Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics

Vicky Katsoni *Editor*

Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World

9th International Conference, IACuDiT, Syros, Greece, 2022—Vol. 2

Springer

Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics

Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics brings the most current research presented at conferences and workshops to a global readership. The series features volumes (in electronic and print formats) of selected contributions from conferences in all areas of economics, business, management, and finance. In addition to an overall evaluation by the publisher of the topical interest, scientific quality, and timeliness of each volume, each contribution is refereed to standards comparable to those of leading journals, resulting in authoritative contributions to the respective fields. Springer's production and distribution infrastructure ensures rapid publication and wide circulation of the latest developments in the most compelling and promising areas of research today.

The editorial development of volumes may be managed using Springer Nature's innovative EquinOCS, a proven online conference proceedings submission, management and review system. This system is designed to ensure an efficient timeline for your publication, making Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics the premier series to publish your workshop or conference volume.

This book series is indexed in SCOPUS.

Vicky Katsoni
Editor

Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World

9th International Conference, IACuDiT, Syros, Greece, 2022—Vol. 2

Springer

Editor
Vicky Katsoni
University of West Attica
Athens, Greece

ISSN 2198-7246 ISSN 2198-7254 (electronic)
Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics
ISBN 978-3-031-29425-9 ISBN 978-3-031-29426-6 (eBook)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Switzerland AG
The registered company address is: Gewerbestrasse 11, 6330 Cham, Switzerland

Editorial

"Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World"

Tourism continues to be one of the sectors that most acutely and pervasively was affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, curtailing the growth and development of the tourism ecosystem, with serious spill-over effects on the economic outlook worldwide. Before the pandemic, the travel and tourism sector accounted for 10.6% of all jobs (334 million) and 10.4% of global GDP (USD 9.2 trillion); in 2019, the global travel and tourism industry directly contributed 2.9 trillion USD to the global GDP. Employment in the hospitality industry has never been as high as in the last few years. However, as a result of the COVID-19 crisis and the significant reduction in the mobility of tourists, in 2020, this sector generated USD 4.7 trillion, thus reducing its share in GDP to 5.5% and the number of jobs in tourism decreased by 18.5% or 62 million (WTTC, 2021).

The adverse impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic have dramatically changed the hospitality industry, shaking political systems and responses, damaging or breaking supply chains. At the same time, awareness and understanding of sustainability have been raised by the crisis, creating momentum to rebuild a more resilient, sustainable and smart tourism ecosystem. Crisis-related events have always created new opportunities and encouraged people to look for new development paths, to undertake entrepreneurial activities and to introduce innovation (Kraus et al., 2020). Thus, the crisis needs to be used as an opportunity for the tourism industry to follow green and digital transition pathways, in order to adapt to a post-pandemic "new normal". Solutions will differ from country to country, and the pace and scope of recovery will of course depend on global developments.

Promoting tourism all year round, shifting to niche markets thereby fighting seasonality and over-tourism, would have a major impact on economic development and job growth (Kaushal & Strivastava, 2020). It would make tourism a more economically sustainable business and investment, with clear repercussions on its resilience.

In parallel, as Micro and SMEs make up for more than 90% of tourism enterprises globally, an updated support strategy targeting their specific challenges can contribute to unleash extended benefits both for the tourism ecosystem by focusing to resiliency, sustainability, technology and interconnectedness among diverse stakeholders in the sector.

Development trends and the adoption of smart destinations and tourist services, along with artificial intelligence, robotics and other digital achievements and innovative solutions, (such as mobility monitoring applications, non-contact provision of services, digital health passports and identity checks, social distance technologies, crowd control), make it likely that the tourism industry will experience long-term structural changes (Shin and Kang, 2020; Sigala, 2020).

IACuDIT's mission is to contribute to the paradigm changes needed, which closely links to this year's conference's theme "Tourism, Travel and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World". The aim of the conference to promote constructive, critical and interdisciplinary conversations on the above-mentioned challenges emerging in tourism by bringing together researchers, communities, industry and government stakeholders, is hereby fully achieved.

An array of 34 interdisciplinary conference topics was included in the call for papers. Papers submitted through virtual and poster presentations were considered for publication. All papers for the conference were double-blind peer reviewed in two phases. All the abstracts submitted for the conference were firstly peer reviewed by two experts in the field for relevance to the conference theme and contribution to the academic debate. A total of 171 abstracts were reviewed, and 124 were found acceptable. All accepted papers were then given the opportunity to submit to full conference proceeding papers utilizing the comments from the first phase of double-blind peer review for the improvement and submission of a full conference paper. Eighty-eight full conference proceedings were submitted for inclusion in the Springer proceedings in Business and Economics. These full paper submissions were again double-blind peer reviewed by two experts in the field as well as the editor. During the second review process, each submission was reviewed for: (a) relevance to the conference theme, (b) quality of the paper in terms of theoretical relevance and significance of the topic and (c) contribution to the academic debate. The contributions were thematically selected for each group and are arranged in order of presentation in the proceedings. The subthemes to be covered by the conference were further classified into six distinctive parts, which are:

Part One: Tourism and Sustainability
Part Two: Tourism Technology and Innovation
Part Three: Tourism Destinations, Hospitality and diversification
Part Four: Tourism Economics, Management and Education
Part Five: Cultural Heritage Tourism
Part Six: Tourism Consumer Behavior

Part One—Tourism Sustainability

The first part of the book consists of 16 chapters and aims at presenting the sustainable practices and guidelines applicable in tourism. More specifically:

Chapter "Sustainability Assessment of Master Commercial European Ports Through Environmental Prisma", elaborated by Vassiliki Balla and Koskeridi A., compares Master ports of Europe based on their environmental responsibility and performance. Healthy environment, safety issues, wind and solar energy, waste management, are some of the many axes that current assessment is based on.

Chapter "Perspectives of Sustainable Tourism Development in the Region—A Case Study", by Lubica Sebova, Klara Chovanova, Izabela Lazurova and Adrian Svec, focuses on tourism development in the High Tatras—Foothills, one of the most visited regions in Slovakia. The aim of the paper is to propose further options for the sustainable development of tourism in the region on the basis of the analysis and evaluation of the current state of tourism in the region.

Chapter "Environmental Sustainability Application in Athenian Hotels", by Ioanna Samartzi, tries to identify the environmental sustainability practices of 50 urban hotels in Athens, capital of Greece. After the data collection, the results estimated a lack of environmental practices in the majority of the hotels, such as insufficient waste management, recycling, water conservation and lack of environmental training among the employees.

Chapter "Sustainability Tools for Beach Management: Awareness of Integrated Coastal Zone Management and Current Compliance with Blue Flag Criteria at Eastern Beach in East London, South Africa", by Ntuthuzelo Headman Sayedwa and Dorothy Ruth Queiros, aims to investigate sustainability tools for beach management. Through proper management tools, the beach could be uplifted as a coastal tourist attraction, be accredited with Blue Flag status and managed sustainably for the enjoyment of present and future generations.

Chapter "The Prospects of Renewables for Electricity Production in Greece", by Grigorios Kyriakopoulos, Garyfallos Arabatzis and Miltiadis Chalikias, focuses on the utilization of renewable energy sources (RES) in terms of large-scale technical infrastructure and their emerging technologies. Their research unveiled constructive outcomes and multifaceted challenges that emerge in energy utilization in the tourism sector, while considering the ongoing diffusion of RES in the energy mix of Greece.

Chapter "Fostering Sustainability in Tourism Destinations Through Residents Assessment", by Pedro Liberato, Dália Liberato and Ricardo Cerqueira, investigates the characteristics of residents in two cities in the North of Portugal, as well as their perception about the tourism impacts at economic, sociocultural and environmental level. By analyzing residents' perceptions about the tourism impacts in the region, their results identify which factors need to be improved to influence residents' opinions over-tourism and leverage their intention to support the sector's development, in advance of strategies addressed to DMOs.

Chapter "Digital Innovation and Sustainability Practices in Tourism: An Overview", by Artemis Giourgali, seeks to develop a theoretically oriented reflection on sustainability digital innovations within the context of tourism and the potentials of this relationship. To this end, a literature review analysis was chosen for the collection, selection and critical evaluation of the literature on this topic. The author asserts that there is an ongoing process of evolutionary sustainability practices in tourism, indicating a theoretical approach rather than specific actions. The significant progress on the acceptance of the basic principles of sustainability from businesses and individuals still lacks the application of the appropriate instruments in the tourism industry so as to maximize the efficiency and successful development of sustainable digital innovations.

Chapter "Transformative Tourism as a Mean of Region's Sustainable Development", by Ekaterina Buzulukova, shows the possibilities of transformative tourism as a tool to overcome the crises in the tourism industry for sustainable regions' development. Based on transformative tourists experience in Russia, South Africa and Turkey, content analysis of feedbacks, qualitative and quantitative research, the authors transformative tourism.

Chapter "Sustainability Practices in Events Organization in Lisbon. Empirical Study of the Rock in Rio Music Festival", by Dália Liberato, Elga Costa, Cláudia Moreira, Pedro Liberato and Joaquim Ribeiro, aims to study music events and to identify main sustainable practices. The main results suggest that the Rock in Rio event impacts Lisbon, positively and negatively, as a destination, with the most evident positive impacts related to the city destination's promotion, supply development and the image and reputation creation. Even though the sustainability approach is already in everyday life, sustainable practices are not as evident in events as in destinations, particularly in the hotel sector. However, they are already defined as a valued element for choosing destinations and events.

Chapter "Sustainable Tourism and Degrowth: Searching for a Path to Societal Well-being", by Zuzana Gajdošíková, examines the truly essence of sustainable tourism, its real application into praxis and its ability to ensure a more sustainable tourism sector. According to the literature review focused on sustainable development, tourism degrowth and local inhabitants in tourism destinations, the article analyzes the crossing needs and opinions of local inhabitants and visitors in a mature destination—the High Tatras in Slovakia with the intention to find out how tourism development should change in order to create a better living space for local inhabitants and be aware of the principles of sustainable development.

Chapter "The Sustainable Strategic Innovation Adopted by the Archaeological Museum of Taranto "MArTA" Which Drives the Repositioning of Taranto as a Cultural Tourist Destination", by Nicolaia Iaffaldano, aims to shed light on the path of sustainable strategic innovation undertaken by museum organizations. The document provides policy indications to public decision-makers operating in the cultural sector and in the local administration in order to design and develop a management model that responds to a systemic perspective.

Chapter "Experience Tourism as a Smart and Sustainable Form of Tourism in the 21st Century" by Lubica Sebova, Radka Marcekova, Ivana Simockova and Kristina Pompurova, examines the supply and demand of experiential tourism products in a selected region with respect to smart and sustainable tourism development. Promoted visitor experience can be an important tool for destination marketing communication in the twenty-first century. If the destinations want to be competitive in a dynamically developing tourism market, the must adapt to this situation and offer the visitors an unforgettable authentic experience in smart and sustainable way. The goal is to create an offer that allows the visitors to actively engage in tourism activities and thus to intensify their emotions.

Chapter “The Needs of the Hospitality Industry in its Transition to the Circular Economy”, by Marival Segarra-Oña, Angel Peiró-Signes, Blanca De-Miguel- Molina and María De-Miguel-Molina, analyzes the needs of companies in the tourism industry regarding its transition to a circular economy. Three main conclusions are drawn from the authors’ analysis. First, size, management and financial resources are the main barriers to the circular economy. Second, companies do not receive real support from the public administration, and they feel penalized in relation to those that waste. Third, there is a lack of a circular economy culture, which indicates the need for training at every level, so that the transition can be shared by all.

Chapter “Internal Sustainability Reporting in the Hotel Industry”, by Lahorka Halmi and Katarina Poldrugovac, tests the de facto level of internal sustainability reporting harmonization of the hotel companies on the subject of (1) measuring and disclosing environmental and social key performance indicators (KPIs), and (2) the assessment of the importance of environmental and social KPIs. Data were collected via online questionnaire and explored by qualitative methods, where measurement and disclosure of KPIs was measured with C index and KPIs importance assessment was measured with non-parametric Kendall W test of concordance. Research results indicate quite low level of internal sustainability reporting harmonization on the two chosen topics. The novelty of the research is in applying qualitative methods in accounting research and in discovering the path to connect internal sustainability reporting processes to the external sustainability disclosures.

Chapter “Food Tourism Sustainability in Portugal: A Systematic Literature Review”, by Teresa Mendes, Pedro Liberato, Dália Liberato, Teresa Dieguez and Hugo Barreira, delivers a systematic literature review on food tourism sustainability concerning tourism destination Portugal, based on a specific articles’ selection protocol. The selected articles, analyzed through a visual bibliometric networks’ software, produced three main clusters, which presented a research trend, stressing critical aspects concerning the role of regional governance in food tourism and the still scarce academic production to this matter.

Chapter “Scientific Narratives on Creative Tourism: A Theoretical Framework”, by Cristina Rodrigues, Dália Liberato, Elsa Esteves and Pedro Liberato, provides a current scientific framework on creative tourism, from a conceptual point of view, presenting the most relevant issues, with focus on sustainability. To this end, a large body of scientific literature was analyzed through a combination of two techniques, namely: content analysis and systematic literature review. These techniques were applied as a research methodology to identify keyword trends understanding its meaning and analyze the main links between creative tourism and tourism sustainability, respectively. Main results provide a critical analysis of its characteristics as well as the correlations between creative tourism and the sustainable development of tourism activity, highlighting the sustainable matrix of this new model of tourism.

Part Two—Tourism Technology and Innovation

The second part of the book consists of 11 chapters and aims at exploring the role of technology and innovative practices in the tourism industry. More specifically,

Chapter "Exploring the Role of Technology in Adventure Tourism", by Tatiana Chalkidou and George Skourtis, discusses how the adventure tourism industry is implementing and managing technology, addressing the changes that technology has brought and identifying the opportunities that can be exploited. In order to better understand the role of technology in adventure tourism management, we suggest the adoption of service-dominant logic and its ecosystem perspective (Vargo and Lusch, 2008). More specifically, we propose a transition of adventure tourism management from the perspective of S-D logic, reconsidering the conclusions that have been drawn from traditional perspectives (G-D logic). Importantly, a service-ecosystems view broadens the scope of adventure tourism management and enables researchers and practitioners to zoom out beyond dyadic exchange encounters and to view technology as a necessary resource for value co-creation.

Chapter "Dynamic Areas of Interest Inside an Urban Destination Using Visitors' Geolocation", by Ioannis A. Nikas, Athanasios Koutras and Alkiviadis Panagopoulos, assumes that travelers' choices have an impact on their footprint and propose an approximate spatio-temporal representation model to describe their decisions. This model is based on the implicit trace left by them, as it is captured in photo-sharing platforms and social networks. The study of these mappings can be used to reveal to policy and decision-makers a dynamic picture of the areas of interest inside destinations, as well as any other areas that can be further developed in the immediate future. Their proposed model is applied and tested in the city of Athens, an urban destination, using data from the photo-sharing platform Flickr.

Chapter "Towards a Framework for Participative Innovation in Tourism", by Susanne Marx and Lorena Arens, develops a framework for describing participation in innovation activities in tourism to help address this challenge. The research process follows the method framework for Design Science Research with a design- and development-centered entry point. The research advances the understanding of design opportunities for participative innovation activities in tourism from the DMO perspective.

Chapter "A Conceptual Framework for applying Social Signal Processing to Neuro-Tourism", by Constantinos Halkiopoulos, Evgenia Gkintoni, Garefalea Kakoleres, Giorgos Telonis and Basilis Boutsinas, claims that neuro-tourism in combination with social signal processing techniques more efficiently explores the tourists' behaviors/preferences when they are browsing webpages or even when they are traveling. The authors propose a conceptual framework for applying social signal processing to neuro-tourism. The proposed conceptual framework takes into consideration various application areas within tourism field and constitutes a roadmap of analyzing/exploiting social signals produced during social interactions or human computer interactions.

In Chapter "Applying Big Data Technologies in Tourism Industry: A Conceptual Analysis" by Constantinos Halkiopoulos, Dimitris Papadopoulos and Leonidas Theodorakopoulos, the adoption of big data technologies in the field of tourism is examined through a review of the existing literature, with the main goal of gaining a deeper knowledge and understanding of the requirements of tourists in our country and improving the way of decision making. The paper also mentions the advantages and benefits of using big data technologies and popular methods used for sorting and contracting Big Data.

Chapter "Integration of Blockchain Technology in Tourism Industry: Opportunities and Challenges", by Constantinos Halkiopoulos, Hera Antonopoulou and Nikos Kostopoulos, supports the view that as a nascent technology, blockchain has the potential to revolutionize the tourism sector since it provides a secure platform connecting the tourism business and its customers (employees and tourists). Through this endeavor, a comprehensive literature assessment on blockchain technology in smart tourism was conducted. In addition, the Internet of things (IoT) and large-scale analytics can be utilized to enhance the tourist experience. From the perspective of smart tourism, blockchain can serve as a platform that reliably and efficiently connects travelers with tourism products.

Chapter "Application of Importance—Performance Analysis in Determining Critical Smart Hotel Technology Amenities: An Examination of Customer Intentions", Maria Tsourela, Dimitris Paschaloudis and Georgiadis Mauroudis, explores the smart hotel technology amenities identified in the literature, in an international tourist hotel. The study collected customers responses and applied an importance-performance analysis (IPA), using the self-explained matrix, to indicated which the order they should be addressed. Based on the research results, the authors discuss some useful implications and contributes to raising awareness of the importance of technological amenities and services for the future visiting intentions of hotel consumers.

Chapter "Implementation of Digital Marketing Techniques in Smart Tourism", Constantinos Halkiopoulos, Hera Antonopoulou and Konstantinos Giotopoulos, highlights the importance of digital marketing techniques in the field of tourism. Through their research, specific digital marketing techniques such as websites, promotional videos and informative blogs appear to be reliable tools for the promotion of the tourist product and related services as well as for the preference of new tourist applications/platforms in terms of savings of time. Therefore, the results, among others, highlight the importance of modern digital marketing techniques for their systematic application in the tourism industry.

Chapter "The Trade Fair Industry in Transition: Digital, Physical and Hybrid Trade Fairs. The Case of Thessaloniki" by Dimitris Kourkouridis, Eleana Kostopoulou and Spyros Avdimiotis, investigates the transition of exhibition activity from physical to digital and hybrid exhibitions, with particular emphasis on how the COVID-19 pandemic will affect the future of trade fairs. The results show that exhibitors recognize the benefits of digital trade fairs and digital tools that can be used but do not want to replace physical trade fairs.

Chapter “Role of Instagram Influencers on Destination Image: A Netnographic Study”, by Hulisi Binbasioglu, Yasemin Keskin Yilmaz and Mehmet Baris Yilmaz, reveals how the posts of popular travel influencers who produce special content for Cappadocia determine the image and perception of Instagram users about the region. For this purpose, user comments (emotions, thoughts, expectations, etc.) on the posts of influencers about Cappadocia on Instagram were examined by the netnography method. Considering the findings obtained from the social media user’ comments, the posts of the travel influencers about Cappadocia activated the emotions of the users and contributed positively to the perception of the region.

Chapter “Gamification and Storytelling Enhancing Successful Wine and Food Tourism Products”, by Dália Liberato, Pedro Liberato and Marta Nunes, focuses on the proposed tourism offer gamification and storytelling in the Douro region. The main results highlight the development of the region’s tourism resources, which are crucial in a process of international promotion, increasing tourism demand by proposing a game as a driver of tourism and gambling associated with storytelling, and a key element in involving the player, telling the story and spreading the word about the destination. Studies and projects dealing with gamification and storytelling in tourism are unknown, particularly in low-density inland destinations, being crucial to propose projects on this topic, suitable to similar destination typologies.

Part Three—Tourism Destinations, Hospitality and Diversification

The third part of the book consists of 19 chapters and aims at presenting issues regarding tourism destination policies, accommodation and various forms of special kinds of tourism, such as medical and wellness tourism, film tourism, agritourism, accessible tourism, sports tourism, coastal and maritime tourism.

Chapter “A Review of Destination Personality Literature: Focus on Articles Published in the Last Decade (2013–2022)”, by Athina Nella, provides a review of the most recent literature in the field of destination personality (DP) or destination brand personality (DBP). DP has been linked with destination image, self-congruence and behavioral intentions, with a positive relationship being supported in most cases. Due to increased research interest in the field, an updated literature review of destination personality literature was considered as valuable.

Chapter “Agritourism: A Lever for the Development of the Greek Countryside. The Case of Nymphaeum of Florina/Greece”, by Konstantina Boulouta and Georgios Karagiannis, attempts to map agritourism and outline its process that has been taken up today in Greece. Their research sets questions regarding agritourism development issues and their relationship with the area under investigation, which is Nymfaio in Florina, Greece.

Chapter "Consumers' Perceptions Regarding Film Tourism at the Level of the Tourist Destination Transylvania", by Diana Foris, Florina-Nicoleta Dragomir and Tiberiu Foris, attempts to identify the opinions of young consumers regarding the travel and the tourism generated by the film at the level of the tourist destination Transylvania. In this respect, a quantitative marketing research was conducted. The results of the study highlighted the positive attitude of young consumers toward film tourism and the potential benefits of this form of tourism regarding the development of tourist destinations. The results of the study are released for the managers of tourist destinations in order to develop attractive and successful destinations.

Chapter "Projecting an Image: TV Series Amor Amor and Lua de Mel and the Impacts of Film-Induced Tourism in Penafiel", by Ana Ferreira, Maria Carlos Lopes and Elisa Alen, highlights the importance of the films and television series, as they are an excellent tool for promoting tourism for the territories where they are filmed. The appearance of a particular area in a film or television series can have a huge effect on the number of visitors of an already existing place and create a new kind of tourism to the area and generate a boost for the local economy.

In Chapter "Where You Can Engage in Battles with the Romans: The Role of Reenactment in Shaping a Destination Image", Simona Malaescu, examines both the direct and indirect role of reenactors in developing a heritage site as a tourism destination. Her study also revealed the reenactors‘ perspective of the importance of the context in which they act. The practical implications of the study reside in helping the local authorities to design new levers of developing a heritage tourism destination and to understand the long-term implications of making from reenactment performances funding a priority.

Chapter "Accessible Tourism Businesses in the Cross-Border Region of Greece—Republic of Northern Macedonia: The Case of Greece", by Dimitris Kourkouridis, Vicky Dalkrani and Asimina Salepaki, evaluates the performance of the existing accessible tourist services and facilities of the tourism businesses in five regional units of Northern Greece. The most encouraging finding of the survey is the fact that those involved in tourism in the study area are willing to be educated and trained about accessibility, and also, they are willing to invest money in their businesses' accessibility. The article concludes with some suggestions for improving the accessibility of tourism businesses in the study area, based on the barriers that emerged from the research.

Chapter "Predicting Cruise Ships Impact on Island Destinations", by Ángel Peiró-Signes, Oscar Trull Domínguez and César Gómez-Palacios, uses the human pressure indicator (HPI) that makes it possible to know the instantaneous situation of the population in highly touristic places, and especially on islands, including both tourists and residents. In their article, they implement a new HPI model that includes the influence of cruise ships arriving at the Hawaiian Islands, where they evaluate the real pressure exerted on them, so that they can appreciate the influence of cruise ships on them.

In Chapter "What Motivates Qualified Scuba Divers to Visit the Maltese Islands?", Simon Caruana and Francesca Zammit examine the factors that motivate divers to come and dive in the Maltese waters and connect their research with sustainability issues. Their research suggests that water quality (in terms of pollution and consequently fish life) is a determining factor. Interestingly, divers place much more importance toward sustainability today hence becoming a significant motivating factor in selecting the region to visit.

Chapter "The Authentic Marathon Swim: Understanding Swimmers' Experiences and Behavior in a Small-Scale Sport Tourism Event", by Stella Leivadi and Eugenia Tzoumaka, reveals that a successful event contributes not only to the image of the location, but it also has a significant economic impact. In addition, their results also confirm previous research, which claims that positive word of mouth and the behavioral intentions of active tourists are affected positively by the destination image.

Chapter "Systematic Revision of the Literature on Satisfaction in Marinas and Nautical Ports", by Fernando Toro Sánchez, Pedro Palos Sánchez and Nélson Manuel da Silva de Matos, presents a systematic literature review (SLR) with a selection of 60 studies and references from 2005 to August 2022 using the bases of World of Science and Scopus. The authors aim at finding homogeneous directions of study that facilitates analysis based on the use of advanced statistical methodologies, in order to understand the nautical tourism sector.

In Chapter "Implication of Ukraine War on EU Migration Flows: Perspectives and Challenges", Mirela Ionela Aceleanu and Ioana Manuela Mîndrican investigate the outbreak of war in Ukraine and its effect on various areas of the economic, social and political life of European states, including tourism. The main objective of this paper is to highlight the situation of the migrant crisis and the implications that this phenomenon has on the destination states.

Chapter "Perception of Security by Tourism Service Providers: The Case of Acapulco, Mexico", by Karla Rosalba Anzaldúa Soulé, Mirella Saldaña Almazán, Arely Adriana Almazán Adame and Carmen Exchel Cliche Nájera, tries to determine the perception of tourist security in Acapulco based on the opinion of tourist service providers and to implement strategies that allow them to recover their competitiveness.

Chapter "Sports Tourism an Opportunity for Urban Areas: Classifying Sports Tourists According to Their Level of Sports Engagement and Consumer Behavior", by Maria Vrasida, Tatiana Chalkidou and Despina Gavrili, tries to identify and classify sports tourists according to their different level of engagement in the sporting activity. Furthermore, a hypothesis is made and tested that consumer behavior will present differences both in the motivational (deciding on a destination) but also in the experiential phase (visiting and experiencing a destination). A multi-input matrix will allow to determine proximity to the culturally oriented or health-oriented part of the scale and define and identify consumer behavioral patterns accordingly.

Chapter "Quality of Life and Health Tourism. A Conceptual Roadmap of Enhancing Cognition and Well-being", by Evgenia Gkintoni, Giorgos Telonis, Constantinos Halkiopoulos and Basilis Boutsinas, aims to investigate the contribution of wellness tourism to enhancing the quality of life. In addition, cognitive and emotional characteristics of the tourist traveler's personality that can be enhanced through wellness tourism and contribute to the general improvement of life quality are investigated. The article is an overview review of research conducted over the past ten years. The results underlined, among other things, the role of wellness tourism in enhancing the quality of life in its many facets, including physical and mental health, well-being and social environment.

Chapter "Pilot Survey to Investigate Participation in Exercise for all Programs and Sport Events and Their Impact on the Evaluation of the Attica Region", by Christina appl, Georgia Yfantidou and Charilaos Kouthour, is attempt to estimate and understand the relationship between the image of a small-scale sport tourism event, its impact on destination image and the profile of participants. The results of this research could help to provide destination marketers and sport event marketers with insight to how various entities should be best combined according always to the participants' profile.

Chapter "Wellness Tourism in the Post-COVID-19 Era in Blue Zones and Insular Areas", by Vakoula Eleonora and Constantoglou Mary, aims to examine how wellness tourism evolved during the COVID-19 pandemic, how it is located on the island of Ikaria and also what is the perspective of potential and current consumers of tourist services on this island. The research indicated that although the pandemic damaged severely the tourism sector, tourists are willing to travel, showing also a preference in the country.

Chapter "Brand and Competitiveness in Health and Wellness Tourism", by Eleonora Santos, Cátia Crespo, Jacinta Moreira and Rui Alexandre Castanho, intends to draw inferences about the effect of the brand on the competitiveness of the wellness tourism supply, across NUTS II regions of the continent, during the period of ten years, with a special focus on the recent period of the COVID-19 pandemic. The correlation analysis between brand and competitiveness indicators suggests a strong positive and significant relationship between brand and market share, in the Centro and Lisbon regions, starting in 2017 and increasing over time. Finally, some recommendations on tourism management are made to improve the competitiveness of the supply.

Chapter "Investigation into the Contribution of Social Tourism Programs to the Satisfaction of Entrepreneurs in the Hospitality Sector", by Maria Doumi and Georgia Despotaki, investigates the value of the contribution of Greek Social Tourism programs given to the hospitality sector by evaluating the level of satisfaction of entrepreneurs according to the effectiveness of their implementation, and with respect to both their sociodemographic and business' profile. Through this research, the significance of the implementation of social tourism programs in hospitality businesses was highlighted. This research is the springboard for future planning of social tourism programs not only in Greece but also worldwide.

Chapter "Hybrid Events and Congresses and Their Impact on the Greek Meetings Industry", by Athina Papageorgiou and Alexandra Chalkia, investigates how hybrid conferences affected the Greek Meetings Industry during the COVID-19 pandemic.

For this, we conducted both a primary and secondary research; primary data were collected by interviewing the administrative personnel of hotels, PCOs, DMCs and audiovisual companies, and secondary data were obtained by reviewing journals, relevant studies conducted by tourism associations and also UNWTO statistics. Their results confirmed that hybrid events are currently the preferred type of the Hellenic Conferences industry and will play a major role in the years to come.

Part Four—Tourism Economics, Management and Education

The fourth part of the book consists of 21 chapters and aims at presenting economic and management practices in tourism, as well as educational considerations in the tourism digital era. Gender equality issues were all discussed.

Chapter "Economic Indicators and Cost Analysis in the Hotel Industry of Crete", by Efstathios Velissariou and Ioanna Georgedaki, presents the results of a survey in 160 hotels in the region of Crete in Greece, aiming to investigate the use of indicators as a management tool in hotels and the ability to calculate the cost, but also the break-even point of hotel businesses. The survey was conducted in the spring of 2021, and the results were disappointing, since only the half of the hotels in Crete use indicators to measure their performance. Also, one in four hotels in Crete and one in three hotels that operate all year round cannot exactly calculate their costs. Hotels use financial indicators but not entirely effective as they are mainly used for annual comparisons, while the most popular indicators used are those associated with the daily performance of the business.

In Chapter "How Can We Measure the "Success of Change Management?" An Exploratory Factor Analysis in a Sample of Employees in the Greek Hotel Industry", Dimitrios Belias and Nikolaos Trihas have assessed an instrument of research which measures the change success as perceived from hotel employees. The instrument of research derives from the work of Zand and Sorensen (1975). The pilot test took place in a sample of 372 hotel employees from 4- and 5-star hotels in Greece. The result indicated that the employees' perception is the following: the hotel's management is not ready to implement with success a change program.

Chapter "The Efficiency of the Spa Enterprises in Slovakia", by Radka Marčeková and Mária Grausová, examines the efficiency of selected spa enterprises in Slovakia, by data envelopment analysis, and determines the most efficient and the least efficient spa enterprises. The paper uses the radial output output-oriented efficiency DEA model under variable returns to scale assumptions and the Malmquist productivity index. This paper refers to the application of DEA analysis to tourism business praxis.

Chapter "How Can We Measure the "Resistance to Change"? An Exploratory Factor Analysis in a Sample of Employees in the Greek Hotel Industry", by Dimitrios Belias and Nikolaos Trihas, elaborates on an instrument of research on resistance to change among hotel employees; more precisely on four-star and five-star hotels in Greece. The research instrument was developed by Oreg (2003); it is made by four variables (routine seeking, emotional reaction to change, short-term focus and cognitive rigidity). The findings indicate that the questionnaire was reliable, though the cognitive rigidity dimension as marginally accepted by the Cronbach Alpha test. The outcome of the pilot study indicated that the resistance to change can be avoided if the hotel management tries to implement a well-programmed change where the employees will participate on the decisions.

Chapter "Pricing Strategy for Green Hotel Industry", by Flávio Ferreira, Fernanda A. Ferreira and Cristina Rodrigues, studies the effects of corporate social responsibility policies in the hotel industry. To do that, they model a non-cooperative hotel competition using game theory concepts. The model consists in a competition between a CSR hotel and a state-owned (SO) hotel that set room rates. The choice of room rates can be made either simultaneously or sequentially. Their main result is that the CSR hotel profits more than the SO hotel, regardless of the order of movements.

Chapter "Residents' Perception of Yachting Tourism Amid COVID-19: A PLS-SEM Approach Framed by SET, Revised SET and PMT", by Stelios Ioannidis and Maria Doumi, investigates the local community's perception of yachting tourism amid the epidemic threat of COVID-19. The theoretical base of social exchange theory (SET), revised SET and protection motivation theory (PMT) were utilized for the purpose of this study. The conceptual model built within this study includes four exogenous variables (place community attachment, economic gain, environmental impacts and COVID-19 Threat) and their impact on Support Yachting Tourism, with the usage of two moderators (positive and negative impacts). The survey took place at a well-established yachting area in Greece, consisting of Volos, Skiathos, Skopelos and Alonissos. The study confirmed the residents' support to yachting tourism amid COVID-19 and clarified the reasons for this support.

Chapter "A Multidimensional Approach on Economic and Social Security as Prerequisite for Tourism Development", by Andreea Claudia Şerban, Ionuț Jianu and Vicky Katsoni, elaborates on the complexity of the concept of economic security and concludes that it requires separate approaches for its different dimensions, being closely related to social aspects. The authors have identified five relevant dimensions/pillars interacting with economic and social aspects: demographic, globalization and technology, respectively environment and, based on a set of relevant indicators for each of them, they propose a composite index of economic and social security for countries in Euro-Atlantic area.

Chapter "Leadership Styles and Group Dynamics in the Tourism Industry", by Angelos Ntalakos, Dimitrios Belias, Nikolaos Tsigilis, provides the current literature review concerning the relationship between organizational leadership styles and group dynamics in general, as well as in tourism industry, providing a useful methodology through selection of papers and articles retrieved from online bibliographic databases.

Chapter "Modeling the Elements of Organizational Culture that Formulate the Design of the Internal Environment of Tourist Enterprises: A Literature Review", by Christos Kakarougkas, attempts to record, model and synthesize the most important elements of organizational culture that determine the design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises. His findings are characterized by originality and scientific and practical contribution, since, at an international level, a corresponding attempt to record, model and synthesize the elements of organizational culture that determine the design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises has not been identified yet.

Chapter "The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Communication—Effect on Team Efficiency on the Tourism Industry", by Angelos Ntalakos, Dimitrios Belias and Athanasios Koustelios, examines the connection between leadership styles and communication on the tourism industry providing the theoretical and the empirical models that can shed some light on the above relationship. The methodology used is a literature review of papers, studies and articles retrieved from online bibliographic databases.

Chapter "Total Quality Management in Hotel Businesses Depending on Their Category and Size", by Aristides Katsaitis, Fragiskos Bersimis and Paris Tsartas, investigates the degree of implementation of the total quality management of the hotels in terms of the quality category of the services provided (5*–4*) and the size (small–large), in a sample of hotel businesses in the Prefecture of Attica. A survey was carried out using an electronic questionnaire that included appropriate questions addressed to the HR managers of the hotel units. The results show that 5-star and larger hotels show a higher degree of agreement in the attitudes that express the application of the principles of total quality management, compared to 4-star and smaller hotels.

Chapter "Gravity Models in Tourism: The "Crises" Factor", by Ioulia Poulaki, proposes a gravity model production for predicting spatial interactions and travel flows in times of crises that, in addition to its contribution to the literature of the tourism academia with a new (sophisticated) model of Newtonian gravity applied to tourism, it may significantly contribute to tourism professionals (organizations and businesses) as it is expected to predict changes in travel flows, thus supporting decision-making process regarding crisis management and tourism recovery, and producing multiple economic, social and environmental benefits for international popular Mediterranean destinations.

Chapter "Silver Tourism in Greece. Basic Elements of Marketing and Branding", by Rentzi Konstantina and Constantoglou Mary, records the opinions and preferences of senior tourists regarding the choice of a tourist destination in general, and especially in the current COVID-19 period, which factors influence their decision, which media they use when searching for information and then the goal is to investigate their opinion on the recognition of Greece as a silver tourism destination, through the existing marketing and branding. The goal of the work is also to study the ability of Greece to emerge as a health tourism destination, specifically medical tourism for international elderly patients. Research has been contacted through online questionnaires on a random sample of elderly people living abroad during spring 2021.

Chapter "Features of Foreign Working Force for Cypriot Hotel Industry", by Volha Yakavenka, Dimitrios Vlachos, Agis M. Papadopoulos, Tomáš Klieštik, Yianna Orphanidou, Leonidas Efthymiou and Danae Psilla, presents the results of the industry- based research focusing on the Greek and Slovakian hotel labor market, including but not limited to: (i) elements that impede staff mobility to Cyprus; and (ii) employer and job market characteristics that the ongoing human capital seeks to find in another country in order to engage in professional mobility. The aim of the research is to understand the features (skills and needs) of the potential employees from those pools which affect the willingness and easy to work in Cyprus. The results have been achieved by receiving information from the supply side, that is from the potential candidates who are interested in working in Cyprus hotels, coming from Greece and Slovakia (the second as a typical Eastern European country).

Chapter "Developing and Enhancing Emotional Intelligence in the Tourism Sector: The Role of Transformative Learning", by Sofia Kallou, Aikaterini Kikilia, Michail Kalogiannakis and Nick Z. Zacharis, investigates the development and enhancement of emotional intelligence and the role of transformative learning theory on learners' outcomes focusing to the tourism sector. According to the findings, the authors conclude that transformative learning is an effective and valuable teaching and learning adult theory for the tourism education and training, since it has a positive impact on emotional intelligence improvement and on the personal development of tourism employees and executives.

Chapter "Online Collaborative Platforms to the Hospitality and Tourism Industry: The Paradox of Regulating the Sector", by Mary Mutisya, tries to determine the impact of online collaborative economy platforms to hotels; secondly, the study examines the challenges to governments with regard to the collection of levies. The study adopted the cross-sectional survey design. The target population comprised of government agencies concerned with tourism levy, homes listed as Airbnb accommodation listings and hotel manager. The unit of observation were customers and employees from the management level. The study used a stratified random technique to select the respondents. Questionnaires, interview and Focus Group Discussion guides were used to collect the data. The analysis of the data was done descriptively and by content analysis. The study identified factors behind the success of online collaborative platforms and the strategies that can be adopted by hotels to compete with these platforms effectively. The study further identifies levy collection avenues.

Chapter "Olympic Games and Mega Events Legacy Planning as a Tourism Initiation Strategy: Developments and Implications", by Ourania P. Vrondou, examines host city experiences and sport bodies' legacy policies to advice on applicable sport tourism destination enhancement techniques embedded in the basic city's event selection and hosting process. The analysis of available material produced positive indications of legacy programs encompassing tourism initiation tools as part of a holistic regenerating strategy for local communities, evidently impatient to experience the promised positive returns of a mega event that didn't fail to create a sustainable positive image for the locality.

Chapter "*Does It Matter?* The Influence of Leadership, Motivation and Empowerment on the Career Progression of Women in tourism–A South Africa Case", by Nasreen Tisaker and Magdalena Petronella Swart, investigates how leadership, motivation and empowerment affect women's career progression in the South African tourism sector. The study was quantitative and descriptive, allowing researchers to evaluate the impact of leadership, motivation and empowerment on women's career progression in the tourism sector in South Africa. This study is expected to address a gap in the body of knowledge on women in tourism in the South African tourism sector, as well as contribute to the rising global discourse on women's motivation and empowerment in tourism.

Chapter "Exploring Gender Differences in Hotel Choice Safety Factors in the Early Post-COVID-19 Era", by Spyridon Mamalis, Irene Kamenidou and Aikaterini Stavrianea, aims to explore Greek tourists' gender differences in the required safety features of tourist accommodation in the early post-pandemic era. Seven statements were used for choosing a tourist accommodation referring to safety measures required by them. Factor analysis reduced the seven statements to three dimensions-variables tested for gender differences. Independent sample t-tests revealed gender differences for two out of three dimensions, based on which discussion, suggestions and marketing communication techniques for accommodation providers are offered.

Chapter "Women in Tourism Industry: From Glass Ceiling Effect to #MeToo Movement", by Ioulia Poulaki, Vassiliki Karioti and Charalampia Tsoulogianni, highlights two specific phenomena that afflict women during their professional careers: glass ceiling effect and sexual harassment. These phenomena are perpetuated within societies since stereotypes, prejudices and taboos lead to the so-called gender discrimination, especially in the work environment. The purpose of their paper is to develop the theoretical and research background on glass ceiling effect and sexual harassment that involve the women of the tourism industry, while it discusses sociopsychological solutions that may contribute to the efforts of HRM to eliminate these two phenomena".

Chapter "Factors Influencing Urban Tourism Demand: The City of Tshwane Case", by Medalto Gotore, Magdalena Petronella Swart and Katlego Oliphant, illustrates the correlation between cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourism demand in the City of Tshwane. The study was quantitative and descriptive in nature. This study is expected to address a gap in the body of knowledge on how cognitive, affective and conative tourism demand are related in the South African context and how they can influence urban tourism demand.

Part Five—Cultural Heritage Tourism

The part five of the book consists of 10 chapters and aims at presenting issues regarding cultural routes, heritage and authenticity.

Chapter "Prospects for Heritage Tourism Branding in Eastern Arabia", by Adriaan De Man, provides an analysis on place branding, in the specific context of the United Arab Emirates and Oman. It does so through a qualitative insight into the heuristics and into the effective potential of cultural landscapes, relating to both policy and practice. It also challenges the notion that tangible heritage functions as a predictable accelerator for economic growth and favors more moderated takes on the effectiveness of geographical uniqueness as an instrument. The paper concludes by arguing that branding a regional product in its real diversity cannot insist excessively on history and heritage, as it needs to forge a cohesive message that embraces technology, hospitality, travel and the many other elements that appeal to the senses of the consumer.

Chapter "Meet West in East: New Routing of Old Footprints in the Heritage Tourism in Macao", Yuanyuan Cao and Eusebio C. Leou, explores the possible undiscovered inbound visitors' source to Macao, by introducing the theme of "Portuguese Origins (Origem Portuguesa)". Through the field measurement and consultative interview methods, this study confirmed that the concept of "Portuguese Origins" can demonstrate the cultural uniqueness in Macao, which would be a positive impact on the attractiveness of non-Chinese-speaker inbound tourists. To the finding, four theme routes of "Portuguese origins" are designed by linking the relevant locations in Macao, in order to serve as the tourist attractions with these optimal paths.

Chapter "Digital Activities as Online Getaways to Cultural Heritage: The Paradigm of Greek Museums During the COVID-19 Era", by Sofia Boutsiouki and Maria Damou, examines the museum management in Greece in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic and present museum initiatives that enabled the digital consumption of heritage and the increased virtual attendance of wider audiences via extrovert, online, interactive activities and participatory experiences. The authors also outline the existing gaps and the arising challenges and opportunities for the museums' digital strategy, resilience and sustainability in the post-coronavirus world.

Chapter "A Legal Approach of Diving Tourism and the Protection of Marine Cultural Heritage. The Case of Greece", by Dimitrios Mylonopoulos, Polyxeni Moira and Aikaterini Kontoudaki, based on the new institutional framework for the development of diving tourism in Greece, examines whether the new provisions for the development of diving tourism meet the needs of the protection of marine archeological resources but also the need for sustainable tourism development.

Chapter "Authenticity as an Antecedent of the Tourist Experience in Measuring the Gap Between Tourist Experiences at an Accommodation Establishment and a Tourist Attraction in Lesotho", by Shale Johannes Shale, Sello Samuel Nthebe and Magdalena Petronella Swart, explores whether authenticity can be applied as an antecedent of the tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at an accommodation establishment and a tourist attraction in Lesotho. The researchers adopted qualitative content analysis, following content-logical guidelines and step-by-step paradigms before providing qualification in the form of tables, to show that the dimensions local culture, involvement, meaningfulness and social interaction to be the most appropriate for measuring authenticity.

Chapter "Turning Cultural and Creative Challenges into Local Development Opportunities", by Andreea Claudia Serban, Huseyin Uzunboylu, Gheorghe-Alexandru Stativa and Ana-Maria Bocaneala, focuses on the cultural and creative index as a useful tool to compare cities' performance and to identify recommendations for increasing the capability of cultural and creative favorable context to support local development. The authors identified three dimensions that need to be considered and explored to make possible the objectives of the EU: building cohesive societies through culture and education and creating a more inclusive union, supporting innovation, creativity and sustainable jobs and growth, in order to provide a scheme for turning cultural creative challenges into opportunities for local development.

Chapter "Much More Than a Museum: Motivations and Experiences of Young Visitorsa legal app at Urban Cultural Clusters", by Daria V. Kondrateva, Alexander M. Pakhalov and Natalia A. Rozhkova, identifies factors that influence the motivations and the experiences of young visitors at urban cultural clusters and centers. The authors' results show that for Gen Zers information from social media is a key factor in shaping the initial intention to visit a cultural cluster or center. In turn, satisfaction and revisit intention increase if an attraction provides young visitors with more interactive and immersive experiences.

Chapter "Exploring the Role of Toponymy in Wine Naming Strategy: A Greek Case Study", by Theodosios Tsiakis, Eleni Anagnostou and Giuseppe Granata, aims at deciphering the toponymy of Greek wine labels, providing valuable insights about description of the name, the cause of selection and the language. The choice of wine label raises questions whether it intends to communicate historical concepts, identity or quality, since there are elements that can influence the buying operation, either in terms of purchase decision or based on the perception of quality–price.

Chapter "Cultural Tourist's Intention To Visit Greece During the Pandemic Era", by Papaioannou Vasiliki, Constantoglou Mary and Pavlogeorgatos Gerasimos, studies the intention of people to visit Greece for cultural reasons. Questionnaires were given to answer to people traveling on board to flights to Greece, UK, Belgium and Italy. On board passengers had the time and comfort to answer a fourteen questions long questionnaire aiming at examining the intention to undertake cultural trips. The research took place during the first lockdown at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, and it contributes to the assessment of cultural tourism dynamics.

Chapter "Urban Mega-Projects, Cultural Flagships and Their Effect on the Destination Image and Visitor Economy: The Case of the Waterfront of the Metropolitan Area of Athens", by Nicholas Karachalis and Efthymia Sarantakou, elaborates on how cultural infrastructure and emblematic buildings are strongly associated with efforts to change the image and fame of a city with the use of city branding techniques, often leading to dilemmas regarding their effectiveness and sustainability. The aim of the paper is to critically discuss the contradictions within this discussion. While Athens has an opportunity to develop a new identity through the developments at its waterfront, a coherent strategy mission and goals toward this direction are still missing.

Part Six—Tourism Consumer Behavior

The last part of the book consists of 11 chapters and aims at presenting different approaches of tourism behavior.

Chapter "Gastronomy Tourism in Athens, Motivations and Resources: A Push and Pull Approach", by Charilaos Kalpidis, Fragiskos Bersimis and Paris Tsartas, aims to utilize the push-pull factors approach to address the internal motives of tourists and their preferred gastronomy-related resources in the capital city of Greece, Athens. The research results add to the comprehension of food travel motivations and attractions from a tourist's and the destination's viewpoint, with relevant implications for restaurant entrepreneurs, destination management organizations (DMOs) and tourism policy planners.

Chapter "Gastronomy Tourist Behavior in Macao as the "UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy"", by Valeria Wenlan Jiang and Eusebio C. Leou, investigated tourists' perception and its effect on loyalty through questionnaires and interviews, aiming for a deeper mining to visitors' real experience during their stay in Macao. Moreover, based on Hofstede's cultural dimension theory, the authors also explored the connection among tourists' behaviors, culture impressions and the holistic impressions of Macao. The results have revealed that the perception of gastronomy tourism is multi- dimensional, which could create cultural value and work as guidance for further promotion.

In Chapter "Behavior Analysis of Glamping as a Novel Tourism Marketing Trend" by Ioanna Giannoukou, Eirini Fafouti and Constantinos Halkiopoulos, the concept of alternative tourism is analyzed, along with its characteristics and philosophy, with an emphasis on camping as well as a profile analysis of campers. In addition, the concept of glamping, a trend in alternative tourism that blends living in nature with the conveniences of a luxury hotel, is examined.

Chapter "Behavioural Intention of the South African Youth Towards Birds, Bird Habitat and Avitourism", by Nicolene Conradie, investigates behavioral intention of the South African youth toward birds, bird habitat and avitourism. The research poses clear challenges to professionals and educators within the tourism industry of South Africa to increase learners' willingness and motivation to act pro-environmentally through dedicated education. This supports the need to introduce an intervention program to promote behavioral intention and ultimately pro-avi and environmental behavior among learners.

Chapter "Exploring the Relationship Between Tourist Safety and Tourist Experience: Theories from Accommodation Establishments and Attractions", by Shale Johannes Shale, Sello Samuel Nthebe and Magdalena Petronella Swart, attempts to determine if there is a relationship between tourist safety and tourist experiences supported by the literature, specifically to investigate the gap between these concepts at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho. This method adhered to the interpretive and applied content analysis as an analytical approach to produce results and put them into context. The literature shows that the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience can be supported specially to investigate the gap between these concepts at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho.

Chapter "Satisfaction of Visitors with Folklore Festivals in Slovakia", by Andrej Malachovský, examines consumer behavior and product satisfaction with four selected folklore festivals in Slovakia. A structured questionnaire was used for data collection, which was placed on social networks. The obtained data were processed by selected methods of descriptive statistics and graphically interpreted. The results of the research indicate reserves in terms of comprehensive provision of the festival product, the aim of which is to achieve the satisfaction of visitors.

Chapter "The Benefits of Tourism and Travel to the Tourist's Well-Being: A Conceptual Discussion" by John Ebejer, explores how the engagement with different elements of the destination enables tourists to enhance their physiological and psychological well-being. The tourism activities considered in this paper are (i) engagement with nature (ii) engagement with the physical environment (iii) engagement with culture (iv) engagement with the spiritual (v) engagement with other people. For each, the implications for the tourist's well-being are discussed.

In Chapter "Understanding Behavioral Intentions in a Spa Experience: Insights from Contemporary Literature", Cristina Rodrigues, Fernanda A. Ferreira, Vânia Costa, Maria José Alves, Márcia Vaz, Paula Odete Fernandes and Alcina Nunes try to understand, from the existing literature, the consumption behavior toward a spa experience, from the consumers' point of view. This paper was developed based on content analysis and literature review, a systematic and narrative approach. The main results highlight the most critical aspects affecting satisfaction, service quality and perceived consumer value, and identify three key moments that can systematize the spa experience: expectations, consumption and consequences.

Chapter "To Read or not to Read? Dilemmas of Potential Tourism Visitors: Quantitative Study of Online Review Management from Slovakia", by Kristína Pompurová, Ivana Šimočková, Ľubica Šebová, examines the extent to which the inhabitants of Slovakia as potential tourism visitors read online reviews and to analyze the reasons for reading reviews. The results of their survey confirmed the importance of reviews in the consumer decision-making process and underline the fact that tourism businesses should pay greater attention to electronic word of mouth if they want to be successful.

Chapter "Profiling Coastal Tourists to the Democratic Republic of Congo", by Nadine Kisema, Elricke Botha and Nicolene Conradie, creates a profile using descriptive statistics and identified demographic and behavioral characteristics. In addition, travel motivations were identified using exploratory factor analysis. Based on the results, recommendations for the public and private tourism sectors were made. This is the first coastal tourism study based on the DRC. The profile of coastal tourists can assist the DRC in effectively communicating and improving the priorities in the development of tourism in the country.

Chapter "Profiling Visitors of Four Selected Urban Green Spaces in the City of Tshwane", by Anna Maria Magdalena Erasmus, Nicolene Conradie and Ciné van Zyl, intends to provide a profile of visitors to four selected urban green spaces (i.e., botanical garden, zoo, nature reserve and bird park) in the City of Tshwane (South Africa). Visitor motivation, environmental awareness, subjective well-being and revisit intention are investigated. Tourism managers may use the information to promote the benefits experienced by visiting urban green spaces.

The editor and IACUDiT anticipate that readers of this volume will find the papers informative, thought provoking and of value to their niche research areas.

References

COM (2021) 350 final. https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/default/files/communication-sme-strategy-march-2020_en.pdf

Kaushal, V., & Srivastava, S. (2020). Hospitality and Tourism Industry amid COVID-19 Pandemic: Perspectives on Challenges and Learnings from India. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 102707-102707.

Kraus, S., Clauss, T., Breier, M., Gast, J., Zardini, A., & Tiberius, V. The economics of COVID-19: initial empirical evidence on how family firms in five European countries cope with the corona crisis. IJEBR, 26, 5.

Shin, H.; Kang, J. Reducing perceived health risk to attract hotel customers in the COVID-19 pandemic era: Focused on technology innovation for social distancing and cleanliness. Int. J. Hosp. Manag. 2020, 91, 102664.

Sigala, M. (2020). Tourism and COVID-19: Impacts and implications for advancing and resetting industry and research. Journal of Business Research, 117, 312–321. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.06.015

Stankov, U., Filimonau, V., & Vujičić, M. D. (2020). A mindful shift: an opportunity for mindfulness-driven tourism in a post-pandemic world. Tourism Geographies, 22(3), 703-712.

UNWTO. (2020). UNWTO World tourism barometer, May 2020: Special focus on the impact of COVID-19. https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-05/Barometer%20-%20May%202020%20-%20Short.pdf

Wachyuni, S.S.; Kusumaningrum, D.A. The Effect of COVID-19 Pandemic: How are the Future Tourist Behavior? J. Educ. Soc. Behav. Sci. 2020, 33, 67–76.

WTTC. Economic Impact Reports. Available online: https://wttc.org/Research/Economic-Impact (accessed on 11 November 2022).

Contents

Tourism Economics, Management and Education

Economic Indicators and Cost Analysis in the Hotel Industry of Crete

Efstathios Velissariou and Ioanna Georgedaki

Abstract In a highly competitive tourism environment, effective management, efficient organization, and the ability to calculate operating costs are some basic requirements for the competitiveness and the future viability of hotel businesses. Indicators are a main method of analyzing the operation, the costs, and finally, the economic effectiveness of a business. This paper presents the results of a survey in 160 hotels in the region of Crete in Greece, aiming to investigate the use of indicators as a management tool in hotels and the ability to calculate the cost, but also the break-even point of hotel businesses. Crete is the largest island in Greece, and since the mid-1980s, it has been transformed into a popular tourist destination offering the hotel industry a total of 190 thousand beds. The survey was conducted in the spring of 2021, and the results were disappointing, since only the half of the hotels in Crete use indicators to measure their performance. Also, one in four hotels in Crete and one in three hotels that operate all year round cannot exactly calculate their costs. More specifically, the research showed that about half of the hotels calculate only by estimation (and not exactly) their operating costs, the cost of overnight stays, and the break-even point of the business. Also, according to the results of the survey, for most hotels, the payroll cost and the operating cost per bed is lower than those found in the literature. In particular, payroll costs estimated at 32% of turnover, on the contrary the occupancy rate above which the hotel generates profit is particularly high and ranges at the level of 41–45%. Hotels use economic indicators but not entirely effective as they are mainly used for annual comparisons, while the most popular indicators used are those associated with the daily performance of the business. Finally, through the correlations of the research variables, it is understood that hotels that use indicators can calculate their costs more precisely and can plan the economic operation of the business more efficiently.

E. Velissariou (✉)
University of Thessaly, Larissa, Greece
e-mail: belissar@uth.gr

I. Georgedaki
Hellenic Open University, Patras, Greece
e-mail: std130287@ac.eap.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_1

Keywords Hotel performance indicators · Operation cost · Break-even point · Crete · Greece

JEL Classifications M21 · L25 · L83

1 Introduction

The basis of a targeted and accurate measurement of performance, costs, and the financial position of a company of any size and industry are the financial statements. The financial statements are based on the accounting figures and provide valuable information about the financial viability of the business as well as its value. Economic indicators are also derived from these situations, which are fractions with numerator and denominator elements from the balance sheet, the budgetary control, or the results of use of the business (Papadeas, 2015).

According to Tourna-Germanou (2015), indicators are also the most basic tool used in the analysis of financial statements. Indicators should be logical, understandable, and able to lead to conclusions that will influence business decisions. Diagnosing the position of the company each time requires the calculation and examination of the appropriate indicators and not the calculation of all possible ones. Basic conditions for a company's financial data to be useful are that they are relevant, reliable, comparable, easy to understand, and have consistency and stability (Tinkelman, 2015).

At the same time, the indicators can be used as a means of quick and effective control within the company, enabling immediate reforms where necessary, while they can also be used to predict the future business course. Therefore, it is a key tool for informing the course and making decisions within each company (Singh & Schmidgall, 2002). It is common for financial indicators to be classified according to the type of business being analyzed, and according to Courtis (1978), they are classified into solvency or risk, efficiency, and management performance ratios. The composition of the indicators also depends on the type of business. For hotel businesses, there are specific operating indicators that measure business operations, performance, costs, and financial figures.

This paper examines the case of the hotel businesses of Crete in Greece. In particular, the research examines whether and to what extent the hotels in Crete make use of financial indicators, to measure operational results, operating costs, and the efficiency of the business in general. It should be noted that the island of Crete is one of the main tourist destinations in Greece and gathers 26% of the 4- and 5-star hotels in Greece.

2 Main Economic Indicators for Hotels

There are many types of indicators in the hotel industry depending on the facilities and services providing by the hotel. On daily basis are mainly analyzed **operational indicators**, such as the rooms occupancy, the average room rate, and the revenue per available room (REVPAR). The sales mix indicator shows the percentage of sales expressed as a percentage of the total made in the hotel for each day, week, month, or year. Finally, the room yield is the share of the actual total room revenue divided by the potential total room revenue.

Cost indicators measure the operating costs of specific departments or factors. Among the most important indicators are average labor cost per hour, labor cost as a percentage of total costs or in relation to revenue, hotel energy costs, and F&B supply costs. Important for the operating efficiency of the hotel are the profit indicators or **Financial performance indicators.** The most used financial performance indicators are earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA), earnings before taxes (EBT) but also return on investment, and the gross profit margin (Guilding, 2002). Jagels and Coltman (2004) focus on a different mix of indicators important for hotels, such as liquidity index (working capital) or current ratio (current assets/short-term liabilities), long-term solvency index or coefficient of long-term solvency (total assets/total liabilities). All the above indicators can be characterized as economic business indicators.

Research by Singh and Smidgall (2002) examined the importance among the 36 most frequently used indicators for tourism executives in the USA. According to the results of the research, the ten most essential indicators for the description of hotels as concluded by the above research are the average room rate, the revenue per available room (REVPAR), the paid occupancy percentage, the labor cost, the net profit margin, the rooms department profit, the food department profit, the beverage department profit, the food cost percentage, and the beverage cost percentage.

The research of Pié et al. (2019) used mainly financial indicators to analyze the financial crisis in five-star hotels in Barcelona and Madrid. The indicators used were the total dept, the financial autonomy of the hotel, the coefficient of long-term solvency, the financing of fixed assets coefficient, the liquidity, and the Treasury. Spain is a Mediterranean country with similar tourist characteristics to Greece, but the research by Pié et al. (2019) had a different purpose and was linked to the financial crisis in the period 2008–2011.

In Greece, the Institute of the Association of Hellenic Tourism Enterprises (INSETE) conducts surveys on hotel finances on a regular basis. In the research published in 2020 by Ikkos and Rasouli (2020), the financial data of hotels in Greece are analyzed using indexes based on the financial statements of the companies which was done by region and by class, focusing on the profitability and liabilities of the hotels based on the indicators: Turnover per room, profits before taxes, interest and depreciation to turnover, profits before taxes to turnover, debt per room, debt to turnover, debt to equity, and debt to EBITDA (Ikkos & Rasouli, 2020).

3 Development and Characteristics of the Hotel Industry in Greece

The international mass tourism in Greece started in the mid-1960s, and by the beginning of 2010, the arrivals of international travelers amounted 15 million. After 2012, an explosion is recorded on tourist arrivals, and in just seven years (2013–2019), the arrivals doubled and exceeded 31.4 million (Bank of Greece, 2022a, 2022b). In the following two years (2020 and 2021), tourist traffic decreased significantly, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, but tourism recovered strongly in the year 2022.

The development of mass tourism in Greece also led to the development of the hotel industry. In 1960, the capacity of hotel beds in Greece was only 49.7 thousand beds (Stavrou, 1984), in 1980, the capacity reached 278 thousand beds (NSAG, 1983), in 2000, to 592 thousand beds, and in 2021, the capacity of hotels mounded 879 thousand (Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, 2022).

Basically, most hotels in Greece are small businesses, seasonal operating, and family-run. It is characteristic that the average size of hotels in Greece (in the year 2021) was only 44 rooms or 87 beds. Table 1 shows that the average size of the hotels is related to the hotel class, and 5-star hotels (which is the highest class) have the greatest capacity by 291 beds per hotel.

Tourism in Greece is directly linked to the summer, the sea, the islands, and the beaches, and for this reason, a large part of the hotels operate on seasonal basis. In particular, the tourist season in Greece starts in April, depending on the Catholic Easter and extends until the end of October, in the southernmost regions.

The average employment in hotels in Greece is only 8.1 employees per company and in Crete 10.5, due to the larger size of the hotels. The educational level of hotel employees is also low. Only 13% of those employed in hotels have tourism or hotel education, while in Crete, this percentage is slightly higher at 17% (Ikkos & Rasouli,

Table 1 Number of hotels and capacity by class in Greece (1982 and 2021)

31/12/1982	5- star	4- star	3- star	2- star	1- star	Total
Hotels 1982	44	294	909	1,484	1,354	4,085
Beds 1982	19,333	76,291	84,205	88,277	38,108	306,214
% of total (%)	*6.3*	*24.9*	*27.5*	*28.8*	*12.4*	*100.0*
31/12/2021	**5 stars**	**4 stars**	**3 stars**	**2 stars**	**1 star**	**Total**
Hotels 2021	700	1,767	2,838	3,519	1,274	10,098
Rooms 2021	97,342	124,955	102,357	92,524	24,358	441,536
Beds 2021	203,959	250,566	200,386	175,515	48,829	879,255
Beds of total (%)	*23.2*	*28.5*	*22.8*	*20.0*	*5.6*	*100.0*
Rooms per Hotel 2021	139.1	70.7	36.1	26.3	19.1	43.7
Beds per Hotel 2021	291.4	141.8	70.6	49.9	38.3	87.1

Source NSAG (1983), Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (2022)

2020). The low educational level of employees in Greece is also confirmed by the research of Velissariou (2006).

Also, characteristic of Greek hotels is the family nature of the businesses. Research in hotels in Crete showed that up to seven family members work in the hotel business and an average of 2.32 family members per hotel (Papanikos, 2001).

Among the positives of Greek hotels is the improvement of hotel quality. Between 1982 and 2021, a significant growth in 4- and 5-star hotels was recorded. While in year 1982, hotels of the high-class categories represented only 31.2% of the bed supply; in 2021, this percentage was 51.7%.

The small size of hotels, in relation to the family nature of the businesses, as well the low level of hotel management knowledge, lead most hotels to be highly dependent on the tour operators, which deprives these companies the flexibility and ability to adapt to new business conditions and remain competitive.

At the same time aiming for further development and adaptation to the constantly changing conditions of the market and the great competition, some hotels proceed with centralized development strategies directing their resources to specific market products and technologies. The forms of centralized development that are commonly used in Greece are the *franchising*, the *acquisitions, and mergers* witch can be vertical or horizontal (Walker & Walker, 2014), the *management contracts*, whereby a specialized company undertakes the management of the hotel, the *strategic alliances* or referral associations between one or more companies, often sharing common promotion and quality policies, the *business participations* or *joint ventures*, which is a collaboration between companies of different branches, usually a large construction company with a hotel.

4 Crete as a Tourist Destination

Crete is the largest island in Greece occupying an area of 8336 Km^2 and is divided into four regional units (RU of Chania, RU of Rethymno, RU of Heraklion, and RU of Lassithi). The population on the island amounts to 617,360 according to the 2021 census. Mass tourism in Crete started with a slight delay compared to the rest of Greece in the mid-1970s. In the year 1980, the international tourist arrivals by plane were only 400 thousand. In the year 2011, arrivals were recorded 2.79 million, and in 2019, the arrivals were 4.46 million. The total arrivals in Crete, based on data from the Bank of Greece (2022b), amount to 5.287 million tourists. Most arrivals take place by plane and mainly at the airport of Heraklion (3.3 million arrivals in 2019), and Chania (1.14 million arrivals). Regarding the country of origin of flights to Crete in 2019, passengers from Germany had the highest share with 25%, followed by arrivals from the UK with 11%, France with 11%, the Netherlands with 6%, Italy with 5%, Belgium with 4%, Switzerland with 3%, Russia with 2, and 33% from other countries.

Passenger traffic has also increased in the four major ports of Crete, where a total of 3,137,320 domestic passengers disembarked in 2019. In the same year, Crete was visited by 397 cruise ships with 607,268 passengers, recording an increase of 84% in the period 2014–2019 when in the same period, the increase in Greece was only 12%.

The average length of stay in Crete is from 8.2 to 8.4 days, when the average in Greece is only 6.3–6.6 depending on the season (Bank of Greece, 2022c).

Table 2 shows that the biggest growth in the figures of tourism in Crete was the number of visitors to museums, showing in 2019 an increase of 184,1% compared to 2014. This fact is not only due to the increase in air arrivals but mainly in the increase of cruise ship passenger arrivals.

The development of the hotel industry in Crete followed a parallel development to the arrivals.

In the year 1980, a total of 29.3 thousand hotel beds were offered in Crete, and in 2021, a capacity of 193.9 thousand beds was recorded (Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, 2022). Most interesting is the fact that 5- and 4-star hotels in Crete represent 61.5% of the total capacity of hotels in Crete and are much higher than the average in Greece, where the corresponding percentage is 51.7%. Also impressive is the fact that 26.3% of the 5- and 4-star hotels in Greece are concentrated in Crete, while in total, it offers 22.1% of the hotel beds in Greece (Tables 3 and 4).

The average occupancy of hotels in Crete in the period 2014–2019 was approximately 63%, much higher than the average in Greece, which at the same period was

Table 2 Main figures of tourism in Crete

	2014	2019	Difference (%)
International arrivals by air	3,533,754	4,455,810	26,1
Arrivals by air (domestic)	707,540	991,611	40,1
Arrivals by ship	2,685,989	3,137,320	16,8
Cruises ships	286	397	38,8
Cruises passengers	329,709	607,268	84,2
Museums visitors	297,569	845,477	184,1
Archeological sites visitors	1,567,924	2,155,260	37,5
Hotel arrivals	3,250,910	5,033,786	54,8
Hotel overnights	20,593,775	27,962,541	35,8

Source INSETE (2020)

Table 3 Hotels establishments and capacity in Crete from 1980 to 2021

	1980	1990	2000	2010	2014	2019	2021
Hotels	342	1,093	1,306	1,549	1,545	1,619	1,644
Rooms	15,676	40,601	61,887	85,407	87,950	96,367	98,547
Beds	29,314	76,095	116,513	161,578	167,308	187,599	193,928

Source NSAG (1983), GNTO (2002), Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (2022), Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (2022)

Table 4 Hotels establishments and capacity in Crete in 2021 per hotel classification

	5-star	4-star	3-star	2-star	1-star	Total
Hotels	149	345	412	565	173	1,644
Rooms	25,130	33,076	17,894	18,315	4,132	98,547
Beds	53,452	65,817	33,890	32,790	7,979	193,928
Share in class (%)	27.6	33.9	17.5	16.9	4.1	100.0
Average revenue per bed	20,656	12,309	11,469	6,351	2,860	13,943 on average
Beds/hotel	359	191	82	58	46	118
Greece beds	203,959	250,566	200,386	175,515	48,829	879,255
% Crete of Greece (%)	26.2	26.3	16.9	18.7	16.3	22.1

Source Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (2022)

at 50% (INSETE, 2020). The sale prices of the rooms depend on the class of the hotel but also on the month of operation. According to the published price, data of 2018 prices range from 44 euros per room in 1-star hotels during the low season to 373 euros in 5-star hotels during the high season and averages 80 euros in the low season and 160 euros during the high season. (Source: Trivago Edited by INSETE, 2020) (Fig. 1).

Due to the high tourist demand, the supply of private accommodation increased at the same time. While in 1977, only 4,000 beds were offered, in 1993, the capacity

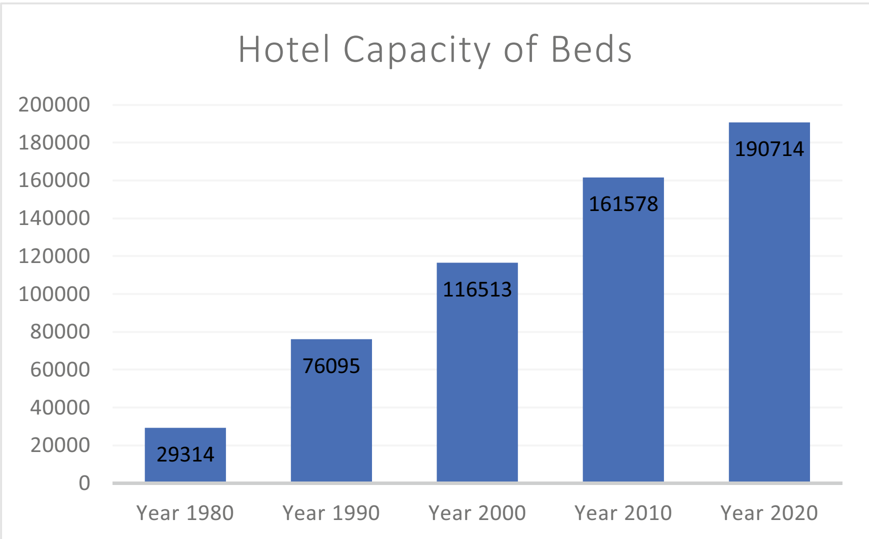


Fig. 1 Growth of the hotel capacity in Crete 1980–2021. *Source* NSAG (1983), GNTO (2002), Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (2022)

Table 5 Main hotel indicators in Crete

Indicators for 2018		Hotel class			
		5-star	4-star	3-star	2-star
Turnover/room	GR	35,501	18,883	9,964	6,886
	Crete	30,424	17,102	10,399	7,198
Net fixed assets/room	GR	22,850	9,066	3,795	1,871
	Crete	24,387	9,896	3,786	2,852
Own funds/room	GR	67,377	30,568	20,544	15,300
	Crete	49,302	26,392	17,467	16,656
Long-term loans/room	GR	55,126	13,014	6,568	2,037
	Crete	54,899	13,979	5,509	2,437
EBITDA	GR	29%	25%	21%	16%
	Crete	31%	21%	20%	22%
EBT	GR	5%	11%	6%	5%
	Crete	10%	11%	7%	6%
Long-term loans/turnover	GR	1.55	0.69	0.66	0.30
	Crete	1.80	0.82	0.53	0.34
Long-term loans/equity	GR	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.1
	Crete	1.1	0.5	0.3	0.1
Long-term loans/EBITDA	GR	5.3	2.8	3.1	1.9
	Crete	5.8	3.1	2.6	1.5

Source Processing Data from INSETE (2019, 2020), Ikkos and Rasouli (2020)

increased to 46 thousand (Velissariou, 1999) and in 2019 to 73,381 (of which 55,758 in Rooms to let and 17,623 in Apartments and Villas).

Then the main indicators are given according to the survey of Ikkos & Rasouli, 2020 for the hotels in Crete and Greece in total (Table 5).

5 Research Objectives and Methodology

The survey was conducted in hotels in Crete in early 2021. The primary scope of the research was to investigate whether hotel units in Crete use, calculate, and analyze hotel indicators and of course to research the ability to calculate the cost and the break-even point of hotel businesses. In this context, the differences in the use of indicators between hotels operating on a seasonal basis and on a continuous basis, and to what extent the size and class of the hotel affects management in terms of the use and analysis of number indicators, were investigated.

The statistical population of the survey was the hotels of the island of Crete, which were 1644, according to the data of the Hotel Chamber. Many hotels at the time of the survey (spring 2021) were closed, due to their seasonal operation, but also due to covid-19 restrictions, which created uncertainty in the tourism market and may led to many hotels not operating throughout 2021 (Bellos, 2021).

For sending the questionnaires via e-mail to the hotels, information was obtained from the professional registers of the hotelier associations of Crete. A total of 162 questionnaires were collected, i.e., 10% of all hotels in Crete.

6 Survey Results

6.1 Characteristics of the Hotels that Participated in the Survey

The questionnaires were mostly answered by the managers or the owners–entrepreneurs themselves, as well as by the financial departments of the hotels. On average those who completed the questionnaires had 17.6 years of experience in the hotel industry. Regarding the relevance of the studies to the respondents' work, 46.3% answered that it was relevant, while 22.8% answered that it was partially relevant. The above data show that the questionnaires were completed mainly by responsible, qualified, and experienced executives of the hotel sector. Out of the 162 questionnaires that were completed, 76.5% were seasonal and 23.5% were in continuous operation.

In seasonal hotels, the average duration of operation was 6.5 months. The 5- and 4-star hotels operated for 7 months and the 1 and 2 stars only 6 months on average. About 36.7% of the hotels that participated in the survey were classified in the upper categories of 4 and 5 stars, 31.6% of the hotels belonged to the middle class (of 3 stars), and 31.6% in the lower categories of 2 and 1 star, showing a balanced distribution of the sample, but not representative of the distribution of hotels in Crete. For this reason, some results are extrapolated to the real distribution of hotels in Crete (Table 6).

Table 6 Class of hotels participated in the survey

Class	Share in the sample (%)	Continuous operation (%)	Seasonal operation (%)	Hotel allocation Crete (2021) (%)
1-star hotel	10.1	9.8	11.1	4.1
2-star hotel	21.5	24.6	11.1	16.9
3-star hotel	31.6	27.0	47.2	17.5
4-star hotel	24.7	25.4	22.2	33.9
5-star hotel	12.0	13.1	8.3	27.6
Totally	100	100	100	100

Table 7 Capacity of hotels participating in the survey

Hotel capacity	Share (%)	Continuous operation (%)	Seasonal operation (%)
Up to 50 (very small)	44.9	52.8	42.6
51–100 (small)	22.8	22.2	23.0
101–250 (medium)	15.8	19.4	14.8
251–500 (large)	8.9	5.6	9.8
Over 501 (very large)	7.6	0.0	9.8
Totally	100.0	100.0	100.0

In terms of the size of the hotels, it can be observed that the vast majority of 67.7%. in the survey were small and very small hotels (up to 100 beds). The share of the hotels in the middle class (average) hotels (101–250 beds) was 15.8% and, in the class of large and very large hotels, (i.e., more than 250 beds) was only 16.5% of the hotels in the sample. It must be noted that 92.3% of the large and very large hotels were seasonal operating. In general, there has been a reluctance of large and very large hotels to participate in the survey, perhaps for reasons of competition. For this reason, the results are mostly presented below by size or by hotel class (Table 7).

In the question of whether the hotel belongs to a hotel chain, or whether it had a Franchise contract or a management contract, the results did not show anything interesting, since 91.4% of the hotels in the sample had their own management and only 4.9% belonged to some hotel chain, while only 1.2% stated a management contract.

6.2 The Use of Hotel Indicators

The main section of the research concerned the use of indicators. Initially, hotel managements were asked if they set business goals on an annual basis using indicators. The results were expected and showed that the larger the capacity of the hotel, the higher the percentage of those who set annual targets. Especially hotels over 500 beds answered YES at a rate of 91.7% and partially 8.3%, while only 29.6% of small hotels answered with "YES" (Table 8).

To the question of whether hotels use the company's financial indicators to calculate how efficient the individual departments of the hotel are, the positive answers were again in relation to the size, but also to the class of the hotel. In particular, very large hotels, over 500 beds, the usage rate was 75%, having a better performance than 5-star hotels (Table 9).

The most important cost indicators of a hotel are the bed and breakfast (BB) cost, as well the break-even point of occupancy of a hotel. Table 10 shows in detail the results in the question of calculating the BB cost. We observe that 35.8% of hotels have calculated exactly the cost of a BB, while the majority 45.7% have an estimate about the cost. The picture is better in very large hotels (over 500 beds) which have

Table 8 Use of indicators for setting hotel business coals

Business coals (by hotel size)	Yes (%)	No (%)	Partially (%)	No answer (%)	In total (%)
Up to 50 beds (very small)	29.6	31.0	38.0	1.4	100.0
51–100 beds (small)	52.8	25.0	22.2	0.0	100.0
101–250 beds (medium)	72.0	0.0	28.0	0.0	100.0
251–500 beds (large)	85.7	7.1	7.1	0.0	100.0
Over 501 beds (very large)	91.7	0.0	8.3	0.0	100.0
Average	51.3	20.3	27.8	0.6	100.0
Continuous operating hotels	39.5	34.2	26.3	0.0	100.0
Seasonal operating hotels	53.7	17.1	28.5	0.8	100.0

Table 9 Use of financial indicators for the performance of hotel departments

By bed capacity	Yes	No	Partially	In total
Up to 50 (very small) (%)	29.0	29.0	42.0	100.0
51–100 (small) (%)	38.9	33.3	27.8	100.0
101–250 (medium) (%)	52.0	28.0	20.0	100.0
251–500 (large) (%)	64.3	14.3	21.4	100.0
Over 501 (very large) (%)	75.0	16.7	8.3	100.0
On average (%)	***41.7***	***27.6***	***30.8***	***100.0***
By hotel class	**Yes**	**No**	**Partially**	**In total**
1-star hotel (%)	18.8	37.5	43.8	100.0
2-star hotel (%)	33.3	24.2	42.4	100.0
3-star hotel (%)	40.8	24.5	34.7	100.0
4-star hotel (%)	48.7	35.9	15.4	100.0
5-star hotel (%)	63.2	15.8	21.1	100.0
Average of the hotels in the sample (%)	***41.7***	***27.6***	***30.8***	***100.0***
Weighted average of hotels in Crete in total (*) (%)	47.49	26.45	26.08	100.01

(*) The weighted average was calculated based on the actual number of hotels in Crete and their distribution into hotel classes

calculated precisely at 83.3% the BB costs, and this percentage is much higher than in 5-star hotels.

(*) The weighted average was calculated based on the actual number of Hotels in Crete and their distribution into hotel classes. And in the question of calculating the break-even point of hotel occupancy, the results were modest, since only 30.9% of the sample knew exactly the break-even point of the hotel's operation as a percentage

Table 10 Precise calculation of bed and breakfast cost

Hotel types	Exactly (%)	By estimation (%)	Not accurately (%)	In total (%)
Seasonal operating	40.3	44.4	15.3	100.0
Continuous operating	21.1	50.0	28.9	100.0
Up to 50 beds (very small)	25.4	53.5	21.1	100.0
51–100 beds (small)	38.9	41.7	19.4	100.0
101–250 beds (medium)	28.0	52.0	20.0	100.0
251–500 beds (large)	64.3	28.6	7.1	100.0
Over 501 beds (very large)	83.3	16.7	0.0	100.0
1-star hotels	25.0	56.3	18.8	100.0
2-star hotels	29.4	41.2	29.4	100.0
3-star hotels	30.0	50.0	20.0	100.0
4-star hotels	41.0	48.7	10.3	100.0
5-star hotels	68.4	26.3	5.3	100.0
Average of the hotels in the sample	35.8	45.7	18.5	100.0
Weighted average of hotels in Crete in total (*)	44.0	41.8	14.2	100.00

of occupancy. And in this question, the larger hotels were in a much better position than all other hotels (Table 11).

(*) The weighted average was calculated based on the actual number of hotels in Crete and their distribution into hotel classes. A series of indicators were then given to note those indicators which are mainly used by hotels. A total of 700 boxes were checked, and the detailed results are given in the following Table 12.

As expected, the indicator of the occupancy rate and the average room price were the two main monitoring figures. In the 4th place is the indicator profit before taxes to turnover and in the 5th place the revenue per room.

Two indexes with international terminology had been added to the list of indicators, especially the earnings before interest, tax, depreciation, and amortization (**EBITDA**) and EBITDA to sales (ratio), which were marked by only 0.6% of the respondents.

An important factor that affects the efficient operation of a hotel is the labor cost, and for this reason, there are many indicators in relation to the labor cost. In this context, the hotels were asked to declare the payroll costs, as a percentage of the turnover. The answers are then given in terms of the size, but also in terms of the category of hotels, given that high-class hotels offer a variety of facilities and services. However, the results did not show great differences and the average salary cost was

Table 11 Accurate calculation of break-even point of hotel occupancy in Crete

Hotels	Exactly (%)	By estimation (%)	Not accurately (%)	In total (%)
Seasonal operating	32.3	45.2	22.6	100.0
Continuous operating	26.3	39.5	34.2	100.0
Up to 50 (very small)	25.4	42.3	32.4	100.0
51–100 (small)	30.6	44.4	25.0	100.0
101–250 (medium)	36.0	56.0	8.0	100.0
251–500 (large)	28.6	50.0	21.4	100.0
Over 501 (very large)	66.7	25.0	8.3	100.0
1-star hotels	31.3	31.3	37.5	100.0
2-star hotels	14.7	50.0	35.3	100.0
3-star hotels	28.0	44.0	28.0	100.0
4-star hotels	46.2	38.5	15.4	100.0
5-star hotels	42.1	52.6	5.3	100.0
Average in the sample	30.9	43.8	25.3	100.0
Weighted average of hotels in Crete in total (*)	35.9	45.0	19.1	100.04

Table 12 Common indicators used by the Cretan hotels

Hotel indicators	Frequency	Frequency (%)
Occupancy rate	125	79.1
Average room rate	116	73.4
Operating room cost	102	64.6
Profit Bevor taxes/Sales	94	59.5
Revenue per available room	86	54.5
Employee costs	66	41.8
Loans to equity	48	30.4
Real liquidity	44	27.8
Long-term solvency	17	10.8
EBITDA	1	0.6
EBITDA to sales	1	0.6

32.2%, while the smallest category hotels (1 star) declared the lowest percentage of labor costs with 27.1% and small hotels with 50 beds with 29.5% (Table 13).

(*) The weighted average was calculated based on the actual number of hotels in Crete and their distribution into hotel classes. The question was also raised about the estimation of the hotel's bed cost. The lowest cost was in the 1-star hotels with 9.9 euros and reached 32.6 euros per bed in the 5-star hotels (Table 14).

Table 13 Labor costs (LC) as a percentage of turnover in terms of category and size of hotels in Crete

Hotel class	LC to Revenue	Hotel capacity	LC to revenue (%)	LC to revenue (%)
1-star hotel	27.1%	Up to 50 (Very small)	29.5	29.5
2-star hotel	32.3%	51–100 (Small)	33.4	34.8
3-star hotel	32.0	101–250 (Medium)	36.8	
4-star hotel	34.7	251–500 (Large)	35.1	33.4
5-star hotel	32.7	Over 501 (Very large)	31.6	
Sample average	32.2	Sample average	32.2	32.2
Weighted average of hotels in Crete in total (*)	32.96			

Table 14 Bed cost in € by hotel class and size

Hotel class	Average bed cost in €	Hotel capacity	Average bed cost in €
1-star hotel	9.9	Up to 50 (very small)	18.1
2-stars hotel	17.3	51–100 (small)	14.5
3-stars hotel	20.5	101–250 (medium)	20.0
4-stars hotel	23.3	251–500 (large)	28.0
5-stars hotel	32.6	Over 501 (very large)	32.2

Finally, the question regarding the hotel occupancy rate for the break-even point (BEP) showed a relatively high occupancy rate, on 38%. In large and very large hotels, the minimum occupancy rate was even higher at 42.3% (Table 15).

Table 15 Occupancy rate for break-even point by class and size of hotel

Hotel class	% Occupancy	Hotel Capacity	% occupancy	% Occupancy
1-star hotel	31.4	Up to 50 (very small)	37.4	37.4
2-star hotel	37.9	51–100 (small)	36.1	36.8
3-star hotel	36.2	101–250 (medium)	37.7	
4-star hotel	42.2	251–500 (large)	44.1	42.3
5-star hotel	39.5	Over 501 (very large)	40.2	
Sample average	38.0	Sample average	38.0	38.0

7 Conclusions

The hotel industry in Greece is characterized by its gradual growth after the 70s, the small size of the hotels, the seasonal operation during the summer, and the family business nature of many hotels. The hotel industry in Crete has similar characteristics and has been developed after the 1980s, as a result of growing tourism demand, which increased after the beginning of the 2010s. In 2019, it is estimated that 5.3 million tourists visited the island of Crete. Special characteristics of the hotel sector in Crete are that the hotels are comparatively bigger than the average size of Greece, that 61.5% of hotel beds are classified to the 2 upper categories of 5 and 4 stars. The tourist season in Crete lasts 6.2–6.94 months (in the higher categories of hotels), a fact that is also confirmed in an earlier study, which measured the duration of the tourist season at 6.95 months (Papanikos, 2001).

About 10% of the hotel in Crete participated in this research and consequently some generalized conclusions can be drawn, not only for the hotel sector of Crete, but also of Greece in general, since 26% of 4- and 5-star hotels are concentrated in Crete. It should be noted that 76.5% of the hotels that participated in the survey were seasonal.

The research clearly showed that large capacity hotels make systematic use of indicators as a management tool, set business goals, and methodically evaluate the performance of individual hotel departments. In fact, in many cases, the results were better in the large hotels, compared to the 5-star hotels. Also, the seasonally operating hotels make better use of the indicators compared to year-rount hotels.

Based on the survey results, it is estimated that only 44% of hotels in Crete have accurately calculated the cost of a BB room, while 41.8% make estimations about the cost. The results are clearly better in the very large hotels (over 500 beds) which have accurately calculated the cost at a percentage of 83.3%, and the percentage is much higher than in the 5-star hotels. In the question of calculating the hotels' break-even point of occupancy, the results were moderate, since only 30.9% of the sample knew exactly the hotel's break-even point as an occupancy rate, which corresponds to 35.9% of the hotels in Crete.

The main indicators studied by the surveyed hotels were occupancy rate, average room rate, room operating cost, earnings before taxes/turnover, revenue per available room, and payroll cost. In terms of the percentage of labor costs to turnover, the survey did not show great differences, and payroll costs averaged 32.2%, while the lowest category hotels (1 star) reported the lowest percentage of labor costs by 27, 1% and small hotels up to 50 beds by 29.5%.

The operating cost of a bed is directly related to the category and size of the hotel and ranges from approximately 10 euros per bed in 1-star hotels and reaches approximately 33 euros in 5-star hotels. Break-even occupancy rate is at 38% on average, with the lowest percentage being reported by 1-star hotels, while higher class hotels and larger hotels require higher occupancy rates.

The use and application of the indicators are directly related to the size of the hotel, and the very large hotel in Crete make much better use. Statistical correlations showed that hotels that can measure operating costs can calculate the cost of overnight stays and can also calculate the break-even point of the hotel. In addition, hotels that use hotel indicators can calculate exactly or by estimation their operating costs. On the other side, those hotels that do not use financial indicators tend not to be able to calculate their costs.

Concluding, those hotels that use financial indicators tend to have a more complete picture of the financial situation of the business and the various types of costs. This could also be an argument for the greater use of indicators by hotels. In particular, by using the indicators more systematically, hotels will be able to control their costs more effectively, which will lead to an increase in their profitability and viability.

References

Bellos, H. (2021, April 4). Tourism: In three waves, hotels will be opened. *Kathimerini.* Retrieved June 18, 2022, from https://www.kathimerini.gr/economy/561323983/toyrismos-se-tria-kymata-tha-ginei-to-anoigma-xenodocheion/

Bank of Greece. (2022a). *Number of inbound travelers in Greece by Country of Origin.* Retrieved June 1, 2022a, from https://www.bankofgreece.gr/en/statistics/external-sector/balance-of-payments/travel-services

Bank of Greece. (2022b). Visits by region for main countries of origin Retrieved June 1, 2022b, from https://www.bankofgreece.gr/en/statistics/external-sector/balance-of-payments/travel-services

Bank of Greece. (2022c). Average_length_of_stay_regional. Retrieved June 1, 2022b, from https://www.bankofgreece.gr/en/statistics/external-sector/balance-of-payments/travel-services

Courtis, J. K. (1978). Modelling a financial ratios categoric framework. *Journal of Business Finance & Accounting, 5*(4), 371–386. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-5957.1978.tb01059.x

GNTO. (2002). *Development of tourism traffic 2002.* Greek national Tourism Organization. Department of Studies and Investments, Athens.

Guilding, C. (2002). *Financial management for hospitality decision makers.* Butterworth-Heinemann.

Hellenic Chamber of Hotels. (2022). *Greece Hotel capacity 2021.* Retrieved June 18, 2022, from https://www.grhotels.gr/category/epicheirimatiki-enimerosi/statistika/dynamikotites/

Ikkos, A., & Rasouli, G. (2020). *Analysis of financial data of hotels in Greece—By destination and by Star Category, 2016 and 2017.* Retrieved June 1, 2022, from https://insete.gr/wp-content/uploads/2020/04/Hotel-Study-2016-2017-.pdf

INSETE. (2019). Institute of the association of Greek tourism enterprises. *Region of Crete Annual report on competitiveness and structural adjustment for the year 2018.* Retrieved June 1, 2022, from https://insete.gr/wp-content/uploads/2020/04/Περιφέρεια-Κρήτης.pdf

INSETE. (2020). Institute of the association of Greek tourism enterprises. *Region of Crete Annual report on competitiveness and structural adjustment for the year 2019.* Retrieved June 1, 2022, from https://insete.gr/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/21-01_Crete-1.pdf

Hellenic Chamber of Hotels. (2020). *Greece Hotel Capacity 2019—By Region—Prefecture—Island.* Retrieved June 18, 2021, from https://www.grhotels.gr/wp-content/uploads/2020b/02/2019-Campings_regions.pdf

Jagels, M. G., & Coltman, M. M. (2004). *Hospitality management accounting.* Wiley.

NSAG. (1983). *Tourism Statistic Year 1981.* National Statistical Agency of Greece.

Papadeas, P. (2015). *Administrative accounting.* Hellenic Academic Libraries Association. Retrieved June 1, 2021, from https://repository.kallipos.gr/pdfviewer/web/viewer.html?file=/bitstream/11419/2449/1/00_master_document.pdf

Papanikos, G. (2001). *Regional analysis of the Greek hotels.* Research Institute for Tourism.

Pié, L., Bonillo, I., Barcelo, J., & Fabregat-Aibar, L. (2019). Analysis of some economic-financial ratios to analyze the financial crisis in five-star hotels in Barcelona and Madrid. *Intangible Capital, 15*(2), 99–113. https://doi.org/10.3926/ic.1361

Singh, A. J., & Schmidgall, R. S. (2002). Analysis of financial ratios commonly used by US lodging financial executives. *Journal of Retail & Leisure Property, 2*(3), 201–213. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.rlp.5090210

Stavrou, S. (1984). *The tourism growth in Greece in the period 1964–1982.* Greek national Tourism Organization). Department of Research and Studies.

Tinkelman, D. P. (2015). *Introductory accounting*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315665801

Tourna-Germanou, E. (2015). Analysis of financial statements—Decision making. In E. Tourna-Germanou (Ed.), *Financial accounting* (pp. 290–312). Hellenic Academic Libraries Association. Retrieved June 1, 2021, from https://repository.kallipos.gr/handle/11419/959

Velissariou, E. (1999). Tourismus and Wirtschaft-Bilanz der ökonomischen Entwicklung. In S. Lennartz (Ed.), *Tourismus auf Kreta. Bensberger Protokolle, 93.*

Velissariou, E. (2006). Criteria of quality in hotel accommodations. Measurements in the Greek Hospitality. In *24th EuroCHRIE Conference "In search for excellence for tomorrow's Tourism, Travel and Hospitality"*.

Walker, J. R., & Walker, J. T. (2014). Introduction to hospitality management. Pearson Education Limited. Retrieved June 1, 2021, from https://www.pearson.com/us/higher-education/program/Walker-Introduction-to-Hospitality-Management-Plus-My-Lab-Hospitality-with-Pearson-e-Text-Access-Card-Package-5th-Edition/PGM334782.html

How Can We Measure the "Success of Change Management?" An Exploratory Factor Analysis in a Sample of Employees in the Greek Hotel Industry

Dimitrios Belias and Nikolaos Trihas

Abstract Change management is an important process of hotel management, due to the continuous changes which occur on the environment of the hospitality sector which brings the need to access all dimensions of change management, including the perception that the hotel employees have on change success. For this reason, this paper has assessed an instrument of research which measures the change success as perceived from hotel employees. The instrument of research derives from the work of (Zand & Sorenson, 1975). The pilot test took place in a sample of 372 hotel employees from 4-to 5-star hotels in Greece. The result indicated that the employees' perception is the following: the hotel's management is not ready to implement with success a change program. The research, also, indicated that the dimension "Success of change: Favorable forces for unfreezing" was not acceptable from the exploratory factor analysis, and it requires amendments for future researches.

