worsens the lives of residents without bringing substantial benefits. It is known that, although the number of tourists increases in number, their presence (namely their stay in terms of days spent in a city) decreases dramatically leaving behind degrade and debasement.

Then, maybe, it is time to turn from a “plundering, greedy tourism” - to quote the Italian writer Erri De Luca - towards a sustainable, accessible, and ethical tourism respectful of the places, people and local identities according to the principle of the Faro Convention.

It is to expand the cultural tourism offer, open the eyes to the context and realize that the use of cultural heritage done so far leads inevitably to the deterioration of a few monuments in need of constant care of restoration and conservation at the expense of many others aside and not valued
for lack of funds, qualified personnel, adequate promotion, and private operators interest. Tourism offer has to be reformulated so that the landscape does not change to meet the expectations of those who arrive, and start a common process of reorganization of the activities to a new perception of the heritage, the cities, and the landscapes. This is because the goal is to keep working in this field and make the beauty of dispersed cultural heritage known.

The direction to take aims at education and understanding of beauty, teach to see and recognize the diversity that makes a place unique. By exemplifying the way in which tourism can meet the cultural characteristics and recompose the identity of a place, one has first to consider the time and ways of mediation that take into account these various elements affecting the historical and artistic aspects (including music, literature, folklore, etc.), but also anthropological, sociological, scientific, environmental, not to mention the food and wine traditions that complement the experience of the journey involving other senses. So it means to shape a synesthetic experience in which all senses are stimulated to ground the memory of a place and its specificities.

In any country one can found countless locations that could offer synesthetic experiences thanks to the variety of food and wine production and geological, architectural and landscape characteristics – namely the genius loci, the identity of the places. In order to reach this journey experience it is necessary that tourism operators develop and ensure a theoretical and technical training, constantly updated and multidisciplinary.

On a different note, it is crucial also to say how one can frequently note divergent attitudes towards cultural activities: on the one hand, a dangerous self-reference that distances audiences and tourists from the enjoyment of heritage; on the other hand, the supply of excessive delights and spectacles in which the cultural heritage itself loses sense and meaning. Modern visitors have a completely distorted perception of cultural sites and identity places due to the misunderstanding between education and entertainment.

Politics should play a pivotal role, not pursuing anymore the thesis put forward in the 1980s on the efficiency of cultural heritage, seen either as "oil" or as "quarry", anyway only in economic terms. Culture can easily be the driving force for social and economic development if a forward-looking policy defines offer that creates demand, as claimed by the economist Paolo Leon. But it needs economic resources. The allocation of resources invested in culture in recent years, instead, marks a significant drop. In Italy, one of the countries with a consistent cultural heritage, the planned resources for urgent protection measures fell by 58% in the period 2008-2013, namely they are almost non-existent. As a consequence of the reduction of public resources, for 20 years private societies have been in charge of the service management equipment in museums. In some cases, it appears to be the only way to ensure openness. It goes without saying that the profit-oriented operators are aimed at managing large attractors at the expense of low-paying popular sites on the territory who should have the most need to be promoted.

This is the current situation and it is useless to complain. It is time, however, to move towards a responsible use of heritage and the territory that may be possible if all stakeholders turn to a local tourism development plan and work together to transform mass cultural tourism processes in ethical tourism. A process leading towards a forward-looking promotion and active protection able to root the sense of citizenship and belonging. The direction to take should move towards the education and the acknowledgment of beauty as a cultural experience and see authenticity not as a means to exploit and reshape cultural heritage, but as part of an experience that probably is not meant for everybody. If the democratization of culture has led to a massification and standardization of cultural offer, it is time to rethink approaches and narrative towards a real participatory policy.
Bibliography

De Seta, C. (2010), Le città europee. Origini, sviluppo e crisi della civiltà urbana in età moderna e contemporanea, Il Saggiatore


Tourism in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bangladesh: Political economy and ethical considerations

Sabiha Yeasmin Rosy
Macquarie University
Australia
sabiha-yeasmin.rosy@hdr.mq.edu.au

Abstract

Tourism geographies reflect on the uneven socio-economic consequences of the construction of ‘place’ for different stakeholders. A political economy perspective reveals the complex relations between multiple tourist actors and the intersection of culture, environment and ethics in the marketing of a tourist destination. To feed the global and national tourism economy’s ever increasing appetite for new experiences, the Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHT) region of Bangladesh has recently been promoted as a site of nature, exquisite culture and ‘exotic’ people. In the rush for profit, the accompanying process of commercialisation has resulted in adverse impacts on local people’s lives, markets and nature, whilst powerful actors have positioned themselves to reap many of the benefits from tourism. This paper draws on the empirical findings of ethnographic research to understand the political economy of tourism in the CHT - a mountainous region which is home to 11 Indigenous groups and considerable cultural and ecological diversity. The researcher has conducted the field work in Bangladesh for nine months from 2017 to 2018 being a female researcher and an ‘outsider’ who belongs to mainstream Bangalee. The research has gone through formal extensive ethical review under Macquarie University ethical review committee and received approval. The critical aspects of ethics associated with tourism emerge in this study, which has sought less attention from the policy makers and investors since the development of tourism; although the expansion of tourism in a large scale is a recent phenomenon in Bangladesh – extensively since 2010. A neo-colonial model of development, as embedded in the current governance structure, is apparent whereby natural resources and Indigenous peoples’ culture and women are subject to considerable exploitation. Tourists, tour operators, guides, and administrators are neither aware nor sensitive to the cultural and environmental implications of tourism, lacking sensitivity towards Indigenous peoples’ interests. It is argued that greater consideration of ethics of care to people, culture and nature in tourism could potentially rein in the exploitation of people, culture and non-human things. This ethics of care can also reduce the risk of sex tourism within the profit making industry by following proper ethical guidelines. Moreover, the focus on the uneven political economy of tourism in CHT demonstrates the need for greater ethical consideration of the implications of the growth of mass tourism by planners and researchers.

Tourism, as a newly ventured development initiative in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHT), raises multidimensional concerns within Indigenous communities. The Indigenous people of Bangladesh share a predominant history of discrimination and violation by the state due to cultural differences, which seems to be persistent in the development programs including tourism development as culture and nature are mostly ignored and devalued in development planning. The notion to reap benefits within political economy allows various actors/stakeholders to get involved in the process of tourism without having proper ethical knowledge in terms of resource management, decision making and concern to Indigenous culture. This research elaborates on the nature of political economy that follows modernization form of development to attain economic growth for some, and concentrates on the context of ethical considerations, which outlines the power structures in the CHT posing risks and threats to nature and culture.
The modernization theories of development - being the first of introducing development - can be recognized as the most persistent and debatable form of development implicated to promote capitalism and economic growth, in order to change poverty situation and economic welfare. Bernstein (1971, p. 141) mentions that the assumptions behind modernization theory dwells on “1) that modernization is a total social process associated with (or subsuming) economic development in terms of the preconditions, concomitants, and consequences of the latter; (2) that this process constitutes a ‘universal pattern’” (p. 141). However, modernization as a process of development is highly criticized as it acts upon the traditional culture, manipulates, breaks, or influences the local beliefs and values, and this theory resonates with the findings of this research, where modernization through tourism is endangering various aspects of local lives, values, culture and nature; yet, the powerful actors are promoting mass tourism in a large scale to create a market for investors.

The concept of political economy studies the distribution of power that manifests the control, access over the place and also the people (Mosedale, 2015). When the power is unequally distributed, the resources are about to be distributed within powerful stakeholders, who intend to modernize the nature and culture to meet the global standard of development. According to Mosedale (2011, p. 3) “Political economy’ in current usage is a term that encompasses a wide variety of approaches to studying the relationship between what is called ‘the economy’ and its ‘non-economic’ (i.e. political, socio-cultural, psychological and geographical) context”. Considering the definition, this paper attempts to find the power dynamics, environmental and cultural aspects in relation to political economy of tourism.

Tourism, as a process of development overpowers local communities of ‘third world’, encounters changes from geographical and socio-political spheres, as power constructs the human-environment relations. The concern towards developing tourism from capitalist mode – observing only economic growth- brings a sheer change in livelihoods, nature and regional political system (Gibson, 2009). Likewise, tourism has brought many changes in the Indigenous people’s lives both in a positive and negative way in the CHT.

As power acts as a major weapon to control over ‘other’, this ‘other’ is constructed as ‘exotic’ and different to increase the potential of tourism among the mainstream people. The Indigenous people of CHT are branded out by the government to attract more tourists. Using this branding, the problem of sex tourism is emerging in the main city of Bandarban. Moreover, Indigenous products are commodified in a way that it might lose the aesthetic value of the product.

Environment plays an important role in tourism as tourists seek naturally attractive places; thus, the use and consumption of natural resources generates risks towards the environment. In addition, the infrastructural development including building hotels, motels, roads or picnic spots in nature creates negative pressures that degrade and pollute the environment opened up for tourists (Page & Dowling, 2002). The places not only lose their natural beauty but also the cohesion to sustain a balance in nature. Page and Dowling (2002) also argue that tourist invasions can destroy the ecological atmosphere, if the tourists did not know managing the resources rests on the nature.

Moreover, environmental problems can be socially constructed following the political process of imposed socio-economic inequalities, where there is a continuous struggle over material practices (Bryant, 1998). Thus, the ethical aspects of tourism and development come in danger zone, as the intention to develop the disadvantaged groups hardly becomes an issue of concern. However, Saarinen (2016) points out that since the 1990s, the scholars of tourism geographies have been shedding lights on the ethical aspects of production and consumption factors linking social and environmental development issues. In spite of that concern, tourism broadens the door of commercial production and consumption of goods and commodification of culture, with another
dimension – making the destinations as ‘product’ to be fixed spatially (Milne & Ateljevic, 2001). Thus, the development of tourism contains spatial values and implications on the individuals, households or communities as a whole, when are at the process of economic modification. Also, the government’s involvement in shaping tourism regionally plays important role in producing tourism markets strategically, which may not reflect the ‘spatial concern’ and ‘local perspective’. Thus, this paper aims to understand the context of ethical considerations in relation to political economy in the CHT.