Keywords Change success · Hotels · Greece · Change management · Pilot test
JEL Classifications L1 · M1 · M16

1 Introduction

Tourism is a sector which is subject to continuous changes based on the relative changes which occur in the environment of the organization (Rossidis et al., 2021a, 2021b). However, there are several issues to consider when studying change management in tourism literature and more precisely in the hospitality sector. More precisely,

D. Belias (✉) · N. Trihas
Department of Business Administration and Tourism, Hellenic Mediterranean University, Heraklion, Greece
e-mail: dbelias@uth.gr

N. Trihas
e-mail: ntrihas@hmu.gr

D. Belias
Department of Business Administration, University of Thessaly, 41500 Larisa, Geopolis, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_2

the hospitality sector is sensitive to changes which occur on its macro-environment. A recent example is the COVID-19 pandemic where the hotels on most of the well-known destinations had to close down for long time and to open with the necessary changes which will ensure the safety of the employees and of the guests from the virus (Kim & Han, 2022). This brings the need to have a careful examination of the changes process and to take measures in order to avoid a possible failure (Belias et al, 2019).

Indeed, many change management programs end in a failure due to many reasons, including resistance from the employees (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). This brings the need to examine in depth what are the perceptions of the hotel employees regarding a change management process. It is important to mention that success in change management in hospitality depends to a large extent on the commitment of the employees toward the change program (Belias & Trihas, 2022a, 2022b, 2022c). Having in mind that COVID-19 has brought numerous and radical changes on the way that the hotels operate (Belias et al., 2021, 2022b; Kim & Han, 2022; Ntalakos et al., 2022; Rotich & Deya, 2021), it is important to understand when the employees regard the change process as a successful one. This concept is important since on many cases what constitutes a "successful change" is perceived different by the managers and different by the employees (Oakland & Tanner, 2007). Indeed, it seems that the focus of many researches is given on the perspective of success from the view of the managers while the perceptions of the employees are often undermined (Chaudhry, 2018). For this reason, this paper aims to focus on the perception of employees on what constitutes a successful change in the hospitality sector. As a result, this paper will focus on the development of an instrument of research on this field. Hence, this publication will make a literature review on the change management and what constitutes a successful change; then it will develop and test the appropriate instrument of research.

2 Literature Review

2.1 The Concept of Change Management

Change could be defined as the transition from one state of affairs to another one (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Lozano, 2018). Change has an effect on individuals or groups of individuals or even entire populations. It is a process of releasing the individual from a specific network of conditions and gradually repositioning him in a new one. This automatically presupposes two things: firstly, the recognition by the individual or group of the need for change, and secondly, the decision to bring about the change, in other words the initiative (Weiner, 2009).

Focusing on the case of organizational change, one could distinguish two fields of its application. The first field refers to the production system (in this case excluding the human factor). This has to do with the production process, the way it is organized, the production capacity and the technology used. Each of the above factors is potentially subject to change. The second field refers exclusively to the human factor and what is related to it, e.g., pay and incentive systems, promotion system, etc. Of course, it is not excluded that an attempted change affects both of these factors at the same time, so things are even more complicated there (Hayes, 2022).

Beyond the scope, an important component in the study of any change is its scope. Thus, a change can be wide-ranging and concern the entire organization and all its individual departments/units (e.g., new work regulations for staff/introduction of a new information system) or it can be limited in scale as well as be limited to individual departments or working groups etc. (e.g., change of address of a department) (Weiner, 2009).

On the case of hospitality management, change is associated to a large extend with changes on two key issues: the personnel and the procedures. The hospitality sector concerns the delivery of services while its success derives from the perceived quality of services which leads to customer satisfaction. Hence, the essence of change management in the hospitality sector lies on being able to focus on the personnel and on the procedures that the personnel will have to adopt so as to serve in an effective manner (Belias et al, 2020a, 2020b). For this reason, it is important to understand and measure the perceptions of the personnel on what constitutes a successful change, something which will help the change agents to work together with the employees in order to produce a change process which will be regarded from all of the change stakeholders as a successful change.

2.2 The Concept of Change Success—Empirical Evidence and Measurements Used

As it is claimed on the introduction of this publication, the concept of successful change has not been well examined, especially from the side of the employees (Lapointe & Rivard, 2007). Chaudhry (2018) has made a literature review on change management on information systems on various sectors. The author has noticed the lack of research on this field, and also, he has distinguished the success factors on organizational and personal factors. The personnel will regard a change management program as successful not only in terms of meeting the organizational targets with explicit changes (such as increase on sales or improvements on the workplace climate) but also with changes on personal level (such as feeling more comfortable with the effects of the change).

Stouten et al (2018) have made a meta-analysis on various publications related with successful change management. They argue that a significant issue is to find out what can be the conceptual framework for measuring change as well as its success. For this reason, they recommend the theory of planned behavior (TPB) in order to analyze change success with multilevel factors; in addition, TPB is able to understand individual behavior in relation with change management. Stouten et al (2018) have also argued that most of the researches in change management do not focus on human behavior and what the employees perceived as "successful change." Furthermore, Goodman and Rousseau (2004) have noticed that even when there is a research on the change management, there are many limitations which are ignored such as the time gap between the change and the observations made on the success or not of a change program. On some cases, the observations were made right after the end of the change program which did not provide enough time on the respondents to understand and assess the impact of the change, while on some other cases, the observations have occurred long after the implementation of the change which meant that the respondents may have forgotten the change and its impact on themselves and on the company.

All of the above-mentioned researches have mentioned the lack of empirical findings. Indeed, there are few empirical findings. An example of empirical finding is made from Allen et al (2007) who have made a qualitative research based on 25 interviews with employees from a range of organizations. The aim of this research was to understand how the employees are facing the uncertainties of change management and what they perceive as a successful one, when they feel that they are well informed and that the change has create a positive workplace climate where they are free to discuss their feelings and to propose modifications on the change process. Also, this paper examined if the employees trust the agents, who are responsible for the changing plan, to be capable to successfully implement an organizational change. In other words, when there is a high level of trust toward the change agents, then there are higher chances to perceive the changes as successful. Allen et al (2007) have concluded with the view that there is a need for the development of a conceptual framework for the measurement of change success with emphasis on the impact of communication on the perception of employees on what constitutes a successful change. Communication is also an important factor for Kavanag and Ashkanasy (2006) who have made a mix of quantitative and qualitative research on three public sector organizations. The researches have used a close end questionnaire to a sample of 152 employees along with 12 in-depth interviews. The outcome of this research indicates that a major change, such as merger of organizations, is the fact that employees will perceived a change as successful not only from the explicit outcome—such as improve on the performance of the organization—but also it is affected by leadership style and culture (Belias et al., 2016, 2018). Kavanag and Ashkanasy (2006) have argued that transformational leadership and a family-oriented culture are regarded as creating the necessary climate for perceiving the change as positive. Also, communication and transparent change processes not only have a positive effect on the perception that the employees have for the potentials of the change, but also, they are drivers which are reducing the chances of having resistance on the change process. The authors have mentioned the fact that there is a lack of empirical evidence as well as the need for a conceptual framework on this issue. Burnes and Jackson (2011) have studied success on change management from a different perspective which is the fact that successful change is when there is an alignment between the value system of the employees and the change intervention.

For this reason, the authors have used Graves' Emergent Cyclical Levels of Existence Theory in a sample of 150 employees along with a focus group made of 8 participants from two companies. The outcome of this research indicated the alignment of the value system of the employees with the value system of the change. Besides that, the authors believe that the lack of a certain conceptual framework on this issue creates a gap on understanding the reasons behind the fail/success of a change.

Regarding the hospitality sector, there is not any instrument of research which will assess the perception of the employees on what constitutes success change. Ponting (2020) argues that since the hotels are companies which depend on the ability of the employees to deliver effective services which will meet the customers' expectations, then the well-being of the employees is related with the organization. Therefore, an organizational change which is not affecting the well-being of the employees is expected to be considered as successful by the employees. Ponting (2020) has made a qualitative research in a sample of 19 employees from a major American chain of hotels. The outcome indicates that the changes must focus on strengthening the organizational goals, and also, they have to go deep into the mindset of the employees and to understand what are the perception toward well-being and then to take the necessary steps so as not to undermine it during the changes (Belias et al., 2020b; Koutiva et al., 2020). Ponting (2020) argues that there has not been any similar research, so he calls for further research on this field. In a different approach, Senbeto and Hon (2020) have mentioned that some of the factors which will have an impact on the perception of change success are employee's resilience and their level of readiness to cope with the consequences of success. Their research has taken place among a sample of 357 employees and 125 supervisors on major hotels. The outcome of the research indicates that significant role has the preparation made by the hotel management in order to leverage the morale of the employees, communicate the changes made, and allow them to take part on the decision making process. Similar outcome has derived from the empirical research made by Belias et al. (2022a, 2022b) with special emphasis on the impact of transformation leadership on effective change. Senbeto and Hon (2020) argue that a well-prepared change will strengthen the resilience and readiness of the employees who will feel comfortable with the changes, and hence, there are more chances to feel that the change was met with success from their own perspective.

Overall, according to the empirical researches which examined, there is a sense that there is a lack of understanding of what constitutes a successful change as regarded from the side of the employees. The concept has been examined from different perspectives (such as the alignment between the concept of the change and the values of the employees (Burnes & Jackson, 2011)), the preparation of the change process (Senbeto & Hon, 2020), effective communication, and trust toward the change agent (Allen et al., 2007) as well as leadership style (Belias et al, 2022a, 2022b). Besides, there is consensus, regarding the lack of a conceptual framework and also the lack of a research instrument which will measure the perceptions of the employees toward change success. Of course, it is important to mention that the perceptions of what constitutes success can be subjective and different for each employee (Ponting, 2020). For those reasons, the authors will develop an instrument of research and they will test it in a pilot study.

3 Methodology

3.1 The Participants

The present pilot study focused on promoting the implementation of change management through the perception of the employees concerning their views regarding the success of the change process. The research has taken place in a sample of hotel employees in four- and five-star hotels. The reason for choosing this type of hotels is due to the fact that they have an organized management and human resource policy. The authors have developed the questionnaire on google forms, and it was distributed with the assistance of the management of the hotels that they were willing to provide support on the research; also, the distribution of the questionnaire was made through social media and other sources. Hence, this was snowball sampling procedure. The research of Belias and Trihas (2022b) included "372 adult participants, and there were no missing values (valid sample $N = 372$). Almost all participants had Greek nationality (97.8%, $N = 364$); 2.2% had Albanian nationality ($N = 8$). The marginal majority were males (51.1%). Ages varied, with 10.8% below 30 years, 28.5% between 31 and 40 years, 34.9% between 41 and 50 years, and with 25.8% aged over 50 years old. The educational level of the participants also varied, where 21.5% had completed secondary education, 25.8% had gone to professional college, 17.2% had attended technological college, 16.1% had received a Bachelor's degree, 17.7% had received a Master's degree, and six participants had received a Ph.D. degree (1.6%)" (Belias and Trihas, 2022b). The majority of participants were married (59.1%), with 29% being single and 11.8% being divorced.

"Half of the sample were permanently employed (50%), while the remaining 50% were employed seasonally. A large proportion of the sample had work experience of over 20 years (43.5%); 17.7% had work experience of 16–20 years; 14% had experience between 11–15 years; 16.1% had experience of 6–10 years; and 8.6% had work experience up to 5 years. Participants' years of employment in the specific hotel varied between 1–2 years (15.1%), 3–5 years (20.4%), 6–10 years (24.2%), 10–20 years (20.4%), and over 20 years (19.9%). The large proportion of the sample had been employed in the hotel industry in general for more than 5 years (overall 86%). More specifically, 3.2% had worked in the industry for 1–2 years, 10.8% had done so for 3–5 years, 25.3% had worked in the industry for 6–10 years, 26.3% had worked in the industry for 10–20 years, and 34.4% had been employed in the hotel industry for over 20 years" (Belias and Trihas, 2022c). Approximately, one in two participants were employed at either 4-star hotels (51.1%) or 5-star hotels (48.9%).

Table 1 presents the demographic and work characteristics of the sample.

Table 1 Demographic and work characteristics of the sample

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	190	51.1
	Female	182	48.9
Age	<30	40	10.8
	31–40	106	28.5
	41–50	130	34.9
	>50	96	25.8
Marital status	Single	108	29.0
	Married	220	59.1
	Divorced	44	11.8
Work experience (in years)	0–5	32	8.6
	6–10	60	16.1
	11–15	52	14.0
	16–20	66	17.7
	>20	162	43.5
Type of employment	Permanent position	186	50.0
	Seasonal position	186	50.0
Years of employment in specific hotel unit	1–2	56	15.1
	3–5	76	20.4
	6–10	90	24.2
	10–20	76	20.4
	>20	74	19.9
Years of employment in the hotel industry	1–2	12	3.2
	3–5	40	10.8
	6–10	94	25.3
	10–20	98	26.3
	>20	128	34.4
Level of education	Secondary education	80	21.5
	Professional college (IEK)	96	25.8
	Technological college (ATEI)	64	17.2
	Bachelor's (AEI)	60	16.1
	Master's	66	17.7
	Ph.D.	6	1.6
Do you work in a 5-or 4-star hotel?	5 stars	182	48.9
	4 stars	190	51.1

The main sections of the hotel that participants worked in were the following: Almost one in two participants were either owners/members of the hotel board (23.1%), or members of management (22.6%). Approximately, one in four participants worked in reception (18.8%), while 9.1% worked as accountants or in the hotel office; another 9.1% worked in housekeeping; 7% worked in the kitchen; and 4.8% worked in the restaurant. These and the remaining hotel areas of work are presented in Table 2.

The locations of the hotels where participants worked varied, with most hotels situated in Dodecanese (23.7%), Cyclades (16.7%), the Ionian Sea (13.4%), Chalcidice (12.4%), Thessaly and the Sporades Islands (7.5%), and Crete (6.5%). All the locations are presented in Table 3.

Table 2 In which section of the hotel do you work?

	Frequency	Percent
Owner-member of board	86	23.1
Management	84	22.6
Reception	70	18.8
Accounting-offices	34	9.1
Housekeeping	34	9.1
Kitchen	26	7.0
Restaurant	18	4.8
Bar	10	2.7
General duties (Gardening-landscaping)	6	1.6
Public relations	4	1.1
Total	372	100.0

Table 3 Location of hotel unit where you work

	Frequency	Percent
Dodecanese	88	23.7
Cyclades	62	16.7
Ionian	50	13.4
Chalcidice	46	12.4
Thessaly/sporades	28	7.5
Crete	24	6.5
Attica	18	4.8
North Aegean	18	4.8
Peloponnese	18	4.8
Thessaloniki	16	4.3
Epirus	4	1.1
Total	372	100.0

3.2 The Instrument of Research

The author has already mentioned the lack of an instrument of research. An attempt to develop an instrument has been made from Zand and Sorensen (1975). Their instrument of research was distributed among 154 management scientists where the factors leading in a success or a failure during a change were identified. Factors, such as recognition from management, the openness of the management system to discuss with the employees the difficulties of the change process and confidence toward the management, were considered as important factors for determining the success of a change. The questionnaire had a high level of reliability ($\alpha = 0.925$); meanwhile similar researches such as Ginzberg (1981), Keen (1981) and Muneeba (2019) have used the same instrument and they have discussed its usefulness. For this reason, the authors have decided to use this instrument which relies on the most important theory on change management which is Kurt Lewin's theory on social change (Zand & Sorenson, 1975).

As it is claimed, the questionnaire relies on the work of Lewin's (1951) three-step model, and its associated "dynamic field analysis," i.e., the analysis of the forces in favor of change and those against it, is the most important theory of organizational change upon which many others based on later. According to Lewin, the process of change consists of three main stages:

(a) The first of these includes the "unfreezing" or otherwise the disengagement from the status quo which is often aided by external factors, such as the reduced performance of the organization, the recognition of existing problems, and the appearance opportunities that need exploitation. It is the stage in which the gap between the existing and the desired situation is identified, the necessity of change is accepted, and action is taken in this direction. That is why the role of the organization's management must be strong and supportive, aiming at conveying the vision of change and alleviating any employee concerns, by providing the necessary assurances to maintain their job security.

(b) The second stage, called "movement," includes all the actions necessary to move from the old situation to the new one as well as the identification and specialization of the new attitudes, values, and behaviors. In other words, during this stage, employees learn precisely their position in the new work environment being formed, as well as their resulting obligations with the result that, based on more specific data, they make the inevitable comparisons with the old situation and show the first reactions of resistance to the extent that they are affected by the changes. Due to the particular sensitivity of this intermediate stage, (which is called (Eldor & Tippet, 2002) and "The Death Valley of Change" because it is between the initial equilibrium and the new equilibrium, often involving conditions of fluidity, ambiguity and chaos), the intensive participation of the organization's management through an organized active management of change (which will include all available motivation tools) is deemed necessary in order to shape and promote the new processes and values as quickly and efficiently as possible, as well as to be accepted by all employees.

(c) The third stage is called "refreezing" or re-commitment and includes all the necessary actions to consolidate—"lock"—the new situation and preserve its functionality and effectiveness, such as communicating the change, evaluating performance, rewarding successes, and providing appropriate training. The degree of involvement of the administration in this stage is just as important as the two previous ones, in order to consolidate the new situation and to avoid relapse phenomena; unfortunately, in reality, it is more limited because the changes have now been initiated to a significant extent. From the above, it can be seen that in this model, the importance of homeostasis (homeostasis), i.e., the tendency of each organism to return to its original point of balance or otherwise to its original state, is decisive. That is why according to Lewin, the equilibrium point should move (unfreeze, shift) to a different point from the original one and then stabilize again at the new desired point (refreeze).

Based on the above mode, Zand and Sorensen (1975) have developed their instrument of research. The current research developed a 5-point Likert scale from 1: "This sentence accurately depicts what is happening" to 5: "This sentence depicts exactly the opposite of what is happening."

There are nine questions favorable to these powers, and there are nine corresponding questions unfavorable to these powers.

Questions:

1. **Success of change: Favorable forces for unfreezing**
   (1) The problem that has arisen significantly affects the future of the business.
   (2) The study of the problem starts from the upper management of the company.
   (3) Department managers are persuaded to redefine their former positions.

2. **Success of change: Favorable forces for moving**
   (1) The company's top management is afraid to get involved in big business plans.
   (2) The head of each department considers it a chore to achieve a project (plan).
   (3) The head of each department is not easily trusted.

3. **Success of change: Favorable forces for moving**
   (1) The supervisor examines alternative action plans.
   (2) The company's top management advises on the various options available.
   (3) Different alternatives than the existing ones are proposed.

4. **Success of change: Unfavorable forces for moving**
   (1) The study of the problem was completed in a much shorter time than it should have been.
   (2) The head of each department did not deliver the data requested.
   (3) The head of each department did not want to be trained.

5. **Success of change: Favorable forces for refreezing**
   (1) The new solution to the problem is better than the existing one.
   (2) The head of each department uses this new solution in order to deal with other work issues.
   (3) After implementing this solution, positive feedback was given to supervisors.
6. **Success of change: Unfavorable forces for refreezing**
   (1) We cannot easily distinguish the positive effects of this solution.
   (2) The company's top management did not encourage all parts of the company to implement this solution.
   (3) After the solution was implemented, no attempt was made to reinforce the new processes.

3.3 The Statistics Used on the Research

The principal aim of this research is to assess the reliability of an instrument of research which relies on the Zand and Sorensen (1975) on assessing the success of a change management program among a sample of hotel employees. The pilot research has used Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient so as to assess internal consistency of the instrument of research. Regarding the assessment of the relationship between the factors used, this research has conducted an exploratory factor analysis, which employed principal component analysis, and aimed to minimize data loss, by using primarily unrotated factor analytic models, or in some instances, Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization. Furthermore, this research has employed measures of sampling adequacy (Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin) and sphericity (Bartlett's chi-square) which were utilized in order to examine how well the data fit the factor analyses. Cronbach reliability tests were conducted for all scales of the examined instrument of research.

4 Results

4.1 Explanatory Factor Analysis

Regarding the analysis of the instrument of research, a series of six factor analyses were performed. In the first analysis, data did not have a good fit in the factor analytic model [KMO = 0.51, Bartlett's $\chi^2(3) = 59.22, p < 0.0001$], while the model extracted one factor, "Favorable forces for unfreezing," which explained a low 46.61% of the observed variance. In the unrotated solution, item 2 was removed due to low factor loading. Factor one was comprised of only two items, Items 1 and 3, and these items had low and not acceptable Cronbach reliability ($a = 0.54$, 2 items). Therefore, the dimension "Success of change: Favorable forces for unfreezing" was not accepted in the analysis, and it was removed.

The second analysis had good data fit [KMO = 0.71, Bartlett's $\chi^2(3) = 454.00$, $p < 0.0001$] and the model extracted one factor, termed "Unfavorable forces for unfreezing," which explained 75.59% of the observed variance. All items loaded successfully onto the first factor and were retained. In the third factor analysis, there was good data fit [KMO = 0.72, Bartlett's $\chi^2(3) = 391.28$, $p < 0.0001$], and the model extracted one factor, "Favorable forces for moving," which explained 69.00% of the observed variance. All items were retained. The fourth factor analysis model had good data fit [KMO = 0.70, Bartlett's $\chi^2(3) = 403.95$, $p < 0.0001$] and extracted a single factor, "Unfavorable forces for moving," which explained 68.07% of the observed variance. All items were retained in the final factor structure.

The fifth analysis showed good data fit [KMO = 0.73, Bartlett's $\chi^2(3) = 543.24$, $p < 0.0001$], and one factor was extracted, "Favorable forces for refreezing," which explained 79.06% of observed variance. Finally, the sixth analysis had good data fit [KMO = 0.71, Bartlett's $\chi^2(3) = 573.71$, $p < 0.0001$], and the model extracted a single factor, termed "Unfavorable forces for refreezing," which explained 78.87% of observed variance (Table 4).

Table 4 Factor solution for "Success of change"

Factor	Items	Loadings
Success of change: unfavorable forces for unfreezing	Item 4	0.837
	Item 5	0.875
	Item 6	0.895
Success of change: favorable forces for moving	Item 7	0.686
	Item 8	0.889
	Item 9	0.899
Success of change: unfavorable forces for moving	Item 10	0.644
	Item 11	0.907
	Item 12	0.897
Success of change: favorable forces for refreezing	Item 13	0.874
	Item 14	0.906
	Item 15	0.887
Success of change: unfavorable forces for refreezing	Item 16	0.839
	Item 17	0.908
	Item 18	0.915

4.2 Reliability, Mean Scores, and Normality of Extracted Factors

Table 5 indicates the key results of the questionnaire. On the aspects of the reliability of the scales and subscales, they all have an acceptable reliability as resulting from Cronbach Alpha reliability test. The overall reliability of the instrument of research is also acceptable ($\alpha = 0.774$). The scales acceptable values vary from $\alpha = 0.866$ (Unfavorable forces for refreezing) to $\alpha = 0.0754$ (Unfavorable forces for moving).

On the aspect of the answers given, overall, the employees on the hotels have the perception that the current conditions on the hotels do not favor a change management program. Actually, the scores on favorable forces for moving and favorable forces for refreezing are pretty low since the answers are closer to "This sentence depicts exactly the opposite of what is happening"; hence, the way that the companies implement

Table 5 Reliability of scales and subscales, mean scores, and normality of dimensions of the study

	Cronbach reliability	N of items	Mean	Std. deviation	Kolmogorov–Smirnov*		
					Value	d	p
Success of change: 2. Unfavorable forces for unfreezing	0.835	3	2.56	1.130	0.153	372	0.000
Success of change: 3. Favorable forces for moving	0.769	3	3.58	0.843	0.134	372	0.000
Success of change: 4. Unfavorable forces for moving	0.754	3	2.54	0.984	0.102	372	0.000
Success of change: 5. Favorable forces for refreezing	0.867	3	3.74	0.804	0.119	372	0.000
Success of change: 6. Unfavorable forces for refreezing	0.866	3	2.52	1.056	0.150	372	0.000
Success of change total	0.774	18	3.04	0.516	0.097	372	0.000

the changes does not favor a successful change. Overall, it seems that it is not easy to shift toward change but also to refreeze the current situation.

5 Conclusions

This paper has conducted a pilot study in order to assess an instrument which will examine the perception of the hotel employees on whether changes were successful or not. The answers given from the questionnaire, which relies on the work of Zand and Sorensen (1975), indicate that the hotel's management in Greece does not have the capacity to enable a change process. Based on the recent researches made by Ponting (2020) and Senbeto and Hon (2020), it seems that the hotel managers have to communicate in an effective manner the changes and also help the employees to understand what is the new situation and how it will help them. Furthermore, there may be a lack of transformational leadership, since the participants answer that the managers do not consult the employees. Belias et al. (2020a, 2020b) have argued that consulting the employees and allowing them to take part on the decisions made it will strengthen their commitment and trust toward the management of the company, something which applies also for the changes. This means that the management of hotels must re-examine its approach and relation with the employees during the change process by allowing them to participate on the decisions making and facilitate a change process which will make the employees to feel comfortable with this.

Regarding the instrument of research, the reliability analysis indicated that it has an acceptable level of reliability. Nonetheless, the exploratory factor analysis indicated that the dimension "Success of change: Favorable forces for unfreezing" was not accepted in the analysis, and it was removed. This is a major limitation for this instrument of research. For this reason, it is suggested that surely it can be used for future research, but the dimension "Success of change: Favorable forces for unfreezing" would have to be subject of a careful examination and modification of its item in order to test it again and check if it is acceptable. Besides, since this is a pilot test, the same questionnaire can be used to a wider sample so to cross-check this result; future research may indicate that this dimension is acceptable.

For future research, it is strongly suggested to re-examine the instrument of research so to evaluate how the dimension "Success of change: Favorable forces for unfreezing" will be re-examined and assessed so as to produce an instrument of research which will be acceptable. Also, future research can use qualitative research in order to understand the reasons which justify the answers given by the respondents.

References

Al-Haddad, S., & Kotnour, T. (2015). Integrating the organizational change literature: A model for successful change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 28*(2), 234–262.

Allen, J., Jimmieson, N. L., Bordia, P., & Irmer, B. E. (2007). Uncertainty during organizational change: Managing perceptions through communication. *Journal of Change Management, 7*(2), 187–210.

Belias, D., & Koustelios, A. (2014). The impact of leadership and change management strategy on organizational culture. *European Scientific Journal, 10*(7), 451–470.

Belias, D., Velissariou, E., Koustelios, A., Varsanis, K., Kyriakou, D., & Sdrolias, L. (2016). The role of organizational culture in the Greek higher tourism quality. In A. Kavoura, et al. (Eds.), *Strategic innovative marketing* (pp. 65–70). Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-56288-9_10

Belias, D., Velissariou, E., & Rosidis, I. (2018). The contribution of HRM on the development of effective organizational culture in hotel units—The case of Greek hotels. In V. Katsoni, & K. Velander (Eds.), *The cultural and sustainability synergies* (pp. 603–618). Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-03910-3_40

Belias, D., Velissariou, S., Papailias, S., Manta, F., & Rossidis, I. (2019). Change management-obstacles and perspectives for the integration of changes in Greek public hospitals. *Advances in Management and Applied Economics, 9*(2), 37–50.

Belias, D., Vasiliadis, L., & Mantas, C. (2020a). The human resource training and development of employees working on luxurious hotels in Greece. In *Cultural and tourism innovation in the digital era* (pp. 639–648).

Belias, D., Vasiliadis, L., & Velissariou, E. (2020b). Internal marketing in tourism: The case of human resource empowerment on Greek hotels. In V. Katsoni & T. Spyriadis (Eds.), *Cultural and tourism innovation in the digital era.* Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36342-0_43

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Vasiliadis, L., & Papademetriou, C. (2021). Utilizing strategic tools in hotel industry in the era of pandemic. In *Proceedings of the 37th International Business Information Management Association (IBIMA)* (pp. 3272–3278). ISBN: 978-0-9998551-6-4

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022a). The relationship of the change context with the resilience of hotels: Proposal for a Research Framework on Hotels during the Covid-19 crisis. In *European Conference on Research Methodology for Business and Management Studies* (Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 22–30).

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022b). The concept and the measurement of strategic leadership. The case of Greek hotel employees with the use of exploratory factor analysis. In *Proceedings of the 18th European Conference on Management Leadership and Governance* (pp. 16–25). https://doi.org/10.34190/ecmlg.18.1.919. ISBN: 978-1-914587-57-3, ISSN: 2048-9021

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022c). Investigating the readiness for organizational change: A case study from a hotel industry context/Greece. *Journal of Tourism & Management Research, 7*(2), 11–106. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7090337. ISSN: 2149-6528

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Papademetriou, C., & Mantas, C. (2022a). Job satisfaction as affected by types of leadership: A case study of Greek tourism sector. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 23*(2), 299–317.

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., & Valeri, M. (2022b). Tourism in crisis: The impact of climate change on the tourism industry. In M. Valeri (Ed.), *Tourism risk* (pp. 163–179). Emerald Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-80117-708-520221012

Burnes, B., & Jackson, P. (2011). Success and failure in organizational change: An exploration of the role of values. *Journal of Change Management, 11*(2), 133–162.

Chaudhry, S. (2018). Managing employee attitude for a successful information system implementation: A change management perspective. *Journal of International Technology and Information Management, 27*(1), 57–90.

Eldor, P. D., & Tippett, D. (2002). The "Death Valley" of change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 15*(3), 273–291.

Ginzberg, M. J. (1981). Early diagnosis of MIS implementation failure: Promising results and unanswered questions. *Management Science, 27*(4), 459–478.

Goodman, P. S., & Rousseau, D. M. (2004). Organizational change that produces results: The linkage approach. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 18*(3), 7–19.

Graetz, F., & Smith, A. C. (2010). Managing organizational change: A philosophies of change approach. *Journal of Change Management, 10*(2), 135–154.

Hayes, J. (2022). *The theory and practice of change management*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Kavanagh, M. H., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2006). The impact of leadership and change management strategy on organizational culture and individual acceptance of change during a merger. *British Journal of Management, 17*(S1), 81–103.

Keen, P. G. (1981). Information systems and organizational change. *Communications of the ACM, 24*(1), 24–33.

Kim, J. J., & Han, H. (2022). Saving the hotel industry: Strategic response to the COVID-19 pandemic, hotel selection analysis, and customer retention. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 102*, 103163.

Koutiva, M., Belias, D., Nietos, I. F., & Koustelios, A. (2020). The effects of workplace well-being on individual's knowledge creation outcomes: A study research among hotel employees. In A. Kavoura, E. Kefallonitis & P. Theodoridis (Eds.), *Strategic innovative marketing and tourism*. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36126-6_118

Lapointe, L., & Rivard, S. (2007). A triple take on information system implementation. *Organization Science, 18*(1), 89–107.

Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science*. Harper and Row.

Lozano, R. (2018). Proposing a definition and a framework of organisational sustainability: A review of efforts and a survey of approaches to change. *Sustainability, 10*(4), 1157.

Muneeba, A. (2019). Effect of spiritual intelligence on effective change management: A review of selected researches. *Electronic Research Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities, 1*, 30–47.

Ntalakos, A., Belias, D., Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2022). Effect of Covid-19 on the tourism industry: Opportunities and threats in Covid-19 era. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Finance, Economics, Management and IT Business* (pp. 107–114). ISBN 978-989-758-567-8, ISSN 2184-5891

Oakland, J. S., & Tanner, S. (2007). Successful change management. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, 18*(1–2), 1–19.

Ponting, S. S. A. (2020). Organizational identity change: Impacts on hotel leadership and employee wellbeing. *The Service Industries Journal, 40*(1–2), 6–26.

Rossidis, I., Belias, D., & Vasiliadis, L. (2021a). Strategic human resource management in the international hospitality industry. An extensive literature review. In V. Katsoni & C. van Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world*. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_22

Rossidis, I., Belias D., & Vasiliadis L. (2021b). Strategic hotel management in the "Hostile" international environment. In V. Katsoni & C. van Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world*. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_21

Rotich, N. C., & Deya, J. (2021). Influence of change management practices on performance of hotels in Nairobi County Kenya. *Sciences, 11*(7), 1653–1671.

Senbeto, D. L., & Hon, A. H. (2020). Market turbulence and service innovation in hospitality: Examining the underlying mechanisms of employee and organizational resilience. *The Service Industries Journal, 40*(15–16), 1119–1139.

Stouten, J., Rousseau, D. M., & De Cremer, D. (2018). Successful organizational change: Integrating the management practice and scholarly literatures. *Academy of Management Annals, 12*(2), 752–788.

Weiner, B. J. (2009). A theory of organizational readiness for change. *Implementation Science, 4*(1), 1–9.

Zand, D. E., & Sorensen, R. E. (1975). Theory of change and the effective use of management science. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 532–545.

The Efficiency of the Spa Enterprises in Slovakia

Radka Marčeková and Mária Grausová

Abstract The paper investigates and compares the efficiency of seventeen spa enterprises in Slovakia. It focuses on a country with a large number of natural healing resources and spas. However, many of the spas are not financially stable. Based on measuring the efficiency of companies, it is possible from the business-economic point of view to examine and express the value effect, which is the goal of the tourism business. In order to measure the efficiency of the selected spa enterprises, the data envelopment analysis (DEA) was applied. The aim of the paper is to examine the efficiency of selected spa enterprises in Slovakia, by data envelopment analysis, and determine the most efficient and the least efficient spa enterprises. The paper uses the radial output output-oriented efficiency DEA model under variable returns to scale assumptions and the Malmquist productivity index. This paper refers to the application of DEA analysis to tourism business praxis.

Keywords Efficiency · Data envelopment analysis · Spa enterprises

JEL Classifications I15 · L83 · O13

1 Introduction

There are 1,122 thermal and mineral water springs registered on Slovakia's territory. They contribute to the country's competitive advantage and increase its potential for the development of spa tourism. The efficiency of spa enterprises that provide spa tourism services expresses whether they can optimally use their resources to achieve their own goals and satisfy the demand of visitors. It is important to be able to quantify their effectiveness. We distinguish between the utility and the value effect

R. Marčeková (✉)
Department of Tourism, Faculty of Economics, Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Banská Bystrica, Slovakia
e-mail: radka.marcekova@umb.sk

M. Grausová
Department of Quantitative Methods and Information Systems, Faculty of Economics, Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Banská Bystrica, Slovakia

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_3

of spa enterprises. The utility effect is obtained by visitors to natural healing spas and spa treatment centers (when using the services provided), and spa enterprises benefit from the value effect. The value effect is the goal of doing business in tourism. That is the reason why we decided to examine it in selected spa enterprises in Slovakia. All enterprises in Slovakia and abroad drive to provide competitive services. They strive to be competitive in terms of quality and price. Through their activities, they thus affect the competitiveness of the entire country. The value effect can be measured in spa enterprises based on their performances for visitors in natural indicators (number of visitors in their accommodation facilities, number of overnight stays, number of used spa procedures, etc.),or value indicators (these are most often expressed by the relationship between revenues and own costs).

2 Literature Review

Many academic authors are devoted to spa tourism. Many use the term spa without reference to its etymology. Based on the analysis of the development of the term spa in the available academic literature, we assume that the term spa developed from the acronym of the Latin phrase "sanitas per aquaam." We can loosely translate its meaning as health achieved through the water. We note that even in academic literature there is an inaccurate transcription of the Latin phrase, and it is possible to find its forms, e.g., in the wording sanitas per acqua (Bastos, 2011), sanitas per aquas (van Tubergen & van der Linden, 2002), sanita per aquis (Back et al., 1995), salud per aqua (Lund, 2000), or salus per aqua (Frost, 2004). In all cases, however, the meaning of the translation is the same, as health, which is achieved through water (Mihók & Marčeková, 2022).

The spa industry in Slovakia belongs to the health sector, but its services also contribute to the development of tourism. For spa services, people travel outside their usual place of residence in order to improve or maintain their health. It develops thanks to the primary offer (the existence of natural healing sources) and the secondary offer of tourism (spa facilities in the destination). There are 31 state-recognized spa enterprises in operation in Slovakia (as of July 14, 2022). In Slovakia, natural healing waters and climatic conditions, suitable for healing, are among the legally recognized natural healing sources. Other natural resources that are used in spa tourism (peloids, medicinal gases) are classified as medical devices according to the currently valid legislation because they need to be modified before being applied to a spa visitor.

The financial situation of the Slovak spa enterprises was analyzed by the authors Derco and Pavlišinová (2016). Derco (2017) investigated the impact of the method of payment for spa care (self-payers, insured persons of health insurance enterprises) on the financial situation and stability of Slovak spa enterprises in the years 2013–2016, based on three selected financial ratio indicators. The author came to the conclusion that the financial stability of Slovak spa enterprises is based on the balance between groups of visitors (self-payers, insured persons of health insurance companies). At the same time, he states that the stagnant volume of sales of spa enterprises is one of the main factors that cause the achievement of below-average financial results in many spa enterprises.

The evaluation of the financial position of Slovak spa enterprises using selected multidimensional methods and subsequently multidimensional scaling was also researched by Litavcová et al. (2018). The basic evaluation criteria were selected financial ratio indicators—profitability of assets, the profitability of sales, share of personal expenses in sales, and ratio of added value to net turnover. Jenčová et al. (2019) followed up on the results of the study. The authors examined the financial and economic analysis of spa enterprises in the area using the ranking method, the scoring method, the standardized variable method, and the distance from the fictitious average method, using the same financial ratio indicators. Čabinová and Gallo (2021) evaluated the financial situation of Slovak spa companies for the years 2015–2019, compiled their ranking, and identified spa enterprises with the best and the worst financial situation. Their research sample was 21 spa enterprises. They used the method of the complex financial situation with selected most used financial ratios that evaluate each important area of the financial situation (liquidity, activity, indebtedness, profitability, cost efficiency, efficiency, and cash flow). Extreme values were identified using the Hampel test with test statistics according to Reichenbär and Einax (2011). They performed the calculations in the R programming language. Based on the quantified standardized score, they created a ranking of Slovak spa enterprises for the years 2015–2019.

The term efficiency is used in sectorally different areas of human activity (e.g., agriculture, healthcare, public administration, financial and banking sectors, etc.) and is often confused with the term productivity. Productivity is also among the partial indicators of the enterprise's performance. Due to its strengths, the data envelopment analysis is therefore used in the evaluation of the efficiency of enterprises in various spheres of the national economy.

Efficiency can be measured in several ways. In addition to statistical and econometric methods, we can also measure it by analyzing data envelopes DEA (data envelopment analysis), the foundations of which were elaborated by Farrell (1957) when he proposed a measure of efficiency. Other authors (Charnes et al., 1978) later refined it and deepened it by using linear programming. Currently, DEA models are used and applied by authors in various areas of the economy (Asmild et al., 2004; Casu et al., 2004; Cooper et al., 2000; Emrouznejad et al., 2008 and others). The efficiency assessment of Slovak spa businesses can be found in Čabinová et al. (2021), where the input-oriented DEA model was used with three inputs and two outputs. The input variables were the following: the total number of beds, total number of employees, and the number of medical workers; the output variables in the form of indicators were the following: utilization of bed capacity and the number of clients treated. Kordić and Šimundić (2017) used the output-oriented BCC-O model with the number of doctors and the number of beds as inputs, while the number of patients as the only output.

3 Methodology

The scientific goal of the article is to examine the efficiency of selected (seventeen) spa enterprises in Slovakia. The paper answers the research question: How effectively can spa enterprises create a value effect in Slovakia? In the article, we use the analysis of data packages.

DEA models are among the non-parametric methods that allow evaluating the efficiency of the investigated units (in our case, spa tourism enterprises) individually. They divide the ensemble into efficient and inefficient units. They identify the source of inefficiency and determine the method that the inefficient units under study should apply if they want to become efficient.

The basic set consists of thirty-one spa enterprises that have a permit to operate based on the applicable legislation and are available on the website of the Ministry of Health of the Slovak Republic (www.health.gov.sk, 2021).

The sample set, which we obtained through the available selection, consists of the spa businesses, which publish the necessary inputs (COGS—the cost of goods and services sold, personal costs) and outputs (revenues from the sale of services and goods) in the database of the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic FinStat Premium for the years 2015–2020.

We are thus devoted to the investigation of operational efficiency in a time series that takes into account the period before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, and we compare the achieved efficiency of enterprises in the years 2015–2019, but also in 2020, which was significantly affected by the pandemic.

We examine the efficiency of seventeen evaluated decision-making units (DMU), which are the selected spa enterprises in Slovakia (Table 1).

We work with the output-oriented, radial, super-efficiency DEA model under variable returns to scale assumption (in Cooper et al. (2000) denoted as SuperRadial-O-V model). Thanks to the use of super-efficiency, we can compare even efficient enterprises to each other. In the case of inefficient DMU, it is necessary to focus on recommendations for changing output indicators (revenues from the sale of services and goods), with the unchanged value of input indicators. Due to the limited scope of the article, we will focus exclusively on the comparison of enterprises according to their achieved efficiency scores in the period under review and according to their ranking based on the results achieved.

DEA-Solver-Pro Version 15.b software (Cooper et al., 2000) is used for every computation related to the DEA technique.

The statistical dependence of both input and output indicators was supported by the results of correlation analysis in each examined year (Table 2).

Since all values were higher than 0.7, we conclude that there are very strong, almost full direct linear dependencies between all monitored indicators within the evaluated decision-making units.

Table 1 Location and characteristics of selected DMU in Slovakia

DMU	Characteristics	District
KP01	Spa enterprise located in northeastern Slovakia, broad indication focus, emphasis on the treatment of internal diseases. It uses natural healing water	Bardejov
KP02	Spa enterprise located in northeastern Slovakia. Emphasis especially on the treatment of internal and movement diseases. It uses natural healing water	Bardejov
KP03	Spa enterprise located in central Slovakia, a large number of sunny days, emphasis especially on the treatment of movement disorders. It uses natural medicinal water	Prievidza
KP04	Sap enterprise located in northeastern Slovakia in a national park, focused mainly on the treatment of skin diseases, diseases of the respiratory tract, and the musculoskeletal system. It uses natural healing water and a healing climate	Kežmarok
KP05	Enterprise is located in central Slovakia in an area with an exceptionally high number of sunny days. They use a unique healing water source, found in only two places in Europe. Focused mainly on the treatment of movement and cardiovascular diseases	Krupina
KP06	Spa enterprise is located in central Slovakia and uses an extremely high-quality source of healing water with a unique composition. Focused on the treatment of internal and movement diseases	Krupina
KP07	Spa enterprise located in central Slovakia, known mainly for the treatment of movement disorders. Also aimed at the treatment of nervous, digestive, and other diseases. It uses natural healing water	Zvolen
KP08	Spa enterprise is located in a national park in Central Slovakia. It uses a healing climate	Liptovský Mikuláš
KP09	Spa enterprise is located in a clean mountain environment in central Slovakia and is known for treating women's diseases. It uses natural healing water and a healing climate	Ružomberok
KP10	Spa enterprise located in northwestern Slovakia. Focused on the treatment of respiratory and movement diseases. It uses natural medicinal water	Púchov
KP11	Big spa enterprise, which is also known in the international environment. It uses natural healing water and is aimed at treating diseases of the musculoskeletal system	Piešťany
KP12	Spa enterprise owned by the state and aimed at treating cardiovascular diseases. It uses natural healing water	Zvolen
KP13	Small spa enterprise located in the south-eastern part of Slovakia, focuses on the treatment of respiratory diseases, diseases of the musculoskeletal system, occupational diseases, and diseases of civilization	Košice
KP14	Spa enterprise is located in western Slovakia, one of the oldest and most visited spas in Slovakia. It uses natural healing water. It is aimed at treating diseases of the musculoskeletal system	Trenčín

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

DMU	Characteristics	District
KP15	Spa enterprise focused on the treatment of diseases of the musculoskeletal system located in western Slovakia. It uses natural healing water	Trenčín
KP16	Climatic spa enterprise located in a national park in the north of Slovakia. Focused mainly on the treatment of respiratory diseases	Poprad
KP17	Spa enterprise aimed at the treatment of cardiovascular and nervous diseases. Located in the north of Slovakia. It uses natural healing water	Stará Ľubovňa

Source Own processing (2022)

Table 2 Correlation matrix of dependence between parameters on the input and output side of selected spa enterprises in Slovakia in 2015–2020

Investigated variables	COGS (input)	Personnel costs (input)	Revenues from the sale of services and goods (output)
COGS (input)	1	0.99038 (2015) 0.96915 (2016) 0.96513 (2017) 0.97542 (2018) 0.97461 (2019) 0.97927 (2020)	0.98933 (2015) 0.97778 (2016) 0.97653 (2017) 0.98094 (2018) 0.98245 (2019) 0.98334 (2020)
Personnel costs (input)	0.99038 (2015) 0.96915 (2016) 0.96513 (2017) 0.97542 (2018) 0.97461 (2019) 0.97927 (2020)	1	0.99398 (2015) 0.99207 (2016) 0.99269 (2017) 0.99302 (2018) 0.99075 (2019) 0.97866 (2020)
Revenues from the sale of services and goods (output)	0.98933 (2015) 0.97778 (2016) 0.97653 (2017) 0.98094 (2018) 0.98245 (2019) 0.98334 (2020)	0.99398 (2015) 0.99207 (2016) 0.99269 (2017) 0.99302 (2018) 0.99075 (2019) 0.97866 (2020)	1

Source Own calculation (2022)
Note (0;0.3]—weak direct linear dependence; (0.3;0.7]—medium strong linear dependence; (0.7;1)—strong linear dependence; 1—full direct linear dependence)

4 Results

The average efficiency value of selected spa enterprises in 2015 was 95.8%, and the lowest efficiency rate was 50.7%. According to the result of the Super BCC-O model, the most efficient enterprise was KP11, which achieved an efficiency of up to 352.8%. It would be on the efficient frontier even if it reduced sales by 71.7%, or if its COGS costs increased by 71% and personnel costs by 72.9%. In 2015, in addition to it, four other enterprises were efficient, namely KP02, KP03, KP04, and KP08, which worked more than 100% efficiently. In 2015, the least efficient enterprises were KP12, which achieved only 50.7% efficiency, KP15 with 52.6% efficiency, and KP6 with 59.7% efficiency. It is clear from the results that in 2015, five enterprises worked on the efficient frontier. Other enterprises were not efficient. The least efficient enterprise (KP12) would need to increase its sales by more than 97% to become efficient.

The average efficiency value of the selected spa enterprises in 2016 was slightly lower and reached a value of 95.6%. The lowest rate of efficiency fell to 47.3%. According to the result of the Super BCC-O model, the most efficient enterprise was again KP11, which achieved 300.5% efficiency. He would be on the efficient frontier even if he reduced his sales by 66.7%, or if its COGS costs increased by 53.2% and personnel costs by 69.1%. In 2016, in addition to it, four other enterprises were efficient, as in 2015, KP02, KP03, KP04, and KP08, which worked more than 100% efficiently. The least efficient enterprises in 2016 were again KP12, which achieved only 47.3% efficiency, KP15 with 51.9% efficiency, and KP6 with 59.1% efficiency. In 2016, five enterprises worked on the efficient frontier. Other enterprises were not efficient enough. The least efficient enterprise (KP12) would need to increase its sales by more than 111% to become efficient.

The average efficiency value of the selected spa enterprises in 2017 reached 94.8%, and the lowest efficiency rate was 50.04%. According to the result of the Super BCC-O model, the most efficient enterprise was KP11, which achieved 295.3% efficiency. It would be on the efficient frontier even if it reduced sales by 68.1%, or if his personal expenses increased by 38.71%. In 2017, in addition to it, five other enterprises were efficient: KP01, KP02, KP03, KP04, and KP08 which worked with more than 100% efficiency. In 2017, the least efficient enterprises were KP15, which achieved only 50% efficiency, KP12 with 50.3% efficiency, and KP13 with 51.3% efficiency. It is clear from the results that in 2017, six enterprises worked on the efficient frontier. Other businesses were not efficient. The least efficient enterprise (KP15) would need to increase its sales by more than 99% to become efficient.

The average efficiency value of the selected spa enterprises in 2018 was 92.8%. The lowest efficiency rate was only 48.3%. According to the result of the Super BCC-O model, the most efficient enterprise was again KP11, which achieved 266.8% efficiency. It would be on the efficient frontier even if it reduced sales by 62.5%, or if its COGS were to increase by 53.4% and personnel costs by 67.6%. In 2018, in addition to it, five other enterprises were efficient: KP01, KP02, KP03, KP04, and KP08 which worked with more than 100% efficiency. In 2018, enterprises KP12, KP15, and KP13 were the least efficient. KP12 achieved efficiency at the level of 48.3%, KP15 at the level of 49.2%, and KP13 at the level of 57.5%. In 2018, six enterprises worked on the efficient frontier. Other enterprises were not efficient enough. The least efficient enterprise (KP12) would need to increase its sales by up to 107% to become efficient.

In 2019, the evaluated enterprises worked with an average efficiency of 95.9%. There was a huge to abysmal difference between the most and the least efficient enterprise, as the lowest efficiency value reached 47.6%. The ranking results did not change significantly and again the most efficient was KP11, which worked efficiently at 159%. It means that even if its sales fall by 59%, or COGS costs still increased by 55.7%, and personnel costs by 65.9%, it would still be on the efficient frontier. In addition to him, we can consider another six enterprises as efficient: KP01, KP02, KP03, KP04, KP07, and KP08. In 2019, enterprises KP12, KP15, and KP06 were the least efficient. KP12 achieved efficiency at the level of 47.6%, KP15 at the level of 50.3%, and KP06 at the level of 59.9%. According to the results of DEA Solver, in 2019, seven enterprises worked on the efficient frontier. The other ten enterprises were not efficient enough. The least efficient enterprise (KP12) would need to increase its sales by up to 110.3% to become efficient. We can thus observe that its efficiency decreases more and more every year.

Despite the pandemic crisis, 2020 did not bring significant surprises either. The average value of efficiency remained almost unchanged (94.2%). The lowest efficiency value reached only 44.0% and the highest value was 203.8%. The ranking results were maintained and again the most efficient was enterprise KP11, which worked efficiently at 203.8%. It means that even if its sales fell by 50.9% or COGS costs still increased by 51.9%, and personnel costs by 61.8%, it would still be on the efficient frontier. In addition to KP11, we can consider eight other enterprises as efficient: KP01, KP02, KP03, KP04, KP05, KP07, KP08, and KP09. The least efficient enterprises in 2020 were again KP12 (44.0%), KP15 (51.4%) and KP06 (58.0%).

Table 3 shows the achieved efficiency score of the investigated spa enterprises in the years 2015–2020.

The results of the survey pointed to a relatively stable position of the examined spa enterprises in terms of evaluating their operational efficiency in the years 2015–2020 (Table 4).

Even though many enterprises were able to work efficiently even in 2020, the development of the change in the efficient frontier, calculated by the cumulative Malmquist index, showed a significant deterioration of the efficient frontier in 2020 (Graph 1).

The decrease in the efficient frontier could be influenced by the measures that were taken in the country due to the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic. Enterprises were closed for several weeks, and for several months, they could only accept spa guests who took part in the stay on the recommendation of a doctor.

5 Conclusion

We investigated the efficiency of seventeen spa enterprises in Slovakia because we were interested in whether spa enterprises can optimally use their resources to achieve their own goals and satisfy the demand of visitors. We found that the average value of the efficiency of the selected spa enterprises was between 88.39 and 94.8% in the years 2015–2020. Many enterprises could not optimally use resources to achieve

Table 3 Efficiency scores of spa enterprises in Slovakia in 2015–2020

DMU	Score in % (2015)	Score in % (2016)	Score in % (2017)	Score in % (2018)	Score in % (2019)	Score in % (2020)	Average score
KP01	87.3	99.6	108.6	105.3	108.0	105.2	102.3
KP02	103.8	111.3	111.8	107.2	106.4	109.4	108.3
KP03	122.1	120.6	109.6	107.8	111.2	100.9	112.0
KP04	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
KP05	79.8	80.9	91.4	87.1	94.1	101.6	89.1
KP06	59.7	59.1	62.7	59.7	59.9	58.0	59.9
KP07	64.5	63.6	64.9	68.5	100.0	100.0	76.9
KP08	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
KP09	81.9	82.4	82.1	83.0	95.2	116.1	90.1
KP10	89.5	94.5	94.2	96.7	98.5	98.3	95.3
KP11	352.8	300.5	295.3	266.8	243.4	203.8	277.1
KP12	50.7	47.3	50.3	48.3	47.6	44.0	48.0
KP13	68.1	68.4	51.3	57.5	67.0	63.8	62.7
KP14	77.0	90.6	86.5	87.4	89.5	96.1	87.8
KP15	52.6	51.9	50.0	49.2	50.3	51.5	50.9
KP16	72.5	83.7	81.3	81.0	84.0	83.8	81.1
KP17	66.0	70.9	71.9	71.6	75.4	68.5	70.7

Source Own calculation (2022)

their goals. There were large to abysmal differences between efficient and inefficient enterprises. The most efficient was KP11, and the least efficient was KP12. Even though some enterprises were able to work efficiently in 2020, the development of the efficiency margin, which was calculated by the cumulative Malmquist index, showed a significant decrease in the efficiency margin in 2020, which was caused by the measures taken to mitigate the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic.

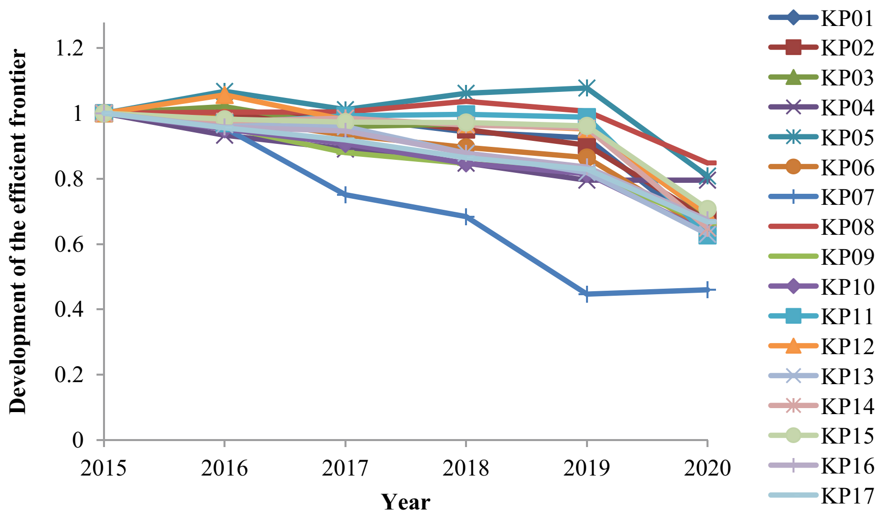
We used the radial, output-oriented Super BCC-O model, which assumes variable returns to scale. Its advantage is that it can compare all efficient, but also all inefficient enterprises. He can rank them according to how efficient they are. We note that the efficiency does not change with the choice of model, it remains the same, only the recommendations change. Therefore, it always depends on the decision of the management of the spa enterprise, which is evaluated as inefficient, which recommendations (oriented to inputs or outputs) it considers more acceptable in a specific situation and decides to apply.

We consider it necessary to emphasize that when evaluating spa enterprises, their profitability is not the only important attribute, but especially their success in terms of their primary function, which is the provision of treatment. However, the social importance of spa enterprises is not taken into account when evaluating their operational efficiency based on the available data. If data were available, e.g., on the number of performed procedures, or the number of treated persons, the added value

Table 4 Ranking of spa enterprises in terms of their operational efficiency in 2015–2020

DMU	Ranking (2015)	Ranking (2016)	Ranking (2017)	Ranking (2018)	Ranking (2019)	Ranking (2020)	Average rank
KP01	7	6	4	4	3	4	5
KP02	3	3	2	3	4	3	3
KP03	2	2	3	2	2	6	3
KP04	4	4	5	5	5	7	5
KP05	9	11	8	9	10	5	9
KP06	15	15	14	14	15	15	15
KP07	14	14	13	13	5	7	11
KP08	4	4	5	5	5	7	5
KP09	8	10	10	10	9	2	8
KP10	6	7	7	7	8	10	8
KP11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
KP12	17	17	16	17	17	17	17
KP13	12	13	15	15	14	14	14
KP14	10	8	9	8	11	11	10
KP15	16	16	17	16	16	16	16
KP16	11	9	11	11	12	12	11
KP17	13	12	12	12	13	13	13

Source Own calculation (2022)



Graph 1 Development of the change in the efficient frontier of selected spa enterprises in Slovakia in 2015–2020 calculated by the cumulative Malmquist index. *Source* Own calculation(2022)

of DEA analysis could be a comprehensive assessment of spa enterprises, not only an assessment of their operational efficiency.

Acknowledgements The project presented in this article is supported by the Scientific Grant Agency of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of Slovak Republic VEGA, grant number "1/0368/20 Sharing economy as an opportunity for the sustainable and competitive development of tourist destinations in Slovakia."

References

Asmild, M., Paradi, J. C., Aggarwall, V., & Schaffnit, C. (2004). Combining DEA window analysis with the Malmquist index approach in a study of the Canadian banking industry. *Journal of Productivity Analysis, 21*(1), 67–89.

Back, W., Landa, E. R., & Meeks, L. (1995). Bottled water, spas, and early years of water chemistry. *Groundwater, 33*(4), 605–614. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6584.1995.tb00316.x

Bastos, C. (2011). From sulphur to perfume: Spa and spa at Monchique Algarve. *Anthropology & Medicine, 18*(1), 37–53. https://doi.org/10.1080/13648470.2010.525872

Čabinová, V., & Gallo, P. (2021). Vývoj a súčasný stav finančnej situácie slovenských kúpeľných podnikov. [The development and current state of the financial situation of Slovak spa companies]. *Ekonomická revue cestovného ruchu, 54*(1), 24–33.

Čabinová, V., Gallo, P., Pártlová, P., Dobrovič, J., & Stoch, M. (2021). Evaluating business performance and efficiency in the medical tourism: A multi-criteria approach. *Journal of Tourism and Services, 12*(22), 198–221.

Casu, B., Girardone, C., & Molyneux, P. (2004). Productivity change in European banking: A comparison of parametric and non-parametric approaches. *Journal of Banking & Finance, 28*(10), 2521–2540.

Charnes, A., Cooper, W., & Rhodes, E. (1978). Measuring the efficiency of decision making units. *European Journal of Operations Research, 2*(1), 429–444.

Cooper, W. W., Seiford, L. M., & Tone, K. (2000). *Data envelopment analysis: A comprehensive text with models, applications, references and DEA-Solver software*. Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Derco, J. (2017). Impact of health care funding on financial position of Slovak medical spas. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal, 65*(3), 376–380.

Derco, J., & Pavlišinová, D. (2016). Financial position of medical spas—The case of Slovakia. *Tourism Economics, 23*(4), 867–873. https://doi.org/10.5367/te.2016.0553

Emrouznejad, A., Parker, B., & Tavares, G. (2008). Evaluation of research in efficiency and productivity: A survey and analysis of the first 30 years of scholarly literature in DEA. *Socio-Economic Planning Sciences, 42*(3), 151–157.

Farrell, M. J. (1957). The measurement of productive efficiency. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series A (general), 120*, 253–290.

Frost, G. (2004). The spa as a model of an optimal healing environment. *Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine, 10*(Supplement 1), 85–92. https://doi.org/10.1089/1075553042245908

Jenčová, S., Vašaničová, P., & Petruška, I. (2019). Financial position of the Slovak spa companies. In *16th Annual International Scientific Conference on European Financial Systems* (pp. 218–225).

Kordić, L., & Šimundić, B. (2017). The efficiency of health tourism infrastructure in Croatia. In *The 11th International Days of Statistics and Economics* (pp. 734–743).

Litavcová, E., Jenčová, S., Košíková, M., & Šenková, A. (2018). Implementation of multidimensional analytical methods to compare performance between spa facilities. In *12th International Days of Statistics and Economics* (pp. 1070–1079).

Lund, J. W. (2000). “Taking the waters”, Introduction to balneology. *GHC Bulletin, 21*(3), 2–5. ISSN: 0276-1084

Mihók, P., & Marčeková, R. (2022). Considerations on spa, spa tourism and some related terms definitions and positioning. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness*. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2022.2107819

Reichenbär, M., & Einax, J. W. (2011). *Challenges in analytical quality assurance*. Springer.

Van Tubergen, A., & Van Der Linden, S. (2002). A brief history of spa therapy. *Annals of the Rheumatic Diseases, 61*(3), 273–275. https://doi.org/10.1136/ard.61.3.273

How Can We Measure the "Resistance to Change"? An Exploratory Factor Analysis in a Sample of Employees in the Greek Hotel Industry

Dimitrios Belias and Nikolaos Trihas

Abstract The hotel sector is vulnerable on changes. These changes usually occur on the hospitality's sector environment. That leads on frequent changes which occur within the hotels. One of the side effects of this is the resistance on change. The current literature indicates that although resistance on change is something which is highly expected to occur, still there is a lack of empirical research as well as an instrument of research. The purpose of this paper is to develop an instrument of research on resistance to change among hotel employees; more precisely on four-star and five-star hotels in Greece. The research instrument was developed by (Oreg, Journal of Applied Psychology 88:680–693, 2003); it is made by four variables (routine seeking, emotional reaction to change, short-term focus and cognitive rigidity). The participants of the sample were 372 hotel employees. The findings indicate that the questionnaire was reliable, though the cognitive rigidity dimension as marginally accepted by the Cronbach Alpha test. The outcome of the pilot study indicated that the resistance to change can be avoided if the hotel management tries to implement a well programmed change where the employees will participate on the decisions. Regarding the instrument of research, the exploratory factor analysis indicated that item 15 ("I often change my mind") and item 18 ("My views remain constant over time") would both have to be removed. In addition, in the unrotated factor solution, item 18 also showed multicollinearity; however, it could be retained in analysis, because its loading into the first factor was adequately higher (>0.3). Hence, the instrument of research can be used on future research, though it may need some modifications regarding the cognitive rigidity variable.

D. Belias (✉) · N. Trihas
Department of Business Administration and Tourism, Hellenic Mediterranean University, Heraklion, Greece
e-mail: dbelias@uth.gr

N. Trihas
e-mail: ntrihas@hmu.gr

D. Belias · D. Belias
Department of Business Administration, University of Thessaly, 41500 Larisa, Geopolis, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_4

Keywords Resistance on change · Hotels · Pilot study · Change management · Resistance to change

JEL Classification L1 · M1 · M16

1 Introduction

Hotel management has become the epicenter of many changes during the past years (Skagias et al., 2021; Rossidis et al., 2020). More precisely, during the past years, there have been many changes, such as the fiscal crisis, the pandemic of COVID-19 (Ntalakos et al., 2022a, 2022b), which along with changes on the consumers behavior and patterns have brought the need to operate hotels with high levels of change readiness and the ability to adopt into the current climate of uncertainty (Belias & Trihas, 2022a, 2022b, 2022c, 2022d). This means that the concept of change management has emerged during the past years as one of the most important concepts for understanding hotel operations and management, while at the same time, this is a concept where there is a lack of empirical research (Rossidis et al., 2021a, 2021b). Hence, there is a need not only to provide more empirical data but also to focus on developing the related instruments of research which will help the academia and the practitioners to better understand the concept of change management in the hospitality sector.

Change management has many dimensions and concepts, including resistance to change. Resistance to change leads on many cases to change management failure (Esteves & Alves, 2013). One sector where there is a high resistance to change is the hospitality sector, as indicated by various researches (By & Dale, 2008; Klonek et al., 2014; Senbeto et al., 2021); this often occurs due to lack of leadership (Belias et al., 2022) but mostly due to lack of understanding the dynamics and the negative effects that the inability to deal with resistance to change has on the change management process (Klonek et al., 2014).

The concept of measuring and analysis resistance to change in the leisure and hospitality sector has not only limited research but also a lack of an instrument of research (Belias & Trihas, 2022a, 2022b, 2022c, 2022d). For this reason, the purpose of this paper is to develop an instrument of research on resistance to change among hotel employees; more precisely on four-star and five-star hotels in Greece. The contribution of this paper is the fact that it will develop, through a pilot study, an instrument of research that can be used in a later stage on more extended researches. This will help the academia and the practitioners to understand the concept of resistance to change in the hospitality sector so as to take the appropriate steps to deal with this phenomenon.

2 Literature Review

2.1 The Concept of Resistant to Change

On most of changes which occur in management, the change agents put more emphasis on the technical components of the process, neglecting the human factor, which plays a decisive role in the success of the change implementation (Belias et al., 2020a, 2020b; Rossidis et al., 2021b). Employees' attitudes reveal their feelings, thoughts, and behaviors toward change. The factors that effect on these attitudes are: (a) the information employees have about the change, and (b) their psychological state (Dzwigol et al., 2019). According to Petty and Wegener (1998), attitude toward change is defined as the overall evaluation of an employee toward change. While changes are an important factor in the sustainability of the organization, the introduction of a change within the organization causes reactions caused by the employees. The employees' reaction to the change may be overt, (resulting a reduction in production), or it may not be overt, in which case it takes the form of pretexts for the worker. Hence, resistance to change is a negative attitude with cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions. However, these attitudes are not always in agreement (Piderit, 2000). Some people believe that a change can threaten their working status; on the contrary, other people perceive that a change is an opportunity to cooperate with all their powers; finally, some others are indifferent to the occuring of a change (Oreg et al., 2011). Metselaar (1997) defines resistance to change as "*A negative attitude against the implementation of changes in the structure or administrative processes of the enterprise manifested by efforts on the part of the members of the enterprise to prevent or slow down the change process*."

Dzwigol et al. (2019) regard the resistance to change as a phenomenon that affects the change process, delaying or slowing down its initiation, hindering its implementation, and increasing its costs. At the same time, they see the resistance to change as an attempt on the part of the workers to maintain the existing situation (status quo). But why do employees show negative feelings when facing with a change? An answer to this question can be given if anyone sees businesses as groups of people (Jex, 2002).

According to Jex (2002), employees are social individuals of habit, and thus, they feel great comfort and security in routine conditions. Therefore, even the idea of change causes worry and anxiety. People develop habits that surround their behavior and have difficulty changing those habits regardless of whether the changes are positive or negative. This general principle also applies in the workplace (Jex, 2002). Even if employees are unhappy with the current conditions in a company, they continue to resist change by the fear that it will make the existing conditions worse (Koutiva et al., 2020). The fear of new conditions or changes stems from a general belief that the changes will have a negative impact; this fear is also increased by a general fear of the unknown (Oreg et al., 2011).

Regarding the conditions that can lead on resistance to change, it is understood that when change creates uncertainty, resistance to change is the most likely reaction.

In essence, the resistance is not against the change itself, but against the loss of gains and rights that employees believe will come with the change (McCabe, 2020). Resistance to change can thus be described as a series of actions on the part of employees (recipients of change) with the aim of slowing down or even terminating the intended change (Long & Spurlock, 2008).

Any change in the organization's culture not only means a long-term change in the philosophy of the management of the organization (Ntalakos et al., 2022b; Viterouli & Belias, 2021) but also the adoption of supportive organizational structures, which will support the promoted changes (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2001). For this reason, organizations must always stay focused on identifying the reasons which may lead in resistance during a change.

2.2 Resistance to Change on the Hospitality Sector—Empirical Findings and Attempts to Measure the Factors that Lead to Resistance to Change

From all the above, it is understood that resistance to change has a crucial role on management. In the case of the tourism and leisure sector, there is a number of researches which indicate how resistance to change occurs and what are its drivers. For example, Okumus and Hemmintgton (1998) have made a research based in a sample of case studies from hotels in the UK. More precisely, they examined hotel employees coming from London, Reading and Oxford; the authors interviewed in total ten hotel managers. The hotels were 3, 4, and 5 stars. The research indicated that there are similarities in change management between the leisure sector and the manufacturing sector. The authors have noticed that there were many researches coming from the manufacturing sector but no research came from the leisure sector. Another finding was that the key barriers and drivers of resistance on change on hotels were: (a) fear, (b) insecurity, and (c) the loss of power along with internal politics. Additional finding was that in many cases the managers do not have certain and well-defined change strategy that the employees would understand it. Furthermore, the customers often react negatively on changes and the recipients of this are the employees (Belias et al., 2017, 2018); hence, the negativity of the customers is transferred upon the employees (Varsanis et al., 2019). For this reason, Okumus and Hemmintgton (1998) argue that there is a need for more empirical findings on this issue; they also argue that there is a need to discriminate the concepts used on manufacturing and other industries from the ones that shall be used in the leisure sector.

Chiang (2010) has made similar research in Taipei among a sample of 320 employees on four and five-star hotels using a close-end questionnaire. The research indicated that resistance is often the outcome of bad communication by the upper layers of the hotel's management. Nonetheless, when the management consults the employees about the upcoming change and keeps them informed, then the chances that the employees would resist are decreasing. Similar findings have been found by Belias et al. (2022) who noted that transactional leadership, which includes the participation of employees in the decision-making process, improves the hotel's performance and resilience on changes. Chiang (2010) notes the need for more research on this field. Moreover, Chiang noted that there is a limitation on his research: he focused only on the relationship between communication and resistance to change, while there are many other factors to consider on the changing process.

Okumus et al. (2017) have examined the potential barriers and resistances which exist on information technology (IT) projects on hotels. The authors have conducted qualitative research which retrieved information by 23 hotel managers using semi-structured interviews. The research indicated that there are various types of barriers which lead in resistance, technical, organizational and personal barriers.

Among the many drivers which can lead on failure for a change management program in a hotel, the authors have noted not only the resistance of employees which is caused by inadequate training, but also the resistance which comes from the customers who are transferring their dissatisfaction to the service providers. Furthermore, the decision makers and the CEOs are sources of resistance since they often regard the changes as costly, and they are trying to resist on changes which regard them as expensive while they often ignore the potential return on investment as deriving from the change. However, the value of Okumus et al. (2017) research is that it was one of the few researchers which provided a specific theoretical and practical implications based on their findings. They are asking for the development of a conceptual framework for research on this field from where an instrument of research will be developed based on the nature of the leisure sector.

An attempt to create a conceptual framework and an instrument of research was developed by Lombard and Zaaiman (2004). Their research occurred among 162 hotel employees from South Africa. Nonetheless, their focus was not to identify the drivers of resistance among the employees of hotels, but they focused on the skills and competences that front office managers must have in order to deal with resistance to change. The outcome indicated that the key competencies that they must have are related with having a sound understanding of the key objectives of the changes as well as to be aware of the needs of the customers and of their subordinates. Nonetheless, despite of the fact that Lombard and Zaaiman (2004) instrument of research had a high level of Cronbach Alpha Coefficient ($a = 0{,}9463$) which indicates the high reliability of the scaler used, the purpose of this paper focused on the skills of the front office managers in order to cope with resistance with change; unfortunately, they did not identify the reasons which lead in resistance of change. Hence, some elements of this instrument can be used, but their research is not similar research with the one examined by this publication.

Atadil and Green (2020) have attempted to understand the nature of resistance to change on hotels by using the social exchange theory. For this reason, they have gathered data from an instrument of research which was answered by 1807 employees on hotels from all over the world. The research indicates an "attitude toward management" scale which occurs during cultural shift within the hospitality sector, but it gives emphasis on the resistance related with cultural shift and not on the overall concept of resistance to change. Regarding the research itself, Atadil and Green (2020)'s questionnaire had a high level of validity, and it indicated that a change process must be accompanied by a cultural shift.

Overall, from the above empirical research, there is an indication that resistance to change is an important issue not only for change management but also for the management of hotels overall. However, almost all the published researches, which are few, indicate that there is not a consensus over which instrument of research to use. For example, Lombard and Zaaiman (2004) along with Atadil and Green (2020) have produced a conceptual framework and instrument of research but they focused on very specific dimensions of resistance, and they did not produced an instrument of research which will overall understand and identify the reasons which lead on resistance.

For this reason, there is a need to develop an instrument of research in respect of understanding the drivers of resistance on change in the hospitality sector.

3 Methodology

3.1 The Participants

The present pilot study focused on promoting the implementation of change management through the contemporary approach of strategic human resource management with a focus on the drivers which lead on resistance to change. For this reason, the pilot research occurred among a sample of employees working on four-star and five-star hotels. The reason for choosing those types of hotels is the fact that they have flexible managerial practices, and they tend to change constantly because of their size and nature; hence, they are more exposed to change management procedures than small hotels (Belias & Trihas, 2022a, 2022b, 2022c, 2022d). According to Belias and Trihas (2022c), the research consisted of "372 adult participants, and there were no missing values (valid sample $N = 372$). Almost all participants had Greek nationality (97.8%, $N = 364$); 2.2% had Albanian nationality ($N = 8$). The marginal majority were males (51.1%). Ages varied with 10.8% below 30 years, 28.5% between 31 and 40 years, 34.9% between 41 and 50 years, and with 25.8% aged over 50 years old. The educational level of the participants also varied, where 21.5% had completed secondary education, 25.8% had gone to professional college, 17.2% had attended technological college, 16.1% had received a Bachelor's degree, 17.7% had received a Master's degree, and six participants had received a Ph.D. degree (1.6%)" (Belias & Trihas, 2022c). Most participants were married (59.1%), with 29% being single and 11.8% being divorced. "Half of the sample were permanently employed (50%), while the remaining 50% were employed seasonally. A large proportion of the sample had work experience of over 20 years (43.5%); 17.7% had work experience of 16–20 years; 14% had experience between 11–15 years; 16.1%

had experience of 6–10 years; and 8.6% had work experience up to 5 years. Participants' years of employment in the specific hotel varied between 1–2 years (15.1%), 3–5 years (20.4%), 6–10 years (24.2%), 10–20 years (20.4%), and over 20 years (19.9%). The large proportion of the sample had been employed in the hotel industry in general for more than 5 years (overall 86%). Specifically, 3.2% had worked in the industry for 1–2 years, 10.8% had done so for 3–5 years, 25.3% had worked in the industry for 6 to 10 years, 26.3% had worked in the industry for 10–20 years, and 34.4% had been employed in the hotel industry for over 20 years" (Belias & Trihas, 2022d). Approximately, one in two participants were employed at either four-star hotels (51.1%) or five-star hotels (48.9%). Table 1 presents the demographic and work characteristics of the sample.

The locations of the hotels where participants worked varied, with most hotels situated in Dodecanese (23.7%), Cyclades (16.7%), the Ionian Sea (13.4%), Chalcidice (12.4%), Thessaly and the Sporades Islands (7.5%), and Crete (6.5%). These locations are presented in Table 2.

3.2 The Instrument of Research

Regarding the first part of the structured questionnaire, the authors of the paper came up with the resistance to change study scale created by Professor Shaul Oreg (Cornell University, University of Haifa). This scale was used in the current research so as to measure the reactions of employees to organizational changes, as well as consumers to new products and job candidates to their first tasks. The scale of resistance to change (Shaul Oreg, 2003) includes 18 questions, which include 4 main factors of resistance to change:

- "Routine seeking" (five questions): It studies the individual's inclination toward routine, with topics such as novelty, arousal levels, old habits (questions 1–5).
- "Emotional reaction to change" (five questions): It refers to the dimensions of "psychological flexibility" and "reluctance to lose control." Elements such as anxiety and worry are included here (questions 6–9).
- "Short-term focus" (five questions): This factor reflects the tendency of some employees to focus on the short-term results of change, neglecting the long-term ones (questions 10–14).
- "Cognitive rigidity" (four questions): This factor deals with the ease and frequency of the person to change his opinion about something (questions 14–18).

These factors can be translated as behavioral, affective, and cognitive dimensions of resistance to change. The behavioral dimension includes the tendency of people to acquire habits (routine seeking). The impulsivity dimension includes two components: the first is the affective reaction factor that captures the degree of stress and embarrassment individuals experience when faced with a change. The second is the extent to which individuals are affected by short-term hardship because of the change, so that they reject a long-term benefit. The cognitive dimension is represented by

Table 1 Demographic and work characteristics of the sample

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	190	51.1
	Female	182	48.9
Age	<30	40	10.8
	31–40	106	28.5
	41–50	130	34.9
	>50	96	25.8
Marital status	Single	108	29.0
	Married	220	59.1
	Divorced	44	11.8
Work experience (in years)	0–5	32	8.6
	6–10	60	16.1
	11–15	52	14.0
	16–20	66	17.7
	>20	162	43.5
Type of employment	Permanent position	186	50.0
	Seasonal position	186	50.0
Years of employment in specific hotel unit	1–2	56	15.1
	3–5	76	20.4
	6–10	90	24.2
	10–20	76	20.4
	>20	74	19.9
Years of employment in the hotel industry	1–2	12	3.2
	3–5	40	10.8
	6–10	94	25.3
	10–20	98	26.3
	> 20	128	34.4
Level of education	Secondary education	80	21.5
	Professional college (IEK)	96	25.8
	Technological college (ATEI)	64	17.2
	Bachelor's (AEI)	60	16.1
	Master's	66	17.7
	Ph.D.	6	1.6
Hotel ranking	5 stars	182	48.9
	4 stars	190	51.1

Table 2 Location of hotel unit where you work

	Frequency	Percent
Dodecanese	88	23.7
Cyclades	62	16.7
Ionian	50	13.4
Chalcidice	46	12.4
Thessaly/sporades	28	7.5
Crete	24	6.5
Attica	18	4.8
North Aegean	18	4.8
Peloponnese	18	4.8
Thessaloniki	16	4.3
Epirus	4	1.1
Total	372	100.0

the "cognitive rigidity factor," which expresses the frequency and ease with which people change their minds. The existence of moderate to high correlations between the factors also illustrates the existence of a general predisposition to resistance to change.

The items used were the following:

Routine seeking (five questions):

(1) I generally consider changes something negative.
(2) I prefer a routine day to a day full of unpredictable events.
(3) I prefer doing the same things to trying new and different things.
(4) When my life shows a stability, I try to find ways to change it.
(5) I'd rather be bored than surprised.

Emotional reaction to change (four questions):

(6) If I were told that there was going to be a change in my workplace, I would feel rather stressed.
(7) When I am informed about changes of plans, I am worried.
(8) When things don't go according to plan, I get disorganized.
(9) If my supervisor changed my work schedule, I would feel uncomfortable, even if it did not affect my salary or working hours.

Short-term focus (five questions):

(10) Changing plans is an obstacle for me.
(11) I often feel uncomfortable with changes that could improve my life.
(12) When someone pressures me to change something, I tend to resist even if the change ultimately benefits me.
(13) I avoid changes that I know they will be good for me.
(14) I do not deviate from my plans.

Cognitive rigidity (cognitive rigidity—four questions):

(15) I often change my mind.
(16) I don't change my mind easily.
(17) Once I have reached a conclusion, I am not likely to change my mind.
(18) My views remain constant over time.

The measurement of resistance to change was calculated using the Likert scale. This scale is considered to be the best tool for such measurements, as it allows the creation of a uniform structure that can be easily consolidated by the respondent, since it has similar possible answers. The Likert scale rating was six points, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Oreg's instrument of research total scale's reliability coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) was 0.92. Alphas for the routine seeking subscale, the emotional reaction subscale, and the short-term focus subscale were all acceptable (0.89, 0.86, and 0.71, respectively), while rigidity subscale was marginally acceptable (0.68). The same instrument has been used in similar researches (Naus et al., 2007; Ohly et al., 2006; Oreg, 2006) which indicated that the reliability test was high, with the exception of rigidity which was marginally accepted. For this reason, this pilot research will test all the four dimensions and will make the necessary changes in order to improve the reliability of this instrument of research.

3.3 Statistical Methods

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the reliability of Oreg's (2003) instrument of research for measuring resistance to change and how it can apply in today's environment in the hospitality industry. The pilot research has used Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient in order to assess internal consistency of the instrument of research. For the study of the relationship between the factors used, this research has conducted an exploratory factor analysis, which employed principal component analysis, and aimed to minimize data loss, by using primarily unrotated factor analytic models, or in some instances, Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization. Furthermore, this research has employed measures of sampling adequacy (Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin) and sphericity (Bartlett's chi-square) in order to examine how well the data fit the factor analyses. Cronbach reliability tests were conducted for all scales of the examined instrument of research.

4 Research Results

4.1 *Reliability, Mean Scores, and Normality of the Extracted Factors*

The research has taken place in a sample of 372 employees of five-star and four-star hotels in Greece. Results in Table 3 showed that all dimensions of the study had acceptable Cronbach reliability, ranging from $\alpha = 0.67$ ("Resistance to change 4: Cognitive rigidity") to $\alpha = 0.89$ (Resistance to change: 2. Emotional reaction), while the resistance to change overall had an acceptable Cronbach reliability of $\alpha = 0.916$. It is important to note that cognitive rigidity has marginal accepted reliability score, and its score is only slightly lower than Oreg's original research in 2003. On the aspect of the means cores, the sample indicates that they do not seem to be always excited with routines; therefore sometimes, they are seeking for changing routines and overall changes. In addition to this, a change which is well organized may bring a positive emotional reaction (e.g., to inform the participants). Nonetheless, the hotel employees seek a stable environment, and they do not tend to seek short-term and sudden changes. Moreover, on the aspect of cognitive rigidity, it seems that the hotel employees often are changing their minds regarding changes. Overall, from the answers given, it seems that the employees avoid sudden changes, while their participation on the changes will minimize a potential risk for resistance during the change.

4.2 *Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Regarding the exploratory factor analysis (Table 4), data showed good fit [KMO = 0.76, Bartlett's $\chi^2(10) = 666.47, p < 0.0001$] and the model extracted one factor, that explained 55.59% of the observed variance. All items loaded into a single factor of resistance to change, named "routine seeking," without data rotation. The data were also fit for the second factor of resistance to change, termed "emotional reaction to change" [KMO = 0.82, Bartlett's $\chi^2(6) = 868.91$, $p < 0.0001$], as well as for the third factor, termed "short-term focus" [KMO = 0.80, Bartlett's $\chi^2(10) = 851.70$, $p < 0.0001$]. Each model extracted a single factor, that explained 75.87% (*emotional reaction to change*) and 61.56% (*short-term focus*) of the observed variance.

The fourth factor of resistance to change, named "cognitive rigidity," had adequate data fit [KMO = 0.76, Bartlett's $\chi^2(6) = 253.70$, $p < 0.0001$] and the initial model extracted two factors explaining 75.88% of observed variance. An unrotated factor solution was used, because Oblimin and Varimax rotation led to the removal of an extra item due to multicollinearity (item 16). In the rotated factor analytic models, items 15 ("I often change my mind") and item 18 ("My views remain constant over time") would both have to be removed. More specifically, item 18 showed multicollinearity between the two factors, while item 15 was the only item along

Table 3 Reliability of scales and subscales, mean scores, and normality of dimensions of the study

	Cronbach reliability	N of items	Mean	Std. deviation	Kolmogorov-Smirnov*		
					Value	df	p
Part 4. Resistance to change: 1. Routine seeking	0.776	5	2.50	1.004	0.090	372	0.000
Part 4. Resistance to change: 2. Emotional reaction	0.894	4	2.72	1.254	0.091	372	0.000
Part 4. Resistance to change: 3. Short-term focus	0.831	5	2.43	1.013	0.139	372	0.000
Part 4. Resistance to change: 4. Cognitive rigidity	0.672	3	3.49	1.026	0.116	372	0.000
Part 4. Resistance to change Total	0.916	18	2.71	0.869	0.082	372	0.000

* *With Lilliefors significance correction*

with item 18 to load into the second factor. In the unrotated factor solution, item 18 also showed multicollinearity; despite this fact, it could be retained in analysis, because its loading into the first factor was adequately higher (>0.3) compared to its loading to the second factor (0.73 vs. 0.41 respectively). Table 4 presents the final factor solution for the four dimensions of "resistance to change."

5 Conclusions

Hotels today must fundamentally change the way they are running in order to survive in the increasingly dynamic environment. In this process of change, it must be established that the company's employees are the most important capital: the intellectual capital of every company. Any organizational change can only be achieved if it is supported by the employees, and if the employees are willing to change. Resistance to change is the most common problem when implementing an organizational change program. So, to understanding why change causes resistance among employees is vital for business. This is vital for the hospitality sector, since the hotels are operating

Table 4 Factor solution for "resistance to change"

Factor	Items	Loadings
Part 4. Resistance to change: routine seeking	Item 1	0.726
	Item 2	0.742
	Item 3	0.884
	Item 4	0.444
	Item 5	0.850
Part 4. Resistance to change: emotional reaction to change	Item 6	0.863
	Item 7	0.862
	Item 8	0.870
	Item 9	0.890
Part 4. Resistance to change: short-term focus	Item 10	0.786
	Item 11	0.908
	Item 12	0.831
	Item 13	0.826
	Item 14	0.512
Part 4. Resistance to change: Cognitive rigidity	Item 16	0.768
	Item 17	0.808
	Item 18	0.732

in a very fragile environment which is subject to many sudden changes. An example is the COVID-19 pandemic which forces the hotels to change many procedures in order to avoid the contamination of their customers and employees.

The pilot research which was made by using Oreg's (2003) questionnaire indicated that a hotel which seeks to reduce the changes of resistance during a change must include the hotel employees on the decision-making process of the change and to make sure that they are well informed. Furthermore, it is important to avoid radical/short-term changes which may violate the routine of the employees. For this reason, the management of hotels must follow a very careful approach on how to design a change management program and he/she must avoid non-programmed changes unless they are necessary. Another finding was the following: although the instrument of research has an acceptable Cronbach reliability of $\alpha = .916$, the "cognitive rigidity" variable seems that it is marginally accepted while the exploratory factor analysis indicates some weaknesses. Hence, it is very important to strengthen this variable in order to develop a highly reliable instrument of research.

Finally it should be noted that the measurement tool, which was used in this research (Oreg, 2003), measures the predisposition of individuals to change. It does not measure their attitude toward specific change programs (mergers, introduction of technology, etc.). For this reason, future research could include a correlation of resistance to change with personality elements or work values as well as further investigation on how the "cognitive rigidity" can improve.

References

Atadil, H. A., & Green, A. J. (2020). An analysis of attitudes towards management during culture shifts. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 86*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.102439

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022a). The relationship of the change context with the resilience of hotels: Proposal for a Research Framework on Hotels during the Covid-19 crisis. In *European Conference on Research Methodology for Business and Management Studies* (Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 22–30).

Belias, D, & Trihas, N. (2022b). Human resource training of front office employees and change management in hospitality sector during crisis. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Finance, Economics, Management and IT Business* (pp. 101–106). ISBN 978-989-758-567-8, ISSN 2184-5891

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022c). The concept and the measurement of strategic leadership. The case of Greek hotel employees with the use of exploratory factor analysis. In *Proceedings of the 18th European Conference on Management Leadership and Governance* (pp. 16–25). https://doi.org/10.34190/ecmlg.18.1.919, ISBN: 978-1-914587-57-3, ISSN: 2048-9021

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022d). Investigating the readiness for organizational change: A case study from a hotel industry context/Greece. *Journal of Tourism & Management Research, 7*(2), 11–106. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7090337, ISSN: 2149-6528

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Papademetriou, C., & Mantas, C. (2022). Job satisfaction as affected by types of leadership: A case study of Greek tourism sector. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 23*(2), 299–317.

Belias, D., Vasiliadis, L., & Velissariou, E. (2020a). Internal marketing in tourism: The case of human resource empowerment on Greek hotels. In V. Katsoni & T. Spyriadis (Eds.), *Cultural and tourism innovation in the digital era*. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36342-0_43

Belias, D., Vasiliadis, L., & Mantas, C. (2020b). The Human resource training and development of employees working on luxurious hotels in Greece. In V. Katsoni & T. Spyriadis (Eds.), *Cultural and tourism innovation in the digital era*. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36342-0_49

Belias, D., Rosidis, I., & Velissariou, E. (2018). Shapting the consumers behaviour who are using Airbnb-The case of airbnb's users in Greece. In V. Katsoni & K. Velander (Eds.), *The cultural and sustainability synergies* (pp. 393–406). Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-12453-3_10

Belias, D., Velissariou, E., Kyriakou, D., Vasiliadis, L, Mantas, C., Sdrolias, L., Aspridis, G., Koustelios, A. (2017). Customer relationship management & social media in Greek tourism. In D. Sakas, D. Nasiopoulos (Eds.), *Strategic innovative marketing* (pp. 59–65). Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-16099-9_8

By, R. T., & Dale, C. (2008). The successful management of organizational change in tourism SMEs: Initial findings in UK visitor attractions. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 10*(4), 305–313.

Chiang, C. F. (2010). Perceived organizational change in the hotel industry: An implication of change schema. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29*(1), 157–167.

Dzwigol, H., Shcherbak, S., Semikina, M., Vinichenko, O., & Vasiuta, V. (2019). Formation of strategic change management system at an enterprise. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 18*, 1–8.

Esteves, R., & Alves, P. (2013). Implementation of an information technology infrastructure library process-the resistance to change. *Procedia Technology, 9*, 505–510.

Huczynski, A., & Buchanan, D. (2001). *Organizational behaviour: An introductory text (instructor's manual)*. Financial Times/Prentice Hall.

Jex, S. M. (2002). *Organizational psychology*. Wiley.

Klonek, F. E., Lehmann-Willenbrock, N., & Kauffeld, S. (2014). Dynamics of resistance to change: A sequential analysis of change agents in action. *Journal of Change Management, 14*(3), 334–360.

Koutiva, M., Belias, D., Nietos, I.F., & Koustelios, A. (2020). The effects of workplace well-being on individual's knowledge creation outcomes: A study research among hotel employees. In A. Kavoura, E. Kefallonitis & P. Theodoridis (Eds.), *Strategic innovative marketing and tourism.* Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36126-6_118

Lombard, C. N., & Zaaiman, J. J. (2004). An empirical evaluation of competency requirements for first-line managers to deal with resistance to change. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 2*(3), 7–15.

Long, S., & Spurlock, D. G. (2008). Motivation and stakeholder acceptance in technology-driven change management: Implications for the engineering manager. *Engineering Management Journal, 20*(2), 30–36.

McCabe, D. (2020). *Changing change management: Strategy, power, and resistance*. Routledge.

Metselaar, E. E. (1997). *Assessing the willingness to change: Construction and validation of the Dinamo*. Free University of Amsterdam.

Naus, F., Van Iterson, A., & Roe, R. (2007). Organizational cynicism: Extending the exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect model of employees' responses to adverse conditions in the workplace. *Human Relations, 60*(5), 683–718.

Ntalakos, A., Belias, D., Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2022a). Organizational culture and group dynamics in the tourism industry. In *Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Tourism Research 2022a* (pp. 286–293). ISBN: 978-1-914587-33-7, ISSN: 2516-3612

Ntalakos, A., Belias, D., Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2022b). Effect of Covid-19 on the tourism industry: Opportunities and threats in Covid-19 era. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Finance, Economics, Management and IT Business* (pp. 107–114). ISBN: 978-989-758-567-8, ISSN: 2184-5891

Ohly, S., Sonnentag, S., & Pluntke, F. (2006). Routinization, work characteristics and their relationships with creative and proactive behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 27*(3), 257–279.

Okumus, F., & Hemmington, N. (1998). Barriers and resistance to change in hotel firms: An investigation at unit level. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 10*(7), 283–288.

Okumus, F., Bilgihan, A., Ozturk, A. B., & Zhao, X. R. (2017). Identifying and overcoming barriers to deployment of information technology projects in hotels. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 30*(5), 744–766.

Oreg, S. (2003). Resistance to change: Developing an individual differences measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(4), 680–693.

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 15*(1), 73–101.

Oreg, S., Vakola, M., & Armenakis, A. A. (2011). Change recipients' reactions to organizational change: A sixty-year review of quantitative studies. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 47*(4), 461–524.

Petty, R. E., & Wegener, D. T. (1998). Matching versus mismatching attitude functions: Implications for scrutiny of persuasive messages. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 24*(3), 227–240.

Piderit, S. K. (2000). Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change. *Academy of Management Review, 25*(4), 783–795.

Rossidis, I., Belias, D., & Aspridis, G. (2020). *Change management and leadership.* Tziolas publications.

Rossidis, I., Belias, D., & Vasiliadis, L. (2021a). Strategic hotel management in the "Hostile" international environment. In *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world* (pp. 325–336). Springer.

Rossidis I., Belias D., & Vasiliadis L. (2021b) Strategic human resource management in the international hospitality industry. An extensive literature review. In V. Katsoni & C. van Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world*. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_22

Senbeto, D. L., Hon, A. H., & Law, R. (2021). Organizational cultures determine employee innovation in response to seasonality: Regulatory processes of openness and resistance. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 10963480211011629*.

Skagias, K., Vasiliadis, L., Belias, D., & Papademetriou, C. (2021). From mass tourism and mass culture to sustainable tourism in the post-covid19 Era: The case of Mykonos. In *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world* (pp. 347–358). Springer.

Varsanis, K., Belias, D., Kakkos, N., Chondrogiannis, M., Rossidis, I., & Mantas, C. (2019). The relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction on luxurious hotels so to produce error-free service. In A. Kavoura, E. Kefallonitis & A. Giovanis (Eds.), *Strategic innovative marketing and tourism*. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-12453-3_8

Viterouli, M., & Belias, D. (2021). True organizational learning culture as a key to unlocking operational performance: A critical review. In *Proceedings of the 37th International Business Information Management Association* (IBIMA) (pp. 648–655). ISBN: 978-0-9998551-6-4

Pricing Strategy for Green Hotel Industry

Flávio Ferreira, Fernanda A. Ferreira, and Cristina Rodrigues

Abstract Holistic health and prevention are increasingly at the center of tourists' decisions. Tourists expect to may continue their health and wellness lifestyles when they are away from home. Hospitality can find in the "health and wellness" sector a good response to the requalification needs for the post-COVID period. In fact, since 1900s, the hospitality niche of health and wellness has been increasing around the world, and it has been an important issue for the profit growth for the hospitality destinations. But what is wellness tourism? The Global Wellness Institute defines wellness tourism as travel associated with the pursuit of maintaining or enhancing one's personal wellbeing. Several hotels have introduced green innovation as the innovation that emphasizes health, safety, and environmental friendliness and implementation of environmental management to ensure ecological wellbeing. One way for hotels to be environmentally friendly is to implement corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives. In this paper, we will study the effects of corporate social responsibility policies in the hotel industry. To do that, we will model a non-cooperative hotel competition using game theory concepts. We recall that game theory is a formal, mathematical discipline that studies situations of competition and cooperation between several involved parties and aims to help us understand situations in which decision-makers interact. The model consists in a competition between a CSR hotel and a state-owned (SO) hotel that set room rates. The choice of room rates can be made either simultaneously or sequentially. Our main result is that the CSR hotel profits more than the SO hotel, regardless of the order of movements.

Keywords Corporate social responsability · Green hospitality · Health and wellness

JEL Classifications L83 · M14 · Z30

F. Ferreira (✉) · F. A. Ferreira
School of Hospitality and Tourism, Applied Management Research Unit (UNIAG), Polytechnic Institute of Porto, CiTUR, Rua D. Sancho I, 981, 4480-876 Vila do Conde, Portugal
e-mail: fff@esht.ipp.pt; faf@esht.ipp.pt

C. Rodrigues
Applied Management Research Unit (UNIAG), Vila do Conde, Portugal
e-mail: cilro@portic.ipp.pt

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_5

1 Introduction and Literature Review

Contemporary society is more concerned and sensitive about health and wellbeing, both physical and psychological, and in general about quality of life, a holistic concept that incorporates different dimensions that should work in harmony (Edlin & Golanty, 2019). As more consumers adopt the "health and wellness" as a lifestyle, this becomes a driver of motivation and decision for many trips and vacations (Global Wellness Tourism Economy, 2018). Thorne (2021) mentions that this awareness encourages consumers to travel to meet their personal wellness requirements. The intersections between health, wellness and leisure are huge (Young et al., 2021). Global Wellness Institute understand the act of travel itself as having a wellness enhancing activity. For these reasons, the "health and wellness" sector has a great potential for various tourism market segments, such as wellness tourism (Dimitrovski & Todorović, 2015; Wang et al., 2021); medical tourism (Birader & Ozturen, 2019; Groshev & Krasnoslobodtsev, 2017; Habibi et al., 2021); spa tourism (Anaya-Aguilar et al., 2021; Pinos Navarrete et al., 2021; Štefko et al., 2020), and thermal tourism (Chrobak et al., 2020). Even more, "health and wellbeing are crucial for achieving sustainable societies" (Von Heimburg & Ness, 2021, p. 639). From this point of view, the hospitality can play a very important role in offering experiences that provide a complete state of satisfaction and wellbeing to tourists. Based on these changes, the hospitality sector needs to develop strategies that respond positively to these sensibilities (Aksöz et al., 2021), bringing competitiveness of hotel companies and benefits for this segment of tourists. This segment of consumers is already well documented in the literature, known as "Lifestyle of Health and Sustainability" (LOHAS). These consumers, at several times also tourists, pay particular attention to their holistic health and value behaviors that promotes the sustainable development; they are environmentally aware and socially attuned (Osti & Goffi, 2021; Pícha & Navrátil, 2019). In order to attract this important segment, hotel managers have become increasingly active following green practices and strategies (Chung, 2020).

One way for hotels to be environmental and sustainable friendly is to implement corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives. A CSR culture includes an active contribution to the welfare of the community by managing the business to generate shared value for society through ethical conduct (Latapí Agudelo et al., 2019; Sharma, 2019). This is achievable with specific measures that are socially responsible (Chaffee, 2017). The implementation of CSR actions brings the possibility of achieving sustainability, value creation and competitive advantage (Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2008; Cheng & Ding, 2021). Moreover, it is a powerful tool to influence society, create a better life for people, shape public opinion for a brand, and is also a strong marketing tool (Sharma, 2019). Particularly in the hospitality, a range of stakeholders perceive that this industry has an obligation to provide benefits, owing to its financial gains (Wong et al., 2021). Therefore, hospitality companies are increasingly investing in CSR to generate strong relationships with stakeholders while aiming to benefit their own performance (Franco et al., 2020; Ghaderi et al., 2019). Particularly for the competitiveness of the sector, CSR has already shown positive effects, on companies' reputation, generating brand preference and higher levels of customer trust and identification with the company (Liu et al., 2019; Serra-Cantallops et al., 2018). It is recognized that customers are rewarding companies involved in CSR initiatives, directly and indirectly through perceived service quality (Aljarah & Alrawashdeh, 2021). However, CSR in hospitality remains an under-researched area, with great scope for growth and development (Moyeen et al., 2019; Qian et al., 2021; Serra-Cantallops et al., 2018). As explained by Xu et al. (2017), the costs of adopting sustainable practices and policies in companies can undermine their commitment with sustainability. Qian et al. (2021) confirm that high- and mid-tier hotels were more involved in this philosophy due to their devotion to CSR practices than low-tier or budget hotels. For Gutierrez-Martinez and Duhamel (2019), the implementation of sustainability processes in the hospitality depends on the ability of leaders to craft systems, build commitment, and align interests and goals consistent with sustainability.

Miranda and Cantallops (2012) argue that a hotel is at a high level of CSR when there is a competitive product which meets ethical, labor, social, and environmental criteria. Dahlsrud (2008) identifies five dimensions of CSR: environmental; social; economic; stakeholder; and voluntariness. In this vein, Bohdanowicz and Zientara (2008) emphasizes fair treatment with employees, suppliers and customers, efforts to support local communities, help charities, and promote environmental sustainability. The environmental strategy, particularly the "3Rs" (reduce, reuse, and recycle), plays an important role among firms in the hospitality industry (Chen & Peng, 2016; Ioannidis et al., 2021), and its implementation can be beneficial for their performance and success. Regarding sustainable performance indicators for the hospitality, Franzoni et al. (2021), on environmental dimension, identify: CO_2 emission; energy consumption per guest night; the energy produced by renewable sources; water consumption; plastic consumption; environmental certification; certified cleaning products. Castillo and Villagra (2019) indicate that CSR communication in the Spanish hotel sector is often related to environmental issues, on the companies' websites and respective Facebook pages. Similarly, Mohammed and Al-Swidi (2020) revealed that environment related with CSR has significant and direct impacts on customers' positive "electronic word of mouth." Environmental CSR practices affect commitment and respect to the tourism industry (Bogan & Dedeoglu, 2019; Han et al., 2019). In summary, these practices support corporate sustainability that fosters the social, economic and environmental wellbeing of the community, now and in the future (Rela et al., 2020), helping in the transition toward more sustainable societies and healthy living (Biswas, 2020).

Font and Lynes (2018) explored how CSR has developed within the tourism and hospitality literature. One way for hotels to be environmentally friendly is to implement corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives. As pointed out by Lewis (2021), "CSR is important in hospitality as it encourages organizations to do good within society, and further benefits them from a business point of view—think positive media attention, publicity and societal respect. The benefits of CSR policies in a business are far and wide—ranging from societal, economic, and environmental. CSR is particularly important within hospitality as the industry as it has historically had a rather dramatic impact on the environment through energy and water consumption, food waste, and the use of consumable goods—to name a few. The hotel sector alone currently accounts for around 1% of global carbon emissions, and this is only set to increase as the industry grows."

Wang et al. (2018) studied the effects of CSR practices under three different mixed duopolies: Cournot competition; Stackelberg competition with the CSR firm acting as the leader; and turnover, with the profit maximizing firm playing the lead position. Ferreira et al. (2022) studied the same issues, but using prices instead of quantities as strategic variables, in the context of hospitality industry.

In this paper, we contribute to the development of the theory about CSR. We closely follow the model used by Ferreira et al. (2022), but considering a market competition between a CSR hotel and a state-owned (SO) hotel (instead of a CSR hotel competing with a private hotel).

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, we describe the model. Section 3 develops the model with simultaneous decisions and the effects of social concerns. Sections 4 and 5 analyze the model with sequential decisions and the effects of social concerns. Finally, the conclusions are presented in Sect. 6.

2 Methods

We consider a market with two hotels, which compete on prices (Bertrand competition). We assume that the representative consumer maximizes:

$$U(q_1, q_2) - p_1 q_1 - p_2 q_2,$$

where q_i is the quantity (occupancy rate) of hotel H_i and p_i is the its price, with $i = 1, 2$. The function U is assumed to be quadratic, strictly concave, and symmetric in q_1 and q_2:

$$U(q_1, q_2) = \alpha(q_1 + q_2) - \frac{1}{2}\left(q_1^2 + 2\gamma q_1 q_2 + q_2^2\right),$$

where $\alpha > 0$ indicates the total market size and $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ is a measure of the degree of the differentiation of the hotels' rooms or services.

Assumption 1 For simplicity, we assume $\gamma = 0.5$.

So, the direct demand is characterized by

$$p_i = \alpha - q_i - \frac{1}{2} q_j,$$

where $i, j = 1, 2$ with $i \neq j$. Therefore, the direct demand is given by

$$q_i = \frac{2}{3}\big(\alpha - 2p_i + p_j\big).$$

For simplicity, we assume that both hotels have the same constant marginal cost c. We consider from now on prices net of marginal costs. This is without loss of generality since if marginal cost is positive, we may replace α by $\alpha - c$. The profit function π_i of hotel H_i is then

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_i &= \left(\alpha - q_i - \frac{1}{2}q_j\right)q_i \\ &= \frac{2}{3}\big(\alpha - 2p_i + p_j\big)p_i,\end{aligned}$$

with $i, j = 1, 2$ and $i \neq j$.

The market we model is composed of 2 hotels: one SO hotel (H_1) and one CSR hotel (H_2). Following Lambertini and Tampieri (2010) and Wang et al. (2018), all social concerns are integrated as part of consumer surplus. Thus, the objective function of the CSR hotel is

$$V = \pi_2 + wCS,$$

where $w \in (0, 1)$ is the weight that the CSR hotel assigns to the consumer surplus, and the consumer surplus CS is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}CS &= \frac{1}{2}\big(q_1^2 + q_1q_2 + q_2^2\big) \\ &= \frac{2}{3}\big(p_1^2 - p_1p_2 + p_2^2 + \alpha(\alpha - p_1 - p_2)\big).\end{aligned}$$

Assumption 2 In order to have interior solutions, we assume $0 < w < 2/3$.

The SO hotel H_1 aims to maximize social welfare W that is defined as the sum of hotels' profits and consumer surplus:

$$W = \pi_1 + \pi_2 + CS.$$

We will study and discuss three cases: (i) both hotels take their decisions simultaneously; (ii) the CSR hotel takes the leader position; (iii) the SO hotel takes the leader position.

3 Results: Simultaneous Decisions

In this section, we suppose that both hotels decide their room rates simultaneously.

The SO hotel H_1 solves the optimization problem $\max_{p_1} W$, and the CSR hotel H_2 solves the optimization problem $\max_{p_2} V$. By solving the system

$$\begin{cases} \dfrac{\partial W}{\partial p_1} = 0 \\ \dfrac{\partial V}{\partial p_2} = 0 \end{cases}$$

we get the Nash equilibrium[1]:

$$p_1^S = \frac{\alpha(1-w)}{7-3w} \text{ and } p_2^S = \frac{2\alpha(1-w)}{7-3w}.$$

Thus, the resulting profits are:

$$\pi_1^S = \frac{2\alpha^2(1-w)}{3(7-3w)} \text{ and } \pi_2^S = \frac{16\alpha^2(1-w)}{3(7-3w)^2}.$$

Therefore, the equilibrium consumer surplus and social welfare are given by:

$$CS^S = \frac{2\alpha^2\left(31-18w+3w^2\right)}{3(7-3w)^2} \text{ and } W^S = \frac{4\alpha^2\left(23-18w+3w^2\right)}{3(7-3w)^2}.$$

From

$$p_1^S - p_2^S = -\frac{\alpha(1-w)}{7-3w} \text{ and } \pi_1^S - \pi_2^S = -\frac{2\alpha^2(1-w)(1+3w)}{3(7-3w)^2}$$

we conclude the following proposition.

Proposition 1 If both hotels decide, simultaneously, their room rates, then

(i) The room rate set by the CSR hotel is higher than that of the SO hotel.
(ii) The CSR hotel's profit is higher than the SO hotel's profit.

The statement (i) of proposition 1 is the opposite of that verified in the case of CSR hotel competing with a private hotel (Ferreira et al., 2022). The statement (ii) of proposition 1 is also different of that verified in the case of CSR hotel competing with a private hotel, in which the relationship between profits depends upon the weight w that the CSR hotel assigns to the consumer surplus.

[1] Throughout the paper, we use the notation superscript S to refer the simultaneous decisions competition.

3.1 Comparative Static Analysis

Here, we evaluate the effect of the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus on the market equilibrium outputs. From

$$\frac{\partial p_1^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{4\alpha}{(7-3w)^2} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial p_2^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{8\alpha}{(7-3w)^2} < 0,$$
$$\frac{\partial \pi_1^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{8\alpha^2}{3(7-3w)^3} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial \pi_2^S}{\partial w} = \frac{166\alpha^2(1+3w)}{3(7-3w)^3} > 0,$$
$$\frac{\partial CS^S}{\partial w} = \frac{8\alpha^2(5-w)}{3(7-3w)^3} > 0, \quad \frac{\partial W^S}{\partial w} = \frac{16\alpha^2(1-w)}{(7-3w)^3} > 0,$$

we conclude the following proposition.

Proposition 2 If both hotels decide, simultaneously, their room rates, then

(i) The prices set by both hotels decrease with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.
(ii) The profit of the SO hotel decreases with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus, whereas the opposite is the case for the CSR hotel.
(iii) Both consumer surplus and social welfare increase with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.

We note that, while in the case studied here, the profit of the CSR hotel increases with w, in case the CSR hotel competes with a private hotel, its profit decreases with w. Furthermore, in our model, social welfare increases with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus, but the opposite happens when the CSR hotel competes with a private hotel.

4 Results: CSR Hotel Acts as the Leader

In this section, we consider the case in which the CSR hotel assumes a leading role, and the SO hotel responds. So, the model consists in the following two-stages game:

- In the first stage, the CSR hotel H_2 chooses its room rate p_2;
- Then, in the second stage, the SO hotel H_1 chooses its room rate p_1.

The model is solved by backward induction to obtain the subgame perfect Nash equilibrium. In the second stage, the SO hotel H_1 chooses p_1 to maximizes social welfare W. Appling the first-order optimal condition $\frac{\partial W}{\partial p_1} = 0$, we get (1)

$$p_1 = \frac{1}{2} p_2. \tag{1}$$

Putting (1) into the objective function V, the first-order optimal condition $\frac{\partial V}{\partial p_2} = 0$ gives[2] (2):

$$p_2^L = \frac{\alpha(2-3w)}{3(2-w)}. \tag{2}$$

Now, putting (2) into (1), we obtain

$$p_1^L = \frac{\alpha(2-3w)}{6(2-w)}.$$

Thus, the resulting profits, consumer surplus, and social welfare are as follows:

$$\pi_1^L = \frac{\alpha^2(2-3w)}{9(2-w)}, \quad \pi_2^L = \frac{\alpha^2(2+w)(2-3w)}{9(2-w)^2},$$
$$CS^L = \frac{\alpha^2\left(28-12w+3w^2\right)}{18(2-w)^2}, \quad W^L = \frac{\alpha^2\left(44-36w+3w^2\right)}{18(2-w)^2},$$

From

$$p_1^L - p_2^L = -\frac{\alpha(2-3w)}{6(2-w)} < 0$$

and

$$\pi_1^L - \pi_2^L = -\frac{2\alpha w(2-3w)}{9(2-3w)^2} < 0$$

we conclude the following proposition.

Proposition 3 If the CSR hotel acts as a leader, then

(i) The room rate set by the CSR hotel is higher than that of the SO hotel.
(ii) The CSR hotel's profit is higher than the SO hotel's profit.

The results presented in Proposition 3 are slightly different than that verified in the case where the CSR hotel competing with a private hotel, in which the both relationship between room rates and between profits depend upon the weight w that the CSR hotel assigns to the consumer surplus.

[2] Throughout the paper, we use the notation superscript L to refer the sequential decisions with the CSR hotel acting as the leader.

4.1 Comparative Static Analysis

Here, we evaluate the effect of the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus on the market equilibrium outputs. From

$$\frac{\partial p_1^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{2\alpha}{3(2-w)^2} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial p_2^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{4\alpha}{3(2-w)^2} < 0,$$
$$\frac{\partial \pi_1^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{4\alpha^2}{9(2-w)^2} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial \pi_2^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{16\alpha^2 w}{9(2-w)^3} < 0,$$
$$\frac{\partial \pi_1^S}{\partial w} = -\frac{4\alpha^2}{9(2-w)^2} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial W^S}{\partial w} = \frac{4\alpha^2(2-3w)}{9(2-w)^3} > 0,$$

we conclude the following proposition.

Proposition 4 If the CSR hotel acts as a leader, then

(i) The prices set by both hotels decrease with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.
(ii) The profit of both CSR and SO hotels decrease with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.
(iii) Both consumer surplus and social welfare increase with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.

5 Results: SO Hotel Acts as the Leader

In this section, we consider the case in which the SO hotel assumes a leading role, and the CSR hotel responds. So, the model consists in the following two-stages game:

- In the first stage, the SO hotel H_1 chooses its room rate p_1;
- Then, in the second stage, the CSR hotel H_2 chooses its room rate p_2.

The model is solved by backward induction to obtain the subgame perfect Nash equilibrium. In the second stage, the CSR hotel H_2 chooses p_2 to maximizes its objective function V. Appling the first-order optimal condition $\frac{\partial V}{\partial p_2} = 0$, we get (3)

$$p_2 = \frac{(\alpha + p_1)(1-w)}{2(2-w)} \tag{3}$$

Putting (3) into the objective function W of the SO hotel, the first-order optimal condition $\frac{\partial W}{\partial p_1} = 0$ gives[3] (4)

[3] Throughout the paper, we use the notation superscript F to refer the sequential decisions with the CSR hotel acting as a follower.

$$p_1^F = \frac{\alpha(1-w)}{13-12w+3w^2}. \tag{4}$$

Now, putting (4) into (3), we obtain

$$p_2^F = \frac{\alpha(1-w)(7-3w)}{2\left(13-12w+3w^2\right)}.$$

Thus, the resulting profits, consumer surplus, and social welfare are as follows:

$$\pi_1^F = \frac{\alpha^2(1-w)\left(29-30w+9w^2\right)}{3\left(13-12w+3w^2\right)^2}, \quad \pi_2^F = \frac{\alpha^2(1-w)(7-3w)^2}{3\left(13-12w+3w^2\right)^2},$$
$$CS^F = \frac{\alpha^2\left(37-30w+9w^2\right)}{6\left(13-12w+3w^2\right)}, \quad W^F = \frac{\alpha^2\left(49-42w+9w^2\right)}{6\left(13-12w+3w^2\right)}.$$

From

$$p_1^F - p_2^F = -\frac{\alpha(1-w)(5-3w)}{2\left(13-12w+3w^2\right)} < 0$$

and

$$\pi_1^F - \pi_2^F = -\frac{4\alpha^2(1-w)(5-3w)}{3\left(13-12w+3w^2\right)^2} < 0$$

we conclude the following proposition.

Proposition 5 If the SO hotel acts as a leacder, then

(i) The room rate set by the CSR hotel is higher than that of the SO hotel.
(ii) The CSR hotel's profit is higher than the SO hotel's profit.

The result (i) of Proposition 5 is quite different than that verified in the case where the CSR hotel competing with a private hotel rather than a SO hotel. The result (ii) of Proposition 5 can also be different than that verified in the case where the CSR hotel competing with a private hotel rather than a SO hotel, depending on the CSR hotel's preference w for consumer surplus.

5.1 Comparative Static Analysis

Here, we evaluate the effect of the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus on the market equilibrium outputs. From

$$\frac{\partial p_1^F}{\partial w} = -\frac{\alpha\left(1 + 6w - 3w^2\right)}{\left(13 - 12w + 3w^2\right)^2} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial p_2^F}{\partial w} = -\frac{\alpha\left(23 - 18w + 3w^2\right)}{\left(13 - 12w + 3w^2\right)^2} < 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi_1^F}{\partial w} = -\frac{\alpha^2\left(71 + 42w - 180w^2 + 126w^3 - 27w^4\right)}{3\left(13 - 12w + 3w^2\right)^3} < 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi_2^F}{\partial w} = -\frac{\alpha^2(7 - 3w)\left(1 + 51w - 45w^2 + 9w^3\right)}{3\left(13 - 12w + 3w^2\right)^3} < 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial CS^F}{\partial w} = \frac{\alpha^2\left(9 + 2w - 3w^2\right)}{\left(13 - 12w + 3w^2\right)^2} > 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial W^F}{\partial w} = \frac{\alpha^2\left(7 - 10w + 3w^2\right)}{\left(13 - 12w + 3w^2\right)^2} > 0$$

we conclude the following proposition.

Proposition 6 If the SO hotel acts as a leader, then

(i) The prices set by both hotels decrease with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.
(ii) The profit of both CSR and SO hotels decrease with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.
(iii) Both consumer surplus and social welfare increase with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.

6 Conclusion

By practicing corporate social responsibility, companies can be conscious of the kind of impact they are having on all aspects of society, including economic, social, and environmental. The hospitality industry embraces different social issues and major hotel companies have implemented CSR initiatives related to environment preservation and community development.

In this study, we used game theory concepts to find a Nash equilibrium of price competition between a private hotel with CSR practices and a state-owned (SO) hotel. We considered three motion orders in decision-making: simultaneous decisions; CSR hotel acting as a leader; and SO hotel acting as a leader.

The results indicate that although profits decline dwell with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus (with the exception of the case of simultaneous decisions, in which CSR hotel's profit grows), the CSR hotel always profits more than the SO hotel, regardless of the order of movements.

Furthermore, we also showed that both consumer surplus and social welfare increase with the CSR hotel's preference for consumer surplus.

Acknowledgements This article is a result of the project "GreenHealth-Digital strategies in biological assets to improve wellbeing and promote green health" (Norte-01-0145-FEDER-000042), supported by North Portugal Regional Operational Programme (NORTE 2020), under the PORTUGAL 2020 Partnership Agreement, through the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF).

We are also grateful to the Foundation for Science and Technology (FCT, Portugal) for financial support by national funds FCT/MCTES to UNIAG, under the Project no. UIDB/04752/2020.

References

Aksöz, E. O., Aydın, B., & Yüsel, E. (2021). Tourists approaches to eco-friendly hotels and determination of green hotel preferences: The case of Eskişehir. *Turizam, 25*(2), 83–95.

Aljarah, A., & Alrawashdeh, M. (2021). Boosting customer citizenship behavior through corporate social responsibility. Does perceived service quality matter? *Social Responsibility Journal, 17*(5), 631–647.

Anaya-Aguilar, R., Gemar, G., & Anaya-Aguilar, C. (2021). Challenges of spa tourism in Andalusia: Experts' proposed solutions. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(4), 1829.

Birader, T. K., & Ozturen, A. (2019). Motivators and perceptions of island residents towards medical tourism in mainland. *Journal of Tourism and Services, 10*(19), 164–176.

Biswas, A. (2020). A nexus between environmental literacy, environmental attitude and healthy living. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 27*(6), 5922–5931.

Bogan, E., & Dedeoglu, B. (2019). The influence of corporate social responsibility in hospitality establishments on students' level of commitment and intention to recommend. *Journal of Hospitality Leisure Sport & Tourism Education, 25*, 100205.

Bohdanowicz, P., & Zientara, P. (2008). Corporate social responsibility in hospitality: Issues and implications. A case study of Scandic. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 8*(4), 271–293.

Castillo, I., & Villagra, N. (2019). The communication of CSR. Analysis of the hotel sector. *Revista Latina De Comunicacion Social, 74*, 1580–1609.

Chaffee, E. C. (2017). The origins of corporate social responsibility. *University of Cincinnati Law Review, 85*, 347–373.

Chen, X., & Peng, Q. (2016). A content analysis of corporate social responsibility: Perspectives from China's top 30 hotel-management companies. *Hospitality & Society, 6*(2), 153–181.

Cheng, H., & Ding, H. (2021). Dynamic game of corporate social responsibility in a supply chain with competition. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 317*, 128398.

Chrobak, A., Ugolini, F., Pearlmutter, D., & Raschi, A. (2020). Thermal tourism and geoheritage: Examining visitor motivations and perceptions. *Resources, 9*(5), 58.

Chung, K. C. (2020). Green marketing orientation: Achieving sustainable development in green hotel management. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 29*(6), 722–738.

Dahlsrud, A. (2008). How corporate social responsibility is defined: An analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 15*(1), 1–13.

Dimitrovski, D., & Todorović, A. (2015). Clustering wellness tourists in spa environment. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 16*(1), 259–265.

Edlin, G., & Golanty, E. (2019). *Health and wellness*. Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Ferreira, F. A., Ferreira, F., & Gomes, C. F. S. (2022). Price-setting hotel competition with corporate social responsibility. In *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Industrial Engineering and Operations Management (IEOM)* (pp. 325–333).

Font, X., & Lynes, J. (2018). Corporate social responsibility in tourism and hospitality. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 26*(7), 1027–1042.

Franco, S., Caroli, M., Cappa, F., & Del Chiappa, G. (2020). Are you good enough? CSR, quality management and corporate financial performance in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 88*, 102395.

Franzoni, S., Sarwar, H., & Ishaq, M. (2021). The mediating role of HRM in the relationship between CSR and performance in the hospitality industry. *Sustainability, 13*, 13699.

Ghaderi, Z., Mirzapour, M., Henderson, J. C., & Richardson, S. (2019). Corporate social responsibility and hotel performance: A view from Tehran, Iran. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 29*, 41–47.

Global Wellness Tourism Economy. (2018). Global Wellness Institute. https://globalwellnessinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/GWI_GlobalWellnessTourismEconomyReport.pdf

Groshev, I., & Krasnoslobodtsev, A. A. (2017). World market of medical tourism. *World Economy and International Relations, 61*(10), 87–95.

Gutierrez-Martinez, I., & Duhamel, F. (2019). Translating sustainability into competitive advantage: The case of Mexico's hospitality industry. *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society, 19*(6), 1324–1343.

Habibi, A., Mousavi, M., Jamali, S. M., & Ebrahim, N. A., (2021). A bibliometric study of medical tourism. *Anatolia*, 1–18.

Han, H., Yu, J., & Kim, W. (2019). Environmental corporate social responsibility and the strategy to boost the airline's image and customer loyalty intentions. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 36*(3), 371–383.

Ioannidis, A., Chalvatzis, K., Leonidou, L., & Feng, Z. (2021). Applying the reduce, reuse, and recycle principle in the hospitality sector: Its antecedents and performance implications. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 30*(7), 3394–3410.

Lambertini, L., & Tampieri, A. (2010). Corporate social responsibility in a mixed duopoly. In *Working paper* (Vol. 723). University of Bologna.

Latapí Agudelo, M. A., Jóhannsdóttir, L., & Davídsdóttir, B. (2019). A literature review of the history and evolution of corporate social responsibility. *International Journal of Corporate Social Responsibility, 4*(1), 1–23.

Lewis, A., (2021). What is greenwashing & CSR in the hospitality industry? https://www.highspeedtraining.co.uk/hub/greenwashing-and-csr-in-the-hospitality-industry/

Liu, M., Liu, Y., Mo, Z., Zhao, Z., & Zhu, Z. (2019). How CSR influences customer behavioural loyalty in the Chinese hotel industry. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 32*(1), 1–22.

Miranda, D. D. P., & Cantallops, A. S. (2012). Responsabilidad social empresarial en el sector turístico: Estudio de caso en empresa de alojamiento de la ciudad de Santa Marta, Colombia. *Estudos e Perspectivas Em Turismo, 21*, 1456–1480.

Mohammed, A., & Al-Swidi, A. (2020). The mediating role of affective commitment between corporate social responsibility and eWOM in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 29*(4), 570–594.

Moyeen, A., Kamal, S., & Yousuf, M., (2019). A content analysis of CSR research in hotel industry, 2006–2017. In D. Crowther, S. Seifi & T. Wond (Eds.), *Responsibility and governance. Approaches to global sustainability, markets, and governance* (pp. 163–179). Springer.

Navarrete, A. P., Escolano, L. M. S., & Martos, J. C. M. (2021). Spa tourism in Western Europe: Reconceptualization and new space functions in a comparative perspective. *Boletin De La Asociacion De Geografos Espanoles, 88*, 1–39.

Osti, L., & Goffi, G. (2021). Lifestyle of health & sustainability: The hospitality sector's response to a new market segment. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 46*, 360–363.

Pícha, K., & Navrátil, J. (2019). The factors of lifestyle of health and sustainability influencing pro-environmental buying behaviour. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 234*, 233–241.

Qian, J., Law, R., Wei, J., & Li, X. (2021). Progress of hotel corporate social responsibility research in terms of theoretical, methodological, and thematic development. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 30*(6), 717–737.

Rela, I. Z., Awang, A. H., Ramli, Z., Md Sum, S., & Meisanti, M. (2020). Effects of environmental corporate social responsibility on environmental well-being perception and the mediation role of community resilience. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 27*(5), 2176–2187.

Serra-Cantallops, A., Peña-Miranda, D. D., Ramón-Cardona, J., & Martorell-Cunill, O. (2018). Progress in research on CSR and the hotel industry (2006–2015). *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 59*(1), 15–38. https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965517719267

Sharma, E. (2019). A review of corporate social responsibility in developed and developing nations. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 26*(4), 712–720.

Štefko, R., Jenčová, S., & Vašaničová, P. (2020). The Slovak spa industry and spa companies: Financial and economic situation. *Journal of Tourism and Services, 20*(11), 28–43.

Thorne, S. (2021). Are spas and wellness still considered luxurious in today's world? *Research in Hospitality Management, 11*(1), 9–14.

von Heimburg, D., & Ness, O. (2021). Relational welfare: A socially just response to co-creating health and wellbeing for all. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health, 49*(6), 639–652.

Wang, C., Nie, P.-Y., & Meng, Y. (2018). Duopoly competition with corporate social responsibility. *Australian Economic Papers, 57*, 327–345.

Wang, L., Togtokhbuyan, L., & Yadmaa, Z. (2021). Visual analysis of the international wellness tourism WOS literature from 1992 to 2019. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 4*(1), 1–16.

Wong, A., Koseoglu, M., Kim, S., & Leung, D. (2021). Contribution of corporate social responsibility studies to the intellectual structure of the hospitality and tourism literature. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 99*, 103081.

Xu, X., Xiao, G., & Gursoy, D. (2017). Maximizing profits through optimal pricing and sustainability strategies: A joint optimization approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 26*(4), 395–415.

Young, J., Maxwell, H., & Peel, N. (2021). Leisure meets health: Important intersections and alternative discourses. *Annals of Leisure Research, 24*(3), 275–282.

Residents' Perception of Yachting Tourism Amid COVID-19: A PLS-SEM Approach Framed by SET, Revised SET and PMT

Stelios Ioannidis and Maria Doumi

Abstract The current research study investigates the local community's perception of yachting tourism amid the epidemic threat of COVID-19. The theoretical base of social exchange theory (SET), revised SET and protection motivation theory (PMT) were utilized for the purpose of this study. The conceptual model built within this study includes four exogenous variables (place community attachment, economic gain, environmental impacts and COVID-19 threat) and their impact on support yachting tourism, with the usage of two moderators (positive and negative impacts). The survey took place at a well-established yachting area in Greece, consisting of Volos, Skiathos, Skopelos and Alonissos. The proportional stratified random sampling method was utilized, and 410 questionnaires were collected from residents of the above cities. Results were analyzed with the PLS-SEM method. The study confirmed the residents' support to yachting tourism amid COVID-19 for four main reasons: It considered to add value to the overall image of the destination, an element highly appreciated from a community with strong place and community attachment, while generate economic profit. Additionally, the environmental impact of yachting tourism was perceived as low, making yachting an environmentally friendly activity in residents' minds. Finally, the local community seemed to feel confident about the effectiveness of measures taken and the adequacy of infrastructure in their area regarding the COVID-19 threat. Consequently, the epidemic did not constitute a strong reason against supporting yachting tourism, in comparison with the benefits for the local community. Finally, the study confirms the mediating role of positive impacts (PI) and negative impacts (NI) in our conceptual model, in accordance with SET and revised SET.

Keywords Yachting tourism · Tourism perception · COVID-19 · PLS-SEM

JEL Classifications C12 · D70

S. Ioannidis (✉) · M. Doumi
Department of Tourism Economics and Management, University of the Aegean, Chios, Greece
e-mail: sioannidis@aegean.gr

M. Doumi
e-mail: mdoumi@aegean.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_6

1 Introduction

The factors that influence residents' attitude toward tourism have been one of the leading topics for the academic community. A wide range of theories have been developed, and new interdisciplinary theories and methodologies are continuously formulated in an attempt to shed light on how the perception of local communities is formed in a holistic way (Deery et al., 2012; Hadinejad et al., 2019; Nunkoo et al., 2013; Rasoolimanesh & Seyfi, 2020). Those factors are distinguished into external and internal (or values). As for the external factors, economic gain from tourism is the main parameter, and it has been confirmed that ownership and financial dependence are correlated with the positive perception of local community toward tourism (Andereck et al., 2007; Fredline et al., 2006; Haley et al., 2005; Andriotis, 2005; Deery et al., 2012; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Snaith & Halley, 1999). Next, proximity of residence to the area of vibrant tourist activity has been examined (Fredline et al., 2006; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Sharma et al., 2008; Wang & Pfister, 2008). In this case, however, not all studies are congruent in their results (Deery et al., 2012). More specifically, some residents seem to prefer to live in close proximity to the bustle and noise of tourist activity, while others hate it. Two important factors which are correlated and shape resident perceptions are the frequency of interaction (Andereck et al., 2007; Fredline et al., 2006) and how often tourist infrastructures are used by residents (Gursoy et al., 2002; Woosnam et al., 2009). Furthermore, the ratio of resident population to tourists has also been examined as an external factor (Diedrich & Garcia Buades, 2008). Apart from financial dependence, studies on the rest of the external factors do not produce similar results as to whether they contribute positively or negatively in shaping perception (Deery et al., 2012). Part of the internal factors are place and community attachment, social sensitivity and environmental concerns as well as political views (Andereck et al., 2007; Fredline et al., 2006; Gursoy et al., 2002; Deery et al., 2012; Choi & Murray, 2010; Woosnam et al., 2009; Gu & Ryan, 2010; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Sheldon & Var, 1984). Finally, demographics should not be overlooked, as the researchers widely agree that they play an important role in perception to tourism.

SARS epidemic in 2003 has urged many researchers to analyze the impacts of tourism on the health safety of destinations, especially in the case of contagious diseases. Despite the large volume of pre-existing research on health risks generated from tourism, the majority of studies were focusing on the aspect of demand, that is, of the tourists and whether fear was affecting their travel behavior and the selection of destinations (Qiu et al., 2020). Transmission of contagious diseases like SARS, bird flu, Ebola, and now COVID-19 has become a deterring factor not only in the decision-making process of a trip but also in the intention to develop tourism within host communities. Especially in the case of a global pandemic, it has been acknowledged that intense tourist activity is likely to spread diseases in the destinations affecting the local communities, in particular the ones with a higher average age (Gautret et al., 2012; MacIntyre, 2020; Richter, 2003). Risk perception of communities is grouped in four categories; demographics, cognitive, experiential and socio-political factors (van der Linden, 2015). Cognitive factors are related to how well the residents are informed about the potential threat (Kaiser & Fuhrer, 2003), experiential factors are about the personal or direct experience with the threat, either now or in the past (Weber, 2006), and socio-political factors have to do with established perceptions and norms that are prevalent in destinations (Leiserowitz, 2006; Slovic & Peters, 1998; Smith & Leiserowitz, 2012). Finally, there is also a correlation between demographics and fear perception to tourism (Slovic, 1999; van der Linden, 2015).

2 Literature Review

2.1 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (SET) was described by Emerson in 1972 and was developed in detail in 1976 in 'social exchange theory.' Its underlying principles are found in the studies of Levi-Strauss in 1969, Homans in 1958, Blau in 1964 and Emerson in 1972 (Ap, 1992). According to this theory, groups or people examine the outcomes of every interaction they have and evaluate this 'transaction' based on the positive and negative outcomes that derive from it. SET examines the interaction of players and 'resources' that are being exchanged during the transaction (Emerson, 1976). Players are defined as the people (or the groups of people that act in a similar manner) that are involved in each transaction, whereas resources are defined as any material or non-material goods derive from this transaction.

Sutton (1967) already acknowledged the interaction of individuals during tourist activity as a sociological feature, while in 1990 Perdue, Long and Allen suggest the application of Emerson's theory (Perdue et al., 1990). Since then, the application of SET in residents' perception studies has been the most popular method of approach (Sharpley, 2014; Boley et al., 2014; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Sanchez et al., 2011; Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2012; Hadinejad et al., 2019). Besides, tourist activity cannot occur without interaction between tourists and residents and, consequently, without 'transactions' (Andereck et al., 2005). The evaluation of these transactions and especially the evaluation of the positive and negative outcomes has a direct impact both on the behavioral models of all the players and the quality of life of the destination communities (Andereck et al., 2005; Hall & Page, 2014).

More specifically, applying SET in tourism refers to the interaction between local communities and the tourists. This interaction is assessed by the residents as positive or negative, based on certain factors, which are (Andereck et al., 2005; Gursoy et al., 2002; Jurowski et al., 1997; Sharpley, 2014): (i) the potential economic gain that could arise from the transaction, (ii) the amount of natural resources available to the local communities after tourist consumption, (iii) the social views of the local community and (iv) the views about the environment and their area.

2.2 Revised Social Exchange Theory

Despite its popularity, SET has been widely criticized by academics and researchers. The focus of this criticism is that while SET identifies the factors that influence residents' attitude during residents' attitude based on the evaluation of positive–negative outcomes, it fails to explain how each factor contributes in shaping a positive or negative perception toward tourism (Sharpley, 2014; Rasoolimanesh, 2015). In an attempt to fill that gap, Meeker introduced the revised social exchange theory (Revised SET) in 1971 (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). Revised SET considers all 'transactions' as interpersonal and introduces six fundamental pillars that shape residents' perception of the outcome of every 'transaction' as positive or negative. According to Meeker (1971), those pillars are: (i) reciprocity, (ii) rationality, (iii) altruism, (iv) group gain, (v) status consistency and (vi) competition.

Both reciprocity and rationality have their roots in Weber's theory. Reciprocity, which can be either a personal perception or a social norm (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), is based on the theory that an action by person (A) that is beneficial to person (B) leads to a favorable response-action of person (B) to person (A). Rationality explains a perception or action that derives from a person's beliefs and personal views. Altruism explains an action by person (A) that favors (B) but has negative outcome for (A) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Group gain is similar but differs from altruism in that, although person (A) is negatively impacted, personal gain is expected through group gain. Maintaining status consistency is when a person conforms to the societal views on a topic, even when they personally disagree, in order to form part of the group. Finally, competition is exactly the opposite to altruism as in this case (A) acts so as to disadvantage (B), regardless of the consequences for them. In all the previous cases, the term 'person' can be replaced by the term 'group,' if the specific group act in uniformity.

2.3 Protection Motivation Theory

This theory was developed by Ronald Rogers and was based on a combination and extension of previous theories such as the decision-making theory by K. Lewin in 1938 and W. Edwards in 1954, the semantic approach of Atkinson's motivation theory in 1958, the theory of social learning by J. Rotter in 1954 and Tolman's cognitive behavior in 1932. Protection motivation theory (PMT) was published in 1975 in the Journal of Psychology and connects the perception of fear with the motivation for protection through three basic pillars: (1) the noxiousness of the depicted event, (2) the probability of its occurrence and (3) the efficacy of the protective responses. Rogers distinctly mentions that 'A protection motivation theory is proposed that postulates the three crucial components of a fear appeal to be: the magnitude of noxiousness of a depicted event, the probability of that event's occurrence and the efficacy of a protection response' (Rogers, 1975; p. 93). Those three components postulate the stage 1, during which fear is appraised about a threat stimulus. Next is the stage 2 of cognitive mediating process, in which, the person assesses the severity of the threat, the probability of risk avoidance as well as the probability of personal exposure unless action is taken. Once the stage 2 is completed, the person moves to the stage 3, which is the coping appraisal. They are, in effect, urged to modify their behavior. It should be highlighted that unless all the components of stage 1 are observed, the person will not move to stage 2. The same applies for stage 2. In that case, the individual will never get to stage 3 of behavioral change. If all components of the stage 1 and 2 are observed, the individual will transition to stage 3 and will be motivated to modify their behavior or perception to a phenomenon in order to remove the threat.

Essentially, if not all elements of the first two stages are observed, the person does not consider a situation or potential threat particularly important. In addition, it can be assumed that even if a situation poses danger, there is no way to get protection from the consequences or there are no choices to minimize the threat. Finally, it is possible that the individual may assess a situation as dangerous but consider the probability of their exposure to danger as quite low. In all three cases the individual will not move to the stage 3, which means that they will not be motivated and will not change their behavior.

2.4 Yachting Tourism and Its Impact on Destinations

Yachting tourism is becoming increasingly popular and is defined as the chartering of a yacht by a group of people who agree on the itinerary (Diakomihalis, 2009). An important element of yachting tourism is that the decisions regarding the seaside locations to be visited are made by the tourists (Mikulic et al., 2015). Furthermore, according to Coccossis et al. (2011), crew in yachting tourism is defined as a group with similar features who agree on the areas they will visit. An interesting topic is how yachting tourism affects destinations and has been studied by a number of scientists. The impact is grouped in three categories: environmental, social and economic, each creating both positive and negative impact in forming perceptions in local communities (Orams, 2007; Marusic et al., 2008). Regarding the economic impact, yachting tourism is welcomed by the local communities (Mikulic et al., 2015). One can identify multiple income sources for the destinations with yachting activity, such as income from berth leasing, income from using supplementary services in ports, employment opportunities in ports and wintering areas, income from consumption by yachting tourists, income from vessel refueling, income from food supplies, income from brokers and local tourist agents as well as income from indirect taxes of yachting activity (Ioannidis, 2019). From the above mentioned factors, it is clear that, apart from the clear economic gains, social gains are created with 12-month temporary contracts and a variety of specializations and supplementary services that cover the needs of the yachts and their crews. Thus, the benefits of yachting tourism are socio-economic, as is stated by various researchers (Favro et al., 2009; Zubak et al., 2014).

Regarding the environmental footprint, there is consensus that it is a kind of tourism that is environmentally friendly (Mikulic et al., 2015). The environmental awareness of yachting tourists naturally plays an important role-as in every kind of tourism (Hall, 2001).

3 Methodology

Sampling took place from November 16–December 20, 2020 to residents of a well-established yachting destination in Greece, consisting of four towns: Volos, Skiathos, Skopelos and Alonnissos. The questionnaire consists of two parts. In the first part, residents stated their level of agreement to 39 statements using Likert scale 1–5, with '1' indicating a 'complete disagreement' and '5' a 'complete agreement.' The statements were grouped into seven groups, corresponding to the variables of the conceptual model of this study. In the second part, the demographic profile of the sample is analyzed and, in particular, gender, age group, area of residence, time of residence, level of education, professional relationship with tourism and the time they are employed in the tourism industry. All questionnaires were distributed online through Google Forms, email or social media, as from November 6 movement restrictions were in effect in Greece.

Due to the dispersed nature of the target population (our sample consisted of residents of the city of Volos, Skiathos island, Skopelos island and Alonissos island) we selected the proportional random stratified method. Pilot check was conducted in seven individuals and confirmed the clarity and easiness to fill in. From the 430 questionnaires that were collected, 410 were considered valid. 86.6% (n = 355) of those were answered by residents of Volos, 6.1% (n = 25) from residents of Skiathos, 4.6% (n = 19) from residents of Skopelos and 2.7% (n = 11) from residents of Alonnissos, based on proportional stratified random sampling.

The conceptual model built within this study (Fig. 1) consists of four exogenous variables, namely environmental impacts—ENVI, place and community attachment—PCA, economic gain—EG and COVID-19 risk—C19R. Based on social exchange theory, two mediators were used (positive impacts-PI and negative impacts-NI), while the perception of the local community was measured through support yachting tourism-SYT. Software SmartPLS 3.0 was used to create the conceptual model. For the establishment of the model, checks were conducted to ensure indicator reliability, internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Ali et al., 2018; Hair et al., 2022).

According to literature review, we hypothesized a significant effect of the four exogenous variables on the shaping of positive and negative impacts, developing nine hypotheses as indicated in the Table 1. Seven more hypotheses were developed hypothesizing the mediating role of PI and NI in the effects of PCA, EG, ENVI and C19R on SYT.

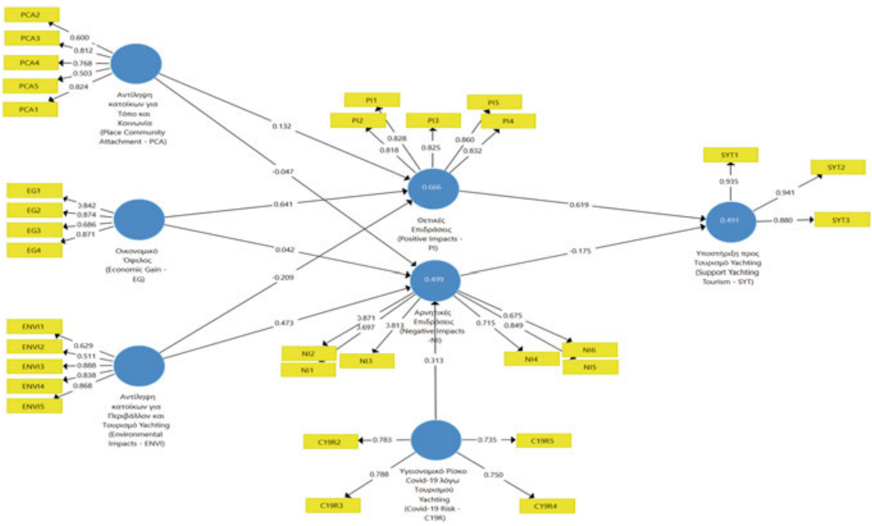


Fig. 1 Conceptual model

Table 1 Hypotheses development

Hypotheses	
H_1	ENVI -> PI significant, negative
H_2	ENVI -> NI significant, positive
H_3	PCA -> PI significant, positive
H_4	PCA -> NI significant, negative
H_5	EG -> PI significant, positive
H_6	EG -> NI significant, negative
H_7	C19R -> NI significant, positive
H_8	PI -> SYT significant, positive
H_9	NI -> SYT significant, negative
H_{10}	PI mediates EG on SYT
H_{11}	PI mediates ENVI on SYT
H_{12}	PI mediates PCA on SYT
H_{13}	NI mediates EG on SYT
H_{14}	NI mediates ENVI on SYT
H_{15}	NI mediates PCA on SYT
H_{16}	NI mediates C19R on SYT

4 Results

The sample was evenly distributed regarding the gender of the participants, 200 of them being men (48.8%) and 210 women (51.2%). The age group of 21–35 y.o. was predominant at a percentage of 43.7% (n = 179), followed by the age group of 36–50 with 32.2% (n = 132), then the age group of 51–70 with 17.8% (n = 73), under 20 with 5.9% (n = 24) and, finally, the age group >70 with 0.5% (n = 2). The vast majority of the sample are permanent residents at a percentage of 61.2% (n = 251), while 19% stated that they live in the area for the last 20 years (n = 78). Only 15.6% (n = 64) stated they live in the area in the last five years, and it is assumed that in this percentage students, army professionals or public administrators are included. Regarding the level of education, almost half of the participants (47.3% − n = 194) stated they were university graduates, while 28.8% of the sample (n = 128) were holding a master's degree and. 4.1% (n = 17) were PhD holders. 9.5% (n = 39) and 9.3% (n = 38) of the sample consisted of high school graduates and private technical school graduates, respectively. 1% (n = 4) of our sample stated they were basic education graduates. In the economic profile of our sample, households with annual income €0-€10,000 and €10,001-€20,000 prevail at a percentage of 35.9% (n = 147) and 35.1% (n = 144), respectively. 18.3% of the participants have an annual income up to €30,000 (n = 75), while 10% of the sample earns €40,000 or more annually (n = 19).

However, tourism does not seem to be a great contributing factor to the income figures above, as 52.9% of the sample (n = 217) stated that their income does not derive from tourism. If the percentage of 22.7% is added to this figure, where the participants stated that their occupation is irrelevant to tourism but they happen to service tourists as well (n = 93), then we can assume that 75.6% of our sample does not have an economic gain from yachting tourism. Only 24.4% of our sample stated that they are employed in a tourist business (n = 100). Finally, from the residents that are employed in the tourism industry, 69.5% (n = 116) works there from 1–10 years while the rest 30.5% stated that they are employed for 20 or more years.

As shown in Table 2, residents of 'Sporades' seem to have a strong place attachment (Mean = 4.43) and involvement in local issues (Mean = 4.63), whereas the community attachment is not observed to the same degree (Mean = 3.41). Complaints have also been expressed to the local Authorities in that residents were not given the chance to voice their views in topics of tourism development (Mean = 2.49). The significant contribution of yachting tourism is acknowledged both as economic gain (Mean = 4.36) and creating work opportunities (Mean = 4.14), despite the fact that, as shown in the demographic details above, 52.9% of our sample does not have a personal gain from tourism. Nevertheless, there is the belief (Mean = 3.97) that yachting tourism can attract further investments in the area. In addition, it is acknowledged that this type of tourism showcases the beauty of Sporades. As for the environmental impact of yachting tourism, there is a slight concern regarding the consumption of natural resources. However, there is consensus that this kind of tourism does not spoil the quiet and pristine locations in their area. It is worth noting that in total, there was not a single question in the group of negative impacts that presented Mean > 3, which means that residents do not attribute a negative impact to a great extent.

In relation to the health risk form COVID-19, residents appear confident they are well-informed about the virus and how to manage it (Mean = 4.32), the official

Table 2 Items, means and SD

Item code	Item	Mean	SD	Item code	Item	Mean	SD
PCA1	I love my area and I feel I belong here	4.43	0.808	C19R6	I am fully aware of what COVID-19 can cause and what I need to do to deal with it	4.32	0.870
PCA2	I am interested in the issues of my area	4.63	0.666	C19R7	I trust friends and relatives more to get informed about COVID-19	1.92	1.036
PCA3	I take pride as a resident of my area	4.03	1.051	C19R8	I trust the official announcements more to get informed about COVID-19	4.01	1.161
PCA4	I feel closely attached to the other residents of my area	3.41	1.055	C19R9	I trust the mass media and internet more to get informed about COVID-19	2.89	1.214
PCA5	Local authorities are interested and hear my views on tourism	2.49	1.115	C19R10	I have experience in COVID-19	2.28	1.542
PCA6	I am bothered by the congestion in my area due to yachting tourism	1.88	1.120	PI1	Yachting tourism makes my area prettier	3.98	1.015
EG1	Yachting tourism is helpful to the businesses in my area	4.36	0.823	PI2	Yachting tourism helps the local community	4.39	0.784
EG2	Yachting tourism creates new work opportunities for my area	4.14	1.011	PI3	Thanks to yachting tourism, the infrastructure and services are improved in my area	3.71	1.143

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Item code	Item	Mean	SD	Item code	Item	Mean	SD
EG3	Ο τουρισμός με σκάφη αναψυχής δημιουργεί βοηθάει στο οικογενειακό μου εισόδημα	2.68	1.574	PI4	Yachting tourism increases the cultural events in my area	3.41	1.212
EG4	Yachting tourism brings investments in my area	3.97	1.115	PI5	Yachting tourism improves the quality of my life as a resident of my area	3.33	1.257
ENVI1	Yachting tourism contributes to the preservation of the protected areas in my region	3.09	1.187	NI1	Yachting tourism increases the crime rate in my area	1.60	0.885
ENVI2	Yachting tourism increases the consumption of natural resources	3.28	1.207	NI2	Yachting tourism spoils the peace and quiet in my area	2.01	1.120
ENVI3	Yachting tourism increases sea pollution in my area	3.21	1.226	NI3	Yachting tourists cause damages and vandalism in my area	1.68	0.979
ENVI4	Yachting tourism spoils even the quiet places in my area	2.88	1.244	NI4	Yachting tourism causes a rise in prices in my area	2.67	1.189
ENVI5	Yachting tourism increases a lot the waste in my area	3.06	1.201	NI5	Yachting tourism causes damage in the environment and spoils the landscape in my area	2.23	1.129
C19R1	I believe that the state measures for tourism are effective in managing COVID-19	2.71	1.296	NI6	I suffer from living in a touristic area	1.70	1.050
C19R2	I believe that yachting tourism professionals apply the safety measures against COVID-19	3.57	1.095	SYT1	Yachting tourism should be promoted further in my area, regardless of COVID-19	3.91	1.134

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Item code	Item	Mean	SD	Item code	Item	Mean	SD
C19R3	I believe that yachting tourists comply with the safety measures against COVID-19	3.34	1.099	SYT2	Local authorities should support yachting tourism, regardless of COVID	3.96	1.130
C19R4	I fear that yachting tourists will bring COVID-19 in my area	2.71	1.223	SYT3	I am intended to act in order to support yachting tourism, regardless of COVID-19	3.37	1.386
C19R5	I fear that if doctors in my area are busy with yachting tourists, they would not be able to treat the residents	2.05	1.134				

state announcements being the main source. Residents are not greatly concerned of a pandemic outbreak in their area because of yachting tourists, as they believe the doctor coverage is sufficient for both the residents and the yachting tourists.

For the verification of the conceptual model, the outer loadings of all the items were examined. After the rejection of items with a value <0.4 and the recalculation of the rest outer loadings, we achieved indicator reliability for our model, as indicated in the Table 3. Thus, the conceptual model consists of 25 items in its final form. Internal consistency was measured with three indicators: composite reliability (CR), Cronbach's α and Rho_A (ρ_A). It is required that all the above indicators have a value >0.7 (Hair et al., 2022). The results of our models are shown in Table 4, where the values of all the indicators are within the minimum threshold and are therefore acceptable. Convergent validity was also achieved, as AVE values exceed the proposed threshold. AVE shows the percentage of variation of a L.V. that is explained through its items and values >0.5 are acceptable. (Hair et al., 2022; Chin, 2010).

Discriminant validity was measured with the implementation of the Hetterotrait–Monotrait ratio (HTMT) and the Fornell Larcker criterion. Tables 5 and 6 illustrate the achievement of discriminant validity for our model, as the HTMT threshold of 0.9 has been met (Henseler et al., 2015). Same result is also confirmed from the Fornell Larcker criterion, as it is obvious that correlation of every L.V. with its items is higher than correlations with the other L.Vs.

Completing all the required tests of the measurement model above, we proceeded to the assessment of the outer model, as seen in Table 7. Path coefficients and their significance were assessed. All hypotheses regarding the effect of PCA, EG, ENVI and C19R on PI and NI were verified except for the effect of PCA on NI (p value =

Table 3 Initial and final outer loadings (O.L.s)

Item code	Initial O.L	Final O.L	Item code	Initial O.L	Final O.L
PCA1	0.796	0.824	C19R6	0.229	–
PCA2	0.579	0.600	C19R7	0.184	–
PCA3	0.790	0.812	C19R8	0.072	–
PCA4	0.708	0.768	C19R9	0.111	–
PCA5	0.421	0.503	C19R10	0.256	–
PCA6	0.355	–	PI1	0.828	0.828
EG1	0.842	0.842	PI2	0.818	0.818
EG2	0.874	0.874	PI3	0.825	0.825
EG3	0.686	0.686	PI4	0.831	0.832
EG4	0.871	0.871	PI5	0.859	0.860
ENVI1	0.629	0.629	NI1	0.699	0.697
ENVI2	0.511	0.511	NI2	0.871	0.871
ENVI3	0.887	0.888	NI3	0.813	0.813
ENVI4	0.838	0.838	NI4	0.715	0.715
ENVI5	0.868	0.868	NI5	0.846	0.849
C19R1	0.158	-	NI6	0.678	0.675
C19R2	0.755	0.783	SYT1	0.935	0.935
C19R3	0.752	0.788	SYT2	0.941	0.941
C19R4	0.730	0.750	SYT3	0.880	0.880
C19R5	0.727	0.735			

Table 4 Internal consistency and R^2, Q^2 results

	Cronbach's α	ρ_A	CR	AVE	R^2	Q^2
PCA	0.749	0.791	0.833	0.508		
EG	0.837	0.852	0.892	0.676		
ENVI	0.809	0.844	0.869	0.580		
C19R	0.764	0.764	0.849	0.584		
PI	0.890	0.891	0.919	0.693	0.664	0.452
NI	0.864	0.887	0.899	0.599	0.494	0.288
SYT	0.907	0.908	0.942	0.844	0.488	0.408

0.143) and EG on NI (p value = 0.159 and positive sign, whereas we had hypothesized a negative sign). Also, R^2 and Q^2 were calculated for the measurement of the outer model (Table 4) with R^2 being acceptable for values >0.2 for social sciences studies (Cohen, 1988) and Q^2 being acceptable for any value >0 (Hair et al., 2022).

For the mediating role of PI and NI, the indirect effect (a*b) and its significance were calculated, as seen in Table 8. Further, the total mediation effect of PI and NI on

Table 5 HTMT ratio results

	C19R	ENVI	NI	PI	EG	PCA	SYT
C19R	–						
ENVI	0.766	–					
NI	0.726	0.759	–				
PI	0.606	0.553	0.380	–			
EG	0.517	0.479	0.343	0.902	–		
PCA	0.412	0.276	0.285	0.550	0.529	–	
SYT	0.603	0.568	0.434	0.755	0.716	0.435	–

Table 6 Fornell Larcker criterion results

	C19R	ENVI	NI	PI	EG	PCA	SYT
C19R	**0.764**						
ENVI	0.616	**0.762**					
NI	0.603	0.659	**0.774**				
PI	−0.492	−0.504	−0.354	**0.833**			
EG	−0.406	−0.415	−0.302	0.783	**0.822**		
PCA	−0.312	−0.219	−0.231	0.449	0.424	**0.713**	
SYT	−0.493	−0.507	−0.394	0.681	0.618	0.363	**0.919**

Table 7 Hypotheses testing results

	Path coefficient	P value	Hypotheses testing	f^2
H_1	−0.209	0.000	Verified	0.108
H_2	0.473	0.000	Verified	0.262
H_3	0.132	0.000	Verified	0.043
H_4	−0.047	0.143	Not verified	0.004
H_5	0.641	0.000	Verified	0.875
H_6	0.042	0.159	Not verified	0.002
H_7	0.313	0.000	Verified	0.113
H_8	0.619	0.000	Verified	0.659
H_9	−0.175	0.000	Verified	0.052

SYT for all the four exogenous variables and its significance were assessed (Table 9). The mediating role of PI and NI in overall has been verified (p value = 0.000). The particular mediating role of PI has been verified for all the four factors. As for the NI mediating role, it has not been verified in the case of PCA (p value = 0.162) and EG (p value = 0.164).

Table 8 Mediation effects results

	a*b coefficient	P value	Hypotheses testing
H_{10}	−0.083	0.000	Verified
H_{11}	−0.129	0.000	Verified
H_{12}	0.008	0.162	Not verified
H_{13}	0.082	0.000	Verified
H_{14}	−0.007	0.164	Not verified
H_{15}	0.397	0.000	Verified
H_{16}	−0.055	0.000	Verified

Table 9 Total mediation effects results

Total mediation effects	Total effect	P value	Mediation testing
ENVI -> SYT	−0.212	0.000	Verified
PCA -> SYT	0.090	0.000	Verified
EG -> SYT	0.390	0.000	Verified
C19R -> SYT	−0.055	0.000	Verified

5 Conclusion–Discussion

Our study seems to be consistent with what social exchange theory prescribes and the interaction between residents of Sporades and yachting tourists was considered a transaction. Their perception for this type of tourism is based on the impact of yachting tourism on the prosperity and the image of the area as well as the economic gain and the environmental footprint. The element of health risk is also added to the factors above amidst the pandemic and its ability to influence the residents' existing perception is assessed. Residents of that particular destination demonstrate place attachment, pride and sense of belonging to their area but a less developed social coherence. As a result, they consider their transaction with yachting as positive, as they find it adds to the beauty and image of their area. Based on revised SET, this is a rationality decision. Non-verification of H_4 makes it obvious that residents are willing to overlook negative elements for the sake of the added value in the place and the community that yachting tourism offers. That attitude could form a group gain decision, as they acknowledge negative elements but consider beauty as more important than negative elements. Despite all these, considering the low level of community attachment compared to place attachment, one can conclude that this is rather a rational decision, based on revised SET.

The environmental impact of yachting increases the sense of cost versus gain, as is shown through the verification of H_1 and H_2. Naturally, residents with more environmental concerns tend to underestimate the positive elements of yachting versus the negative ones. ENVI-$NI_{\text{path coefficient}}$ has the highest value of all the negative impacts, which indicates that environmental concerns constitute the biggest cost in the transaction between residents-tourists. From the items of variable ENVI, it shows that water pollution (outer loading = 0.888) prevails as well as waste accumulation (outer loading = 0.868). However, for those two threats, it is perceived that yachting tourism is not greatly responsible (mean = 3.21 and 3.06, respectively). Thus, we can safely conclude that residents believe that although they do not benefit environmentally from yachting tourism, the cost is small. Regarding EG, it is the main driving factor into shaping positive perception for yachting. If we take into consideration that the majority does not have personal economic gains from yachting, and they are not professionally related to tourism, it is clearly a group gain decision, as residents are likely to expect indirect personal gains, through economic prosperity that they believe this kind of tourism will bring to their area. Generally, it appears that the total of population is unwilling to talk about the negative impact of yachting in their area compared to the positive. It is a rational and altruistic attitude of our survey participants, who have economic gain from yachting tourism and base their family income on it but do not hesitate to talk about its negative elements.

As to the health risk from COVID-19, the population focusses on two points; firstly, if safety measures and health protocols are followed by the tourists and yachting professionals, and secondly, if an outbreak occurs in Sporades, whether a way to manage the crisis is available (available doctors and information). This attitude is explained by protection motivation theory. The verification of H_7 indicates that the fear of COVID-19 definitely contributes in shaping negative impressions for yachting tourism, and judging from the value of C19R-NI$_{\text{path coefficient}} = 0.313$, it contributes to a lesser extent than environmental concerns. Therefore, it appears that overall, the risk of spreading COVID-19 through yachting tourism is not considered realistic so, according to PMT, residents do not modify their attitude and the balance gain-cost remains positive. In addition, they have faith in the fact that, even in the case of an outbreak because of tourism, they are not exposed to danger, as there is sufficient doctor coverage, and they have adequate information to manage the situation. Consequently, based on PMT, they still do not reach the third final of PMT, which would cause a change in their attitude against yachting.

References

Ali, F., Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Ryu, K. (2018). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) in hospitality research. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 30*(1), 514–538. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2016-0568

Andereck, K., Valentine, K., Vogt, C., & Knopf, R. (2007). A cross-cultural analysis of tourism and quality of life perceptions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15*(5), 483–502. https://doi.org/10.2167/jost612.0

Andereck, K., Valentine, K., Knopf, R., & Vogt, C. (2005). Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*(4), 1056–1076. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2005.03.001

Andriotis, K. (2005). Community groups' perceptions of and preferences for tourism development: Evidence from Crete. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 29*, 67–90. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348004268196

Ap, J. (1992). Residents perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research, 19*(4), 665–690. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(92)90060-3

Boley, B. B., McGehee, N. G., Perdue, R. R., & Long, P. (2014). Empowerment and resident attitudes toward tourism: Strengthening the theoretical foundation through a Weberian lens. *Annals of Tourism Research, 49*, 33–50. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2014.08.005

Chin, W. (2010). How to write up and report PLS analyses. In V. E. Vinzi, W. Chin, J. Henseler, & H. Wang (Eds.), *Handbook of partial least squares: Concepts,methods and applications, 1st edn* (pp. 655–690). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-32827-8_29

Choi, C., & Murray, I. (2010). Resident attitudes towards sustainable community tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 18*(4), 575–594. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580903524852

Coccossis, H., Tsartas, P., & Griba, E. (2011). *Special and alternative forms of tourism*, 1st edn. Kritiki

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*, 2nd edn. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203771587

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary Review. *Journal of Management, 31*(6), 874–900. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602

Deery, M., Jago, L., & Fredline, L. (2012). Rethinking social impacts of tourism research: A new research agenda. *Tourism Management, 33*(1), 64–73. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.01.026

Diakomihalis, M. (2009). *Maritime tourism and its financial impact*. Stamoulis Publications. (in Greek).

Diedrich, A., & Garcia Buades, E. (2008). Local perceptions of tourism as indicators of destination decline. *Tourism Management, 30*(4), 512–521. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.10.009

Emerson, R. M., & Richard, E. (1976). Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology, 2*(1), 335–362.

Favro, S., Saganić, I., & Gržetić, Z. (2009). Controlled and managed adventure—Croatian approach to the development of nautical tourism in Croatia?". *Turizam, 13*(2), 69–74. https://doi.org/10.5937/Turizam0902069F

Fredline, L., Deery, M., & Jago, L. (2006). Development of a scale to assess the social impacts of tourism within communities, 1st edn. CRC FOR Sustainable Tourism. https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/38278672/Fredline_SocialimpactsTourism-with-cover-page-v2.pdf?Expires=1662642189&Signature=Aqh7W4-62EU5IdgfmH2ySYABkFGYf7uEY11e8yFgwuIioRvEu16HDx5J4CkYQqlLPszmy-AeTYZxhHLyN9El~npIV5GJblZYN7xNSsoyPfn7uizRYL53KoK8QI-tat. Retrieved 20 May 2022.

Gautret, P., Botelho-Nevers, E., Brouqui, P., & Parola, P. (2012). The spread of vaccine-preventable diseases by international travelers: A public health concern. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection, 18*, 77–84. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-0691.2012.03940.x

Gu, H., & Ryan, C. (2010). Constructionism and culture in research: Understandings of the 4th Buddhist festival, Wutaishan, China. *Tourism Management, 31*(2), 167–178. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.01.003

Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C., & Uysal, M. (2002). Resident attitudes: A structural modeling approach. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*(1), 79–105. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00028-7

Hadinejad, A., Moyle, B., Scott, N., Kralj, A., & Nunkoo, R. (2019). Residents' attitudes to tourism: A review. *Tourism Review, 74*(2), 150–165. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-01-2018-0003

Hair, J., Hult, G., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2022). *A primer on partial least squares structural equations modeling (PLS-SEM)*, 3rd edn. SAGE.

Haley, A. J., Snaith, T., & Miller, G. (2005). The social impacts of tourism: A case study of Bath, UK. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*(3), 647–668. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.10.009

Hall, C. M. (2001). Trends in ocean and coastal tourism: The end of the last frontier? *Ocean & Coastal Management, 44*(9–10), 601–618. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0964-5691(01)00071-0

Hall, C. M., & Page, S. J. (2014). *The geography of tourism and recreation: Environment, place and space* 4th edn. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203796092

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M. & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*, 115–135. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8

Ioannidis, S. (2019). An overview of yachting tourism and its role in the development of coastal areas of Croatia. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Issues, 1*(1), 30–43. http://www.dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/johti/issue/50895/648968. Retrieved 02 Aug 2022

Jurowski, C., Uysal, M., & Williams, D. (1997). A theoretical analysis of host community resident reaction to tourism. *Journal of Travel Research, 36*(2), 3–11. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759703600202

Jurowski, C., & Gursoy, D. (2004). Distance effects on residents' attitudes toward tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(2), 296–312. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.12.005

Kaiser, F. G., & Fuhrer, U. (2003). Ecological behavior's dependency on different forms of knowledge. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 52*(4), 598–613. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00153

Leiserowitz, A. (2006). Climate change risk perception and policy preferences: The role of affect, imagery and values. *Climatic Change, 77*(1–2), 45–72. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-006-9059-9

MacIntyre, C. R. (2020). Global spread of Covid-19 and pandemic potential. *Global Biosecurity, 2*(1). https://doi.org/10.31646/gbio.55

Marušić, Z., Horak, S., & Tomljenović, R. (2008). The socioeconomic impacts of cruise tourism: A case study of Croatian destinations'. *Tourism in Marine Environments, 5*(2–3), 131–144. https://doi.org/10.3727/154427308787716767

Mason, P., & Cheyne, J. (2000). Residents' attitudes to proposed tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research, 27*(2), 391–411. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00084-5

Meeker, B. F. (1971). Decisions and exchange. *American Sociological Review, 36*(3), 485–495. https://doi.org/10.2307/2093088

Mikulić, J., Krešić, D., & Kožić, I. (2015). Critical factors of the maritime yachting tourism experience: An impact-asymmetry analysis of principal components. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 32*(1), 30–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2014.981628

Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H. (2012). Power, trust, social exchange and community support. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(2), 997–1023. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.11.017

Nunkoo, R., Smith, S. L. J., & Ramkissoon, H. (2013). Residents attitudes to tourism: A longitudinal study of 140 articles from 1984 to 2010. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 21*(1), 5–25. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2012.673621

Orams, M. B. (2007). The impact of hosting a major marine sports tourism event: The America's cup in Auckland, New Zealand. In M. Luck (Ed), *Nautical tourism: Concept and issues*, 1st edn (pp. 97–105). Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Perdue, R., Long, P., & Allen, L. (1990). Resident support for tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research, 17*(4), 586–599. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(90)90029-Q

Qiu, R. T. R., Park, J., Li, S., & Song, H. (2020). Social costs of tourism during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Annals of Tourism Research, 84*, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.102994

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Jaafar, M., Nock, N., & Ramayah, T. (2015). A revised framework of social exchange theory to investigate the factors influencing residents' perceptions. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 16*, 335–345. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2015.10.001

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Ringle, C. M., Jaafar, M., & Ramayah, T. (2017). Urban vs rural destinations: Residents' perceptions community participation and support for tourism development. *Tourism Management, 60*, 147–158. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.11.019

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., & Seyfi, S. (2020). Residents perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development: A perspective article. *Tourism Review, 76*(1), 51–57. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-11-2019-0461

Richter, L. K. (2003). International tourism and its global public health consequences. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(4), 340–347. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287503041004002

Rogers, R. W. (1975). A protection motivation theory of fear appeals and attitude change. *The Journal of Psychology, 91*(1), 93–114. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.1975.9915803

Sharma, B., Dyer, P., Carter, J., & Gursoy, D. (2008). Exploring residents' perceptions of the social impacts of tourism on the Sunshine Coast, Australia. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration, 9*(3), 288–311. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480802096092

Sharpley, R. (2014). Host perceptions of tourism. *Tourism Management, 42*, 37–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.10.007

Sheldon, P., & Var, T. (1984). Residents' attitudes toward tourism in North Wales. *Tourism Management, 5*(1), 40–47. https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(84)90006-2

Slovic, P. (1999). Trust, emotion, sex, politics and science: Surveying the risk-assessment battlefield. *Risk Analysis, 19*(4), 689–701. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007041821623

Slovic, P., & Peters, E. (1998). The importance of worldviews in risk perception. *Risk Decision and Policy, 3*(2), 165–170.

Smith, N., & Leiserowitz, A. (2012). The rise of global warming skepticism: Exploring affective image associations in the United States over time. *Risk Analysis, 32*(6), 1021–1032. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1539-6924.2012.01801.x

Snaith, T., & Halley, A. (1999). Residents' opinions of tourism development in the historical city of York. *Tourism Management, 20*(5), 595–603. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(99)00030-8

Sutton, J. W. (1967). Travel and Understanding: Notes on the social structure of touring. *Journal of Comparative Sociology, 8*, 217–223. http://www.proquest.com/scholarly-journals/travel-understanding-notes-on-social-structure/docview/1299979350/se-2. Retrieved 29 July 2022.

van der Linden, S. (2015). The social-psychological determinants of climate change risk percpetions: Towards a comprehensive model. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 41*, 112–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2014.11.012

Vargas-Sanchez, A., Porras-Bueno, N., & Plaza-Mejia, M. A. (2011). Explaining residents' attitudes to tourism. Is a universal model possible? *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*(2), 460–480. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-7908-2725-5_15

Wang, Y., & Pfister, R. (2008). Residents' attitudes toward tourism and perceived personal benefits in a rural community. *Journal of Travel Research, 47*(1), 84–93. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507312402

Weber, E. U. (2006). Evidence-based and description-based perceptions of long-term risk: Why global warming does not scare us (yet). *Climatic Change, 77*(1–2), 103–120. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-006-9060-3

Woosnam, K., Norman, W., & Ying, T. (2009). Exploring the theoretical framework of emotional solidarity between residents and tourists. *Journal of Travel Research, 48*(2), 245–258. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509332334

Zubak, A., Jugovic, A., & Stumpf, G. (2014). Analysis and evaluation of the nautical tourism in the Republic of Croatia and its impact on destination development. In *Book of Abstracts International M-SPHERE 2014 Conference for Multidisciplinarity in Business and Science, Croatia.* https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Alen-Jugovic/publication/284170522_ANALYSIS_AND_EVALUATION_OF_THE_NAUTICAL_TOURISM_IN_THE_REPUBLIC_OF_CROATIA_AND_ITS_IMPACT_ON_DESTINATION_DEVELOPMENT/links/56781dbf08ae502c99d55f8d/ANALYSIS-AND-EVALUATION-OF-THE-NAUTICAL-TOURISM-IN-THE-REPUBLIC-OF-CROATIA-AND-ITS-IMPACT-ON-DESTINATION-DEVELOPMENT.pdf. Retrieved 25 July 2022.

A Multidimensional Approach on Economic and Social Security as Prerequisite for Tourism Development

Andreea Claudia Șerban, Ionuț Jianu, and Vicky Katsoni

Abstract The concept of economic and social security is very complex, and it is related to the challenges to synchronize the positive interaction between its two components. A stable economic and social context is very important for all economic sectors, tourism being one of the most affected sectors as willing to travel is closely connected to these aspects. Economic uncertainty and unsafe economic and social context seriously affect the expansion of tourism industry, no matter the attractiveness of the country or region. Taking into account the international context, economic security can be analysed in terms of access to resources and the decision-making process, with effect on achieving temporary or permanent advantages for different countries regarding bargaining power, as well as control over markets or resources. The complexity of the concept of economic security requires separate approaches for its different dimensions, being closely related to social aspects. We have identified five relevant dimensions/pillars interacting with economic and social aspects: demographic, globalization and technology, respectively, environment and, based on a set of relevant indicators for each of them, we propose a composite index of economic and social security for countries in Euro-Atlantic space (50 countries).

Keywords Economic security · Social security · Demography · Climate · Technology · Globalization · Tourism

1 Introduction

The concept of economic and social security is very complex, and it is related to the challenges to synchronize the positive interaction between the two components. A stable economic and social context is very important for all economic sectors, tourism

A. C. Șerban (✉) · I. Jianu
Department of Economics and Economic Policies, Bucharest University of Economic Studies, Bucharest, Romania
e-mail: andreea.serban@economie.ase.ro

V. Katsoni
Department of Tourism Management, University of West Attica, Aigaleo, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_7

being one of the most impacted sectors as willing to travel is closely connected to these aspects. Economic uncertainty and unsafe economic and social context seriously affect the expansion of tourism industry, no matter the attractiveness of the country or region. Taking into account the international context, economic security can be analysed in terms of access to resources and the decision-making process, with an effect on achieving temporary or permanent advantages for different countries regarding bargaining power, as well as control over markets or resources. Economic security aims to protect the advantages and economic and social interests of a state, maintaining and consolidating them in the long term by identifying and exploiting opportunities, maximizing development potential, in harmony with the environment (integrating issues related to sustainability and energy security) and with cultural heritage which supports additionally the tourism industry (Fu et al., 2021; Neocleous, 2006).

At the national level, economic security has profound implications for social issues, aiming to reduce vulnerabilities, poverty, the risk of social exclusion, increase people's access to better and safer jobs, protect natural resources and the environment, support tourism industry which is of great importance, especially for countries having a large contribution of this sector to GDP (e.g. Greece, Malta, Croatia, Portugal, etc.). Economic welfare and social development are in a mutual relationship (DaSilva et al., 2019; Zhang & Zhang, 2004). In this context, economic security is closely linked to the level of economic growth, with deep connections to the sustainable development process. It is also closely linked to social aspects such as the security of employment, income, quality of life and reduction of inequalities by protecting individuals against risks and uncertainty, regardless of age, sex, area of residence, level of education, etc.

Our special focus is to provide a comprehensive overview of the economic and social security in the Euro-Atlantic area and to investigate the effects of the economic growth drivers from the perspective of the index of economic and social security. The next part of our research presents the state of play for the economic and security concept. We continue in the second section with the methodology of the research and then with the results and discussion part.

2 Theoretical Framework

The complexity of the concept of economic security requires separate approaches for its different dimensions, being closely related to social aspects. Effective social security has a positive economic impact, being the cornerstone of any modern society. Social security is considered a primary tool to reduce poverty and prevent vulnerabilities (Gongcheng & Scholz, 2019). In addition, social and economic security involves other aspects that characterize the evolution of current societies and is closely linked to tourism sector, economic and social security being a prerequisite for its current and future development.

Even without directed actions, the process of globalization will continue, and the direction in which it is heading strengthens the belief that methods and tools should be adapted to the new realities (Stiglitz, 2002). Trade and technology can amplify the virtuous circle of economic growth, job creation and increased productivity. This involves new ways of using traditional factors of production, as well as new rules for organizing activities to react to the new realities.

We have identified other three relevant dimensions/pillars interacting with economic and social security: demographic, globalization and technology, respectively, environment, and, based on a set of relevant indicators for each of them, we have calculated a composite index of economic and social security for countries in Euro-Atlantic space (Fig. 1). These five dimensions are strongly related to values that contribute to the enhancement of the economic and social security.

Table 1 presents a brief review of the literature on the factors that influence economic and social security.

A major crisis affecting the most developed countries in a globalized world will impact other countries, regardless of their level of development. Economic crises, or crises in general, irrespective of their nature (e.g. COVID-19 pandemic), overpass the national borders of the countries, affecting both developed and developing countries, diminishing their economic advance. Economic crises spread from one sector to another, and they cross the public–private border. The 2008 economic crisis stressed the importance of social security. Even if the EU response to the 2008 economic crisis has been oriented in a higher extent to saving the banking sector rather than improving the social conditions, the relationship between social security and economic growth became a central issue for national and international discussions. More recently, the COVID-19 pandemic highlights the importance of adaptability and flexibility of economies, the importance of technologies and skills, testing the resilience of world economies and their ability to rapidly adopt public policies (economic and social) to overcome the crisis (UN, 2020a, 2020b; Okewu et al., 2018).

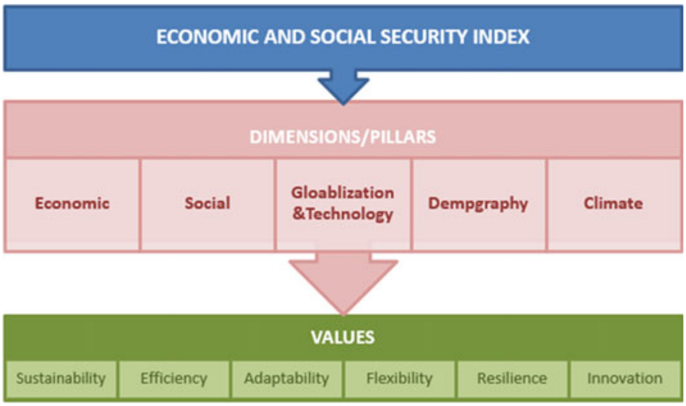


Fig. 1 Values and dimensions for economic and social security index. *Source* Authors' own processing

Table 1 Brief review of the literature on economic and social security: an overview

Literature review			
Authors	Title of the article	Key contributions	Impact on the research model
Gongcheng and Scholz (2019)	Global social security and economic development: Retrospect and prospect	Globalization, increased competition, ageing population, technology, environmental issues, lifestyle changes represent new challenges for economic development and social security around the world, closely linked to tourism industry	Economic and social security needs to be addressed considering issues related to globalization, technology, demography and environment protection
Osaulenko et al. (2020)	The productive capacity of countries through the prism of sustainable development goals: challenges to international economic security and to competitiveness	The economic security strategies go beyond the purely economic boundaries, overlapping with social aspects, environmental protection, development of advanced technologies	
Igantov (2019)	Analysis of the dynamics of the European economic security in the conditions of a changing socio-economic environment	The global economic and social environment faced major adjustments dictated by globalization and technological progress	Considering the effects of globalization and technological progress, they should be considered as subversive factors that currently affect the economic security in the EU and worldwide
Ahmed (2021)	Modelling information and communications technology cyber security externalities spillover effects on sustainable economic growth	The risks and threats are inherent in the introduction of innovative technologies and are similar to the negative externalities generated by pollutants' emissions on sustainable economic growth	

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Literature review			
Authors	Title of the article	Key contributions	Impact on the research model
Okewu et al. (2018)	An e-environment system for socio-economic sustainability and national security	The environment is largely degraded as result of economic activities or tourism development with negative effects on the goals of achieving sustainable socio-economic advancement at global level	Mitigating environmental degradation and reducing social–economic tensions can guarantee sustainable socio-economic advancement
Borowski and Patuk (2021)	Environmental, social and economic factors in sustainable development with food, energy and eco-space aspect security	Sustainable development became a key factor in the global economy	
Yenilmez (2015)	Economic and social consequences of population ageing the dilemmas and opportunities in the twenty-first century	The process of ageing population affects many aspects of the current societies, e.g. health, education, social security systems, labour market, tourism, etc.	Several of demographic aspects are vitally important to assess the impact of ageing on economic growth and social security systems. Furthermore, there are other factors that can influence the impact of demographic issues on macroeconomic performance
Maity and Sinha (2021)	Linkages between economic growth and population ageing with a knowledge spillover effect	Education positively impacts macroeconomic performance. Knowledge spillover can marginalize the negative effect on economic growth, but the extent to which it compensates differs across countries	
Kotschy and Sunde (2018)	Can education compensate for the effect of population ageing on macroeconomic performance?		
Goczek et al. (2021)	How does education quality affect economic growth?	Years of schooling are the main driving force of economic growth related to education	Education plays a central role in our study, both in the index methodology framework and in the quantitative assessment process
Hanushek and Wößmann (2007)	The role of education in economic growth	Cognitive skills are more relevant for educational impact on growth compared to school attainment	

Source Authors' own compilation

Even our societies are dominated by permanent changes in all areas, the labour market needs special attention, due to the central role of labour compared to other factors of production and to possible social effects in case of imbalances (Moen et al., 2020; Sias et al., 2020). The labour market is increasingly facing new challenges: inequality of access and opportunities on the national and global labour market, discrimination and marginalization, exclusion and inequality, lack of qualifications, etc.

3 Research Methodology

We considered a multidimensional approach to construct an index of economic and social security using five dimensions: economic, social, globalization and technology, demography and environment/climate. Based on the data availability, for each dimension we used relevant indicators. In our dataset, we considered many international databases (Eurostat, World Bank Statistics, Human Development Report Data, Ourworldindata database, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs data—SDG indicators, International Monetary Fund Statistics, etc.) to reflect the position of the statistical indicators for 2019 (but also for 2017 or 2018 when these were the latest data available).

For each of the five dimensions, we used 4–6 indicators (Fig. 2), with equal shares, and, in order to reduce the impact of extreme values, we limited the data to the interval 5th (worst performance threshold) to 95th percentile (best performance threshold), using a winsorization process. Further, using the methodology of World Economic Forum WEF (2019) to design the Global Competitiveness Report 2019, we have calculated for each indicator a score ranking from 0 to 100 by dividing the difference between indicator value and the worst performance threshold with the difference between best and worst performance threshold. For indicators with a negative connotation (e.g. age dependency ratio, etc.), we have inversed the score obtained for the indicator.

To calculate the index for each dimension and the index of economic and social security, we used equal shares for each indicator and of the five dimensions, respectively (for dimensions considering 4 indicators we used a 25% share for each indicator; for dimensions considering 5 indicators we used a 20% share for each indicator; for dimensions considering 6 indicators, we used a 16,66% share for each indicator; for the composite index that includes the five dimensions mentioned above, we used a 20% share for each). We investigated the economic and social security for 50 countries from Euro-Atlantic space, and we consider within this group of world countries four separate groups: Group 1—EU, Group 2—Europe-non-EU (including EU neighbouring states and EU candidate Countries), Group 3—USA and Canada, Group 4—Former Soviet Countries (Fig. 3).

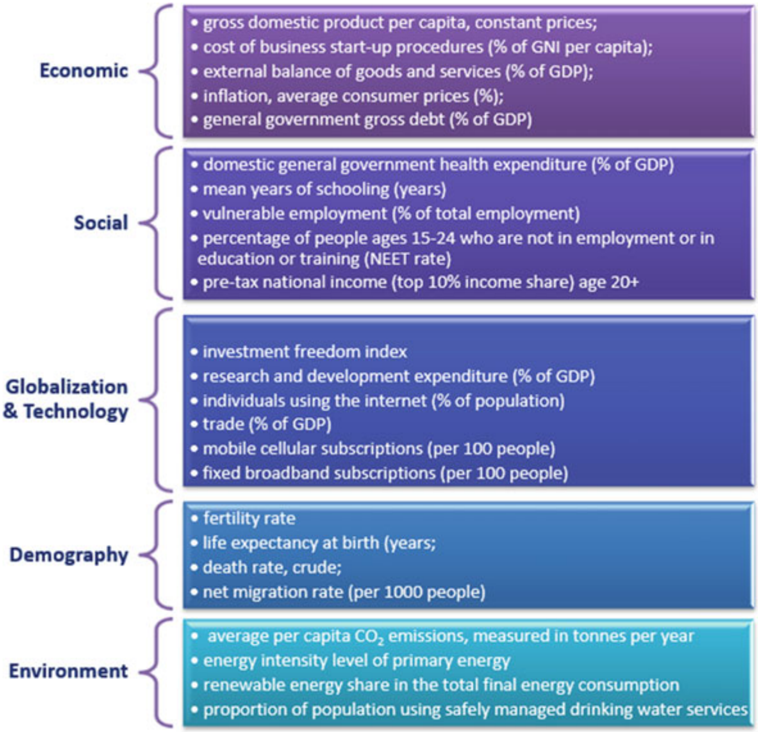


Fig. 2 Dimensions and relevant indicators

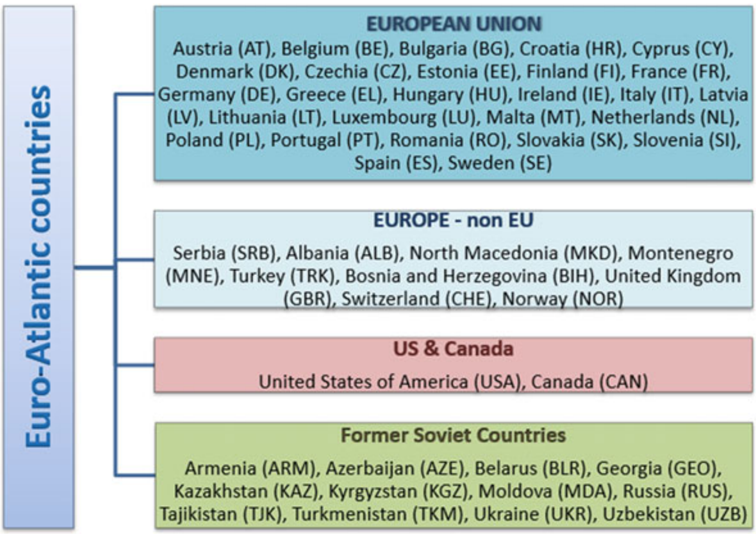


Fig. 3 Countries from the Euro-Atlantic space

4 Results and Discussion

In line with our methodology, we calculated the socio-economic security index which comprises five index components (with equal shares), as follows: demographic, climate, globalization and ITC adaptation, social and economic.

Based on our research methodology, we have calculated an index for each dimension and the results will be further discussed for each of the five pillars of our proposed approach.

For **demographic dimension**, we have used four indicators, relevant for the ageing process which characterizes the current societies (25% share for each in demographic index):

- fertility rate (births per woman)—World Bank data, 2019;
- death rate, crude (per 1000 people)—World Bank data, 2019;
- life expectancy at birth (years)—World Bank data, 2019;
- net migration rate (per 1000 people)—United Nations Development Programme (Human Development Reports) data, 2020.

Figure 4 shows that the demographic is one of the most varied components of the composite index at the level of the country groups. In this respect, some favourable ranks of former Soviet countries were supported by the high fertility rate (births per woman in 2019—e.g. 3.56 in TJK the highest rate from the Euro-Atlantic countries; 3.30 in KGZ—the second highest rate; 2.90 in KAZ—the third highest rate; 2.79 in UZB—the fourth highest rate) and low death rate (deaths per 1.000 people in 2019—e.g. 4.6 in UZB—the lowest rate from the Euro-Atlantic countries; 4,7 in TJK—the second lowest rate; 5.2 in KGZ—the third lowest rate). However, their rankings have been constrained by the low life expectancy[1] (CHE—1st with a life expectancy at birth of 83.70 years in 2019; ES—2nd with 83.49 years; IT—3rd with 83.20 years; SE—4th with 82.96 years) and net migration rate[2] (LU—1st; AT—2nd; DE—3rd; CAN—4th), in these cases—first two EU subgroups and countries from Group 2 being better positioned. As it can be seen in Fig. 4, the fourth better-placed countries from the perspective of the demographic index are IE (74.23 score), LU (70.75 score), CHE (70.63 score) and NOR (70.20), these reporting the most balanced data at the level of each of the four indicators. On the contrary, the lowest values of the demographic index were registered in UKR (12.39 score), LV (13.66 score), LT (17.78 score) and MDA (19.63 score).

For the **Climate dimension**, we used also four indicators (25% share for each). This section was one of the most difficult in terms of data availability for the group of 50 countries. Even for EU countries, there is a wide availability, and for Group 4,

[1] The lowest four values of life expectancy reported for 2019 were registered in UZB (71.73 years—life expectancy at birth—47th place), KGZ (71.60 years—48th place), TJK (71.10 years—49th place) and TKM (68.19 years—50th place).

[2] The lowest four values of the net migration rate per 1.000 people reported for 2020 were registered in ALB (−4.9%—47th place), BIH (−6.4%—48th place), LV (−7.6%—49th place) and LT (−11.6%—50th place).

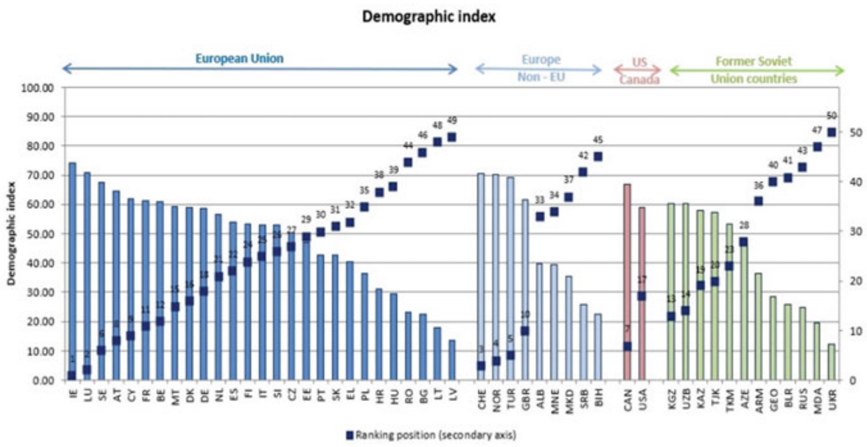


Fig. 4 Demographic index—scores and rankings. *Source* Own calculations based on the data presented in the methodology section

there is an opposite situation. We chose the indicators based on their relevance and their availability, considering the sustainability challenge worldwide:

- average per capita CO_2 emissions, measured in tonnes per year—Ourworldindata database, 2019;
- renewable energy share in the total final energy consumption—United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs data—SDG indicators, 2018;
- energy intensity level of primary energy (megajoules per constant 2017 purchasing power parity GDP)—United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs data—SDG indicators, 2018;
- proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services—United Nations data, 2019 (excepting HR—2007 data).