Methodologically, this research aims to understand cross-cultural differences and power dynamics between actors to underscore the ethical considerations in thinking, guidelines and practices. The researcher went to Bangladesh and conducted the fieldwork for nine months. Being a woman and Non-Indigenous person, her ethnographic approach of research let her become a trusted insider at times. In field, she was reflexive and aware of possible power gaps between the researcher and the researched. As, she had gone through extensive ethical review by the review committee of Macquarie university, she was careful enough to maintain the confidentiality and took consent before conducting interviews. She was respectful, observant and interactive in the field to build trust with the participants. This research follows qualitative research methodology; and In depth interviews, Key In depth interviews and participant observation as methods were adopted and applied to collect information. To do this research, Indigenous people from community, tour operators, tourists, development sector workers and Government staffs were interviewed.

Reference


Mosedale, J. (2011). Re-introducing tourism to political economy

In J. Mosedale (Ed.), Political Economy of Tourism A critical perspective (pp. 1-13). USA and Canada: Routledge.


Wine & more… - Role of wineries in local tourism development

Judit Sulyok
University of Pannonia
Hungary
sulyok.judit@gtk.uni-pannon.hu

Abstract

The presentation is based on The Wine Lab international project (Erasmus+ programme), aiming at generate innovation between practice and research on the European level. The three years long project includes a wide variety of activities including research, networking and special events. The presentation summarizes the outcomes of the stakeholders (wineries and policy makers) interviews carried out in four involved countries (Austria, Greece, Hungary and Italy). Small scale wineries are fundamental actors of their local and micro-regional environment. Being a magnet for visitors in a lot of ‘disadvantaged’ areas, they do provide real values and long term vision that can support a sustainable future for tourism destinations. As entrepreneurs, they have a fundamental role in shaping the environment, their commitment means a strong base for the local economies. The presentation takes a closer look at the current situation, developments and networks of the involved wine tourism stakeholders.

Introduction

The wine industry is generally fragmented, and this fragmentation is particularly evident in the Old World (Europe) (Anderson, 2004; Visser, 2004). Data from the European Directorate General for Agriculture and Rural Development, also confirms that the Wine sector “is composed by an overwhelming majority of small producers, and is therefore extremely atomised in comparison with other food and drinks industries”. Small size wineries share similar problems with small and micro companies in other sectors, since a small business, is still a business, and it requires sales, marketing, accounting, ordering, collections, compliance, packaging and shipping, etc. It has been widely recognised that in the wine industry small wineries achieve better performance when they are networked or clustered (see among the others, Visser 2004; Porter, 1998; Giuliani & Bell, 2005). The ability to seize opportunities from the market – that it is a typical trait of entrepreneurs – varies according the style of management of the firm and location (Gilinsky et al., 2008).

From the tourism point of view, in present-day world we are facing important changes in demand and supply side, as well. It is widely recognized that ‘experiences’ are in the forefront of tourism mobility, more and more affluent travellers seek to find special places, special activities. The popularity and importance of gastronomic delights – including wines – is also seen in tourism, health conscious travellers are often motivated by the gastronomic treasures of the visited places. This puts more pressure on agricultural companies, among them wineries to showcase their ‘product’.

The changing role of universities in past decades has put the relation between higher education and business in the focus of academic and policy debate. Since the middle of the past century, there has been a shift toward a more societal role of universities (Goddard 2009; Zomer and Benneworth 2011), which includes special attention to links with business. The concept and fundamentals of the “Third Mission” of universities has been widely discussed and questioned (E3M 2010). This ‘new’ role of universities within regional development further developed the concept of third mission toward the concept of co-creation (Trencher et al, 2014; Rinaldi et al., 2018).
The Wine Lab project aims at setting the basis for a dialogue among research, business and regional communities, including Universities and small wineries, mainly those located in disadvantaged areas, to stimulate knowledge flow, share challenges and solutions, and jointly generate and accelerate innovation in the wine sector. The three years (2017–2019) long project includes a wide variety of activities including research, networking and special – local and international – events.

**Methodology**

In the framework of the project, a comprehensive research has been realized. This included Delphi research, semi-structured interviews with stakeholders and student survey, all of them elaborated on international level. This paper is based on the results of the semi-structured interviews (altogether 77 stakeholders in four countries) conducted during Spring-Autumn 2017. Interviews addressed two target groups, namely small wine producers, and policy makers or including other stakeholders involved in the sector. Interviews were delivered using a semi-structured interview format. For both groups, the same research themes have been explored, by defining questions according to the profiles:

a. Perceived difficulties of small wineries in disadvantaged areas, particularly in relation to the market;
b. Perceived potential of the cooperation with higher education institutions and other stakeholders;
c. Perceived potential for territorial development;
d. Perceived skills mismatch between the company needs and the newly graduates workers (also not related to hard skills).

**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Austria</th>
<th>Greece</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Hungary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wine makers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy makers</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Wine Lab - own editing

**Results**

**Wine makers**

*Current situation, challenges faced*

The wineries interviewed experience themselves that wine and gastronomy is more and more trendy, resulting a significant increase in demand. At the same time, opening toward tourism and take advantage of the synergies (between winery and tourism) emerges the need of different thinking, different routine. Another important added value can be that most of the small wineries are family-run businesses, so they can ensure visitors a really ‘unique’ experience (often with the owner him/herself). Among the negative aspects, respondent wineries have mentioned the wine is different from gastronomy, and often it is still regarded as a niche market. Reflecting the experience-driven tourism industry, wine itself is not enough anymore, so wineries need to innovate new products – services – experiences. Within this context, food/gastronomy (tastes, smells) and the place’s charm (natural environment, panoramic view) is the most valued besides the wines. This can be extended by the local 'specialities', storytelling.
The most mentioned difficulties/challenges for respondents relates 1) to the burden of bureaucracy, which affects also in general small companies, 2) to the limited access to financial resources, and 3) to the lack of (financial) support by public providers. Even if paperwork and administrative duties both for management and certifications are considered as a relevant issue across all countries, clear distinctions emerge in nature and numbers. Environmental regulations are considered to burden the wineries with additional bureaucracy.

Following and keeping all the environmental protection rules is very expensive and hard (Hungary)  
One winery on its own can’t afford the expensive costs of international events (Italy)  
Large wineries have easier access to financial programs such as those of the European Union (Greece)

Potential development on the local level

Often being located in disadvantaged areas, wineries suffer from the lack of infrastructures, hindering the easy accessibility of the cellars and selling points, as well an increased cost of transport, or lack of services. As consequence, wineries have great influence and responsibility in forming the environment and establishing new facilities.

Long distance from the big cities, inadequate infrastructures and not so good access to the markets, high costs for the transportation of our goods result in higher prices of our wines (Greece)

Another fundamental role of wineries on the local level is to provide employment. Although these companies also addressed by labour shortages and the degree of professionalization of staff, their responsibility is unquestionable, because these areas are often nature protected areas that do not allow big industrial activities.

Future potential developments can include the linkages of wine with the culture of the territory, as material and immaterial cultural heritage. This is addressed in particular to understand the interest of wineries to put themselves on the line in the creation of networks including also very different stakeholders. The opportunity is considered as positive, and somewhat as ‘natural evolution’, as wine is closely related to cultural heritage as a product itself.

Wine tourism was mentioned in all four countries (Austria, Greece, Hungary, Italy) as very important for further development also of the wine sector. Gastronomy and local traditions are also among the most mentioned strengths by all regions involved in the research, even if other opportunities were mentioned.

However, I believe that local wine and local gastronomy is always winning, while organizing events, for example wine tastings within museums, may be interesting to propose something new, but at a purely commercial level, I have never got great results. (Italy)

Specific potential for development is given to linkages between tourism and wine (Austria, Greece) and to linkages with cultural heritage (Italy, Hungary, Austria).

People are also looking for experiences during their travels and gastronomy. It is important for both older and younger generations to experience local experiences related to the area. This trend in tourism today appreciates the role of small businesses and local producers (Hungary)
In relation to tourism, also lack of public investments are sometimes mentioned, and these are considered as indispensable to start the process, in regions that are not considered as touristic yet.

*Natural conditions are perfect for wine-growing in this county and this activity has long traditions here* (Hungary)

**Cooperation, network**

Local and national cooperation is well considered by the greater part of respondents, and in some area is already taking place between wineries and between wineries and touristic players (e.g. hotels, restaurants, etc.): the wine makers see networking mostly as a form of reciprocal support/help.

*It would make sense, also between wineries and Heuringen* (Ed. kind of tavern in Eastern Austria, where a local winemaker serves his or her new wine under a special licence in alternate months during the growing season) *share employees, this would be a good way of financing the costs* (Austria)

**Conclusions**

The outcomes of the interviews with wineries and stakeholder of wine tourism point out some important – theoretical and practical – conclusions for future developments.

a) The size of the company (SMEs, family-run business in this case) makes a considerable difference: small wineries have difficulties to access markets. At the same time, from the tourism aspect this is an added value of unique experience.

b) Location of the company also plays a relevant role, as disadvantaged locations (often nature-protected areas) entail higher costs of transportation, which impact on the price of the final product, difficulties with the attraction of workers, also seasonal workers, and challenging mechanisation.

c) Networking is considered relevant, meant mostly as mutual support or considered as a strength for development by winemakers. Networking can be tracked on the local level (wineries role in the local economy and decision-making), in the tourism value chain (links to tourism service providers, destination management) and among wineries (sharing knowledge and expertise).

d) Development of a territorial-based action (links with identity, cultural heritage, traditions etc.) is considered relevant, can be more beneficial in the future developments. Tourism, including wine tourism, is considered the most promising field for development.

Summarizing the outcomes of the research, we can conclude that wineries provide significant value and potential for a lot of areas. The long term thinking and value creation of the involved companies can ensure sustainable and competitive future for these areas, their strong commitment can guarantee the success.