With regard to the climate component of the index (Fig. 5), we found that the best performers were SE (87.52 score), LV (85.4 score), DK (85.28 score) and NOR (81.54 score), while the worst performers were RUS (14.94 score), KAZ (21.04 score), UZB (22.31 score) and TKM (23.45 score). In recent years, the European Union has made many efforts to promote their green transition agenda, environmental objectives being highly prioritized within the Europe 2020 Strategy and other EU financial instruments (e.g. Recovery and Resilience Facility)—which is also reflected in the climate ranking, while the main EU competitor—USA, ranks 45th (41.16 score)—6 places after the worst performer of the EU (LU—56.06 score). Even if some former Soviet countries rank among the best performers in terms of the CO_2 emissions,[3] EU countries and the countries from Group 2 are catching-up this gap through energy

[3] TJK registers the lowest value of average per capita CO_2 emissions in 2019—0.963 tonnes per year; MDA—the second lowest value of the indicator—1.474; KGZ—the third lowest value of the indicator—1.790; ALB—the fourth lowest value—1.936.

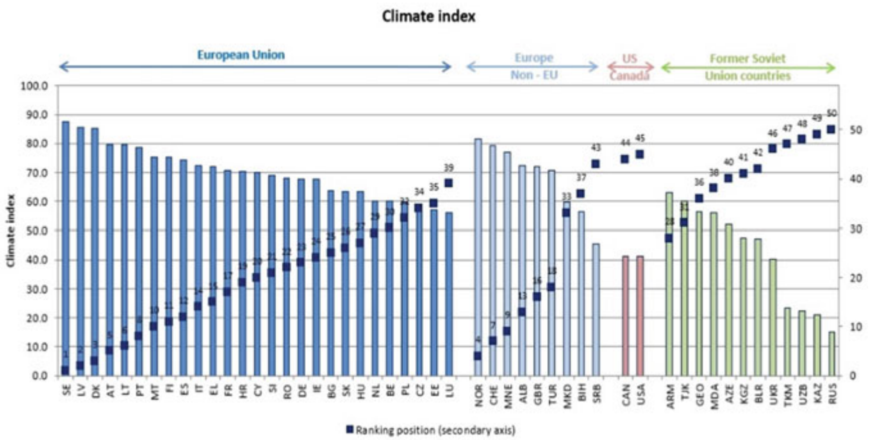


Fig. 5 Climate index—scores and rankings. *Source*: Own calculations using Microsoft Office Excel, based on the data presented in the methodology section

efficiency (first four places are occupied by MT, IE, CHE and DK), renewable energy (first four places are occupied by NOR, SE, FI and LV) and proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services (first ten places being occupied by BE, CY, FI, DE, EL, MT, NL, ES, SE, GBR with an equal maximum score).

Our third dimension refers to **globalization and ITC adaptation dimension**. This is the most complex and challenging aspect which characterizes the current societies. There are many aspects that should be considered, that is why we included the highest number of indicators, six, with equal shares 16.66%:

- research and development expenditure (% of GDP)—World Bank / Eurostat data, 2018 (excepting ALB -2019 data, CHE—in this case 2018 value has been obtained by computing the average of 2017 and 2019 data, TKM—since there are no data available);
- investment freedom index—heritage data, 2019;
- trade (% of GDP)—World Bank data, 2019 (excepting TKM—2018 data);
- mobile cellular subscriptions (per 100 people)—World Bank data, 2019 (excepting TKM and TJK—2017 data);
- individuals using the internet (% of population)—World Bank / Eurostat / World data/Statista data, 2019;
- fixed broadband subscriptions (per 100 people)—World Bank data, 2019 (excepting TKM and TJK—2017 data).

The USA obtained a better position (13th place) with respect to the globalization and ITC adaptation component of the index (Fig. 6), compared to the position registered in the case of the other components. Its position is mainly driven by research and development expenditure as a % of GDP (6th place—2.83% of GDP in 2018), investment freedom (8th = 16th place—in the case of this indicator, many values are equal between countries), mobile cellular subscriptions (12th place with 134,45

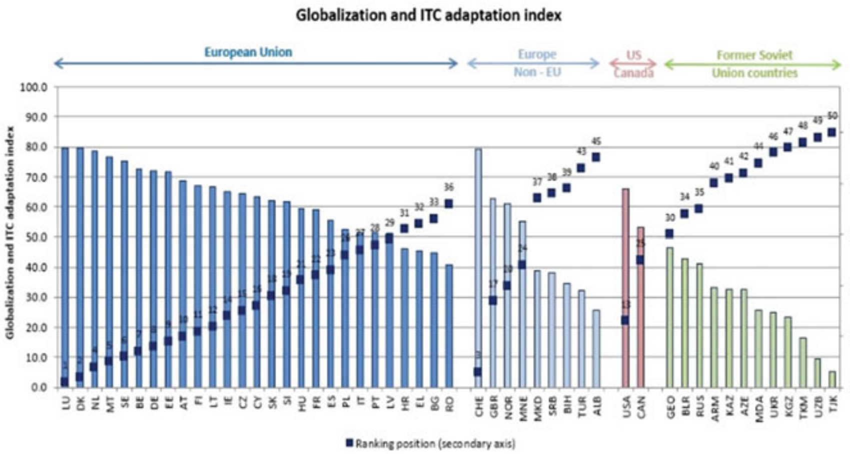


Fig. 6 Globalization and ITC adaptation index—scores and rankings. *Source* Own calculations using Microsoft Office Excel, based on the data presented in the methodology section

mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 people in 2019), but severely affected by the low trade openness (last place in the Euro-Atlantic countries ranking—the sum between exports and imports representing only 26% of GDP in 2019). In particular, we identified LU (1st),[4] DK (2nd),[5] CHE (3rd)[6] and NL (4th) as the best performers in terms of globalization and ITC adaptation, while TJK (50th), UZB (49th), TKM (48th) and KGZ (47th) occupy the last four places. Figure 6 shows that the situation is extremely balanced between the USA—EU and EU neighbouring countries. In this respect, the EU average score is 62.29, which is close (but lower) to the USA score (66.11) and to the average of EU neighbouring countries (CHE, NOR and GBR—67.73). In particular, the indicators we assessed demonstrate that we are living in a globalized/digitalized world even if there are some differences between the country groups mentioned above. However, there are also exceptions, such as EU candidate countries and former Soviet countries, which register low index values.

The social dimension was included in our approach as there was a special need within our analysis to focus on aspects that directly affect people's life from the social point of view. We used five indicators, with 20% share each, characterizing the education, health, employment and wages:

[4] LU is leading the ranking in the case of two subindicators (investment freedom and trade), while it is ranked 3rd in the case of the rate of individuals using Internet.

[5] DK registered the highest rate of individuals using Internet in 2019, the 2nd position (equal values for countries positioned between 2nd and 7th places) in terms of investment freedom, the fourth position in the case of fixed broadband subscriptions (per 100 people) and the 5th position in terms of R&D expenditure.

[6] CHE is leading the ranking depending on fixed broadband subscriptions (per 100 people) and occupying the second position in terms of R&D expenditure and the 8th position in the case of investment freedom (equal values for countries positioned between 8th and 16th).

- domestic general government health expenditure (% of GDP)—World Bank data, 2018;
- pre-tax national income (top 10% income share) age 20+ (before taking into account the operation of the tax/transfer system, but after taking into account the operation of pension system)—World Inequality Database, 2019;
- vulnerable employment (% of total employment)—World Bank data, 2019;
- mean years of schooling (years)—average number of years of education received by people ages 25 and older—United Nations Development Programme (Human Development Reports) data, 2019;
- percentage of people ages 15–24 who are not in employment or in education or training (NEET rate)—United Nations Development Programme (Human Development Reports) data, 2019.

Regarding the social dimension (Fig. 7), the best performers are NOR (1st), SE (2nd), DK (3rd) and DE (4th), while the last four countries of the ranking are TKM (50th), TUR (49th), ALB (48th) and TJK (47th). As can be observed the ranking is led by the northern European countries as a consequence of their efficient inclusive socio-economic policies. However, the high credibility and transparency of government provide the appropriate incentives for people to work, even if the social transfers are significant (in NOR, SE and DK, the government expenditures on social protection are higher than 19% of GDP in each case). It is worth to mention that the USA registers an index value of 73.04 (19th place), close to the EU average (72.31), while former Soviet countries and EU candidate countries are the worst performers. In particular, an important component of the social dimension index consists of government expenditure with the health sector (expressed as a percentage of GDP). The higher values of this indicator were found in the case of SE (1st), DE (2nd), NOR (3rd) and USA (4th), while the lowest shares were registered in AZE (50th), TKM (49th), ARM (48th) and KAZ (47th). DE (1st), CHE (2nd), USA (3rd) and CAN (4th) leads the ranking depending on the mean years of schooling, while the best performers in terms of vulnerable employment (the lowest shares) are BLR (1st), USA (2nd), NOR (3rd) and DK (4th). Regarding the NEET rate, the highest values have been found in the case of NL (1st), NOR (2nd) and DE (3rd), while the worst performances were found in the case of ARM (50th), ALB (49th), MDA (48th) and GEO (47th). In the case of all indicators used to calculate the social dimension index, the lowest values were found in former Soviet countries and TUR (TUR ranked 50th in terms of income inequality surprised by the share of top 10% earners in pre-tax national income—the best performers are CZ, SE and NL; and also the last in the case of mean years of schooling).

Our last dimension was the **economic** one. The proposed approach for calculating an economic and social security index could not be developed without a bold contribution of the economic aspects (20% share for each) as follows:

- gross domestic product per capita, constant prices (purchasing power parity; 2017 international dollar)—20% share—International Monetary Fund data, 2019;
- general government gross debt (% of GDP)—International Monetary Fund data, 2019;

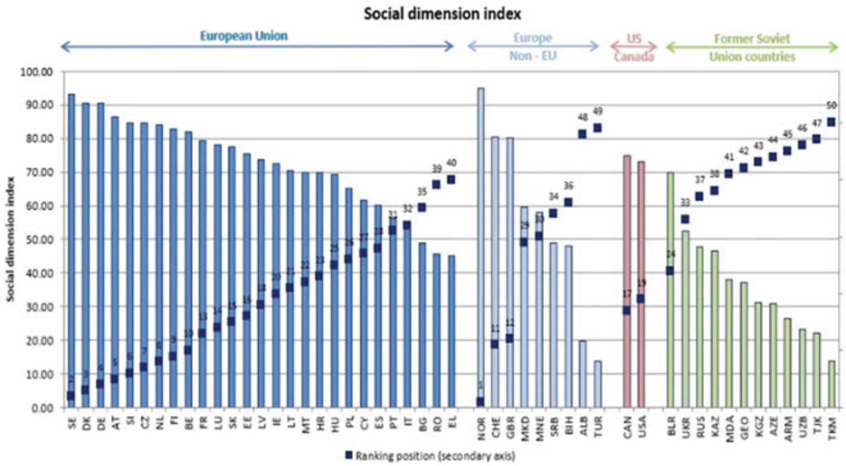


Fig. 7 Social dimension index—scores and rankings. *Source* Own calculations using Microsoft Office Excel, based on the data presented in the methodology section

- external balance of goods and services (% of GDP)—20% share—World Bank data, 2019 (excepting TKM—2018 data);
- inflation, average consumer prices (%)—20% share—International Monetary Fund data, 2019;
- cost of business start-up procedures (% of GNI per capita)—20% share—World Bank data, 2019 (excepting TKM—since there are no data available).

As we can see in Fig. 8, the best performers are LU (1st—93.58 score), CHE (2nd—92.02 score), IE (3rd—90.55 score) and DK (4th—89.72 score), while the last four countries positioned at the bottom of the ranking are TJK (50th—14.85 score), ALB (49th—36.73 score), UZB (48th—40.75 score) and MDA (47th—40.94 score). LU leads the ranking we made depending on GDP per capita expressed in constant prices—PPS and external balance of goods and services as % of GDP, while CHE ranks among the thirst three countries in the case of three indicators (of five) we used to calculate the economic dimension index, such as GDP per capita (3rd place), external balance of goods and services (3rd place) and annual average inflation rate (2nd place). On the other hand, IE register the second-highest GDP per capita in 2019, the third-lowest cost of business start-up procedures (% of GNI per capita) and the fourth-highest external balance of goods and services. Nevertheless, there are also other countries that occupy are well-positioned from the perspective of some indicators, but do not perform well in the case of other indicators relevant to the economic dimension, which limits the possibility of occupying one of the first places in the case of the economic dimension. In this context, we provide some relevant examples to have a clear overview of this dimension: SI and GBR—register the lowest two levels of the cost of business start-up procedures (these countries share the first two places in the ranking depending by this indicator); MT register the second

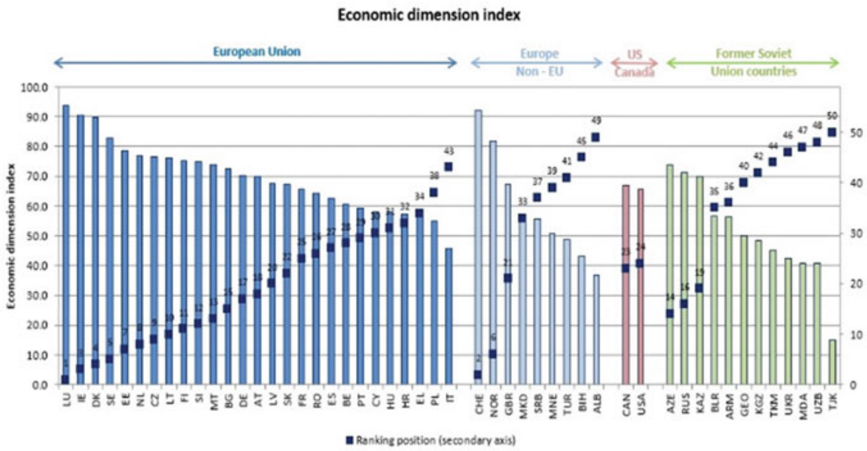


Fig. 8 Economic dimension index—scores and rankings. *Source* Own calculations using Microsoft Office Excel, based on the data presented in the methodology section

highest share in GDP of external balance of goods and services; PT (1st) and MNE (3rd) are among best performers in terms of annual average inflation rate, while EE (1st), RUS (2nd) and AZE (3rd) register the lowest three shares of government gross debt in GDP—at the opposite are EL (50th), IT (49th), PT (48th) and USA (47th) with the highest four levels of government debt (% of GDP). As a general point, EU (as average—69.58 score) performs better than USA—for which we calculated an index score of 65.53.

As we were expected, based on the separate analysis of each dimension, after we integrated the five dimensions in the composite economic and social security index, in the first half of the ranking we identified countries from European Union, including some Eastern EU countries (Sweden, Denmark, Luxembourg, Ireland, Austria, Germany, Netherlands, Malta, Finland, Slovenia, Belgium, France, Czechia, Estonia, Cyprus, Slovakia, Latvia, Spain, Latvia and Poland), other three countries from Europe (Switzerland, Norway and UK), as well as USA and Canada (Fig. 9).

The rest of the EU countries (Portugal, Hungary, Italy, Croatia, Poland, Greece, Bulgaria and Romania), three countries from Europe-non-EU (Montenegro, Macedonia and Turkey) and one country from the Former Soviet group (Azerbaijan) ranked in the 3rd index quartile, while in the 4th quartile were positioned three Europe-non-EU countries (Serbia, Bosnia Herzegovina, Albania) and the rest of nine Former Soviet countries.

The countries with low index performance from European Union were Romania and Bulgaria. For Romania, the last EU performer, the most challenging were demography and social dimensions and within these the net migration rate and mean years of schooling were the most burdensome. These could endanger the future development possibilities, considering the ageing process and the future need for social security for larger and low-educated generations. Some demographic aspects (life

Fig. 9 Economic and social security index—best and worst performers for each group. *Source* Own calculations using Microsoft Office Excel, based on the data presented in the methodology section

expectancy or death crude rate) and access to technology (e.g. individuals using the internet) were the most compromising aspects for the second low performance in EU for Bulgaria.

5 Conclusion

The complexity of the economic and social security concept requires a multidimensional approach. It is related to the challenges to efficiently link its two components, economic and social, considering also the factors and realities that characterize our current societies. In a very turbulent international context, economic security can be analysed in terms of control and access to resources and the decision-making process. Nevertheless, not only resources are important for ensuring the economic and social security, but also the challenges and the strategies to turn them into opportunities. Some sectors are more affected than others of the fast and unexpected situations. For these sectors, as is the tourism case, there is a highly need of identifying the most challenging factors and to include them in long-term strategies to ensure smooth transition within the economic cycle.

The economic security is not an independent concept, it is closely related to social aspects, and it requires a holistic approach to integrate and consider different dimensions. Consequently, we have identified other three relevant dimensions/pillars interacting with economic and social dimension, namely demographic, globalization and technology, environment. Based on a set of relevant indicators for each of them, we calculated an index for each dimension and we ranked the countries from the Euro-Atlantic space considering its level. Based on the five indexes, we proposed a composite index of economic and social security for countries in Euro-Atlantic space (50 countries) split into four groups: European Union, Europe–non-EU, USA and Canada and Former Soviets countries.

Our aim was to evaluate factors with high impact on tourism industry from economic and social perspective, considering also the other three facets of our proposed index. All aspects considered in the construction of our index are important for the tourism industry, particularly for: the tourist flows, the capacity to increase attractiveness of some area or increase the connectivity to/from different regions, the traces on the environment from tourism or transportation, etc. We found that European Union countries generally perform better in all dimensions of economic and social security index. The most challenging dimension for the future seems to be the demographic one, where Former Soviet countries have a net advantage. Considering the low performance of EU under this dimension, we can conclude also that the demographic characteristics could increase uncertainty of future tourism development if the opportunities are not well managed in response to a decreasing and ageing population. Taking into account our approach, we consider that a dynamic profiling of the factor influencing economic and social performance and security should be the strategic path for turning the current challenges (demographic, environment, globalization) into long-term opportunities for EU countries and for the world economy. In this context, the most important values needed to be target are sustainability, adaptability, flexibility and resilience.

References

Ahmed, E. M. (2021). Modelling information and communications technology cyber security externalities spillover effects on sustainable economic growth. *JoUrnal of the Knowledge Economy, 12*(1), 412–430.

Borowski, P. F., & Patuk, I. (2021). Environmental, social and economic factors in sustainable development with food, energy and eco-space aspect security. *Present Environment and Sustainable Development, 15*(1), 153–169.

DaSilva, A. L., Tomic, D., & Grilec, A. (2019). The effect of individual economic indicators on social development, national security and democracy: a new perspective. In *Economic and Social Development (Esd), Book Series: International Scientific Conference on Economic and Social Development* (pp. 205–214).

Fu, R., Hoell, A., Mankin, J., Sheffield, A., & Simpson, I. (2021). Tackling challenges of a drier, hotter, more fire-prone future. *Eos Transactions American Geophysical Union Eos, 102*,. https://doi.org/10.1029/2021EO156650

Goczek, L., Witkowska, E., & Witkowski, B. (2021). How does education quality affect economic growth?, *Sustainability, 13*(11), 6437. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13116437

Gongcheng, Z., & Scholz W. (2019). Global social security and economic development: Retrospect and prospect. *International Labour Organization.* https://www.ilo.org/beijing/information-resources/public-information/factsheets/WCMS_723404/lang--en/index.htm

Hanushek Eric, A., & Wößmann, L. (2007). The Role of Education in Economic Growth, Policy Research Working Paper; No. 4122. World Bank, Washington, DC. World Bank.

Ignatov, A. (2019). Analysis of the dynamics of the European economic security in the conditions of a changing socio-economic environment. *New Medit, 18*(2), 15–38.
Kotschy, R., & Sunde, U. (2018). Can education compensate the effect of population ageing on macroeconomic performance? *Economic Policy*, 33(96), 589+.
Maity, S., & Sinha, A. (2021). Linkages between economic growth and population ageing with a knowledge spillover effect. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy, 12*(4), 1905–1924.
Moen, P., Pedtke, J.H., & Flood, S. (2020). Disparate disruptions: Intersectional COVID-19 employment effects by age, gender, education, and race. *Ethnicity, Work Aging and Retirement, 6*(4), 207–228.
Neocleous, M. (2006). From social to national security: On the fabrication of economic order. *Security Dialogue, 37*(3), 363–384.
Osaulenko, et al. (2020). The productive capacity of countries through the prism of sustainable development goals: Challenges to international economic security and to competitiveness. *Financial and Credit Activity Problems of Theory and Practice, 33*(2), 492–499.
Okewu, E., Misra, S., Fernandez Sanz, L., Maskeliunas, R., & Damasevicius, R. (2018). An e-environment system for socio-economic sustainability and national security. *Problemy Ekorozwoju, 13*(1), 121–132.
Okewu, O., Yatsenko, O., Reznikova, N., Rusak, D., & Nitsenko, V. (2020). The productive capacity of countries through the prism of sustainable development goals: Challenges to international economic security and to competitiveness. *Financial and Credit Activity-Problems of Theory and Practice, 2*(33), 492–499.
Sias, M. C., Joyce, R., Postel-Vinay, F., & Xu, X. (2020). The challenges for labor market policy during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Fiscal Studies, 41*(2), 371–382.
Stiglitz, J. (2002). *Globalization and its discontents*. Norton Publishing.
UN. (2020a). Shared Responsibility, Global Solidarity: Responding to the socio-economic impacts of COVID-19, New York. https://unsdg.un.org/sites/default/files/2020a-03/SG-Report-Socio-Economic-Impact-of-Covid19.pdf
UN. (2020b). Recovering better: economic and social challenges and opportunities, UN, New York. https://www.un.org/development/desa/en/wp-content/uploads/2020b/07/RECOVER_BETTER_0722-1.pdf
World Economic Forum WEF. (2019). The Global Competitiveness Report 2019, WEF 2019. https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TheGlobalCompetitivenessReport2019.pdf
Yenilmez, M. I. (2015). Economic and social consequences of population aging the dilemmas and opportunities in the twenty-first century. *Applied Research in Quality of Life, 10*(4), 735–752.
Zhang, J., & Zhang, J. S. (2004). How does social security affect economic growth? Evidence from Cross-Country Data. *Journal of Population Economics, 17*(3), 473–500.

Leadership Styles and Group Dynamics in the Tourism Industry

Angelos Ntalakos, Dimitrios Belias, and Nikolaos Tsigilis

Abstract Leadership is one of the most discussed topics in organization management over the past 50 years. Leadership studies have showed direct relationships between leadership styles and a variety of occupational outcomes, such as job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Similarly, (Wolman, The Journal of Social Psychology 43:11–25, 1956) was one of the first researchers who identified four leadership styles that influence the dynamics of a group. Nowadays, it is commonly accepted that team leaders provide a supportive context for teams by focusing on the team's direction, structure, and external relations (Wageman et al., The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science. 41:373–398, 2005). One of the primary roles of the team leader is to set the direction for the team. This is very important because establishing a clear and engaging direction for the team is a crucial part of motivating team performance (Levi, D. (2017). Group dynamics for Teams (5th edition). Sage Publications, Inc.). Although there is an efficient amount of papers on leadership styles, there seems to be a scientific research lack on the connection between leadership styles and group dynamics. In addition, whereas there are a few papers connecting leadership and group dynamics (Barnett and McCormick, Educational Management Administration & Leadership 40:653–671, 2012; Yammarino et al., 2010), there is a significant research gap on the connection between leadership and group in the tourism industry. The aim of this paper is to examine the current literature review concerning the relationship between organizational leadership styles and group dynamics in general, as well as in tourism industry; the methodology which will be used is literature selection of papers and articles retrieved from online bibliographic databases.

Keywords Leadership styles · Group dynamics · Relationship · Tourism industry

A. Ntalakos (✉) · D. Belias · N. Tsigilis
Department of Business Administration, University of Thessaly, 41500 Larisa, Geopolis, Greece
e-mail: antalakos@uth.gr

D. Belias
e-mail: dbelias@uth.gr

N. Tsigilis
e-mail: ntsigilis@jour.auth.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_8

JEL Classifications M10 · M12

1 Introduction

One of the first definitions which connects the term of leadership with the term of group dynamics was introduced by Polish-American psychologist Benjamin Wolman. According to Wolman (1956), "*leadership is defined as a relationship between one or more individuals and one or more other individuals within the framework of the social unit called a group. One part of the group is being called leader or leaders, while the other part is called followers. In this relationship the activities of the followers are initiated, stimulated, and sometimes determined and controlled by the leader(s)*".

During the past 50 years, scholars and practitioners have examined thoroughly the concept of leadership styles. Although there is a plethora of articles and papers which "bring to the surface" the connection of leadership styles with several Human Resources concepts such as job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, job stress and burnout, work conflict, job commitment, change management, employee training, and job well-being (Belias & Trihas, 2022a, 2022b; Belias et al., 2022, 2017, 2020a, 2020b; Koutiva et al., 2020; Rossidis et al., 2021), there seems to be a huge research gap regarding the connection between leadership and group dynamics. Even when there are a few papers concerning these two variables, the majority of them study the relationship between leadership styles and some of the subscales (dimensions) of group dynamics, such as team cohesion, team effectiveness, and team motivation (Mohanty & Mohanty, 2018; Rahbi et al., 2017; Ramzaninezhad & Keshtan, 2009).

Furthermore, another enormous research gap that exists is the fact that there are none or to be more precise a very small amount of researches that examine the linkage between leadership and group dynamics in the tourism and hospitality industry. The most common fields that scholars have investigated the above linkage are: military strategy, educational management, banking, sport management, and multicultural organizations (Aritz & Walker, 2014; Ramzaninezhad & Keshtan, 2009; Yamarino et al., 2010).

The main purpose of the current paper is to examine the current literature regarding the relationship between leadership styles and group dynamics in general, as well as in the tourism and hospitality industry. The methodology which will be used is literature selection of papers, studies, articles retrieved from online scientific databases (such as ScienceDirect, Web of Sciences, Google Scholar, and Elsevier Scopus). Moreover, the current paper will suggest research tools which can be used in order to measure leadership styles and group dynamics. Due to the lack of theoretical and practical models that connect leadership styles and group dynamics (especially in the tourism industry), the authors hope to trigger for future theoretical and practical research with implementation in the tourism/hospitality industry.

2 Methodology

The methodology that is used in the current paper is literature review, accompanied by critical analysis. All the data were collected from high-quality scientific journals, books, conference proceedings, papers, business reports, and scientific websites. Moreover, the databases which used were the following: Google Scholar, ScienceDirect, Elsevier Scopus, and Emerald. Also, the authors used several other sources based on their accessibility the authors have provided by the affiliated institutions. The criteria which the authors based on, in order to select the literature information, were: (a) the relevance to the terms examined by the paper and (b) the date of the publishing (approximately 10 years until July of 2022).

For the implementation of the research, the authors used a combination of keywords such as "Leadership styles", "Leadership", "Group Dynamics", "Team Dynamics", "Team Cohesion", "Team Effectiveness", "Team Performance", "Relationship", "Impact", "Effect", "Tourism Industry", "Hospitality Industry", "Hotels", and "Organizations". The authors chose those keywords because these keywords are related directly with the subject of their research; keywords that are associated with the effect of leadership and group dynamics in the hospitality industry. All the sources used should have contained some of the keywords in their topic, abstract, keywords, or the research section.

To sum up, the selection criteria of the literature information were associated with three factors: (a) the publishing should be as recent as possible, (b) the publishing should cover a wide geographic coverage including different countries and cities, and (c) the publishing should provide useful insights, conclusions, and theoretical framework and practical–empirical researches.

Thus, this paper aims on investigating the existing literature review. In order to succeed its goal, the paper will make a thorough examination on the hypotheses and results of the papers that have been already published.

Eventually, the current study through literature review should try to shed some light on the following questions:

RQ 1 Is there a positive connection between leadership styles and group dynamics on organizations in general and more specifically in the tourism industry?
RQ 2 Which leadership styles have stronger effect on group dynamics?
RQ 3 Do leadership styles have an effect on group dynamics subscales, such as team effectiveness or team cohesion?
RQ 4 Are there any practical models in order to measure leadership styles and group dynamics?
RQ 5 Is there any model to connect leadership styles and group dynamics? Does it have an apply on the tourism industry?

3 Literature Review

3.1 The Concept of Leadership Styles—Definitions and Measurement Tools

The concept of leadership has attracted the interest of scholars during the past 100 years (Rossidis et al., 2020). According to Yukl and Becker (2006), an effective leadership can be defined by the fact that it can provide meaning to events, it can align goals and objectives, it can support the followers in order to be committed to the organization, and finally it can establish trust and support between leaders and followers.

In previous studies, leadership styles have been associated with several terms of management, such as organizational culture, organizational learning culture, job satisfaction, job conflict, work stress, work burnout, and emotional intelligence (Belias & Koustelios, 2014; Belias et al., 2015a, 2015b; Ntalakos et al., 2022b; Viterouli & Belias, 2021).

Over the past 100 years, scholars have defined leadership through four main categories (Northouse, 2021; Rossidis et al., 2020):

(a) **Trait Theory**: It suggests that leaders are born with the skills and characteristics that make them an effective leader.
(b) **Behavioral Theory**: It suggests that leaders have behavioral characteristics which they can be adopted by the others in order to be leaders.
(c) **Contingency/Situational Theory**: It suggests that leaders act according to the situation they are involved in.
(d) **New charismatic Theory**: It includes all the updated theories about leadership.

The above-forth main category consists of the modern theories that are associated with the leadership styles, and they are widely used nowadays by scholars. Some of the most famous leadership styles are the following:

- **Transformational leadership**
- **Transactional leadership**
- **Laissez-faire leadership**.

Transformational leader is defined as a leader who can vision the future of the organization and can share this vision with peers and subordinates; he/she can also stimulate subordinates in an intellectual way as well as he/she can take into serious consideration the individual differences among people (Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership consists of four dimensions (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Crews et al., 2019; Ghuzayyil, 2021): (a) idealized influence (charisma) (leader shows commitment, trust and he/she can handle difficult situations), (b) inspirational motivation (leader communicates the vision to the followers, motivates, and encourages the followers to achieve the best they can do), (c) intellectual stimulation (leader questions the old fashioned beliefs and encourage the implementation of new ideas and perspectives made by the followers), and (d) individual consideration (leader communicates clearly and efficiently with the followers in order to consider their thoughts, needs, and abilities).

Transactional leader is defined as a leader who can operate in the existing set values and culture of the organization; he/she also prefers to avoid risks and pays attention to time deadlines and the product efficiency of the organization (Bass, 1985). Transactional leadership consists of three dimensions (Crews et al., 2019; Jensen et al., 2016): (a) contingent reward (leader focuses on giving rewards to subordinates for increased job performance, (b) active management—by—exception (leader intervenes according to leader–follower transactions), and (c) passive management—by—exception (leader leaves the subordinates to take responsibility for their action, and intervenes when problems arise).

Laissez-faire leadership is defined as a complete lack of leadership (Avolio, 1999). Leaders apply laissez-faire leadership due to the fact that they avoid responsibility by waiting for another person to take action and they cannot decide easily what to do. However, Avolio (1999) suggest that there are some situations that laissez-faire leadership is the appropriate one in order for a problem to be solved (such as sport management, when an athlete leader thinks that this attitude will bring the individual's perceived effectiveness) (Loughead et al., 2020).

Some other leadership styles that are used frequently by scholars are the following.

Authoritarian Leadership Style: In this type of leadership, leaders are distant from their employees. Authoritarian leaders apply this type of leadership using demands, punishments, regulations, and orders (Rahbi et al., 2017). In addition, authoritarian leaders make all the decisions by themselves and the subordinates have to follow their instructions without question or comment (Greenfield, 2007). This leadership style weakens the creativity and innovation of the followers due to the fact that managers consider themselves always to be correct (Rahbi et al., 2017). However, authoritarian leadership style has a major advantage: When there is an emergency and a task must be completed in a few time, then an employee needs to be disciplined and structured in order for a job to be quickly done. In this situation, authoritarian leadership can be adopted (Wiesenthal et al., 2015).

Democratic Leadership Style: This leadership style is also called participative leadership style. Some basic principles that are supported in democratic leadership style are equality, self-determination, cooperation, and active participation. For this reason, democratic leaders involve their followers on decision making as well as they offer them support to their choices (Rahbi et al., 2017). As a result, followers feel that they are free to decide and act according to their will as well as they feel that they can maintain the freedom and autonomy of the group they belong (Avolio et al., 2009). However, democratic leadership style has several disadvantages. If the roles and the duties of the employees are not clearly defined and the employees are feeling stressed due to deadline, then it is possible that mistakes will occur that may lead to a failure. Moreover, there are cases when the members of an organization are not experienced on the process of decision making. Finally, decision making in the democratic style is a procedure which can take a lot of time, so it can be very frustrating when the employees are pressured because of time limit (Rahbi et al., 2017).

Dynamic Leadership Style: This leadership style adapts to the nature of situation; in other words, this leadership styles changes and applies to different situations. Furthermore, these types of leadership suggest that a leader should not have a permanent style but his/her leadership style should be adjusted according to the team that he/she leads (Rahbi et al., 2017; Tucker & Lam, 2014). Dynamic leadership style has a direct effect on the whole team and not only particularly to one individual, as promotes team motivation. Thus, the whole team recognizes its contribution to the overall success of the organization. Furthermore, dynamic leaders are adaptable leaders who share a common vision with the team. They inspire and influence the team (Tucker & Lam, 2014); they do not give orders or have a dictatorial attitude toward the team. Dynamic leader also finds opportunities behind obstacles as well as they take action in difficult and risky situations (Pershing Yoakley & Associates, 2014). Finally, dynamic leaders are appreciated by teams because of the fact that they are being caring, fair, and inspiring (Mostovicz, 2009).

As a conclusion, scholars are very fond of the term of leadership styles. Thus, researchers had to find out ways in order to measure the several levels of leadership style. One of the most common tools (instrument) so as to measure the leadership style is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which was developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). The MLQ tool consists of 45 questions; 36 questions measure the three basic leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), while 9 questions measure the leadership results (greater effort, efficiency, and satisfaction from leadership). Besides, the MLQ instrument measures the dimensions of each leadership style and the dimensions of the outcome. More specifically:

(a) Transformational leadership dimensions: Idealized influence (features), Idealized influence (behavior), Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, Individual consideration.
(b) Transactional leadership dimensions: Contingent Reward, Management—by—Exception (active)
(c) Passive/Avoidant leadership dimensions: Management—by—Exception (passive), Laissez-faire leadership
(d) Leadership Outcome dimensions: Extra effort, Effectiveness, Satisfaction

Eventually, all the questions are measured through a five-point Likert scale (0 = Not at all, 1 = Rarely, 2 = Occasionally, 3 = Quite often, 4 = Almost always) (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

3.2 The Concept of Group Dynamics—Terms and Measurement Tools

The concept of group dynamics has generated interest of several scholars and practitioners during the past decades. Before analyzing the concept of group dynamics, the authors want to point out the difference between the term group and team, due to the fact that a lot of people think that they have the same meaning.

Hence, according to Forsyth (2019) "group is defined as two or more individuals who are connected by and within social relationship", while "team is defined as a special type of group in which people work independently to accomplish a goal, especially when being members of an organization" (Levi, 2017).

Someone would easily conclude that "a group is just a collection of people". On the contrary, a group is not just a collection of people. A group can have the following characteristics (Johnson & Johnson, 1997):

- **Goal orientation**: People joining together for some purpose in order to achieve a goal
- **Interdependent**: People that are connected with some type of relationship, or they believe that they are living a common fate
- **Interpersonal Interaction**: People who communicate with each other
- **Perception of Membership**: Recognition that a member belongs to a collective
- **Structures Relations**: Roles, rules, and norms which control the interactions of people
- **Mutual Influence**: The impact that people have to each other due to their connections
- **Individual Motivation**: Satisfaction of personal needs as a group member.

Organizations use several types of similar or different teams in order to achieve their goals and purposes (Ntalakos et al., 2022a, 2022b). For this reason, the study of group dynamics can provide a plethora of useful insights about the way teams operate as well as how they can be improved (Levi, 2017).

According to Forsyth (2019), some of the major topics that group dynamics examines (regarding groups) are: formation, inclusion and identity, cohesion and development, structure, influence, power, leadership, performance, decision making, conflict, intergroup relations.

Furthermore, Tuckman (1965) developed a theory about the formation of groups; the model of five stages as follows (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977; Forsyth, 2019, WCU, 2020):

(a) **Forming**: The first initial stage—structure of the team. Team members feel ambiguous and avoid conflict because of the need to be accepted as a part of the group. For that reason, the team members listen to the guidance of the team leader.
(b) **Storming**: The second stage—organizing tasks. The first interpersonal conflicts come to the surface. The three basic elements of this stage are: power, leadership, and structure.
(c) **Norming**: The third stage—new ways of communicating and being together. The group develops cohesion, and the leader is not only one person but shared leadership is starting to be created. The team members accept that they have to trust each other in order for the shared leadership to be effective.

(d) **Performing**: The fourth stage—not all groups reach this stage. In order for a group to reach this stage, they have to evolve in depth their personal relations and start work independently in subgroups (or as a total) with equal competencies.
(e) **Adjourning**: The fifth stage—this is the termination of the team. The members of the team experience change and transition as well as regret and withdrawal due to the termination of the team.

Regarding group dynamics measurements, unfortunately there are very few tools in order to measure group dynamics. One of them is the Group Dynamics Inventory (GDI) which was developed by Phan et al. (2004). The GDI consists of 20 items which measure some of the subscales of group dynamics which measures group dynamics using a four-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The instruments measure three subscales of group dynamics which are cohesiveness, altruism, and universality. The tool was firstly used to measure group dynamics in group of postgraduate psychology students.

Another tool is the instrument for group dynamics developed by Schultz et al. (2003). This tool was designed in order to measure the following dimensions of group dynamics: participation, communication, influence, trust, cohesion, group empowerment, and collaborative work. This tool was adapted by Greenlee and Karanxha (2010); Greenlee & Karanxha transform the items from questions to statements which were measured through a five-point Likert Scale.

Eventually, there is a number of tools which can measure some of the subscales of group dynamics. For example, there is the Group Environment Questionnaire (Carron et al., 1985) which is a very famous tool for measuring the team's cohesion. Similarly, there is the Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ) (developed by London Leadership Academy, National Health Service) which is consisted of 56 items and it is used for measuring the levels of effectiveness in a team (TEQ, 2022).

This paper hopes to trigger for further future research in order to generalize the use of these tools for measuring the dynamic of groups occupied in organizations in general, and more specifically in the tourism industry.

3.3 Examination of the Current Literature—The Effect of Leadership and Group Dynamics on Organizations

In this section, the authors will present recent researches regarding the connection of leadership and group dynamics in organizations in general, and more specifically in the tourism industry.

Yamarino et al. (2010) studied leadership and team dynamics for dangerous military contexts. More specifically, pragmatic leadership is preferred for the individual level, individualized leadership is preferred at the dyadic level, and shared leadership is preferred at the team leadership. Also, twelve key multilevel propositions and five multilevel exploratory ones are derived from the model of Yamarino et al. (2010).

Ramzaninezhad & Keshtan (2009) examined the relationship between coach's leadership styles and team cohesion in professional football clubs. The results from this study reveal that the coach's leadership styles and behaviors have a great impact on team cohesion; also, this study demonstrates the valuable role that the coach plays in the increase of cohesion of the team.

In addition, Aritz and Walker (2014) studied the connection between leadership styles and multicultural groups. The results of their research show that differing discursive leadership styles can have an effect on the participation and the contribution of members as well as they can have an effect of the feelings of inclusion and satisfaction between the members of the group.

Furthermore, Rahbi et al. (2017) studied the connection between three leadership styles (democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire) and team motivation. More specifically, the outcome of their study showed that democratic and authoritarian leadership style is positively correlated with team motivation, whereas laissez-faire is negatively correlated with team motivation.

Markulis et al. (2014) conducted a research regarding the effect of leadership modes on team dynamics and performance. More thoroughly, the sample of their research consisted of 77 undergraduate students of management classes. The results of their study showed that emerging leaders do not have significant impact on team dynamics and performance; on the contrary, designated and rotating leaders are the most effective for team dynamic and performance.

Moreover, Sheard and Kakabadse (2016) examined the perspective of leadership and team development. Through a literature review, they present several tools and techniques which help senior managers to adapt their behavior in order to create the organizational structure that is needed so as to make effective teams.

One of the most completed models on leadership and team dynamics was made by Barnett and McCormick (2012). Barnett and McCormick (2012) developed a theoretical model which studied the connection between leadership and team dynamics as well as their effect on team performance and effectiveness. The environment in which they implement their model was secondary educational institutes. The practical methodology of their research consisted of interviews of senior executive of educational institutes (qualitative research). Figure 1 describes the input variables, the procedure variables, and the outcome variables of Barnett & McCormick model. The results of this study showed that complex environmental events need a shift from single leader to team center leadership; also, school principals play an important role (as team leaders) and apply leadership functions in a flexible way in order for teams to be developed and effective.

Last but not least, the only paper that connects group dynamics in the tourism industry is the research of Mohanty and Mohanty (2018). More specifically, Mohanty and Mohanty (2018) investigated the effect of group dynamics on teamwork effectiveness. The findings showed that group dynamics has a significant positive effect on teamwork as far as the hospitality industry (hotels) is concerned. All the above elements are presented in Table 1.

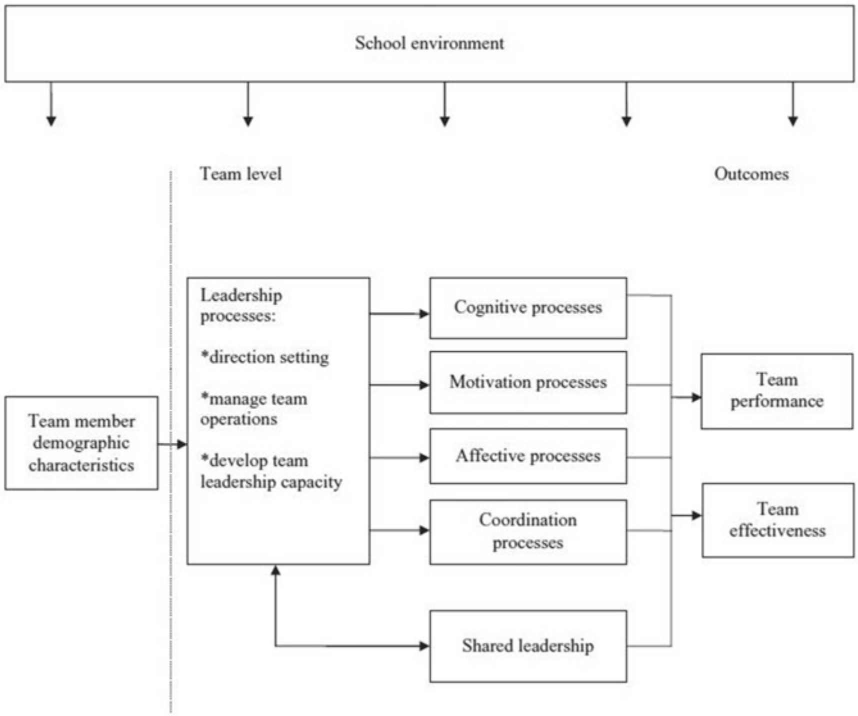


Fig. 1 Model of leadership and team dynamics developed by Barnett and McCormick (2012)

4 Conclusions

This paper has examined the linkage between leadership styles and group dynamics in organizations. As it is already mentioned, leadership styles seem to be connected with group dynamics and especially with some of the dimensions of group dynamics, such as team cohesion, team motivation, team building, team effectiveness, and team formation. The problem is that there is not enough research evidence to prove in detail the above relationship, especially as far as tourism and hospitality industry is concerned. In other words, although there are a few researches pointing out the relationship between these two terms (in the fields of military strategy, educational management, banking, sport management, organizations), there is no empirical research to support this connection.

For that reason, this paper strongly supports and hopes to trigger for future research in the field of tourism/hospitality industry. The authors suggest that a theoretical/practical model should be developed, based on the tools that already discussed (such as Barnett & McCormick model, 2012), that it would have direct implementation on the tourism and hospitality industry.

Table 1 Examination of existing literature research

Authors	Methods used	Conclusions	Area of research
Mohanty and Mohanty (2018)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 98 hotel employees in the city of Bhubaneswar	Group dynamics has a significant positive effect on teamwork in hotels	Group sdynamics, team effectiveness, hospitality industry
Rahbi et al. (2017)	Literature review in the context of the healthcare sector of Abu Dhabi	Democratic and authoritarian leadership style is positively correlated with team motivation, whereas laissez-faire is negatively correlated with team motivation	Leadership styles and team motivation in health department
Sheard and Kakabadse (2016)	Literature review in the context of organization in general	Several tools and techniques which help senior managers to adapt their behavior to create effective teams	Leadership and team development in organizations
Aritz and Walker (2014)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 146 business professionals enrolled in an MBA program at a private university of Southern California, coming from China, Japan, Korea, USA	Differing discursive leadership styles can have an effect on the participation and the contribution of members; affect the feelings of inclusion and satisfaction between the members of the group	Leadership styles, multicultural groups
Markulis (2014)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 77 undergraduate students of management classes	Emerging leaders no significant impact on team dynamics and performance; designated and rotating leaders are the most effective for team dynamic and performance	Leadership modes and team dynamics and performance
Barnett and McCormick (2012)	Qualitative research made in the senior executives of secondary educational institutes	Single leader to center leadership; team leaders (principals) play an important role for the development and effectiveness of a team	Leadership, team dynamics, educational management

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Authors	Methods used	Conclusions	Area of research
Yamarino et al. (2010)	Qualitative research made in the US army	The results of their research revealed pragmatic leadership are preferred for the individual level, individualized leadership is preferred at the dyadic level, and shared leadership is preferred at the team leadership	Leadership and team dynamics for dangerous military context
Ramzaninezhad and Keshtan (2009)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 264 athletes of 12 football teams from Iran	The results from this study reveal that the coach's leadership styles and behaviors have a great impact on team cohesion	Leadership styles and team cohesion, sport management

References

Aritz, J., & Walker, R. C. (2014). Leadership styles in multicultural groups: Americans and east Asians working together. *International Journal of Business Communication, 51*(1), 72–92. https://doi.org/10.1177/2329488413516211

Avolio, B. J. (1999). *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations*. Sage.

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire. In *Manual and sampler set* (3rd ed.).

Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 421–449.

Barnett, K., & McCormick, J. (2012). Leadership and team dynamics in senior executive leadership teams. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 40*(6), 653–671. https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143212456909

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership: Good, better, best. *Organizational Dynamics, 13*(3), 26–40.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team and organizational development. *Research in Organizational Change and Development, 4*, 231–272.

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Sotiriou, A., & Sawsan, M. (2022). The impact of workplace conflicts on employee turnover and quality of services the case of Greek seasonal hotels. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2022.2065655

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022a). Human resource training of front office employees and change management in hospitality sector during crisis. In *Proceedings of the 4th international conference on finance, economics, management and IT business* (pp. 101–106). ISBN 978-989-758-567-8, ISSN 2184-5891.

Belias, D., & Trihas, N. (2022b). The relationship of the change context with the resilience of hotels: Proposal for a research framework on hotels during the Covid-19 crisis. In *Proceedings of the 21st European conference on research methodology for business and management studies*, Aveiro, Portugal.

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Papademetriou, C., & Mantas C. (2020a). Job satisfaction as affected by types of leadership: a case study of Greek tourism sector. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 10*(3), 39–45 https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2020.1867695

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Papademetriou, C., & Lamprinoudis N. (2020b). The Greek tourism sector: An analysis of job satisfaction, role conflict and autonomy of Greek employees. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism.* https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2021.1959825

Belias, D., Trivellas, P., Koustelios, A., Serdaris, P., Varsanis, K., & Grigoriou, I. (2017). Human resource management, strategic leadership development and the Greek tourism sector. In V. Katsoni, A. Upadhya, & A. Stratigea (Eds.), *Tourism, culture and heritage in a smart economy. Springer proceedings in business and economics.* Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-47732-9_14

Belias, D., Gkolia, A., Koustelios, A., & Varsanis, K. (2015a). Leadership style and personal characteristics of Greek banking employees. *Journal of Management Research*, *5*(3), 156–164.

Belias, D., Koustelios, A., & Gkolia, A. (2015b). Leadership style and job satisfaction of Greek banking institutions. *International Journal of Management and Business Research (IJMBR), 5*(3), 237–248.

Belias, D., & Koustelios, A. (2014). The impact of leadership and change management strategy on organizational culture. *European Scientific Journal (ESJ), 10*(7), 451–470.

Carron, A. V., Widmeyer, W. N., & Brawley, L. R. (1985). The development of an instrument to assess cohesion in sport teams: The group environment questionnaire. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 7*, 244–266.

Crews, E., Brouwers, M., & Visagie, J. (2019). Transformational and transactional leadership effects on communication styles. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 29*(5), 421–428. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2019.1675996

Forsyth, D. R. (2019). *Group dynamics* (7th ed.). Cengage.

Greenfield, D. (2007). The enactment of dynamic leadership. *Leadership in Health Services, 20*(3), 159–168.

Greenlee, B. J., & Karanxha, Z. (2010). A study of group dynamics in educational leadership cohort and non-cohort groups. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education, 5*(11), 357–382.

Ghuzayyil, S. A. (2021). The dimensions of transformational leadership and its organizational effects in public universities in Saudi Arabia: A systematic review. *Frontiers Psychology, 12*, 682092. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.682092

Jensen, U. T., Andersen, L. B., Bro, L. L., et al. (2016). Conceptualizing and measuring transformational and transactional leadership. *Administration & Society, 51*(1), 3–33. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399716667157

Johnson, D., & Johnson, F. (1997). *Joining together: Group theory and group skills* (6th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Koutiva, M., Belias, D., Nietos, I. F., & Koustelios, A. (2020). The effects of workplace well-being on individual's knowledge creation outcomes: A study research among hotel employees. In A. Kavoura, E. Kefallonitis, P. Theodoridis (Eds.), *Strategic innovative marketing and tourism. Springer proceedings in business and economics.* Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36126-6_118

Levi, D. (2017). *Group dynamics for teams* (5th ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

Loughead, T. M., Hirsch, K., Boisvert, M., & Maechel, C. (2020). Athlete leadership in youth sport. In *The power of groups in youth sport* (pp. 73–89). https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-816336-8.00005-6

Markulis, P., Jassawalla, A. R., & Sashittal, H. (2014). The impact of leadership modes on team dynamics and performance in undergraduate management classes. *Journal of Education for Business, 81*(3), 145–150. https://doi.org/10.3200/JOEB.81.3.145-150

Mohanty, A., & Mohanty S. (2018). The impact of communication and group dynamics on teamwork effectiveness: The case of service sector organizations. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 17*(4), 1–14.

Mostovicz, I. (2009). A dynamic theory of leadership development. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 30*(6), 563–576.

Ntalakos, A., Belias, D., Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2022a). Organizational culture and group dynamics in the tourism industry. In *Proceedings of the 5th international conference on tourism research 2022a*, Porto (pp. 286–293). ISBN 978-1-914587-33-7, ISSN 2516-3612.

Ntalakos, A., Rossidis, I., & Belias, D. (2022b). Trait emotional intelligence trait emotional intelligence & leadership: A study of managers and employees. In *Proceedings of the 21st European conference on research methodology for business and management studies*, ECRM 2022b (pp. 149–156). https://doi.org/10.34190/ecrm.21.1.330

Northouse, P. (2021). *Leadership theory & practice* (9th ed.). SAGE publications.

Pershing, Yoakley & Associates. (2014). *Dynamic leadership for dynamic times*. http://www.pyapc.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/2014.10.16-Dynamic-Leadership-White-Paper-PYA.pdf. Retrieved 2 Aug 2022.

Rahbi, D. A., Khalid, K., & Khan, M. (2017). The effects of leadership styles on team motivation. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 16*(2).

Rossidis I., Belias D., & Vasiliadis L. (2021). Strategic human resource management in the international hospitality industry. An extensive literature review. In V. Katsoni, & C. van Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world. Springer proceedings in business and economics*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_22

Rossidis, I., Belias, D., & Aspridis, G. (2020). *Change management and leadership*. Tziolas publications.

Schulz, A. J., Israel, B. A., & Lantz, P. M. (2003). Instrument for evaluating dimensions of group dynamics within community-based participatory research partnerships. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 26*(3), 249–262.

Sheard, A. G., & Kakabadse, A. P. (2016). A process perspective on leadership and team development. *Journal of Management Development, 23*(1), 7–106. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621710410511027

TEQ. (2022). *Team effectiveness questionnaire*. https://www.cu.edu/sites/default/files/Team_effectiveness_questionnaire.pdf. Retrieved 1 Aug 2022.

Tucker, E., & Lam, S. (2014). Dynamic leadership—A leadership shortage solution. *Strategic HR Review, 13*(4), 199–204. https://doi.org/10.1108/SHR-06-2014-0035

Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental sequence in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin, 63*(6), 384–399.

Tuckman, B. W., & Jensen, M. A. (1977). Stages of small-group development revisited. *Group & Organization Studies, 2*(4), 419–427. https://doi.org/10.1177/105960117700200404

Viterouli, M., & Belias, D. (2021). True organizational learning culture as a key to unlocking operational performance: A critical review. In *Proceedings of the 37th international business information management association (IBIMA)*, 30–31 May 2021, Cordoba, Spain (pp. 648–655). ISBN: 978-0-9998551-6-4.

Wageman, R., Hackman, J. R., & Lehman, E. (2005). Team diagnostic survey: Development of an instrument. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science., 41*(4), 373–398. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886305281984

WCU—West Chester University. (2020). *Tuckman's stages of group development*. https://www.wcupa.edu/coral/tuckmanStagesGroupDelvelopment.aspx#:~:text=These%20stages%20are%20commonly%20known,more%20collaborative%20or%20shared%20leadership. Retrieved 2 Aug 2022.

Wiesenthal, A. M., Kalpna, J., McDowell, T., & Radin, J. (2015). The new physician leaders: Leadership for a dynamic health. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 1–3. http://images.nejm.org/editorial/supplementary/2013/hbr15-wiesenthal.pdf

Wolman, B. (1956). Leadership and group dynamics. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 43*, 11–25.

Yammarino, F. J., & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership and multiple levels of analysis. *Human Relations, 43*(10), 975–995.

Yammarino, F. J., Mumford, M. D., Connlly, M. S., & Dionne, S. D. (2010). Leadership and team dynamics for dangerous military contexts. *Military Psychology, 22*(1), S15–S41. https://doi.org/10.1080/08995601003644262

Yukl, G. A., & Becker, W. S. (2006). Effective empowerment in organizations. *Organization Management Journal, 3*(3), 210–231.

Modeling the Elements of Organizational Culture that Formulate the Design of the Internal Environment of Tourist Enterprises: A Literature Review

Christos Kakarougkas

Abstract The negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic has forced tourist enterprises to adapt the design of their internal environment aiming to syndicate in the best possible way the resources that they hold to develop enterprise capabilities that will enable them to remain competitive. Based on this ascertainment, the purpose of this study is to record, model, and synthesize the most important elements of organizational culture that determines the design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises. To achieve the above objective, this study will follow the method of content analysis of the results of previous research in the fields of Organizational Culture, Organizational Structure, and Organizational Coordination. It has been found that the organizational design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises depends on Formal and Informal Organizational Coordination. The Formal and the Informal Organizational Coordination is in turn determined by seven central variables: Formalization, Standardization, Specialization, Hierarchy of authority, Complexity of Organizational Structure, Willingness of employees to participate in learning processes and Centralization. Each one of these variables is determined by a series of separate elements of the organizational culture of tourism businesses which can be expressed and studied at three layers of depth and degree of observation within an enterprise: shell, mantle, and core. The above findings are characterized by originality and scientific and practical contribution, since at an international level a corresponding attempt to record, model, and synthesize the elements of organizational culture that determine the design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises has not been identified yet.

Keywords Tourist enterprises · Organizational culture · Organizational design organizational structure · Organizational coordination

JEL Classifications Z3 Tourism Economics · Z31 Industry Studies · L2 Firm Objectives · Organization and Behavior · L29 Other

---

C. Kakarougkas (✉)
Department of Tourism Economics and Management, University of the Aegean, Chios, Greece
e-mail: ch.kakarougkas@aegean.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_9

1 Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic (Jones & Comfort, 2020) has forced tourist enterprises to adapt their processes, for example, the sharp decline in demand for the hotel product due to the spread of COVID-19 (Bartik et al., 2020) has forced hotel enterprises worldwide to change the standards of the services they offer (Chan et al., 2021) and to develop innovative products that will strengthen the reduced demand (Seetharaman, 2020). Gursoy and Chi (2020) argue that tourist enterprises have been forced to integrate into their day-to-day operations: implementation of health protocols, usage of personal protective equipment, social distancing, contactless transactions, etc. (Gursoy et al., 2020).

The previous reveal that tourist enterprises have made major changes, to the design of their internal environment aiming to syndicate in the best possible way the resources that they hold to develop enterprise capabilities that will enable them to remain competitive in the COVID-19 pandemic era and beyond (Kakarougkas & Stavrinoudis, 2021). Based on this ascertainment, the purpose of this study is to record, model, and synthesize the most important elements of organizational culture that determine the design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises. To achieve the above objective, this study will follow the method of content analysis (Kleinheksel et al., 2020) of the results of previous research in the fields of Organizational Culture, Organizational Structure, and Organizational Coordination. Following that, the results that will be obtained through this study are characterized by originality and scientific and practical contribution, since at an international level a corresponding attempt to record, model, and synthesize the elements of organizational culture that determine the design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises has not been identified yet.

2 Literature Review

Organizational Culture and Internal Environment of an Enterprise

Organizational culture can be defined as a set of values and beliefs that are deeply rooted in every aspect of an enterprise (Driskill & Brenton, 2010). Organizational culture evolves over time, because the internal, the inter-company and the social environment have great influence on it (Schein, 2010). Following this, it was found that organizational culture can be expressed and studied at three layers of depth and degree of observation within an enterprise. The first layer can be called the shell of organizational culture because it is superficial and easily visible to the observer. It consists of elements such as symbols, routines, artifacts, and behavior patterns. The second layer can be called the mantle of organizational culture because it can be traced to a deeper level and is less visible to the observer. It consists of elements such as values and hidden assumptions. The third layer can be called the core of organizational culture, because it can be identified at the deepest level and is invisible to the observer. It consists of elements such as basic assumptions and human nature (Argyris, 2012; Hofstede et al., 2010; Schein, 2010; Stavrinoudis & Kakarougkas, 2017b).

In agreement with the above, the bibliographic research showed that a number of researchers and authors (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Bavik, 2016; Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Handy, 1976; Hofstede & Bond, 1984; Goffee & Jones, 1998; Stavrinoudis & Kakarougkas, 2017a; Weber & Yelidia Tarba, 2012; Yahyagil, 2015) argue that an enterprise's internal environment is determined by a series of elements of organizational culture which are located at the layers of: shell, mantle, and core. These elements are presented in the following table.

Table 1 Elements of organizational culture that compose the internal environment of an enterprise

- Big/small hierarchy (Cameron and Quinn (2011; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Goffee & Jones, 1998)
- Small versus large organizational structure (Weber & Yelidia Tarba, 2012)
- Distribution of roles based on gender (Hofstede & Bond, 1984)
- Distribution of roles (Weber & Yelidia Tarba, 2012)
- Role/hierarchy/position (Handy, 1976)
- A person's perception of himself in relation to others (Yahyagil, 2015)
- System building/concentration and control of processes (Cameron & Quinn, 2011)
- Control/approval (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988)
- Attitude toward rules, procedures, and individual autonomy (Yahyagil, 2015)
- Degree of autonomy in decision-making (Weber & Yelidia Tarba, 2012)
- The relationships between members of an organization (Yahyagil, 2015)
- Strong leadership (Goffee & Jones, 1998)
- Leadership style/guidance from a leadership figure (Cameron & Quinn, 2011)
- Decisiveness, guiding through obstacles/crisis/dynamism (Cameron & Quinn, 2011)
- Fast/slow. Decisions (Handy, 1976)
- Limited/extensive bureaucracy (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Handy, 1976)
- Many/few rules (Goffee & Jones, 1998; Handy, 1976)
- Creativity versus conformity (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988)
- Routine and predictable procedures/documentation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011)
- Procedures (Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Weber & Yelidia Tarba, 2012)
- Conventionality/avoidance (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988)
- Work norms (Bavik, 2016)

Organizational Design of the Internal Environment of Tourist Enterprises

The organizational design of an enterprise depends on the control and the combination of various elements such as structures, processes, leadership, human resources, and others (Lemus-Aguilar, et al., 2019). The way these elements will be controlled and combined is determined by two central factors: Organizational Structure and Organizational Coordination (Burton & Obel, 2018). Tajeddini and Ratten (2017), emphasize that the Organizational Coordination of a tourist enterprise depends on the arrangements that the management will apply to the Organizational Structure of that enterprises. For this reason, in the text that follows firstly will be analyzed the variables that determine the Organizational Structure of a tourist enterprise and then it will be presented the characteristics of the basic types of Organizational Coordination that can be shaped based on the way these variables have been arranged.

The Variables that Determine the Organizational Structure of a Tourist Enterprise

Organizational Structure according to Burton and Obel (2018) includes the way in which different tasks, roles, and resources are delegated to different people or groups of people within an enterprise. Zakaryaei and Noubar (2016) in agreement with the above, suggest that the Organizational Structure of an enterprise is determined by a series of interdependent and interrelated variables. The first variable is related to the degree of "Formalization" of the work performed by employees. The low degree of formalization allows employees to execute their tasks freely and to develop new ideas, while the high degree of formalization, respectively, provides a small degree of freedom and idea generation to employees, and thus, it can be an obstacle to the development of innovation (Rhee et al., 2017). The second variable is related to the degree of "Standardization" of an enterprise's processes. The high degree of standardization means that the processes of an enterprise are carried out in the same way every time and is a key goal of most modern tourist enterprises in their effort to offer high-quality standardized product and services (Özdemir et al., 2019). The third variable is related to the degree of "Specialization" of an enterprise's processes. The low level of specialization of a tourist enterprise process means that employees are involved in many different tasks resulting in low efficiency due to a high degree of work complexity. On the other hand, a high level of specialization means a low degree of work complexity for employees that usually leads tourist enterprises to a higher rate of efficiency (Zhang, et al., 2020). The fourth variable is related to the concept of "Hierarchy of authority," which aims to define the way power is distributed within an enterprise. Kang and Busser (2018) argue that the hierarchy of authority plays a crucial role in the psychology, the performance, and the behavior of all the employees of a tourist enterprise. This is because the role of each employee and the perception that each employee will gain about his/her role in a tourist enterprise in relation to the roles of other employees, depends on the position of each employee in the tourist enterprise hierarchy and the typical rules that govern the employees' roles inside the tourist enterprise (Lu et al., 2016). The fifth variable relates to the degree of "Complexity" of the Organizational Structure and is divided into vertical and horizontal. Vertical complexity within an enterprise is characterized by the distribution of different employees' roles at many hierarchical levels—vertical formal organization (Kanter, 2019). While horizontal complexity within an enterprise is characterized by the distribution of different employees' roles at minimal hierarchical levels—flat formal organization (Zhao, 2017). The sixth variable relates to the increased or decreased "Willingness of employees to participate in learning processes" that will allow them to develop new skills and knowledge, in their effort to adjust to the demands of the contemporary competitive organizational environment. Guliyev et al. (2019) argue that the employment of employees that are willing to develop new skills and knowledge is a prerequisite for improving the operations of a tourist enterprise. The seventh variable is connected to the degree of "Centralization" of the decision-making powers. Cain et al. (2018) suggest that tourist enterprises with a high degree of centralized decision-making powers are usually characterized by a strong vertical formal organization with many hierarchical levels, strict rules, control, and bureaucracy, while tourist enterprises with a low degree of centralization of the decision-making powers are characterized by a flat formal organization with few hierarchical levels, loose rules, minimal control, and bureaucracy.

The Basic Types of Organizational Coordination of a Tourist Enterprise

According to Yusupova and Pozdeeva (2018), Organizational Coordination is linked to the way a tourist enterprise's different resources (tangible, intangible, and human), are coordinated to develop organizational capabilities that will lead to the provision of high-quality touristic services. Burton and Obel (2018) suggest that the effectiveness and the type of the Organizational Coordination are based on enterprise communication, leadership, routines, and processes and generally the management style that an enterprise follows in relation to the Organizational Structure design. Tajeddini and Ratten (2017) argue that two central types of Organizational Coordination can be formulated based on the arrangements that management will apply to the elements that determine the Organizational Structure of a tourist enterprise. The first central type of Organizational Coordination can be called "Informal Organizational Coordination" because it favors the free communication and exchange of ideas between employees by minimizing bureaucratic and hierarchical restrictions (Biron et al., 2020). For this reason, Organizational Coordination of this type presupposes an Organizational Structure characterized by low formalization, specialization and centralization, minimal bureaucracy, flat hierarchical organization, and employees with enhanced need of developing new skills and knowledge (Nielsen, et al., 2019). This type of Organizational Coordination seeks to achieve a competitive advantage by developing organizational capabilities focusing mainly on the development of innovating products and services and less on cost savings (Kaliappen & Hilman, 2017).

On the other hand, there are tourist enterprises whose Organizational Structure is characterized by: high level of specialization, vertical complexity, centralized decision-making powers, extensive bureaucracy, and employees that seek work duties stability at the expense of developing new skills and knowledge (Tajeddini & Ratten, 2017). Enterprises with these characteristics are likely to develop a "Formal Organizational Coordination" that can be characterized as highly controlled stable and formal with vertical hierarchy of authority (Jogaratnam & Tse, 2006). As a result, tourist enterprises with this type of Organizational Coordination seek to gain a competitive advantage by developing organizational capabilities focused mainly on cost savings procedures and less on innovation development (Kaliappen & Hilman, 2017).

3 Methodology

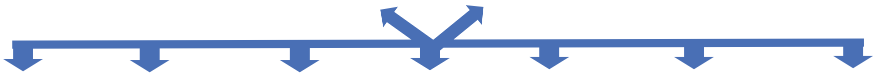
The writing of this study was carried out in three stages and followed the method of content analysis (Kleinheksel et al., 2020) of the findings of previous scientific research in the fields of Organizational Culture, Organizational Structure, and Organizational Coordination. In the first stage, the concept of organizational culture was analyzed and the elements that determine the internal environment of tourism enterprises were identified. In the second stage, the two central factors that determine the design of the internal environment of enterprises were analyzed. Those factors are: Organizational Structure and Organizational Coordination. In the third stage, the findings of the two previous stages were unified and synthesized in a unique way that led to the formation of Table 2: the modeling of the organizational culture elements that determine the organizational design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises.

4 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to record, synthesize, and model the basic elements of organizational culture that determines the design of the internal environment of tourism businesses. To achieve this goal, the method of content analysis of the results of previous research in the fields of Organizational Culture, Organizational Structure and Organizational Coordination was used. In this way, Table 2 was created: The modeling of the organizational culture elements that determine the organizational design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises (See the following page). The study of Table 2 reveals that the organizational design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises depends on Formal and Informal Organizational Coordination. The Formal and the Informal Organizational Coordination is in turn determined by seven central variables: Formalization, Standardization, Specialization, Hierarchy of authority, Complexity of Organizational Structure, Willingness of employees to participate in learning processes and Centralization. Each one of these variables is determined by a series of separate elements of the organizational culture of tourism enterprises which can be expressed and studied at three layers of depth and degree of observation within an enterprise: shell, mantle, and core.

Table 2 The modeling of the organizational culture elements that determine the organizational design of the internal environment of tourist enterprises

Formal organizational coordination: highly controlled stable and with vertical hierarchy of authority				Informal organizational coordination: free communication and exchange of ideas between employees by minimizing bureaucratic and hierarchical restrictions		



Formalization	Standardization	Specialization	Hierarchy of authority	Complexity of organizational structure	Willingness of employees to participate in learning processes	Centralization
• System building/concentration and control of processes • Control/approval • Attitude toward rules, procedures, and individual autonomy • Limited/extensive Bureaucracy • Many/few rules	• Creativity versus conformity • Routine and predictable procedures/documentation • Procedures • Work norms	• Distribution of roles based on gender • Distribution of roles	• A person's perception of himself in relation to others • The relationships between members of an organization	• Big/small hierarchy • Role/hierarchy/position • Business size • Small versus large organizational structure	• Convention-ality/avoidance	• Strong leadership • Leadership style/guidance from a leadership figure • Decisiveness, Guiding through obstacles/crisis/dynamism • Decisions (fast/slow) • Degree of autonomy in decision-making

The above findings at a scientific level retain elements of originality since at an international level a similar synthesis and modeling of the elements of the organizational culture that determines the internal environment of tourist enterprises has not been carried out. Therefore, the results of this study can be used as a steppingstone to carry out other research in the field of the design of the internal environment of tourism enterprises in the future. But also on a practical level, the findings of this study are particularly useful, since managers of tourist enterprises can use Table 2 to identify the elements and the variables that determine the design of the internal environment of the enterprises they work for in the case they will want to intervene in it.

An important limitation of this study is the fact that its results have been derived exclusively from the content analysis of previous research and not from field research. Therefore, in the future the results of this study could be verified through field research.

References

Argyris, C. (2012). *Organizational traps: Leadership, culture, organizational design.* Oxford University Press.

Bartik, A. W., Bertrand, M., Cullen, Z. B., Glaeser, E. L., Luca, M., & Stanton, C. T. (2020). *How are small enterprises adjusting to COVID-19? Early evidence from a survey (No. w26989)*. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Bavik, A. (2016). Identification of organizational culture in the hospitality industry. In *Tourism and hospitality management* (pp. 197–210). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Biron, M., De Cieri, H., Fulmer, I., Lin, C. H. V., Mayrhofer, W., Nyfoudi, M., Sanders, K., Shipton, H., & Sun, J. M. J. (2020). Structuring for innovative responses to human resource challenges: A skunk works approach. *Human Resource Management Review, 31*(2), 100768. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2020.100768

Burton, R. M., & Obel, B. (2018). The science of organizational design: Fit between structure and coordination. *Journal of Organization Design, 7*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1186/s41469-018-0029-2

Burton, R. M., Obel, B., & Håkonsson, D. D. (2020). *Organizational design.* Cambridge University Press.

Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2011). *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework.* John Wiley & Sons.

Cain, L., Moreo, P. J., & Hanin-Nazlan, N. (2018). Hotel managers' job satisfaction: Is control more important than structure? *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 17*(4), 465–481. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2018.1449561

Chan, J., Gao, Y. L., & McGinley, S. (2021). Updates in service standards in hotels: How COVID-19 changed operations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 33*(5), 1668–1687. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-09-2020-1013

Cooke, R. A., & Rousseau, D. M. (1988). Behavioral norms and expectations: A quantitative approach to the assessment of organizational culture. *Group & Organization Studies, 13*(3), 245–273.

Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (2000). *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life.* Perseus Books.

Driskill, G. W., & Brenton, A. L. (2010). *Organizational culture in action: A cultural analysis workbook*. Sage.

Goffee, R., & Jones, G. (1998). *The character of a corporation: How your company's culture can make or break your business*. HarperCollins Business.

Guliyev, G., Avci, T., Öztüren, A., & Safaeimanesh, F. (2019). Effects of professionalism on employee satisfaction and organizational commitment at five-star hotels in Baku. *JEEMS Journal of East European Management Studies, 24*(3), 423–446. https://doi.org/10.5771/0949-6181-2019-3-423

Gursoy, D., & Chi, C. G. (2020). Effects of COVID-19 pandemic on hospitality industry: Review of the current situations and a research agenda. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 29*(5), 527–529. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2020.1788231

Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Chi, O. H. (2020). COVID-19 study 2 report: Restaurant and hotel industry: Restaurant and hotel customers' sentiment analysis. *Would they come back? If they would, WHEN?* (Report No. 2), Carson College of Business, Washington State University. http://www.htmacademy.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/06/Covid-19-May-24-30-study-summary-report.pdf

Handy, C. B. (1976). *Understanding organizations*. Penguin.

Hofstede, G., & Bond, M. H. (1984). Hofstede's culture dimensions: An independent validation using Rokeach's value survey. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 15*(4), 417–433.

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Jogaratnam, G., & Tse, E. C. Y. (2006). Entrepreneurial orientation and the structuring of organizations: Performance evidence from the Asian hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 18*(6), 454–468. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110610681502

Jones, P., & Comfort, D. (2020). The COVID-19 crisis and sustainability in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 32*(10), 3037–3050. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-04-2020-0357

Kakarougkas, C., & Stavrinoudis, T. (2021). Covid-19 impact on the human aspect of organizational culture and learning: The case of the Greek hospitality industry. In Z. Ghaderi & A. Paraskevas (Eds.), *Organizational learning in tourism and hospitality crisis management* (p. 49). De Gruyter Studies in Tourism.

Kaliappen, N., & Hilman, H. (2017). Competitive strategies, market orientation types and innovation strategies: Finding the strategic fit. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development, 13*(3), 257–261. https://doi.org/10.1108/WJEMSD-11-2016-0048

Kang, H. J. A., & Busser, J. A. (2018). Impact of service climate and psychological capital on employee engagement: The role of organizational hierarchy. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 75*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.03.003

Kanter, R. M. (2019). The future of bureaucracy and hierarchy in organizational theory: A report from the field. In P. Bourdieu & J. S. Coleman (Eds.), *Social theory for a changing society* (pp. 63–93). Routledge.

Kleinheksel, A. J., Rockich-Winston, N., Tawfik, H., & Wyatt, T. R. (2020). Demystifying content analysis. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, *84*(1). https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe7113

Lemus-Aguilar, I., Morales-Alonso, G., Ramirez-Portilla, A., & Hidalgo, A. (2019). Sustainable business models through the lens of organizational design: A systematic literature review. *Sustainability, 11*(19), 5379. https://doi.org/10.3390/su11195379

Lu, L., Lu, A. C. C., Gursoy, D., & Neale, N. R. (2016). Work engagement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions: A comparison between supervisors and line-level employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 28*(4), 737–761. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-07-2014-0360

Nielsen, J. E., Babić, V., Stojanović-Aleksić, V., & Nikolić, J. (2019). Driving forces of employees' entrepreneurial Intentions-Leadership style and organizational structure. *Management: Journal of Sustainable Business and Management Solutions in Emerging Economies*, *24*(3), 59–71. https://doi.org/10.7595/10.7595/management.fon.2019.0020

Özdemir, A. İ, Çolak, A., & Shmilli, J. (2019). Business process management in hotels: With a focus on delivering quality guest service. *Quality & Quantity, 53*(5), 2305–2322. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-018-0727-4

Rhee, J., Seog, S. D., Bozorov, F., & Dedahanov, A. T. (2017). Organizational structure and employees' innovative behavior: The mediating role of empowerment. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 45*(9), 1523–1536. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.6433

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Seetharaman, P. (2020). Business models shifts: Impact of Covid-19. *International Journal of Information Management, 54*, 102173. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2020.102173

Stavrinoudis, T., & Kakarougkas, C. (2017a). Towards an innovative classification - grouping of variables that compose organizational culture. *Journal of Tourism Research,* (6), 6–24, ISSN: 2241-7931.

Stavrinoudis, T., & Kakarougkas, C. (2017b) A theoretical model of weighting and evaluating the elements defining the change of organizational culture. In V. Katsoni, & A. Upadhya (Eds.), *Tourism, culture and heritage in a smart economy*. *Springer proceedings in business and economics.* Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-47732-9_16

Tajeddini, K., Altinay, L., & Ratten, V. (2017). Service innovativeness and the structuring of organizations: The moderating roles of learning orientation and inter-functional coordination. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 65*, 100–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.06.010

Weber, Y., & Yedidia-Tarba, S. (2012). Mergers and acquisitions process: The use of corporate culture analysis. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 19*(3), 288–303.

Yahyagil, M. Y. (2015). Constructing a typology of culture in organizational behavior. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 23*(4), 506–527.

Yusupova, S., & Pozdeeva, S. (2018). Controlling the functioning of the hotel business. In F. L. Gaol, N. Filimonova, & V. Maslennikov (Eds.), *Financial and economic tools used in the world hospitality industry* (pp. 253–257). CRC Press.

Zakaryaei, S., & Noubar, H. B. K. (2016). The study of relationship between structural dimensions of organizational structure with producing amount of Tabriz enormous city areas. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies (IJHCS)*, *2*(4), 2158–2177. http://www.ijhcs.com/index.php/ijhcs/index

Zhang, D., Tu, J., Zhou, L., & Yu, Z. (2020). Higher tourism specialization, better hotel industry efficiency? *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 87*, 102509. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2018.1406834

Zhao, Y. (2017). Research on enterprise flat management mode under the network economy circumstance. In L. Zhou & K. Xie (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 9th international economics, management and education technology conference: Advances in economics business and management research* (vol. 48, pp. 195–198).

The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Communication—Effect on Team Efficiency on the Tourism Industry

Angelos Ntalakos, Dimitrios Belias, and Athanasios Koustelios

Abstract During the past 40 years, the concept of leadership has been bothering several researchers. Leadership studies have revealed direct relationships between leadership styles and a plethora of occupational factors, such as job satisfaction (Asghar, S. & Oino, I. (2018). Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction. Market Forces, 13(1), 1–13., Available at SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract = 3,197,150; Belias D., Koustelios A., Gkolia A.(2015). Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction of Greek Banking Institutions. International Journal of Management and Business Research (IJMBR). Vol. 5, Issue. 3. Page No 237–248; Belias D., Gkolia A., Koustelios A., Varsanis K. (2015). Leadership Style and personal characteristics of Greek banking employees. Journal of Management Research. Vol. 5, Issue. 3. Page No 156–164; Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Papademetriou, C., Lamprinoudis N. (2020b). The Greek Tourism Sector: An analysis of Job Satisfaction, Role Conflict and Autonomy of Greek Employees. Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2021.1959825), work commitment (Keskes, Intangible Capital 10:26–51, 2014; Koustelios et al., Inspection of Public Management 1:43–55, 2021), work motivation (Rita et al., International Journal of Law and Management 60:953–964, 2018; Eliyana & Ma'arif, 2019), and trait emotional intelligence (Ntalakos, A., Rossidis, I. & Belias, D. (2022). Trait Emotional Intelligence Trait Emotional Intelligence & Leadership: A study of managers and employees, Proceedings of the 21st European Conference on Research Methodology for Business and Management Studies, ECRM 2022, pp. 149–156, https://doi.org/10.34190/ecrm.21.1.330; Ntalakos, A., Belias, D., Koustelios, A. and Tsigilis, N. (2022b). Organizational Culture and Group Dynamics in the Tourism Industry. In Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Tourism Research 2022, Porto, ISBN 978-1-914,587-33-7, ISSN 2516-3612, pages 286–293;). Although there have been several researches regarding leadership and the above factors, there seems to be a research gap regarding the connection between leadership styles and communication; this gap

---

A. Ntalakos (✉) · D. Belias · A. Koustelios
Department of Business Administration, University of Thessaly, 41500 Larisa, Geopolis, Greece
e-mail: antalakos@uth.gr

D. Belias
e-mail: dbelias@uth.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_10

is created due to the small amount of researches in the specific field. For example, (Eisenberg et al., Small Group Research 50:348–380, 2019) suggest that transformational leaders should take into account the importance of team communication when working with geographically dispersed teams. In addition, (Terek et al., Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice 15:73–84, 2015) argue that leadership has a significant influence on the communication satisfactory of teachers in primary school. Despite the few researches that mentioned, there is no theoretical or empirical framework that connects leadership styles and communication as well as their effect on team efficacy as far as the tourism industry is concerned. The aim of the paper is to examine the connection between leadership styles and communication on the tourism industry providing the theoretical and the empirical models that can shed some light on the above relationship. The methodology that will be used is literature review of papers, studies, and articles retrieved from online bibliographic database (such as Google Scholar, Web of Sciences, Elsevier Scopus).

Keywords Leadership styles · Communication · Team efficiency · Tourism industry

JEL Classifications M10 · M12

1 Introduction

According to Spinks and Wells (1995), leaders and the employees are considered to be the "heart and soul" of an organization. Similarly, Cetin et al. (2012) indicate that leadership has been a "high stake topic" during the past years, as there have been several studies investigating the effect of leadership styles on the organization from different perspectives.

In addition, there are many scholars who highlight the importance of communication in leadership. Shaw (2005) pointed out that in order for a leader to have satisfactory communication skills, he/she must share and react to information on time, must pay attention to other ideas and points of view, should communicate in a clear, brief, and comprehensive way to all members of the organization, and finally he/she should use all existing communication channels and resources (such as language and gestures) (Wikaningrum & Yuniawan, 2018).

Moreover, leader's communication skills play an important role due to through communication the leader tries to transfer to the hearts of the subordinates the vision of the organization as well as he/she tries to gain the trust and the confidence of his/her followers (Vries et al., 2009).

In today's evolving and competitive business environment, teams have become the key factor for organizational success, especially in the hospitality industry. A leader's effectiveness depends on his/her ability to manage the team toward team effectiveness (Mohanty & Mohanty, 2018). Communication could be the "chain" between effective leadership and effective teamwork.

The main purpose of this paper is to examine the current literature regarding the relationship between leadership styles, communication, and team effectiveness in general, as well as in the tourism and hospitality industry. The methodology which will be used is literature selection of papers, studies, articles retrieved from online scientific databases (such as Science Direct, Web of Sciences, Google Scholar, and Elsevier Scopus). In addition, the current paper will suggest research tools and instruments which can be used in order to measure leadership styles, communication satisfaction, and team effectiveness. Thus, the authors hope to trigger for future theoretical and practical research with implementation in the tourism/hospitality industry.

2 Methodology

The methodology, which is used in the current paper, is literature review, followed by critical analysis. The data for the literature review were collected from high-quality scientific journals, books, conference proceedings, papers, business reports, scientific websites, etc. In addition, scientific databases were used such as Google Scholar, Science Direct, Elsevier Scopus, and Emerald, as well as a plethora of other sources based on their accessibility the authors has, provided by the affiliated institutions. The selection criteria of the literature information were based on the relevance to the terms examined by the paper, as well as the date of the publishing, focusing on the last 5 to maximum 10 years, until the July 2022.

In order to implement the research, the authors used a combination of keywords such as "Leadership styles", "Leadership", "Communication Skills", "Communication Styles", "Communication Satisfaction", "Team Effectiveness", "Team Performance", "Relationship", "Impact", "Effect", "Tourism Industry", "Hospitality Industry", "Hotels", "Organizations". The authors chose those keywords due to the fact that they are related directly with the subject of their research; keywords that are associated with the effect of leadership and communication on the team effectiveness in the hospitality industry. All the sources used, should have contained some of the keywords in their topic, abstract, keywords, or the research section.

As it is already mentioned the selection criteria of the literature information were focused on three elements: (a) the publishing should be the most recent it could be, (b) the publishing should cover a wide geographic coverage including different countries and regions, and (c) the publishing should provide useful insights, conclusions, and if possible practical–empirical researches.

Hence, this paper aims on contacting a research into the existing literature review. In order to succeed its goal, the paper will make a thorough examination on the hypotheses and results of the papers that have been already published; also, the present study will make suggestions for future research on the hospitality industry.

Last but not least, the current study through literature review, should try to shed some light to the following questions:

RQ 1 Is there a positive connection between leadership styles and communication skills that managers of organization in hospitality should have?
RQ 2 Is there a positive connection between leadership styles and communication satisfaction of the employees of hospitality industry?
RQ 3 Do leadership styles have an effect on team effectiveness?
RQ 4 Does communication between leaders and followers as well as between each follower has a positive impact on the team effectiveness?

3 Literature Review

3.1 The Concept of Leadership Styles—Definitions and Measurement Tools

During the past 100 years, scholars of different scientific fields have examined the concept of leadership (Belias et al., 2017; Day & Antonakis, 2012; Rossidis et al., 2021; Asghar & Oino, 2018; Eliyana & Maarif-Muzakki, 2019; Eisenberg et al., 2019; Humborstad & Giessne, 2015; Keskes, 2014; Koustelios et al., 2021; Rita et al., 2018). Most of the researches evaluate the effectiveness of leadership based on the consequences of leaders' actions for their followers within the organization (Wikaningrum & Yuniawan, 2018). A common way that measures the effectiveness of leadership is how far the organizational unit succeeds in accomplishing tasks of achieving its goals, both objectively and subjectively (Wikaningrum & Yuniawan, 2018).

Yukl (2009) suggested that scholars define leadership according to their personal beliefs or according to the phenomenon/theory that they are most interested in. One of the most famous definitions of leadership is the following: "Leadership is a process by which and individual influences the thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors of others. In addition, leaders set a direction for the firm; they help see what lies ahead; they visualize what to achieve and how to achieve it; they encourage and inspire their followers" (Quinn, 2005).

Leadership has been defined through several theories which divide leadership into four major categories (Madlock, 2008, Rossidis et. al, 2020):

1. Trait Theory: The trait theory of leadership suggests that certain inborn or innate qualities and characteristics (such as personality, physical factors, and intelligence factors) make someone a leader.
2. Behavioral Theory: The behavioral theory of leadership focuses on how leaders behave; this theory assumes that these behavioral characteristics can be copied by other leaders.
3. Contingency/Situational Theory: The contingency/situational theory suggests that every situation that requires leadership is different and requires a specific type of leader.

4. Neocharismatic Theory: The neocharismatic theory includes all the modern theories regarding leadership such as transactional and transformational leadership.

Most of the recent researches are associated with the modern theories of leadership. The term leadership styles have gained the interest of most of the scholars who study the phenomenon of leadership, as leadership styles have proved to be one of the key components of an effective organization (Cetin et al., 2012). According to Drucker (2003), the performance of the employees can be determined by the way how leader interacts with the team. Leadership styles must be implemented as s strategic choice. In this context, instead of using only one style, managers can combine different styles (Belias & Rossidis, 2020) as well as they can tailor their own leadership styles (Belias & Koustelios, 2014, 2015; Cetin et al., 2012).

There are various researches regarding the influence of leadership styles on a plethora of organizational factors, such as organizational culture, job satisfaction, work motivation, job stress, work commitment, workplace conflict, emotional intelligence (Belias et al., 2020a, 2020b, 2015b; Ntalakos et al., 2022a, 2022b). The leadership styles that are commonly used in all of these researches are transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership. Bass (1985) presented four dimensions of transformational leadership, three dimensions of transactional leadership a non-leadership dimension of laissez-faire leadership (Memon, 2014).

More specifically, transactional leadership focuses on a transactional relationship between a leader and his/her followers which aims to the achievement of particular organizational goals via a reward's system (Bass et al., 2003; Dessler, 2004). In other words, subordinates are rewarded by following their leader's instruction and by adopting the desired behavior (Avolio et al., 2009). The transactional leader and his/her followers are fully aware of the power that each side has and as a result their relationship relies more on mutual interest rather than mutual respect. Transactional leadership consists of three factors:

- Contingent reward: leaders engage in a path–goal transaction of reward for increased job performance
- Active management-by-exception: leaders take corrective action based on leader–follower transactions
- Passive management-by-exception: leaders rely on employees to take responsibility for their actions, and only intervene when problems become acute.

Furthermore, transformational leaders move followers to transcend their self-interests for the good of the group. To be more specific, transformational leader has to inspire and motivate his/her followers in order to fulfil the vision of the organization (Jansen et al., 2009). In addition, transformational leader has to focus on the positive side of the vision with optimism, expressing his trust in his subordinates so that they will help him to fulfil the vision despite the difficulties which will be created. The transformational leadership style is defined by four dimensions (Bass, 1997; Crews et al., 2019):

- Idealized influence (charisma): leaders demonstrate conviction, emphasize trust, and have positive responses to difficult issues

- Inspirational motivation: leaders communicate an appealing vision of the future, motivate followers to achieve high standards, and talk with enthusiasm and optimism in order to encourage
- Intellectual stimulation: leaders question the traditional assumptions and beliefs; encourage others to implement new perspectives; and encourage for innovative and entrepreneurial ideas
- Individualized consideration: leaders interact with others as individuals by considering their needs, abilities, and aspirations; also transformational leaders listen attentively and communicate clearly.

On the contrary, laissez-faire leadership is described as a passive leadership style in which leaders avoid interaction with their followers by keeping long social distances (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008) and avoiding confronting problems by ignoring followers' needs (Yukl, 2009). Moreover, laissez-faire leadership is referred to as "the avoidance of intervention" directed at the leader's lack of commitment to recognize or accommodate followers' needs for development or well-being (Skogstad et al., 2007). As a result, laissez-faire leaders show lower levels of effectiveness (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Wong & Giessner, 2016).

Last but not least, the most common instrument in order to measure the leadership styles is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) established by Avolio and Bass (2004). The questions which used are closed-ended multiple choice measured on five-point Likert scale (0 = Not at all, 1 = Rarely, 2 = Occasionally, 3 = Quite often, 4 = Almost always). More thoroughly, the questionnaire consists of 45 questions, 36 of which evaluate the three basic leadership styles (transformative, transactional, and passive) and 9 of which evaluate leadership results (greater effort, efficiency, and satisfaction from leadership).

3.2 The Factors of Communication—Terms and Measurement Tools

Communication is considered to be one of the most important factors that are required for a leader of an organization in order to be efficient and effective (Cetin et al., 2012; Zillioglu, 1996), due to the fact that communication can help the manager to share, assert, and evaluate his/her ideas (Tutar & Yilmaz, 2003).

According to Koschmann (2016), communication is a way that someone can convey information, thoughts, and feelings, in a manner that they can be understood by the receiver. In other words, what people say and the way that they say it can create a specific impression to others. Thus, in order to create and maintain a pleasant interpersonal working environment, the members of an organization should pay serious attention to the communication functions (Wikaningrum & Yniawan, 2018).

There are four main functions regarding communication within organizations (Halim & Razak, 2014):

- Control: The communication can help a leader to understand if an employee is doing his/her job according to the needs of an organization, or if there are problems created by the employee's way of working.
- Motivation: A leader is using communication in order to motivate the employees by explaining their role, the achievements that they have made so far as well as the ways to improve them.
- Emotional expression: In many cases, working in groups is a major source of social interaction. Communication can provide the manner for expressing feelings and fulfillment of social needs.
- Information: The organization members need information in order to make decision by identifying and evaluating alternative options. Due to the continuous change environment, strategy formulation, decision making, motivation and team building need effective leadership communication skills.

Similarly, Crews et al. (2019) suggest that communication styles ("the way that one verbally, nonverbally, and para-verbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood" (Norton, 1978)) have the following characteristics:

- Preciseness: The members should communicate in an organized and well-structured way with each other
- Verbal aggressiveness: A communicational message that intends to attack and cause psychological pain by making the employees feel uncomfortable and unfavorable.
- Emotionality: It refers to the lack of ability to control emotions and to the unpredictable behavior due to the fact that the leader is incapable of discussing important matters rationally; on the contrary it refers to anxiety, tension, and defensiveness.
- Impression manipulativeness: Employees often act by deception and self-management in an attempt to try to impress other employees.
- Expressiveness.
- Questioningness.

One of the most important questions that wondered scholars was: "How can we measure the levels of communication between the employees of an organization?". Downs and Hazen (1977) were one of the first academics who investigated the measure of the communication between organizational members. The Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) by Downs and Hazen (1977) was discovered in order to measure "the overall degree of satisfaction an employee can gain from his/her total communication environment" (Redding, 1978). The CSQ consists of 40 items which are measured with a 7-point Likert scale from (1) very satisfied to (7) very dissatisfied. Moreover, this measurement tool includes eight factors, and each one of them is measured by five items. These eight factors are the following (Downs & Hazen, 1977):

- Communication Climate: It is one of the most important factors in communication. It measures communication at the organizational and individual levels, revealing whether or not the organizational communication motivates and encourages employee identification. This factor is also used for measuring which information flow assists the working process.

- Relationship to Superiors: It includes upward and downward communication between supervisors and subordinates. It measures the openness of the superiors as well as their ability to listen.
- Organizational Integration: It includes all the information employees receive about their work, such as work policies and benefits. In addition, it includes all the information about the current status of the organization as well as personal news. This information can help employees feel united.
- Media Quality: It includes the elements of communication that involve traveling through several channels (e.g., publications, memos, and meetings. In this factor, employees are asked about the clarity and the quantity of these information sources.
- Horizontal and Informal Communication: In this factor, the employees are asked about the amount of activity of information networks as well as the accuracy they contain.
- Organizational Perspective: It includes all the information regarding the corporation and its goals and its performance. It also includes knowledge about external events that may have an impact on the organization (such as new government policies).
- Relationship with Subordinates: It includes employees' receptiveness to downward communication and their willingness and capability to send good information upward.
- Personal Feedback: It includes questions about superiors' understanding of work problems as well as whether or not employees feel that they are judged clearly and fairly by their supervisors.

3.3 *What Makes a Team Effective? Outcomes and Measurement Tools*

Team effectiveness is considered to be one of the most important outcomes of group/team dynamics that has triggered the interest of scholars and practitioners of human resource management. According to Mathieu and Gilson (2012), team effectiveness has two types of outcomes:

(a) Tangible outputs or products of team interaction. Tangible outcomes are categorized into three types: productivity, efficiency, and quality. Productivity refers to all the elements (quantitative counts of units) that a team produces (e.g., sales logged, clients served). Efficiency refers to all the elements (quantitative counts of units) that a team produces relative to some standards or benchmark (for instance products relative to raw materials consumed). Quality refers to the assessment of the value of outputs (e.g., production reject rates, decision quality, and customer satisfaction) (Mathieu et al., 2019).

(b) Influences on team members. It can be categorized into two levels: collective and individualistic. The collective level includes shared experiences, such as cohesion, which are similarly experienced by all team members. On the contrary, the individualistic level refers to attitudes, reactions, and behaviors that could vary not only among teams but also between members of the same team (Mathieu et al., 2019).

A modern tool in order to measure the team effectiveness was created by London Leadership Academy, National Health Service (NHS-LLA, 2022). The Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ) consists of 56 items which are measured in a 5-point Likert scale from 1 "Disagree strongly" to 5 "Strongly agree". This instrument measures eight dimensions of team effectiveness. Each dimension is measured through seven items of the questionnaire. The above-mentioned eight dimensions are the following (TEQ, 2022):

- Purpose and goals
- Roles
- Team processes
- Team relationships
- Intergroup relations
- Problem-solving
- Passion and commitment
- Skills and learning.

Team effectiveness tool is used in order to contribute to the assessment of the effectiveness of the team as well as to identify team dimensions which must be improved so as the team effectiveness would be increased (TEQ, 2022).

3.4 Examination of the Current Literature—The Impact of Leadership and Communication on Team Effectiveness

During the past 30 years, scholars have connected leadership styles with a plethora of terms coming from Human Resource Management, such as job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, organizational culture, work stress, and work burnout (Belias et al., 2020b, 2022; Koutiva et al., 2020).

Another term that is considered to be strongly connected with leadership styles is communication. Cetin et al. (2012) have contacted a research which led them to the conclusion that leadership styles have strong connection with communication competency of bank managers. In addition, the research of Wikaningrum and Yuniawan (2018) revealed that there is a strong connection between leadership styles and communication skills; to be more specific their research, which was contacted in a sample of employees working at private Islamic universities in Semarang City revealed that there is a very strong and positive connection between task-oriented leadership style and employees' communicating satisfaction, and even a stronger positive effect of relationship-oriented leadership style and employees' communicating satisfaction. Moreover, the importance between leadership and interpersonal communication was raised by the research of Vries et al. (2009). They were one of the first researchers who used a comprehensive communication styles instrument in the study of leadership (Vries et al., 2009). Furthermore, Terek et al. (2015) studied the effect of leadership on the communication satisfaction on a sample of primary school teachers in Serbia. The findings of their research suggested that there is a strong positive connection between leadership and communication satisfaction of the teachers, especially the dimensions of core transformational leadership behavior, contingent reward behavior, and intellectual stimulation seem to have the strongest connection. Finally, according to Crews et al. (2019) research on manufacturing organizations in South Africa, idealized influence (a dimension of transformational leadership) had a positive effect on all communication styles. Furthermore, Crews et al. (2019) suggested that communication styles were significantly predicted by contingent rewards and passive management-by-exception (dimensions of transactional leadership).

Although there are several researches regarding leadership and communication in educational or manufacturing or banking organizations, there seems to be a research gap when investigating leadership and communication in the tourism and hospitality industry. After a thorough investigation in global scientific databases (such Google Scholar, Web of Sciences, Elsevier Scopus), only few researches regarding leadership and communication in hospitality/tourism industry appeared. More specifically, Prikshat et al. (2021) studied the role of transformational leadership and interpersonal communication on the growth satisfaction of hospitality employees. The data were collected from 159 hotel employees in India. The results of their research showed that (a) transformational leadership is positively related to follower interpersonal communication satisfaction with the leader and (b) interpersonal communication satisfaction with the leader mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and follower's trust. Furthermore, Paudel et al. (2021) studied the cultural diversity impact in leadership from the perspective of managerial communication. More specifically, Paudel et al. (2021) conducted a research in 10 five-star hotels in Kathmandu Valley. According to the researchers, when a manager communicates with the subordinates in an effective way then the employees feel more secure and more ready to achieve goals as well as they feel easy to work in teams. As a result, effective managerial communication can lead to the growth of the hospitality business. Last but not least, Macaes and Roman-Portas (2022) studied the effects of organizational communication, leadership, and employee commitment on the organizational change. To be more precise, the sample of their research consisted of 335 employees who work on the hospitality industry. The results of their research revealed that organizational communication had a positive and significant effect on leadership style. It also revealed the significant positive mediating role of leadership styles in the relationship among organizational communication and organizational change.

As far as team effectiveness is concerned, there seems to be also a research gap in the connection between communication and team effectiveness in the hospitality industry. According to Mohanty & Mohanty (2018), communication has a significant positive effect on team effectiveness regarding the hospitality industry. In addition, Salman and Hassan (2016) investigate the connection between effective communication and effective teamwork. The results of their research, which contacted in 107 employees from an entertainment company in Kuala Lumpur, showed that there is a significant and positive relationship between effective communication and team performance. Finally, Giudici and Filimonau (2019) discovered the linkage between managerial leadership, communication and teamwork in the event delivery. In other words, the employees of an event delivery can have an effective outcome as a team when they are led by a managerial leader who has advanced communication skills. All the above-mentioned researches are shown in Table 1.

4 Conclusions

The current paper has examined the connection between leadership styles, communication, and team effectiveness in the tourism and hospitality industry. As it is indicated by various researches (as previously mentioned), leadership styles and communication skills potentiate the performance and the effectiveness of a teamwork. In few words, there has been a limited number of researches (especially in the educational and banking field) which are pointing out the positive connection between leadership styles and communication satisfaction as well as the positive effect of communication on team effectiveness in an organization. Similarly, there has been an even smaller amount of researches concerning the linkage of leadership, communication, and team effectiveness in the hospitality and the tourism industry.

As it is already mentioned the existing literature is limited but it is indicating that the relationship of the previous terms should be investigated in the tourism and hospitality industry. For this reason, this literature review suggests that there is the need for further investigation regarding the connection of leadership, communication, and team effectiveness not only via a theoretical framework but also through a practical research framework which can be based on the measurement tools that have already mentioned (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire by Avolio & Bass, 2004, Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire by Downs & Hazen, 1977, and Team Effectiveness Questionnaire by London Leadership Academy/National Health Service, 2022). Hence, a theoretical and practical model can arise which have a research implementation in the hospitality industry.

Table 1 Examination of existing literature research

Authors	Methods used	Conclusions	Area of research
Macaes and Roman-Portas (2022)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 335 Portuguese employees working in the hospitality industry	The results of their research revealed that organizational communication had a positive and significant effect on leadership style; also revealed the significant positive mediating role of leadership styles in the relationship among organizational communication and organizational change	Organizational communication, leadership, employee commitment, and organizational change
Paudel et al., (2021)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 167 managers of five-star hotels in Kathmandu valley, Nepal	When a manager communicates with the subordinates in an effective way then the employees feel more secure and more ready to achieve goals as well as they feel easy to work in teams	Cultural diversity, leadership, managerial communication
Prikshat et al. (2021)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 159 hotel employees in India	(a) transformational leadership is positively related to follower interpersonal communication satisfaction with the leader and (b) interpersonal communication satisfaction with the leader mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and follower's trust	Transformational leadership, interpersonal communication satisfaction, trust
Crews et al., (2019)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 564 employees of South African manufacturing organizations	Idealized influence (a dimension of transformational leadership) had a positive effect on all communication styles. communication styles were significantly predicted by contingent rewards and passive management-by-exception (dimensions of transactional leadership)	Transformational and transactional leadership and communication styles

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Authors	Methods used	Conclusions	Area of research
Giudici and Filimonau (2019)	The research conducted by a permanent member of an event's team who was trained in qualitative research methods (14 interviews)	The employees of an event delivery can have an effective outcome as a team when they are led by a managerial leader who has advanced communication skills	Managerial leadership, communication, and successful teamwork
Wikaningrum and Yuniawan (2018)	Quantitative research in a sample of 200 employees working at private Islamic universities in Semarang city, Indonesia	Very strong and positive connection between task-oriented leadership style and employees' communicating satisfaction, and even a stronger positive effect of relationship-oriented leadership style and employees' communicating satisfaction	Leadership styles, communication competency, job satisfaction
Mohanty and Mohanty (2018)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 297 employees working in hotels, private banks, and retail chains of Bhubaneswar City	Communication has a significant positive effect on team effectiveness regarding the hospitality industry	Communication, group dynamics & team effectiveness
Salman and Hassan (2016)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 107 employees working in an entertainment company in Kuala Lumpur	There is a significant and positive relationship between effective communication and team performance	Team effectiveness, employee performance, Effective communication
Terek et al., (2015)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 362 teachers from 52 primary schools in Serbia	Leadership has a strong and positive impact on the communication satisfaction of teachers in Serbian primary schools	Leadership and communication satisfaction
Cetin et al., (2012)	Quantitative research in a sample of 225 Turkish employees of banks	Leadership styles have strong connection with communication competency of bank managers	Leadership styles, communication competency, job satisfaction

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Authors	Methods used	Conclusions	Area of research
Vries et al. (2009)	Quantitative research made in a sample of 279 employees of the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science	Studied the importance between leadership and interpersonal communication	Leadership styles and communication styles

References

Asghar, S., & Oino, I. (2018). Leadership styles and job satisfaction. *Market Forces, 13*(1), 1–13. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3197150

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 421–449.

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire. In *Manual and sampler set* (3rd ed.).

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance. Beyond expectations*. Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *The American Psychologist, 52*(2), 130–139. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.52.2.130

Bass, B. M., Avoilio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(2), 207–218.

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Sotiriou, A., & Sawsan, M. (2022). The impact of workplace conflicts on employee turnover and quality of services. The case of Greek seasonal hotels. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*,. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2022.2065655

Belias, D., & Rossidis, I. (2020). Corporate leadership and corporate culture in start-up companies. In *Corporate leadership and its role in shaping organizational culture and performance*. IGI Global.

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Papademetriou, C., & Mantas C. (2020a). Job satisfaction as affected by types of leadership: A case study of Greek tourism sector. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 10*(3), 39–45. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2020.1867695

Belias, D., Rossidis, I., Papademetriou, C., & Lamprinoudis N. (2020b). The Greek tourism sector: An analysis of Job satisfaction, role conflict and autonomy of Greek employees. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2021.1959825

Belias, D., Trivellas, P., Koustelios, A., Serdaris, P., Varsanis, K., & Grigoriou, I. (2017). Human resource management, strategic leadership development and the Greek tourism sector. In V. Katsoni, A. Upadhya, & A. Stratigea (Eds.), *Tourism, culture and heritage in a smart economy. Springer proceedings in business and economics*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-47732-9_14

Belias, D., & Koustelios, A. (2015). Leadership style, job satisfaction and organizational culture in the Greek banking organization. *Journal of Management Research, 5*(2), 101–110.

Belias, D., Koustelios, A., & Gkolia, A. (2015a). Leadership style and job satisfaction of Greek banking institutions. *International Journal of Management and Business Research (IJMBR), 5*(3), 237–248.

Belias, D., Gkolia, A., Koustelios, A., & Varsanis, K. (2015b). Leadership style and personal characteristics of Greek banking employees. *Journal of Management Research, 5*(3), 156–164.

Belias, D., & Koustelios, A. (2014). The impact of leadership and change management strategy on organizational culture. *European Scientific Journal, 10*(7), 451–470.

Cetin, M., Karabay, M. E., & Efe, M. N. (2012). The effects of leadership styles and the communication competency of bank managers on the employee's job satisfaction: The case of Turkish banks. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 58*, 227–235.

Crews, E., Brouwers, M., & Visagie, J. (2019). Transformational and transactional leadership effects on communication styles. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 29*(5), 421–428. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2019.1675996

Day, D. V., & Antonakis, J. (2012). Leadership: Past, present and future. Sociology. https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Leadership%3A-Past%2C-Present%2C-and-Future-DayAntonakis/0358c408605b9a286ee34eab6fe986d818097eec. Accessed 5 July 2022.

Dessler, G. (2004). *Management principles and practice for tomorrow's leader* (3rd ed.). Pearson Education Inc.

Downs, C. W., & Hazen, M. (1977). A factor analytic study of communication satisfaction. *Journal of Business Communication, 14*, 63–73.

Drucker, P. (2003). *Gelecegin Toplumunda Yonetim*. Hayat Yayinlari.

Eliyana, A., & Maarif-Muzakki, S. (2019). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment effect in the transformational leadership towards employee performance. *European Research on Management and Business Economics, 25*(3), 144–150. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iedeen.2019.05.001

Eisenberg, J., Post, C., & Di Tomaso, N. (2019). Team dispersion and performance: The role of team communication and transformational leadership. *Small Group Research, 50*(3), 348–380. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496419827376

Giudici, M., & Filimonau, V. (2019). Exploring the linkages between managerial leadership, communication and teamwork in successful event delivery. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 32*,. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100558

Halim, N. A. A., & Razak, N. A. (2014). Communication strategies of women leaders in entrepreneurship. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 118*, 21–28.

Hinkin, T. R., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2008). An examination of "nonleadership": From laissez-faire leadership to leader reward omission and punishment omission. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*, 1234–1248.

Humborstad, S. I. W., & Giessner, S. R. (2015). The thin line between empowering and Laissez Faire leadership: An expectancy-match perspective. *Journal of Management, XX*(X), 1–27. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315574597

Jansen, J. J., Vera, D., & Crossan, M. (2009). Strategic leadership for exploration and exploitation: The moderating role of environmental dynamism. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*(1), 5–18.

Keskes, I. (2014). Relationship between leadership styles and dimensions of employee organizational commitment: A critical review and discussion of future directions. *Intangible Capital, 10*(1), 26–51. https://doi.org/10.3926/ic.476

Koschmann, M. (2016). A communication perspective on organizational stakeholder relationships: Discursivity, relationality, and materiality. *Communication Research and Practice, 2*(3), 407–431. https://doi.org/10.1080/22041451.2016.1217383

Koustelios, A., Belias, D., & Zournatzi, E. (2021). Leadership in the Greek public sector. *Inspection of Public Management, 1*, 43–55.

Koutiva, M., Belias, D., Nietos, I. F., & Koustelios, A. (2020). The effects of workplace well-being on individual's knowledge creation outcomes: A study research among hotel employees. In A. Kavoura, E. Kefallonitis, & P. Theodoridis (Eds.), *Strategic innovative marketing and tourism. Springer proceedings in business and economics*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36126-6_118

Maçães, M. A., & Román-Portas, M. (2022). The effects of organizational communication, leadership, and employee commitment in organizational change in the hospitality sector. *Communication & Society, 35*(2), 89–106.

Madlock, P. E. (2008). The link between leadership style, communicator competence, and employee satisfaction. *Journal of Business Communication, 45*(1), 61–78.

Mathieu, J. E., & Gilson, L. L. (2012). Criteria issues and team effectiveness. In S. W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 910–930). Oxford Univ. Press.

Mathieu, J. E., Gallagher, P. T., Domingo, M. A., & Klock, E. A. (2019). Embracing complexity: Reviewing the past decade of team effectiveness research. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 6*, 17–46. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012218-015106

Memon, K. R. (2014). Effects of leadership styles on employee performance: Integrating the mediating role of culture, gender and moderating role of communication. *International Journal of Management Sciences and Business Research, 3*(7). ISSN 2226-8235.

Mohanty, A., & Mohanty, S. (2018). The impact of communication and group dynamics on teamwork effectiveness: The case of service sector organizations. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 17*(4), 1–14.

NHS-LLA. (2022). *National Health Service by London Leadership Acade*my. https://london.leadershipacademy.nhs.uk/about-us/. Accessed 2 Aug 2022.

Norton, R. W. (1978). Foundation of a communicator style construct. *Human Communication Research, 4*(2), 99–112. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1978.tb00600.x

Ntalakos, A., Rossidis, I., & Belias, D. (2022a). Trait emotional intelligence trait emotional intelligence & leadership: A study of managers and employees. In *Proceedings of the 21st European conference on research methodology for business and management studies*, ECRM 2022a (pp. 149–156). https://doi.org/10.34190/ecrm.21.1.330

Ntalakos, A., Belias, D., Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2022b). Organizational culture and group dynamics in the tourism industry. In *Proceedings of the 5th international conference on tourism research 2022b, Porto* (pp. 286–293). ISBN 978-1-914587-33-7, ISSN 2516-3612.

Quinn, M. D. (2005). *Leadership: How to lead, how to live*. MindEdge Press.

Paudel, U. R., Puri, S., Parajuli, S., Devkota, N., & Bhandari, U. (2021). Measuring cultural diversity impact in hospitality industry leadership: managerial communication perspective from five star hotels in Kathmandu Valley, Nepal. *Journal of Tourism & Adventure, 4*(1), 75–88.

Prikshat, V., Irudhaya, R., & Rajaguru, R. (2021). The growth satisfaction in jobs among hospitality employees: The role of transformational leadership, interpersonal communication satisfaction and trust. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 20*(1), 48–74. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2020.1821427

Redding, W. C. (1978). *Communication within the organization*. Industrial Communication Council.

Rita, M., Payangan, O. R., Rante, Y., Tuhumena, R., & Erari, A. (2018). Moderating effect of organizational citizenship behavior on the effect of organizational commitment, transformational leadership and work motivation on employee performance. *International Journal of Law and Management, 60*(4), 953–964. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJLMA-03-2017-0026

Rossidis, I., Belias, D., & Vasiliadis, L. (2021). Strategic human resource management in the international hospitality industry. An extensive literature review. In V. Katsoni & C. van Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world*. *Springer proceedings in business and economics*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_22

Rossidis, I., Belias, D., & Aspridis, G. (2020). *Change management and leadership*. Tziolas publications.

Salman, W. A., & Hassan, Z. (2016). Impact of effective teamwork on employee performance. *International Journal of Accounting & Business Management, 4*(1), 76–85. https://doi.org/10.24924/ijabm/2016.04/v4.iss1/76.85

Shaw, K. (2005). Getting leaders involved in communication strategy: Breaking down the barriers to effective leadership communication. *Strategic Communication Management, 9*, 14–17.

Skogstad, A., Einarsen, S., Torsheim, T., Aasland, M. S., & Hetland, H. (2007). The destructiveness of laissez-faire leadership behavior. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*, 80–92.

Spinks, N., & Wells, B. (1995). Quality communication: A key to quality leadership. *Training for Quality, 3*(2), 14–19. https://doi.org/10.1108/09684879510087486

Terek, E., Glusac, D., Nikolic, M., Tasic, I., & Gligorovic, B. (2015). The impact of leadership on the communication satisfaction of primary school teachers in Serbia. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 15*(1), 73–84. https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2015.1.2511

Vries, R. E., & Bakker-Pieper, A. (2009). Leadership = communication? The relations of leaders' communication styles with leadership styles, knowledge sharing and leadership outcomes. *Journal of Business Psychology, 25*, 367–380. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-009-9140-2

TEQ. (2022). *Team effectiveness questionnaire*. https://www.cu.edu/sites/default/files/Team_effectiveness_questionnaire.pdf. Accessed 1 Aug 2022.

Tutar, H., & Yilmaz, M. K. (2003). *Genel & Teknik Iletisim*. Seckin Yayincilik.

Wikaningrum, T., & Yuniawan, U. A. (2018). The relationships among leadership styles, communication skills, and employee satisfaction: A study on equal employment opportunity in leadership. *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research, 13*(1), 138–147.

Yukl, G. (2009). *Leadership in organizations* (8th ed.). New York.

Zillioglu, M. (1996). *Iletisim Nedir*. Cem Yayinlari.

Total Quality Management in Hotel Businesses Depending on Their Category and Size

Aristides Katsaitis, Fragiskos Bersimis, and Paris Tsartas

Abstract The aim of this research was to investigate the degree of implementation of the total quality management of the hotels in terms of the quality category of the services provided (5*–4*) and the size (small–large), in a sample of hotel businesses in the Prefecture of Attica. A survey was carried out using an electronic questionnaire that included appropriate questions addressed to the HR managers of the hotel units. The results show that 5* and larger hotels show a higher degree of agreement in the attitudes that express the application of the principles of total quality management, compared to 4* and smaller hotels. In conclusion, from the research on the application of the principles of total quality management between the category of 4* and 5* hotels, there is clearly a significant differentiation. Hotels in the 5* category clearly show a better application of the principles of total quality management compared to the category of 4* hotels.

Keywords Hotels · Total quality management · Human resources

JEL Classifications Z300 tourism economics · General

1 Introduction

The objective of this research investigates the application of the principles of total quality management in 5* and 4* hotels of the Prefecture of Attica. The main research

A. Katsaitis (✉) · P. Tsartas
Department of Economics and Sustainable Development, Harokopion University, El. 70 Venizelou, 176 71 Athens, Greece
e-mail: ar_kats@otenet.gr

P. Tsartas
e-mail: tsartas@hua.gr

F. Bersimis
Department of Statistics and Insurance Science, University of Piraeus, 80 M. Karaoli & A. Dimitriou St., Piraeus, Greece
e-mail: fbersimis@aua.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_11

questions of the research concern the central question of the application of the principles of total quality by the management of the hotel business and this application in which category (5* or 4*) and in which room capacity size shows the significant differentiation/statistical significance in individual questions referring to encouragement, support, follow-up, consistency, training, teamwork, quality in operations and procedures, quality integration into the production of the hotel product, decision making and orientation of the type of incitement.

2 Literature Review

The ancient Greek philosophers, Socrates, Aristotle and Plato, developed the concept of quality as synonymous with "virtue" and "perfection", and Plato states that "virtue" is a catalytic and completed concept in a supreme form and constitutes the highest idea from the other ideas, considering that quality is ideal but not "tangible", it is not compatible and does not express daily practice (Vouzas, 1998: 19).

The philosophical view of quality improvement is mainly based on business ethics which is dominated by "virtue" and expresses "goodness". This approach can strengthen and consolidate customer confidence in the products and services it produces (Katsaitis & Papaefthimiou, 2018: 212).

Basically, quality as a concept can be easily perceived but not easily defined precisely. Etymologically, Kefis states (Kefis, 2005) that, "it comes from the ancient Greek word "poiotis" with the root "who—what kind" and means who, the nature or the inner being of a person or thing, as well as the set of properties that characterize a commodity in relation to its peers" (Kefis, 2005: 36).

The quality, as reported by Varvaresos and Sotiriadis, is a new philosophy in its management, which requires continuous search and effort to improve the entire production process up to the final product or service (Varvaresos & Sotiriadis, 2003: 4).

The orientation to the quality of the offered hotel services, with a strong personal character, will contribute to the achievement of competitiveness and business success (Samson & Terziovski, 1999: 393–409).

The strategic choice of quality, by the hotel business, must be the only way to continuously improve its offered services, maintain its dynamic competitiveness and increase its profitability even in economic crises (Motwani et al., 1996: 4–16).

Also, researchers mention the strategic importance of the concept of quality and consider that it should be the strategic choice with an organizational structure and framework, which anyway the application of total quality management alone constitutes a strategy (Stavrinoudis & Christina, 2013).

The importance of improving quality and productivity as a continuous process led to the holistic approach to quality. So, quality from 1980–1990 is approached with two main features, the total and the continuous approach of quality improvement.

The Main Theoreticians in Quality Management

Deming approaches the concept of quality with 14 specific principles in a list structure that must be strictly observed, with continuity and consistency from the beginning to the end of the list and then again from the beginning, creating an endless cycle for continuous improvement, where in each completion of the cycle process, failures and disadvantages are observed, where changes or adjustments will be made to follow a new cycle of improvement, consisting of Deming's famous 14 points are (Chytiris, 2015: 61; Chytiris & Anninos, 2015: 61; Deming, 1993; Evans & Lindsay, 2002; Montgomery, 2005; Laloumis, 2015: 65–66; Logothetis, 1992; Psomas, 2008: 87–88; Temtime & Solomon, 2002: 181–191; Deming, British Library):

Deming's 14 points W. Edwards

1. Apply consistently and steadfastly to achieve the goal with continuous effort to improve the quality of products and services.
2. Acceptance of the new philosophy by all human resources and above all the administration.
3. Create a quality product or service from the first stage of processing and production.
4. Reject the lowest-priced suppliers and leverage supplier partnerships with quality products by developing solid relationships with them.
5. Cost reduction with continuous and consistent improvement of production systems and methods to eliminate any problems.
6. Develop and implement modern on-the-job training methods for all human resources to help optimize production systems.
7. Develop effective leadership that will encourage human resources, participation, initiative, responsibility and decision making, and provide human resources with support in means and methods to perform their duties more effectively.
8. Eliminating fear in HR and encouraging two-way communication so everyone can work effectively.
9. Putting aside the obstacles between the managements and the departments so that they can communicate with each other without hindrance and solve any of their problems by participation, cooperation in group work.
10. Eliminate or even minimize numerical targets and slogans to motivate human resources. Replace these with understanding, support, knowledge training, skill development, skill enhancement.
11. Use of statistical methods to improve quality and productivity with corresponding minimization of all standards that use numerical quantities.
12. Management should "defend" the pride of human resources from their work, eliminating the causes that human resources lose their pride and their work becomes a liability.
13. Develop continuous modern and dynamic training programs for all human resources for their continuous self-improvement in matters of the subject of their work and the best possible performance of their duties, both in the management force and in the workforce.

14. Total participation to complete this transition to complete the “transformation”, this effort requires absolute and complete cooperation between management and employees–workers.

Juran considered important the contribution of human resources and firmly believed in good human relations, teamwork and the commitment of the human resources themselves for the quality operation of processes in the quality production of all products or services (Juran, 1988). Also, Juran formulated the quality trilogy consisting of (Chytiris & Anninos, 2015: 62; Psomas, 2008: 90): (a) quality planning, (b) quality control, (c) improvement of quality.

While Juran and Gryna define quality as “fitness for use”, Crosby defines quality as “conformance to requirements” (Crosby, 1979).

Crosby believes that quality is specific goals that must be achieved. The absence of achieving goals means the absence of quality.

Crosby believes that accepting a certain percentage of defectives in production is unacceptable and that every worker has a responsibility to do any job right from the start and to prevent mistakes.

Crosby for quality improvement mentions the slogan “zero errors”. The company should act “right the first time”, so that the product or service does not have a defect or problem (Psomas, 2008: 90). This is particularly important in hotel services which are characterized by the simultaneous production and consumption of service and service.

Ishikawa believes that the cause of quality problems will be solved with the right strategy. He emphasized the application of statistical techniques to improve quality by using the cause–effect diagram, which is also called the Ishikawa diagram, a well-known fishbone (Frankou Vasiliki – Eleftheria, 2013: 6–7; Psomas, 2008: 92).

Also, Cronin and Taylor define quality as a long-term attitude and customer satisfaction as the result of evaluating a specific experience experienced by the customer (Cronin & Taylor, 1994: 126).

Kefis (2005) defines quality through the satisfaction received by the customer and the repeatability of the supply of the product by the company that produces it is defined as a quality indicator (Vassilis, 2005: 37).

Undoubtedly, quality is an important issue for the hotel industry as well, whose concept is widely used in advertising and in all promotional media and techniques (Jones & Lockwood, 1989: 149–155), both to its customers and to its staff.

“Quality” in the hotel business is not about a product or service about the “best”, “excellence”, “expensive”, “perfect”, “excellent”, etc., but mainly about how suitable it is to serve a particular purpose (Jones & Lockwood, 1989: 149–155).

The quality provided by the hotel business must serve a general purpose and as Gower states, “it has nothing to do with social standing, rank or class” (Gower, 2001: 18), nor with mathematical statistics. Quality is about providing the customer with what he wants and satisfies him and every time we provide him with something even better, at a price that can be met, at a cost that we can keep constant, the identification of expectation with reality (Gower, 2001: 19).

Therefore, the hotel product is mainly the provision of hospitality services, and the quality in the operational action of the hotel business is the main issue since as a central axis in the management of the hotel business, from the conception of the idea, the production and the distribution of the hotel product or service to the customer, the view of quality provision dominates and service of products and services of an overall hotel quality product, to a degree and level such that it can exceed the expectations of the customer. Also, it should be pointed out that mainly the hotels of Athens should integrate the quality characteristics of the destination Athens with intense cultural "production", with exhibits, with events and with cultural tours, which highlight the destination "Athens" as an alternative cultural destination (Efthymia & Simos, 2018: 121–134), that the cultural elements could influence the practices used, both in the operation and in the behavior of the production and distribution of the hotel products–services with authentic hospitality.

Total Quality Management

Continuous improvement and quality control, mainly from the period of industrialization of production and then with the development and evolution of sciences and technologies, various models or systems were developed in the effort to manage the quality of products and services in their production processes. Thus, the beginning was made with (a) quality inspection, then followed by (b) quality control and (c) quality assurance and evolutionarily completed with (d) total quality management (Dale et al., 1994: 5; Psomas, 2008: 32).

Also, Oakland defines total quality management as (Oakland, 1989), "an approach to improving the efficiency and flexibility of the enterprise as a whole". It is literally a way for the organization and participation of the entire company, all departments, all activities and all employees at all levels (Vouzas, 2002: 40).

The management of total quality is a new philosophy for the application of administrative practice, where all are committed to quality in dealing with problems proactively through statistical techniques and continuous improvement at the lowest possible cost, and not repressively (Psomas, 2008: 74).

Total quality management is an administrative phenomenon, a philosophy of "management" with different interpretations, but with a constant orientation to the continuous and uninterrupted effort to improve the quality, which the customer desires and "defines" it many times, for his complete and absolute satisfaction.

Total quality management should be the dynamic choice for hospitality companies to improve their services (Motwani et al., 1996: 4–16).

Thus, while total quality management over the years has become more popular in the hotel industry, studies on the application of TQM in the hotel industry are limited; however, more research is needed to fill the literature gap (Mukhles & Al-Ababneh, 2021: 27–28).

Businesses today are competing, according to Okland (1994), three main factors: quality, delivery and prices. Today consumers are turning to quality rather than being loyal to the producer. Quality is a key priority in consumer choices in industrial, service, hospitality and many other markets (Gower, 2001: 26–27).

Total quality management seeks continuous improvement of quality throughout the company and in all its functions and processes. It is the one that will enable the company to achieve employee participation, customer satisfaction and competitiveness. Also, it has as a basic orientation the needs of the customers, and the concept of the customer is expanded to cover both external customers (consumers) and internal customers (employees) (Frankou Vasiliki – Eleftheria, 2013: 11).

Total quality management is a management philosophy, which is mainly based on the fact that quality concerns the entire department that implements or develops a technical function and not itself; i.e., it has a holistic character, and not a working group of experts, who should all take care of the quality and the characteristics of the quality, which are determined by the customer–consumer and not the company itself according to its performance, and finally, the measures for the success of the quality are based on the application of the new technology (Kefis, 2005: 45).

In addition, the Witcher states that approximately 30% of companies that apply the principles of total quality management essentially fail because they either do not understand its principles or are used in the wrong way or use them for the benefits of marketing functions (Witcher, 1995: 23–24).

Various scholars report, for example, that the hotel industry is struggling and dubious results are created, between the triangular relationship of total quality management, market orientation and business performance, from insufficient information about total quality management or from obstacles that are related to market orientation (Gray et al., 2000: 149–155, Harris, & Watkins, 1998: 221–226, Lazari & Kanellopoulos, 2007: 564–571).

A survey carried out in the hotels of Athens in 2013 by Stavrinoudis and El Chanoun showed that hotels have a strategic orientation to satisfy the needs of their customers with quality services, but quality is not always integrated through models or international quality standards. Thus, a significant number of hotels operate for total quality in the context of experience, without program and organization, but hotels that have implemented integrated programs of total quality management, have sufficient experience (Stavrinoudis & El Chanoun, 2013).

Mainly, the parameters that will determine the successful implementation of total quality management are: management and leadership commit to the implementation of total quality of all involved parts of the system, both in the internal environment and in the external environment of the hotel business, as well and the application of total quality in the management of its operations and processes (Montes et al., 2003). But another important parameter comes from technology, specifically smart technology, using smart devices and software. A high percentage of hotel businesses have not been upgraded to modern infrastructure and services, as a result of which they offer low-level services. This result is also strengthened by the little experience and training of several of the hoteliers, mainly in the areas of organized holiday tourism, so that they could perceive more quickly and more effectively the necessary changes of their hotel businesses with aesthetic intervention and qualitative upgrading of their provided services (Tsartas, 2010: 358–359). The investigation of the use of new technologies provides the tourism business with new possibilities in the promotion and promotion as well as in the distribution channels of the tourist products (Tsartas et al., 2014). The World Tourism Organization (2015) refers to smart tourism based on the intense flow of tourist information which is highly dependent on communication and information technologies (Benckendorff et al. 2014; Koo et al., 2015; Law et al., 2014; Werthner & Klein, 1999). From several points of view, smart tourism is a technological evolution from traditional tourism to technological orientation with application to global reservation systems and the use of the Internet (Buhalis, 2003; Werthner & Ricci, 2004). The technological development integrates smart applications, the end result of which gives us smart devices such as mobile phones, tablets, computers, all of which support smart functions for the tourist and hotel customer, but also a smart tourist macro-environment, which connects and disseminates to everyone and all systems for the immediate and faster information of the tourist public and, by extension, tourist businesses, with a two-way relationship of information flow with the customer's own self-management such as online platforms for hotel reservations, mass transport reservations, entertainment services, reservations in entertainment and catering businesses, payment of reservations, information about the tourist destination, hotels and other tourist businesses, tourist instructions (Ulrike et al., 2015: 181–183). Thus, technological tools and their applications create "smart" hotel businesses, which will increase their quality performance by automating their functions and processes such as marketing, supply management, human resources management and in the management of the customer and finally its quality service (Sigala & Marinidis, 2012).

In general, however, a hotel that pursues and systematically applies the principles of total quality management must have in its philosophy the continuous satisfaction of its customers, and this can be achieved by training in scientific and technical knowledge and skills, by applying the new "smart" technologies and most basic of all the acceptance and participation of all the human resources to be effective in improving the quality of the production of hotel products and services of the company (Gower, 1997).

The hotel business, due to the specificity of the hotel product and the different culture, mentality and education of the employees, is a challenge to investigate the type and degree of application of the principles of total quality management.

3 Methodology

This survey was conducted using quantitative methodology, questioning a large sample of hotel HR managers that belong to the wider region of Attica (Greece) during 2020, aiming to explore whether they apply basic principles of total quality management (Etikan & Bala, 2017). The questionnaire used was written in the Greek language. A pilot survey took place with a test questionnaire, aiming to get feedback as regards detecting errors and misunderstandings. A simple random sampling method was used for selecting. The survey was conducted by the authors of the research using an online questionnaire (Google forms). A total number of 120 answers were valid.

The sample consists of 85 hotels 4* (70.8%) and 35 hotels 5* (29.2%), as it is presented in the bar chart of Fig. 1. The distribution of hotels' room capacity is presented in the bar chart of Fig. 2, as well as the distribution of hotels' bed capacity is presented in the bar chart of Fig. 3. The majority of survey's hotels possess less than 50 rooms and less than 100 beds.

The distribution of the years of experience of hotels' HR managers is presented in the bar chart of Fig. 4, whence it appears that the majority of the HR managers (26.7%) have 11 to 15 years of experience in this position. In addition, 95.83% of hotels' HR managers hold a higher education degree or a master's degree or a doctorate (Fig. 5).

Fig. 1 Hotels' distribution according to *category

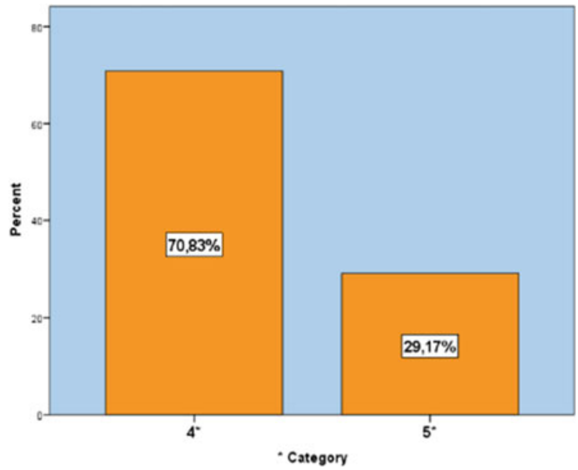
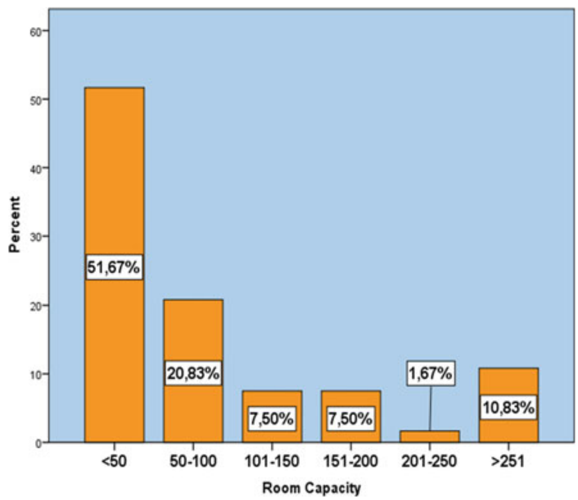


Fig. 2 Hotels' distribution according to rooms' capacity



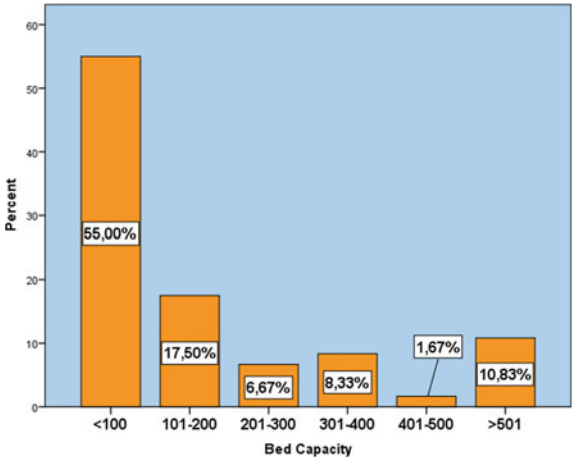


Fig. 3 Hotels' distribution according to beds' capacity

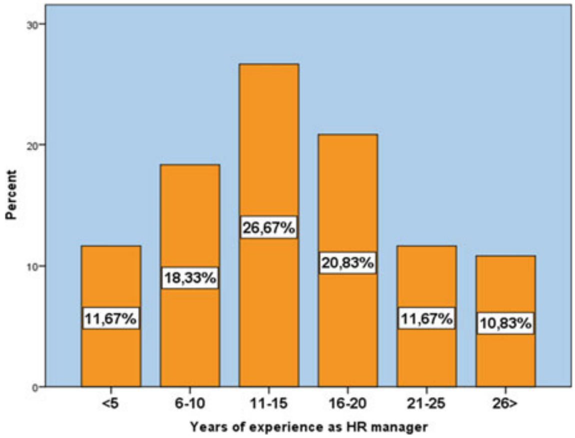


Fig. 4 Distribution of the hotels according to the years of experience of their HR manager

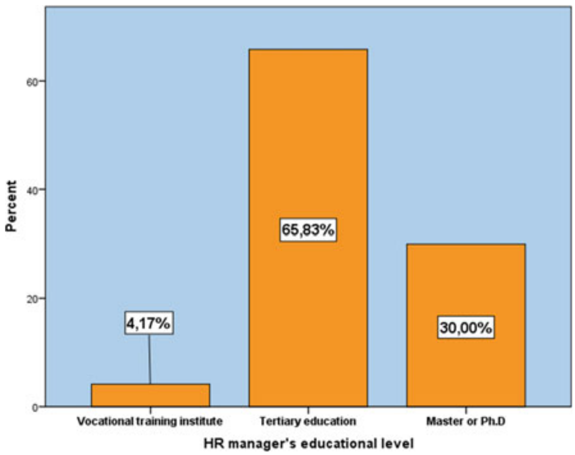


Fig. 5 Distribution of the hotels according to the educational level of their HR manager

The questionnaire's variables used in this paper aim to measure the degree/frequency of application of basic principles of total quality management. The corresponding questions were in a Likert seven-point scale, i.e., 1 corresponding to "Not at all", 2 corresponding to "Minimum", 3 corresponding to "A little bit", 4 corresponding to "Moderate", 5 corresponding to "Enough", 6 corresponding to "Very much" and 7 corresponding to "Absolutely". Questions/attitudes exploring the degree/frequency of application of basic principles of total quality management were represented by the following 14 variables "2.1 The management of the hotel business supports and encourages total quality.", "2.2. There is continuity and consistency of the effort towards total quality.", "2.3. There is a continuous investigation for any problems of the production systems of the hotel product—service.", "2.4. Teamwork is encouraged to solve the problems presented.", "2.5. Modern programs and methods of specialized training are applied with a focus on total quality.", "2.6. There is continuity and consistency of the effort to improve hotel products–services.", "2.7. The management of the hotel business supports a holistic approach to the processes and functions for the production of the hotel product.", "2.8. In the effort to improve the quality, the entire human resources participate/cooperate, regardless of the level of management (managers, supervisors, employees).", "2.9. The management of the hotel business encourages the human resources in taking initiatives and in the participation of decision making, in order to strengthen the implementation of the total quality.", "2.10. Quality is integrated into the production of the hotel product–service.", "2.11. Numerical targets are used to motivate human resources.", "2.12. Overall quality requires continuous and consistent long-term effort with long-term results.", "2.13. Stability of human resources (infrequent and unnecessary movements)" and "2.14. Management is oriented towards quality incentives instead of quantitative ones in its human resources". The reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha was calculated to equal to 0.872 for the aforementioned variables, providing a high internal consistency of tests used (Cronbach, 1951). Collected data were analyzed using the statistical software IBM SPSS ver.23. Descriptive statistics were calculated, such as mean value and standard deviation for each variable, as well as for suitable hypothesis testing, parametric and nonparametric tests were performed (Bersimis et al., 2022). The variables were in an ordinal scale; nevertheless, the sample size was sufficiently large, and therefore parametric means' equality test was performed for one (one sample t-test with test value of 4 corresponding to the median of the scale, i.e., the neutral response) or two independent samples t-test (Derrick et al, 2017; Cox, 2006). The results from parametric tests were totally confirmed by using the nonparametric test Mann–Whitney U (Conover, 1999).

4 Results

This survey's respondents answered with a high degree of agreement in all the variables that express the application's frequency of total quality management's basic principles in hotel business, i.e., from "moderate" to "very much", meaning that the degree of agreement was greater than the neutral attitude (Appendix 1 /$p < 0.01$). The mean values per variable expressing the application of basic principles of total quality management in hotel business are presented in Fig. 6 in ascending order. Specifically, the respondents answered with a frequency greater than moderate in the following basic principles of total quality management in hotel business: "2.5. Modern programs and methods of specialized training are applied with a focus on total quality" ("Moderate to Enough"/4.41 ± 1.30, $t = 3.442$, $p < 0.01$) and "2.11. Numerical targets are used to motivate human resources." ("Moderate to Enough"/4.55 ± 1.48, $t = 4.078$, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 1). Additionally, the respondents answered with a frequency greater than enough in the following basic principles of total quality management in hotel business: "2.14. Management is oriented towards quality incentives instead of quantitative ones in its human resources." ("Enough to very much"/5.32 ± 0.95, $t = 15.142$, $p < 0.01$), "2.7. The management of the hotel business supports a holistic approach to the processes and functions for the production of the hotel product." ("Enough to very much"/5.47 ± 0.98, $t = 16.425$, $p < 0.01$), "2.8. In the effort to improve the quality, the entire human resources participate/cooperate, regardless of the level of management (managers, supervisors, employees)" ("Enough to very much"/5.48 ± 1.11, $t = 14.672$, $p < 0.01$), "2.2. There is continuity and consistency of the effort towards total quality." ("Enough to very much"/5.55 ± 0.94, $t = 18.016$, $p < 0.01$), "2.12. Overall quality requires continuous and consistent long-term effort with long-term results." ("Enough to very much"/5.63 ± 0.96, $t = 18.504$, $p < 0.01$), "2.9. The management of the hotel business encourages the human resources in taking initiatives and in the participation of decision making, in order to strengthen the implementation of the total quality." ("Enough to very much"/5.64 ± 0.94, $t = 19.091$, $p < 0.01$), "2.3. There is a continuous investigation for any problems of the production systems of the hotel product–service." ("Enough to very much"/5.66 ± 1.04, $t = 17.448$, $p < 0.01$), "2.1 The management of the hotel business supports and encourages total quality." ("Enough to very much"/5.71 ± 0.84, $t = 22.170$, $p < 0.01$), "2.6. There is continuity and consistency of the effort to improve hotel products–services." ("Enough to very much"/5.79 ± 1.02, $t = 19.243$, $p < 0.01$), "2.10. Quality is integrated into the production of the hotel product–service." ("very much"/5.88 ± 0.75, $t = 27.348$, $p < 0.01$), "2.13. Stability of human resources (infrequent and unnecessary movements)." ("very much"/5.88 ± 0.95, $t = 21.822$, $p < 0.01$) and "2.4. Teamwork is encouraged to solve the problems presented." ("very much"/5.94 ± 1.18, $t = 17.977$, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 1).

As regards stars' category (4* vs 5*), HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value in all variables corresponding to the degree of total quality management application (TQMA). Specifically, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Very much"/6.06 ± 0.48) in the TQMA statement "The management of the hotel business supports and encourages total quality" than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Enough to very much"/5.56 ± 0.92) ($t = -3.827$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Very much"/5.83 ± 0.57) in the TQMA statement "There is continuity and consistency of the effort towards total quality" than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Enough to very much"/5.44 ± 1.04) ($t = -2.655$, $p = 0.009$). In

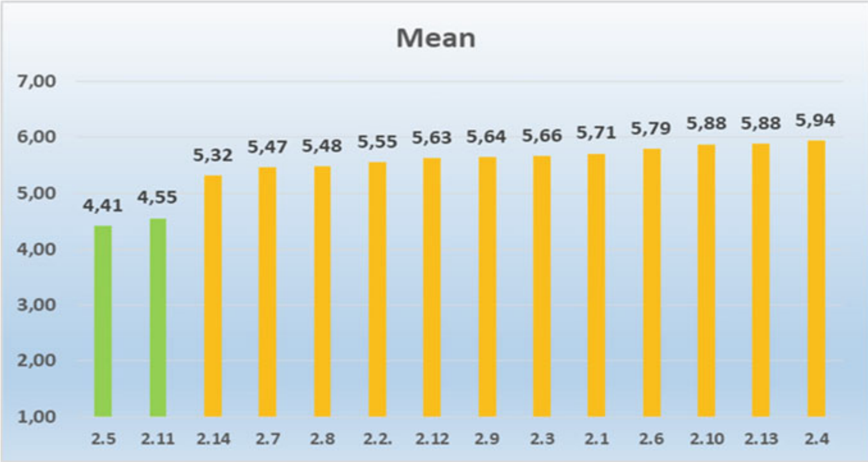


Fig. 6 Mean values of variables expressing the application of basic principles of total quality management in hotel business. Green color corresponds to variables with mean value greater than 4 and orange color corresponds to variables with mean value greater than 5

addition, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Very much"/5.97 ± 0.71) in the TQMA statement "There is a continuous investigation for any problems of the production systems of the hotel product–service" than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Enough to very much"/5.53 ± 1.13) ($t = -2.584$, $p = 0.011$). Also, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Enough"/5.11 ± 0.83) in the TQMA statement "Modern programs and methods of specialized training are applied with a focus on total quality" than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Moderate"/4.12 ± 1.35) ($t = -4.911$, $p < 0.01$). Additionally, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Very much to absolutely"/6.14 ± 0.60) in the TQMA statement "There is continuity and consistency of the effort to improve hotel products–services." than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Enough to very much"/5.65 ± 1.12) ($t = -3.130$, $p = 0.002$). As well, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Very much"/5.77 ± 0.61) in the TQMA statement "The management of the hotel business supports a holistic approach to the processes and functions for the production of the hotel product" than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Enough"/5.34 ± 1.08) ($t = -2.787$, $p = 0.006$). Similarly, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Enough to very much"/5.40 ± 1.01) in the TQMA statement "Numerical targets are used to motivate human resources" than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Moderate to enough"/4.20 ± 1.50) ($t = -5.096$, $p < 0.01$). Finally, HR managers of hotels with 5* responded with a higher mean value ("Very much"/5.94 ± 0.59) in the TQMA statement "Overall quality requires continuous and consistent long-term effort with long-term results" than HR managers of hotels with 4* ("Enough to very much"/5.49 ± 1.05) ($t = -2.956$, $p = 0.004$) (Appendix 2).

As regards rooms capacity (<50 vs ≥ 50), HR managers of hotels with less than 50 rooms responded with a lower mean value ("Enough to very much"/5.71 ± 1.25) in the TQMA statement "Teamwork is encouraged to solve the problems presented" than HR managers of hotels with more than 50 rooms ("Very much to absolutely"/6.19 ± 1.25) ($t = -3.259$, $p = 0.026$). Similarly, HR managers of hotels with less than 50 rooms responded with a lower mean value ("Moderate"/4.02 ± 1.27) in the TQMA statement "Modern programs and methods of specialized training are applied with a focus on total quality" than HR managers of hotels with more than 50 rooms ("Enough"/4.83 ± 1.20) ($t = -3.591$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, HR managers of hotels with less than 50 rooms responded with a lower mean value ("Moderate"/4.05 ± 1.50) in the TQMA statement "Numerical targets are used to motivate human resources" than HR managers of hotels with more than 50 rooms ("Enough"/5.09 ± 1.01) ($t = -4.092$, $p < 0.01$). On the contrary, HR managers of hotels with less than 50 rooms responded with a higher mean value ("Very much"/5.92 ± 0.82) in the TQMA statement "The management of the hotel business encourages the human resources in taking initiatives and in the participation of decision making, in order to strengthen the implementation of the total quality" than HR managers of hotels with more than 50 rooms ("Enough to very much"/5.34 ± 0.98) ($t = 3.471$, $p < 0.01$).

5 Conclusions

In conclusion, the 5* and 4* category hotel companies that participated in the research show a significant effort for the frequency of application of the basic principles of total quality management, since the answers of the surveyed hotels ranged from "moderate" to "very" with the average to range from "quite a bit" to "a lot". This shows the importance in the decisions and actions of the management of hotel companies for the importance of the concept of quality. This result also coincides with the views of researchers on the strategic importance of the concept of quality, who believe that it should constitute the strategic choice and framework (Stavrinoudis & El Chanoun, 2013).

The research questions concern important issues for the implementation of the principles of total quality management, which is supported and with a high degree of frequency will result in a satisfactory degree of their application.

Three factors show a high degree of acceptance by the surveyed hotels according to the answers to the questionnaire, which are related to the integration of quality in the production of the hotel product and service, the encouragement of teamwork of the human resources to successfully solve the problems presented and the stability of human resources. These factors coincide perfectly with the principles of total quality management as defined by Deming in the 14 points (Deming, 1993).

Also, we have the factors that show high acceptance of the hotels, which are related to the continuous and consistent effort to improve the hotel products–services, the encouragement and support of the hotel management for the total quality, the continuous investigation for any problems in the production systems of the hotel product–service, the encouragement to take initiative and participation, the continuous and consistent long-term effort towards total quality for long-term results, the total participation of human resources, the support of the management of the hotel business in the holistic approach to the totality of the processes and the preference of qualitative incentives over quantitative ones. These factors, in addition to their agreement with the basic principles of total quality management mentioned by Deming (1993) and other theoreticians and researchers express opinions that coincide with the above factors, such as Juran who considered the contribution of human resources to teamwork and its commitment to the quality operation of processes in all the products and services produced to be important (Juran, 1988), as well as Cronin and Taylor who define that quality that must be maintained in the long term for customer satisfaction (Cronin & Taylor, 1994: 126). Also, according to Psomas, a total commitment to quality is required in order to deal with any problems preventively and not repressively (Psomas, 2008: 74), just as Monte states that an important parameter is the commitment of management and leadership (Montes et al, 2003).

But there are also two factors that demand more importance from hotel businesses. Thus, the first factor is related to the implementation of modern programs and methods with specialized training in total quality that will strengthen the human resources for the application of the principles of total quality management that requires adaptation of its actions to the functions and processes that are constantly changing until the completion of total quality implementation. The second factor is related to the use of numerical targets to motivate human resources, since the implementation of total quality, as mentioned in Deming's 14 points, requires "removal or even minimization of numerical targets to motivate human resources" (Chytiris, & Anninos, 2015: 61; Deming, 1986; Deming, British Library; Evans & Lindsay, 2002; Psomas, 2008, 87–88). Also, training and motivation are linked because knowledge training, skill development by improving abilities replaces motivation with numerical goals. Also, the essential difference of training from the traditional application of management to the application of total quality management is, as mentioned by Kefis Vassilis, that "in traditional management, training programs incur costs. However, if it is necessary, they should be addressed only to the top management staff" (Kefis, 2005: 49), while in total quality management he states that "training is a necessity. It concerns executives and employees. Educational programs mean knowledge, motivation. Knowledge is power, and this can be seen both at the level of individuals and at the level of the company" (Kefis, 2005: 49); also, one of the basic elements of Ishikawa's philosophy is that "quality begins with education and ends with education" (Evans & Lindsay, 2002).

The above factors are important because total quality management must be the dynamic choice for hospitality businesses to improve their services (Motwani et al., 1996: 4–16). This is more important when there is a significant effort by the hotels that participated in the research to achieve a high degree in the frequency of application of the principles of total quality management since, as mentioned by Witcher, about 30% of companies that apply the principles of total quality management actually fail because they either do not understand its principles or are used in the wrong way or use them for the benefits of marketing functions (Witcher, 1995: 23–24).

In conclusion regarding the category of 5* and 4* hotels, we notice that there is a clearly significant differentiation from the investigation for the application of the principles of total quality management between the category of 4* and 5* hotels. Hotels in the 5* category show a clearly better application of total quality management principles compared to the 4* hotel category.

The factors that show a high percentage of agreement in the answers to the questionnaire stated by the hotels belonging to the 5* category are related to the management of the hotel business to support and encourage total quality, the continuity and consistency of the effort towards total quality, the continuous investigation for any problems in the production systems of the hotel product, the implementation of specialized training programs in total quality, the continuous and consistent effort to improve the hotel products and services, the support of the management for a holistic approach to the processes and the understanding that total quality requires continuous and consistent effort with long-term results. In these factors, the 5* hotels indicate a frequency response from "fairly" to "a lot" which shows the understanding and importance of the application of these factors for quality which is an important issue for the hotel business, in order to provide the customer with what satisfies him and to improve it, so that every time he is provided with something even better (Grower, 2001: 19).

Also, training is a fundamental principle for the successful direction towards total quality, because as Ishikawa mentions, "quality begins with training and ends with training", (Evans & Lindsay, 2002) as well as numerical goals should be eliminated or minimized to motivate human resources (Deming, 1986; Deming, British Library; Temtime & Solomon, 2002: 181–191).

In these factors, we observe that the category of 5* hotels develop a stronger effort in the direction of total quality. This overall higher performance of the category of 5* hotels may be presented by the fact that several hotel companies are a "chain" of foreigners, mainly, and domestic tourism or hotel companies providing specialized hotel management with specialized training and administrative policy at an international level. Another important condition may concern the criteria, conditions and characteristics of the 5* hotel category versus the 4* hotel category. This can lead to a push for higher-quality products–services backed by an empowered workforce with specialized training in total quality.

In conclusion, regarding the capacity of the rooms of the hotels whose capacity is less than 50 rooms in relation to the hotels whose capacity is 50 rooms and more. We observe that the factor that hotel management encourages human resources to take initiatives and participate in decision making to enhance the implementation of total quality, shows a higher degree of response in hotels with a capacity of less than 50 rooms that shows flexibility, due to and their small development, in the participation and synergy of the human resources for the functions of the processes regardless of the administrative hierarchy in dealing with and solving various issues of the daily operation of the hotel business and the creation of short-term programming in order to satisfy the customer's hospitality needs. We observe this factor to a lesser extent in hotels with a capacity of 50 rooms and more due to its larger and expanded administrative development with greater division and specialization of work. However, various theorists mention the importance of improving the efficiency and flexibility of the company as a whole, (Oakland, 1989) from the participation of the entire company, all departments and all employees at all levels (Vouzas, 2002: 40).

However, the factors that present a higher degree in hotels with 50 rooms and more are related to teamwork to be encouraged to solve the problems presented, to the application of modern programs and methods of specialized training aimed at total quality and the use of numerical objectives to motivate human resources. These factors are more likely to appear to a higher degree in hotels of 50 rooms and more due to their expanded and greater administrative development but they use more numerical targets for motivation which does not coincide with Deming's approach, which mentions the elimination or even the minimization of numerical objectives for the motivation of human resources and suggests replacing them with understanding, with knowledge training, with skill development and with the improvement of their abilities (Chytiris, 2015: 61; Deming, 1993). Also, as Kefis Vassilis mentions about education, "education is a necessity". It concerns executives and employees. Educational programs mean knowledge and motivation. Knowledge is power, and this can be seen both at the level of individuals and at the level of companies (Kefis, 2005: 49).

Appendix

Appendix 1 One-Sample t-test and One Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test (test value = 4)

Total quality management application	Mean	Std. Deviation	One-Sample t-test (p value)	One sample Wilcoxon signed Rank Test
2.5. Modern programs and methods of specialized training are applied with a focus on total quality	4.41	1.30	3.442 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.11. Numerical targets are used to motivate human resources	4.55	1.48	4.078 (<0.01)	<0.01

(continued)

(continued)

Total quality management application	Mean	Std. Deviation	One-Sample t-test (p value)	One sample Wilcoxon signed Rank Test
2.14. Management is oriented towards quality incentives instead of quantitative ones in its human resources. Management is oriented towards quality incentives instead of quantitative ones in its human resources	5.32	0.95	15.142 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.7. The management of the hotel business supports a holistic approach to the processes and functions for the production of the hotel product	5.47	0.98	16.425 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.8. In the effort to improve the quality, the entire human resources participate/cooperate, regardless of the level of management (managers, supervisors, employees)	5.48	1.11	14.672 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.2. There is continuity and consistency of the effort towards total quality	5.55	0.94	18.016 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.12. Overall quality requires continuous and consistent long-term effort with long-term results	5.63	0.96	18.504 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.9. The management of the hotel business encourages the human resources in taking initiatives and in the participation of decision making, in order to strengthen the implementation of the total quality	5.64	0.94	19.091 (<0.01)	<0.01

(continued)

(continued)

Total quality management application	Mean	Std. Deviation	One-Sample t-test (p value)	One sample Wilcoxon signed Rank Test
2.3. There is a continuous investigation for any problems of the production systems of the hotel product–service	5.66	1.04	17.448 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.1 The management of the hotel business supports and encourages total quality	5.71	0.84	22.170 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.6. There is continuity and consistency of the effort to improve hotel products–services	5.79	1.02	19.243 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.10. Quality is integrated into the production of the hotel product–service	5.88	0.75	27.348 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.13. Stability of human resources (infrequent and unnecessary movements)	5.88	0.95	21.822 (<0.01)	<0.01
2.4. Teamwork is encouraged to solve the problems presented	5.94	1.18	17.977 (<0.01)	<0.01

Appendix 2 Independent Samples t-test & Mann–Whitney U (Category)*

Total quality management application	*Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Independent Samples t-test (p value)	Mann–Whitney U (p value)
2.1 The management of the hotel business supports and encourages total quality	4*	85	5.56	0.92	−3.827 (<0.01)	1012 (0.002)
	5*	35	6.06	0.48		
2.2 There is continuity and consistency of the effort towards total quality	4*	85	5.44	1.04	−2.655 (0.009)	1153 (0.037)
	5*	35	5.83	0.57		
2.3. There is a continuous investigation for any problems of the production systems of the hotel product–service	4*	85	5.53	1.13	−2.584 (0.011)	1156 (0.045)
	5*	35	5.97	0.71		
2.5. Modern programs and methods of specialized training are applied with a focus on total quality	4*	85	4.12	1.35	−4.911 (<0.01)	827 (<0.01)
	5*	35	5.11	0.83		
2.6. There is continuity and consistency of the effort to improve hotel products–services	4*	85	5.65	1.12	−3.130 (0.002)	1136 (0.033)
	5*	35	6.14	0.60		
2.7. The management of the hotel business supports a holistic approach to the processes and functions for the production of the hotel product	4*	85	5.34	1.08	−2.787 (0.006)	1160 (0.043)
	5*	35	5.77	0.61		
2.11. Numerical targets are used to motivate human resources	4*	85	4.20	1.50	−5.096 (<0.01)	754 (<0.01)
	5*	35	5.40	1.01		
2.12. Overall quality requires continuous and consistent long-term effort with long-term results	4*	85	5.49	1.05	−2.956 (0.004)	1125 (0.024)
	5*	35	5.94	0.59		

Appendix 3 Independent Samples t-test and Mann–Whitney U (Rooms Capacity)

Total quality management application	Room capacity	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Independent samples t-test (p value)	Mann–Whitney U (p value)
2.4. Teamwork is encouraged to solve the problems presented	<50	62	5.71	1.25	−3.259 (0.026)	1378 (0.019)
	≥50	58	6.19	1.07		
2.5. Modern programs and methods of specialized training are applied with a focus on total quality	<50	62	4.02	1.27	−3.591 (<0.01)	1099 (<0.01)
	≥50	58	4.83	1.20		
2.9. The management of the hotel business encourages the human resources in taking initiatives and in the participation of decision making, in order to strengthen the implementation of the total quality	<50	62	5.92	0.82	3.471 (<0.01)	1172 (<0.01)
	≥50	58	5.34	0.98		
2.11. Numerical targets are used to motivate human resources	<50	62	4.05	1.50	−4.092 (<0.01)	1042 (<0.01)
	≥50	58	5.09	1.01		

References

Bersimis S., Bersimis F., & Sachlas A. (2022). *Introduction to statistics and probability* (2nd ed.), Tziola & Sons SA Publications (In Greek).

Benckendorff P., Sheldon P., & Fesenmaier D. R. (2014). *Tourism Information Technology*. Oxford: CAB International.

Buhalis, D. (2003). *ETourism: Information technology for strategic tourism management*. Pearson Education.

Chytiris, L. (2015). Administration and Quality of Services, SEAB, Athens. Retrieved from http://www.kallipos.gr.

Chytiris, L., & Anninos, L. (2015). *Management and quality of services.* Association of Greek Academic Libraries (SEAB), Athens.

Conover, W. (1999). *Practical nonparametric statistics* (3rd ed.). Wiley.

Cox, D. R. (2006). *Principles of statistical inference.* Cambridge New York: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-0-521-68567-2.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. Psychometrika. Springer Science and Business Media LLC, *16*(3), 297–334. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02310555. hdl:10983/2196. ISSN 0033-3123. S2CID 13820448.

Cronin, J. J., & Taylor, S. A. (1994). SERVPERF versus SERVQUAL: Reconciling performance based and perception based-mins-expectation measurements of service quality. *Journal Marketing, 58*(1).

Crosby, P. B. (1979). *Quality is free.* McGraw-Hill.

Dale, B. G., Boardewn, R. J., & Lascelles, D. M. (1994). Total quality management: An overview. In B. G. Dale (Ed.), *Managing quality* (pp. 3–37). Prentice-Hall.

Deming, W. E. Business and Management, Article, British Library. Retrieved from https://www.bl.uk/people/w-edwards-deming.

Deming, W. E. (1993). The 14 Points for the management by Dr. Deming, The W. Edwards Deming Institute.

Deming, E. (1986). *Out of the crisis.* The MIT Press.

Derrick, B., Toher, D., & White, P. (2017). How to compare the means of two samples that include paired observations and independent observations: A companion to Derrick, Russ, Toher and White (2017). *The Quantitative Methods for Psychology, 13*(2), 120–126. https://doi.org/10.20982/tqmp.13.2.,p120

Etikan, I., & Bala, K. (2017). Sampling and sampling methods. *Biometrics & Biostatistics International Journal, 5*(6), 00149.

Evans, J. R., & Lindsay, W. M. (2002). *The Management and control of quality* (5th ed.). South-Western.

Frankou Vasiliki – Eleftheria. (2013). *Total quality management and its application in hotel businesses.* University of Peloponnese, Diplomatic, Tripoli.

Gower, J. (1997). *Total quality management* (2nd ed.). Ellin Publications.

Gower. (2001). *Total quality management* (2nd ed.). In D. Lock (Ed.).

Gray, B. J., Matear, S. M., & Matheson, P. K. (2000). Improving the performance of hospitality firms. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 12*(3), 149–155.

Harris, L. C., & Watkins, P. (1998). The impediments to developing a market orientation: An exploratory study of small UK hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 10*(6), 221–226.

Jones, P., & Lockood A. (1989). Managing quality. In *The Management of hotel operations* (pp. 149–155). Cassell.

Juran, J. (1988). *Juran on planning for quality.* New York: Free Press

Katsaitis, A., & Papaefthimiou, E. (2018). Philoxenia as a component of the tourism experience in culture and total quality management in hotel sector. In *Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics, Smart Tourism as a Driver for Culture and Sustainability, Fifth International Conference IACuDiT* (pp. 208–214). Springer.

Koo, C., Gretzel, U., Hunter, W. C., & Chung, N. (2015). The role of IT in tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Information Systems, 25*(1), 99–104.

Kefis, N. V. (2005). *Total quality management, theory and standards, critique*. Athens.

Laloumis, D. (2015). *Tourism business management, association of greek academic libraries (SEAB).*

Law, R., Buhalis, D., & Cobanoglu, C. (2014). Progress on information and communication technologies in hospitality and tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 26*(5), 727–750.

Lazari, C. G, & Kanellopoulos D. N. (2007). Total quality management in hotel restaurants: a case study in Greece. *Journal of Engineering and Applied Sciences 2* (3), 564–571.

Logothetis, N. (1992). *Total quality management*. Prentice Hall-Interbook.

Montes, F. J. L., Jover, A. V., & Fernandez, L. M. M. (2003). Factors affecting the relationship between total quality management and organizational performance. *International, Journal of Quality & Reliability Management, 20*(2), 189–209.

Montgomery, D. C. (2005). *Introduction to statistical quality control* (5th ed.). Wiley International Edition.

Motwani, J., Kumar, A., & Youssef, M. A. (1996). Implementing quality management in the hospitality industry: Current efforts and future research directions. *Benchmarking for Quality Management & Technology, 3*(4), 4–16.

Mukhles, M. Al-Ababneh. (2021). The implementation of total quality management (TQM) in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality, 1*(1), 25–34. https://doi.org/10.51483/IJTH.1.1.2021.25-34.

Oakland, J. J. (1989). *Total quality management*. Oxford: Heinemann

Okland, J. S. (1994). *Total quality management* (2nd ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann.

Psomas, L. E. (2008). Total quality management. Determining Factors and Results in Greek Hotel Businesses, EADD – N.D.C. (National Documentation Center)—Thesis (25132), Agrinio.

Samson, D., & Terziovski, M. (1999). The relationship between total quality management practices and operational performance. *Journal of Operations Management, 17*, 393–409.

Sarantakou, E., & Xenitellis, S. (2018). Innovative cultural tours in Athens: An interesting internship in the era of economic crisis. In *Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics, Smart Tourism as a Driver for Culture and Sustainability, Fifth International Conference IACuDiT* (pp. 121–134). Springer.

Sigala, M., & Marinidis, D. (2012). Web map services in tourism: A framework exploring the organizational transformations and implications on business operations and models. *International Journal of Business Information Systems, 9*(4), 415–434.

Stavrinoudis, T., & Christina, E. C. (2013). Human resources involvement in adapting total quality management: The case of 4 and 5 star city hotels in Athens. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Research*, Spring & Fall.

Tsartas, P. (2010). *Greek tourism development. Features, investigations, proposals*, Kritiki, Athens.

Tsartas, P., Dimitris, L., Theodoros, S., & Proiou, E. (2014). *An introduction to tourism. Basic concepts and modern developments*. University of the Aegean.

Temtime, Z. L., & Solomon, G. H. (2002). Total quality management and the planning behavior of SMEs in developing economies. *The TQM Magazine, 14*(3), 181–191.

UNWTO. (2015). Understanding tourism: Basic glossary. Retrieved May 25, 2015, from http://media.unwto.org/en/content/understanding-tourism-basic-glossary.

Ulrike, G., Marianna, S., Zheng, X., & Chulmo, K. (2015). Smart tourism: Foundations and developments, Article in Electronic Markets, August 2015, 179–186.

Varvaresos, S., & Sotiriadis, M. (2003). Quality management in hotel businesses. *Journal Archive of Economic History*.

Vouzas, F. (1998). Total Quality Management and Utilization of Human Resources in Greek Industry. University of Thessaloniki, N.D.C. (National Documentation Center)—Thesis (11156), Thessaloniki.

Vouzas K. F. (2002). Human resource utilization as a strategeic factor for quality improvement. *Review of Social Research, 108–109,* 285–301. https://doi.org/10.12681/grsr.9073.

Werthner, H., & Klein, S. (1999). *Information technology and tourism: A challenging relationship.* Springer.

Werthner, H., & Ricci, F. (2004). E-Commerce and tourism. *Communications of the ACM, 47*(12), 101–105.

Witcher, B. (1995). Marketing and total quality management. *European Journal of Marketing, 29*(5), 23–24.

Gravity Models in Tourism: The "Crises" Factor

Ioulia Poulaki

Abstract In the last fifteen years, the Mediterranean has faced major crises, starting with the international financial crisis (2007), the Arab spring (2010), and the refugee crisis (2015), while today it is still facing the crisis of the COVID-19 pandemic, but also the dramatic devaluation of the Turkish lira. The COVID-19 pandemic, in fact, which is still ongoing, has shown that the vulnerability of tourism to crises and the peculiar challenges of recovery, require the creation of the appropriate tools, which can help the decision-making process when it comes to tourism and its development, especially at destination level. Given the geographic nature of tourism, the forces (pull) between origin-destination countries, and the factors that influence them, is an important starting point for tourism recovery, with involved parties to be able to anticipate changes in the direction and intensity of tourist flows. Therefore, this paper is a research note that proposes a gravity model development for predicting spatial interactions and travel flows in times of crises that, in addition to its contribution to the literature of the tourism academia (with a new sophisticated) model of Newtonian gravity applied to tourism, it may significantly contribute with practical implications for tourism organizations and businesses as it is expected to predict changes in travel flows, thus supporting decision-making process regarding crisis management and tourism recovery, and producing multiple economic, social and environmental benefits for international popular Mediterranean destinations.

Keywords Gravity models · Crises · Mediterranean destinations · Travel flows · COVID-19 · Tourism recovery

JEL Classifications Z31 · Z32 · Z38

I. Poulaki (✉)
Department of Tourism Management, University of Patras, Patras, Greece
e-mail: ipoulaki@upatras.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_12

1 Introduction

The crisis is defined as an unforeseeable event, which threatens the parties involved on multiple levels and can be related to health, safety, environmental, and economic issues, which can seriously affect the performance of an organization and create negative feedback (Coombs, 2019). The tourism industry and especially international tourism demand are particularly vulnerable to crises or disasters (Cró & Martins, 2017). According to Okumus et al. (2005), this is due to the fact that tourism depends on multifactorial systems that can affect stability and well-being such as economic conditions, political instability as well as natural phenomena which are particularly unpredictable. Both crises and disasters can be particularly complex based on their nature and size (Backer & Ritchie, 2017). Novelli et al. (2018) observed that the response to tourism crisis and recovery of normality in a destination is likely to differ depending on the nature and impact of the crisis or disaster. There are cases of crises in tourism that have been overcome relatively quickly and the destination has recovered (terrorist attacks) while crises mainly related to natural disasters and causing major damage to infrastructure and communications take much longer. The importance of the timely and effective response to crises in tourist destinations was already emphasized very early on by Sönmez et al. (1994) stressing that a crisis in tourism does not only affect the directly affected businesses but it is possible to destroy the destination itself.

The logic that stability and security in economic, health, and social terms is a static situation has been strongly challenged in recent years (Pappas & Glyptou, 2021). The terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the devastating tsunami in the Indian Ocean in 2004, the refugee crisis in 2015, and many other examples are clear evidence that a severe crisis is no longer a rarity but seems to have a tendency to become more and more common.

At the outset, it is essential to highlight the fact that although research on crises and crisis management has clearly shown increasing trends in recent decades and there are now several studies available on the subject (Wut et al., 2021), there is still no specific definition that is universally accepted (Leta & Clan, 2020; Coombs, 2012). According to Pauchant and Mitroff (1992), crises are disturbances that are induced in a system and can threaten its basic functions. Robert et al. (2007) define a crisis as an isolated event that arises from unknown causes and has serious consequences, whereas Santana (2004) who argues that a crisis is not just an isolated event but is a process that develops according to its own logic.

The typology of crises is also presented under a wide range of research as in the global literature we find categories of crises grouped in various ways such as the geographical extent of the crisis, the size of the damage caused by the crisis, its duration, the causes of the crisis, the number of people affected, and the predictability of the crisis. Thiessen (2011) proposes two categories of crises based only on the content of crises and time. Rosenthal and Kouzmin (1993) divided crises into man-made (terrorist attacks, refugee, etc.) and natural (hurricanes, earthquakes, etc.) while James and Wooten (2005) proposed the division into sudden (earthquake) and expected (economic recession) crises. A similar distinction was proposed by Seymour and Moore (2000) who called sudden crises "Cobra" and crises that arise gradually "Python." Regarding the categorization of crises based on causes, we find several variations as an example is the research of Lerbinger (1997) who classified crises into seven categories involving crises related to (1) management errors, (2) malice, (3) malice, (4) natural causes, (5) technological causes, (6) skewed operational values and (7) conflict crises, while according to Mitroff and Anagnos (2001), Mitroff and Pearson (1993), and Pauchant and Mitroff (1992) the classification of the criteria is a highly complex process based mainly on the events that trigger the crises and they singled them out as crises caused by external information attacks, external financial attacks with the specificity of referring to confidential information, malfunction or disruption of internal processes, mass disasters, illnesses, and finally psychological crises.

It is worth noting that crises and their management have a specific life cycle, which has been of interest to many researchers from an early stage. As an example, Coombs (2007) identifies in the literature that there are three major classifications of the crisis life cycle. The crisis life cycle according to Fink (1986), the five stages of Mitroff (1994), and the basic three-stage model according to Coombs (2007). According to Fink (1986), the crisis life cycle contains four main stages. The initial stage concerns the appearance of the first symptoms (Prodromal crisis stage), followed by the crisis stage, during which the phenomenon is in full manifestation (Acute crisis stage) and the third stage is characterized by the effects of the crisis (Chronic crisis stage) which are now evident. The final stage is considered to be the crisis resolution stage, where processes are gradually beginning to normalize. Mitroff (1994) defined the life cycle of crisis and crisis management through five stages which include signal detection, risk factors searching and reducing, crisis damage's prevention, the recovery phase and finally crisis management's reviewing and critiquing to learn from it. A model for presenting the crisis life cycle and crisis management in a more rigorous framework was presented by Coombs (2007) who divided the stages of a crisis into three phases: the pre-crisis stage (pre-crisis stage), the managing the crisis event itself, and the post-crisis stage (post-crisis). Devlin (2007) aptly observed that most models of crisis and crisis management even when they differ from one another agree on the direct transition from the first stage involving the appearance of early signs to the crisis itself, which is usually due to ignorance about the crisis itself, a deliberate underestimation of the crisis and early signs and, in general, an extensive underestimation of the situation that often leads to an overestimation of the capacity to manage it effectively.

According to Farmaki (2021), in cases of crises, tourists have the choice to either cancel or postpone their trip, or alternatively to switch to another destination. Although data are available regarding cancelations, a smaller number of studies have been conducted on the tourist's intention to make the trip to the original destination of choice as soon as conditions allow. The tourist's decision to carry out the original trip is an indication that the destination has now passed the recovery phase and is in a relative normality (Seabra et al., 2020), while usually travel to a destination that has been affected by a crisis will resume within a reasonable period of time when the tourist has forgotten about the crisis (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009).

2 Literature Review

Mediterranean tourism crises

According to Tovar-Sánchez et al. (2019), the Mediterranean region is a world-leading tourist destination, with international arrivals in the summer months in coastal areas ranging from 46 to 69% of all international arrivals. In Europe, the destination with the highest number of tourist arrivals in 2019 was the Southern Mediterranean region with 304.1 million arrivals (Statista, 2021). However, despite the steady upward trends that the Mediterranean zone seems to have shown in recent years, it still bears the main characteristic of instability in its tourist map. Although there are countries that seem to be more able and competitive to cope with crises, this alone does not seem sufficient to prevent tourism demand from shifting almost every year. The main reasons that drive tourists to this attitude seem to be mainly economic and geopolitical issues, political instability issues, large fluctuations in the currency exchange rate as well as security issues. In the last fifteen years, the Mediterranean has faced major crises, most notably the international financial crisis (2007), the Arab Spring (2010), and the refugee crisis (2015), while today it is still facing the COVID-19 pandemic crisis and the dramatic depreciation of the Turkish lira.

1. *International Financial Crisis (2007).* In 2007, an international financial crisis began in the USA, which gradually spread on a global scale and led many countries into a deep economic recession. A landmark date for the crisis is September 15, 2008, when the largest investment bank in the USA and one of the largest banks internationally, Lehman Brothers, declares bankruptcy (Lioudis, 2021). It follows a long period of economic insecurity that too many countries are unable to respond financially to the changes (Amadeo, 2020). In order to deal with the crisis, governments and central banks channeled enormous liquidity to stop the banking system from being threatened while state guarantees were given to interbank deposits (Sahlman, 2009). At the same time, capitalization enhancement programs were implemented while interventions were also carried out to support the real economy (Dullien et al., 2010). The international financial crisis resulted in many European countries receiving bailouts from the Troika which brought them face to face with harsh austerity measures (van Riet, 2010). At the same time, international trade experienced a sharp decline, international investments showed large downward trends due to high interest rates and reduced liquidity, exchange rates were disturbed, while it is worth noting that the financial crisis also had geopolitical effects (Kose et al., 2020).
2. *Arab Spring (2010).* Following the self-immolation of hawker Mohamed Bouazizi in Tunisia in December 2010 as a sign of protest against the unjust

confiscation of fruit merchandise by the police, protests broke out across Tunisia against the dictatorial regime. These demonstrations soon spread to the Middle East but also to North Africa, which now take the form of a revolution, while a year later, serious disturbances also break out in Tahrir Square in Cairo, resulting in the resignation of Hosni Mubarak. This movement was called the Arab spring and resulted in Morocco, Saudi Arabia, and even Iran not only threatening the regimes but also overthrowing them as happened in Yemen with the dictator Ali Abdullah Saleh. The overthrow of the regime resulted in the outbreak of a civil war that continues to this day, while Libya and Syria are also in civil strife. The Arab spring as expected shifted tourist flows as movements of tourist populations were observed to safer countries such as Spain, Portugal, and Greece (Groizard et al., 2019)

3. *The Refugee Crisis (2015).* The Arab Spring, the war in Iraq, the Islamic State, and the Syrian civil war resulted in the refugee crisis in Europe (To Vima, 2021), which to some extent negatively affected the tourism image of the Mediterranean countries. Since 2015, Europe has experienced the greatest refugee challenge in its history. The Eastern Mediterranean crossing (from Turkey to Greece) and the Central Mediterranean crossing (from Libya to Italy) were the main sources of entry to Europe (European Parliament 2017). In 2015 alone, more than one million refugees crossed the Mediterranean due to war conflicts and persecution, while in the three years (2015–2018) that were the peak of the refugee crisis, more than 5,000 people lost their lives in shipwrecks (UNHCR, 2018). As can be seen in Fig. 1, refugee flows in Europe have decreased significantly in recent years, but this does not mean that the refugee crisis cannot at any time rekindle with uncontrollable effects (Eurostat, 2021). The islands of the Northern Aegean were under great pressure from the arrivals of refugees, which are estimated to have exceeded 759,000 in 2015 and 156,000 in 2016. According to Ivanov and Stavrinoudis (2018), the refugee crisis had a negative impact on the tourist image of the destination with overnight stays in 2015 having decreased by 18.75% since 2014 and the number of visitors showing a drop of 22.79%.

1. *The COVID-19 Pandemic (2019).* According to the European Commission, the COVID-19 pandemic, which began in 2020, has seriously affected the tourism

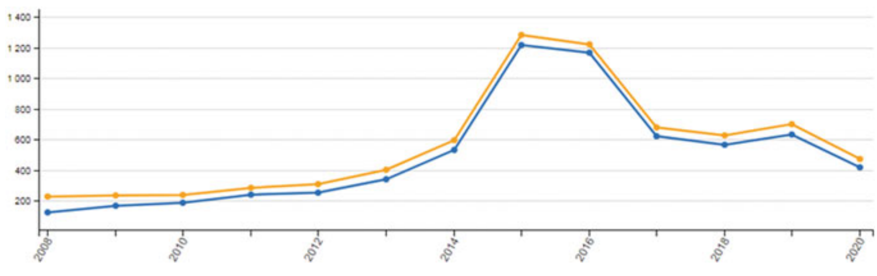


Fig. 1 Refugee asylum applications in the EU. *Source* Eurostat (2021)

industry worldwide. It is estimated that it has already caused damages of around 840–1000 billion euros, while at the same time the World Tourism Organization of the United Nations continues to warn that the reduction it foresees for international tourism in 2021 will reach 60%. The COVID-19 pandemic caused very serious problems in the Mediterranean tourism industry as well. The continuous suspensions of domestic and international movements as well as the cessation of operations of almost most branches of the tourism industry (cultural sites, tourist accommodation, catering) have resulted in serious liquidity problems, as a result of which the viability of many businesses in the sector is threatened (European Commission, 2021). Another very serious ecological crisis that is a consequence of the pandemic and threatens the Mediterranean is the phenomenon of the waste of the coronavirus. The French non-profit organization Opération Mer Propre already sounded the alarm in 2010 as large quantities of disposable gloves, antiseptic bottles, and masks were found on the shores of the Cote d'Azur, foreshadowing a new type of pollution, which can reach enormous proportions if not appropriate measures are taken (LIFO, 2020; Ta Nea, 2020).

2. *The devaluation of the Turkish Lira (2021).* Since the beginning of 2021, Turkey is facing significant economic problems and a serious financial crisis, since the Turkish lira continues its downward trend, having lost 28.5% of its value. Since August 2014, when Recep Tayyip Erdogan assumed the presidency, the Turkish lira has collapsed, losing 74% of its value, which has led the people to economic poverty, since the basic salary does not exceed 300 euros, while it is estimated that around 1 million households cannot afford to even buy bread (Ethnos, 2021). The fall of the Turkish lira is expected to bring changes to the tourism landscape of the Mediterranean. Due to the collapse of its currency, Turkey will probably become a cheaper destination compared to its neighbors, which will make it more competitive in terms of its final tourism product. As repeatedly mentioned above, these very serious crises of the last fifteen years formed an external environment framework, for each time period respectively, which had a significant impact on travel flows, given that tourism is particularly susceptible to external factors. The flows of travelers, in times of crisis, change intensity, duration, and direction to end up, many times, in a different destination than the one they would have visited before the crisis.

Gravity Models in Tourism

Determining travel flows, in the context of spatial interaction and attraction forces exerted between two places (origin–destination), has been studied for decades using gravity models, as discussed below. However, the factors that are taken into account, measured, and make up the gravity models in tourism are specific, while it is underlined in the relevant international literature that there are shortcomings in the theoretical foundation of the models in question as distance and income are given great importance to explain tourist flows (Golembski and Majewska, 2018). Also, gravity models in tourism analysis, to date, explain the regional distribution of tourist flows and not the longitudinal development of these flows, since the variables either do not change (distance) or change little (population, income, GDP). Therefore, the approach of gravity models by calculating qualitative characteristics of travel patterns, as well as categories of people, can further develop said models which are particularly important for the tourism development of destinations and for their recovery after crises.

In the literature, gravity models in tourism have been applied for many decades and a number of academics have made efforts for their development and evolution. Wheeler et al. (1998) and Zhang et al. (2013) state that gravity models have been applied by Economic Geographers (in the context of International Trade) to depict spatial interactions and population flows since 1940. The adapted Newtonian gravity model $I_{ij} = k\ (P_i\ P_j/D^b{}_{ij})$ includes:

- The power I_{ij} that expresses the estimate of the volume of spatial interaction between the place of origin i and the country of destination j
- The constant k of the equation
- The distance D_{ij} between the country of origin i and the country of destination j, where b is the exponent of the distance
- P_i and P_j representing the population sizes of country of origin i and country of destination j.

The values of k and b vary with each data set.

Further, Crampon (1966), based on Newton's law, specifies the model of travel flows between origin and destination, at country level, into a formula $T_{ij} = G\ P_i\ Aj/D^a{}_{ij}$, which is analyzed as follows (Lagos, 2018):

- T_{ij} are the travel flows between origin country i and destination country j.
- G, a are the estimated coefficients.
- P is the population or propensity to travel in country of origin i.
- A is the attractiveness or capacity of destination country j.
- D_{ij} is the distance between i and j.

Of particular interest is the model developed by Armstrong (1972), which, in addition to population, introduces additional variables to determine spatial interactions, such as GDP per capita, the proximity factor between the country of origin and the country of destination, but also the value of time in observation years. The formula of the model in question is $N_{ij} = A_j\ P^b{}_i\ Y^c{}_i\ L^d{}_{ij}\ T^e{}_n/D^a{}_{ij}$, where (Lagos, 2018).

- N_{ij} is the number of tourists traveling from origin region i to destination region j.
- A_j is the index—value that expresses the touristic attraction (e.g., climate) exercised by region j.
- P_i is the population of the region of origin i.
- Y_i is the per capita GDP (GNP) of origin region i.
- L_{ij} is the indicator—value that expresses the possible geographical proximity or the existence of a common language or other kinds of relationship between countries i and j.
- T_n is the time value in observation years (1….n).
- D_{ij}, is the distance between source area i and destination area j.

- a, b, c, d, e are the parameters (elasticities of the relevant variables).

The Newtonian gravity model, as developed by Armstrong to predict current and future travel movements (flows), lays the foundation for further development by considering other factors that may affect population flows, such as crises and perceived risk created by them.

In the context of the development of gravity models in tourism, Malaj and Kapiki (2016) developed a Newtonian gravity logistic model for international tourist flows to Greece, which is given by the formula $\ln(TOU_o) = c + a_i + b \ln(X^T i) + e_{ij}$, where

- TOU_o is the tourist flows to Greece from a specific country of origin.
- $X^T i$ contains the explanatory variables of the dependent variable.
- a_i represents the unobservable individual effects.
- c is the constant.
- e_{ij} is the single error term, unrelated to the explanatory variables.

At this point, it is worth noting that Malaj and Kapiki (2016) in their study refer to empirical studies of gravity models in tourism by researchers who, based on their results, note that ultimately tourist flows do not depend solely on distance, population, and income, but also from factors of connectivity, political instability (crisis) and prices in the destinations, emphasizing that there is scope for the development of these models including other social factors. One such factor may be travelers' perceived risk during and after a crisis, which significantly influences their travel decisions. This working case is the trigger for this research note. Below is a timeline of the evolution of gravity models in spatial interactions and travel flows (Fig. 2).

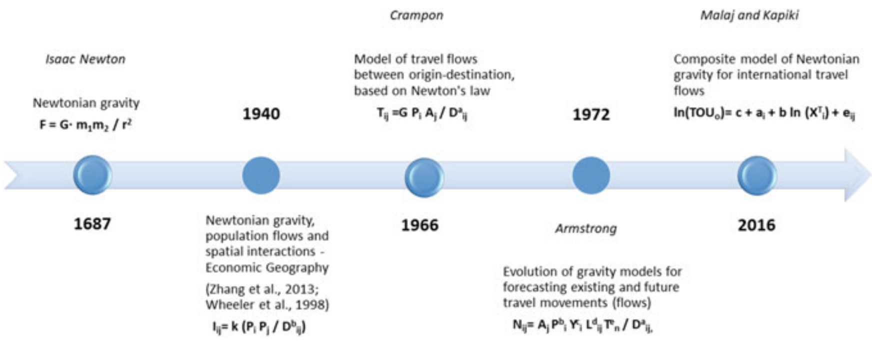


Fig. 2 Evolution of Newtonian gravity models in spatial interactions and travel flows. *Source* Developed by the author

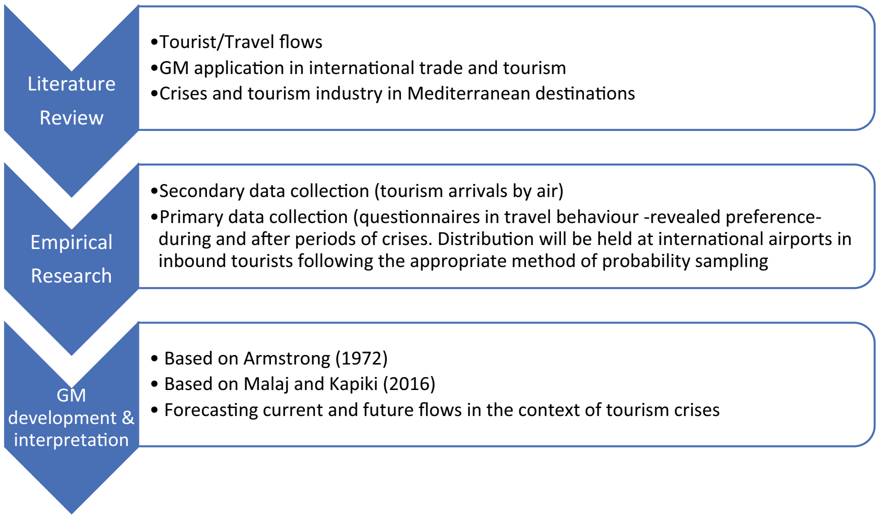


Fig. 3 Proposed methodology of the research. *Source* Developed by the author

3 Methodology

This research note proposes a methodology that is schematically presented in the Fig. 3.

4 Conclusion

The purpose of this research note is to investigate, identify, and demonstrate the formation of travel flows, during and after crises, through the production of a multi-factor gravity model that includes the impact of the external environment and crises, national and international, in tourist flows (origin countries – destination countries) and can predict their changes upon crises as well as ways to deal with them. In addition to its contribution to the literature of the tourism academia with a new model of Newtonian gravity applied to tourism, this paper proposes a research that is expected to contribute significantly to tourism professionals (organizers and companies) given that its results are of particular importance as it is expected predict changes in travel flows, thus contributing to the decision-making process of those involved in crisis management and tourism recovery, producing multiple economic, social and environmental benefits. The international nature of the research increases its importance, as the expected results will reflect all the international popular destinations of the Mediterranean, both at theoretical and practical levels. Furthermore, the multivariate gravity model to be produced under this research note is expected to have international application for leisure travel flows. The COVID-19 pandemic has shown that the vulnerability of tourism to crises and the difficulties of recovery, during and after them, require the creation of the appropriate tools, which can support decision-making processes when it comes to tourism and its development, at destination level. Given the geographic nature of tourism, the forces (pull) between origin–destination countries and the factors that influence them [gravity model for predicting spatial interactions and travel flows in times of crises], is an important starting point for tourism recovery, with those involved to be able to anticipate changes in the direction and intensity of tourist flows.