**Literature**


**Acknowledgement**

The Wine Lab – Generation innovation between practice and research (575782-EPP-1-2016-IT-EPPKA2-KA) has been funded by the Erasmus+ programme of the European Commission. The project period is from January 2017 to December 2019.
Skills and transversality - a myth or a reality

Lily Terzieva
NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences
The Netherlands
terzieva.l@nhtv.nl

Transversal competences and their meaning today

Education authorities in all countries issue guidelines on what should be taught or learnt in schools. Usually these guidelines are included as part of curriculum documents or syllabuses. In recent years, reforms in many countries have reshaped curricula on the basis of new concepts such as 'key competences' and 'learning outcomes' and some have introduced achievement scales. In many countries, a subject-based organisation with a focus on subject content has given way to a more complex curricular architecture built, in part, on practical skills and cross-curricular approaches. In addition, new curriculum areas have been either introduced or given a higher profile in many European curricula. This is notably the case with entrepreneurship education, ICT and citizenship education.

As OECD (2009) states: “Globalisation and modernisation are creating an increasingly diverse and interconnected world. To make sense of and function well in this world, individuals need, for example, to master changing technologies and to make sense of large amounts of available information. They also face collective challenges as societies – such as balancing economic growth with environmental sustainability, and prosperity with social equity. In these contexts, the competences that individuals need to meet their goals have become more complex, requiring more than the mastery of certain narrowly defined skills.”

Defining transversal competences

The concept of key competences originated with the adoption of the Lisbon Strategy in 2000 and it resulted in the European Reference Framework. Key competences in the EU framework are those that “all individuals need for personal fulfillment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment”. The development of key competences should include both subject-based and transversal competences that will motivate and equip students for further learning.

Based on the European framework for eight key competences, defined in 2006 (CEDEFOP, 2009), the transferable (transversal) competences are: communication in the mother tongue; communication in foreign languages; mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology; digital competence; social and civic competences; sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; learning to learn; cultural awareness and expression.

These competences are fundamental in a knowledge-based society to meet the needs of the labour market, social cohesion and active citizenship. The idea is to ensure greater flexibility and adaptability, satisfaction and motivation.

The European project SOCCES

SOCCES – SOCiAL Competences, Entrepreneurship and Sense of initiative is a two-year project running from 1st of February 2015 to 31st of January 2017 and funded by European Commission Erasmus+ Programme. It involves seven partners from six European countries – Coventry University (United Kingdom), Laurea University of Applied Sciences (Finland), NHTV University
of Applied Sciences, Breda (The Netherlands), University of Bologna (Italy), Veliko Turnovo University (Bulgaria) and Savares Ltd. (The Netherlands).

The project SOCCES addresses the issue of assessing transferable competences with regard to two specific transferable competences which are very important in working life, namely entrepreneurship and sense of initiative. To date, these two competences are evaluated through different assessment methods, but very few practical tools exist, and no consistent and standardized assessment framework can be found. The aim of SOCCES is therefore to develop a framework for the methodical assessment of these two competences, which can be used for assessment and quality assurance. The goal of this assessment framework is to provide teachers and evaluators with a unique and consistent list of entrepreneurial and social competences, their definitions and operationalization, and a set of practical assessment tools which allow to measure students' mastery in entrepreneurial and social transversal competences.

These two meta-competences have been selected as their development is lagging behind those of mathematics, science and technology and yet they have a crucial role to play in the future working lives of students and for their personal fulfilment and active citizenship.

This project provides teachers with the means to:

- Define and describe these entrepreneurial and social competences for their students
- Support students with the development of these competences in an inclusive, virtually enabled setting
- Assess and provide feedback to their students on how they are progressing in the development of entrepreneurial and social competences

And it provides learners with:

- The means to describe, self-assess and benchmark their entrepreneurial and social competences
- The language to articulate these competences to others such as teachers and employers
- A means to develop with them in an accessible, virtually enabled environment

**Research design**

Within the framework of the project there have been conducted both desk as well as field research in order to define, analyse and understand the essence of transversal competences; to provide an overview of the existing practices for the assessment of these competences not only within the six higher educational institutions, partners in the project but also worldwide; to develop an assessment framework with respective assessment tools; to test the latter and to come up with a consistent proposal for transversal competence assessment methodology.

The desk research consisted of a baseline study, encompassing the notion of the transversal competence and the challenge for their assessment from three angles: their essence; the existing educational models and the existing good practices in the field of assessment in education as well as in business.

The baseline study came up with the following definition of transversal competences: The skills and competences individuals have which are relevant to jobs and occupations other than the ones they currently have or have recently had. These skills and competences may also have been acquired through non-work or leisure activities or through participation in education or training. More generally, these are skills and competences which have been learned in one context or to master a special situation/problem and can be transferred to another context.
The baseline study in relation to the transversal competence assessment highlighted how current assessment practices tend to focus on outputs from activities rather than the learning processes that are developed whilst working on the creation/production of the output: process vs. product. Assessing the product cannot be seen as a good measure of transversal skills. So it was recognised that many activities are set-up to develop transversal skills it is a challenge to make these explicit and visible and assess them.

The analysis also emphasized upon the importance of formative assessment in the development of transversal competences. Formative feedback could come from a number of sources, self, peers, teacher and employer. All were important though self-assessment is important for future employability.

The challenge of assessing transversal competences was also linked to there being no clear definition and linked to that no clear criteria that could be used to support the assessment process.

Having identified challenges associated with the assessment of transversal competences the baseline study developed onto identifying potential solutions that could assist. The diverse reports and partner consortium discussions identified the need for thresholds that could be used, providing a framework for assessment. Such a framework would need to recognise different contexts and cultural differences.

This discussion started to suggest having a defined framework that would provide a basis for assessing competences, but a framework that could be individually owned and used to help demonstrate and reflect development. The latter was considered important in helping make explicit competences to demonstrate employability.

Two suggestions were proposed for how the framework could be represented and used, which later on within the project framework were further elaborated upon. The first (Table 1) is a simple table in which each transversal competence has identified level criteria statements providing a baseline for use and interpretation (see the example of self-assessment).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introductory</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Advanced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does not recognise his/her own strengths and weaknesses</td>
<td>Recognises a few of his/her own strength and weaknesses but cannot find improvement strategies</td>
<td>Is aware of his/her own strengths and weaknesses and can find improvement strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Competence mastery levels. The example of self-assessment

It was also proposed and taken into consideration in the development process the incorporation of all needs that the assessment framework needs to serve, so that the assessment tools show the learning development as a dynamic process (see Fig 1).
The baseline study also highlighted the importance of having case studies available that would help illustrate the application of such a framework.

The pilot testing of the assessment framework took place by means of two business cases, namely the one of the Helsinki City Library and the Sustainable Technologies one.

The business case (challenge) takes as a starting point that the learning process is not only directed by summative assessment. Research even shows that summative assessment provides limited steering of the learning process. Especially formative assessment influences students’ learning behaviour to a large extent. Formative assessment is assessment oriented on developing competences without attaching a mark and credits although it is important to have a “score” realised. Formative assessment can be set up in various ways, for example, peer feedback, diagnostic testing, interim feedback given by experts, use of learning tasks, etc.

Both pilots conducted managed to activate and capture teamwork and communication competences as well as to attract students with an interest in improving their skills. The international collaboration proved to be especially valuable for students with a low exposition to international environment during ordinary university-level courses, whereby also the working cross disciplinary enabled the participants to appreciate even more other profession’s perspective and requirements.

Interesting to note were some challenges such as: the pilot potentially not able to capture risk assessment competences; the technically “simple” business challenges potentially not leading to a focus on problem solving and creativity; technically “complex” business challenges potentially negatively exacerbating differences in students’ disciplinary backgrounds; the short timeframe of exposure to the assigned activities being not “realistic” and possibly causing negative impact quality of outputs.

The participants also pointed to the finding that the international virtual interaction did not work automatically, but rather needed to be planned in great detail, allowing students and lecturers to get introduced and guided through a clear pattern of solution to the business challenge.
Assessment methods and tools

As a result of the baseline study and the pilots conducted there have been first developed and then fine-tuned an assessment framework together with respective assessment tools.

The proposed assessment tools and instructions are based on the growth mind-set concept (Dweck, 2012), emphasizing on the development and improvement processes one can achieve with transversal competences as well as their dynamic nature.

The assessment framework breaks down the Entrepreneurial and Social competences into five macro-areas of competence:
   1) Critical and analytical thinking or problem-solving attitude, including risk assessment
   2) Creativity and innovation
   3) Positive attitude and initiative
   4) Team-work and collaboration
   5) Communication

In turn each of these macro-areas were broken down into specific sub-competences as shown below:
   1) Critical and analytical thinking or problem-solving attitude, including risk assessment
      • Problem solving attitude
      • Recognizing opportunities
      • Risk management
   2) Creativity and innovation
      • Creativity and lateral thinking
      • Adaptability
      • Innovation
   3) Positive attitude and initiative
      • Self–assessment
      • Growth mindset
      • Emotional intelligence
      • Perseverance
      • Coping strategy
   4) Team-work and collaboration
      • Group work and team management
      • Conflict resolution
   5) Communication
      • General communication
      • Interaction
      • Presentation
      • Negotiation

This identification of sub-competences in each macro-area allowed the SOCCES project to identify specific instruments that could be used to assess each sub-competence.

Using these instruments, each sub-competence can be assessed according to the three students’ mastery levels of introductory, intermediate and advanced. These introductory, intermediate and advanced definitions and the tools that can be used to assess the sub-competence can be accessed on the right.

The assessment framework together with the assessment tools can be found at the following web address: https://www.socces.eu/framework
Further research and discussion

Significant focus has been placed in the educational policy debate on how to improve the adaptation of the European education and training systems to the needs of our economy and modern society. Success in the 21st century requires knowing how to learn. Students today will likely have several careers in their lifetime. They must develop strong critical thinking and interpersonal communication skills in order to be successful in an increasingly fluid, interconnected, and complex world.

The importance of responding to the new social, economic and technological realities and stimulation of open and flexible learning are called for in European and national policy statements. In this context also the assessment of the skills has gained increasing attention and not only in the educational and/or training field but also in recruitment practices and human resource development policies.

In the framework of the conducted business survey in the SOCCES project overall, 70.2% of all companies responding to the survey indicated that they used some form of assessment, with at least one population in their organization. Although similar studies of this nature are not directly comparable (because they were focused solely on high potential identification and not formal assessments), this finding provides a more realistic counter balance to the perhaps somewhat unrealistic highs of 90 –100% reported in smaller studies cited above. It also supports the observation made earlier that assessments may have become more popular recently, at least in large organizations with well-established talent management and leadership development functions. In short, over two-thirds of these top companies do have formal standardized assessments efforts in place today.

The challenge with the developed assessment framework model and tools is to build real validity into an engaging experience, which both samples the desired behaviours and gives a realistic job preview. The advantages indicated in the pilots conducted with students and teachers as well as the results of the diverse surveys are the decreased time, increased objectivity and that people (students, future employees, peers, etc.) complete the same tools in similar environments, hence the assessment by means of the tools is carried out more consistently. The above benefits could also be valid for assessment in business environment, hence some of the educational practices might be considered interesting for further pilot experiments.

References


Dattner, B. 2013, *How to use psychometric testing in hiring*. Harvard Business review


OECD. 2009, Creating Effective Teaching and learning environments first results from TALIS. Paris:


[www.socces.eu](http://www.socces.eu)
International PhD students as hosts and guests in VFR tourism

My Tran, Kevin Moore
Lincoln University
New Zealand
my.tran@lincolnuni.ac.nz

Abstract

Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) tourism, is growing rapidly in both scale and significance across economic, social and cultural dimensions. This study examined the host-guest relationship of international PhD students in New Zealand who engaged in VFR tourism during their study. More specifically, it investigated students’ experience being both VFR guests and VFR hosts. A mixed method approach was used comprising an online structured survey and focus groups. Research participants included international PhD students enrolled at universities in New Zealand. The study found that the concept of VFR hosts/guests perceived by the students could be explained through what each role involves. It also highlighted several factors that influenced students’ hosting/guesting behaviour such as the relationship between the host and the guests, the timing of visit, length of stay, personal characteristics and situation, and familiarity with the destination. In addition, some dissimilarity between hosting friends and hosting relatives was found regarding the likelihood of the hosting tasks involved, the perceived intensity of hosting problems, and the level of demands or perceived obligations. Future research could examine the students’ hosting/guesting behaviour in more depth and how it changes throughout the course of their study.

Introduction and theoretical background

The host-guest relationship is one of the core components in tourism experiences. In the traditional tourism context, guests are seen as engaging in consumption practices (visitors) and hosts as engaging in productive practices (locals) (Sherlock, 2001; Volvo, 2011). In the post-modern world where global movements have become common, the conventional understanding of host and guests is not as useful as it once may have been. Worldwide migration has influenced the dynamics of travel and migration patterns and, consequently, the host-guest relationship in tourism has also become more sophisticated. It potentially leads to an increasingly blurred distinction between the hosts and the guests (Sherlock, 2001). The possible transition between the two roles also adds to the difficulty in separating hosts from guests in some circumstances.

A particular type of tourism that is driven by personal connection and induced by migration is VFR tourism. It is defined as a form of tourism whereby the purpose of trip and/or the type of accommodation involves visiting friends/relatives (Backer, 2007); or a way of being co-present with significant faces (Larsen, Urry & Axhausen, 2007), or a form of mobility influenced by hosts (Munoz, Griffin & Humbracht, 2016). While classification of VFR guests is often developed based on their main purposes of visit and choice of accommodation (Backer, 2012), VFR hosts are distinguished by their hosting behaviour (Shani & Uriely, 2012). The host-guest relationship in a conventional tourism context can be resentful and hostile due to economic, social and cultural differences (Oppermann, 1993). It is argued that such conflicts are also reinforced by the fact that no underpinning pre-affiliation exists between the hosts and the guests. In VFR tourism, these problems are less likely to happen because most VFR participants are familiar with the socio-cultural and other settings that prevail in the communities they visit and, unlike other tourists, they do not visit primarily for recreation but rather fulfil some socio-cultural obligations (Asiedu, 2008). Therefore, the understanding of the host-guest relationship in the conventional tourism context is not necessarily applicable in VFR tourism.
The host-guest relationship in VFR tourism is a nuanced phenomenon which can be expressed in various ways. First, VFR hosts and VFR guests can influence each other in terms of travel decision-making and total trip experience satisfaction (Bischoff & Koenig-Lewis, 2007; Young et al., 2007). Second, there is a mutual transition between the host and guest roles in VFR tourism (Duval, 2003). Third, the host-guest interaction in VFR tourism is more likely to occur compared with other types of tourism, because the guests are more likely to have some socio-cultural similarities and stay in the same place with the hosts.

There is a need to reconceptualise the concept of hosts, guests and the host-guest relationships in tourism in a global and mobile context. This paper focuses on examining the role of hosts and guests in VFR tourism. Specifically, it investigates the concept of VFR hosts and VFR guests through the lenses of international PhD students in New Zealand. Their experiences of being in these roles during their course of study and the identified influencing factors are also discussed. In addition, the paper outlines a number of differences between the VF and VR categories in terms of hosting and guesting. It then concludes with recommendations for future research.

Methodology

This article reports the results found on the host-guest relationship in VFR tourism of international PhD students in New Zealand. A mixed method approach was employed including an online structured survey and focus groups. The study was conducted with international PhD students enrolled New Zealand universities. The results presented in this article were drawn from 307 questionnaires collected via an online survey and six focus group discussions. Each focus group discussion lasted approximately 60 minutes. Research participants covered a range of nationalities, age, length of stay in New Zealand, areas of study, and stages in their PhD studies. Results and findings reported in this paper are part of a larger PhD study examining the relationship between international PhD students and VFR tourism.

Findings and discussion

The study found that from the students’ perspective, being a VFR guest involves a number of key elements including: travelling, visiting friends/relatives, staying with friends/relatives, and having certain expectations from the host. More clarification, however, is required to draw a boundary that distinguishes VFR guests from other types of guests. Most international PhD students in this study had reported having positive experiences as VFR guests, and those who have previous tourist experience in New Zealand are likely to be more satisfied with their experience as VFR guests. A number of factors that can influence international PhD students’ experience of being VFR guests were also identified. They include the relationship with the host, timing, and the external environments at the destination. If the guests are close to the host, their guesting experience might be more positive. The timing covers both the time when the visit takes place and the length of the visit. It is influenced by the time availability of both the students and their host, and how close they are to each other. The situation at the destination is associated with the feeling of safety and security of the students when visiting their friends/relatives, which consequently affect their overall guesting experience.

The concept of VFR hosts was explained through the number of hosting tasks involved when hosting friends/relatives. The online survey found high rating (above mid-range) in terms of likelihood for all pre-listed tasks such as providing accommodation, being the tour guide, providing local information and participating in tourist activities with the guests. Besides the pre-listed hosting tasks, other tasks suggested by the online survey respondents comprised opportunities to experience local cultural amenities, networking, social entertainment and providing good hospitality. One noted characteristic of other suggested tasks is that they emphasise the
importance of enabling and promoting social interaction in the hosting role. Cultural norms and expectations contribute to defining what is included in the concept of hosting, i.e. what tasks are involved in hosting friends and relatives. Further, several factors that can influence the hosting behaviour of the students were found including the students' relationship with the guests, characteristics (personality and age) of the guests, the students' personal circumstances and living arrangements, length of stay and number of guests, and familiarity with the destination (of both the students and the guests).

Table 1: Tasks involved in hosting friends and relatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tasks</th>
<th>Hosting friends</th>
<th>Hosting relatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing accommodation</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>65.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a tour guide</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>64.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing local information</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>70.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in activities with guests</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>60.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scale ranges from 0 (very unlikely) to 100 (very likely)

In addition, some dissimilarity between hosting friends and hosting relatives was found. The students’ ratings on the pre-listed hosting tasks and encountered problems were higher in the case of relatives than friends (Refer to Table 1 and Table 2). This result is associated with the perceived intensity of hosting and the level of demands, which appeared to be higher with relatives than friends. The types of activities the students undertook with, or recommended to, the guests are also different between hosting friends and hosting relatives. For example, one of the focus group participants stated that if it were her family and relatives, she would want to show them the country and her office in the university; whereas if it were her friends, they might go out for dinner.

Table 2: Problems with hosting friends and relatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Hosting friends</th>
<th>Hosting relatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of personal space</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>53.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased expenses</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>48.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>56.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disruption to daily routine</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>53.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scale ranges from 0 (very unlikely) to 100 (very likely)

The results found in this study have shown that international PhD students play the dual roles of VFR guests and hosts. Although in most cases they are either the hosts or the guests, there are instances when they hold both roles at the same time. These instances usually happen when they are visited by their friends/relatives and then they all travel together to places with which the students are not familiar. In conventional terms (and by definition), international PhD students are
already considered guests in the studying country as opposed to hosts who are local residents. Their role changes as they travel to visit friends and relatives or receive visits from them. When they travel to places with their visitors (friends/relatives) in the studying country with which they are not familiar they can be considered the host to their guests, but also the guest to the local community they are visiting.

The level of host-guest interaction in the VFR tourism of international PhD students is high. From both the online survey and the focus groups, the majority of participants stated that they engage in activities with their guests and accompanying them. In addition, language proficiency plays an important factor in the level of interaction between hosts and guests. It appeared that if the friends/relatives cannot speak the local language, the hosts (the students) are more likely to having to accompany them and consequently, the level of host-guest interaction would be higher in this case. There is also some interdependence between hosts and guests in the VFR tourism of international PhD students. It is usually associated with time availability of hosts and guests, and their activity preferences. Overall, the hosting and guesting experiences of international PhD students in VFR tourism is rather complex with potential interrelation and connection between the two roles.

Conclusion

In summary, findings of this paper add to the current understanding of the host-guest relationship in VFR tourism perceived by the international PhD students. It also contributes to the think tank of the disaggregation between the VF and VR categories by outlining the difference between hosting friends and hosting relatives. Further research can study in more depth the host-guest interaction and the transition between these two roles in VFR tourism across different groups of participants, or different types of VFR (domestic versus international). The impact of hosting and guesting experiences on other aspects of participants’ life such as socio-cultural wellbeing, and how it changes over time are some other fruitful research topics.

References


Evaluating academic events: one step deeper

Thomas Tøst Hansen, David Budtz Pederson, Carmel Foley
Aalborg University and Wonderful Copenhagen
Denmark
tth@woco.dk

The meeting industry, government bodies and scholars within tourism studies have made calls to understand the broader outcomes of business events (Du Cros et al. 2017; Foley et al. 2013; Getz & Page 2016; IRIS Group 2017; König 2017). To succeed in this endeavour, this paper deems it necessary to develop fine-grained analytical frameworks that are sensitive to the particularities of the analysed event, sector and stakeholder group. The paper focuses on academic events and the academic outcomes realised by participating in them.