References

Amadeo, K. (2020). The great recession of 2008 explained with dates. Investopedia, Retrieved from https://www.thebalance.com/the-great-recession-of-2008-explanation-with-dates-4056832.

Armstrong, C. W. G. (1972). International tourism: Coming or going? The methodological problems of forecasting. *Futures, 4*, 115– 125.

Backer, E., & Ritchie, B. W. (2017). VFR travel: A viable market for tourism crisis and disaster recovery? *International Journal of Tourism Research, 19*(4), 400–411.

Coombs, W. T. (2007). *Ongoing crisis communication: Planning, managing and responding* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, London, New Delhi and Singapore: Sage.

Coombs, T. (2012). Crisis communication and its allied fields. In T. Coombs & S. Holladay (Eds.), *The handbook of crisis communications* (pp. 54–64). New Jersey: Blackwell Publishing.

Coombs, W. T. (2019). *Ongoing crisis communication* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Crampon, L. J. (1966). A new technique to analyze tourist markets. *Journal of Marketing, 30*(2), 27–31. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224296603000207.

Cró, S., & Martins, A. M. (2017). Structural breaks in international tourism demand: Are they caused by crises or disasters? *Tourism Management, 63*, 3–9.

Devlin, S. E. (2007). *Crisis management planning and execution.* USA: Auerbach Publications.

Dullien, S., Kotte, D. J., Marquez, A., & Priewe, J. (2010). *The financial and economic crisis of 2008–2009 and developing countries.* United Nations.

Ethnos. (2021). Turkey: 74% lost the Turkish lira under Erdogan—Without bread about 1,000,000 citizens. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/337jpjyz (in Greek).

European Commission. (2021). The EU is helping to restart tourism in Europe. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/4m9ud7fe (in Greek).

Eurostat. (2021). Asylum statistics. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Asylum_statistics.

Farmaki, A. (2021). Memory and forgetfulness in tourism crisis research. *Tourism Management, 83*, 104210.

Fink, S. (1986). *Crisis management: Planning for the inevitable.* New York: American Management Association.

Golembski, G., & Majewska, J. (2018). The impact of transport infrastructure on international inbound tourism—A gravity model for Poland. *International Journal of Contemporary Management, 17*(4). https://doi.org/10.4467/24498939IJCM.18.040.10026.

Groizard, J. K., Ismael, M., & Santana-Gallego, M. (2019). Political upheavals, tourism flight and contagion: The Arab Spring as a natural experiment. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/2scbvyr5.

Ivanov, S., & Stavrinoudis, T. (2018). Impacts of the refugee crisis on the hotel industry: Evidence from four Greek islands. *Tourism Management, 67*, 214–223.

James, E., & Wooten, l. (2005). Leadership as (un)usual: How to display competence in times of crisis. *Organizational Dynamics, 34*, 141–152.
Kose, M. A., Sugawara, N., & Terrones, M. E. (2020). Global recessions. World Bank, policy research working paper 9172.
Lagos, D. (2018). *Tourism economics* (2nd ed.). Kritiki.
Lerbinger, O. (1997). *The crisis manager*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
Leta, S., & Chan, I. C. C. (2020). Learn from the past and prepare for the future: A critical assessment of crisis management research in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 95*, 102915.
LIFO. (2020). Environment ‘Coronavirus waste’ threatens Mediterranean—‘More jellyfish masks’. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/srpdtpmx (in Greek).
Lioudis, N. (2021). The collapse of Lehman brothers: A case study. Investopedia. Retrieved from https://www.investopedia.com/articles/economics/09/lehman-brothers-collapse.asp.
Malaj, V., & Kapiki, S. (2016) Determinants of tourism flows to Greece: A gravity model approach. *TOURISMOS: An International Multidisciplinary Refereed Journal of Tourism*. Retrieved from SSRN https://ssrn.com/abstract=2853057.
Mitroff, I. I. (1994). Crisis management and environmentalism: A natural fit. *California Management Review, 36*(2), 101–113.
Mitroff, I. I., & Pearson, C. M. (1993). *Crisis management: A diagnostic guide for improving your organization’s crisis preparedness*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
Mitroff, I. I., & Anagnos, G. (2001). *Managing crises before they happen: What every executive and manager needs to know about crisis management*. New York: AMACOM.
Novelli, M., Burgess, L. G., Jones, A., & Ritchie, B. W. (2018). “No Ebola… still doomed”–The Ebola-induced tourism crisis. *Annals of Tourism Research, 70*, 76–87.
Okumus, F., Altinay, M., & Arasli, H. (2005). The impact of Turkey’s economic crisis of February 2001 on the tourism industry in Northern Cyprus. *Tourism Management, 26*(1), 95–104.
Pappas, N., & Glyptou, K. (2021). Accommodation decision-making during the COVID-19 pandemic: Complexity insights from Greece. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 93*, 102767.
Pauchant, T. C., & Mitroff, I. I. (1992). *Transforming the crisis-prone organization: Preventing individual, organizational and environmental tragedies*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
Rittichainuwat, B. N., & Chakraborty, G. (2009). Perceived travel risks regarding terrorism and disease: The case of Thailand. *Tourism Management, 30*(3), 410–418.
Robert, K. H., Madsen, P., & Desai, V. (2007). Organizational sensemaking during crisis. In C. M. Pearson, C. Roux-Dufort, J. A. Clair (Eds.), *International handbook of organizational crisis management* (1st ed., pp. 107–122). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
Rosenthal, U., & Kouzmin, A. (1993). Globalizing an agenda for contingencies and crisis management. *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management, 1*(1), 1–12.
Santana, G. (2004). Crisis management and tourism. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 15*(4), 299–321.
Sahlman, W. A. (2009). *Management and the financial crisis*. Harvard Business School, Working paper 10-033.
Seabra, C., Reis, P., & Abrantes, J. L. (2020). The influence of terrorism in tourism arrivals: A longitudinal approach in a mediterranean country. *Annals of Tourism Research, 80*, 102811.
Seymour, M., & Moore, S. (2000). *Effective crisis management: Worldwide principles and practice*. London: Cassell.
Sönmez, S. F., Backman, S. J., & Allen, L. (1994). *Managing tourism crises: A guidebook*. Clemson University.
Statista. (2021). International tourist arrivals in Europe from 2010 to 2019, by region. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/2hsecap2.
Ta Nea. (2020). Gloves and masks in the Mediterranean. Coronavirus debris threatens marine life. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/3encthzt (in Greek).

Thiessen, A. (2011). *Organisations kommunikation in Krisen – Reputations management durch situtative, integrierte und strategische Krisenkommunikation.* VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften. Springer.

Tovar-Sánchez, A., González-Ortegón, E., & Duarte, C. M. (2019). Trace metal partitioning in the top meter of the ocean. *Science of the Total Environment, 652*, 907–914.

To Vima. (2021). The Arab spring and the butterfly phenomenon. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/btkej29x (in Greek).

UNHCR. (2018). Deaths in the mediterranean: Appeal of D.O.M. and high commission for joint action of the EU member states. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/2zur24n8.

van Riet, A. (2010). *Euro area fiscal policies and the crisis.* European Central Bank.

Wheeler, A., Muller, P., Thrall, G. I., & Fik, T. (1998). *Economic geography* (3rd ed.). JohnWiley & Sons Inc.

Wut, T. M., Xu, J., & Wong, S. (2021). Crisis management research (1985–2020) in the hospitality and tourism industry: A review and research agenda. *Tourism Management, 85*, 104307.

Zhang, S., Li, Q., Cai, B., & Han, H. (2013). The analysis of gravity on tourism resource of Shijiazhuang with Anion, Hebei. *IERI Procedia, 5*, 291–297. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ieri.2013.11.106

Silver Tourism in Greece. Basic Elements of Marketing and Branding

Rentzi Konstantina and Constantoglou Mary

Abstract Major changes that have taken place around the world recently include the increase in world population, the expansion of life expectancy, the advancement of the health of people of all ages, and the greater flow of tourism between countries. For most countries, senior tourists constitute a distinctive part of the tourism industry. In order for Greece to emerge as an ideal tourism destination and to satisfy the demand and needs of senior tourists, it must improve and develop the necessary infrastructure and services through targeted strategies that will help its international image. This paper aims to record the opinions and preferences of senior tourists regarding the choice of a tourist destination in general, and especially in the current COVID-19 period, which factors influence their decision, which media they use when searching for information, and then the goal is to investigate their opinion on the recognition of Greece as a silver tourism destination, through the existing marketing and branding. The goal of the work is also to study the ability of Greece to emerge as a health tourism destination, specifically medical tourism for international elderly patients. Research has been contacted through online questionnaires on a random sample of elderly people living abroad during spring 2021.

Keywords Silver tourism · Health tourism · Pandemic · Planning · Marketing · Branding

JEL Classifications Z30 · Z32

R. Konstantina (✉)
Tourism Business Administration, Hellenic Open University, Patras, Greece
e-mail: kostantinar@yahoo.gr

C. Mary
Department of Economics and Tourism Management, University of the Aegean, Chios, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_13

1 Introduction

In modern times, the tourism sector is an important industry among others. It is an international activity that has contributed economic gains to countries around the world. However, it is not a concept that does not change, as it concerns an activity that is constantly evolving and trying to satisfy existing needs.

One of the categories of tourists that is directly affected by the changes that are taking place but also contributes to these changes are the elderly tourists. The expansion of the world's population, the expansion of life expectancy, the promotion of the health of people of all ages, and the greater flow of tourism between countries have led to the rapid development of "silver tourism", which constitutes a characteristic part of the tourism industry.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the opinion, trends, and preferences of senior tourists regarding the choice of a tourist destination in general, and especially in the period of COVID-19, which factors are those that influence their decision positively or negatively, what means they use to gather information and then to investigate more specifically their opinion on the awareness of Greece as a tourist destination, through the existing marketing and branding. Finally, the goal of this paper is also to help define the necessary parameters in order for Greece to become a health and medical tourism destination for elderly tourists.

Creating a good image is particularly important for a tourist destination in order to attract tourism (Marshalls, 2014; Moustaka & Constantoglou, 2021). The brand and image of a tourist destination help create strong relationships between the destination and tourists (Constantoglou, 2020; Chatziliadou & Constantoglou, 2021). Therefore, destination management organizations should focus on investigating and understanding the purchasing behavior of senior tourists, and this is indeed the first question raised in this work, what are the preferences, motivations, and habits of senior tourists of age. Also given the COVID-19 pandemic, with the unpleasant consequences it has caused to tourism worldwide, a second question raised is to see if the preferences, motivations, and habits of senior tourists have been affected by the pandemic.

Nowadays, the tourism industry could not remain unaffected by the emergence of new technologies (Constantoglou & Trihas, 2020). With the presence of digitized technologies, the penetration of the Internet into the whole spectrum of human daily life and the variety of online possibilities we have now moved into the era of acceleration, availability and distribution of unlimited information, and the inclusion of all the aforementioned in the tourism industry. This is also the third research question of this paper. What are senior tourists' main sources of information for travel advice, what is their view on the role of search engines, and how much are they influenced by social media?

As mentioned above, creating a good image is particularly important for a tourist destination in order to attract senior tourism. The fourth research question of this paper concerns Greece as a tourist destination and the opinion that senior tourists have about it.

The last research question of the paper has to do with the contribution of health tourism to sustainable development. To what extent health tourism can contribute to the sustainable development of a tourist destination and to what extent Greece is or could emerge as a medical tourism destination and a health tourism destination for senior tourists from all over the world.

2 Literature Review

Today 30% of the world's population belongs to the baby-boomers generation, which consists of those born after World War II, from 1946 to 1964. During this period, the birth rate of all countries in the world, especially those who actively participated in the war, had explosive growth, resulting in the birth of approximately 450 million people worldwide. Thanks to the emergence of new technologies, there have been several changes in the tourism industry. The new tourist, nowadays, is constantly informed (Balderas-Cejudo, 2019). People are aging, "that is, the upper age strata increase the proportion of the total population" (Balderas-Cejudo, 2019) and the market is changing.

Determining the age limit at which a person is considered as elderly is influenced by many factors. Many researchers have established that this age limit is at the age of 55 (Silva et al., 2020). Differences also appear in determining the age of the senior tourist (Senior Tourist). Many researchers, as well as the World Tourism Organization, define it at the age of 50 years and above (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Littrell et al., 2004; Utama, 2016; Wang, 2006), some define it from 55 years and above (Hossain et al., 2003; Hsu et al., 2007; Huang & Tsai, 2003), some at 60 years and above (Horneman et al., 2002; Reece, 2004; Shim et al., 2005), and finally, others are placing a age range from 65 to 74 years (Jang & Wu, 2006; Lee & Tideswell, 2005). Senior tourists constitute a distinct group of tourists with different and unique characteristics from the rest (Balderas-Cejudo, 2019; Silva et al., 2020; Vigolo, 2017).

From the beginning of the twenty-first century until today, the rate of aging of the world population constitutes an unprecedented historical event, which will lead to significant changes in human daily life (World Population Prospects, 2017). In 2050, the number of elderly people will reach 500 million and the largest percentage will live in emerging countries, and also of particular interest is the prediction that the population of elderly people up to 79 years of age will remain stable after 2020 in developed countries. Following, population growth will be due to people over 80 years old (Gladwell & Bedini, 2004; World Population Prospects, 2017). Beyond developed countries, the percentage of people aged 80 and over will jump numerically after 2040 (Kazaminia et al., 2015; Prayag, 2012). This is why many scholars claim that we the world slowly and without choice is entering the era of the "silver economy" (World Population Prospects, 2017).

The rapid growth of the population together with the economic boom, the rapid development of global transportation means, and the technological changes brought by the wide use of Internet have led to the rapid growth of travel and tourism worldwide. The development of tourism and the aging of the population have, as a result, the rapid growth of senior tourism (Santos et al., 2016; Utama, 2016).

The impact of the elderly on tourism is evident from the following (Santos et al., 2016; Zsarnoczky et al., 2016):

- Increased revenue for the tourism industry as older people traveling year-round and staying longer in the destination.
- Limiting the seasonality of the destination, as older people travel year-round and in low demand periods to avoid the overcrowding of high demand periods.
- Improvement of the offered tourist products and services, as elderly people have higher demands and emphasize quality.
- Cooperation with other states and development of strategies for the promotion of each country-destination and the attraction of senior tourists.
- Support for winterization and strengthening of the local/national economy.

Senior tourists have different requirements and expectations during their stay in a tourist destination; therefore, their satisfaction assessment differs from that of a younger age group. Tourism marketing should therefore understand the need to segment the specific target group into smaller subgroups with common characteristics in order to understand their particular needs and attract them through the provision of distinct services (Alen et al., 2017). Primarily, age could be a criterion for segmenting senior tourists. However, according to researchers, the segmentation of senior tourists should be based on their perceived age and not their actual age, as perceived age is what determines their preferences (Alen et al., 2015). Another segmentation criterion could be income. Not all are characterized by the same economic level and situation, most elderly people are generally in a financially strong group (Alen et al., 2015). Another criterion that is at the center of tourism marketing interest is the education of the elderly. More and more elderly people are becoming educated, unlike before, an element that strongly influences their preferences during a trip (Losada et al., 2016; Santos et al., 2016).

The elderly place particular emphasis on many parameters when choosing a tourist destination, which, if they cannot be met, are becoming deterrent factors. These factors can be distinguished into factors related to the destination and factors related to the tourist himself (Sert, 2019).

The inhibitory factors related to destination are the unstable political and social environment in the destination, pandemics and public health issues, nonexistence or difficulty of movement with public transportation, insufficient public transport networks and road infrastructure, nonexistence of desirable tourist services, the distance from the country of residence, inability to serve people with special needs or people with chronic health problems, morals and customs of the destination country, extreme weather conditions, and finally accessibility of services (Lopes et al., 2020).

The inhibiting factors related to the tourist himself are the health profile of senior tourists, existence of work or family obligations, low income, limited free time, lack of desire to travel, insufficient information, absence of a tour guide, reduced skills that limit movement, and reduced mobility or physical difficulties (Huber et al., 2018).

The coronavirus pandemic (COVID-19) is one of the most important milestones of the twenty-first century. Within months, the global tourism industry moved from overtourism to no-tourism (Constantoglou & Klothaki, 2021).

A 2017 study by STOCHASIS estimates the turnover of the global medical tourism market between 45.5 billion and 72 billion dollars. About 14 million cross-border patients worldwide spend an average of $3,800–$6,000 per medical visit, including costs related to medical services, cross-border and local travel, hospital stay, and accommodation. In the European Union, the proportion of trips by older people was expected before the pandemic to increase from 15% in 2010 to 26% in 2030 and 32% in 2050.

Greece is one of the top holiday destinations for senior tourists as it has been observed that there is an increasing percentage of tourists between the ages of 55 and 64 choosing our place for their holidays; however, there is also a decrease in inbound tourists over the age of 65 years old (INSETE, 2016).

Senior tourism can become a decisive factor in extending the tourist season for Greece, since this segment of tourists allocates more time for entertainment, spends more and for a longer time, usually outside the tourist season (shoulder season). These tourists, they are not yet the largest percentage of those who travel to Greece, but they generate 40% of the total tourism income. This is a key motivation for the evolution of a destination. The development of senior tourism and the long-term stay of pensioners from other countries can contribute in many ways to the development of the Greek economy. The national strategy of the Greek Ministry of Tourism should aim to promote Greece as a leading, safe destination 365 days year-round, offering unique and integrated travel experiences in each destination, especially for the target population of older people (Dianoesis, 2021).

3 Methodology

In this research, an attempt is made to examine the opinions and preferences of senior tourists regarding tourism and the recognition of Greece as a destination for them, as well as their opinions on health tourism in Greece; therefore, quantitative research is the most appropriate for its purposes. It was chosen to conduct a quantitative survey on a sample of foreign tourists of senior age (55 years and older) who have either visited the destination or not. Regarding the restrictions on the sample, the only one that was set was that the participants had to reside permanently in foreign countries. Finally, a questionnaire consisting of 38 questions of various types was used to collect the necessary data.

The main survey instrument in a quantitative survey is the structured questionnaire (Mills et al., 2017), which was used in this survey and will be presented in detail below. Due to the fact that the quantitative research method constitutes a process of researching a theory or an issue, which consists of a series of variables that are numerically measured and allow for statistical analysis, for this reason it was chosen to be used in the present research as well (Abawi, 2008). The snowball sampling method was used. As Atkinson and Flint (2001) point out “snowball sampling is a technique for finding research subjects”. Lately response rates to academic surveys are decreasing (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Thus, the method of snowball sampling was considered to be relevant from the authors in order to increase the response rate of this research.

The participants filled out the questionnaire that was created in Google forms application. The distribution of the questionnaire was carried out using the social media of Facebook and LinkedIn, in which various groups/communities of users of these media with a common characteristic of tourism were identified, where the relevant link was published, which users could find the questionnaire and complete it, along with clear explanations of the purpose and limitations of the research. The questionnaire was published in four groups with open content and seven groups with closed content (requirement to register as a member of the specific ones) on Facebook, with the reason for the creation of the group being tourism for the elderly, and it was also republished and promoted by the personal profiles of some participants-members of the groups of them in order for their friends and acquaintances to participate, and finally, it was also published in five closed content groups on LinkedIn.

Research was conducted for 30 days, from May 2021 to June 2021. To ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted with ten persons of the specific age group to test efficacy and clarity. The questionnaires gathered from those persons are not part of the final sample. Little modifications were then made based on their recommendations. Then, the method of snowball sampling was used to send the questionnaires. It should also be mentioned that at the beginning of the questionnaire there was a note, which informed the participants about the purposes of the research, about the use of their answers and assured them about the protection of their personal data and their anonymity.

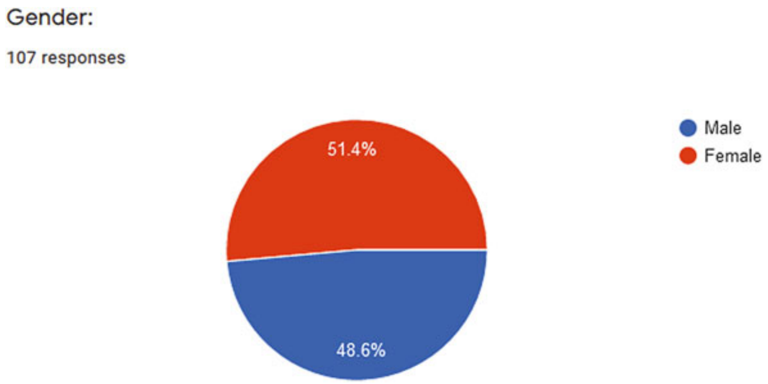
A total of 107 completed questionnaires were collected. The collected data were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the basic features of the data collected, and then cross-tabulations were applied to understand the correlation between the different variables.

4 Results

At this point, the results of the primary research conducted will be presented. One hundred and seven (107) completed questionnaires were collected from elderly tourists and permanent residents abroad.

Of the 107 participants in the survey, 48.6% (52 people) are men and 51.4% (55 people) are women (Graph 1).

In Graph 2 which shows the distribution of the sample by age groups, the largest part of the participants belongs to the age groups 55–60 years (24 people) and 60–65 years (24 people), with a percentage of 22.4%, respectively, followed by 65–70-year-old group (23 people) with 21.5%, the 75–80-year-old group (17 people)



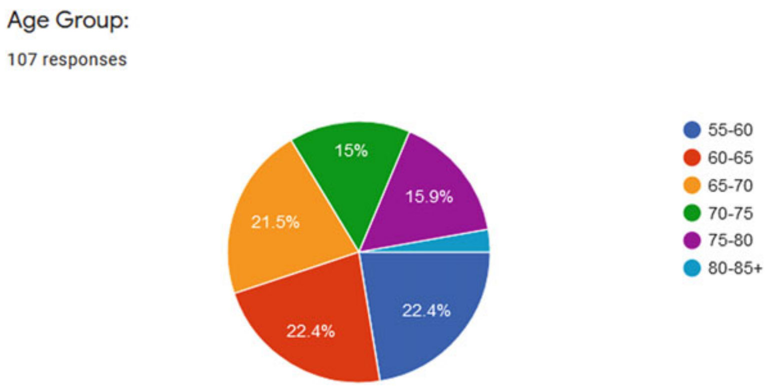
Graph 1 Gender of participants

with 15.9%, the 70–75-year-old group (16 people) with 15%, and finally, the 80 age group–85+ years old (three people) with a share of 2.8%.

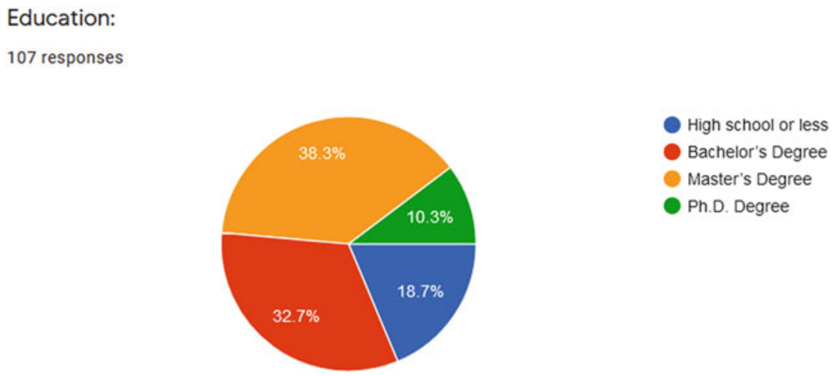
Of the 107 participants, 38.3% (41 people) hold a master's degree, 32.7% (35 people) hold a bachelor's degree, 18.7% (20 people) are high school graduates, and finally 10.3% (11 people) hold a PhD (Graph 3).

Regarding marital status (Graph 4), the largest percentage declares married with 72% (77 people), followed by divorced with 14% (15 people), single with 5.6% (six people), a percentage who are widowed with 5.6% (6 people), and finally single-parent families with 2.8% (three people).

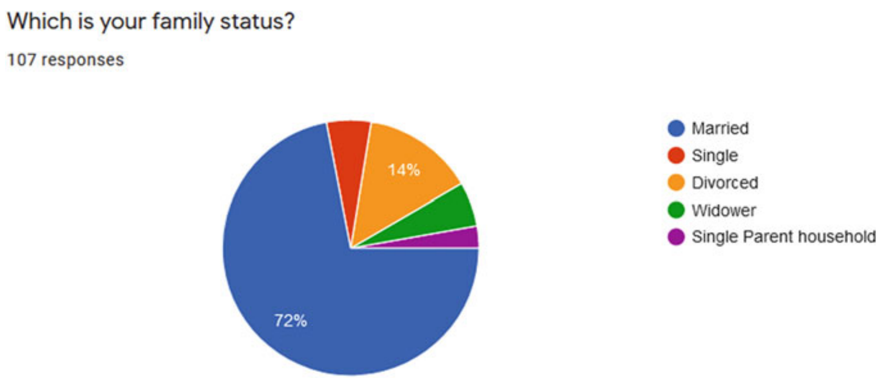
Of the 107 respondents, 10.3% (11 people) are from the United States of America, 6.54% from Italy (seven people), the same percentage of 6.54% from the United Kingdom (seven people) and from Germany (seven people), 5.61% from Spain (six participants), while France (six participants) recorded the same percentage.



Graph 2 Age of participants



Graph 3 Training of participants

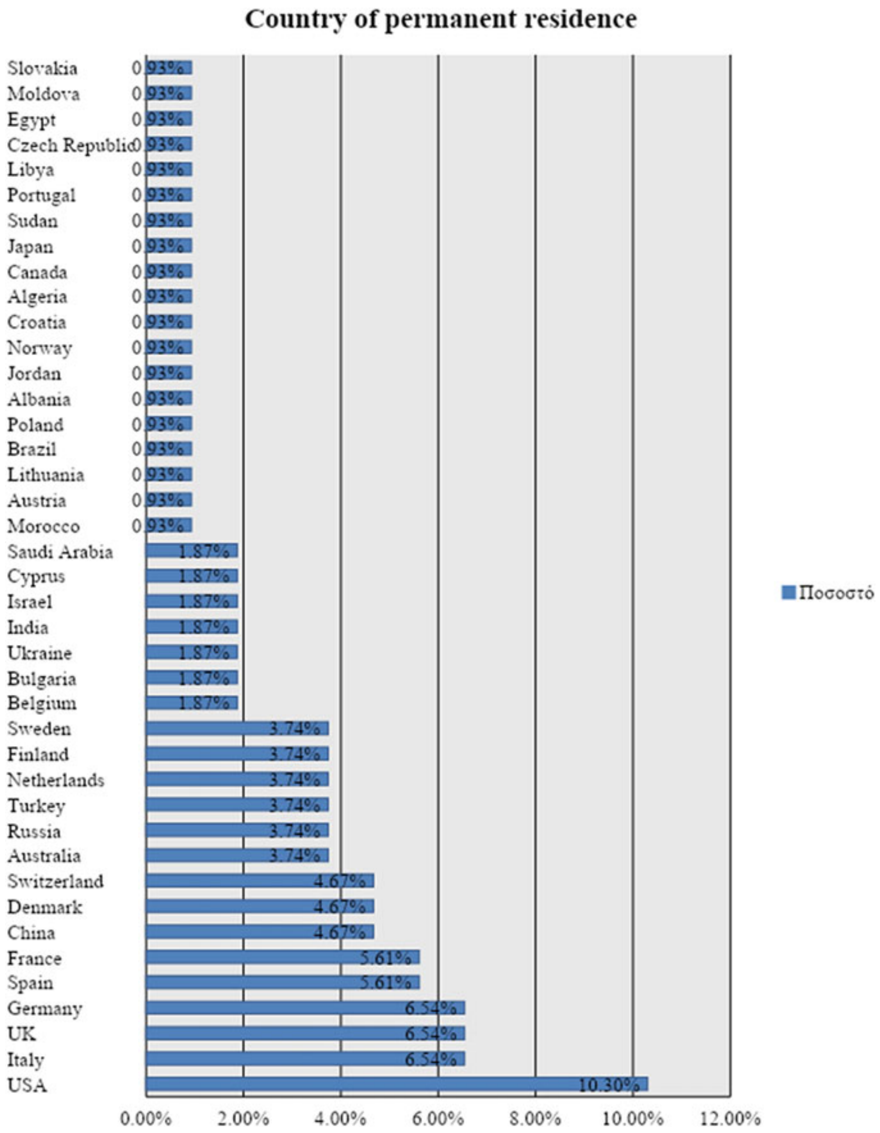


Graph 4 Marital status of participants

From China, Denmark, and Switzerland, four people responded to the questionnaire, with a percentage of 4.67% each country. From Australia, Russia, Turkey, the Netherlands, Finland, and Sweden, three people participated in the questionnaire, 3.74% of the participants from the aforementioned countries. From Belgium, Bulgaria, Ukraine, India, Israel, Cyprus, and Saudi Arabia, two people participated in the questionnaire, 1.87% of the participants from the aforementioned countries. Finally, from Morocco, Austria, Lithuania, Brazil, Poland, Albania, Jordan, Norway, Croatia, Algeria, Canada, Japan, Sudan, Portugal, Libya, Czech Republic, Egypt, Moldova, and Slovakia, one person participated in the questionnaire, from 0.93% of the participants for each country (Graph 5).

Regarding employment, in Graph 6, we see that 41.1% (44 people) have not yet retired, 30.8% (33 people) have retired but are still working, and finally 28% (30 people) are retired and not employed.

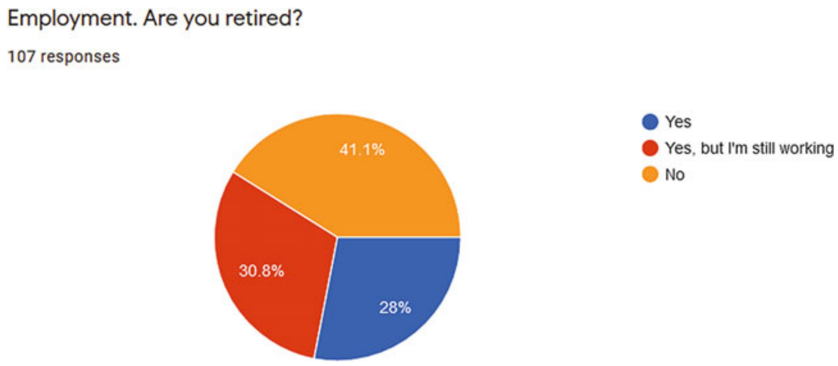
The question about the monthly income of the participants (Graph 7) highlighted as a larger group the participants who answered that they have a medium monthly



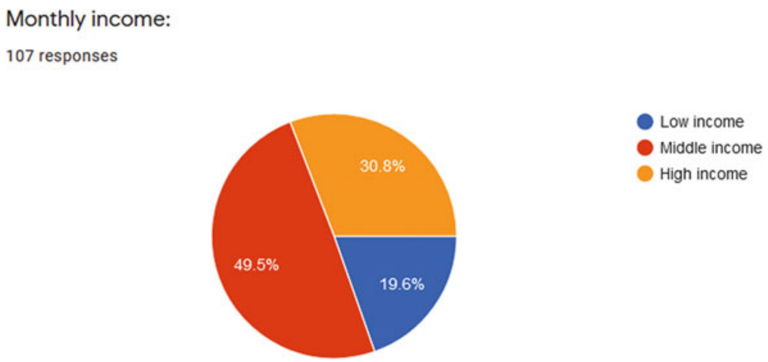
Graph 5 Country of permanent residence of participants

income with a percentage of 49.5% (53 people), followed by those who answered that they have a high monthly income with 30.8% (33 people) and the analysis closes with the common people who have low incomes with a rate of 19.6% (21 people).

In the second part of the questionnaire, participants were asked to answer about their travel preferences and habits. They were also asked to answer about their travel



Graph 6 Professional occupation of participants



Graph 7 Monthly income of participants

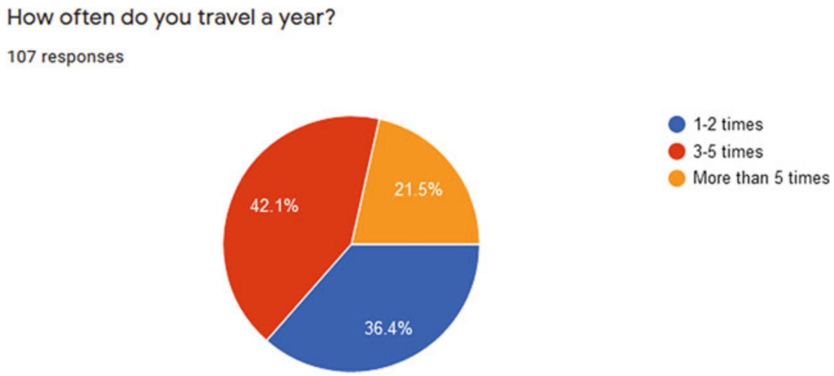
habits and preferences during the difficult period we are going through with the COVID-19 pandemic.

The majority of the sample (42.1%–45 people) stated that they travel 3–5 times a year, when 36.4% (39 people) travel 1–2 times, and 21.5% (23 people) travel more than 5 times each year (Graph 8).

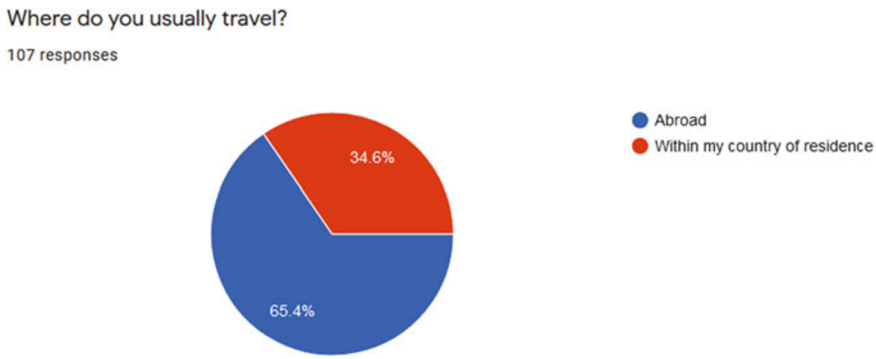
This question aimed to examine their preferences for where they choose to travel. Graph 9 shows the results from which it follows that 65.4% (70 people) choose foreign regions for their holidays, while 34.6% (37 people) are limited to their country of residence.

In Graph 10, we can observe that 46.7% (50 people) of the sample mainly choose vacations lasting 4 to 7 days and 36.4% (9 people) choose vacations lasting 8 to 13 days. Also, 7.5% (8 people) usually go on vacation from 1 to 3 days, 6.5% (seven people) go on vacation from 2 to 3 weeks, and 2.8% (three people) go on vacation for more time.

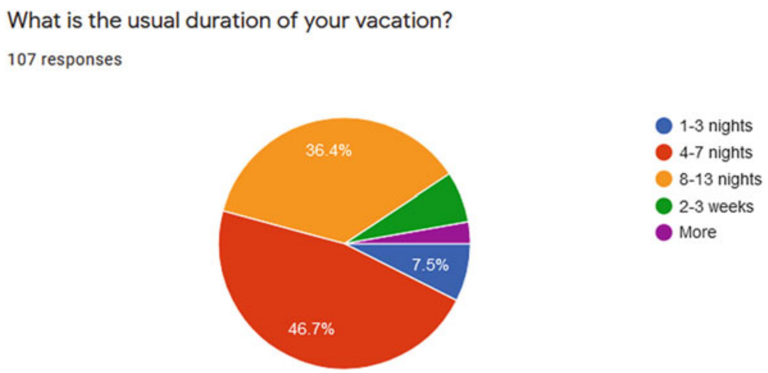
In Graph 11, the results on who senior tourists choose to travel with are presented. The results show that 35.5% (38 people) of the participants choose to travel with their



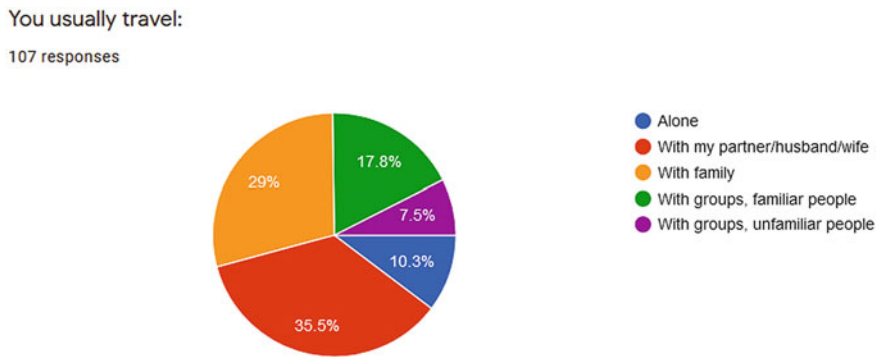
Graph 8 Frequency of trips by elderly tourists



Graph 9 Results for where senior tourists choose to travel



Graph 10 Result for the trip duration of senior tourists



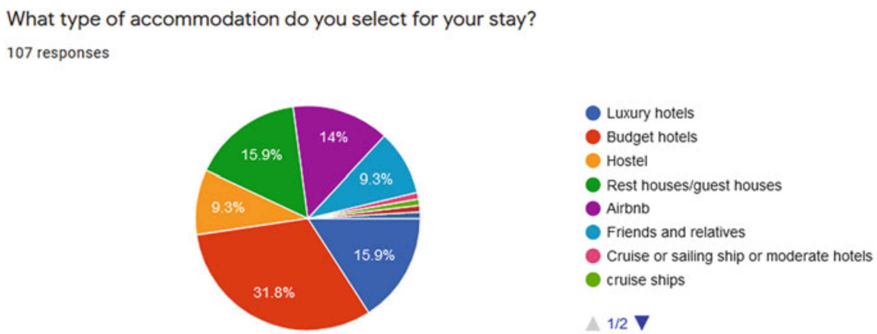
Graph 11 Results with whom do senior tourists usually travel

partner/spouse, 29% (31 people) travel with their family, and 17.8% (19 people) travel group with people they know. Finally, 10.3% (11 people) stated that they travel alone and 7.5% (8 people) with a group of people they do not know.

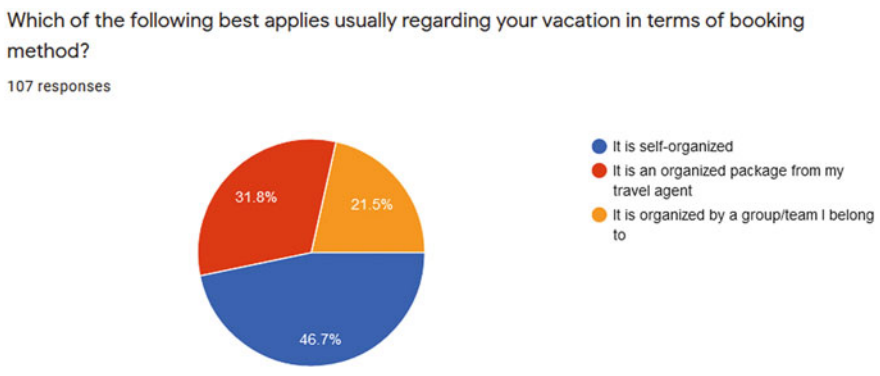
Regarding the accommodation chosen by senior tourists for their stay, of the 107 participants, 31.8% (34 people) prefer budget hotels, while 15.9% (17 people) prefer to stay in luxury hotels. A corresponding percentage of 15.9% choose hostels for their stay. A percentage of 14% (15 people) book on Airbnb, while 9.3% (ten people) of the respondents answered that they prefer inns and the same number (9.3%) friends and relatives for their stay. Finally, a small percentage of 2.7% (three people) choose the cruises and a 0.9% (one person) the camping (Graph 12).

From Graph 13, it follows that 46.7% (50 people) of senior citizens choose to organize their trip by themselves, while 31.8% (34 people) turn to tourist offices for help. Finally, 21.5% (23 people) belong to some group or group of elderly people who belong to the organization.

Graph 14 shows in detail the results regarding the reasons that elderly people choose to travel. As can be seen, the majority of participants, 82.2% choose to travel



Graph 12 Accommodation preferences of senior tourists



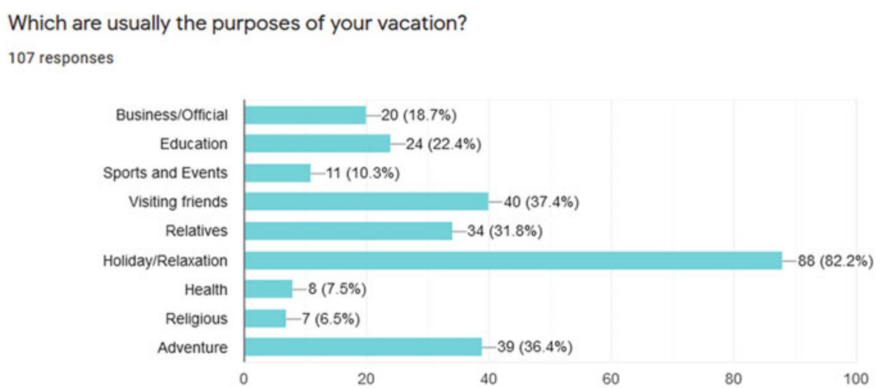
Graph 13 Results regarding travel booking method by senior tourists

for relaxation, 37.4% travel to visit friends, 36.4% travel for adventure, and 31.8% to visit relatives. Education and professional reasons follow in the choices with 22.4% and 18.7%, respectively, various sports and other events with 10.3%, health reasons with 7.5%, and finally, religious reasons with rate of 6.5%.

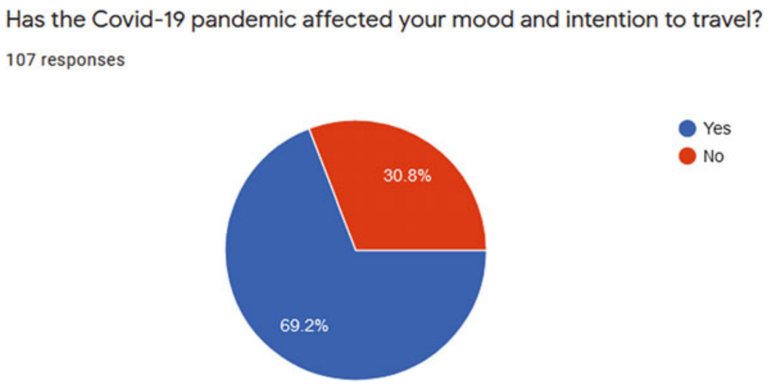
Of the 107 respondents, 69.2% (74 people) said that the COVID-19 pandemic has affected their mood and intention to travel, while 30.8% (33 people) say they are unaffected (Graph 15).

In Graph 16, the results are presented regarding who senior tourists would choose to travel with during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results show that 37.4% (40 people) of the participants would choose their partner/spouse, 27.1% (29 people) their family, and 15.9% (17 people) group with people where they know. Finally, 12.1% (13 people) said they would travel alone and 7.5% (8 people) with a group of people they do not know.

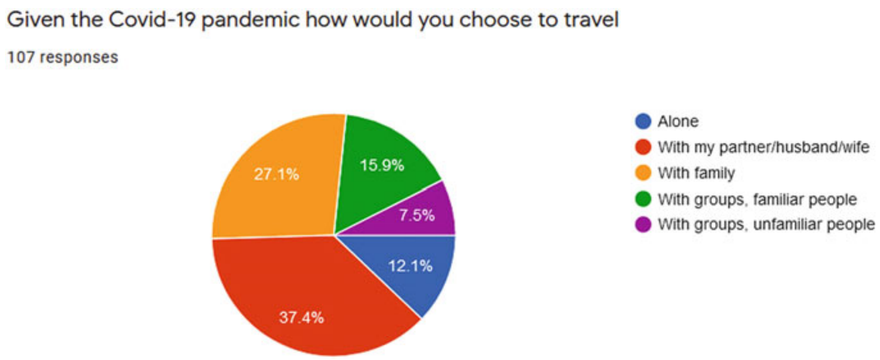
Interest arises from the fact that while the majority of participants stated that their mood and intention to travel have been affected due to the pandemic, the answers



Graph 14 Main reasons that elderly people choose to travel



Graph 15 Impact of COVID-19 on mood and intention to travel

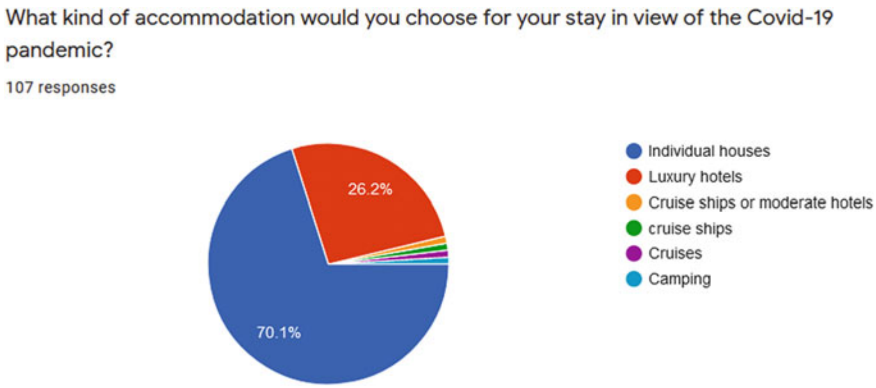


Graph 16 Results on who senior tourists would choose to travel with during the COVID-19 pandemic

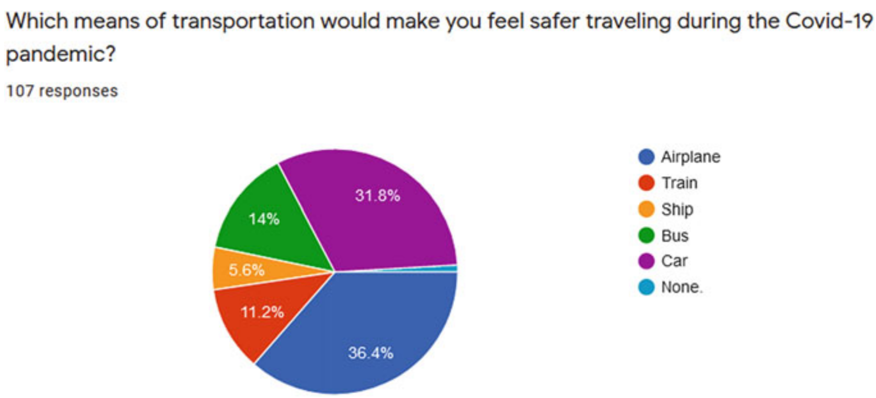
regarding the company they would choose to travel with do not differ greatly from the choices they have in normal circumstances out of a pandemic.

Regarding the accommodation that senior tourists would choose for their stay in view of the COVID-19 pandemic, of the 107 participants, 70.1% (75 people) answered that in this case they would choose an individual residence, while the 26.2% (28 people) would choose luxury hotels for their stay. A small percentage of 2.7% (three people) also answered here that they would prefer a cruise ship and a 0.9% (one person) camping (Graph 17).

From Graph 18, it appears that most of the participants 36.4% (39 people) would prefer to travel for their safety by plane during the pandemic, 31.8% (34 people) chose the car, 14% (15 people) the bus, 11.2% (12 people) the train, while 5.6% (6 people) would choose to travel by ferry and one person (0.9%) answered with none.



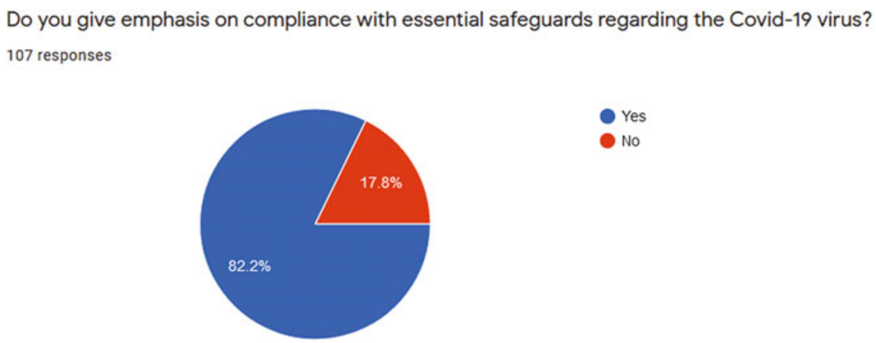
Graph 17 Accommodation preferences of senior tourists during the COVID-19 pandemic



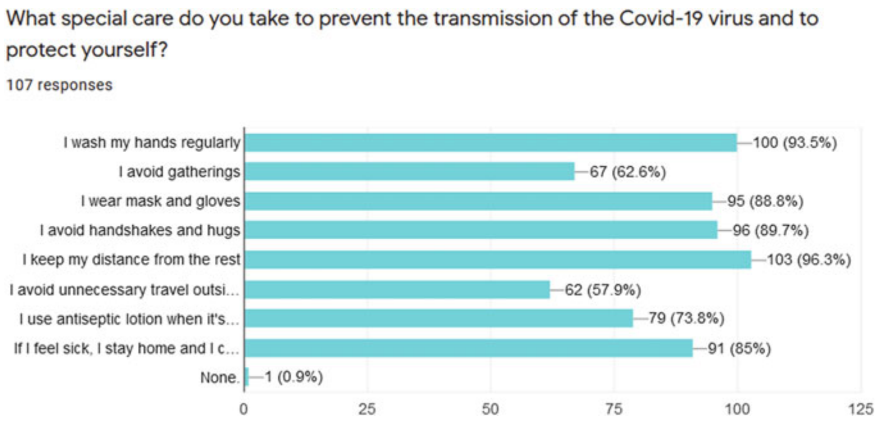
Graph 18 Preference of means of transport by senior tourists during the COVID-19 pandemic

Of the 107 respondents, 82.2% (88 people) stated that they emphasize the observance of basic protection measures regarding the COVID-19 virus, while 17.8% (19 people) answered negatively (Graph 19).

Graph 20 shows in detail the results regarding the measures emphasized by senior tourists to avoid transmission of the COVID-19 virus and to protect themselves. As it can be seen, almost all participants (103 people–96.3%) keep safe distances from others and 93.5% (100 people) answered that they regularly wash their hands. High percentages of 89.7%, 88.8%, and 85% gathered as measures the avoidance of handshakes and hugs, the use of masks and gloves, and the avoidance of moving outside the house in case of unwellness with notification of the doctor, respectively. This is followed by the use of antiseptic with a percentage of 73.8%, the avoidance of gatherings with 62.6%, and finally, the avoidance of unnecessary travel outside the home with a percentage of 57.9%. Also, one person (0.9%) answered that they do not observe any of the aforementioned protection measures.



Graph 19 Compliance with the observance of basic protection measures against the COVID-19 virus

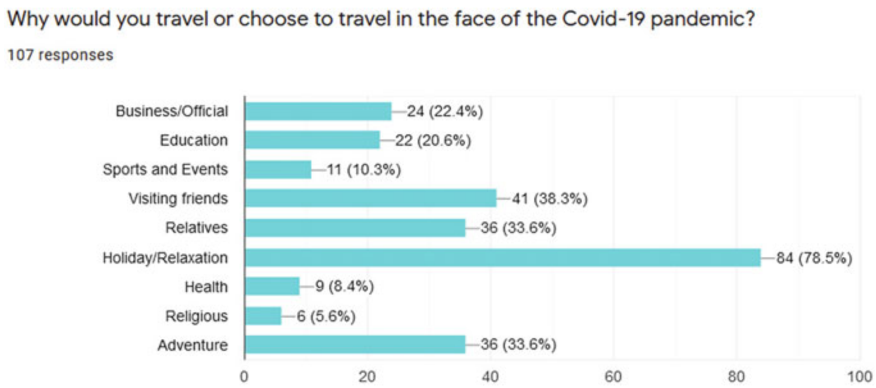


Graph 20 Results regarding the measures followed to protect and avoid the transmission of the COVID-19 virus

The following graph (Graph 21) shows in detail the results regarding the reasons that elderly people would choose to travel during the pandemic. As can be seen, the majority of participants, 78.5% (84 people) would choose to travel during the pandemic for reasons of relaxation and recreation as well as during non-pandemic periods.

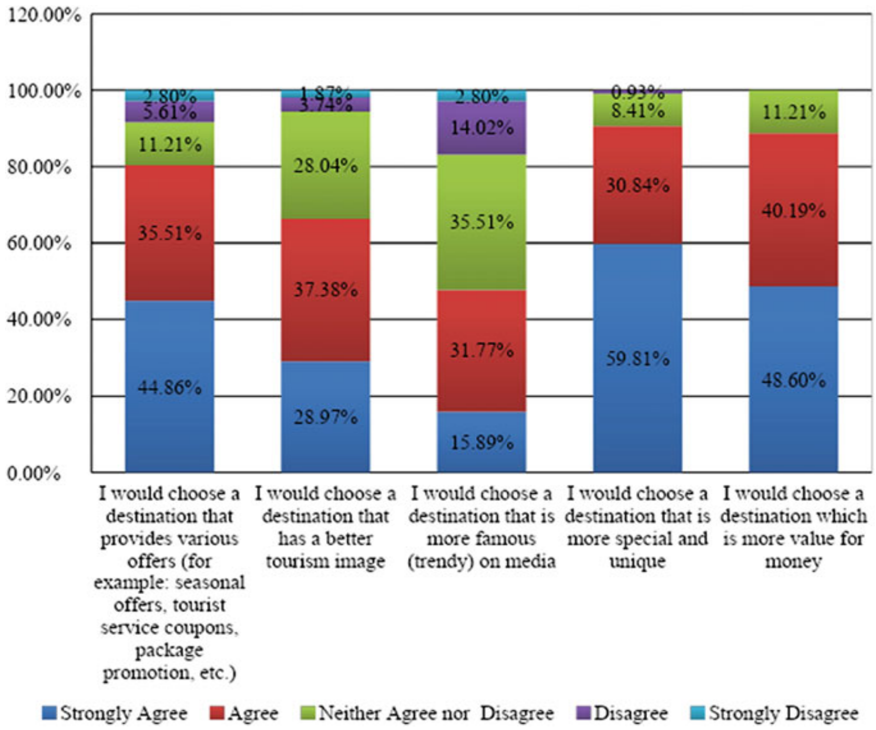
38.3% chose visiting friends, 33.6% to visit relatives, and 33.6% for adventure. Professional and educational reasons follow in the choices with 22.4% and 20.6%, respectively, various sports and other events with a percentage of 10.3%, health reasons with a percentage of 8.4%, and finally, religious reasons with a rate of 5.6%.

The reasons that would motivate the surveyed senior tourists to choose to visit one country over another are shown in Graph 24, and the most common response among the others was the uniqueness and uniqueness of the destination (59.81%), followed by value for money to follow (48.6%), the offer of discount offers from the



Graph 21 Main reasons for travel for the elderly during COVID-19

destination's agencies (44.86%), the tourist image of the destination (28.97%), and finally, the publicity of the destination in the mass media (15.89%) (Graph 22).

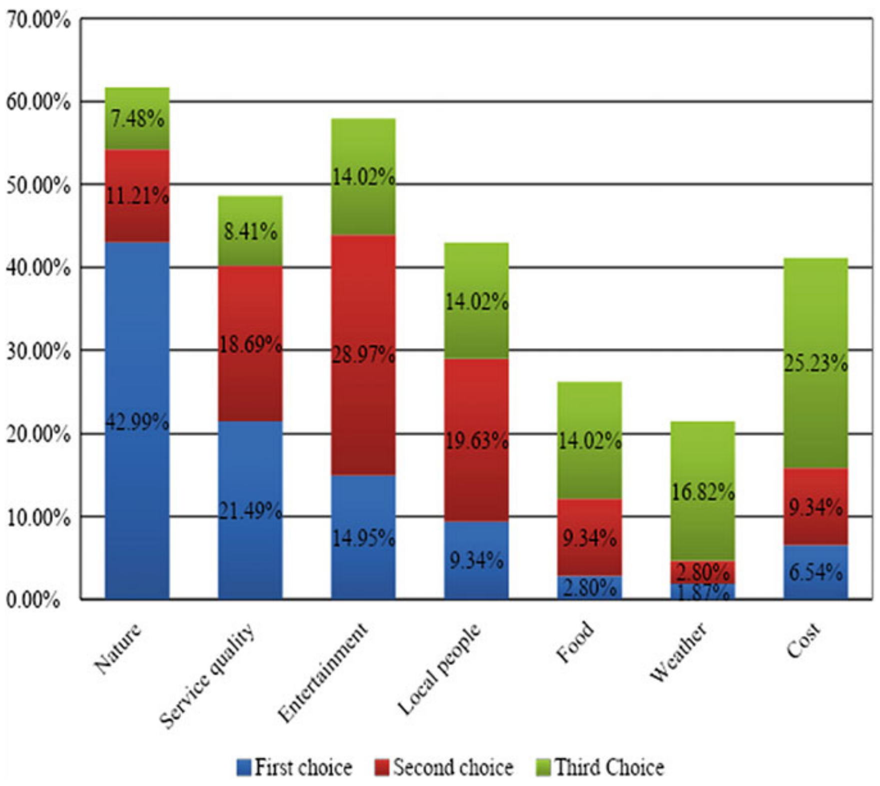


Graph 22 Reasons for activating senior tourists for choosing a destination

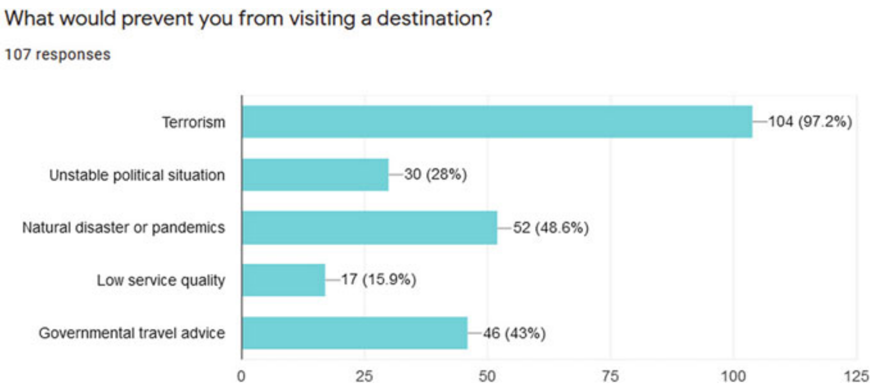
In Graph 23, respondents were asked to choose the three main parameters they take into account when choosing to visit a country. They chose environment (61.68%), entertainment (54.94%), and quality of service (48.59%), followed by local population, cost, food, and weather. As the first choice, the environment received the most answers (42.99%), followed by service quality with 21.49% and then entertainment with 14.95%. However, entertainment was chosen by the largest percentage (28.97%) as the second choice.

In Graph 24, regarding the reasons for preventing a visit to a destination, the majority 97.2% answered terrorism, 52 answers (48.6%) had natural disasters and pandemics, and 46 answers (43%) related to a government travel ban/directive by their country's government. Then the options for the unstable political situation of the region are heard with a percentage of 28% (30 responses) and finally the low quality of services with 15.9% (17 responses).

lIn the third section, respondents were asked to answer regarding the sources of information they use for travel advice, their opinion on the role of search engines in the promotion, and advertising of tourist destinations as well as their degree of influence on Greece from social media.



Graph 23 Factors influencing senior tourists to choose a destination



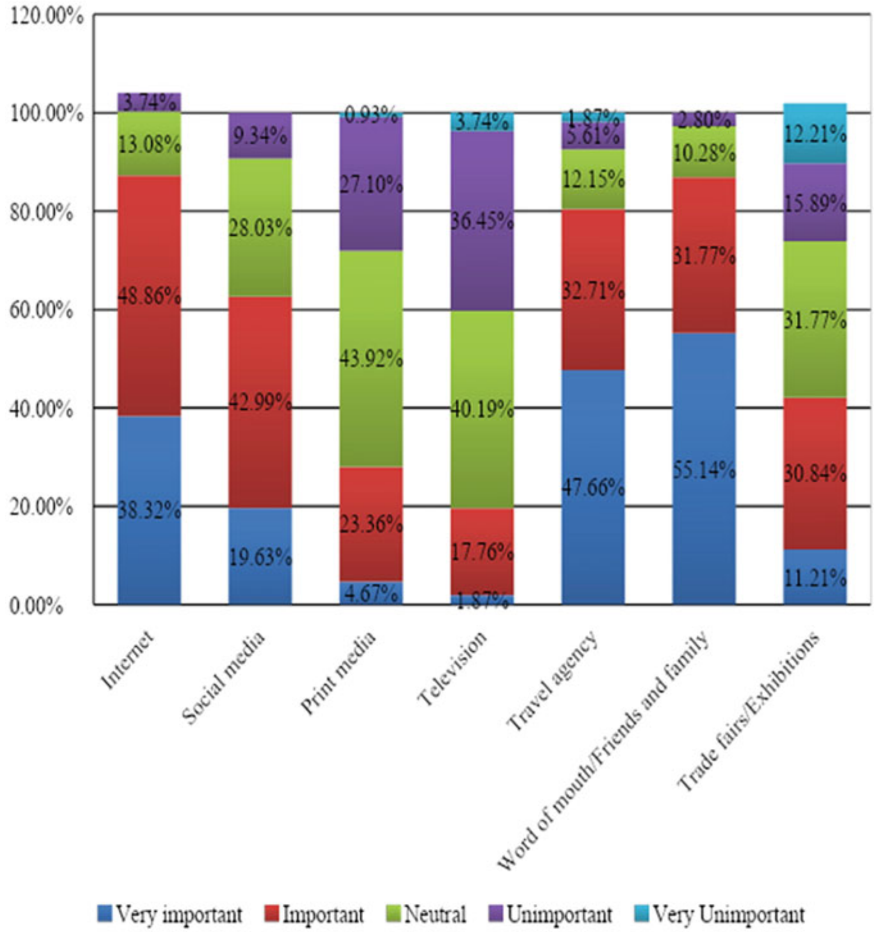
Graph 24 Reasons influencing senior tourists to prevent choosing a destination

In Graph 25, respondents were asked to indicate the media they use most for their information about a trip. Most of the answers were collected on the Internet, where 87.18% of the participants answered that it is important or very important, and immediately after came information from relatives and friends (word-of-mouth) with 86.91%, travel agents with 80.37%, social media with 62.62%, travel reports with 42.05%, and last choices were print media with 28.03% and television with 19.63%. The least responses were collected by television with 40.19%, travel reports with 28.10%, and print media with 28.03%.

Following participants were asked to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement they had with three statements related to the role of search engines, and the results are shown in Graph 26. The majority (85.93%) responded that they agreed (agree and strongly agree) with the proposition that search engines are a fast and authoritative way of retrieving travel-related information. 57.94% responded that they agree with the statement that you get the right results and 41.12% responded that they agree that assisted search helps with destination brand campaigns.

In the next question, the participants were invited to answer whether they are influenced by the comments they read about Greece on social networks (Graph 27). Most respondents (45.8%–49 people) answered neutrally. Immediately after 26.2% (28 people) answered a lot, while 13.1% (14 people) answered a little, 10.3% (11 people) answered a lot, and 4.7% (5 people) answered not at all. We observe here that comments through social media do not make a significant difference in the decision of senior tourists.

Following participants were asked to determine how much they are influenced by the reviews they see about Greece on social networks and various other media (e.g., Trip Advisor, Booking.com, etc.), with the neutral answers to achieve 33.6% (36 people) and a maximum of 32.7% (35 people). 14% of the sample answered a lot, while others (14%–15 people) answered a little and 5.6% (6 people) answered not at all (Graph 28).

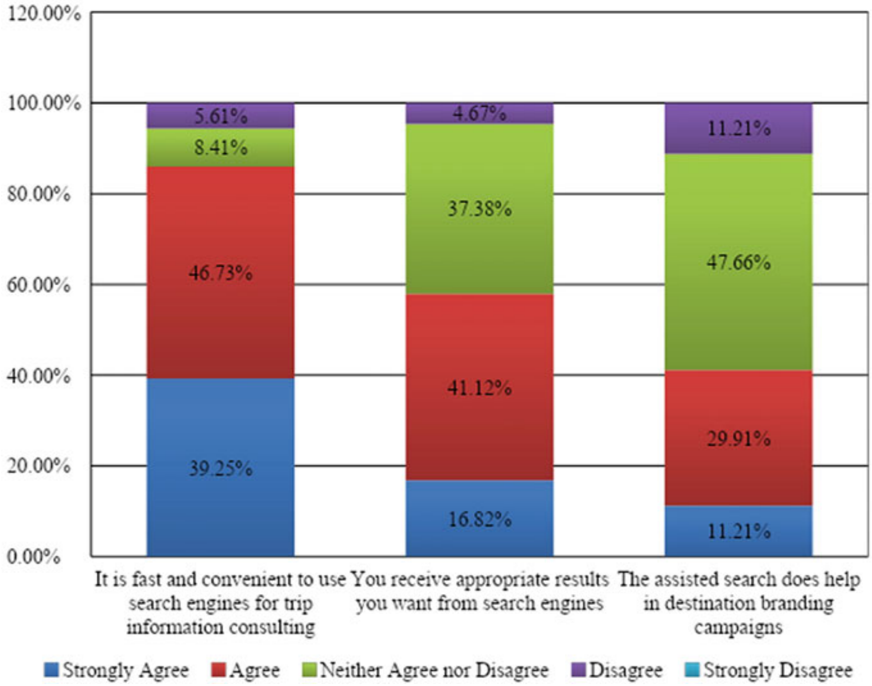


Graph 25 Sources of information for obtaining tourist information from the elderly

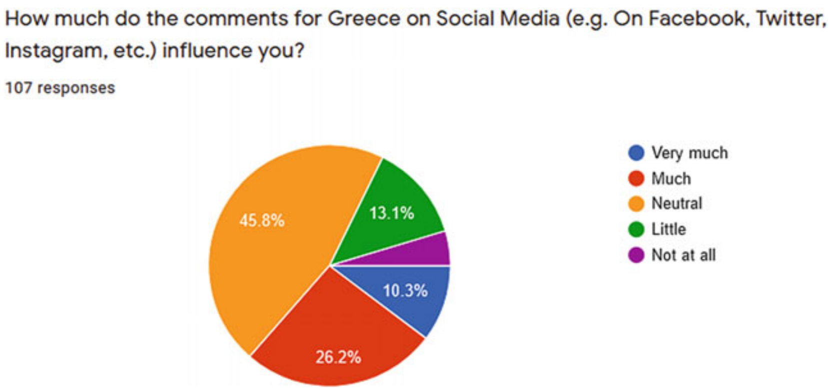
In this fourth part, the respondents answered a series of questions regarding Greece as a tourist destination, if they have visited it, what would motivate them to visit it, how they would characterize it as a tourist destination, and if they would recommend it as a destination for friends and relatives.

Of the 107 respondents, 58.9% (63 people) have visited Greece, while 41.1% (44 people) answered negatively (Graph 29).

Respondents answered regarding the reasons that would motivate them to visit Greece (Graph 30). The most important reason was the good climate of Greece and the scenic beauty with 93.46% of the respondents answering very and very much and immediately after, the culture and heritage of Greece with 85.04%, the value-price relationship with 82.24%, and adventure with 74.76%. The calm state of the city



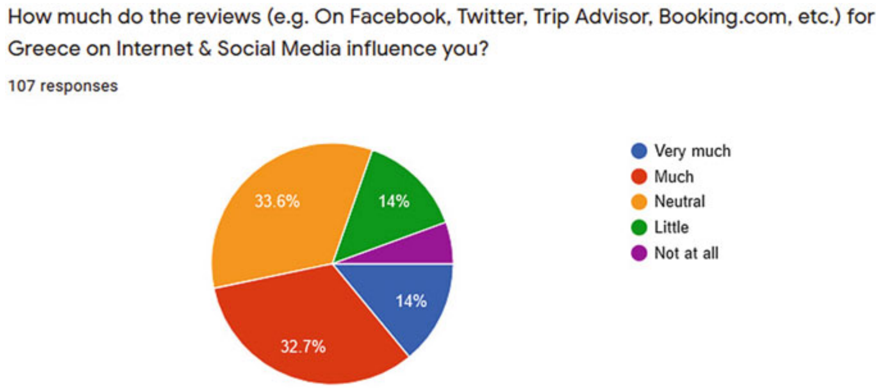
Graph 26 Role of search engines in the promotion and advertising of tourist destinations



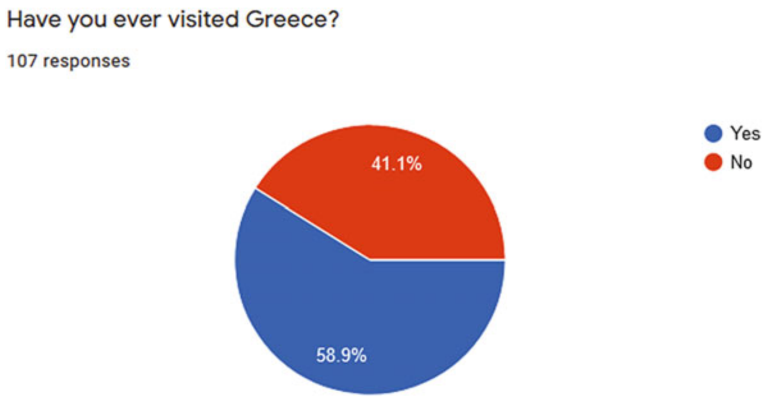
Graph 27 Destination impact score from social media comments

emerged as less important reasons with 58.87% and religion with 23.36% which was the only reason that had a negative balance (11.21%).

Following respondents were asked how they would characterize Greece as a tourist destination based on some statements (Graph 31). Of the 107 respondents, 18.69%



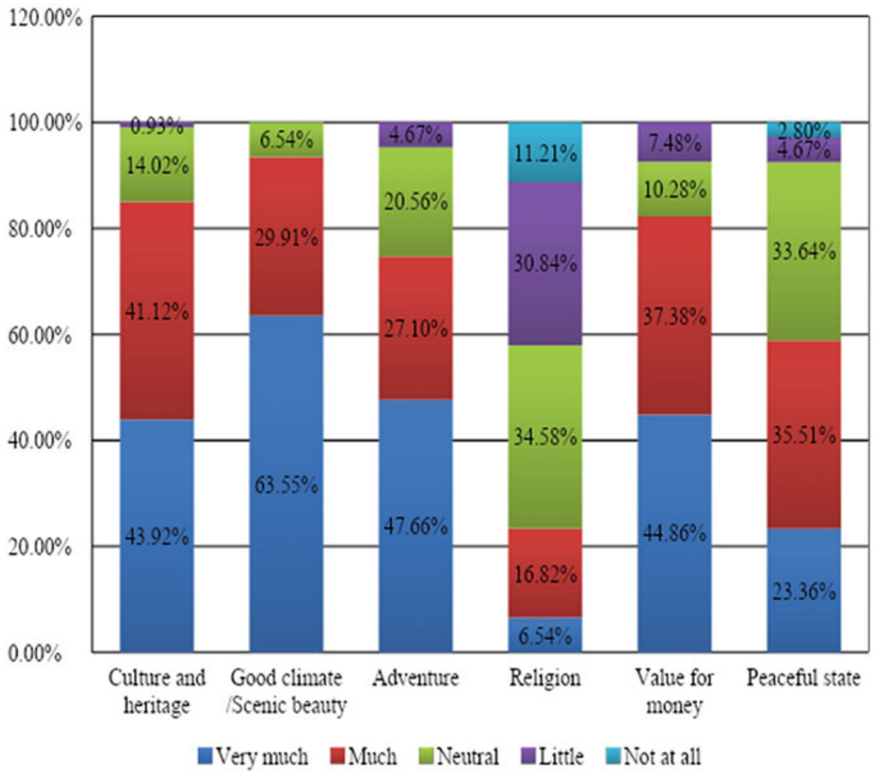
Graph 28 Degree of influence for destination from social media reviews



Graph 29 Visits to Greece by senior tourists

answered that they agree that Greece is a popular destination and 51.40% answered that they quite agree. 25.23% have a neutral opinion and 4.67% disagree. Greece is an attractive destination and 41.12% of the participants fully agree with this statement, while 50.47% quite agree and 8.41% are neutral. With the statement that Greece is a safe destination, 15.89% completely agree, and 44.86% quite agree, while 37.38% are neutral and 1.87% disagree. Of the 107 participants, 66.35% fully agree that Greece has many monuments, while 29.91% agree and 2.8% are neutral. Accordingly, 64.48% fully agree that Greece has many natural attractions, 33.64% agree, and 1.87% are neutral. Finally, 39.25% fully agree with the statement that Greece has a very good climate, 49.53% somewhat agree, and 11.21% are neutral.

In the following question, the respondents were asked to answer whether they would recommend Greece as a tourist destination to someone of their own. 37.4% of the sample answered that it is neither likely nor unlikely, 28% probably suggested it,



Graph 30 Motivating reasons of senior tourists for choosing Greece as a tourist destination

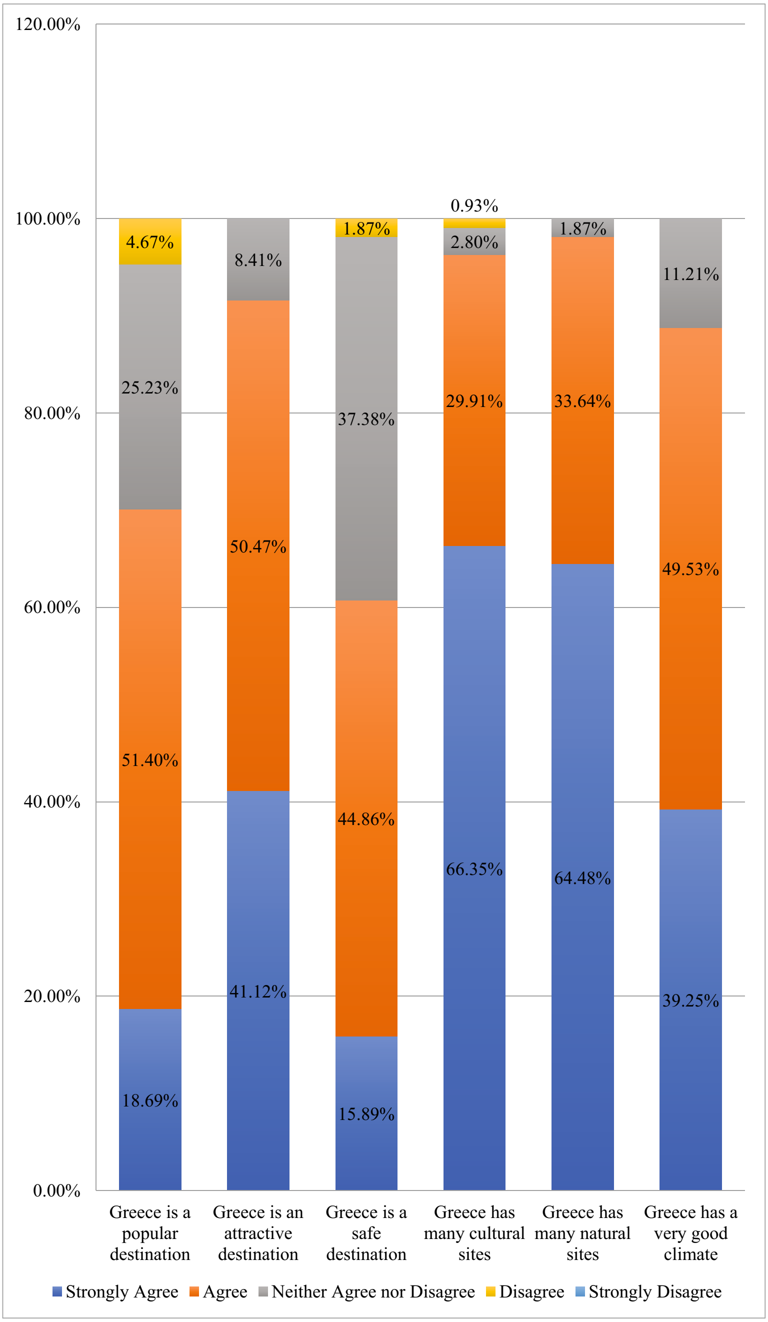
and 24.3% much more likely to suggest it, while 9.3% probably would not suggest it and 0.93% (one person) would not recommend it at all (Graph 32).

Of the 107 participants, 50.5% (54 people) have not visited a country outside their country of permanent residence for medical reasons and/or for reasons of health and well-being, while 49.5% (53 people) answered positively (Graph 33).

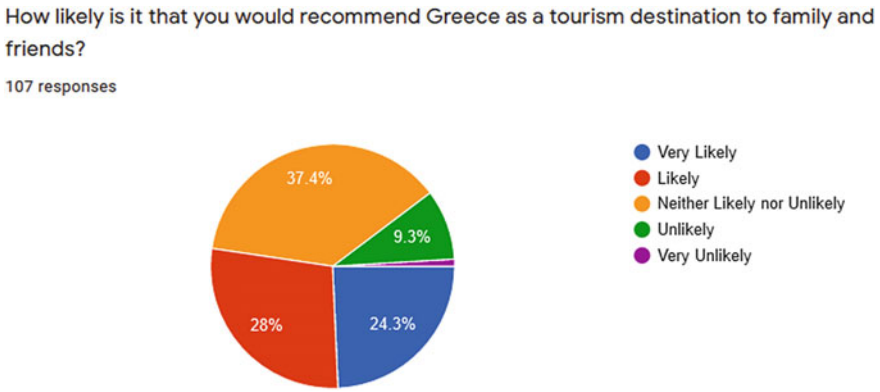
Of the 107 participants, 56.1% (60 people) would consider traveling to Greece for medical reasons and/or for reasons of health and well-being, while 43.9% (47 people) answered negatively (Graph 34).

Of the 107 participants, 66.4% (71 people) view the treatment of COVID-19 by the Greek government positively, while 33.6% (36 people) have not been positively affected (Graph 35).

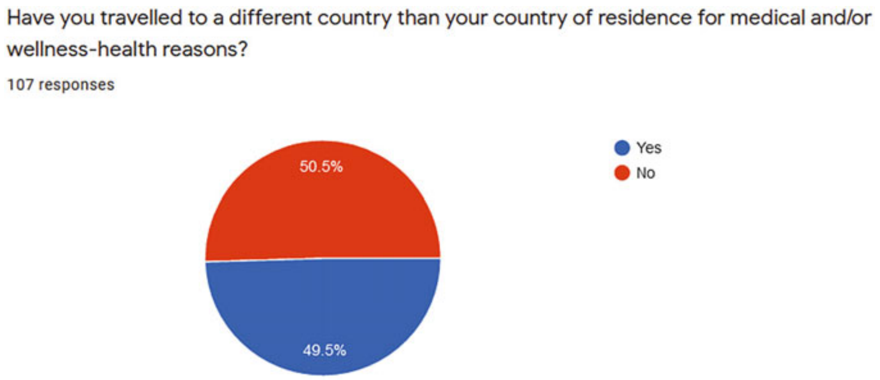
When asked if they would travel to Greece for medical and/or wellness reason, 72 people (67.3%) would travel to Greece for medical purposes or for health and wellness tourism if family or friends suggested it, and 68 people (63.6%) said they would travel if recommended by a qualified or the family doctor. Impressively, 33.6% (36 people) said they would travel if it was suggested by Internet ads. This percentage is probably due to health and wellness reasons more. Also, 35 people



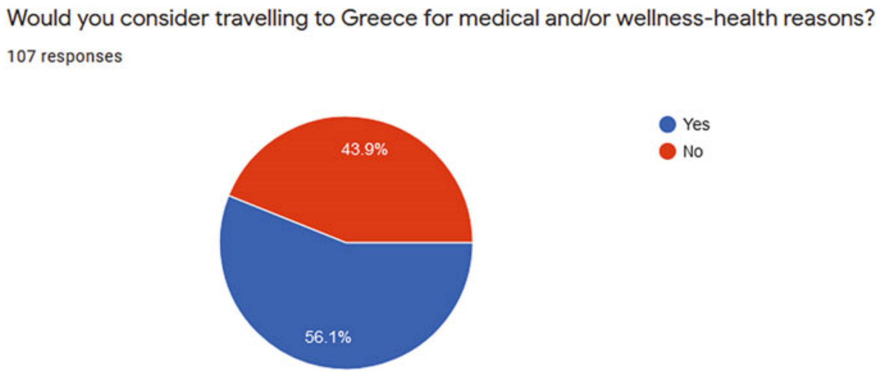
Graph 31 Opinions of senior tourists on Greece as a tourist destination



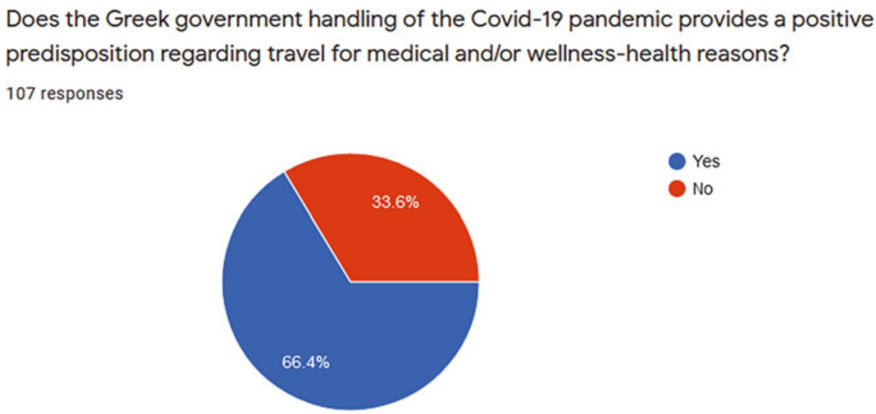
Graph 32 Future recommendation of tourist destination Greece



Graph 33 Percentage of respondents who have or have not traveled to another country for medical and/or health and wellness reasons



Graph 34 Percentage of respondents who would consider traveling or not traveling to Greece for medical and/or health and well-being reasons

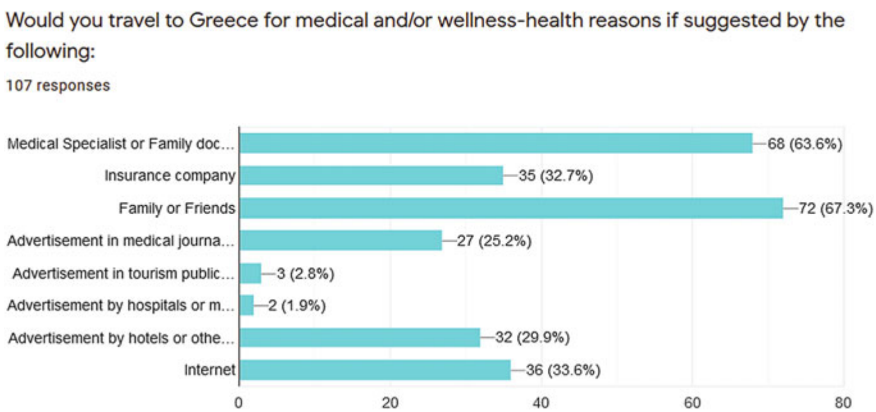


Graph 35 Percentage of respondents who have been positively affected by the Greek Government's handling of COVID-19 and would consider traveling for medical and health and wellness reasons

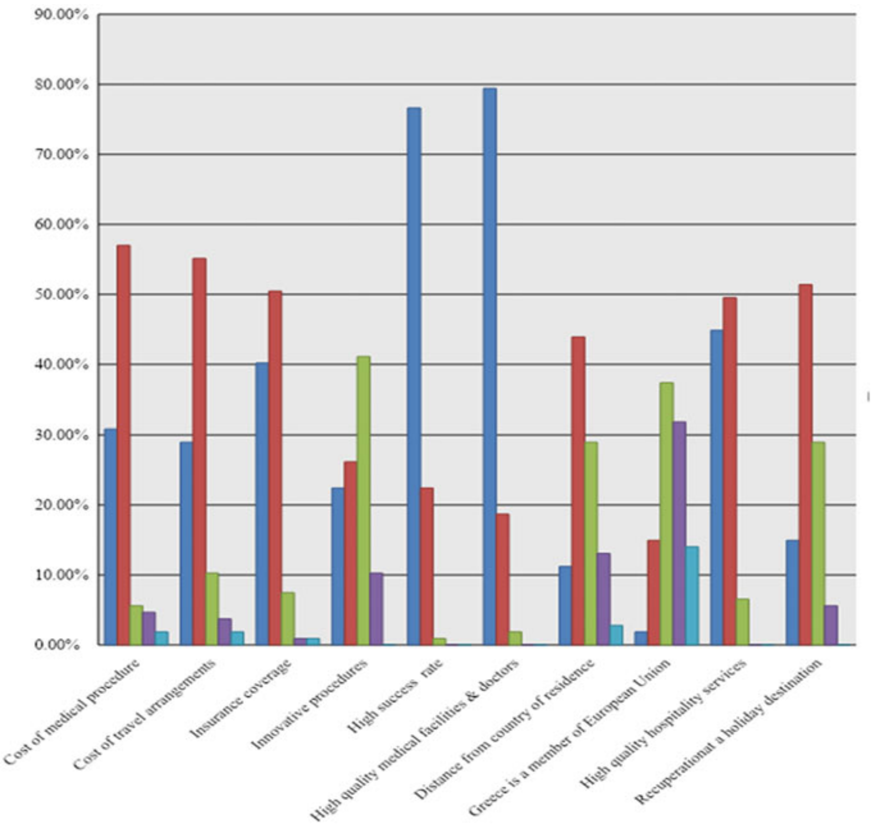
(32.7%) would travel if their insurance company suggested it. Advertisements from hotels (32 people–29.9%), advertisements in medical journals (27 people–25.2%), in magazines and publications of tourist interest (three people–2.8%), and hospital advertisements (two persons–1.9%) follow (Graph 36).

Following respondents were asked how important are the following factors to choose Greece for a medical procedure? Their views are (Graph 37).

- **Cost of medical procedures**. 57% of participants (61 respondents) stated that it is important, 30.84% (33 respondents) very important, 5.61% (6 respondents) are neutral, 4.67% (5 respondents), and 1.87% (2 respondents) stated that it is not particularly important or not at all important, respectively.



Graph 36 Who can affect a trip for medical and/or health and wellness reasons

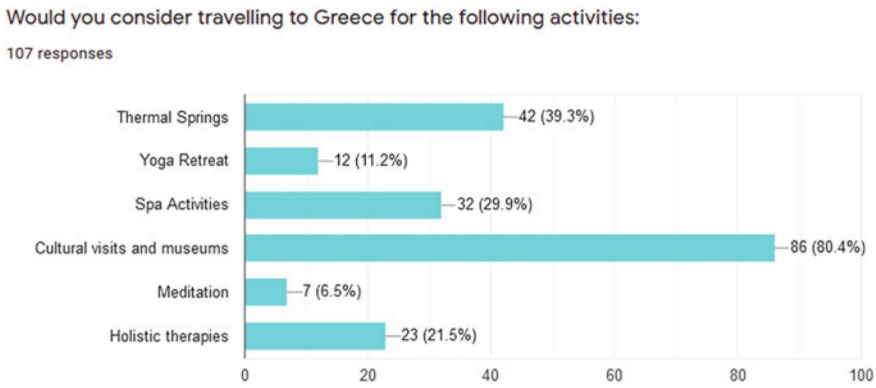


Graph 37 Factors influencing destination choice for medical and/or health and wellness reasons

- **Travel expenses**. 55.14% of the participants (59 respondents) stated that it is important, 28.97% (31 respondents) very important, 10.28% (11 respondents) are neutral, 3.74% (four respondents), and 1.87% (two respondents) stated that it is not particularly important or not at all important, respectively.
- **Insurance coverage**. 50.47% of participants (54 respondents) stated that it is important, 40.19% (43 respondents) very important, 7.48% (eight respondents) are neutral, and 1.87% (two respondents) stated not it is highly important and not at all important.
- **Innovative interventions**. 41.12% of the participants (44 respondents) declared that they are neutral, 26.17% (28 respondents) consider it important, 22.43% (24 respondents) very important, and 10.28% (11 respondents) said not is particularly important.
- **High success rates**. 76.64% of the participants (82 respondents) stated that it is very important, 22.43% (24 respondents) important, while 0.93% (one respondent) is neutral.

- **High-quality hospitals and medical staff**. 79.44% of the participants (85 respondents) stated that it is very important, 18.69% (20 respondents) important and 1.87% (two respondents) are neutral.
- **Distance from the country of permanent residence**. 43.93% of participants (47 respondents) stated that it is important, 28.97% (31 respondents) are neutral, 13.08% (14 respondents) stated that it is not particularly important, 11.21% (12 respondents) very important, and 2.8% (three respondents) not important at all.
- **Greece is a member of the European Union**. 37.38% of the participants (40 respondents) are neutral, 31.78% (34 respondents) stated that it is not particularly important, 14.95% (16 respondents) important, 14.02% (15 respondents) not at all important,, and 1.87% (two respondents) very important.
- **High-quality hosting services**. 49.53% of the participants (53 respondents) stated that it is important, 44.86% (48 respondents) very important and 6.54% (seven respondents) are neutral.
- **Recovery in a tourist destination**. 51.4% of participants (55 respondents) stated that it is important, 28.97% (31 respondents) are neutral, 14.95% (16 respondents) very important, and 5.61% (six respondents) said not is particularly important.

Following participants asked which will be the activities that would affect positively their opinion to travel to Greece. Eighty-six people (80.4% of the participants) answered they would visit Greece to see the museums and archeological sites, 42 participants (39.3%) to visit the thermal springs, 32 participants (29.9%) for spa activities, 23 participants (21.5%) for holistic treatments, 12 participants (11.2%) for yoga activities, and seven people (6.5%) for meditation (Graph 38).



Graph 38 Health and wellness tourism activities

5 Conclusion

In order to better understand the findings of this research, the results will be presented by part, answering the research questions of this paper and reaching overall conclusions.

The demographics section revealed an almost equal participation of men and women, mostly holders of a bachelor's or master's degree, and people from all age groups surveyed, with most being aged 55–70, which shows the dissemination and promotion of research in social networks and participation in online research. The present study elicited responses from all educational levels. Professional activists are more involved because they have more convenience to travel abroad for vacation, even though low or middle economic income represents the largest proportion of participants. The origin of the sample was varied, from many different countries in Europe and outside Europe, and the majority stated that they were married.

The first part of the research carried out concerns the senior tourism market and the preferences and habits of senior tourists, their preferences and habits were also investigated during the difficult period we are going through with the COVID-19 pandemic, giving answers to the first two research questions of this paper: What are the preferences, motivations, and habits of senior tourists and to what extent have they been affected by the COVID-19 pandemic? The findings showed that most of the sample travels between 3 and 5 times a year, while there are several who travel 1–2 times a year and those who travel more than 5 times. Furthermore, it is observed for the duration of the trip that the majority is divided into 4–7 nights and 8–13 nights. This highlights a great opportunity to promote Greece as a short-term vacation destination. In relation to destination preferences, it is observed that the majority choose holidays abroad more than holidays within their country of residence. We would expect that senior tourists would choose their country of permanent residence in order to avoid the hassle of a long journey; however, the findings are positive and create opportunities for senior tourism in Greece.

Regarding the preferences and habits of senior tourists before and during the coronavirus, most participants stated that they generally prefer to travel with their partner/spouse and family, and they maintain the same choices during of the pandemic. The answers for accommodation preference seem to be evenly distributed in all the options asked in the questionnaire with that of budget hotels dominating, while in the same question asked about accommodation preferences during the pandemic, the majority preferred individual residences and almost the rest of the luxury hotels. The findings here are not surprising, as these are seniors who would presumably mostly make these travel companion choices and would be particularly careful about their accommodation during the pandemic.

The main reasons seniors choose to travel are mainly for relaxation and recreation, to visit friends and family, and for adventure. These are the same reasons that seniors would choose to travel during the coronavirus. The majority of participants in our survey, as expected, stated that their mood and intention to travel have been affected by the pandemic, as well as that they place a lot of emphasis on following the basic protection measures to avoid and transmit the COVID-19. As a means of transportation for making a trip during the pandemic, the plane and the car were the two options with the highest concentration of responses.

Regarding the method of booking the trip, it should be emphasized that the majority—almost half of the participants—of the senior tourists choose to organize the trip themselves, while the rest of the sample addresses a travel agency or some other association/group elderly people. Although the percentage is not large, the individual's organizational autonomy is significant in the sense that we would expect it to be related to in-person and online bookings of transport tickets and hotels, so it is concluded that the elderly tourist participants of this research have some understanding of new technology.