Literature review

Substantial research has been done on evaluating the broader outcomes of academic events (Foley et al. 2013; Hansen & Pedersen 2018; Neves et al. 2012). There are numerous studies that focus on particular outcomes of academic events, including on how presentations of abstracts increase chances of being published in top-tier journals (Eckmann et al. 2012; Fender et al. 2005), on academic networking (Storme et al. 2016) or on academic events as platforms for interaction with patient groups (Dimond 2014). In short, the literature displays a solid qualitative understanding of the range of outcomes. However, the outcomes are not analysed within an analytical framework. Hence, there is no common understanding of how outcomes relate to each other, nor to what extent the outcomes depend on specific features of the academic event. In our view, the problem is caused by a lack of theoretical development on two dimensions. Firstly, there is no satisfactory understanding of the differences between academic events. Secondly, there is no analytical framework within which to analyse the outcomes. The paper addresses the former shortcoming through the development of an empirically-grounded typology of academic events. The latter shortcoming is addressed by applying Latour and Wolgar's concept of the credibility cycles (Latour & Woolgar 1986).

We define academic events as those that fulfil the following criteria. Firstly, following the guidelines provided by the International Congress and Convention Association (ICCA), an event needs to attract a minimum of 50 participants from a minimum of three different countries to be included. Secondly, the event must primarily attract the participation of active researchers, who participate with the purpose of exchanging research-based insights. Finally, it must be planned and limited in a physical and temporal space. Within event studies, the concept of academic events has not been studied as an individual category. Rather, it has been studied as a part of business events or the more industry-used term MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions). Within the meetings industry and events research, it is common practice to differentiate between three sectors; associations, corporate and government, and within this categorization academic events would be considered part of the association sector (Mair 2014). However, no further categorization of the events studied is normally applied. As argued by Mair (2014, p. 8) "there is a plethora of designations for what is essentially the same thing. Conference, convention, congress, symposium, forum, seminar, consortium, summit and workshop – all can be said to be in essence a gathering of like-minded individuals for some common purpose. The difference is generally one of size and scale." In the current paper, we argue that from an outcome point of view, there are important difference between event types.
Empirically-grounded typology

The paper offers an empirically-grounded typology of academic events based on data from interviews with researchers at three Danish universities. The paper identifies four differentiating dimensions of academic events: size, academic focus, participants and tradition. In reporting on the dimensions, we have conceptualized them as continuous variables with four degrees of variation. This is not done to indicate that there are four objective stages for each dimension, but rather to underline that the dimensions are not binary, but represent ranges with several possibilities of variation. Based on these dimensions, four types of events; congress, specialty conference, symposium and practitioners’ meeting are identified.

Cycle of credibility

It is generally well-recognized that the central currency in academia is recognition rather than financial rewards (Hessels et al. 2009; Whitley 2000). Working from a similar understanding, Latour & Woolgar (1986) have developed the concept of the credibility cycles. Here the behaviour of academic researchers is described as continuous cycles of exchanges of various forms of credibility. The concept of credibility denotes forms of value held by the researcher, such as data, equipment or grants (Hessel et al. 2009). As a kind of investor, the researcher engages in conversions of credibility, where the currently held form of credibility is converted to another form, which allows the researcher to engage in further conversions. Latour & Wolgar (1986) describe the access to credibility and engagement in conversions as a prerequisite for working as an academic. The classical example of such a conversion cycle is an academic, who converts recognition into grants, the grants are converted into equipment, which is converted into data, the data is converted into arguments that are converted into articles, which again is converted into recognition. The model provides a helpful framework for analysing academic events, as these can be conceptualized as a marketplace that encourage certain conversions of credibility.

Discussion & conclusion

Our study demonstrates that across the different event types; congresses, specialty conferences, symposia and practitioners’ meetings, the most important conversions revolve around the following forms of credibility: recognition, academic networks, grant and scholarly output. Also, across the event types, the conversions follow a pattern: recognition is converted into networking, which is converted into grants and/or scholarly output. Across event types, conversions that lead to network depend upon the investment of recognition. The recognition can take different forms, from the case of the symposium where mere invitations to participate in the event carry recognition through to the specialty conference where the recognition come through presentations of research. Our study suggests that network should be considered a key form of credibility, which is invested to secure conversions into several other forms of credibility, including scholarly output and grants.

Despite the commonalities outlined above, our study confirms the potential for differentiating between events from an evaluation perspective. The informants clearly recognized the differences in participating in various types events and spoke purposefully about the differences. While acknowledging that the study is based on relatively few informants, there do not seem to be significant differences related to gender, nationality or institutional affiliation. However, the study identifies important differences related to the seniority of the informants. For the early career academics, the different kinds of events, can be thought of as a series of stepping-stones towards a more advanced academic position. The first step is to participate and be recognised within your field, which happens at specialty conferences. At these events, early career academic can participate without investment or access to other forms of credibility besides a presentation. To
engage in most of the conversions happening at congresses, the early career academic needs some form of credibility, such as the credibility acquired through mentorship from senior academics. Similarly, the participation in symposia depends upon previously received recognition. For senior academics, participation in each of the four types of events opens different possibilities and the choice between them is based on strategic considerations of what sort of credibility the researcher has and how she would like to see this converted.

An emerging trend in business event evaluation is to take the “beyond tourism benefits” or “social legacy” approach. The outcomes are often evaluated through questionnaire surveys, where participants are asked to assess outcomes within specific, finite categories, such as networks and learning (Foley et al. 2014). A key finding in our study is that outcomes are not finite products, but rather dynamic processes that depend on an investment on behalf of the participant. This finding emerged through the use of our analytical framework that makes us attentive to the processes leading to more formal outcomes. We believe that the proposed analytical framework can support future evaluations of academic events and make them sensitive to the processes and investments made by individual academics. Related research topics, such as studies of Field-Configuring Events (Garud 2008; Lampel & Meyer 2008) and studies of temporary clusters (Henn & Bathelt 2014; Maskell et al. 2004) have benefitted from developing specific, analytical frameworks. In these two cases, the analytical frameworks have provided solid explanations of how events can be instrumental in the configuration of new fields and how private companies benefit from participating in events, respectively. We believe there is potential for event studies in developing and deploying analytical frameworks specific to the analysed sector. By focusing exclusively on the academic sector and addressing the academic outcomes, the evaluation framework will be more engaging for the academic sector, including universities, government bodies and scientific associations. The involvement of such actors in the evaluations of their own events, is key to promoting the broader outcomes of the meeting industry.

References


Funding

This work was supported by the Innovation Fund Denmark and the Copenhagen Convention Bureau [to TTH].
The pursuit of resilient development as a means by which to achieve the long-term sustainability of tourism destinations has gained traction in tourism discourses in recent years (See for example Butler, 2017; Innerhofer, Fontanari, & Pechlaner, 2018). From a theoretical standpoint, resilience is viewed, not as a synonym for sustainability but as an essential pre-cursor to viable long-term development (Espiner, Orchiston, & Higham, 2017). Within these discourses, authors have highlighted the need for an evolutionary approach to applying the concept of resilience to real-world situations, in which the core objective “…is thus not to achieve any state of stable equilibrium but rather to master processes of feedback, incorporate structural learning and assure adaptive change so as to attain constantly emerging states of improved functionality” (Uğur, 2018, p. 90). Despite this conceptual progress, in reality, tourism destinations across the world continue to struggle to respond to dynamic change being driven by global developments, shifts in demand and changing values, particularly of younger generations. Additionally, in many parts of the world, tourism destinations likewise struggle to extend the positive impacts of tourism development to broader sections of society, most particularly marginalised, poorer populations. This research suggests that the reason for this struggle lies in a lack of pragmatic tools that enable tourism stakeholders to work together in responding flexibly to dynamic change and unforeseeable, yet inevitable, stressors. The prime objective of this on-going research is therefore to address this lack of implementable approaches and develop pragmatic methodologies for integrated tourism development that enable access for larger groups of local residents to the benefits of tourism development, not only economically but spatially and institutionally as well.

Achieving this is nothing short of a complex task, which demands new considerations of how tourism development may facilitate the resilience of destinations. Complementarily to resilience, inclusivity has been argued as “an essential ingredient for the long-term sustainability of tourism destinations particularly in the environment of the global South” (G. Butler & Rogerson, 2016, p. 277). Much debate surrounds the definition of inclusive tourism and the means by which inclusive tourism may be achieved yet the relationship between inclusive tourism and resilience has yet to be clarified. For the purposes of this work, inclusive tourism is determined to include two core characteristics. Firstly, inclusive forms of tourism should aim to share the benefits of tourism development across as broad a spectrum of the local population as possible and, secondly, should seek to involve less powerful and marginalised stakeholder groups in the development and supply of tourism, addressing social disparities (Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2015 as cited by Butler & Rogerson, 2016). In this respect, the facilitation of inclusive tourism demands development trajectories that a) address these disparities across all spheres of development (economic, spatial and institutional) involved in tourism development in an integrated manner and b) promote diversity across these spheres so as to enable improved resident access to tourism markets and their broader economic benefits. Essentially, inclusive tourism is positioned as a vehicle through which to promote more resilient destinations.

Considering this relationship and in order to explore the practicalities of how inclusive tourism for resilient destinations may be achieved, this research advocates a necessary shift in mind-set of destination development from one that promotes a traditional goal-orientated approach to one that is focused on and driven by process. Placing the focus on process, as opposed to outcomes, is argued as a means by which to not only facilitate a more proactive approach to working with...
change but also aims to facilitate more inclusive tourism development through the improved facilitation of existing and potential inequalities between tourism industry demands and local needs. This shift essentially promotes a focus on systemic adaptation and posits the potential for extended benefits when inevitable change is proactively, as opposed to reactively, engaged. In order for this to be empirically achieved however, more flexible, integrated planning systems are required that enable economic, spatial and institutional access to tourism markets (Uğur, 2016). Considering that integrated planning is meant to maximise the positive benefits of tourism for residents, access to the tourism economy needs to be made available for the greatest proportion of the population. Through the enablement of integrated access to the tourism economy, residents have a greater variation of tools at their disposal through which to increase their adaptive capacities. After all, the measure of an individual’s resilience is determined by the extent in which they are able to maintain and defend their livelihoods through the allocation of material and social resource assets when needing to respond to change (Speranza et al, 2014). Building on Uğur’s (2016) original model of access for integrated tourism development, the model presented here (Fig. 1), positions diversity as a foundational means by which to achieve more inclusive access to tourism markets. Diversity is therefore the cornerstone for each sphere of development, as it is argued that focusing on the diversification of economic, spatial and institutional access creates many more gateways through which residents may choose to participate in tourism economies. Diversity in a participatory system allows people to engage with tourism in a way that extends past the inherent economic benefits, fulfilling intrinsic development needs as well. As diversified forms of access creates choice, residents are empowered to decide if and how they will engage in the tourism economy.

To illustrate the practical applicability of developing multi-level, integrated strategies for inclusive tourism development, a case study on the City of Cape Town is currently being undertaken. This application of the proposed model to a practical example aims to further refine the aspects of integrated diversity for inclusive and thus more resilient tourism development. Cape Town has been chosen as a starting point for the empirical application of this model in order to enable a context-specific elaboration of resident-based indicators and implementation tools for each sphere that will promote the realisation of more inclusive tourism beyond rhetoric. Cape Town is representative of the development challenges that many destinations, particularly in the global South, face in that, despite a highly successful tourism industry, inequality and exclusivity still characterise tourism development to a significant extent. Accordingly, much latent potential exists for maximising the distribution of social and economic benefits through local tourism development, it simply needs to be proactively leveraged.
The foundation of the model is what is referred to as *institutional access*. As previously highlighted by Uğur (2016, p. 63), exclusion in development practice ultimately occurs “where access is denied on the basis of a failure to represent the needs of residents in the development process and where rather than promoting access, development trajectories place restrictions on residents in favour of tourist needs.” Therefore, before one can begin to explore the options of economic and spatial diversification for more inclusive tourism development, the realisation of well-structured, policy-supported institutions positioned and capable of promoting integrated development planning must be achieved. Unfortunately, the status quo of local government institutions regularly involves discussions on the challenges of insufficient capacities, coupled with siloed decision-making processes, budgeting and operations, something that has already been criticised in the governance context of Cape Town with respect to achieving more integrated urban development (Uğur, 2014). Fundamentally, institutional access demands resident-focused participatory place-making and the enactment of proactive approaches to partnership development in order to identify and make use of public and private sector synergies, as well as to enable residents to engage economically and socially at various levels within the tourism industry. In order to achieve this, the inclusiveness of existing institutions responsible for driving local development must be strengthened. Pragmatically, creating inclusive and more accessible institutions would involve (at the very least) transforming power relations, ensuring involvement of marginalised people, addressing the political, social and economic drivers of exclusive institutions, integrating policy and the promotion of strategic coherence (United Nations, 2016). Only on the basis of inclusive institution building will access to the variety of institutional resources required to promote diversified economic and spatial access be achievable. For example, preliminary insights allude to the specific need to define and support the provision of educational resources through more accessible institutions. Such education resources would not only be essential for improving the quality of local employment and tourism services supply (Conole, 2012) but also in enabling a more entrepreneurial environment that would stimulate the development of SMMEs and contribute to local supply and value chain integration – an essential element in ensuring diversified *economic access* to local tourism markets. The main aim of enabling more diverse economic access lies in ensuring that opportunities for economic benefit from tourism are extended beyond the provision of direct industry-based job opportunities. In
Cape Town as well as in the broader South African context, the building of supply chain linkages to incorporate local suppliers into tourism value chains has been touted as one of the most promising interventions for inclusive development (Scheyvens, 2011) and although the adoption of extended value chain approaches is not well explored some evidence does exist from which positive results are demonstrated and implementation examples for the empowerment of disadvantaged communities can be drawn (Anderson, 2018; G. Butler & Rogerson, 2016). After all, those destinations that enable more diversified economies are best situated to gain most from tourism (Ashworth & Page, 2011).

Completing the three-pronged approach to integrated, diversified and thus more inclusive tourism development, spatial access refers to the integration of mobility and infrastructure provision strategies that allow for the more diversified movement of both tourists and locals throughout the city. On one hand this focuses on the distribution of tourism visits throughout larger areas of the city, not just on day-trips but also for overnights stays. On the other hand, improved infrastructure provision in the city coupled with improved mobility options also enables better access for local residents, which inherently works against the development of tourist enclaves, creating different routes and patterns of consumption for a more diverse set of tourist target groups. In turn, this fosters more opportunities for tourists to connect with local residents and the realities of urban life for local populations, contributing to the authenticity of the destination experience. Looking at the context at hand, Cape Town still faces significant challenges of structural segregation due to Apartheid spatial planning legacies and non-integrated processes of tourism development and urban planning do little to support spatial access. Even at the most basic level, local residents' ability to benefit economically from tourism development through taking advantage of employment opportunities is constrained by poor mobility, where the economic and social costs of travelling vast distances to work take their toll and where current development trajectories are characterised by an unequal distribution of resources for infrastructure provision, largely concentrated in key tourist areas, such as the Cape Town CBD and coastal areas.

Within the confines of this brief elaboration of the research approach and its conceptual basis, much remains to be done in terms of working empirically with local stakeholders to unpack the various levels of institutional, economic and spatial access as they are understood in the context of Cape Town. The foreseen outcome of this case analysis is the development of carefully considered indicator sets for each level of access that prioritise local residents’ perspectives in seeking to contribute to aligning tourism development in a more inclusive manner, thereby leveraging the vast untapped potential that tourism development holds for addressing social and economic inequalities.

References


Theming of a destination is, according to Sternberg, a format of significant positioning of an attraction related to its “picturesqueness, freakishness, technological wondrousness, and sensuous romance” (1997:952). Sometimes theming is linked with staging, reflected by the definition of themed landscapes as “particular kinds of stages upon which tourists and tourist workers perform” (Edensor in: Edensor and Kothari, 2004: 196). From there, themed landscapes are also associated with “spectacularisation” (Ockman, 2004) and even “disneyfication” (Godin, 2011; Matusitz & Palermo, 2014). One of the frequently used examples is Las Vegas, or at least the different hotels in Las Vegas, where a particular theme is carefully integrated in the architecture (Cass, 2004). But going back to the essence, we can refer to the fact that many places (e.g. a city or a neighbourhood in the city) developed a set of material witnesses of a certain historical event or period. If these buildings or monuments not only have an informational value but also touch on esthetics and evoke images and narratives of the (rich) past they embody, then they hold the potential to contribute to revitalization and economic re-development programs as well as to tourism, or both (Shaw & MacLeod, 2000; Lasansky, 2004). In reverse, tourism can stimulate the re-discovery of a forgotten urban theme and story, bringing the material witnesses into the spotlight again, at least if this is part of a broader tourism strategy (Savage et al., 2004).

Architecture and more specifically, a particular architectural style (e.g. the colonial style in Havana; Lasansky, 2004) or an iconic architect (e.g. Gaudi in Barcelona; Sobrer, 2002), not only constitutes a natural and authentic themed landscape but has the potential of a resource for cultural or heritage tourism. This resource can be spontaneously discovered and explored by visitors walking around or the discovery can be mediated by guiding or by thematic urban trails (Dove, 1997; Prentice, 2001; Markwell et al., 2004). From these, it seems rather easy to turn architecture, as a themed landscape, into a heritage tourism product but the Brussels case illustrates that reality is endowed with many complexities. First, most visitors do not recognize a themed landscape, even if destination marketing tries to highlight the theme and second, many buildings show limited ability to withstand high levels of visitation and therefore low robusticity (du Cros & McKercher, 2001; Jansen-Verbeke, 2009). Finally, the composition of a themed landscape can be subjective as well as presenting a (over)nostalgic and/or a (over)simplified image of a place and era (Aitchison et al., 2000; Dove, 1997, Prentice, 2001)

Art Nouveau and Brussels constitute an intertwined reality that underpins Brussels identity with more than 500 public and private buildings in the Art Nouveau style spread over the Brussels Capital Region while the BANAD festival2 (former Biennial on Art Nouveau and Art DÉco) attracts around 30.000 visitors and the Horta Museum (one of the four major town houses of the Architect Victor Horta on the UNESCO world heritage list3 - Figure 1) welcomes ca. 67.000 visitors. Guides and websites call Brussels The Cradle of Art Nouveau4 while many Art Nouveau5 were developed recently.

---

2 https://www.banad.brussels/en/
3 http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1005
5 http://www.arau.org/en/tours
For sure, the Brussels Art Nouveau heritage has a tourism potential. Nevertheless, the hardware consists of many private houses that are not open to the public and/or have a low carrying capacity. One should not forget that Art Nouveau stresses the beauty and functionality from the interior room in the first place and the so-called Belgian style, is not an exception (Howard, 1996; Krastins, 2006). The 500 Art Nouveau buildings are spread across the Brussels Capital region (not to forget the ‘second ring’ around the emunicipality of Brussels with municipalities such as Saint-Gilles/Sint-Gillis) and involves many stakeholder groups on different policy levels such Visit Brussels, ARAU (Action Urbaine) that organizes tours, Réseau Art Nouveau Network, the government of the Brussels Capital region, the local authorities of the 19 communes of the Capital region (e.g. the Planning and Heritage Department of the City of Brussels), the Dutch speaking and the French speaking ‘Communities’ responsible for personal (and therefore cultural) matters etc. Further, many of the Art Nouveau buildings, gems of a small format (e.g. House Saint-Cyr), are in private hands, used for private purposes (B&B, offices etc.) and are not suitable for large visitors’ groups.

During our research two types of mismatch come to the front: 1) the perspective of visitors on the one hand and policy makers and other officials on the other hand, revealed a clear discrepancy in the perception and interpretation of Brussels as an Art Nouveau destination and 2) different layers of officials had different visions on how to commodify the Brussels Art Nouveau for tourism purposes.
The officials are clearly convinced that visitors know Brussels as a centre of Art Nouveau and that it can be considered a themed landscape. They refer to the fact that ‘people’ book for the ‘Biennale Art Nouveau – Art Déco’ as soon as possible or they stress the success Art Nouveau tours. Nevertheless research proofs otherwise for the mainstream tourist who is not per definition an Art Nouveau lover.