The findings highlight that today's senior tourists are influenced by economic factors (offers, value for money) and experiential factors (destination uniqueness and distinctiveness) when choosing a destination, rather than reputation and image has in the viewing media. In fact, this is also confirmed by the parameters that determine their decisions, as the environment of the tourist destination, the entertainment, and the quality of the services offered emerged as the most prevalent. Concluding with the participants' habits and preferences regarding the choice of tourist destination, the participants stated that they would avoid visiting destinations with terrorism threatening their safety or due to weather conditions and pandemic and due to government travel ban/directive of their country.

In the next section of the questionnaire, the third research question is answered, which are the main sources of information of senior tourists, what is their opinion on the role of search engines, and how much they are influenced by social media. The results showed that a large percentage of respondents consult the Internet first and social networks secondarily, but without overriding the information they get from acquaintances and relatives or from travel agencies. For the most part, all participants recognized the importance of the Internet for obtaining and disseminating travel advice and information. However, fewer agreed that you get the right results from search engines and that assisted search helps target brand campaigns. The results showed a use of online media by the respondents–senior tourists to search for information about the place they wish to visit, which is of great interest considering that the research is aimed at senior tourists. It is therefore concluded that the Internet has penetrated into the lives of senior tourists and more and more are acquiring the necessary technological knowledge to use it.

In the next section of the survey which was about Greece as a tourist destination for senior tourists and what is their opinion about this tourist destination, which corresponded to the fourth research question, more than half of the participants answered that they have visited Greece at some point, as they also stated that it is likely to very likely that they have recommended it as a destination to friends and family. Greece as a country has scenic beauty and very good climatic conditions, which emerged as the main reason for senior tourists to visit it, with the strong stock of cultural heritage following immediately after the price–quality ratio and the adventure. Finally, the majority of the sample agreed that Greece is a quite attractive destination with many cultural and natural attractions, with a good climate and quite a popular destination.

In the last section of the research, Greece is examined as a medical destination for the elderly. The fifth and last research question asked was whether health tourism is able to contribute to the sustainable development of the tourist destination and whether Greece can develop into a medical tourism and health tourism destination for senior tourists from all over the world. It is a general admission by all researchers that Greece has the potential to start in the leading medical tourism destinations and gain a large market share but lacks a comprehensive national strategy. Combined with its excellent climatic conditions, cultural heritage, Mediterranean diet, and natural resources, Greece can become a suitable medical tourism destination for international patients. Despite this, there is a limited number of tourist–patients of all ages worldwide who travel for medical purposes and intense competition from neighboring countries.

The results of the primary research brought several issues to the fore. In the question of whether they have ever traveled to another country to receive medical tourism or wellness tourism services, an equal distribution of the sample was noted and in fact in the case of Greece the majority thinks positively of traveling for these reasons. As the main tourism and wellness activities that would motivate them to visit Greece, visits to museums and archeological sites, visits to thermal springs, spa activities, and holistic treatments emerged.

Greece's handling of the pandemic affects a large percentage of respondents (66.4%) positively on a potential trip for medical or wellness reasons. Most of the survey participants stated that they would visit Greece for medical and/or wellness reasons following the suggestion of their family doctor or their friends and relatives. This is where the need for planning promotions and advertisements comes into play. According to the responses of the respondents, advertisements in medical journals, tourism magazines and publications, hospital advertisements, hotel advertisements, and the Internet are used as sources of information and can become means for choosing a medical and health and wellness tourism destination. But it still needs a lot of work for them to stand out further.

Regarding the factors that make Greece a choice for senior tourists for a medical procedure, the most important criteria for choosing a medical tourism destination are the high quality of hospitals and medical staff, high success rates, and the cost of medical procedures and travel expenses. Next comes recovery in a tourist destination, insurance coverage, and high-quality hospitality services. From the answers, we can draw the conclusion that even if the tourist character of a medical tourism destination is largely linked, in the specific product it is not the dominant selection criterion.

Overall, we conclude that Greece is a very attractive destination, which is faced with the challenges of the current state of tourism and tries to cope with the needs of tourists. The aim is to attract capital, investment, and tourists and thus form an attractive image for further economic and political gains.

In this context, the organizations involved have taken several measures as the majority of the sample was positive when asked if they would recommend Greece for vacations to relatives and friends. However, there are still many areas that need to be improved, which are not only related to the quality of tourism products, but also to the ways of promoting tourism products. The relevant authority must understand the needs of the tourists and adjust the products offered accordingly. They must seek and inspire good cooperation between private and public agencies in order to create the best partnership and thus create better conditions. The tourism industry is now very demanding, and competition is fierce. Consumers can obtain information directly. Therefore, those who are fully prepared to cope with the ever-changing market will manage to survive and thrive. This needs continuous study and search for information on consumer needs in order to understand the preferences of senior tourists.

References

Abawi, K. (2008). Qualitative and quantitative research. Retrieved from http://www.gfmer.ch/Medical_education_En/Afghanistan_2008/pdf/Qualitative_quantitative_research_Abawi_Afghanistan_2008.pdf (Πρόσβαση 17.05.21 - 19:10).

Alen, E., Losada, N., & De Carlos, P. (2017). Profiling the segments of senior tourists throughout motivation and travel characteristics. *Current Issues in Tourism, 20*(14), 1454–1469.

Alen, E., Losada, N., & Carlos, P. (2015). Profiling the segments ofsenior tourists throughout motivation and travel characteristics. *Current Issues in Tourism.* https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2015.1007927.

Atkinson, R., & Flint, J. (2001). Accessing hidden and hard-to-reach populations: Snowball research strategies. *Social Research Update, 33*, 1–5.

Balderas-Cejudo, M. A. (2019). Towards a deeper understanding of senior tourists: challenges and opportunities of an emerging market segment. *Journal of Tourism and Heritage Research, 2*(2), 262–277.

Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations, 61*(8), 1139–1170.

Chatziliadou, G., & Constantoglou, M. (2021). New insights in sharing economy during the COVID 19 pandemic. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 9*(5).

Constantoglou, M. (2020). Destination management in Lesvos, Greece. Characteristics, preferences, images, satisfaction and overall experience. *Business Ethics and Leadership, 4*(3), 81–106.

Constantoglou M., & Klothaki T. (2021). How much tourism is too much? Stakeholder's perceptions on overtourism, sustainable destination management during the pandemic of COVID 19 era in Santorini island Greece. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 9*(5).

Constantoglou, M., & Trihas, N. (2020). The influence of social media on the travel behavior of Greek Millennials (Gen Y). *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 8*(2), 10–18.

Dianeosis. (2021). The development of senior tourism and the role.

Fleischer, A., & Pizam, A. (2002). Tourism constraints among israelí seniors. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*(1), 106–123.

Gladwell, N. J., & Bedini, L. A. (2004). In search of lost leisure: The impact of care-giving on leisure travel. *Tourism Management, 25*(6), 685–693.

Horneman, L., Carter, R. W., Wei, S., & Ruys, H. (2002). Profiling the senior traveler: An Australian perspective. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(1), 23–37.

Hossain, A., Bailey, G., & Lubulwa, M. (2003). Characteristics and travel patterns of older Australians: Impact of population ageing on tourism. In *International Conference on Population Ageing and Health: Modeling our Future*. Canberra, Australia.

Hsu, C., Cai, L., & Wong, K. (2007). A model of senior tourism motivations—Anecdotes from Beijing and Shanghai. *Tourism Management, 28*, 1262–1273.

Huang, L., & Tsai, H. T. (2003). The study of senior traveler behavior in Taiwan. *Tourism Management, 24*(5), 561–574.
Huber, D., Milne, S., & Hyde, K. F. (2018). Constraints and facilitators for senior tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 27*, 55–67.
INSETE. (2016). Silver Age Inbound Tourism Profile for European Holidays. Retrieved August 20, 2022, from https://insete.gr/wp-content/uploads/2020/02/%CE%A0%CF%81%CE%BF%CF%86%CE%AF%CE%BB-%CE%B5%CE%B9%CF%83%CE%B5%CF%81%CF%87%CF%8C%CE%BC%CE%B5%CE%BD%CE%BF%CF%85-%CF%84%CE%BF%CF%85%CF%81%CE%B9%CF%83%CE%BC%CE%BF%CF%8D-3%CE%B7%CF%82-%CE%B7%CE%BB%CE%B9%CE%BA%CE%AF%CE%B1%CF%82_.pdf.
Jang, S. C., & Wu, C. M. E. (2006). Senior´stravel, motivation and the influential factors: An examination of Taiwanese senior. *Tourism Management, 27*(2), 306–316.
Kazaminia, A., Del Chiappa, G., & Jafari, J. (2015). Seniors' travel constraints and their coping strategies. *Journal of Travel Research, 54*(1), 80–93.
Lee, S. H., & Tideswell, C. (2005). Understanding attitudes towards leisure travel and the constraints faced by senior Koreans. *Journal of Vacations Marketing, 11*(3), 249–263.
Littrell, M. A., Paige, R. C., & Song, K. (2004). Senior travelers: Tourism activities and shopping behaviors. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(4), 348–362.
Lopes, M. C., Liberato, D., Alén, E., & Liberato, P. (2020, October). The restrictions on travel of elderly tourists and their mitigation by facilitators and negotiation strategies. In *International Conference on Tourism, Technology and Systems* (pp. 470–478). Springer.
Losada, N., Alén, E., Domínguez, T., & Nicolau, J. L. (2016). Travel frequency of seniors tourists. *Tourism Management, 53*, 88–95.
Marshall, E. J. (2014). Adolescent alcohol use: Risks and consequences. *Alcohol and Alcoholism, 49*(2), 160–164.
Mills, G. E., Gay, L. R., & Airasian, P. (2017). *Educational research*. Propompos. ISBN 978-618-5036-30-0.
Moustaka, A., & Constantoglou, M. (2021). Destination image as means of branding and marketing. Evidences from a mountainous city destination in Greece. *Journal of Tourism Management Research, 8*(1), 30–47.
Of health tourism in the post-covid-19 era. Retrieved August 20, 2022, from https://www.dianeosis.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/07/Senior_tourismHealth_tourism.pdf.
Prayag, G. (2012). Senior travelers' motivations and future behavioral intentions: The case of Nice. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 29*(7), 665–681.
Reece, W. S. (2004). Are senior leisure travelers different? *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(1), 11–18.
Santos, M. C., Veiga, C., & Águas, P. (2016). Tourism services: facing the challenge of new tourist profiles. Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes.
Sert, A. N. (2019). Senior tourism in the aging world. In *Theory and practice in social sciences* (pp. 488–498).
Shim, S., Gehrt, K. C., & Siek, M. (2005). Attitude and behavior regarding pleasure travel among mature consumers: A socialization perspective. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 18*(2), 69–81.
Silva, O., Medeiros, T., Moniz, A. I., Tomás, L., Furtado, S., & Ferreira, J. (2020). Tourists' characteristics, travel motivation and satisfaction. In *Advances in tourism, technology and smart systems* (pp. 427–436). Springer.
Stochasis. (2017). Health tourism: Medical tourism, Spa tourism & Wellness tourism. Retrieved August 20, 2022, from https://www.stochasis.com/el/health_tourism2017.
Utama, I. G. B. R. (2016). Senior tourists' travel selection: A structural model development. Heritage, Culture and Society: Research agenda and best practices in the hospitality and tourism industry, 267.

Vigolo, V. (2017). *Older tourist behavior and marketing tools.* Springer International Publishing.

Wang, K. C. (2006). Motivations for senior groups package tour tourists. *Journal of Tourism Studies, 12*(2), 119–138.

World Population Prospects: the 2017 Revision

Zsarnoczky, M., David, L., Mukayev, Z., & Baiburiev, R. (2016). Silver tourism in the European Union. *Geo Journal of Tourism and Geosites, 2*(18), 224–232.

Features of Foreign Working Force for Cypriot Hotel Industry

Volha Yakavenka, Dimitrios Vlachos, Agis M. Papadopoulos, Tomáš Klieštik, Yianna Orphanidou, Leonidas Efthymiou, and Danae Psilla

Abstract Tourism is one of the most important sectors of the Cypriot economy and a key pillar of the country's economic development. Particular the hotel industry creates labor demand that exceeds labor supply where the number of local staff is not sufficient to meet the market needs. Moreover, the phenomenon of the hotel labor market is that the high worker shortage coexists with high unemployment impacting negatively the quality of services offered to customers. Under these circumstances, the hospitality industry's biggest call is to attract, recruit, and retain skilled employees. To fill the bottlenecks, hoteliers resort to labor pools from abroad, mainly EU citizens from Greece and Eastern European countries. This paper represents the results of the industry-based research focusing on the Greek and Slovakian hotel labor market, including but not limited to: (i) elements that impede staff mobility to Cyprus; and (ii) employer and job market characteristics that the ongoing human capital seeks to

V. Yakavenka (✉) · D. Vlachos · A. M. Papadopoulos
Department of Mechanical Engineering, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece
e-mail: vyakaven@auth.gr

D. Vlachos
e-mail: vlachos1@auth.gr

A. M. Papadopoulos
e-mail: agis@auth.gr

T. Klieštik
Department of Finance and Financial Management, University of Zilina, Zilina, Slovakia
e-mail: tomas.kliestik@fpedas.uniza.sk

Y. Orphanidou · L. Efthymiou
School of Business, University of Nicosia, Nicosia, Cyprus
e-mail: orphanidou.y@unic.ac.cy

L. Efthymiou
e-mail: efthymiou.l@unic.ac.cy

D. Psilla
Ernst & Young (PAS), Limassol, Cyprus
e-mail: danae.psilla@cy.ey.com

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_14

find in another country in order to engage in professional mobility. The aim of the research is to understand the features (skills and needs) of the potential employees from those pools which affect the willingness and easy to work in Cyprus. The results have been achieved by receiving information from the supply side that is from the potential candidates who are interested in working in Cyprus hotels, coming from Greece and Slovakia (the second as a typical Eastern European country).

Keywords Hotel industry · Labor market · Foreign working force · Mobility · Features

JEL Classifications J20 · J21 · J22 · J23 · J24 · J44 · J61

1 Introduction

The International Labor Organization (ILO) estimates the number of migrant workers at 169 million worldwide, where 24.2% are in Northern, Southern, and Western Europe, and migrants make up 18.4% of the labor force (ILO, 2021). Most of these workers are engaged in services and they make up a large share (about 16%) in the tourism industry, particularly the hotel and restaurant sector (Zimmer & Dempster, 2020). The tourism industry provides jobs to migrant workers at all skill levels and competencies: e.g., foreign-born skilled workers may provide skills profiles that are unavailable in the local labor market, on the other side low-skilled migrant workers may play a critical role in filling labor supply shortage and can acquire skills through training and work experience abroad (ILO, 2022).

Tourism is one of the most important sectors of the Cypriot economy. In 2019 the country welcomed 4 million tourists with total income from tourism accounted for 13.7% of the country's GDP directly and supported 56,500 jobs or 14% of total jobs (WTTC, 2019). More hotels are being built throughout Cyprus (Chrysostomou, 2017; Efthymiou, 2018), new jobs are created and labor demand exceeds labor supply. The Cypriot hospitality industry depends largely on migrant employees due to the domestic labor market staff shortages that is a major issue and has been of great concern for a prolonged period. To fill the bottlenecks, hoteliers resort to labor pools from abroad, mainly EU citizens from Greece and Eastern European countries.

Tourism is one of the most important sectors of the Greek economy. In 2019, around 116 thousand enterprises operated in the sector and directly employed 678 thousand people, accounting for 17.1% of total employment in the country (INSETE, 2020) that means that nearly one in six people employed working in the tourism sector. Nearly 56.3% of persons employed in tourism work in accommodation and food service activities (about 382 thousand people) (ELSTAT, 2020), where 71% of people employed in low-skilled non-manual occupations and 9.2% of people employed in highly skilled non-manual occupations. About 86% of workers are citizens of Greece, while 14% of people who work in tourism are non-Greek nationals.

The large number of foreign seasonal employees comes in Greece mainly from East-Central European countries that are the members of EU or are neighboring third countries as well (RE-Integration Centre for Migrant Workers, 2011).

East-Central and Southern Europe is a key source regions of labor migrants to the tourism and hospitality sectors. The ten countries–Bulgaria, Czechia, Croatia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, North Macedonia, Serbia–all have tourism frameworks and workforce. The three industries that rely on tourism (accommodation, travel agencies/tour operators, food and beverage) employ over 1.2 million people in the assessed countries (Eurostat, 2021).

This paper addresses the hotel staffing problem and aims to identify factors behind the job seeking in Cypriot hotels by foreign workers to facilitate their mobility, training, and integration in the country when relocating to Cyprus. The main objective of this study is to investigate the features of foreign (Greece and Slovakia as sample countries) working force supply with regard to the demographic characteristics, work experience, education/training related to tourism professions, reasons and factors that influence their decision to move to Cyprus for employment in the field of tourism or hotel. The above research objective is achieved by carrying out two survey studies in Greece and Slovakia to clear the picture with real data and substantiated analysis.

The next section presents a literature review on the topic of labor mobility highlighting the main findings and gaps. This is followed by the methodology section, whereby the survey research method is described. Next, the main findings of the study are discussed based on extensive statistical analysis. Finally, conclusions are drawn.

2 Literature Review

Some countries face skill gaps and recruitment difficulties at local level against the background of the rapid growth of the hospitality industry and its recovery from the COVID-19 crisis. This force them to resort to attracting foreign labor to achieve a balance between supply and demand in the workforce (Lyon & Sulcova, 2009). For Cyprus labor mobility plays a significant role in supplying the hospitality industry's labor market and it is a consequence of many factors. According to Ladkin (2011) labor mobility is one of five dominant tourism labor research themes, and it has been largely overlooked until recent years.

The shortage of workers generates serious problems and has a negative impact on the quality of services offered to customers (Hazou, 2018). Survey data suggests that in Cyprus the number of local staff is not sufficient to meet the increased needs of the industry (Marathovouniotis, 2018). Zopiatis et al. (2014) define three main reasons for employing migrants by Cypriot hospitality managers: «(1) Cypriots' unwillingness to work in the hospitality industry, (2) migrants' specific workplace contributions, and (3) the seasonal nature of the industry that necessitates the employment of migrant». Enhancing the human capital of the receiving economy foreign workers help to meet domestic labor market supply shortages and provide cost minimization in the sector (Joppe, 2012), adding value through their flexibility, cost and work ethic (Lugosi & Ndiuini, 2022). Moreover, in most cases hospitality employers recruit migrant employees with lower salary expectations as a temporary solution to the skills shortage. Also, representing the other cultural background the foreign workers meet better the needs of the tourists with the respective backgrounds.

Managing the multicultural staff, the employers need to develop the effective people management strategies to better utilize the diverse foreign workforce on a proactive basis. For example, to analyze the working requirements prior to recruitment, career opportunities for the employees, training initiatives to develop the necessary competencies (Marneros et al., 2021). Research studies show that most migrant workers are unskilled whereas hotels only provide operational, informal level training to all their migrant workers (Nachmias et al., 2015). Current training standards of seasonal staff are dispersed with no way of ensuring some common basic levels of professional skills and aptitude. On the other hand, investing in education and training of tourism incoming staff and by giving them access to high-level customized training employers provide themselves with a labor force with competencies and skills to deliver services of high quality (Tapescu, 2015).

Attracting migrant employees, the employers need to have an understanding of its quality, motivation, degree of job adaptation and stability (e.g., contracts, working conditions, and pay expectations) (Szivas et al., 2003). Also, the «push–pull framework» that was first formulated by Lee (1966) is of great importance in the migration behavior, in other words the factors that push persons to leave their native country (e.g., underemployment, economic, or political factors) and the reasons that drive them to select the particular destination to migrate to (e.g., carrier opportunities, costs of leaving). Furthermore, some authors (McDowell et al., 2009; Taylor & Finley, 2010) highlight the necessity to study the emotions, feelings, and daily lives of foreign workers as well as their assimilation into the workplace. Last but not least, the provision of information to the foreign workforce (e.g., regarding specificities of the tourism industry, linguistic needs, training targeted to practical hospitality skills, employees and employers details, accommodation provision by employer, etc.) leads to the simplification of recruitment and the drop of hotel staffing shortages, make the industry more transparent and socially responsible.

As shown in the above literature review the issue of foreign working force features and their «push–pull» factors is very complex. Better understanding of migrant expectations and motives would be extremely useful for Cypriot hospitality industry. However, as shown above there are many gaps in the existing literature as well as lack of information from the supply side that is from the potential candidates who are interested in working in hotels in Cyprus. The contribution of our research effort hinges upon the understanding of (i) elements that impede staff mobility to Cyprus, and (ii) employer and job market characteristics that the ongoing human capital seeks to find in another country in order to facilitate mobility and integration into the country. The research is based on real targeted data and analyses the Greek and Slovak labor market, which are the principal pools of employees (the second as a typical Eastern European country) for the tourism industry in Cyprus.

3 Methodology

This study is carried out using empirical research that involves collecting data through in-house questionnaires that were distributed among citizens from the regions of Greece and Slovakia. The aim of the research is to understand the skills and needs of employees who want to work in the hotel industry in relation to the needs of companies and the working conditions provided. In the first stage, the research problem was selected and formulated, as well as the questions and the research process for the collection of empirical evidence were determined. Thus, a questionnaire was designed for which questions-suggestions were created in a comprehensive and concise manner. The questionnaire consists of 35 questions and 16 supplementary questions and is divided into four (4) sections:

- The **1st section** consists of the general questions and includes a total of eight (8) questions that relate more to the demographic characteristics of the respondents (e.g., gender, age, nationality).
- The **2nd section** concerns the work experience of the respondents and investigates: (a) the experience in a tourism company, (b) the current employment status, (c) the job title in the tourism/hotel sector, (d) the years of service as well as the place of work, (f) the factors that would influence more the selection of work. There are a total of twenty one (21) questions in this section.
- The **3rd section**, concerns the education/training related to tourism professions, the reasons for attending the respective programs and their type, and includes eleven (11) questions.
- The **4th section** deals with the issue of job search abroad (in Cyprus) and includes eleven (11) questions on: (a) the reasons why the respondents could immigrate from Greece (Slovakia) to Cyprus for work purposes, (b) the level of gross monthly income at which they would agree to move to Cyprus, (c) the different socio-economic factors/benefits that would influence the respondents' decision to move abroad (in Cyprus), (d) the awareness about the procedure that needs to be followed to register at the Civil Registry and Migration Department (CRMD).

The Respondents who became the sample of the survey answered the questionnaire by checking ("x") the box with which they agreed most. The answers they had to choose are the following:

(i) Yes/No.
(ii) To scale the answers the Likert method was used as a basis by which the respondents could state the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the question.

Also, there was the possibility of developing an alternative answer (with the option "Other") for anyone who wanted to express their opinion. The body of the questions was the same for all participants, however, in some cases, depending on the participant's answer to a question, a supplementary question appeared.

The questionnaire has been distributed electronically among hotel workers and unemployed jobseekers in Greece and Slovakia. Finally, 195 questionnaires and 84 questionnaires have been collected and included in the analysis from Greek and Slovak side, respectively. For the purpose of this study the data was transcribed, coded and imported into SPSS® Statistics software for further analysis.

4 Findings and Discussion

Greece

The survey presented in the previous sections revealed that the majority of the respondents in Greece are women (52%), that is related to the fact that the tourism industry is a major employer of female workers. Nearly two in three persons answered the questionnaire aged 35 to 49 years old with more than half of them were married (57%). Most respondents (36.4%) are persons that completed Higher Technological Educational Institution (TEI) (36.4%), university (22.6%) and post-secondary education (16.4%). English is the dominant foreign language spoken by them, Italian follows as the second choice (35%), other most speaking foreign languages include French (25%), Spanish (9%), and Russian (9%).

About 90% of the persons have working experience in the tourist accommodation sector (hotel units and hotel apartments). Within the respondents, the 62% of people describe their current situation as «employee, employer, self-employed», where the proportion of full-time employment among them accounts for 99%. The unemployed persons (24%) report the temporary character of their work as the main reason (89%) to stop working in the tourism/hotel sector. Nearly one in three respondents work/worked as a receptionist (32.3%). In terms of work experience in the tourism/hotel sector this position along with «cook» tend to be the more stable works with average work experience in the same company reaching to an average of 11–15 years. At the same time 63% of waiters and 49% of receptionists face significant difficulty of finding a job in Greece. Partly for this reason, for the 76% of people the place of their permanent residence is located in the same region as their work. In 64% of cases the main job was found through friends (37%) and ads (27%).

Comparing the results, we observed that the most important factors for employees regarding their job are workplace, working climate, and the recognition of the employee qualifications. The age of the respondents is a statistically significant factor for:

- Working hours ($F = 3.474$, p-value $= 0.017$), which seems more important for people of age 35–49.
- Career development opportunities ($F = 3.705$, p-value $= 0.013$), which seems more important for younger people.
- Ability to provide schooling ($F = 3.653$, p-value $= 0.014$), which seems more important for older people.

Where *F-value* is the Mean Square Regression divided by the Mean Square Residuals. The *p-value* associated with this F-value is the two-tailed probability computed using the t distribution.

As for benefits that employees would prefer to have at their work, we observed that the most important benefits are medical insurance, work insurance, and the existence of a pension plan. The age of the respondents is a statistically significant factor for:

- Medical Insurance ($F = 3.465$, p-value $= 0.017$), which seems more important for people of age 50–65.
- Flexible Working Hours ($F = 2{,}951$, p-value $= 0.034$), which seems more important for younger people.
- Provision of housing ($F = 9.174$, p-value < 0.001), which seems more important also for younger people.

About 87% of respondents completed studies related to tourism that were provided by higher education programs (50.3%), public (16.6%), and private (11.2) Vocational Training Institutes. For those who attended the education/training program the following training methods were reported as the most effective: education for which the employee paid himself (41%) and on-the-job training (36%). At the same time about 23% of persons answered that they need further training to better fulfill their duties. As the result, during the last 12 months 50.3% of respondents have participated in studies, education or training program that does not belong to the formal education system, 90.8% of these studies were related to the work/profession and were attended in workers' free time via distance learning programs (82%).

Looking to the Sect. 4 «Working in Cyprus», more than half of respondents (55.4%) expressed an interest in moving to Cyprus for employment (in the field of tourism or hotel), where about 12% of persons are interested «enough» or «very much». In general, the figures for this sector reflect that people aged 35–49 seem to think more seriously this option, but this preference is marginally not statistically significant ($F = 2.351$, p-value $= 0.074$). The highest level of interest was shown by F & B managers and receptionists, a neutral degree of interest «neither a little nor a lot» was expressed by cooks and waiters. Comparing the results, we observe that the key reasons for moving to Cyprus are low salaries, unemployment in Greece, and political and economic stability, and more than half of the respondents believe that their profession has better prospects in Cyprus (Fig. 1). In addition, the factors that are essential for people moving to Cyprus are cost of living and the ability to save money. The analysis shows that, the average monthly income with which the respondents would agree to move to Cyprus is about €1.601–€1.800. This level of monthly income is expected mostly by cooks and waiters, at the same time receptionists indicate the value from €1.201 to €1.600.

The proportion of those preferring to have a permanent job rather than a temporal job is more than 80% (31.5%–permanent, 49.1%–with an indefinite contract). In case of temporary employment contract the preference is given to the long-term contracts with duration of 36 months or more (27%) and from 18 to less than 24 months (25%). It derives from the fact that tourist accommodation sector in Greece and Cyprus has high seasonal variations that reflect the fluctuations in employment and make tourism

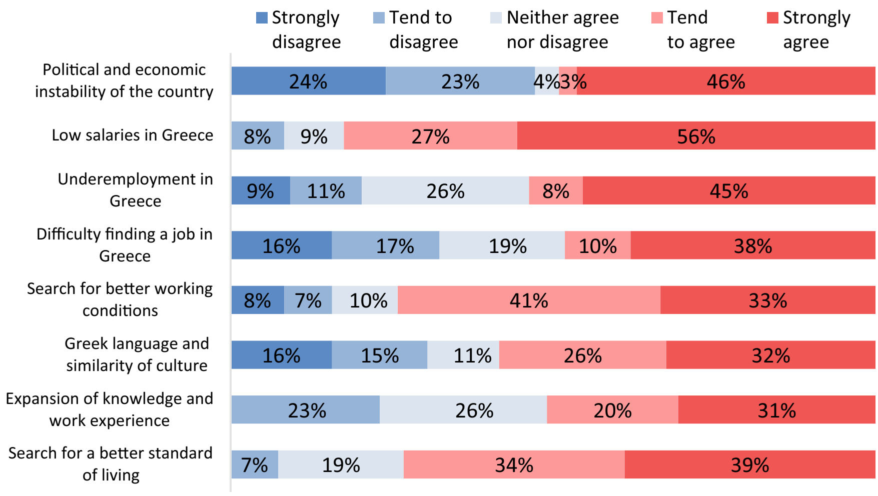


Fig. 1 What are the reasons why you could immigrate from Greece to Cyprus for a work?

unattractive for job seekers. Moving abroad for a work in tourism sector the potential employees prefer to have a permanent job or to sign a long-term contract to ensure stable work conditions and the opportunity for professional development.

Slovakia

Since the tourist accommodation sector is a major employer of women, on average 71% of the respondents in Slovakia are women. It is well-known that both the hotels and restaurants sector as a whole and the tourist accommodation sector offer job opportunities to a young workforce. Indeed, 69% of respondents are under 35 years old: with 35.7% of persons aged 18–24 and 33.3% aged 25–34 Slovakia has a younger age profile than Greece. That is the reason for a remarkable share of persons who declare their marital status as «single». Most respondents in Slovakia (27.4%) are persons with a lower level of education (secondary), following by holders of Master's diploma (26.2%) and graduates of Higher education institutions (23.8%). English is also the dominant foreign language spoken by them, Czech follows as the second choice (72%), other most speaking foreign languages include German (49%) and Russian (37%).

About 46% of persons have working experience in catering unit and 37% in the tourist accommodation sector (hotel units and hotel apartments). Within the respondents, 60% of people describe their current situation as «employee, employer, self-employed», where the proportion of full-time employment among them accounts for 84%. The unemployed persons (12%) report the temporary character of their work as the main reason (40%) to stop working in the tourism/hotel sector. Nearly one in three respondents work/worked as a waiter (36.9%). Due to a fact, that under-35s make up about two-thirds of the respondents, in most cases the average work experience in the tourism/hotel sector is from 1 to 4 years (44%) or less than 1 year

(31%). At the same time 32% of waiters face significant difficulty of finding a job in Slovakia. Partly for this reason, for 71% of people the place of their permanent residence is located in the same region as their work. In 49% of cases the main job was found through friends and ads (24%), while the direct communication with employers brought the job to 13% of respondents.

Comparing the results, we observe that the most important factors for employees regarding their job are method of administration from the leadership, recognition of the employee qualifications and career development opportunities. As for benefits that employees would prefer to have at their work, we observe that the most important benefits are medical insurance, flexible working hours, and the existence of a pension plan.

Only 39% of respondents completed studies related to tourism that were provided by higher education programs (60.6%), secondary vocational school (12.1%) and seminars (12.1%). For those who attended the education/training program the following training methods were reported as the most effective: on-the-job training (37%) and training paid for or provided by employer (29%). Additionally, 35% of those polled admitted that professional training helped them to improve the way they worked. At the same time about 19% of persons answered that they need further training to better fulfill their duties. As the result, during the last 12 months 25% of the respondents have participated in studies, education or training program that does not belong to the formal education system, 67% of those studies were related to the work/profession and were attended in workers' free time via distance learning programs (67%).

Looking to the Sect. 4 «Working in Cyprus», less than half of respondents (44.1%) expressed an interest in moving to Cyprus for employment (in the field of tourism or hotel), where about 14.3% of persons are interested «enough» or «very much». Comparing the results, we observe that the key reasons for moving to Cyprus are search for better standards of living, search for better working conditions and low salaries, moreover about 78% of the respondents believe that their profession has better prospects in Cyprus. In addition, the respondents in Slovakia prioritize the same factors that are essential for moving to Cyprus as the Greeks, namely: the cost of living and the ability to save money (Fig. 2).

The analysis shows that, the average monthly income with which the respondents would agree to move to Cyprus is about €1.401– €1.600. The proportion of those preferring to have a permanent job rather than a temporal job is more than 86% (45.9%–permanent, 40.5%–with an indefinite contract). In case of temporary employment contract the preference is given to the long-term contracts with duration of 36 months or more (29.7%).

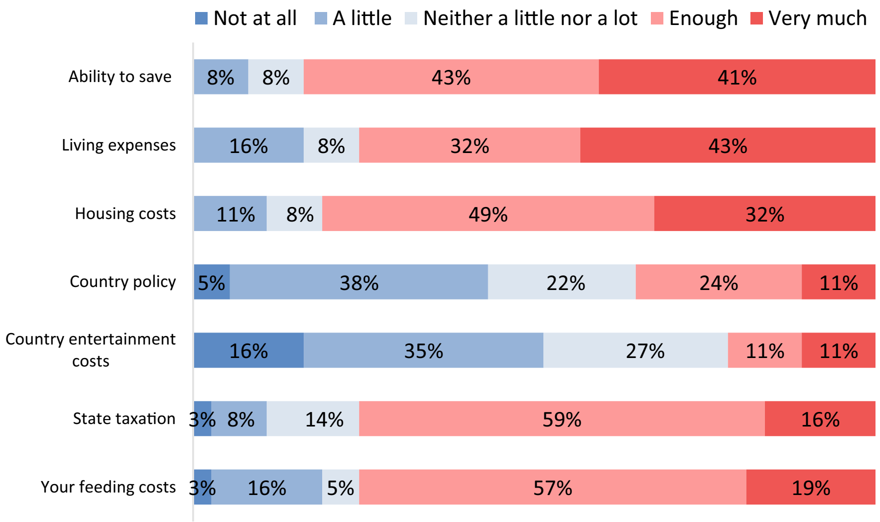


Fig. 2 Evaluate how important the following factors would be if you were offered the opportunity to work in Cyprus?

5 Conclusion

An important part of the Cypriot hospitality industry are foreigners coming mainly from Greece and Eastern European countries. This paper was intended to enrich the existing knowledge related to the employment of migrants in the Cyprus hospitality industry. The mapping of the characteristics of this workforce was presented by conducting industry-based research in Greece and Slovakia among hotel workers and unemployed people looking for related work. The results revealed that the main factors that push persons to leave their native country and move for a work to Cyprus are low salaries, unemployment, political and economic instability. While the main reasons that drive them to select this destination are cost of living, the ability to save money and the belief that in Cyprus they will have better professional opportunities. Given that in most cases the seasonality in the hotel industry becomes the main reason of unemployment, the potential employees prefer to have a permanent job or to sign a long-term contract to ensure stable work conditions and the opportunity for career development.

Summing up, the integrated solution should be provided to address the existing hotel staffing problem. To this end, the development of an online platform with the main target group being hotel candidate employees could enable easy job finding in hotels, facilitate mobility and integration in the country, make easily available specialized (online and on site) trainings for the hotel industry, and have a positive impact on economic growth and social welfare of Cyprus. Reflecting the findings of this research and considering the demand side of things as well, the «Intelligent platform for providing Staffing and Training in the Hotel Industry» (INSTANT) will be created as a one stop shop for hotel recruitment, vocational training, and integration into the country, making recruitment faster, easier and accessible, and covering all services necessary for any person interested to move to Cyprus for the hotel industry. The INSTANT platform intends to offer matching capabilities, content input, dropdown menus including job listings, accommodation listings, interactive migration information guidance, live communication and interaction, multiple user facilitation. A learning space platform which will be incorporated in the wider INSTANT platform will host and facilitate online trainings with a synchronous and an asynchronous component establishing a scientific and structured link between recruitment needs and training requirements.

Acknowledgements This study has been fully supported by the RESTART 2016-2020 Program of the Research and Innovation Foundation of Cyprus under the project [INTEGRATED/0918/0006] "Intelligent platform for providing Staffing and Training in the Hotel Industry" (INSTANT).

References

Chrysostomou, A. (2017). *Grand development plans for Larnaca*. Cyprus Mail. Retrieved from http://cyprus-mail.com/2017/03/07/grand-development-plans-larnaca/.

Efthymiou, L. (2018). Worker body-art in upper-market hotels: Neither accepted, nor prohibited. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 74*, 99–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.02.012

ELSTAT. (2020). *Ετήσιες χρονοσειρές Ερευνας Εργατικού Δυναμικού από το*. Retrieved from https://www.statistics.gr/el/statistics/-/publication/SJO03/-.

Eurostat. (2021). *Annual detailed enterprise statistics for services (NACE Rev. 2 H-N and S95)*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/structural-business-statistics/data/database

Hazou, E. (2018). *Shortage of qualified workers holding back tourism industry*. Cyprus Mail Online. Retrieved from https://cyprus-mail.com/2018/03/27/shortage-qualified-workers-holding-back-tourism-industry/.

ILO. (2021). *ILO global estimates on international migrant workers—Results and methodology—Third edition*. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/@publ/documents/publication/wcms_808935.pdf.

ILO. (2022). *The future of work in the tourism sector: Sustainable and safe recovery and decent work in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic*. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---sector/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_840403.pdf.

INSETE. (2020). *Η συμβολή του Τουρισμού στην ελληνική οικονομία το 2019*.

Joppe, M. (2012). Migrant workers: Challenges and opportunities in addressing tourism labour shortages. *Tourism Management, 33*(3), 662–671. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.07.009

Ladkin, A. (2011). Exploring tourism labor. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*(3), 1135–1155. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.03.010

Lee, E. S. (1966). A theory of migration. *Demography, 3*(1), 47–57. https://doi.org/10.2307/2060063

Lugosi, P., & Ndiuini, A. (2022). Migrant mobility and value creation in hospitality labour. *Annals of Tourism Research, 95*, 103429. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2022.103429

Lyon, A., & Sulcova, D. (2009). Hotel employer's perceptions of employing eastern european workers: A case study of Cheshire UK. *Tourism Culture & Communication, 9*(1), 17–28. https://doi.org/10.3727/109830409787556648

Marathovouniotis, S. (2018). *Hoteliers complain about staff shortage*. In-Cyprus. Retrieved from https://in-cyprus.com/news/local/hoteliers-complain-staff-shortage/.

Marneros, S., Papageorgiou, G., & Efstathiades, A. (2021). Examining the core competencies for success in the hotel industry: The case of Cyprus. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 28*, 100303. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2021.100303

McDowell, L., Batnitzky, A., & Dyer, S. (2009). Division, segmentation, and interpellation: The embodied labors of migrant workers in a greater London hotel. *Economic Geography, 83*(1), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-8287.2007.tb00331.x

Nachmias, S., Johnston, A., & Meade, C. (2015). *Migrant workers and human resource development practices in the hotel sector: A case of Cyprus*. Retrieved from http://irep.ntu.ac.uk/id/eprint/30017/1/PubSub7469_Nachmias.pdf.

RE-Integration Centre for Migrant Workers. (2011). *Trafficking for labour in Greece*.

Szivas, E., Riley, M., & Airey, D. (2003). Labor mobility into tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(1), 64–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00036-1

Tapescu, A. I. M. (2015). Romanian versus Bulgarian tourism labour market analysis. *Procedia Economics and Finance, 27*, 375–384. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(15)01009-6

Taylor, M., & Finley, D. (2010). Acculturation, assimilation, and retention of international workers in resorts. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 22*(5), 681–692. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596111011053800

WTTC. (2019). *Travel & tourism —Economic impact 2019 Cyprus*. Retrieved from https://wttc.org/Research/Economic-Impact.

Zimmer, H., & Dempster, C. (2020). Migrant workers in the tourism industry: How has COVID-19 affected them and what does the future hold? *COMPAS Blogs*. Retrieved from https://www.compas.ox.ac.uk/2020/migrant-workers-in-the-tourism-industry-how-has-covid-19-affected-them-and-what-does-the-future-hold/.

Zopiatis, A., Constanti, P., & Theocharous, A. L. (2014). Migrant labor in hospitality: The Cyprus experience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 37*, 111–120. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.11.002

Developing and Enhancing Emotional Intelligence in the Tourism Sector: The Role of Transformative Learning

Sofia Kallou, Aikaterini Kikilia, Michail Kalogiannakis, and Nick Z. Zacharis

Abstract A growing body of research in recent years has supported the incremental value of Emotional Intelligence in the contemporary business field. In this context and taking into consideration that Emotional Intelligence can be improved through training, the aim of this research is to investigate whether Emotional Intelligence education and training focusing in the tourism sector, through digital learning environments and implementing Transformative Learning, has distinct outcomes compared to the traditional lecture method. In this context, the purpose of this paper is to investigate the development and enhancement of Emotional Intelligence and the role of Transformative Learning theory on learners' outcomes focusing to the tourism sector. According to the findings, we can conclude that Transformative Learning is an effective and valuable teaching and learning adult theory for the tourism education and training, since it has a positive impact on Emotional Intelligence improvement and on the personal development of tourism employees and executives.

Keywords Emotional intelligence training · Transformative learning · Tourism education · Digital learning environments · Online education

JEL Classifications L8: Industry studies: Services · L83: Sports · Gambling · Restaurants · Recreation · Tourism · Z3 tourism economics · Z32: Tourism and development

S. Kallou (✉) · A. Kikilia
Department of Tourism Management, Faculty of Administrative Economic and Social Sciences, University of West Attica, Athens, Greece
e-mail: skallou@uniwa.gr

A. Kikilia
e-mail: akikilia@uniwa.gr

M. Kalogiannakis
Department of Preschool Education, Faculty of Education, University of Crete, Crete, Greece
e-mail: mkalogian@uoc.gr

N. Z. Zacharis
Department of Informatics and Computer Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of West, Attica, Athens, Greece
e-mail: nzach@uniwa.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_15

1 Introduction

The development of emotional abilities is considered of outmost importance determining the way an individual behaves, makes decisions, communicates, and manages relationships (Kikilia et al., 2022). In a constantly changing and growing tourism sector, emotional intelligent employees have a crucial role. Interacting authentically with customers leads to customers' satisfaction, loyalty, and business productivity.

Considering the growing demand for employees and executives that can satisfy customer needs and meet their expectations, the need for EI training programs in the tourism sector becomes imperative (Koc, 2019).

In this context, taking into consideration that unlike IQ, EI (or EQ) can be developed and enhanced through training and education, this research investigates the development and enhancement of Emotional Intelligence focusing on employees and executives in the tourism industry (Salovey et al., 2002). More specifically, two training programs were implemented to two separate groups utilizing either Transformative Learning or traditional teaching methods, through online learning environments. According to Mezirow's theory, the adaption of Transformative Learning leads learners to transform their past perspectives and dysfunctional beliefs and change through critical reflection and rational discourse (Mezirow, 2000).

Web conferencing technologies are utilized in this training program providing presence, immediate feedback, flexibility, and interaction (Kallou et al., 2022b; Vlassopoulou et al., 2021).

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the development and enhancement of EI and the role of Transformative Learning theory on learners' outcomes focusing on the tourism sector.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a valuable concept in the field of psychology and business and it includes a critical set of skills and abilities linked to personal development and success.

EI (Kallou et al., 2022a) is referred to the ability of an individual to identify, use and evaluate emotions in oneself and others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). EI has been correlated to job performance, job satisfaction, leadership, effective communication, relieved stress, and low counterproductive work behavior (Samanta & Kallou, 2020; Goleman & Cherniss, 2001).

Furthermore, EI plays a particular role in tourism business as service quality is dependent on tourism employees' performance and the interactions they have with customers, colleagues, and supervisors (Darvishmotevali et al., 2018; Kikilia et al., 2022). Tourism employees, with an elevated level of EI, communicate effectively with customers, anticipating their needs and satisfying them, influencing on their intention to return. Additionally, they contribute to the improvement of service delivery leading to growth in profits of the tourism business (Kallou et al., 2022a; Koc, 2019). Consequently, EI is a determinant factor for tourism employees achieving better performance results, contributing at the same time to a positive working climate (Darvishmotevali et al., 2018; Kallou et al., 2022a; Koc, 2019).

In this context, focusing on the development and training of EI in tourism employees implementing innovative training programs and educational strategies is of outmost importance since it contributes to the upgrade of the provided services and high business productivity (Kikilia et al., 2022).

2.2 Transformative Learning

Transformative Learning (TL) is a widely accepted adult learning theory outlined by Mezirow. TL refers to how the learning process can transform learners past perspectives and points of view, encouraging critical reflection and rational discourse (Mezirow, 2000). The implementation of TL leads learners to assess their assumptions and deeply held beliefs and transform their personal perspectives, beliefs and attitudes, contributing to their personal development (Mezirow & Taylor, 2009).

The integration and the effect of TL in the tourism field has been acknowledged by the researchers as it plays a vital role including a great variant of activities (Chao, 2017).

Additionally, the implementation of TL into tourism education leads individuals to re-evaluate their perspectives that no longer serve them, shifting their points of view through critical reflection and flourishing in an antagonistic working environment such as the tourism sector (Kallou & Kikilia, 2021; Stone & Duffy, 2015).

Furthermore, the implementation of the student-centered TL theory in the tourism education and training can provide retention and enhanced educational results compared to the traditional and teacher centered lecture method (Uyanik, 2016).

3 Aim of the Study and Research Questions

The aim of the research is to investigate whether EI education and training focusing in the tourism sector, through digital learning environments, implementing TL, has distinct outcomes compared to the traditional lecture method. The research questions of this study include:

(1) Can EI be developed and enhanced through training?
(2) Has the training program met the expectations of the participants?
(3) What is the role of TL as a learning and teaching method?

4 Methodology

Capturing the details of the data, this research emphasized in mixed methods collecting quantitative and qualitative data, for a more detailed analysis (Creswell et al., 2004).

The survey conducted in two (2) groups (Fig. 1):

- group A, the experimental group, which TL was implemented
- group B, the control group, which the lecture method was implemented.

The EI training program through digital learning environments included 8 courses for each group, of 1.30 h each.

This paper is a small part of an extensive research that is in progress. The first results from this research will be presented in this paper. More specifically, an EI questionnaire was given to the participants at the beginning and at the end of the survey, measuring EI. This research has principally focused on the short form of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form–TEIQue-SF (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). More specifically, TEIQue-SF was utilized as it is appropriate for EI training programs (O'Connor et al., 2019). TEIQue-SF contains 30 questions, and its validity and reliability are verified by a huge number of studies. A 7-point Likert scale was used, ranging from 1 (I strongly disagree) to 7 (I strongly agree) (Siegling et al., 2015). TEIQue-SF global factor, for each of the participants was calculated on a 1 to 7 scale per the TEIQue-SF scoring key held by Petrides at London Psychometric Laboratory, University College London (http://www.psychometriclab.com) (Petrides, 2009).

Data from the questionnaire survey was processed using the SPSS v.21.

Furthermore, as the required data includes perceptions of the participants, it is obvious that primary data is needed. These perceptions concern views and opinions which cannot be measured quantitatively in a structured questionnaire. More particularly, for each question, answers of all participants will be gathered, and common points and different views will be analyzed.

Consequently, participants are free to reveal their perceptions on open-ended questions measuring parameters of the implemented methodology. The required data from the interviews, includes estimations and expectations about the implemented training program.

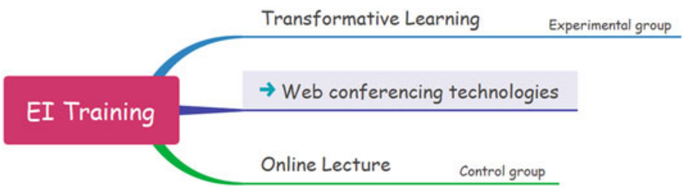


Fig. 1 EI training program in the tourism sector

In the present analysis, codes are produced in combination with sections of text and a connection is made with the conceptual categories of the research implementing open coding method (Cohen et al., 2007).

5 Results

5.1 Research Sample

The current research sample consisted of 50 undergraduate and postgraduate students of the Department of Tourism Management of the University of West Attica, Greece with working experience as employees or executives. More specifically, the sample of the experimental group consisted of 24 participants while the sample of the control group consisted of 26 participants.

The research conducted in accordance with the principles which ensure and define the ethical rules (Petousi & Sifaki, 2020). More specifically, ethical approval was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of West Attica (number of approval: 17341 - 23/02/2022).

Considering the experimental group, 41.67% were male and 58.33% were female. Concerning their age, 50% were between the age of 18–28, 20.83% were between the age of 29–39, 16.67% were between the age of 40–49, and 12.50% were between the age of 50 and above. Concerning the educational level, about 58.33% were undergraduate students and 41.67% were postgraduate students. All participants had working experience. Concerning their working position, 70.83% were employees, and 29.17% were managers.

Considering the control group, 24.14% were male and 65.52% were female. Concerning their age, 41.38% were between the age of 18–28, 13.79% were between the age of 29–39, 27.59% were between the age of 40–49, and 6.90% were between the age of 50 and above. Concerning the educational level, about 34.48% were undergraduate students and 55.17% were postgraduate students. All participants had working experience. Concerning their working position, 65.52% were employees, and 24.14% were managers.

5.2 Emotional Intelligence Training Results

Considering the responses of students measuring EI and according to the results, we conclude that EI has improved in both groups.

More specifically, in the initial measurement of EI in group A, we have noticed an average value of 4.98 points in conjunction with the final measurement of an average value of 5.45 points. That means a difference in improvement value of 0.47 points.

Table 1 TEIQue-SF scores

	Global Trait Group A (n = 24)	Global Trait Group B (n = 26)
Start of the program	4.98	5.08
End of the program	5.45	5.46
Improvement value	0.47	0.37

On the other hand, in the initial measurement of EI in group B, we have noticed an average value of 5.08 points in conjunction with the final measurement of an average value of 5.46 points. That means a difference in improvement value of 0.37 points. (Table 1).

- Based on the above results, the training program which utilized TL theory (group A) seems to have higher improvement outcomes of EI than the training program based on the lecture method (group B).

.

5.3 *Qualitative Analysis*

The qualitative analysis concerns the research questions which have already been posed. A variety of themes emerged from the interviews regarding participants' perceptions about the EI training program implemented.

The interview consisted of 4 related questions according to relevant research questions. The interview questions content was labeled by a code (Fig. 2).

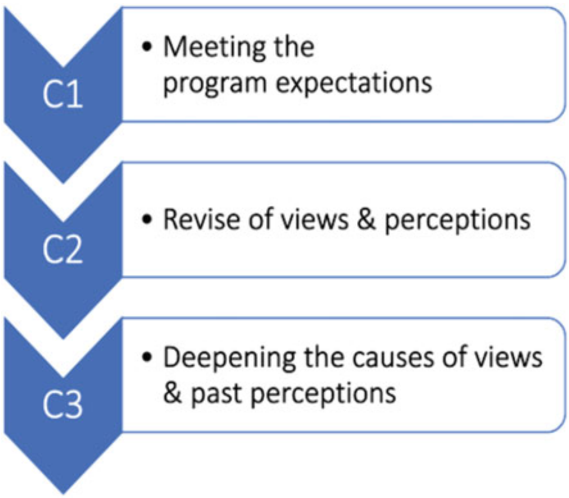


Fig. 2 Code labeling of the interview questions content

Results are presented in the next paragraphs.

C1: Meeting the program expectations

The first question, before the program starts, deals with the expectations from the EI training program: (Q1. What are your expectations from this program?).

The majority of the participants in the experimental group (group A) have expectations regarding the use of EI at work (12 out of 24). A large percentage considers it as an interesting and original topic that gives a new perspective (10 out of 24). A significant percentage have expectations regarding relations with others and understanding them (9 out of 24). Several participants also want to improve their EI and develop as individuals (7 out of 24). Also, six participants have expectations related to knowledge about EI and 2 participants have expectations related to understanding and controlling emotions. One participant has elevated expectations. The majority of the participants in the control group (group B) have expectations regarding knowledge about EI (15 out of 26), while a significant percentage has expectations regarding relationships with others (14 out of 26). Several of them have expectations related to the application of EI at work (11 out of 26), while in a smaller percentage are the expectations related to personal development (7 out of 26), the interest in the subject (7 out of 26) the processing, understanding, and managing of emotions (3 out of 26).

After completing the training program, the participants were asked if this program met their expectations: (Q2. Did this program meet your expectations?).

All participants in the experimental group which TL was implemented, met their expectations about the training program. The majority of the participants was satisfied to the highest degree (13 out of 24). Also, a significant percentage (8 out of 24) was also satisfied to a remarkably high degree.

All the participants in the control group met their expectations about the training program too. Most of the participants in the control group satisfied their expectations regarding the program to the highest degree (8 out of 26) and to a remarkably high degree (6out of 26), while a small percentage (5 out of 26) were quite satisfied.

- Based on the above, and regarding the research question 1, we can conclude that most of the participants in the experimental group were to a much greater extent satisfied regarding their expectations from the program, compared to the participants in the control group.

C2: Revision of views and perceptions

The 3rd question deals with revising opinions and perceptions of the participants: (Q3. Did the program help you revise your opinions and perceptions about emotions in the working environment?).

The majority of the participants (21 out of 24) of the experimental group which TL was implemented, considered that the training program helped them revise their opinions and perceptions regarding the significant role of EI, and the role of emotions in the tourism industry. Respondents have described perceptions related to the fact that the employee should not bring his/her emotions to work, which were replaced by views that focus on the significant role that emotions play in the workplace. The respondents have realized that emotions should be expressed at work and that they are an integral part of it. Additionally, they understood that they should also manage them properly, using empathy, to improve their relationships with clients, colleagues, and supervisors. The use of constructive dialogue and effective communication among participants is particularly important for a better cooperation. Cultivating cooperation and trust in the tourism sector was considered of paramount importance by the participants. These views have triggered dysfunctional attitudes, which had been established by old perceptions.

Through the participation in groups and based on participants experiences, and in combination with the rational dialogue, which was developed, the perception that the supervisors should be harsh, distant, and strict, without considering any feelings, was abandoned. This perception was replaced by the one that supervisors can use emotional information and operate with empathy.

The majority of the participants of the control group (15 out of 26) considered that the training program assisted them to revise opinions and perceptions related to the role of emotions and their better control at work, the relationships with colleagues and supervisors, and the way they interact with others using empathy. Participants, also, changed their perspectives, in terms of managing conflicts with others and improved even their personal relationships. The program did not help a significant number of participants to revise their opinions and perceptions about the role of emotions in the workplace (10 out of 26). One participant didn't have any stereotypes (1 out of 26).

- Based on the above, we can conclude that most of the participants in the training program which TL was implemented were helped to change their opinions and perceptions. The dialogue and critical thinking, developed during the exchange of views during the discussions in virtual teams, helped participants abandon a wide range of old and dysfunctional perceptions and replace them with new, more functional perceptions. On the other hand, the participants of the control group were helped to change their opinions and perceptions, to a lesser extent, and there was also a significant percentage that was not helped.

Consequently, the participants in the program which TL was implemented (the experimental group) revised their views and their perceptions to a much greater extent in relation to the control group.

C3: Deepening the causes of views and past perceptions

The 4th question deals with deepening into the causes of old views and perceptions: (Q4. Did the program help you delve into the deep causes of opinions and perceptions?).

The majority of the participants in the experimental group (18 out of 24) which TL was implemented, considered that the program helps them get to the root causes of their views and perceptions. More specifically, through interaction, dialogue, and the experiences of the other participants in the virtual teams, they reflected on and identified the causes of these perceptions. These old mindsets were based on experiences from the family, and the society, which convey stereotypes and they do not particularly focus on the importance of emotions. The old mindsets that had been cultivated about emotions and passed down from generation to generation resulted in the creation of these perceptions.

In addition, the education system, which does not focus as much as it should on the role of emotions, and past experiences or little work experience have also played a role. The participants also considered that personality factors also play a role.

On the other hand, the majority of the participants of the control group (18 out of 26) considered that the program did not help them penetrate the deep causes of their views and perceptions. A few of the participants (6 out of 26), who were helped to penetrate the deep causes of their perceptions, believe that childhood experiences and the fact that school does not pay much attention to emotions, play a role.

- Based on the above, we can conclude that the vast majority of the participants in the program which TL was implemented as a learning theory (group A), was deeply penetrated in the causes of past assumptions and perceptions. The dialogue and critical thinking developed during the exchange of views in the discussions in virtual teams helped to delve deeper into the causes of the dysfunctional perceptions. On the other hand, the vast majority of the participants in the control group did not investigate further the causes of the opinions and past perceptions (Table 2).

Table 2 Summary of interview findings

Questions	Codes	Group A (experimental)	Group B (control)
Before the program starts			
1. What are your expectations from this program	C1	Relationships, use of EI, interesting topic, improving EI, emotions	Knowledge about EI, relationships, use of EI, personal development, emotions, personal development
At the end of the program			
2. Did this program meet your expectations	C1	The vast majority were very satisfied	The majority were satisfied
3. Did the program help you revise your opinions and perceptions about emotions in the working environment?	C2	The vast majority revised their views and perceptions	The majority revised their views and perceptions A significant number didn’t revise their views and perceptions
4. Did the program help you delve into the deep causes of opinions and perceptions?	C3	The vast majority was deeply penetrated into the causes of past assumptions and perceptions	The vast majority did not investigate further the causes of the opinions and past perceptions

6 Discussion

The present paper investigates the role of TL in an EI training program proposing an innovative approach in developing and enhancing EI in the tourism sector through digital learning environments.

According to the findings of this paper, and considering the 1st research question, both the experimental and the control group have improved EI in agreement with previous research, which stresses that EI can be developed with training and practice (Salovey et al., 2002; Salcido et al., 2019). More specifically, the training program which TL was utilized seems to have higher improvement outcomes of EI than the training program based on the lecture method. This is in line with previous research that acknowledged that the implementation of TL can enhance educational outcomes compared to the lecture method (Uyanik, 2016).

Additionally, regarding the qualitative part of this paper, and according to the 2nd research question, the participants in the experimental group which TL was implemented, met their expectations and were more satisfied compared to the participants in the control group.

According to the 3rd research question, most of the participants of the experimental group were helped to revise and change their opinions and dysfunctional perceptions regarding the significant role of EI, and the role of emotions in the tourism industry, to a much greater extent in relation to the control group. These findings are consistent with the relevant literature concluding that TL leads learners to transform their past perceptions and beliefs, searching for new ways of thinking. This process can also help them restore harmony in their lives while old perceptions and stereotypes referring to the role of emotions in the tourism working environment are replaced by new ones (Koulaouzides, 2019; Mezirow, 2000).

Furthermore, TL not only helped participants recognize their dysfunctional assumptions but also consider in depth their impact and the causes that created them. These findings are consistent with the relevant literature concluding that critical reflection and constructive dialogue, interpreting at the same time experiences, involves the in-depth process of examining the assumptions on which one's world-view is based, as well as the investigation of the sources of origin (Mezirow, 2000, Koulaouzides, 2019). In this way, TL guides learners to gain more control of their lives and make decisions for action leading to their personal development (Koulaouzides; Mezirow, 2000; Mezirow & Taylor, 2009).

7 Conclusions

Enhancing and developing EI based on contemporary and innovative teaching and learning methods is a pivotal criterion for tourism employees' growth and development. Emotionally intelligent employees can recognize customers' needs and fulfill their expectations satisfying them by contributing in parallel to major revenues for the tourism business (Kallou & Kikilia, 2021). The implementation of TL in an EI training program in the tourism sector has better learning outcomes and also helps learners evaluate and reconstruct their personal meaning.

Considering the paper findings, we can conclude that TL is an effective and valuable teaching and learning adult theory for the tourism education and training, since it has a positive impact on EI improvement and on the personal development of tourism employees and executives (Chao, 2017; Kallou & Kikilia, 2021).

8 Limitations

This study has reasonable limitations. As we mentioned above, this paper is a small part of an extensive research that is in progress. The sample of the study is small. Future research will mix more quantitative and qualitative results for the current mixed research.

In conclusion, this paper investigates the role of TL in a training program for EI development and enhancement in the tourism sector, making a significant contribution to the growing body of literature, through practical implications on how to improve tourism employees EI, achieving better outcomes and personal growth.

Acknowledgements We would like to thank the Undergraduate and Postgraduate students at the Department of Tourism Management, Faculty of Administrative Economic and Social Sciences, University of West Attica, to participate in this study.

References

Chao, R. F. (2017). Using transformative learning theory to explore the mechanisms of citizen participation for environmental education on the removal of invasive species: The case of Green Island, Taiwan. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, *13*(6), 2665–2682. https://doi.org/10.12973/eurasia.2017.01246a.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, C. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed., p. 638). Routledge.

Creswell, J. W., Fetters, M. D., & Ivankova, N. V. (2004). Designing a mixed methods study in primary care. *The Annals of Family Medicine*, *2*(1), 7–12. https://doi.org/10.1370/afm.104.

Darvishmotevali, M., Altinay, L., & De Vita, G. (2018). Emotional intelligence and creative performance: Looking through the lens of environmental uncertainty and cultural intelligence. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 73*, 44–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.01.014.

Goleman, D., & Cherniss, C. (2001). *The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations*. Jossey-Bass.

Kallou, S., & , A. (2021). A transformative educational framework in tourism higher education through digital technologies during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Advances in Mobile Learning Educational Research, 1*(1), 37–47. https://doi.org/10.25082/AMLER.2021.01.005.

Kallou, S., , A., & Kalogiannakis, M. (2022a). Emotional intelligence development in tourism education and training through digital technologies. In D. Guralnick, M. E. Auer, & A. Poce (Eds.), *Innovations in learning and technology for the workplace and higher education.* TLIC 2021. Lecture Notes in Networks and Systems, vol. 349. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-90677-1_15.

Kallou, S., , A., & Kalogiannakis, M. (2022b). An investigation of the acceptance and success of web conferencing technologies in tourism higher education during the COVID-19 Pandemic. In V. Katsoni & A. C. Şerban, A.C. (Eds.), *Transcending borders in tourism through innovation and cultural heritage. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92491-1_26.

Kikilia, K., Kallou, S., & Kalogiannakis, M. (2022). An emotional intelligence training program in the tourism sector. In C. Silva, M. Oliveira, & S. Silva, (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 5*th *International Conference on Tourism Research, ICTR 2022*, (pp. 159–168), School of Hospitality and Tourism (ESHT) Polytechnic Institute of Porto Portugal, 19–20 May 2022.

Koc, E. (2019). *Emotional intelligence in tourism and hospitality*. CABI.

Koulaouzides, A. (2019). *A dialogue on adult education. Tips and guidelines for new trainers.* Athens. Metaihmio.

Mezirow, J., & Associates. (2000). *Learning as transformation. Critical perspectives on a theory in progress.* Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J., & Taylor, E., and associates. (2009). *Transformative learning in practice*: *Insights from community, workplace, and higher education.* Jossey-Bass

O'Connor, P. J., Hill, A., Kaya, M., & Martin, B. (2019). The measurement of emotional intelligence: A critical review of the literature and recommendations for researchers and practitioners. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10,* Article 1116. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01116.

Petrides, K. V. (2009). Psychometric properties of the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire. In C. Stough, D. H. Saklofske, & J. D. Parker (Eds.), *Advances in the assessment of emotional intelligence*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-88370-0_5.

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2006). The role of trait emotional intelligence in a genderspecific model of organizational variables. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(2), 552–569. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0021-9029.2006.00019.x

Petousi, V., & Sifaki, E. (2020). Contextualizing harm in the framework of research misconduct findings from a discourse analysis of scientific publications. *International Journal of Sustainable Development, 23*(3/4), 149–174. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJSD.2020.10037655

Salcido- Cibrián L. J., Ramos N. S., Jiménez, O., & Blanca M. J. (2019). Mindfulness to regulate emotions: The Mindfulness and Emotional Intelligence Program (PINEP) and its adaptation to a virtual learning platform. *Complementary Therapies in Clinical Practice*, *36*, 176–180.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ctcp.2019.07.003

Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. (2002). (2002). The positive psychology of emotional intelligence. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *The handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 159–171). Oxford University Press.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 9*(3):185–211. https://doi.org/10.2190/FDUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG.

Samanta, I., & Kallou, S. (2020). The role of emotional intelligence in counterproductive work behavior. *European Business & Management, 6*(2), 20–27. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ebm.20200602.11.

Siegling, A. B., Ashely, K., Vesely, P. K. V., & Saklofske, D. H. (2015). Incremental validity of the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire-short form (TEIQue–SF). *Journal of Personality Assessment, 97*(5), 525–535. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2015.1013219.

Stone G. A., & Duffy L. N. (2015). Transformative learning theory: A systematic review of travel and tourism. *Scholarship Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 15*(3), 204–224.https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2015.1059305.

Uyanık, G. (2016). Effect of environmental education based on transformational learning theory on perceptions towards environmental problems and permanency of learning. *International Electronic Journal of Environmental Education, 6*(2), 126–140. https://doi.org/10.18497/iejee-green.59815.

Vlasopoulou, M., Kalogiannakis, M., & Sifaki, E. (2021). Investigating teachers' attitude and behavioral intentions for the impending integration of STEM education in primary school. In St. Papadakis & M. Kalogiannakis (Eds.), *Handbook of research on using education robotics to facilitate student learning* (pp. 235–256). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-7998-6717-3.ch009.

Online Collaborative Platforms to the Hospitality and Tourism Industry: The Paradox of Regulating the Sector

Mary Mutisya

Abstract The between online collaborative platforms, governments and industry partitioners has been reported in many countries. Online marketplaces that connect people who want to rent out their homes with people who are looking for accommodations in specific locations. *Online Collaborative Platforms* have been criticized for conferring unfair competition to established hotels, reducing job security, avoiding tax and posing a threat to safety, health and disability compliance standards. The main objective of this study is to determine the impact of online collaborative hospitality options to the conventional hotels; secondly, the study examines the challenges to governments with regard to the collection of levies. The study adopted the cross-sectional survey design. The target population comprised of government agencies concerned with tourism levy, homes listed as Airbnb accommodation listings and hotel managers. The units of observation were customers and employees at management level. The study used a stratified random technique to select the respondents. Questionnaires, interview and Focus Group Discussion guides were used to collect the data. The analysis of the data was done descriptively. The study identifies factors behind the success of online collaborative platforms and the strategies that can be adopted by hotels to compete with these platforms effectively. The study further identifies levy collection avenues.

Keywords Online collaborative economies · Hotel accommodation · Airbnb · Governments · Hospitality and tourism practitioners · Tourism levy

JEL Classifications M business administration and business economics · Marketing · Accounting · Personnel economics

M. Mutisya (✉)
United States International University, Nairobi, Kenya
e-mail: marymutisya@usiu.ac.ke

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_16

1 Introduction

The sharing or collaborative economy is an economic model defined as a peer-to-peer (P2P) based activities of acquiring, providing, or sharing access to goods and services that is often facilitated by a community-based online platform. According to Vaughan and Hawksworth (2018), the collaborative economy stands at $15 billion globally and could hit $335 billion by 2025. The online collaborative business model has in the recent years emerged in many facets of economies worldwide. PWC (2015), identified sharing economies sectors such as mobility industry; retail and consumer goods; entertainment, multimedia and telecommunication, financial sector, energy sector; human resources sector and the tourism and hotel industry where there is monetized home sharing, non-monetized home sharing, home exchange, community tourism services and coworking offices. Pawlicz (2019), however reckons that sharing idle resources with others such as staying with friend and relatives was taking place long before the advent of sharing economy platforms such as *Airbnb, Couchsurfing, Home Exchange* and *KAPTÁR* among others. These markets were limited by the high transaction costs, information asymmetry, connectivity and payment processes.

The emergence of sharing economy platforms significantly diminished transaction costs and at the same time boosted the market size and propelled its efficiency and effectiveness of the sector. Dickinger, Lalicic, and Mazanec (2017), acknowledge that the rapid increase of the sharing economy platforms has dramatically transformed the lodging industry in particular. This move is changing consumer trends and behaviors, forcing traditional hotels to keep reengineering through innovative means.

While sharing economies have enabled new social networks and saving of resources, the sharing economy renders some of the existing regulations obsolete as they cannot be applied to new players. This is because of microbusiness nature of new service providers and the scantiness of data regarding the market itself, Pawlicz (2019). The business concept overlaps between personal and professional resources as there is no clear line between where the adventure of hosting a stranger at home stops and where the business of renting an apartment starts, Cohen and Sundararajan (2015).

Another problem associated with sharing economies is that it is still in its development stage in economic, social and legal dimensions hence making it difficult to main stream regulation, Frenken and Schor (2017). While the collection and remittance of tourism levies and taxes is a major source of revenue in most countries, the enforcement in shared economies is challenging.

2 Literature Review

The Amorphous Nature of Online Collaborative Economies and the Collection of Government Levies

According to Botsman and Rogers (2010), Consumption patterns have been changed since the sharing economy become more popular and reached the traditional industries such as tourism, hospitality, transportation, education, job market and so on. Sharing is not a new phenomenon in our society; there are just new forms of sharing that have emerged in recent past hence seem to be a new and disruptive model (Dec & Masiukiewicz, 2018). A significant number of online platforms have recently developed with the goal of reshaping the way in which we carry out some elements or aspects of our lives. Others aim to link communities of interest and find solutions to problems through the use of open platforms for collaborative problem-solving, while others encourage the sale or commercialization of the sharing of products or skills. These services have prompted a wide-ranging cultural and political debate on themes such as how they should be regulated, their impact on the changing nature of work, and their overall influence on the day-to-day lives of their users. Some of the issues that have been discussed include: (Smith, 2016) In its first-ever comprehensive study of the scope and impact of the shared, collaborative, and on-demand economy, the Pew Research Center surveyed 4,787 American adults and found that usage of these platforms varies greatly across the population. The survey was conducted on a national level by the Pew Research Center. 72% of all adults in the USA have used at least one of 11 different shared or on-demand services at some point in their lives. Some people include a rather extensive range of these services into their day-to-day life. One in five Americans has utilized four or more of these services, while seven percent of the population has done so with six or more. In addition, 61 percent of American adults are unfamiliar with the concept of "crowdfunding". 73% of respondents have never heard the term "sharing economy" before. A survey found that 89% of people had never heard of the term "gig economy". Every one of these separate platforms caters to its own distinct demographic of users. Nevertheless, access to these shared, collaborative, and on-demand services at a general level is strongly concentrated within particular demographic cohorts. Despite this, over one-quarter of Americans (28%) report that they have never utilized any major shared or on-demand platforms, and many of them are completely unfamiliar with the tools and terminology of the new digital economy. 15% of American adults have used ride-hailing applications such as Uber or Lyft, yet there are twice as many people who had never heard of these applications before. In a similar vein, 11% of American adults have utilized home-sharing platforms such as Airbnb or VRBO, although over 50% of adults had never even heard of home-sharing sites. In addition, the sharing economy is a complicated phenomenon that, over the course of the past decade, has been able to influence and modify not only the behavior of customers all over the world, but also the business models of incumbents and the profitability of their operations (Wagner et al., 2019). In a comprehensive literature review on research done in the shared economy, Wagner et al. (2019) reckon that the cornerstone, indeed, is represented by the aim of maximizing the common well-being, trying to find a second life or a reuse to tangible and intangible assets, creating value that would remain unexploited in the traditional economic framework where only the owner of an asset would use it.

Apart from having economic consequences, the sharing economy is claimed to have positive environmental and social effects. It reduces the environmental impact, results in an efficient utilization of physical assets and facilitates new social contacts (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). The collaboration can create innovation, jobs and community. In addition the sharing can bring people together and stimulate social cohesion in neighborhoods (Dec & Masiukiewicz, 2018). On the other hand, the lack of its legal regulation, consumer protection and working conditions (Malhotra & Van Alstyne, 2018) proves that this is a controversial concept. Dec and Masiukiewicz (2018) highlight its overrated environmental gains and the erosion of workers' rights. The author argues that the unfair competition between platforms and regular companies and notes the tendency toward monopoly.

In Kenya, data from the Central Bank Data of Kenya (CBK) shows the overall bed occupancy rate averaged 58%. Airbnb, has experienced tremendous growth and presence across Kenya in the last few years. In 2018, Nairobi was ranked third, amongst cities with the highest number of Airbnb facilities in Africa. The Revenue Authority approved various taxes and permits to allow one to list their home for traveler's accommodation, (Maombo, 2022).

This study sought to understand the Airbnb online collaborative economy with a view of ensuring fair competition to hotels and ensuring collection effective of government levies for sustainable tourism growth.

3 Methodology

This qualitative study adopted descriptive research to obtain information to systematically describe a phenomenon, situation, or population. The target population for this study was be 2650 registered online collaborative accomodation owners based in Nairobi County as registered by the Kenya Tourism Board (2022). Sample frame for this study was obtained from registered Airbnb owners based in Nairobi County. Stratified random sampling was used applied to compute a sample of 347. Data was collected using questionnaires, interviews and Focus group Discussions.

4 Results

The research issued a total of 347 questionnaires and a total of 250 were filled and returned giving a response rate of 72%. The respondents were 53% female and male 47%. From the respondents, the majority (38%) were 31–35 years old. The majority (44%) of the respondents had been in operation for over 2 years. The study sought to establish respondent's distribution by the accommodation type they operated in Airbnb and the results indicated that majority had one bedroom and represented 52% of the total respondents. The results also revealed that studio apartment holders represented 30% while individuals with 2 Bedroom only represented 18%.

The Amorphous Nature of Online Collaborative Economies and the Collection of Government Levies

The results revealed that majority of the respondents to a great extent were of the opinion that shared economy such as Airbnb has enabled people to collaboratively share and make use of underutilized resources on a huge scale (Mean = 4.57, SD = 0.663). The results also indicated that consumption patterns have been changed since the sharing economy phenomena started to become more popular (Mean = 4.38, SD = 0.697). In addition, to a great extent, sharing economy results in an efficient utilization of physical assets and facilitates new social contacts (Mean = 4.28, SD = 0.787). It was also established that to a moderate extent respondent noted that sharing economy lack legal regulation as well as consumer protection (Mean = 3.06, SD = 1.153) and to a great extent the businesses can examine a consumer's purchase behavior using the information provided by digital transactions (Mean = 4.66, SD = 0.473). A Pearson correlation analysis was done to establish the relationship between nature of online collaborative economies and levy collection and the result established a significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = 0.210$, p value = 0.001).

The Success of Online Collaborative Economies

The study findings show that factors that have made the business model successful is its ability provide for real customer needs; disrupt an existing model of a legacy structure and introduce an effective digital platform. Further more the results show that the platforms provide a steady revenue stream based on transaction fees; implement/execute their value proposition through using a cloud-based digital platform that they created and focus on continuous improvement based on user reviews and establish of a strong brand.

How Can Hotels Compete for Revenue with Online Collaborative Platforms?

User friendly websites: appealing visuals that tell the stories better than text; appeal of safe adventures and local experiences; paying attention to changes in travel habits and shifts in customer preferences; leveraging on technology for automation; Customer Relationship Management and new marketing tool of predictive analytics were cited as strategic avenues for competition.

How Can Levies Be Collected in Online Collaborative Platforms?

According to respondents, some of the avenues for streamlining revenue collection are through the use of Digital Service Tax (DST). DST is a tax on the Gross Domestic Product of tech enterprises within a specific nation. Another strategy would be compelling online collaborative companies to register electronically or establish a tax representative within the countries they operate would ensure tax collection. Tracking of digital payments, use of big data and surveillance were also proposed of ways of ensuring taxes were paid.

5 Conclusion

The results revealed that majority of the respondents to a great extent were of the opinion that shared economy has enabled people to collaboratively share and make use of underutilized resources on a huge scale (Mean = 4.57, SD = 0.663). The results also indicated that consumption patterns have been changed since the sharing economy phenomena started to become more popular (Mean = 4.38, SD = 0.697). In addition, to a great extent, sharing economy results in an efficient utilization of physical assets and facilitates new social contacts (Mean = 4.28, SD = 0.787). It was also established that to a moderate extent, respondents noted that sharing economy lack legal regulation as well as consumer protection (Mean = 3.06, SD = 1.153) and to a great extent the businesses can examine a consumer's purchase behavior using the information provided by digital transactions (Mean = 4.66, SD = 0.473).

Hotels need to understand the reasons behind the success of collaborative sharing economies to rise to the challenge of competing with a disruptor and stop perishing of room nights to private hosts. It is worth noting that strong the underlying economic reasons may motivate travelers to renting private homes instead of booking hotels, the hotel industry is not necessarily destined. So long as hotels can learn valuable lessons from the success of Airbnb, hotels can compete head-on. Appealing aspects of the business such as better websites, marketing that appeals to traveler needs through are opportunities for hotels to identify as areas of improvement for themselves.

6 Recommendations

The study recommended that since sharing economy services allows users to experience diverse choices, community interactions and social connections. There is a need to put up stringent measures to ensure the particulars shared on the platform meet the reality expectation to minimize case of duping clients. The study also recommended for a need to promote the use of shared economies in order to increase uptake especially by hotels and lodges. There is a need to emphasize for the clients to undertake due diligence in ensuring the data obtained is complete, accurate and timely before engaging in any online transaction in the shared economy platform, (Du and Yang, 2018).

References

Ayres, R. U. (1996). Limits to the growth paradigm. *Ecological Economics, 19*(2), 117–134.

Botsman, R., & Rogers, R. (2010). *What's mine is yours : The rise of collaborative consumption.* Harper Business.

Cohen, M., & Sundararajan, A. (2015). Self-regulation and innovation in the peer-to-peer sharing economy. *The University of Chicago Law Review, 82*, 116–133. https://doi.org/10.1525/sp.2007.54.1.23

Dec, P., & Masiukiewicz, P. (2018). Sharing economy – new phenomenon. *Business and Economic Research, 8*(2), 1.

Du, Y., & Yang, C. (2018). Demographic transition and labour market changes: implications for economic development In China. *Journal of Economic Surveys, 28*(4), 617–635.

Giagnocavo, C. (2011). People-centred businesses: Co-operatives, mutuals and the idea of membership. *Canadian Journal of Nonprofit and Social Economy Research*, *2*(2).

Leung, D., Dickinger, A., Nixon, L. (2017). Impact of destination promotion videos on perceived destination image and booking intention change. In: Schegg, R., Stangl, B. (eds) Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2017. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-51168-9_26.

Maombo, S. (2022). How Airbnbs are eating into hotel businesses. Retrieved from: https://www.the-star.co.ke/business/kenya/2022-04-05-how-airbnbs-are-eating-into-hotel-businesses/

Meyer, S. (2022). The zebra. Retrieved from https://www.thezebra.com/resources/home/airbnb-statistics/

Pawlicz, A. (2019). Pros and cons of sharing economy regulation. Implications for sustainable city logistics. *Transportation Research Procedia., 39*, 398–404. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trpro.2019.06.042

PWC. (2015). Sharing or paring? Growth of the sharing economy. Retrieved from https://www.pwc.com/hu/en/kiadvanyok/assets/pdf/sharing-economy-en.pdf

Vaughan, R., & Hawksworth, J. (2018). 'The sharing economy: How will it disrupt your business? Megatrends: the collisions', PWC. Retrieved from http://pwc.blogs.com/files/sharing-economyfinal_0814.pdf

Wagner, N., Strulak-Wójcikiewicz, R., & Landowska, A. (2019). Trust in sharing economy business models from the perspective of customers in Szczecin, Poland. *Sustainability, 11*(23), 6838.

Olympic Games and Mega Events Legacy Planning as a Tourism Initiation Strategy: Developments and Implications

Ourania P. Vrondou

Abstract Olympic Games and mega sport events could prove to be an effective strategy towards building a new regenerated reality for cities and countries. Spectacular sport venues, outstanding sport performances and the overall exciting event atmosphere attract the attention of the international audience and promote a new positive and appealing image for the host city. However, considerable evidence suggests that the post-event reality becomes problematic when a considerable number of sport venues remain underused and the overall development for local communities is considerably less than expected. With the appealing picture of the staged sport event gradually fading, the local authorities have to face a huge superstructure left behind to exploit but proof suggests that is disproportionate to the capabilities and needs of the local people. Planning a comprehensive legacy scheme is presently strongly suggested by international sport bodies as well as citizens' groups realizing that the viability of Olympic Games and mega sport competitions lie heavily on the post-event development that could justify the enormous costs invested and boost local economy. Tourism initiation and development are examined in the present study as a possible compatible developmental scenario produced by an effective legacy programming prior to event staging or even event bidding. Using qualitative content analysis, a plethora of theoretical paradigms, event-related research, host city experiences and sport bodies' legacy policies are examined here to advice on applicable sport tourism destination enhancement techniques embedded in the basic city's event selection and hosting process. The analysis of available material produced positive indications of legacy programmes encompassing tourism initiation tools as part of a holistic regenerating strategy for local communities, evidently impatient to experience the promised positive returns of a mega event that didn't fail to create a sustainable positive image for the locality.

Keywords Sport tourism · Events tourism · Post-events legacy · Sport venues · Olympic games legacy · Events' impact
JEL Classifications Z2 · Z3

O. P. Vrondou (✉)
Dept. of Sport Management, University of Peloponnese, Ancient Sparta, Greece
e-mail: ovrondou@yahoo.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_17

1 Introduction

The success of mega events like Olympic Games and Football World Cup goes beyond a quality competition enjoyed by a wide audience. Evidently, events have the power to intervene in social functions producing positive long-term impacts on the local host communities. The optimist part of the literature suggests that post-event facilities and infrastructure will contribute to a multifacet and internationalized local economy. However, authors like Matheson (2012) argue that mega events' positive immediate as well as long-run impact is often exaggerated. Then, Atkinson et al. (2008) suggest that post-event facilities have to present high usage rates and a sufficient viability plan in order to justify the huge investments needed. The post-event reality is questioned, when extravagant sport venues are underused and the lack of a proactive planning behaviour is hugely evident with the cities failing to benefit from the events' potential.

The concept of legacy contemporarily receives significant attention as the most applicable strategy of safeguarding the sport venues as well as acting as a platform of local development. Smith and Fox (2007) support the effective design of legacy programming in order to achieve sustainable and productive post-event development. The rise and development of tourism seem to be the most rational outcome of a well-promoted city that now struggles to manage an exaggerated infrastructure as well as local residents' expectations for a sustainable future. Tourism increases post-event seems to be the most evidenced outcome but whether this is a long-term development remains to be proved. Presently, event legacy planning fails to include tourism development, while the organizing authorities focus largely on the successful bidding and planning of the demanding mega event. Similarly, sport governing bodies perceive legacy narrowly seeking to increase sport participation and leave behind sport-specific facilities that prove their power in developing their sport further. Host cities facing huge infrastructural changes and governing challenges concentrate on the successful accommodation of the event unable to plan ahead and exploit the event's promotional and developmental role.

Thus, the present study aims to examine the factors that affect an efficient legacy planning that would achieve tourism enhancement and further development. Available research, sport bodies documentation and real cases are analysed to provide understanding into the reasoning behind this inefficiency. Hopefully, findings could advise on the embedment of similar practices into the host city selection and hosting processes, but also into the holistic long-term sustainable planning of the host community.

2 Theoretical Considerations

2.1 Sport Venues as a Local Regeneration Strategy or in Constant Need for Regeneration?

Sport venues' importance goes beyond their architectural appeal or technological advancement presenting invaluable social and cultural impact in the contemporary era. Accommodating historic performances and worshipping sport expressions, the venues are now categorized amongst monuments of cultural importance (Kiuri & Teller, 2015). Authors like Nelson (2002) and Shimmon (2004) underline the intrinsic value of the sport venues early appreciated and protected by international organizations and actions such as the '"Blue Shield" and the "Treaty of Hague" positioning them at the centre of the social, cultural and economic life. Despite the lack of sufficient research proving this appealing character of the new sport venues, indications of this effect on visitors have already been recorded. Work by Clapp and Hakes (2005) attempted to measure this charming effect new American football stadiums have on visitors noting an increase of 32–37% during the first year of operation. Despite this recorded optimism for venue attendance new sport venues authors term this tendency "the honeymoon effect" with temporary results and questionable returns on the huge investments needed.

The rapid growth and universality of sports brought sporting expressions from all continents creating new markets and thus, expanding the spectating masses further. New sports, along with the gradual inclusion of women at all sports, produced an equivalent increase in athletes, technical officials, media and overall participating bodies leading to a massive boost in built infrastructure and sport superstructures locally (Gold & Gold, 2011). These factors along with the growth of Paralympic Games and the pressure by the international sport federations for bigger venue capacities led to an inevitable increase on hosting venues both permanent and temporary and expectedly, construction and organizational costs (Cashman & Darcy, 2008; Darcy & Taylor, 2013; Pitts & Liao, 2013).

The appreciation of a mega event's positive impact is evident in the existing literature mainly based on the international exposure the city receives through priceless broadcasting hours (Chappelet, 2012). However, mapping a viable future for venues post-Games is often overlooked by organizers heavily focused on hosting the event and preparing an operational and welcoming city. One of the most vivid proofs of inefficient post-event legacy planning is the inability to provide a viable sport venue operation. Large sport venues are often unexploited or abandoned in the absence of a holistic usage plan. Facing the post-event reality will be more challenging when the venue use is not a product of a pre-event planning scheme. Answering to demanding event requirements can disorient the post-event usage plans since resources are directed towards the successful staging of the event primarily. Schmedes (2015) argues that refurbishing an existing sport venue to host an event is the logic strategy that will safeguard the resources invested, and therefore justify the reasoning behind constructing the venue in the first place. However, literature fails to reach an agreement on the most effective management of post-event venue legacy with authors like Anderson (2000) suggesting that constructing a new contemporary sport venue is more effective than having to adjust an existing one since the modern and more sophisticated venue profile would act as a strong motivating factor for increased attendance.

The KPMG Sports Advisory Report (2015) on “Planning for a sustainable future” suggests three basic directions of post-event venue use organizers are facing either prior or after the event staging. Firstly, “maintaining the present venue” structure and main features suggest that there is sufficient demand and that no amendments are necessary. This is mainly the case of Olympic Stadiums and large football venues where capacities and facilities’ rearrangement is inelastic. Secondly, the “capacity downsizing” to meet local needs and owners’ plans suggests a usual post-event strategy since Olympic and mega level facilities will not be needed in the near future. It is considered as one of the most sustainable approaches to operate a sport venue to mega event demands without jeopardizing local needs in the long run. In Athens 2004 Olympic Games, the boxing competition hall reached almost 10,000 seats capacity through temporary construction to be lowered to just 3,000 after the event was completed to satisfy neighbourhood sporting needs. Since then, the constant high usage levels of the hall suggest a great example that mega events can be organized effectively without risking the viability of the venue in future (Kourtesopoulou et al. 2009). Similarly, the present ‘Badminton Concert Hall’ demonstrating its 2004 Olympic history is transformed into a successful theatre and music hall ever since. Lastly, the daring scenario of “venue demolishing” or “reconstruction” suggests a necessity when new sport and spectating requirements cannot be met, and the decision to move forward dictates a radical action to the point of elimination. However, sport tradition often proves to be strong enough to sustain sport venues unaltered strictly for sentimental reasons of the sport community. Additionally, the dilemma between demolishing and refurbishing a sport venue is difficult amongst owners since they would have to admit that the initial decision to be constructed is proved false (Darcy & Taylor, 2013).

2.2 Challenging the Mega Event Legacy Concept

Despite the evident importance of mega events’ legacy, there is no equivalent volume of literature produced that would enlighten the dimensions of planning and implementation of relevant programmes. Legacy as a concept was produced gradually when cities started realizing that mega events can act as an instrument of reaching a variety of sport, political and economic goals (Cashman & Horne, 2013). Bairner (2008) has early emphasized that legacy is an inseparable part of the hosting process and a platform of proving political and organizational power and capability. However, the early design of a legacy plan would not be prioritized but usually follows the successful completion of the event. The majority of organizers would concentrate resources, staff and planning around the successful event hosting than securing future development. Rosenthal (2017) argued that the challenge of achieving post-event development through legacy venue planning was born back in the 1984 Los Angeles Games. Produce profit and create a constant business attraction mechanism, or focus on the long-term city sustainable development for the well-being of the local people still puzzles policy-makers and organizers. Similarly, Horne (2017) argued that most of the cities present a vivid legacy vision included in the bidding documentation but seem unable to produce a tangible post-event legacy implementation plan. The submitted legacy plans would not be revisited since they are considered non-updated and the interest for event-related issues has diminished.

With Olympic Games and mega events recording increased costs and venues' underuse, criticism started intensifying. Several authors such as Robinson and Torvik (2005) have attempted to evaluate the impact of mega events focusing largely on the inevitable result of the "white elephants" left behind lacking long-term planning that would secure their viability and their capacity to distribute economic wealth widely. In the same tone, Magnani (2013) positioning similar unproductive public investments in a wider social context suggests that these investments basically constitute a mean of transferring resources to the main governing stakeholders than local players.

Giannakopoulou (2020) adds two crucial emerging factors that support the importance for early legacy planning. Anti-democratic practices and corruption allegations amongst different organizers dictate the necessity for effective and actual legacy planning that could justify the hosting and investing decisions by the city, but also by all related institutions mainly the International Olympic Committee and the sports federations. Davies (2005) challenged the distance between satisfying specific competition hosting needs and vague post-event usage levels. The "Munich Treaty" declared the obvious: post-Olympic development should dictate the magnitude and structure of the sport venues and not only the technical requirements of the international competition (Shirai, 2014).

A basic categorization of legacy is built around the infrastructure and all necessary facilities built or rejuvenated to meet the needs of the mega event and constitute mainly "concrete" investments with a long lifecycle (Gratton & Preuss, 2008). Transportation and telecommunication channels, new air, sea, rail and road accessibility routes do not only contribute to the residents' life quality but also serve as business accelerators and environment protectors (Mangan and Dyreson, 2013). In addition, literature tends to deal more extensively with intangible parts of the post-event legacy presenting measurement easiness and safer conclusion extraction. Issues related to volunteerism lift, advancement of organizing mega events' knowledge and expertise, as well as increase of sport participation become positive indicators of post-event local positive impact (Chappelet, 2012). The city benefits largely from effective broadcasting mechanisms and endless televised hours building a positive image of an effective and successful host to the eyes of the world audience. Along with promotional campaigns, the host locality has a powerful tool of creating a competitive profile able to stimulate business and attract new segments. This "economic legacy" suggests the main goal of organizers that plan sustainably and aim to secure returns after the event is over.

Previous work limits the issue of legacy with regard to space, time and stakeholders involved, parts affected and scale and nature of impacts occurring (Barget & Gouguet, 2007). Amongst different scholars attempting to examine the legacy notion, Preuss (2007, 2015) work offers valuable insight into legacy definition and analysis gathering all knowledge produced around the post-event reality. The present study embraces Preuss's legacy "cube" capturing three main dimensions: "irrespective of the time of production and space, legacy is all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event longer than the event itself" (2007, p.211). Furthermore, amongst an extensive list of the legacy dimensions such as infrastructure, culture, image branding and education Preuss (2007) includes the tourism aspect as an inseparable part of the post-event impact scenario. More importantly to the present study, Preuss (2015) stresses the importance of structural changes to support legacy planning achieve increased tourists' flows in the host city in the long run through a new solid local profiling. Measuring positive short but most importantly long-term tourism arrivals as well as overall tourism business acceleration would prove the dynamic route produced by the event hosting. The increase of new job creation, the decrease of local unemployment and the attraction of relevant cultural and leisure partners become crucial indicators of positive event impact justifying the decision to host a mega event. Notably, Preuss (2015) argues that tourism legacy will be achieved "if the event leads to increased economic activity which will happen if the event changes the tourism location factors, i.e. iconic buildings, new museums, etc., and makes the destination more attractive, thus bringing more tourists to the city". This wide recognition of the tourism legacy necessity has been emphasized by the majority of published work but does not seem to be institutionalized yet in the form of applicable policy schemes or even guidelines to serve a post-event city tourism initiation and growth.

3 Method

An effective legacy plan constitutes a complex necessity for mega events' organizers presently lacking sufficient analysis. This paper looks at how event legacies include or propose practices towards generating or enhancing tourism flows in the host area. Focusing largely on legacy application, the study aims to clarify those decisive reasons that make the legacy planning and most importantly implementation an effective post-event developmental instrument. The study seeks to provide insight into the preconditions required to achieve a positive post-event environment through the structural changes needed for a successful legacy implementation. The role of governing sport bodies receives substantial attention due to their capacity to affect sport development but more importantly here, to contribute towards building a strong sport tourism initiating strategy and a positive image for the host city. Additionally, the study signifies the difficulty of obtaining valid data post-event that would justify the investment associated with mega events staging and measure the level of legacy effect in tourism and local development.

Methodologically, knowledge is retrieved employing Schreier's (2014) theory on qualitative content analysis of numerous theoretical approaches and published research, host cities cases examination and sport governing bodies' legacy stances. Comprehensive qualitative content analysis is used to reveal tendencies and implications of embedding legacy in the overall event bidding and planning process. Then, 'qualitative coding' categorized material to certain factors identified to answer the aims of study and hopefully contribute to a sustainable use of the sport venues post-event, as well as build a hospitable tourism environment for the host city in the long run.