![Graph showing perception of visitors to Brussels concerning the characteristic of Art Nouveau](image)

**Figure 3 Perception of visitors to Brussels concerning the characteristic of Art Nouveau**
(Source: survey De Ridder, 2016, N=105)

The graph (Figure 3) illustrates that the mainstream visitors of the City of Brussels barely acknowledge that Art Nouveau is typical, let alone, dominant, for the Brussels urban tissue and therefore less than half recognize Art Nouveau as part of Brussels’ identity. When asked why they didn’t visit (part of) the Art Nouveau patrimony, the most recorded word was ‘unknown’, followed by ‘not interested’ and ‘not foreseen’. They certainly do not recognize an elaborated tourism product (only 22% does) although 82% of the respondents think there is a potential. In addition, they do not consider the Art Nouveau patrimony as being a touristic themed landscape, nor an urban heritage themed landscape for that matter.

Further, representatives from tourism policy and management, from culture and from planning and urban (re)development have different foci and approaches. First, from a promotional point of view, one wants to focus on the popular but fragmented hotshots, while Visit Brussels tries to get less well known buildings involved in view of a global approach that is able to cope with the vulnerability of the patrimony and to foster a spread of tourists. Other stakeholders, mainly with a cultural perspective, prefer a historical narrative since the Brussels Art Nouveau is related to the national romanticism that wanted to underline the importance and power of the young state of Belgium (created in 1830) and its capital Brussels as well as its economic success in the 19th century. They take for granted that the Brussel Art Nouveau heritage features tourism potential from its intrinsic heritage value. They see no problem in upgrading the Art Nouveau heritage towards a themed heritage scape provided that some adjustments are made concerning material aspects such as information.

Policy makers who are not professionally linked with culture and architecture prefer a total image on a level that can be understood by the layman in those matters which in general is the case for a visitor or tourist. Visit Brussels agrees that the complicated contents do not make visitors dream
while commercial agents prefer commercial products that sell off. Therefore, the touristic product ‘Art Nouveau’ lacks a cultural content that makes sense to all visitors. Making the product more “qualitative” seems a piece of cake but in practice however, one encounters several obstacles (e.g. several political layers which are extremely complex in Brussels due to the federalization of Belgium) inherent to uniting different perspectives, attitudes and views within a fragmented scene. There is no network between the institutions who are involved and therefore no coordination, while promotion focusses on the highlights that might strengthen the image of Brussels. This approach is too narrow to boast national or international touristic recognition and reputation and therefore prevents potential visitors to see that Brussels offers an interesting and extended themed Art Nouveau landscape.

Nevertheless, our research revealed also an awareness among the different stakeholders from policy, tourism and culture and a firm demand for a common vision and more coordination. This reminds us about the effect clustering and routes can have on collaboration and vision development. Themed landscape construction and promotion can be added to this concepts and Brussels seems an interesting living lab to monitor future developments which might be of interest to other cities with a fragmented but characteristic architectural scene.

Therefore, a themed heritage scape can allow the different Art Nouveau sites to function as a framework that goes beyond the confusing puzzle of individual buildings, actors, aims, visions and actions and can offer a broad narrative, beyond the individual objects, turning the themed landscape in an experience scape but also into an interactive learning scape. The awareness of the need for a broader integrative tourism policy and collaboration between agents from tourism and the culture or heritage practice reveals to be ‘incontournable’. If successful, than this process might even have the power to change or bridge between other dimensions in the urban landscape as has been suggested in the model by Stoffelen and Vanneste (2015), highlighting the role of constitutive power.

(Source: Stoffelen & Vanneste, 2015:555)
Referenties


De Ridder, K. (2016) Art Nouveau in Brussel als toeristisch gethematiseerd landschap (Art Nouveau in Brussels as a touristic themed landscape), Dissertation KU Leuven under the supervision of D. Vanneste


Introduction

Online-based short-term letting platforms such as Airbnb have been demonstrating a constant growth over the recent decade. Tourists, as the main consumers of these services, bring additional income to the communities and individual homeowners. The number of properties rented out on peer-to-peer base had become so considerable in some cities (e.g. Berlin and Barcelona) that the authorities have imposed restrictions aimed at stabilizing local rental markets and communities of permanent residents. However, there is still no clear evidence as to how various types of restrictions impact peer-to-peer accommodation services. Moreover, while peer-to-peer accommodation platforms continue growing uninterrupted all over the world, virtually nothing is known about when and why this growth will flatten out. That said, the purpose of this paper is to explain the current development of peer-to-peer platforms and to predict future development based on agent-based computer simulation.

Theory

In the rental market, as well as any other markets, we may model the mechanisms in the market by supply and demand. This holds both for the rental market for long term and short term rent. Our main focus in this paper is the supply side of the rental market and the two segments (short and long term), and how changes in supply in one of the segments may influence the other segment. We consider situations when a household decides to move from letting out an apartment in their possession in the long term rental market to letting it out in the short term rental market. From the demand side, short term renting is seen as an alternative to hotel stays, while the supply side of private short term renting works as an alternative to letting out units for longer terms (see Lee (2016)).

The stock-flow model, where the stock of rental housing is fixed in the short run but may evolve over time in response to changes in the expected rate of return to investments in rental properties (Gabriel and Nothaft, 2001) may work as a starting point for our analysis of the rental market. Hence, this suggests that changes in expected returns may change the stock of rental housing in the long run, influencing both the total stock of rental housing and the share of rental housing allocated to short term and long term renting. As in other markets, excess demand or supply will cause changes in the market price for rental units, which in turn may influence households' decision of whether or not to rent out their vacant apartment.

Since the expected rate of return will depend on the price, which again is determined by excess demand or supply, this will also affect vacancy rates and the duration of vacancies (Gabriel and Nothaft, 2001). Since expected returns in the segment for short term and long term rent may differ, possessing a vacant apartment in one segment may affect the households decision to shift to another segment. Additionally, the expected rate of return may in itself determine to what segment a household with a rental unit will choose to be in the long term or short run segment from period to period and thereby affect the rental stock in the two segments even in the short run. Hence, operating with two segments instead of one may cause more volatility in the stock of rental units within each segment. Barron et al (2017) models the choice of a landlord choosing to
supply his housing unit in the short-term rental market as determined by whether the rental rate of short term housing (given exogenously) less additional costs of renting in the short term market is larger than the rental rate of the long-term housing rental segment.

Method

The model simulates a city with most of the dwellings concentrated around the city centre. Three types of properties are simulated: 1) properties permanently populated by their owners (green), 2) properties rented out on long-term basis (yellow) and 3) properties rented out short-term via Airbnb (Airbnb listings, red). All Airbnb verts rent out the whole house/apartment. Demand for Airbnb comes solely from tourist. Demand is higher close to the city centre than in the periphery. Rental prices are fixed at the same level for all locations. The simulation starts with 1,4 % of all properties rented out on long-term basis and no active Airbnb listings. The process starts with few randomly distributed owners getting to know about Airbnb. As time goes, more people get information about Airbnb. Some of the owners (randomly) choose to try Airbnb. Decisions on renting properties out on long-term or short-term basis are taken periodically. The owners compare income from long-term rent with average income from Airbnb for the last 20 simulation steps. Income from Airbnb is calculated as number for nights rented out multiplied with Airbnb price. Each step in the simulation is equal to approximately 2 – 3 weeks of real time. The owners of the long-term rented properties are more likely to shift to Airbnb than the owners of the properties where they live. The owners of Airbnb listings opt with higher probability for long-term renting than for selling their property.

To verify the model an extreme value test for each parameter in the model was performed showing that the system reacts in expected way. Then the oversimplified model was tested allowing to follow single agents in the simulation process and to control that they behave as expected (Pizzitutti, 2014). Calibration of the model exogenous parameters was performed in order to improve empirical adequacy. The actual data on spatial distribution of Airbnb locations in Oslo between 2014 and 2017 were used for measuring the adequacy. The model parameters were gradually adjusted in a way roughly replicating Airbnb development in the Norwegian capital. The main calibration parameters included the city size, centralization, time period used by agents to evaluate their experience with Airbnb and probability that a single agent get aware about Airbnb. As the result, the curve describing actual growth of Airbnb in Oslo matched to the model output.

ABM simulations

The initial model simulates the increase in number of Airbnb listings with no restrictions imposed. The results of this simulation suggest that current growth is not simply flattening out when the supply of peer-to-peer accommodations matches the demand, but a series of sudden crises followed by periods of quick upwards adjustments follow the initial growth (see the figure below).
The next figure illustrates the number of Airbnb listings when 10 % taxation on Airbnb income is imposed. In this case the growth is flattening out.

![Number of Airbnb listings](image)

Finally, the simulation of temporal restrictions suggests that limiting of max. number of nights a property can be rented out via Airbnb (in the figure below the limit is max. 10 nights per month) suggests that a deep crisis followed by periods of slow recovery will appear.

![Number of Airbnb listings](image)

**Conclusion**

The results of the simulations suggest that current growth will not simply flatten out when the supply of peer-to-peer accommodations matches the demand, but a series of sudden crises followed by periods of quick upwards adjustments will stress the local rental markets. The inherent instability of the market potentially threatens both the local tourism industry, rental market and real estate market. While moderate taxation may have a stabilizing effect on the supply of peer-to-peer accommodations, time-based restrictions have a potential to make crises even more disruptive. The paper may have implications for policy-makers and other stakeholders. On the one hand regulating the peer-to-peer accommodation market may be necessary for avoiding unnecessary fluctuations. On the other hand, careful selection of regulative mechanisms is essential. Future research may address the limitations of this paper. On the theoretical side the psychological perspectives on decision making may add to better prediction of agent behaviour on the rental market. On the methodological side the model may require validation in different contexts. Seasonal variations on the rental and tourism markets may also be addressed.

**References**


Concerns in Nairobi National Park; an Actor-Network theory perspective

Beatrice Waleghwa
Linnaeus University
Sweden
bw222dk@student.lnu.se

The proposed research will be conducted in Nairobi National Park (NNP). The park was established by British settlers in the year 1946. NNP sits on a total of 28,963 acres of land. Even though it is relatively smaller by African or even Kenyan standards, it is a unique eco-system by being part of a metropolis. The park is dominated by savanna grassland and is only 7km from the Central Business District (CBD) of Nairobi. NNP is not only important for its uniqueness but also the economic benefits it brings to Kenya. Tourism contributes about 15% of the total Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The tourism sector also provides employment to about 5% of the Kenyan populace. Most of this income is from safari tourism which is famous in NNP.

The research will describe the associations and connections that exist between the different ‘actants’ in Nairobi National Park (NNP). The bypass road that goes through the park is the ‘matter of concern’ from which the research will depart. NNP is a unique eco-system as already indicated mainly due to the fact that it is situated in a metropolis. Arguably, only one of its kind worldwide. However, lately there has been great attention directed towards the park. This attention has been mainly due to massive urbanisation and infrastructural development in and around the park. The research will use Actor-Network Theory (ANT) to describe the situation in NNP. In order to achieve this, a strategy of ‘following the actor’ will be used. In this case, the research will involve following of the bypass road as a ‘destination actor’ in NNP. Primarily to see how the bypass road works and what effect and/or roles it has in creating a ‘network’ beyond its spatial realm. Subsequently, while applying ANT, the relations between the different ‘actants’ in NNP will be examined. Through this, the ‘power’, ability to act and different ‘actant representations’ within NNP will be established. The research has no apriori assumptions in regard to the structure and/or systems in the park. Neither will it seek to explain what is going on but instead describe the ‘associations’ and ‘ordering’ in the park. Connections and associations will be traced in the NNP network with the bypass road as the focal point. This research is underway and part of the findings will be presented in the upcoming conference. Data for the research will be collected from previous literature, newspapers, reports and semi-structured interviews will be conducted too. Snowball sampling will be used to identify participants in the research. A total of about 25 interviews will be conducted with representatives from the Kenya Wildlife Service, Conservation Alliance of Kenya, local community, the ministry of tourism and other interest groups e.g. Friends of Nairobi National Park. Participatory observation will also be used. Subsequently, notes and photos will also be used to collect data. All the data will be analysed and presented in themes when identified. Both human and non-human actants will be analysed the same way. In essence every actant in NNP ‘network’ will be accorded agency both in description and analysis. The research will be conducted in partial fulfilment for the attainment of a master degree in Linnaeus University, Sweden. As aforementioned, the research will apply ANT and in essence the research will not intent to explain the situation in NNP but instead describe it. The research will seek to describe the associations and connections that exists within the NNP network. It is hoped that the results from the research will inspire further research and influence practical and management decisions.
Social Tourism and the Sustainable Way to Local Development

Prosper Wanner, Valeria Pica
Les oiseaux de passage
France
pwanner@lesoiseauxdepassage.coop; valpica@gmail.com

Social tourism is a way to travel involving local communities and get a special mutual experience. ISTO definition of social tourism stresses the “connections and phenomena related to the participation of people in the countries of destinations as well as of holidaymakers, of disadvantages layers of society or those unable to participate tourism, holidays and their advantages for whatever reason”. Moreover, professor Louis Jolin (University of Quebec) has highlighted groups of population that could primarily take advantage of these kinds of initiatives: youth, families, retirees, individuals with modest incomes, and individuals with restricted physical capacity. In any case, social tourism is primarily an attitude to enjoy tourism while attending to the quality of relations between visitors and host communities.

The most of hostels and places devoted to social tourism in Europe were created in the aftermath of WWII and today the approach and the use are substantially different. Actually, the sector is living a crisis at three levels: political, demand, and supply ones. Social tourism often does not address any longer to lower classes, while medium-high classes take advantage of the offers. It is also suffering the impact of collaborative economy and societies like Airbnb or Wimdu. Moreover, one of the key points of this kind of tourism experience was used to be the integration with locals that is unfortunately becoming of secondary aspect; as a result of that, another element to be taken into account is the relationship between social tourism and the cultural rights. Cultural rights are human rights that aim at assuring the enjoyment of culture and its components in conditions of equality, human dignity and non-discrimination. It indirectly affects social tourism that is threaten at many levels and has to find a role in the society. Since the middle of the 1990s, the access to holidays decreased and the social mix seems to be more and more for the high classes. In France, the rate of departure for holidays of the 10 % of the poorest passed from 47 % to 37 % from 2007 to 2012, while it progressed from 78 % to 82 % for the richest according to a study of Credoc. The access to holidays remains discriminatory as explains the sociologist Anne-Catherine Wagner. The journeys, registered in a vaster educational set (international high schools, international training, programs of exchanges, etc.) contribute to form the elites [Wagner, on 2007].

Facing with this growing need to justify its role for society, social tourism embarked on a repositioning in 1996 with the adoption by the International Bureau of Social Tourism (IBST, now ISTO) of the Montreal Declaration “For a humanist and social vision of tourism claiming a tourism that reconciles tourism development, environmental protection and respect for its identity and for the local population”.

This document updates the concept of social tourism and, while maintaining the ambitious project of "tourism for all", proposes new values in particular on the requirement of tourist quality management and on the respect of sites and local population. Social tourism thus becomes both a factor of integration - geographical, environmental, social and cultural - and a factor of development, defined as an individual and collective development (Jolin, 2004). This "humanist and social vision of tourism" will be reaffirmed in 2006 by members of the ISTO in general assembly in Aubagne with particular attention paid to the establishment of forms of cooperation and partnership with "local associations for development purpose, non-profit
organizations, non-governmental organizations, social and solidarity economy enterprises engaged in fair trade and micro-credit operations”.

This is reflected in particular by the emergence of new names: solidarity tourism, fair tourism, sustainable tourism, cultural tourism, discovery tourism, participatory tourism, citizen tourism, alternative tourism, ethno-tourism, ecotourism, and so on.

On the tourist side, if in fact in the early 2000s there were still a "responsible" travellers (in 2003 the sector of "responsible tourism" accounted for only 1% of the foreign travel market, source UNAT, 2005). In 2008, the number of French people claiming to have already made a responsible trip varied between the 7% and the 20% according to surveys and definitions. This interest has been followed by the boom of collaborative tourism around the world with collaborative platforms.

This "collaborative tourism", presented as "responsible" and although little studied, is already the subject of many criticisms and negative reactions from cities like Barcelona, Amsterdam or Berlin.

It is another consequence of collaborative economy and the impact societies like Airbnb or Wimdu have had in big cities. Moreover, one of the key points of this kind of tourism experience was the integration with locals and this aspect also affects the contest of the cultural rights. Cultural rights are human rights that aim at assuring the enjoyment of culture and its components in conditions of equality, human dignity and non-discrimination. It indirectly affects social tourism that is threaten at many levels and has to find a role in the society.

At European level, the European Committee of the Regions has submitted to the European Commission and submits to each Member State a report dated 5th December 2015 on “The local and regional dimension of the sharing economy”. This report encourages the European Commission and the Member States to "put in place incentives for the collaborative economy to support and apply the principles of the social economy, in particular with regard to the principles of solidarity, democracy and participation, as well as cooperation with the local community”.

What is the role of social tourism in this context? The crisis can be also a challenge and open new opportunities in this sector; it can represent a change and a way to re-think social tourism. Starting from the Faro Convention and the UNESCO Convention on should consider participative actions, collaborative approach, and equal economic growth as suggestions and principles to follow. Attention of local policies on cultural rights, including migrants’ ones, can be the key to play a significant role in local development and give a new scope to social tourism.

As a consequence of the economic logic of the "unicorns" of the collaborative economy and their proven effectiveness, the cooperative process Les oiseaux de passage brings together since 2014 actors of social tourism, culture, crafts and solidarity who have embarked on a process of research and development of their own web platform of hospitality from human to human. It proposes to move from a C2C logic - consumer to consumer - to a human-to-human approach via a reception by a local community of human rights actors existing well before the web platform and owners of it. “Hospitality” is the paradigm on which Les oiseaux de passage relies to think and develop this international platform. The choice of this paradigm reflects the importance given to human rights in the offers that will be offered to travelers. It is a question of going beyond mere "reception", "tolerance" or a "rule of conduct". Hospitality is understood as a relationship to the other and to the world, an ethos, which takes on a particular meaning in the context of globalization, where the confrontation with the other is increasing and accelerating: tourists, workers, refugees, etc. This dynamic is at the global level in the platform cooperatives movement, an "alliance" with the "sharing economy" supported by universities and trade unions since the end of 2015, which claims the appropriation of these platforms by users themselves in cooperative form.
The case studies of Les oiseaux de passage in France and the Community coop in Italy will present some possible new roles and goals of social tourism today. The crisis can be also a challenge and open new opportunities in this sector, representing a change and a way to re-think it. Starting from the Faro Convention and the UNESCO Convention, one should consider participative actions, collaborative approach, and equal economic growth as suggestions and principles to follow. Paying attention to local policies on cultural rights, including migrants’ ones, can be the key to play a significant role in local development and give a new scope to social tourism.

In Marseille, a group of people founded Les oiseaux de passage, namely a digital travel platform meant as an invitation to travel to meet people, their places of life and their stories. According to this concept, people meet and share via a common web platform their hosting offers, activities, their creations and good plans. Together, locals and professionals, they offer stories, tours, destinations and stays.

Travellers may choose to be welcomed on a farm, in a youth hostel, in a bed and breakfast or in a family hotel, to share their local stories, their know-how or their places of life, to explore their creations to read, to listen to, to watch or to taste, to follow their good plans to find a cultural café, a nice restaurant or a place to hang out, to lose you in their stories and landscapes or simply to let you surprise and, in fine, to have the right to travel.

The Community Cooperative in Fontecchio (Italy) aims wants to enhance cultural and tourist revitalization through a form of social housing and openness to social tourism. The territory where the village is located was hit by the earthquake of 2009 and still has difficulty reviving its image on the national and international scene. The project that began in March 2018 is projecting the small village into a dimension of productivity, receptiveness and creativity that had not lived so far. As a result of this process, social tourism could become the new driving force for sustainable local development applying cooperative principles and acting in respect of human rights.