4 Extracted Factors Affecting Legacy-Initiated Tourism

4.1 Legacy Planning: A Problematic Post-Event Setting

Sceptic parts of the literature suggest that cities produce an excessive volume of infrastructure and installations, despite the fact that they realize that most will not be needed after the event is completed, but it would be difficult to resist to the demands of international federations and IOC seeking an impressive Games environment. This urge for bigger sport venues is also based on the belief that increased spectators will be translated to larger share in broadcasting rights and ticket sales (Pound, 2016). The international attention evidenced during a mega event for the city and the impressive venues would diminish quickly after the event is completed, while next hosts would start benefiting from exposure.

Horne (2007) argues that an overall successful event staging suggests the inclusion of a mega sport event into the wider long-term planning and operation of the city. The author sums up the effective strategies needed to achieve this development focusing largely on the holistic approach of a city's vision to sustainability. Clear goals, decisions' clarity, construction auditing and viable venues future use become the main axes of planning. More importantly, this managing approach suggests the inclusion of all stakeholders' visions and strategies in order to secure the democratization of decisions for future development. Furthermore, the public and private cooperation needed for many operational sides of the event has to continue to act post-Games to keep the effective funding, technology and professional expertise as well as share the risk undertaken. This would safeguard different parties' expectations and balance their interests (Varrell & Kennedy, 2011). Similarly, Kassens-Noor and Lauermann (2017) suggest that the support of the legacy implementation suggests a mutual responsibility of the host cities but also of the licencing stakeholders. Despite their role as local hosts, local authorities seem to be unable to encounter the huge task of post-event development since a mega event has already challenged the capabilities of the local environment. Rosenthal (2017) suggests balancing post-event needs or creating a business-attractive setting is difficult "but not necessarily incompatible". Equal chance of participation to businesses possibly initiated by a mega event, public accountability and auditing procedures would secure the democratic and inclusive future of a post-event development. These guaranteed procedures would benefit also IOC and federations like FIFA whose image has been severely hurt (Kassens-Noor, 2016).

However, post-events' legacy planning is not requested by the relevant sport authorities despite a widely spread vision amongst host cities for a promising local development (Giannakopoulou, 2020). Interestingly, De Faria Nogueira (2017) argues that sport authorities base their host selection on the international impact the mega event has in serving their goals and interests, rather than the ability of the event to positively contribute to the further development of the host city. Similarly, despite the wide realization of the need for legacy programming, there seem to be no supervisory institutions to initiate, monitor and evaluate the plans been implemented according to initial promises that go beyond solving the venue usage which inevitably weights local authorities. Horne (2017) expressively highlights the absence of IOC to a city straight after the Games are completed, as well as a supervisory scheme that would initiate, develop and control the legacy implementation. Similarly, Organizing Committees have the restricted role to event managing with no official connection with the host venue location authorities, therefore limiting their input in legacy-related schemes (Vrondou et al., 2018). Stuart and Scassa (2011) propose that IOC along with local institutions and authorities having the power to produce regulation for a number of event-related issues should produce an equivalent number of rules and laws that would safeguard the viability of the legacy programming. In addition, local governments should be proceeding into establishing an independent body with the sole responsibility of guaranteeing the whole legacy planning, reforming and implementing from the bidding procedure to the post-event era and being accountable throughout the entire hosting process.

The tension for enormous sport venues' capacities is also based on the expectations that the Games will lead to increased tourists and hopefully create an incentive for nostalgic sport tourism (Gibson, 2006). Sport venues have become autonomous tourism generators encompassing important hospitality, tourism and leisure forces that create their distinct wide clientele that goes beyond sport spectating (Vrondou, 2022). Similarly, biding organizations and local governors look at tourism as a possible, logic and expected result of a well-promoted mega event with a spectacular superstructure and a fanatic audience. Therefore, authorities connect positive economic returns directly with tourism increase certainly deriving from a mega event.

The study underlines two crucial reasons identified amongst organizers and relevant studies. Firstly, there is no official and institutional obligation to complete a comprehensive legacy plan that would stimulate the tourism industry and more importantly include tourism development into the city's legacy programming. Secondly, cities facing the challenge of accommodating an event disproportionate to its magnitude, capabilities and resources focus on serving the hosting demands and the facilitation of the event which leaves the city with limited budget and additional burden of venue downsizing and readjustment strategies. Increasingly, mega events have to recognize and undertake the responsibility which corresponds to the expectations born by the city's vision for regeneration, image enhancement and sustainable economic and social development that means more than short-term spectacularization of the event infrastructure. The present study evidently noted that tourism institutions and hospitality forces are absent from the organizing committees and joined schemes of large events limiting their involvement to serve increased flows Games-time, failing to exploit the momentum of opportunities deriving from mega events hosting.

4.2 Measuring and Evaluating Legacy Effectiveness: A Challenging Task

Safeguarding the credibility of mega events suggests that legacy should become an inseparable part of the bidding and organizing process, measured and audited in the long run (Dickson et al., 2011). Accurate measurement of the legacy implementation would also contribute towards an indisputably positive role of the mega events in host localities. But is it really a feasible task? The literature becomes sceptic over the effectiveness of the legacy programmes when the demand for legacy planning in the bidding phase is limited to simplistic visionary and optimistic promises for a sustainable future through the use of existing venues and the lift of a local image and moral (Giannakopoulou, 2020). More importantly, when the cities finally selected promised endless resources, over-engineered plans and spectacular superstructures over less luxurious bidding efforts, the effect of legacy over localities creates disproportionate impacts. Thus, comparative research becomes of limited value when based on diverse magnitudes and service levels. With city infrastructure occupying a considerable amount of the overall budget, a big number of related stakeholders benefit from a much more efficient business environment but distance themselves from cost-sharing (Matheson, 2012). This creates different and incomparable research settings with varied benefits produced for different post-event social and business players (Stuart & Scassa, 2011).

Despite significant theoretical volume on event impact and legacy, there is no sufficient research on evaluating the post-event legacy implementation and measuring the impact in the long run. Preuss (2015) has early highlighted the difficulty in identifying sport event legacies "in their entirety" due to a labyrinth of interconnected stakeholders' actions and many non-event-related factors affecting results. Dickson et al. (2011) agree that despite the apparent importance of post-event legacy there is a great lack of evaluation-related literature at all stages of event bidding, preparation and hosting to create valid assumptions. Their work justifies this lack of effective and comparative research output on a set of crucial factors. Firstly, there is an evident inefficiency of the existing evaluation instruments that produce conflicting results of limited credibility or partial value, since the diversity of research areas would demand combined techniques. Then, the interest of the host city in measuring results or funding multi-dimensional research fades due to the fact that hosting another mega event shortly is unfeasible. Being tired and drained from resources, the city realizes that the findings would not have any practical value since the challenge of handling huge superstructures' costs shadows any post-event development scenarios.

Dickson et al. (2011) emphasize the difficulty of obtaining the appropriate resources to complete a demanding long-term research project on the impact and benefits of a legacy programme. The authors spot the hesitation of governing authorities into gathering valid data because the results could be different from the expected, because they could be perceived as their incompetence to secure positive returns. Additionally, the work of Homma and Masumoto (2013) refers to two main decisive reasons that would support valid legacy measurements. Firstly, "methodological consistency" during data collection would facilitate comparison and avoid deviation due to different methodologies, data collection processes and analysis used each time. Secondly, "data availability" is crucial for valid conclusions since obtaining primary data during event hosting or after event is complete is probably the most difficult research task. The organizing system "dismantles", foreign organizations depart and information is gathered by different new institutions dealing with post-event use. Budgets, costs and figures become a political debate platform translated accordingly, so organizing authorities and governments hesitate to measure and quantify legacy implementation in the fear of having to justify costs and investments with uncertain viability.

With the lights fading after the closing ceremony, the interest of researchers and academia shifts to the next host city and mega event probably due to the difficulty of obtaining data from dismantled organizing committees or replaced governments and local authorities. Similarly, tourism statistics are difficult to be justified based on the event exposure and its influence in creating tourism in the long run, since numerous and diverse reasons can affect visiting flows beyond the sport event appeal. Increased tourism arrivals are a fact in many host localities proving the direct or indirect impact of the mega event but the exact scale, extent and nature of the event remain untapped seeking valid measurement and coverage of all possible influential factors.

4.3 Legacy Cases: The Need for a Holistic City Planning

The vision of host cities for a sustainable post-event future is evident in the bid document submitted to the IOC at a very early stage. However, planning inexperience and event focus affect the post-event development mainly restricting their strategies to secure sport venue use. The Montreal 1976 Games left a sweet taste but also a huge debt for many years later. The Athens Games in 2004 were emotional and well-organized, but were left with permanent venues' number and magnitude disproportionate to the size of the local demand. Similar cases, anticipate benefits deriving from the urban regeneration and the image repositioning without a tangible legacy plan in place. New or refurbished Olympic and football stadiums are directed towards accommodating football clubs such as Barcelona, Athens and Atlanta. IOC's advice to use as many existing venues as possible hasn't always been the case especially when sport federations have fought for new large sport-specific venues as their legacy.

In reality, host cities have tried to exploit existing facilities in order to lower costs and future underuse such as London, Athens and Tokyo (IOC, 2022). Horne (2017) draws attention to cities focusing their venue planning on post-event use and the elimination of the operational costs, i.e. the design of the Sydney Olympic Village incorporating many stakeholders' aspects such as the Greenpeace, which innovatively included power-saving tools such as solar power and water recycling to support a sustainable operation. The inclusion of adjustability instruments to the needs of the local residents, capacity decrease, multi-purpose facilities and advanced technology would safeguard the viability of the venues in the long run. Chen (2012) points the fact that host cities have located or selected sport venues accessible to local users proves the vision of the cities for post-event local needs' satisfaction. London organizers aiming at post-Games venues been accessible to all residents, improved transport networking, i.e. bus and train lines. At Beijing, sport venues were located at the heart of universities or crowded urban spaces to facilitate usage mainly post-Games. There are examples where some city operations such as shopping, housing and cultural activities were embedded in the sport venue district securing constant local visits and activity.

In terms of tourism initiation and further development, Barcelona remains a bright example where sport, leisure, hospitality and all related market forces were gathered to produce a competitive new tourism future for a city that realized early the importance of legacy mapping prior to the Games. 'Parc de Mar' that accommodated the sport of sailing during the Barcelona Games became a "must visit" tourism and hospitality area ever since, affecting the total of the business sector in the wider area. Barcelona becomes a successful example of legacy planning that the Games were combined and included in the overall existing, predefined and announced long-term development plans of the city (Rosenthal, 2017). Similarly, the quality facilities, advanced technology and the location in the heart of the seaside summer tourism activity and huge coastal reconstruction project the Athens Olympic Marina managed to present quality Olympic sailing competition and more importantly, a successful and profitable operation post-Games contributing drastically to the enhancement of the tourism profile of Athens.

Limited literature on legacy lifting tourism development has been analysing the process of designing a post-event local tourism programme. Olympic Games have affected the tourism industry and have produced a new regenerated image for the city and the region. The work of Ferrari and Guala (2015) in three different Italian host cities proved the positive impact of the events on the local tourism presenting significant arrival increases that reached 90% in the consequent years. The hosted events managed to work outside the traditional industries and invest in changing the traditional image towards a more extrovert economic and cultural profile. Genoa and Turin engaged mega events as part of a regeneration process presenting strong public decisions and partnerships, and admitting to a decisive lesson learnt stating that "the events can only succeed if they are part of a scenario, a planning capacity that involves the legacy and a collective project, participated by the social capital, associations, public and private bodies". A valuable result of the study suggests that in the case of Genoa tourism is not an 'automatic output' of mega events but needs a holistic effort of improvements, image building and multifacet alterations.

Similarly, the case of Turin 2006 Winter Olympic Games investigated by Bottero et al. (2012) presents a similar positive tourism impact with increased arrivals and a rejuvenated image for the local host area. More importantly, the study emphasizes on the "Turin model" that engages a type of governance "where local authorities have become major players, beyond the territorial scale and regardless of the different political party in power". The study focuses on the "increased fluidity" of the decisional model that includes extensive planning pre-event. "Agenzia Torino 2006" is the key public organization in charge of the implementation of the local Olympic preparation running in parallel with the organizing committee. The main goals of this public participative scheme clarify future goals, monitors public responses to event coming and most crucially "plan the tangible and intangible legacy". The authors emphasize the fact that for the first time, a long-term plan was mapped for Turin future in the post-industrial era. One of the key themes early targeted was the production of a "new type of tourism" representing "the possibility of contributing to the endogenous development of a new sustainable tourism, based on an increase in the hospitality culture, a balanced and careful use of resources, the self-management of local systems, the diversification of tourism models and the territorial diffusion of economic and social benefits". The model continues offering actions to achieve these goals such as training tourism operators, produce quality certificates, create demand and supply diversification projects and actions of strengthening tourism competitiveness. Still, the study questions the governance of this type of pre-planning schemes when the post-event reality is turbulent due to ever-challenging economic and social conditions and governance alterations.

4.4 IOC and Sports Organizations' Stance into Initiating Tourism-Related Legacy

The issue of legacy has gradually received attention either as a mechanism of securing huge investments or as an effective local development vehicle. The last two decades legacy became a crucial part of tool of facing growing negativism towards post-event organizers' ineffectiveness to exploit the potential events offer to develop localities. Presently, International Olympic Committee (IOC) has incorporated a compulsory legacy planning demonstration process as a fundamental part of the event bidding stage (Hartman & Zandberg, 2015). The "Olympic Games Impact" (OGI) was produced to serve as the basis of building an effective framework for organizers (IOC, 2006). 126 indicators build an extensive scorecard table and an attached technical booklet analysing the purpose and extent of every indicator complete a promising evaluation tool seeking to drive post-Games development. These post-event viability indicators include environmental, socio-economic and political data, all gathered to evaluate the event operation and the whole framework of event hosting locally as well as nationally. IOC's OGI study involves a 12-year period and presents four specific reports. Namely, the "Baseline Report" includes demographic and local features two years prior to the selection of the host city becoming the base for the following reports. Then the "Pre-Games Report" analyses updated features while the "Game-Time Report" focuses on data gathered during the event staging. Finally, the "Post-Games Report" becomes the crucial stage offering final conclusions on the impact of the Games in the host environment. "Sustainability, legacy and inclusion" are at the heart of IOC strategy aiming at a positive impact before competition even begun.

Critic parts of the literature expanding the reasoning behind this IOC's commitment to promote the impact evaluation suggest that a positive post-event legacy development would lift the responsibility burden off IOC that has often been accountable for a negative post-event reality. Additionally, measurable evidence of a positive impact would obviously justify the huge public investments needed to facilitate the event and the tax moved down to citizens in the name of a better future. Similarly, facing the new reality where few and only powerful countries presently seek to host Olympic Games and mega events overall, IOC demonstrates their catalytic power for the local host tangibly, aiming to motivate additional places to become hosts and therefore secure the future of the Games (Gratton & Preuss, 2008). In the same lines, despite the appreciation of the study's value in guiding legacy planning in the host environment, criticism has been recorded by academics and organizers when the emphasis is given towards auditing short-term specific impact indicators than producing an instrument of holistic local development through event hosting (Atkinson & De Lisio, 2014).

Authors have noted the limited evaluation capabilities of the programme lasting just two years after the event completion and propose at least 15–20 years to secure validity of results (Gratton & Preuss, 2008). Bouchon (2017) agrees that a long-term post-event study should be contacted at least ten years later due to the several economic and societal changes occurring ever since that would dramatically affect the local environment. The application of the impact study is challenged further especially when the post-event management structure undergoes huge changes. One of the basic factors leading to a successful impact programme as suggested by Homma and Masumoto (2013) is the definition of the appropriate institution that would undertake, monitor and deliver a complete and valid study. This is more complicated when the organizing committees disappear a few months after the event staging and their advanced knowledge on event operation is ineffectively transferred to local players, namely the National Olympic Committees and local authorities lacking expertise on similar developmental issues. The same authors add another crucial political factor that challenges the impact study's effectiveness further. Democratic countries could prove to be very unstable and unpredictable organizers with inconsistent post-event legacy planning. The variety and wideness of the stakeholders involved suggest an ever-changing behaviour, long negotiations and conflicting interests creating a turbulent policy, hosting and post-event legacy setting (Könecke & de Nooij, 2017). Authoritative regimes lack complicated procedures, inclusion of local say and present less costly and timely negotiations, offering IOC evidently ease and control. Literature wonders whether this obvious facilitation by authoritative regimes would drive IOC away from democratic but demanding and unstable organizers and most importantly, unable to secure Olympic legacy, thus Games credibility (Könecke, Schubert & Preuss, 2016).

An in-depth analysis of the latest policy documents by IOC fails to create optimism facing a lack of tourism legacy suggestions and reflecting a certain level of anxiety towards a sustainable Olympic future. However, the analysis appreciates that the production of these documents set the basis for more efficient operations and post-Games development locally, advising for sustainability practices' inclusion at all stages of the event hosting. Starting from the "Olympic Agenda 2020+5" (IOC, 2021) certain recommendations contribute to the "delivery of lasting benefits to the Host communities prior to and after the Olympic Games", while vividly urge the achievement of legacy plans through a governance structure and relevant funding scheme early in the hosting process. The recommendations suggest "less permanent construction in cultural protected areas" to protect local character, while emphasizing the need to 'monitor and measure' the impact and the legacy plans constantly. A continuous interacting with all stakeholders, entities and localities towards encouraging legacy programmes is promoted towards the common notion that "Once an Olympic City always an Olympic City". Limited reference to the tourism dimension is recorded in the advice to "enhance the Olympic Games hospitality experience while increasing associated revenues for the OCOGs and the Olympic Movement" but only Games-time.

This growing concern over the challenge of hosting sustainably leads to continuous production of new instruments and guidelines aiming to make cities embrace a post-event Olympic legacy and secure the positive image of the Games. Similarly, IOC's (2017) "Strategic Approach" (2017) and the "Legacy Reporting Framework" (IOC, 2018) demonstrate IOC's commitment towards promoting a sustainable future for host cities starting from the bidding phase till years after event hosting. Furthermore, IOC's latest "Over 125 years of Olympic venues: Post-Games use" (2022) represents a more tangible evidence of sport venues usage through the initiation of "permanent legacy initiatives" seeking "to mark important sites that hosted specific events or activities related to an edition of the Olympic Games and bring forward important legacy stories". However, despite this considerably large optimistic volume of developmental guidelines by IOC, the present study underlines the lack of tourism-related recommendations that would offer host cities a tourism initiation perspective. The only exception to the above is included in the "Criteria for Regular Use" suggesting "regular ongoing tourism/leisure offer (venue tours, site visits, sight-seeing)" as a tourism post-event legacy proposal. Obviously, this limited reference is insufficient towards initiating an event-related tourism future for host cities in need for a guiding vehicle in order to build on the gained Games exposure.

Similarly, International Sport Federations (IFs) being the governing bodies for sports gather all rules and regulations' mechanisms around the core goal of developing sports further. Olympic and non-Olympic sport federations face fierce competition in the arena of different leisure products that through broadcasting reach the most remote markets. One of the most crucial constitutional roles of the sport federations is to constantly develop their sport to different continents, nations and localities and thus, increasing the number of participants worldwide. The role of the IFs in mega events becomes of great importance when they decide on crucial parts of the venue design and planning, and participate in all crucial negotiations with the organizers, especially at the first stages of event planning. Besides their direct involvement in event preparation and expressed authority over the facilitation of competition procedures, the post-event development becomes their interest. Actually, forcing a post-event sport-specific development becomes not only a crucial responsibility but a demonstration of the IF power and efficiency. Powerful IFs concentrate to the effective preparation of the competition but equally to the claim of a strong legacy for their sport. IFs' interest is evidenced in the first stages of construction when their influence and pressure are placed on securing their sport legacy in the form of quality sport facilities equipped and planned to serve their sport. Mainly, sport federations focus on sport-specific legacy than a holistic viable development satisfying their constitutional responsibility but causing additional burden to local authorities. In an effort to secure their sport legacy IFs force huge capacities, extravagant facilities and thus, a questionable future through superstructures disproportionate to local needs.

IOC and sport federations despite their early appreciation of the inter-linkage between sport and tourism (Cooperation with the World Tourism Organization, IOC, 1999) have not included an explicit requirement for tourism-related post-event development. In addition, sustainable tourism is promoted as "strategic intent for 2030" aiming to contribute to environmental solutions but does not offer any applicable local tourism initiation practices. Understandably, IFs' sport managing responsibilities limit their decisions to sport venue suggestions and future use, failing to incorporate sports development and venue legacy into a wider local economic, social and tourism development.

5 Conclusions

There is wide acceptance that planning an extensive legacy programme is crucial to the benefit of all. Priority should be now given to justified, calculated and adjusted to the local features strategy leading to a sustainable development for the host region. International sport and business organizations' pressure for bigger and overstated superstructures should be diminished when viability cannot be guaranteed. Organizers have to be facilitated to balance sport and mega event requirements with the holistic local long-term planning and decided democratically by all involved players. Long-term viability of the post-event locality is heavily based on the assemblage of all participating parts' incentives, interests and motives as well as their structure, goals and different operations.

Similarly, tourism development is included in the economic prosperity of the local community and is an inseparable consequence of the promotion the city receives due to the event staging. Tourism must be the impact of a well-planned legacy strategic plan exploiting the appealing image transferred through the broadcasted event and not as a product of utopist external agendas of international organizations defending their interests (Kassens-Noor & Lauermann, 2017). International sport bodies should also be directed to include sport tourism-related legacy schemes and contribute to the viability of the sport venues and the overall tourism lift of the area. In addition, sport governing bodies should embrace legacy planning at all stages of bidding, preparing and hosting of a mega event locally creating a culture of proactive planning. More importantly, the creation of a multi-stakeholders planning and supervisory body could be initiated to secure a well-planned legacy scheme, constant evaluation of legacy implementation related to viable venue operations and effective tourism development.

This democratic and all-inclusive scheme is the biggest challenge host cities will have to face due to the complex and multifacet nature of the players deriving from sport, organizers, business, government, tourism industry, local authorities and a plethora of involved international organizations. However, the dynamic produced by the most appealing leisure product in the world, that of mega sport events, creates space for optimism that significant tourism activity combining the sporting thrill and the uniqueness of each host locality can be developed sustainably.

References

Anderson, P. (2000). *Sports facilities reports. National sports law institute of marquette university law school*, *1*(1), Milwaukee.

Atkinson, M., & De Lisio, A. (2014). Mega-events, sport legacies and sociologically informed impact assessment. In *Sport, social development and peace* (Vol. 8, pp. 219–243). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Atkinson, G., Mourato, S., Szymanski, S., & Ozdemiroglu, E. (2008). Are we willing to pay enough to back the bid? Valuing the intangible impacts of London's bid to host the 2012 summer Olympic Games. *Urban Studies, 45*(2), 419–444.

Bairner, A. (2008). The cultural politics of remembrance: Sport, place and memory in Belfast and Berlin. *International Journal of Cultural Policy, 14*(4), 417–430.

Barget, E., & Gouguet, J. J. (2007). The total economic value of sporting events theory and practice. *Journal of Sports Economics, 8*(2), 165–182.

Bottero, M., Sacerdotti, S. L., & Mauro, S. (2012). Turin 2006 Olympic winter games: Impacts and legacies from a tourism perspective. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change, 10*(2), 202–217.

Bouchon, F. (2017). Ice cream economy and mega-events legacy, perspectives for urban tourism management. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, *6*(5).

Cashman, R., & Darcy, S. (Eds.). (2008). *Benchmark games: The sydney 2000 paralympic games.* Walla Press in conjunction with the Australian Centre for Olympic Studies.

Cashman, R., & Horne, J. (2013). Managing Olympic legacy. In S. Frawley & D. Adair (Eds.), *Managing the Olympics* (pp. 50–65). Palgrave.

Chappelet, J. L. (2012). Mega sporting event legacies: A multifaceted concept. *Papeles De Europa, 25*, 76–86.

Chen, Y. (2012). Urban strategies and post-event legacy: the case of summer Olympic cities. In *AESOP (Association of European Schools of Planning) 26th Annual Congress, Ankara, Turkey, 11–15 July 2012.*

Clapp, C. M., & Hakes, J. K. (2005). How long a honeymoon? The effect of New Stadiums on attendance in Major League Baseball. *Journal of Sports Economics, 6*(3), 237–263.

Darcy, S., & Taylor, T. (2013). Managing Olympic venues. In S. Frawley, & D. Adair (Eds.), *Managing the Olympics*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Davies, L. E. (2005). Not in my back yard! Sports stadia location and the property market. *Area, 37*(3), 268–276.

De Faria Nogueira, M. A. (2017). The Olympic Gaze. In *Book of Proceedings II International Congress on Interdisciplinarity in Social and Human Sciences* (Vol. 11, p. 830).

Dickson, T., Benson, A., & Blackman, D. (2011). Developing a framework for evaluating Olympic and Paralympic legacies. *Journal of Sport and Tourism, 16*(4), 285–302.

Ferrari, S., & Guala, C. (2015). Mega-events and their legacy: Image and tourism in Genoa. *Turin and Milan. Leisure Studies, 36*(1), 119–137.

Giannakopoulou, M. (2020). Olympic gigantism and the multifaceted concept of sports venues. In *Cultural and tourism innovation in the digital era* (pp. 111–121). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36342-0_9

Gibson, H. G. (2006). *Sport tourism – concepts and theories*. Routledge.

Gold, J. R., & Gold, M. M. (2011). The summer Olympics. In J.R. Gold, & M.M. Gold (Eds.), *Olympic cities: City agendas, planning and the world's games, 1896–2016*. Routledge.

Gratton, C., & Preuss, H. (2008). Maximizing Olympic impacts by building up legacies. *The International Journal of the History of Sport, 25*(14), 1922–1938.

Hartman, S., & Zandberg, T. (2015). The future of mega sport events: Examining the "Dutch Approach" to legacy planning. *Journal of Tourism Futures, 1*(2), 108–116.

Homma, K., & Masumoto, N. (2013). A theoretical approach for the Olympic legacy study focusing on sustainable sport legacy. *International Journal of the History of Sport, 30*(12), 1455–1471.

Horne, J. (2017). Understanding the denial of abuses of human rights connected to sports mega-events. *Leisure Studies, 37*(1), 11–21.

IOC. (1999). IOC cooperation with the world tourism organization, Lausanne.

IOC. (2006). Olympic games global impact study, Lausanne.

IOC. (2017). Legacy strategic approach moving forward, Lausanne.

IOC. (2018). Legacy reporting framework, Lausanne.

IOC. (2021). Olympic agenda 2020+5, Lausanne.

IOC, (2022). Over 125 years of Olympic venues: Post-Games use, Lausanne.

Kassens-Noor, E., & Lauermann, J. (2017). How to bid better for the Olympics: A participatory mega-event planning strategy for local legacies. *Journal of the American Planning Association, 83*(4), 335–345.

Kassens-Noor, E. (2016). From ephemeral planning to permanent urbanism: An urban planning theory for mega-events. *Urban Planning, 1*(1), 41–52.

Kiuri, M., & Teller, J. (2015). Olympic stadiums and cultural heritage: On the nature and status of heritage values in large sport facilities. *International Journal of the History of Sport, 32*(5), 684–707.

Könecke, T., & de Nooij, M. (2017). The IOC and Olympic bids from democracies and authoritarian regimes – A socioeconomic analysis and strategic insights. *Current Issues in Sport Science, 2(9).*

Könecke, T., Schubert, M., & Preuss, H. (2016). (N)Olympia in Germany? An analysis of the referendum against Munich 2022. *Sportwissenschaft, 46*(1), 15–24.

Kourtesopoulou, A., Vrondou O., Kriemadis T., Alexopoulos P., Papaioannou, A., & Leivadi, S. (2009). *The importance of effective sports venue planning in the post-olympic usage: The case study of Peristeri Olympic Hall*. In *The 17th European Association for Sport Management Conference, September, Amsterdam.*

Magnani, M. (2013). Why do dictators like white elephants? An application of the all-pay auction. *Economics Bulletin, 33*(3), 2260–2269.

Mangan, J. A., & Dyreson, M. (Eds.). (2013). *Olympic legacies: Intended and unintended: Political, cultural, economic and educational*. Routledge.

Matheson, V. (2012). Assessing the Infrastructure impact of mega – events in emerging economies. (N^{o}. 1203), *College of The Holy Cross*, Department of Economics.

Nelson, A. (2002). Locating major league stadiums where they can make a difference. *Public Works Management and Policy, 7*(2), 98–114.

Pitts, A., & Liao, H. (2013). An assessment technique for the evaluation and promotion of sustainable Olympic design and urban development. *Building Research and Information, 41*(6), 722–734.

Pound, R. W. (2016). The management of big games: An introduction. *Sport in Society, 19*(6), 786–795.

Preuss, H. (2007). The Conceptualisation and measurement of mega sport event legacies. *Journal of Sport and Tourism, 12*(3–4), 207–227.

Preuss, H. (2015). A framework for identifying the legacies of a mega sport event. *Leisure Studies, 34*(6), 643–664.

Robinson, J. A., & Torvik, R. (2005). White elephants. *Journal of Public Economics, 89*, 197–210.

Rosenthal, S. (2017). Olympic cities and the legacy of infrastructure: Barcelona 1992 and Athens 2004. In *Senior Capstone Projects* (p. 655).

Schmedes, S. (2015). Sustainable design of sports stadiums. (Doctoral dissertation), Welsh School of Architecture, Cardiff University.

Shimmon, R. (2004). The international committee of the blue shield 1998–2004: An overview. *Alexandria, 16*(3), 133–141.

Shirai, H. (2014). The evolving vision of the Olympic legacy: the development of the mixed-use Olympic Parks of Sydney and London (Doctoral dissertation), The London School of Economics and Political Science.

Smith, A., & Fox, T. (2007). From 'event-led' to 'event-themed' regeneration: The 2002 commonwealth games legacy programme. *Urban Studies, 44*(5&6), 1125–1144.

Stuart, S. A., & Scassa, T. (2011). Legal guarantees for Olympic legacy. *The Entertainment and Sports Law Journal, 9*(1), 3.

Varrell, A., & Kennedy, L. (2011). Mega-events and mega-projects. Bonn: European Association of Development Research and Training Institutes (EADI).

Vrondou, O., Kriemadis, T., Papaioannou, A., & Douvis, J. (2018). Forming policy networks between the organizing committee for Olympic games and the host city. *Advances in Sport Management Research, 1*(1), 24–41.

Vrondou, O. (2022). Sport venues evolving to tourism and hospitality giants? Proof of dynamic tendency. In *Transcending borders in tourism through innovation and cultural heritage* (pp. 791–802). Springer.

Does It Matter? The Influence of Leadership, Motivation and Empowerment on the Career Progression of Women in tourism–A South Africa Case

Nasreen Tisaker and Magdalena Petronella Swart

Abstract Gender inequalities persist in all economic sectors around the world, and women do not have the same economic possibilities as men. According to the World Bank, the tourist sector provides significant opportunities for women's empowerment by allowing them to rise in leadership and entrepreneurship roles (Twining-Ward L, Zhou V, Women and tourism: designing for inclusion, 2017). This research intends to investigate how leadership, motivation, and empowerment affect women's career progression in the South African tourism sector. The study was quantitative and descriptive, allowing researchers to evaluate the impact of leadership, motivation, and empowerment on women's career progression in the tourism sector in South Africa. Women working in destination marketing organisations (DMOs), hospitality, business tourism, travel agencies, and tour operators across the country provided primary data for this study. The findings of this study show that *leadership of women in tourism* did not meet the statistical criteria, and only *motivation* and *empowerment* of women in tourism are therefore discussed. This study is expected to address a gap in the body of knowledge on women in tourism in the South African tourism sector, as well as contribute to the rising global discourse on women's motivation and empowerment in tourism.

Keywords Gender inequality · Leadership · Motivation · Empowerment · Career progression women in tourism

JEL Classification Z32 tourism and development

1 Introduction

In countries such as India, China, and Japan the tourism sector has outperformed most other economic sectors, and South Africa is no different (Anon, 2019). The South African government has recognised the immense impact the tourism sector has on the

N. Tisaker (✉) · M. P. Swart
University of South Africa (UNISA), Tshwane, South Africa
e-mail: 30918383@mylife.unisa.ac.za

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_18

country's economy. This is evident in the sector's inclusion as a priority sector in most of the government strategic plans such as the Industrial Action Plan (IPAP, 2007), the New Growth Path (NGP, 2010), and the National Development Plan (NDP, 2013, 2017). The NDP serves as the South African government's national strategic plan to achieve its economic goals. Tourism has been known to be a highly labour-intensive sector, this could assist in the development of small businesses and stimulate much-needed foreign direct investment (FDI) and export income (Department of Tourism, 2017; HSRC, 2016).

Statistics South Africa (STATSA, 2019, p. 1) reports that every 4 in 10 employed in the tourism sector are women and these women are mostly employed in the food and beverage, accommodation, retail trade, and recreational service sectors (STATSA, 2019b). With reference to social security and gender inequality in South Africa, Plagerson, Hochfield, and Stuart (2019, p. 1) claim that "more women than men experience poverty; women represent a growing proportion of the labour force yet, on average, receive lower wages in more insecure environments than men". Furthermore, women bear the greatest personal cost of care and carry a disproportionate share of the responsibilities in the domestic sphere compared to men (Plagerson et al., 2019). The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) highlights the importance of gender equality and the empowerment of women, and it has become one of the central tenets for the sustainable development of tourism, these sentiments were reiterated during the commemoration of World Tourism Day in 2019 (UNWTO, 2019; Boley et al., 2017; United Nations, 2015). Women are important drivers of the tourism industry and constitute a large percentage of those employed within the sector. This study aims to investigate how leadership, motivation, and empowerment can influence the career progression of women in the South African tourism sector. This paper will commence with a brief literature review, thereafter the method of the research will be discussed, followed by a discussion of the findings. The implication of the research is followed by the conclusion.

2 Literature Review

Leadership Of Women in Tourism

Leadership has been defined from various perspectives such as psychology, management, and human resources, amongst others. Ward (2019, p. 1) has a simple definition of leadership, "it is the art of motivating a group of people to act towards achieving a common goal". Therefore, in the context of this study, leadership of women in the tourism sector is the art of being confident, motivated, having the ability to manage and direct resources (human and monetary) and to inspire and empower individuals irrespective of gender. Researchers have found that women do not lack leadership skills but rather do not fit the gender stereotype of a leader classification (Carbajal, 2018). Women tend to shy away from leadership roles because they believe in not having the ability and qualities to be a good leader (Angelovska, 2019; Sánchez &

Lehnert, 2019). It is acknowledged that in post-apartheid South Africa gender equality has been highlighted, women have entered mainstream management and leadership positions, but white heterosexual males remain the stereotypical epitome of management in both theory and practice (Mayer et al., 2018). In all economic sectors, women remain overrepresented in low-income jobs which are less secure, but the idea of earning a wage is seen as a pathway to empowerment and a method to address gender equality (Guvuriro & Booysen, 2019). Men have far better networking access than women and research has shown that networking and mentors have a great impact on the career trajectory of an individual (Sánchez & Lehnert, 2019; Carbajal, 2018). A means of fostering women in leadership is through the implementation of leadership development programmes, such as the South African Tourism/Nedbank partnership in 2022, which provides women with access to training, mentors, and networking opportunities (Frkal, 2018; Kazi, 2021). Therefore, leadership of women in tourism will be investigated through power (Carbajal, 2018; Frkal, 2018), mentorship (Sánchez & Lehnert, 2019; Carbajal, 2018), and development programmes (Frkal, 2018) as dimensions. Against this background the following hypothesis is proposed:

***H*$_1$**: *Leadership of women in the tourism* can be reliably and validly measured.

Motivation of Women in Tourism

Motivation is the internal compulsion to want to achieve a particular objective or to attain a certain goal (Glišović et al., 2019; Jenni, 2017). Motivation is personal and can be intrinsic which is related to self-interest and personal enjoyment, and extrinsic which relates to receiving rewards (financial) in recognition for completing tasks (Jenni, 2017; Stefko et al., 2018; Filimonov, 2017). Individuals who are motivated are said to be more creative and innovative and are more likely to be engaged employees (Amah, 2018). Factors that relate to gender must not reduce one's desire to attain their goals within the tourism sector. Therefore, dimensions productivity (Amah, 2018), engagement, intrinsic (Jenni, 2017) and extrinsic motivation (Stefko et al., 2018) are selected to investigate the motivation of women in tourism. The following hypothesis is proposed:

***H*$_2$**: *Motivation of women in tourism* can be reliably and validly measured.

Empowerment of Women in Tourism

"Empowerment refers to the expansion in the capacity to make strategic and meaningful choices by those who have previously been denied this capacity but in ways that do not reproduce, and may actively challenge, the structures of inequality in their society" (Kabeer, 2017, p. 653). Moswete and Lacy (2015), imply that the empowerment of women should be a process rather than an outcome. Empowerment of women can take many forms such as entrepreneurship as well as organisational and governmental initiatives such as increased employment of women (Raghunandan, 2018). Empowerment of women in the South African tourism sector, is the allowance to feel and think freely, to make their own personal and financial decisions, and to have the freedom of access to participate in the economy. Therefore, entrepreneurial skill

(Raghunandan, 2018), competence (Jena, 2018), and autonomy (Boley et al., 2017) are the selected dimensions to investigate the empowerment of women in tourism. A hypothesis is proposed as:

H$_3$: *Leadership of women in tourism* can the reliably and validly measured.

Relationship between Leadership of women in tourism and Motivation of women in tourism

Women are often not motivated to pursue positions in leadership due to family responsibilities, therefore organisations can overcome this by implementing leadership development programmes (Frkal, 2018; Stefko et al., 2018). This study researched the relationship from two perspectives, (i) why women are motivated to take leadership roles and, (ii) how leadership can assist in the motivation of women who pursue leadership positions (Morgan, 2017). Against this background the following hypothesis is proposed.

H$_4$: There is a relationship between Leadership of women in tourism and Motivation of women in tourism.

Relationship between Motivation of women in tourism and Empowerment of women in tourism

Motivation of women in the South African tourism sector refers to an internal desire to be persistent in the pursuit of attaining a certain goal and to succeed, with or without remuneration (Stefko et al., 2018). It is important to understand whether motivated women feel empowered to achieve greater autonomy and to advance their entrepreneurial skill (Jenni, 2017). The following hypothesis is proposed as:

H$_5$: There is a relationship between *Motivation of women in tourism* and *Empowerment of women in tourism.*

Relationship between Leadership of women in tourism and Empowerment of women in tourism

Empowerment is a powerful tool that can be used by women to address the many gender imbalances such as wage inequalities and lack of women leaders (Vujko et al., 2019). The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) also emphasised the importance of gender equality and women's empowerment, which has become one of the essential principles for tourism's long-term sustainability (UNWTO, 2019).

H$_6$: There is a relationship between *Leadership of women in tourism* and *Empowerment of women in tourism.*

In support of the discussion above, Fig. 1 illustrates the three proposed constructs with the respective dimensions as well as the three relationships between *Leadership of women in tourism*, *Motivation of women in tourism*, and *Empowerment of women in tourism* on the career progression of South African women in tourism.

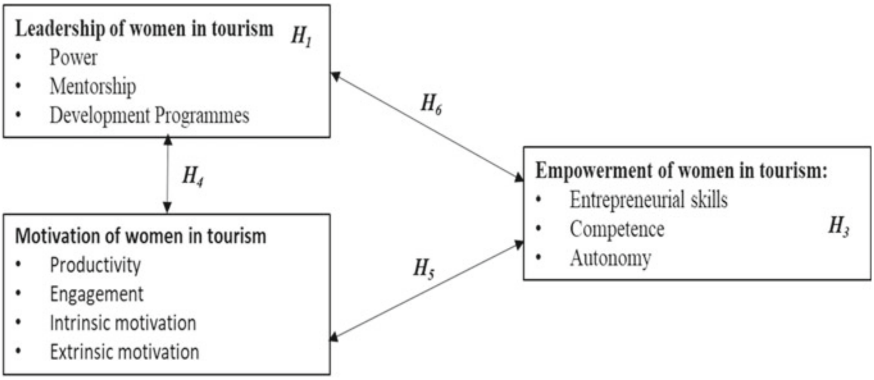


Fig. 1 Theoretical framework. *Source* Authors' own compilation

It is evident in Fig. 1 that leadership, motivation, and empowerment were used to investigate the influence and relationships between the three constructs on the career progression of South African women in tourism.

3 Methodology

The present research was conducted during the period of the Coronavirus (COVID-19), which was declared as a global pandemic by the World Health Organisation (Posel et al., 2021). The research design was a quantitative study and descriptive which allowed for the opportunity to investigate the influence of leadership, motivation, and empowerment on the career progression of women in the South African tourism sector. The approval of the present study's ethical clearance application by the UNISA ethics committee in November 2020 (Ref# 2020_CEMS_DAM_016), enabled the commencement of the fieldwork. Exponential non-discriminative snowball sampling was utilised to gather participants for the study. An online questionnaire (https://survey.unisa.ac.za/index.php/389115?l) was administered via email and through social media platforms such as LinkedIn, Twitter, and Facebook. Data collection was conducted from April 2021 to September 2021.

Primary data for this study was collected from women who are actively employed in entry-level to upper management positions within destination marketing organisations (DMOs), hospitality, business tourism, travel agencies, and tour operators' industries throughout South Africa. A new questionnaire for this study was developed according to the questionnaire-development process outlined by McMillan and Schumacher (2010) and consisted of 49 items. The present study followed the guidelines recommended by Hair, Hult, Ringle, Sarstedt, Danks and Ray (2021), which was to collect between 5 to 10 responses per questionnaire item to ensure the reliability of the results. The sample size for the present study consisted of 246 respondents.

IBM SPSS V 27 was used in the analysis of the collected data. The method for data analysis followed a descriptive statistics method, exploratory factor analyses (EFA), and Pearson's correlation.

Findings

Section A of the research questionnaire requested respondents to answer screening questions, to ensure the participants were only women, who were actively employed in the tourism sector. Section A focussed on female characteristics and asked questions about gender, age, province of residence, the sector they were employed in, level of employment, and their highest qualification. The findings are based on sample size (n) of 246 respondents.

All respondents were female (246) with the majority of respondents being between the ages of 18 and 37 (50,8%). Most respondents were based in the Western Cape (58%) and Gauteng (19,2%) with a majority holding an undergraduate qualification (48,4%). 83,2% of the respondents had more than 5 years of working experience and most respondents were entry-level to middle management employees (58,8%).

The descriptive data was investigated by the degrees of freedom, mean, median, skewness, and kurtosis, and it met the criteria for further analysis.

4 Results of Factor Analysis

Leadership of women in tourism as a proposed construct was omitted as it did not contribute to a simple factor structure as the items did not meet the minimum criteria of the Kaiser, Meyer, Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) index, Bartlett's test of sphericity or degree of variance in each factor (Pallant, 2020; Hair et al., 2021). Thus, H_1 was not supported by the data.

Factor Analysis for Constructs: Motivation, and Empowerment

The two constructs, *Motivation of women in tourism* and *Empowerment of women in tourism*, were subjected to an exploratory first-order factor analysis. For the factor analysis to be regarded as suitable, Bartlett's test of sphericity must be significant ($p \leq 0.05$). The Kaiser, Meyer, Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) index varies from 0 to 1, with a minimum value of 0.6 required for a good factor analysis (Pallant, 2020). The degree of variance in each factor that is reported for, is shown by communalities. Acceptable cut-off values have been recommended as being 0.3, with optimal communalities being 0.7 or higher than 6 (Pallant, 2020; Hair et al., 2021), of which the results are indicated in Table 1.

Results for Motivation

Table 1 shows that these two hypothesised factors account for 65.129 per cent of the variance in the factor space. Items D1-D6, D10, and D14 were eliminated. Factor 1 (Extrinsic motivation) and Factor 2 (Intrinsic motivation) were extracted. Factor 1 had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.72, whereas Factor 2 had a Cronbach Alpha

Table 1 Bartlett's test for specificity and KMO MSA values for constructs *Motivation of women in tourism* and *Empowerment of women in tourism*

Constructs	Bartlett's test of Specificity			KMO MSA	α
	x^2	*Df*	*p*		
Motivation of women in tourism (H_2)	591.47	21	≤ 0.001	0.75	Factor 1 = 0.72
					Factor 2 = 0.74
Empowerment of women in tourism (H_3)	1141.74	78	≤ 0.001	0.81	Factor 1 = 0.74
					Factor 2 = 0.76
					Factor 3 = 0.74

All constructs are significant at the $p \leq$, 001

x^2–chi-square; *df*–degrees of freedom; *p*–probability value; α–Cronbach alpha coefficient

coefficient of 0.74. As the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was higher than the estimated Cronbach Alpha coefficient (0.70) (Pallant, 2020), both factors were appropriate for future investigation. A normality test was performed on both the newly formed factors, yielding a value of p ≤ 0.001, suggesting the scales are not normally distributed. As the sample size was bigger than 200 and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test tends to be sensitive to larger samples sizes, the test for normality was not critical (Tabachnic et al., 2013). Thus, the data supports H_2 through the two newly forms latent variables.

Results for Empowerment

Table 1 shows that these three hypothesised factors account for 59.74 per cent of the variance in the factor space. E1 was the only item eliminated. Factor 1 (Competence), Factor 2 (Entrepreneurship), and Factor 3 (Autonomy) were extracted as the new latent variables. Factor 1 had a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.74, while Factor 2 had a coefficient of.76 and Factor 3 had a coefficient of 0.74. Because the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was higher than the estimated Cronbach Alpha coefficient (0.70) (Pallant, 2020), all three factors were appropriate for future investigation. A normality test was performed on all three the newly formed factors, yielding a value of p ≤ 0.001, suggesting the scales are not normally distributed. As the sample size was bigger than 200 and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test tends to be sensitive to larger samples sizes, the test for normality was not critical (Tabachnic et al. 2013). Thus, the data supports H_3 through the three newly forms latent variables.

Results from the Construct Relationships

As the data only supported H_2 and H_3 through the newly computed latent variables, a Pearsons correlation was conducted to investigate the relationship between Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, Competence, Autonomy, and Entrepreneurship. These relationships are illustrated in Table 2.

Following the results of the inter-correlation matrix in Table 2, the following relationships is evident:

Table 2 Relationships between the new factors

		Competence	Entrepreneur ship	Autonomy	Extrinsic Motivation	Intrinsic Motivation
Competence	Pearson Correlation	1	**0.453****	0.098	**0.698****	**0.367****
	Sig.(2-tailed)		0.000	0.127	0.000	0.000
	N	246	246	246	246	246
Entrepreneurship	Pearson Correlation	0.453**	1	**0.209****	**0.445****	**0.358****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.001	0.000	0.000
	N	246	246	246	246	246
Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	0.098	0.209**	1	0.114	0.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.127	0.001		0.074	0.106
	N	246	246	246	246	246
Extrinsic Motivation	Pearson Correlation	0.698**	0.445**	0.114	1	**0.457****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.074		0.000
	N	246	246	246	246	246
Intrinsic Motivation	Pearson Correlation	0.367**	0.358**	0.103	0.457**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.106	0.000	
	N	246	246	246	246	246

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

There is a positive direct relationship between the scores on *Intrinsic Motivation* and *Extrinsic Motivation* where $r = 0.46$, n = 246, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020), indicating the more internally motivated women in tourism are, the more they will be motivated by external factors. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggestion a good relationship between *Intrinsic Motivation* and *Extrinsic Motivation.*

There is a positive direct relationship between the scores on *Intrinsic Motivation* and *Competence* where $r = 0.37$, n = 246, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020), indicating the more internally motivated women in tourism are, the more competent they feel. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggestion a good relationship between *Intrinsic Motivation* and *Competence.*

There is a positive direct relationship between the scores on *Intrinsic Motivation* and *Entrepreneurship* where $r = 0.36$, n = 246, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020), indicating the more internally motivated women in tourism are, the more they are included to become entrepreneurs. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggestion a good relationship between *Intrinsic Motivation* and *Entrepreneurship.*

There is a positive direct relationship between the scores on *Extrinsic Motivation* and *Competence* where $r = 0.70$, $n = 246$, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020), indicating the more externally motivated women in tourism are, the more the more competent they feel. The effect size was large (Cohen, 1988), suggestion a strong relationship between *Extrinsic Motivation* and *Competence.*

There is a positive direct relationship between the scores on *Extrinsic Motivation* and *Entrepreneurship* where $r = 0.45$, $n = 246$, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020), indicating the more externally motivated women in tourism are, the more they are included to entrepreneurship. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggestion a good relationship between *Extrinsic Motivation* and *Entrepreneurship.*

There is a positive direct relationship between the scores on *Competence* and *Entrepreneurship* where $r = 0.45$, $n = 246$, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020), indicating the more competent women in tourism are, the more they are included to entrepreneurship. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggestion a good relationship between *Competence* and *Entrepreneurship.*

There is a positive direct relationship between the scores on *Autonomy* and *Entrepreneurship* where $r = 0.21$, $n = 246$, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020), indicating the more autonomy women in tourism have, the more they are included to entrepreneurship. The effect size was small (Cohen, 1988), suggestion a relationship between *Autonomy* and *Entrepreneurship.*

Following the results between the factor relationships a new statistical model is proposed in Fig. 2.

Implications

It is evident from the literature that there is a dearth of studies on the career advancements of women in the South African tourism sector and this study aims to address this discourse. The data was collected at the height of the COVID-19 pandemic in South Africa, data collected on leadership of women in tourism did not meet the statistical criteria and was therefore not reported on. Leadership was not a priority as the tourism industry was hard hit during the COVID-19 pandemic and many women faced retrenchment or had their work hours reduced. Due to family responsibility, women often do not pursue leadership roles or even full-time employment in the tourism sector. The results from this study were also consistent with that of Carbajal (2018) indicating that women do not lack leadership skills but rather do not fit the

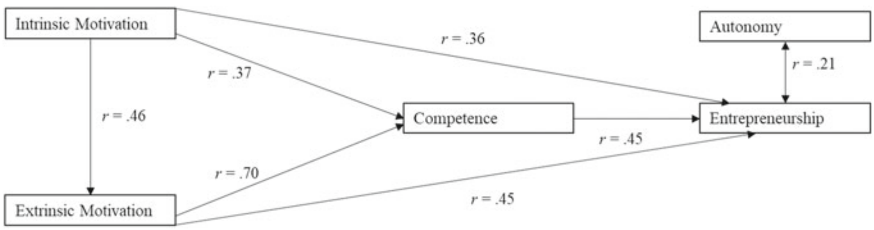


Fig. 2 New proposed statistical model. *Source:* Author's own compilation

gender stereotype of a leader classification. The data therefore did not support $H_{1,}$ Work from home initiatives by organisations should be developed to overcome this. These results are in line with Mayer et al. (2018), Angelovska (2019), Sánchez and Lehnert (2019), that leadership is not a priority for women, and they often believe not to have the skill to pursue leadership roles.

Data supported the notion that *Motivation of women in tourism* is a valid and reliable construct (H_2). Data shows that job independence and the skill to manage the changing tourism environment are of significant importance to women in the South African tourism sector. This finding supports Amah (2018) with the assertion that motivated people are more creative and innovative, as well as more likely to be engaged workers. However, *Motivation of women in tourism* clearly differentiates between their *Intrinsic Motivation* ($\alpha = 0.80$) and *Extrinsic Motivation* ($\alpha = 0.78$).

As indicated in the results above, data supported H_3 indicating that *Empowerment of women in tourism* is a reliable and valid construct, through *Entrepreneurship* ($\alpha = 0.76$), *Competence* ($\alpha = 0.74.80$), and *Autonomy* ($\alpha = 0.74$). Raghunandan (2018) supports this conclusion, stating that women's empowerment can take numerous forms, including entrepreneurship as well as organisational and governmental activities such as greater female employment. Tangible steps need to be taken by the government to provide a favourable environment for women to become owners of businesses and creators of employment.

Data did not support H_4 nor H_6 as both relationships make reference to *Leadership of women in tourism.* These results are consistent with the findings from Frkal (2018) and Stefko et al. (2018), stating that women are typically not motivated to pursue leadership roles due to family commitments. The relationship between *Motivation of women in tourism* and *Empowerment of women in tourism* (H_5) was partially supported by data, but with new relationships between the newly computed variables, as evident on Table 2. The relationships between the new variable make a significant contribution to the existing body of knowledge by providing new insights on how career advancement of women in tourism are enhanced through *Intrinsic Motivation*, *Extrinsic Motivation*, *Competence*, *Entrepreneurship,* and to a lesser extent *Autonomy.*

5 Conclusion

This study aims to make a valuable contribution to the body of knowledge, in understanding how leadership, motivation, and empowerment can influence the career progression of women in the South African tourism sector. The data collected on *Leadership of women in tourism* was not supported by the data, and only results related to *Motivation of women in tourism* and *Empowerment of women in tourism* was reported on. The relationships between the newly computed latent variables, *Intrinsic Motivation*, *Extrinsic Motivation*, *Competence*, *Autonomy*, and *Entrepreneurship* were investigated using a Pearson's correlation. While these findings add new perspectives to the understanding of career advancement of women in tourism in South Africa, there are, however, limitations relating to this research. In particular, this study was constrained as the data was collected during the COVID-19 pandemic. Data collection was hindered by the study requiring participants to be employed full-time, and with many women experiencing shorter working hours and retrenchment, it took approximately 5 months to attain an appropriate sample size. Further research is warranted on the impact of tourism in the reduction of gender inequality in South Africa. There is a need to look at new ways to motivate women in pursuing career advancement by empirically testing the newly formed later variables in a structural model (Table 2). Furthermore, as the findings of this study is consistent with that of Carbajal (2018), there is a need to design leadership skills classification criteria for women in tourism.

References

Angelovska, N. (2019). Female Leadership - Be Competent like a Women and confident and ambitious like a man. Retrieved from 12 September, 2019, https://www.forbes.com/sites/ninaangelovska/2019/04/23/female-leadership-be-competent-like-a-woman-and-confident-and-ambitions-like-a-man/

Amah, O. E. (2018). Employee engagement in Nigeria: The role of leaders and boundary variables. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 44*(1), 1–8.

Anon (2019). *Country analysis*. Available at: https://www.wttc.org/economic-impact/country-analysis/. [Accessed: 31 July 2019].

Boley, B. B., Ayscue, E., Maruyama, N., & Woosnam, K. M. (2017). Gender and empowerment: Assessing discrepancies using the resident empowerment through tourism scale. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *25*(1), 113–129.

Carbajal, J. (2018). Women and work: Ascending to leadership positions, *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*. *Routledge, 28*(1), 12–27. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2017.1387084.

Cohen, J. W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Department of Tourism. (2017). National tourism sector strategy. Retrieved from https://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Branches1/Knowledge/Documents/National%20Tourism%20Sector%20Strategy.pdf

Filimonov, D. (2017). Extrinsic motivation and incentives.

Frkal, R. A. (2018). *Integrating care and critical reflection in women's leadership development programs* (Vol. 38, pp. 38–50).

Glišović, M. A., Jerotijević, G., & Jerotijević, Z. (2019). Modern approaches to employee motivation. *Science Review., 65*(2), 121–133. https://doi.org/10.5937/ekonomika1902121A

Guvuriro, S., & Booysen, F. (2019). Economic bargaining power and financial decision-making among married and cohabitant women in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa., 36*(4), 504–518.

Hair Jr, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., Danks, N. P., & Ray, S. (2021). *Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) Using R: A Workbook*.

HSRC (Human Science Research Council). (2016). Strategic framework for tourism human resource development. Pretoria. HSRC.

Jena, R. A. (2018). Women Entrepreneurship: A synoptic view, *ASCI Journal of Management*, 47(1): 45–58

Jenni, C. (2017). 'Motivation to lead: A contingent approach to female leadership'. *The Journal of Business Diversity*, *17*(2), 75–81. http://www.na-businesspress.com/jbdopen.html

Kabeer, N. (2017). Economic pathways to women's empowerment and active citizenship: What does the evidence from Bangladesh tell us? *The Journal of Development Studies, 53*(5), 649–663.

Kazi, A. (2021). Nedbank and South African Tourism announces empowering the women in tourism initiative. South African Tourism. Retrieved from 16 February, 2022, https://www.southafrica.net/gl/en/corporate/press/nedbank-and-south-african-tourism-announces-empowering-the-women-in-tourism-initiative

Mayer, C. H., Surtee, S., & Mahadevan, J. (2018). South African women leaders, transformation and diversity conflict intersections. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 31*(4), 877–894. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-10-2016-0196

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry. *MyEducationLab Series*. Pearson

Morgan, R. (2017). *What is the relationship between leadership and motivation?* Retrieved from 12 Oct, 2019, https://www.roymogg.com/what-is-the-relationship-between-leadership-and-motivation/

Moswete, N., & Lacey, G. (2015). Women cannot lead: Empowering women through cultural tourism in Botswana. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism , 23*(4), 600–617. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2014.986488

Pallant, J. (2020). *SPSS survival manual : A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS*. Routledge

Plagerson, S., Hochfeld, T., & Stuart, L. (2019). Social security and gender justice in South Africa: Policy gaps and opportunities. *Journal of Social Policy, 48*(2), 293–310. https://doi.org/10.1017/S004727941800048X

Posel, D., Oyenubi, A., & Kollamparambil, U. (2021). Job loss and mental health during the COVID-19 lockdown: Evidence from South Africa. *PLoS ONE, 16*(3), e0249352.

Raghunandan, V. (2018). Changing equations: Empowerment, entrepreneurship and the welfare of women. *Journal of International Women's Studies, 19*(3), 187–198.

Sánchez, C. M., & Lehnert, K. (2019). The unbearable heaviness of leadership: The effects of competency, negatives, and experience on women's aspirations to leadership. *Journal of Business Research*, *95*(October 2018), 182–194. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.10.033

STATSA. (2019). *Unpacking tourism's workforce.* Retrieved from http://www.statssa.gov.za/?p=11862

Štefko, R., Bacik, R., Fedorko, R., Gavurová, B., Horváth, J., & Propper, M. (2018). Gender differences in the case of work satisfaction and motivation. *Polish Journal of Management Studies*, *16*(1): 215–225. https://doi.org/10.17512/pjms.2017.16.1.18

Twining-Ward, L., & Zhou, V. (2017). Women and tourism: Designing for inclusion. Retrieved from http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/401321508245393514/pdf/120477-WP-PUBLIC-Weds-oct-18-9am-ADD-SERIES-36p-IFCWomenandTourismfinal.pdf.

Tabachnick, B. G., Fidell, L. S., & Ullman, J. B. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (Vol. 7). Pearson.

Nations, U. (2015). *Transforming our world: The 2030 agenda for sustainable development*. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

UNWTO. (2019). *International tourist arrivals reach 1.4 billion two years ahead of forecasts.* Retrieved from https://www2.unwto.org/press-release/2019-01-21/international-tourist-arrivals-reach-14-billion-two-years-ahead-forecasts

Vujko, A., Tretiakova, T. N., Petrović, M. D., Radovanović, M., Gajić, T., & Vuković, D. (2019). Women's empowerment through self-employment in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *76*(September 2018), 328–330. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2018.09.004

Ward, S. (2019). *What is leadership? And can you learn to be a good leader?*. Retrieved from 15 October, 2019, https://www.thebalancesmb.com/leadership-definition-2948275

Exploring Gender Differences in Hotel Choice Safety Factors in the Early Post-COVID-19 Era

Spyridon Mamalis, Irene Kamenidou, and Aikaterini Stavrianea

Abstract Countries worldwide consider the travel and tourism sector of increased significance due to its multiple economic benefits. However, the COVID-19 pandemic has negatively affected the tourism industry, as countries proceeded to lockdowns and restrictions due to health reasons. For Greece, tourism is characterized as its "heavy industry" given that it contributes to a large extent to the formation of the country's GDP and creates significant opportunities for employment in tourism-related sectors. After two lockdowns in 2020, Greece on May 14, 2021, officially opened for tourism, lifting restrictive measures on one hand, and announcing measures for tourists' safety on the other. Under this prism, this research aims to explore Greek tourists' gender differences in the required safety features of tourist accommodation in the early post-pandemic era. It utilized an online structured questionnaire and in a two-month period it collected a sample of N = 413 domestic tourists. Seven statements were used for choosing a tourist accommodation referring to safety measures required by them. Factor analysis reduced the seven statements to three dimensions-variables tested for gender differences. Independent sample t-tests revealed gender differences for two out of three dimensions, based on which discussion, suggestions, and marketing communication techniques for accommodation providers are offered.

Keywords Tourism · COVID-19 · Accommodation · Marketing communication · Tourist behavior

JEL Classifications M30 · M31 · M37 · M38 · M39 · I12 · I18 · L83

S. Mamalis · I. Kamenidou (✉)
Department of Management Science and Technology, International Hellenic University, Kavala, Greece
e-mail: rkam@mst.ihu.gr

A. Stavrianea
Department of Communication and Media Studies, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_19

1 Introduction

The SARS-COV-2 virus initially appeared in Wuhan, China, in December 2019, and its transmission rate led to its classification as a pandemic (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020, Wright, 2020), which had significant immediate consequences (Gossling et al., 2020). According to Senbeto and Hon (2020), tourism plays a crucial role in the growth of many economies around the world, and inevitably the pandemic has created a strong negative effect on the tourism and hospitality sector. These effects were a natural consequence of the restraint and social distance measures imposed worldwide (Gossling et al., 2020; Ramkissoon, 2020).

Tourism for Greece is characterized as its "heavy industry" given that it contributes extensively to the formation of the country's GDP, and due to its multiplier capacity, creates significant opportunities for employment in tourism-related sectors. Recently, however, the outbreak and the spread of COVID-19 have negatively affected the tourism industry, as countries worldwide, due to health reasons, have placed restrictions on travel by closing their borders. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO in INSENTE, 2021), world tourism in the period 2019–2020 recorded a decrease of international arrivals by −74% which translates into losses of approximately 1.08 billion international arrivals, due to the unprecedented drop in demand and widespread travel restrictions. The collapse of world tourism translates into losses of $ 1.3 trillion in export earnings, 11 times more than the losses incurred recorded during the financial crisis in 2009.

On May 14, 2021, Greece reopened its borders to tourism and the country entered the "tourism season". After two consecutive lockdowns in 2020, as well as several restrictive measures, tourism was essential for Greece to boost the country's economy. Evenmore, due to the two lockdowns imposed in 2020 as well as multiple restrictions, people wanted to ease their stress from isolation by traveling (Sánchez-Pérez et al., 2021).

The tourism industry post-COVID functions differently as compared with the prior COVID-19 pandemic and the SARS-COV2 variants era. Also, the tourists' behavior has changed and therefore, deep insight into tourists' behavior is needed (Sigala, 2020). In this prism, a strong understanding of tourists' accommodation preferences, choices, and requirements is a prerequisite for accommodation managers to comply with (Del Chiappa et al., 2021a). Additionally, prior research (e.g., Untaru & Han, 2021) revealed that gender impacts consumption behavior during a crisis setting. Lastly, studies exploring gender differences in this context (tourist accommodation choice early post-pandemic) are rare.

Therefore, this research has as it aims to explore gender differences in safety factors when choosing a hotel during the early post-COVID tourism period in 2021.

2 Literature Review

Research on the COVID-19 pandemic and tourist-related issues is in abundance. A large number of research studies have assessed the impact of COVID-19 on the hospitality industry (Fotiadis et al., 2021; Qiu et al., 2020; Sigala, 2020; Škare et al., 2021; Yeh, 2021). Moreover, a considerable number of papers deal with potential tourists' perception of safety, and perceived risk in traveling (Chan, 2021; Matiza & Slabbert, 2021; Osti & Nava, 2020; Sánchez-Cañizares et al., 2021). Another point of interest is peoples' intention to travel for tourism purposes and visit a destination (Gupta et al., 2022; Sánchez-Cañizares et al., 2021; Worrachananun & Srisuksai, 2021). Moreover, destination choice has been a focus of an adequate number of research papers (Karl et al., 2020; Kupi & Szemerédi, 2021; Wang et al., 2021).

Yet, a relatively small percentage of academic research deals with tourist accommodation, such as with the safety concerns of destination accommodation (Assaf & Scuderi, 2020; Del Chiappa et al., 2021a; Hussain et al., 2020; Pappas & Glyptou, 2021; Shin et al., 2021) and tourism accommodation choice after the pandemic (Bresciani et al., 2021; Del Chiappa et al., 2021a; Loehr et al., 2022; Wee & Liow, 2022). Lastly, four studies have dealt with post-pandemic tourist accommodation and gender differences which are presented in the following.

Kim and Han (2022) studied the moderating effect of gender in hotel selection attributes (Korea, N = 364) that shape brand loyalty through customer experience, brand trust, and brand attachment, in the post-pandemic era. They found that gender did not have a moderating effect in any case; though the research dealt with hotel choice in post-pandemic era but did not include safety issues as hotel attributes.

Bresciani et al. (2021) through three studies studied how COVID-19 is affecting various accommodation types (shared flat, full flat, and hotel), and if tourists' choices about accommodation types are influenced by the need for physical distance. Study 1 (European university, N = 134) revealed that in a pandemic situation compared with a non-pandemic one tourists tend to choose a full flat over a hotel and a shared flat, while no significant results with regard to gender were found. Study 2 was conducted in a lab of a South European University (N = 119) and inserted the variable of "personal need for physical distance" and measured the choice of the above accommodations. They found that being in a pandemic scenario (vs. a non-pandemic one) reduces the probability of selecting a shared flat and a hotel room compared to the full flat. They also found a significant effect of gender, with females appearing to be to a lesser extent inclined to choose the shared flat. Study 3 was conducted at a lab in a mid-scale European University (N = 137) and it manipulated the variable of physical distance to examine if it influences the power of the association between the pandemic situation and the accommodation choice. They found that "the impact of the pandemic on the choice of the accommodation depends on the level of physical distance". Gender differences were examined only in study 2.

Del Chiappa et al. (2021b) segmented French tourists (N = 225) based on accommodation selection criteria and also profiled each cluster. They found two groups of tourists and in profiling the segments they found gender was statistically significant across these groups (chi-square test). The two segments were named the "Sustainability and Sanitation Seekers" (N = 43 and mostly males) and the "COVID-19 Concerned Tourists" (N = 166 and are mostly females).

Shin and Kang (2020) studied the effect of "expected interaction and expected cleanliness on perceived health risk and hotel booking intention", through three online experiments with a sample of Amazon Mechanical Turk users (N = 118; N = 160; and N = 159 for the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd study). Their studies found that "low levels of expected interaction through technology-mediated systems lead to low levels of perceived health risk. Perceived health risk mediates the relationship between expected interaction and hotel booking intention. In addition, high levels of expected cleanliness through advanced cleaning technologies moderate the impacts of expected interaction on perceived health risk". They did not find significant impacts of gender on perceived health risk.

3 Methodology

An online questionnaire was utilized to collect data for this research. Specifically, as regards the items analyzed in this paper they derived from prior qualitative research (15 in-depth interviews) in March 2021. Eight statements were extracted from qualitative research that determines or will determine hotel choice. These were: 1. The hotel's website or collaborative websites (e.g., Booking.com) point out that they have extra precautions for COVID-19 prevention. 2. The hotel's website ensures that there is a doctor in the hotel. 3. The hotel's website ensures that hygiene, sanitation, and disinfection are of high standards. 4. Breakfast, meals, and beverages can be taken packed if desired. 5. Dining area and cafeteria have restrictions on the number of people that are in the area at the same time. 6. The hotel provides masks, gloves, and alcohol (>65%) disinfection gel per room. 7. The room is sanitized and disinfected every day. 8. Has high evaluations regarding cleanness. The answers were rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 = completely disagree up to 5 = completely agree and 3 = the neutral answer: neither agree nor disagree). The questionnaire's link was distributed via emails and Facebook during May and July 2021, utilizing a non-probability sampling method. The link opened the questionnaire which stated the purpose of the research and ensured anonymity. The first question was related to obtaining the consent of using participant's data. Additionally, participants that were not going traveling for vacation purposes or not going to stay (or stayed) at a hotel were excluded. With this procedure 413 valid questionnaires were collected and used for data analysis.

4 Results

Sample profile

The vast majority of the sample (78.2%) was under the age of 30, 14.9% were 31–40 years old, and only 6.9% were over 40. Additionally, 41.9% were males and 58.1% were females. As to professions, 37.5% were university students; 31.0% were private employees; 19.6% were businessmen; 10.1% dependent on others (housekeepers or unemployed) and 1.8% were public employees. As to personal net monthly income, 53.3% had up to 650.00€, 29.9% had a personal net monthly income ranging between 650.01 and 1000.00€; 14.8% ranging from 1000.01–1500.00€, and 2.0% had a personal net monthly income more than 1500.00€.

Determinants of hotel choice in the early post-pandemic period

The above eight statements were rated as determinants of hotel choice for tourism accommodation (Table 1) in descending order of mean values (MV). Numbers 1–5 in the first row represent the answers to the five-point Likert scale, while the numbers in their columns represent percentages.

From Table 1 it is evident that no statement has MV > 4.00. Therefore, for the statements that have MV > 3.51 (N=4), it can be safely assumed that tourists tend to agree that they take these four statements into account before booking a room in a hotel. The three statements that were the highest rated by potential tourists, and thus taken into account is the ratings on different booking sites, the hotel's website or collaborative websites point out that they have extra precautions for COVID-19 prevention and the existence of a doctor in the hotel. On the other hand, the statement

Table 1 Determinants of hotel choice in the early post-pandemic period

Determinants of hotel choice	1	2	3	4	5	MV
Has high evaluations regarding cleanness	5.3	6.3	11.6	43.6	33.2	3.93
The hotel's website or collaborative websites (e.g., Booking.com) point out that they have extra precautions for COVID-19 prevention	3.4	3.9	19.9	51.6	21.3	3.84
The hotel's website ensures that there is a doctor in the hotel	9.6	2.4	22.3	40.0	25.7	3.69
The room is sanitized and disinfected every day	10.2	4.8	24.4	40.7	19.9	3.55
The hotel's website ensures that hygiene, sanitation, and disinfection are of high standards	6.3	16.5	35.8	40.7	0.7	3.13
The hotel provides masks, gloves, and alcohol (>65%) disinfection gel per room	3.4	9.4	38.3	35.8	13.1	3.46
Breakfast, meals, and beverages can be taken packed if desired	13.6	24.5	32.4	23.0	6.5	2.85
Dining area and cafeteria have restrictions on the number of people that are in the area at the same time	13.6	27.6	37.0	20.1	1.7	2.69

that is the least taken into account is “Dining area and cafeteria has restrictions of the number of people that are in the area at the same time”.

Gender differences in determinants of hotel choice in the early post-pandemic period

This research aimed to explore gender differences in determinants of hotel choice in the early post-pandemic period. Therefore, the hypothesis which was tested refers to the eight statements that are included in this multi-item question, and thus, eight sub-hypotheses are developed, one for each statement. Independent sample t-tests were employed for statistical analysis (Tables 2 and 3). Factor analysis was not employed in this procedure, due to the small number of variables tested and in order to obtain in-depth information for each of these items separately which may be of interest to the hotel managers.

Table 2 summarizes the group statistics for gender and the eight determinants of hotel choice in the early post-pandemic period. To our surprise, among the eight cases tested female subjects assessed three determinants of hotel choice higher than male subjects. Cohen’s d is calculated only for the cases where statistically significant differences are found.

Table 3 presents the independent sample t-test for the eight statements regarding determinants of hotel choice. The t-tests unveiled that for five out of eight cases gender differences do exist. Specifically, no gender differences were detected regarding the

Table 2 Group statistics of gender regarding determinants of hotel choice in the early post-pandemic period

Determinants of hotel choice	Gender	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Cohen’s d
The hotel provides masks, gloves, and alcohol (>65%) disinfection gel per room	1	173	3.44	1.133	
	2	240	3.47	0.797	
Breakfast, meals, and beverages can be taken packed if desired	1	173	3.00	1.171	0.25
	2	240	2.73	1.073	
The hotel’s website ensures that hygiene, sanitation, and disinfection are of high standards	1	173	2.95	0.954	0.34
	2	240	3.26	0.864	
Dining area and cafeteria have restrictions on the number of people that are in the area at the same time	1	173	2.88	1.072	0.33
	2	240	2.55	0.914	
The hotel’s website ensures that there is a doctor in the hotel	1	173	3.92	1.225	0.34
	2	240	3.53	1.094	
The hotel’s website or collaborative websites (e.g., Booking.com) point out that they have extra precautions for COVID-19 prevention	1	173	3.86	0.900	
	2	240	3.82	0.936	
The room is sanitized and disinfected every day	1	173	3.65	1.359	
	2	240	3.48	0.998	
Has high evaluations regarding cleanness	1	173	3.68	1.205	0.40
	2	240	4.11	0.951	

Table 3 Independent samples t-test between gender and the eight statements of hotel choice determinants of in early post-pandemic period

Determinants of hotel choice in the early post-pandemic period	t-test for equality of means				
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference
The hotel provides with masks, gloves, and alcohol (>65%) disinfection gel per room	−0.332	411	0.740	−0.032	0.095
Breakfast, meals, and beverages can be taken packed if desired	2.398	411	0.017	0.267	0.111
The hotel's website ensures that hygiene, sanitation, and disinfection are of high standards	−3.493	411	0.001	−0.315	0.090
Dining area and cafeteria have restrictions on the number of people that are in the area at the same time	3.453	411	0.001	0.339	0.098
The hotel's website ensures that there is a doctor in the hotel	3.449	411	0.001	0.396	0.115
The hotel's website or collaborative websites (e.g., Booking.com) point out that they have extra precautions for COVID-19 prevention	0.377	411	0.706	0.035	0.092
The room is sanitized and disinfected every day	1.415	411	0.158	0.164	0.116
Has high evaluations regarding cleanness	−4.108	411	0.000	−0.436	0.106

following determinants of choosing a hotel: “The hotel provides masks, gloves, and alcohol (>65%) disinfection gel per room”; “The hotel’s website or collaborate websites (e.g., Booking.com) point out that they have extra precautions for COVID-19 prevention”, and “The room is sanitized and disinfected every day”. On the other hand, the independent sample t-test uncovered that there are statistical differences between male and female subjects in the following statements: “Breakfast, meals, and beverages can be taken packed if desired”, “The hotel’s website ensures that hygiene, sanitation, and disinfection are of high standards”, “Dining area and cafeteria have restrictions on the number of people that are in the area at the same time”, “The hotel’s website ensures that there is a doctor in the hotel” and “Has high evaluations regarding cleanness.” It is pointed out that in all cases where there was not a statistically significant difference, in Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances $p > 0.05$, therefore we did not present any further details, and report the results for equal variance assumed.

Additionally, the results of Cohen’s d (Table 2) imply that in the cases where a significant difference between males and females was recorded, the effect size of these differences was small ($d < 0.5$) for all cases.

5 Discussion and Conclusion

The outbreak of the pandemic posed significant challenges for the hotel market since the tourism industry is directly and to a great extent affected by the measures taken to limit the spread of the pandemic. In 2021, the pandemic continued to have an impact on the tourism market and the hospitality industry. The COVID pandemic resulted in significant challenges and questions about how the demand for tourism services could be shaped and to what extent the pandemic has had a positive or negative impact on consumer behavior and decision-making by tourists. According to scientific literature, many tourists are expected to place greater emphasis on factors involved in health protocols (Awan et al., 2020; Hussain et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2021). An additional part of the literature highlights that tourists are expected to prefer destinations that are not classified as crowded and take individual hygiene measures to a much greater extent than they used to in the past.

The results of this research can be partially compared with other research, since they do not measure the same issues and items. For example, Bresciani et al. (2021) in their 2nd study found gender differences in a pandemic scenario (vs. a non-pandemic one) when choosing a type of accommodation. Though, pandemic vs non-pandemic scenario was not examined in our study. On the other hand, Del Chiappa et al. (2021b) found that gender was statistically significant across the two groups when conducting a segmentation of accommodation selection criteria. Though, no further detail on this difference was mentioned. Also, the study by Shin and Kang (2020) who studied the effect of expected interaction and expected cleanliness on perceived health risk and hotel booking intention, did not find significant impacts of gender on perceived health risk.

Another issue that has been detected is that there are no statements with MV > 4.00. This could mean that people do not care anymore about the COVID-19 variants because they are fed up with restraints that they must comply with (as stated by several young people in the qualitative research). Another reason could be that they believe that the probability of getting infected due to their young age is very small. Lastly, since in most cases females have lower MV compared to males, this could mean that females do not rely exclusively on the cleanness provided by the hotel, and take their measures, and so rated it low. For example, during the qualitative research, a female pointed out that wherever she goes she cleans the area with specific detergents that she carries. She also takes with her, her bed sheets, and pillow. She reported that even if the hotels or cafes state that they apply additional measures for COVID-19 prevention, she wants to be absolutely sure that she will not get infected.

The results of this study are of interest to hotel managers. Taking into account the above findings, hoteliers should adapt the marketing mix of the services they provide by indicating changes that have taken place in the operation of the hotel and concern the provision of services. More specifically, references can be made through the hotel's websites to the health protocols that are applied, and possible additional measures are taken to ensure hygiene and safety. Strict implementation of health protocols should be applied along with disinfection equipment in each room. Information leaflets should be created and placed in every common area of the hotel with the rules that the hotel applies and requests from its visitors to ensure safety. Specifically, they should be placed in the rooms, in the reception, and the restaurant. The statements tested in this research provide directions for compliance by hotels.

The present study could not be without restrictions. The limitations of this research concern the entirely electronic data gathering method of participants' answers in the survey, since, the existing conditions during the pandemic did not contribute to a mixed data gathering model. Therefore, resulting to relatively small sample size for analysis. For so, another investigation could be carried out on a larger sample to validate the findings of this one.

References

Assaf, A., & Scuderi, R. (2020). COVID-19 and the recovery of the tourism industry. *Tourism Economics, 26*(5), 731–733.

Awan, M. I., Shamim, A., & Ahn, J. (2020). Implementing 'cleanliness is half of faith' in re-designing tourists, experiences and salvaging the hotel industry in Malaysia during COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*.

Bresciani, S., Ferraris, A., Santoro, G., Premazzi, K., Quaglia, R., Yahiaoui, D., & Viglia, G. (2021). The seven lives of Airbnb. The role of accommodation types. *Annals of Tourism Research, 88*, 103170.

Chan, C. S. (2021). Developing a conceptual model for the post-COVID-19 pandemic changing tourism risk perception. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(18), 9824.

Del Chiappa, G., Pung, J. M., & Atzeni, M. (2021a). Factors influencing choice of accommodation during Covid-19: A mixed-methods study of Italian consumers. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 1–27.

Del Chiappa, G., Atzeni, M., & Panai, E. (2021b). *How will tourists select accommodation for their holiday after the COVID-19 outbreak?* Emerald Publishing Limited.

Fotiadis, A., Polyzos, S., & Huan, T. C. T. (2021). The good, the bad and the ugly on COVID-19 tourism recovery. *Annals of Tourism Research, 87*, 103117.

Gossling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism and global change: A rapid assessment of COVID- 19. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 29*(1), 1–20.

Gupta, S., Shukla, V., & Pandiya, B. (2022). Tourists' motivation towards destination visit intention post-pandemic: Scale development and validation. *International Journal of Tourism Policy, 12*(2), 160–178.

Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2020). Socialising tourism for social and ecological justice after COVID-19. *Tourism Geographies, 22*(3), 610–623.

Hussain, S., Shah, F. A., & Kareem, S. (2020). Expectations of Indian guests from hotel preparedness in COVID-19. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Culinary Arts, 12*, 31–51.

INSETE. (2021). Greece's reputation and visitation Tourist preferences. (In Greek). INSENTE.

Karl, M., Muskat, B., & Ritchie, B. W. (2020). Which travel risks are more salient for destination choice? An examination of the tourist's decision-making process. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 18*, 100487.

Kim, J. J., & Han, H. (2022). Saving the hotel industry: Strategic response to the COVID-19 pandemic, hotel selection analysis, and customer retention. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 103163.

Kim, S. S., Kim, J., Badu-Baiden, F., Giroux, M., & Choi, Y. (2021). Preference for robot service or human service in hotels? Impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 93*, 102795.

Kupi, M., & Szemerédi, E. (2021). Impact of the COVID-19 on the destination choices of Hungarian tourists: A comparative analysis. *Sustainability, 13*(24), 13785.

Loehr, J., Gibson, D., Buckwell, A., Vada, S., Fleming, C., Bibi, P., & Johnson, H. (2022). Using Q method to investigate the influence of inclusive water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) on tourists' hotel choice in Fiji. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–17.

Matiza, T., & Slabbert, E. (2021). Tourism is too dangerous! Perceived risk and the subjective safety of tourism activity in the era of COVID-19. *Geo Journal of Tourism and Geosites, 36*, 580–588.

Osti, L., & Nava, C. R. (2020). Loyal: To What Extent? A shift in destination preference due to the COVID-19 pandemic. *Annals of Tourism Research Empirical Insights, 1*(1), 100004.

Pappas, N., & Glyptou, K. (2021). Accommodation decision-making during the COVID-19 pandemic: Complexity insights from Greece. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 93*, 102767.

Qiu, R. T., Park, J., Li, S., & Song, H. (2020). Social costs of tourism during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Annals of Tourism Research, 84*, 102994.

Ramkissoon, H. (2020). Place confinement, pro-social, proenvironmental behaviors and residents' wellbeing: A new conceptual framework. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11*, 1–17.

Sánchez-Cañizares, S. M., Cabeza-Ramírez, L. J., Muñoz-Fernández, G., & Fuentes-García, F. J. (2021). Impact of the perceived risk from Covid-19 on intention to travel. *Current Issues in Tourism, 24*(7), 970–984.

Sánchez-Pérez, M., Terán-Yépez, E., Marín-Carrillo, M. B., Marín-Carrillo, G. M., & Illescas-Manzano, M. D. (2021). The impact of the COVID-19 health crisis on tourist evaluation and behavioural intentions in Spain: Implications for market segmentation analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism, 24*(7), 919–933.

Senbeto, D. L., & Hon, A. H. Y. (2020). The impacts of social and economic crises on tourist behaviour and expenditure: An evolutionary approach. *Current Issues in Tourism, 23*(6), 740–755.

Shin, H., & Kang, J. (2020). Reducing perceived health risk to attract hotel customers in the COVID-19 pandemic era: Focused on technology innovation for social distancing and cleanliness. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 91*, 102664.

Shin, H., Sharma, A., Nicolau, J. L., & Kang, J. (2021). The impact of hotel CSR for strategic philanthropy on booking behavior and hotel performance during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Tourism Management, 85*, 104322.

Sigala, M. (2020). Tourism and COVID-19: Impacts and implications for advancing and resetting industry and research. *Journal of Business Research, 117*, 312–321.

Škare, M., Soriano, D. R., & Porada-Rochoń, M. (2021). Impact of COVID-19 on the travel and tourism industry. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 163*, 120469.

Untaru, E. N., & Han, H. (2021). Protective measures against COVID-19 and the business strategies of the retail enterprises: Differences in gender, age, education, and income among shoppers. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 60*, 102446.

Wang, L., Wong, P. P. W., & Zhang, Q. (2021). Travellers' destination choice among university students in China amid COVID-19: extending the theory of planned behaviour. *Tourism Review*.

Wee, T., & Liow, M. L. (2022). Short-term rental versus small hotel industry amid COVID-19 pandemic: What drives millennials' accommodation choices? *Journal of Global Hospitality and Tourism, 1*(1), 69–84.

Wright, C. (2020). Local government fighting covid-19. *The Round Table, 109*(3), 338–339.

Worrachananun, M., & Srisuksai, N. (2021). The effect of COVID-19 outbreak to the destination choice and the intention to visit the destination among Thai tourists. In Promoting Creative Tourism: Current Issues in Tourism Research (pp. 659–663). Routledge.

Yeh, S. S. (2021). Tourism recovery strategy against COVID-19 pandemic. *Tourism Recreation Research, 46*(2), 188–194.

Women in Tourism Industry: From Glass Ceiling Effect to #MeToo Movement

Ioulia Poulaki, Vassiliki Karioti, and Charalampia Tsoulogianni

Abstract Nowadays, due to #MeToo movement the society becomes more and more aware of incidents of violence and discrimination in the working environment. Despite the rise of the twenty-first century, there are still struggles for basic human rights such as equality and freedom. The role of women has taken on a multidimensional character, but it is still not fully acknowledged by the society, being constantly questioned. Especially in the working environment, women often encounter obstacles in their professional development and must deal with inappropriate behaviors usually of sexual content. This paper aims to highlight two specific phenomena that afflict women during their professional careers: glass ceiling effect and sexual harassment. These phenomena are perpetuated within societies since stereotypes, prejudices, and taboos lead to the so-called gender discrimination, especially in the work environment. Hospitality and tourism could not be the exceptions since their human resources records indicate high numbers of women employees. Nonetheless, despite their abilities and skills, women do not acquire leadership and managerial positions due to maternity and family that appear to be a professional threat of employers. In addition, women often deal with situations of sexual harassment not only by their colleagues and employers but also by the customers. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to develop the theoretical and research background on glass ceiling effect and sexual harassment that involve the women of the tourism industry, while it discusses sociopsychological solutions that may contribute to the efforts of HRM to eliminate these two phenomena.

Keywords Glass ceiling effect · Sexual harassment · #MeToo movement · Tourism · Hospitality · HRM

JEL Classifications Z30 · J71 · M12

I. Poulaki · V. Karioti · C. Tsoulogianni (✉)
Department of Tourism Management, University of Patras, Patras, Greece
e-mail: xaratsoulogianni@gmail.com

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_20

1 Introduction

Undoubtedly, despite the changes that have occurred in the structure of modern society, as well as the efforts of the relevant agencies, the position of women in the various work environments remains unfavorable since women are asked to face the mistrust of the leadership regarding their professional development in positions of responsibility, but also behaviors (from supervisors, colleagues, and clients) which affect their femininity with sexual harassment and/or workplace violence (Hutchings et al., 2020; McDonald, 2012; Piquero et al., 2013). Women's slow career progression is not due to a lack of skills, but to the fear of impending pregnancy and parenting, which will remove a woman from her work duties for a long time. In addition, when the hierarchy in a business is male dominated, as a foundation of its organizational culture, patriarchal perceptions and attitudes are likely to be observed, limiting women's rise in the hierarchy and assuming managerial positions or positions of responsibility, despite their ability as business executives. This is widely known as *glass ceiling effect* (Carvalho et al., 2019; Cotter et al., 2001). On the other hand, this is not happening in female dominated jobs, where men benefit from a *glass elevator* toward easier career progression driven from a set of invisible factors (Casini, 2016).

Evidently, the majority of the tourism workforce globally are women, but this ratio does not apply when it comes to permanent and/or well-paid positions, and especially managerial roles (Hutchings et al., 2020). In fact, Russen et al. (2021) postulate that women count less than a quarter of the tourism and hospitality industry executives. Considering the aforementioned, this paper is a critical literature review toward a holistic approach of *being a woman working in tourism industry*, based on the very recent relevant research that highlight issues such as women leadership, glass ceiling effect, sexual harassment, and #MeToo movement. The papers studied in this context have been selected from ELSEVIER and concern different geographic regions in order to underline that the discussion is global and not observed in a specific sociocultural environment. The authors comment on the research and summarize the results to end up in the factors that lead to major gender-based employee issues observed in tourism and hospitality industry. Furthermore, this paper provides evidence from Greek tourism regarding human resources from a gender perspective, sexual harassment, and #MeToo movement. This paper concludes with proposals on eliminating gender discrimination issues in work environment of tourism and hospitality organizations, especially when it comes to human resources management (HRM).

2 Literature Review

2.1 Definitions and Concepts

The "glass ceiling" metaphor has been widely used in literature on gender and management. It refers to invisible barriers that not only women but also minorities are faced with, which hamper their progression to senior and executive management positions. It captures most illustrations of discrimination in the workplace (Bendl & Schmidt, 2010). However, Segovia-Pérez et al. (2018), upon their research in female executives of hospitality industry in Spain, postulate that there are individual, interactional, and institutional factors that may provoke the glass ceiling effect. Individual factors concern women self-perceptions, interactional refers to stereotyping, while institutional factors are specific to the sector (Carvalho et al., 2019).

"Sexual harassment is bullying or coercion of a sexual nature, or the unwelcome or inappropriate promise of rewards in exchange of sexual favors" (Paludi et al., 1991; Hassan et al., 2019). According to the Greek Research Center for Equality Issues (2020) and Law 4604/2019 of the country:

- Harassment is "Any unwanted behavior related to a person's sex, sexual orientation, and gender identity, with the purpose or effect of violating their dignity and creating an intimidating, hostile, humiliating, humiliating or aggressive environment".
- Sexual harassment is "Any form of unwanted verbal, psychological or physical behavior of a sexual nature, resulting in insulting the personality of a person, in particular by creating an intimidating, hostile, humiliating, humiliating or aggressive environment around them". While according to Law 3896/2010 it is considered discrimination based on gender, which is prohibited.

Victims of sexual harassment face employment and financial consequences as, in their attempt to escape, they are forced to leave their jobs with the uncertainty of finding work immediately or to be frequently absent from it, to be transferred or even demoted with as a result, they are not provided with the financial possibility for autonomy and healthy living (Gerovasili & Karagianni, 2017). Thus, important psychosomatic consequences such as anxiety, sense of danger, shame or guilt, lack of concentration are presented, which lead to a decrease in efficiency and productivity in their attempt to cope in the work environment. Consequently, opportunities for professional development and advancement in the hierarchy are lost (Stan, 2012) creating feelings of inferiority, low self-esteem, and self-confidence. Nonetheless, it is certain that in the future the victims will suffer from a lack of trust both in their personal and interpersonal relationships.

According to Hassan et al. (2019) "#MeToo refers to the world-wide online revolution that initiated a movement against violence, assault, and harassment". The authors also argue that #MeToo is a long-term social movement, and its study is vital to understand "its role in educating, spreading information, and developing community to better understand its potential impact on the society", as well as the role of social media in activism, movements, and politics, while it is unique in history for millions of women to participate voluntarily and spontaneously in shattering a silence that had long been repressing them.

2.2 *Commenting on Recent Relevant Research*

Table 1 summarizes the main literature that the authors focused on in order to draw conclusions for an international perspective of the investigating issues that concern the academics when it comes to "being a woman working in tourism industry" performing a critical reading.

Table 1 Selected papers

Issue	Paper title	Authors	Year of publication	Journal
Sexual harassment	Gender matters in hospitality	Morgan and Pritchardb	2019	International journal of hospitality management
Glass ceiling effect	Beyond the glass ceiling: gendering tourism management	Carvalho et al.	2019	Annals of tourism research
Gender discrimination	Segregation of women in tourism employment in the APEC region	Hutchingsa et al.	2020	Tourism management perspectives
Glass ceiling effect	Gender diversity in hospitality and tourism top management teams: a systematic review of the last 10 years	Russen et al.	2021	International journal of hospitality management
Sexual Harassment/#MeToo movement	How the #MeToo movement affected sexual harassment in the hospitality industry: a U.S. case study	Pearlman and Bordelon	2022	International journal of hospitality management
Glass ceiling effect	Mentoring for gender equality: supporting female leaders in the hospitality industry	Katherine Dashper	2022	International journal of hospitality management

Gender Matters in Hospitality–The paper highlights gender discrimination issues in hospitality work environment focusing on glass ceiling effect and sexual harassment. From the paper's narrative, the reader understand that society need to change the stereotypes and the "unwritten" laws it has set for women toward the solution to these issues. Also, opportunities should be given to talented women to claiming a leading position in larger organizations. In addition, the tourism sector as a fast-growing industry can provide women with employment opportunities in order to stop being considered male dominated, when it comes to managerial roles. Regarding the part of the research on sexual harassment in the hospitality industry, the employee is affected psychologically or physically or even both, in some cases. A solution adopted by some American states concerning the emergency button for the maids in case someone commits sexual harassment on them, may be spread to other countries as well. Moreover, it should not be neglected that further research may always lead to permanent solution against sexual harassment, while, apart from the research, the laws on sexual harassment should be more stringent and permit no leeway. Additionally, a proactive measure involves employers and their intolerance to these behaviors supporting their employees fundamentally through their organizational culture. Finally, gender discrimination in the work environment (positions and salaries) may come to an end if the recruitment was based on merit, i.e., on the efficiency and talent of each employee.

Beyond the glass ceiling: Gendering tourism management–Gender discrimination is often integrated into organizations and society more broadly. In particular, the tourism industry occupies more women, however in the course of their careers they face segregation barriers. These obstacles are often damaging, forcing women to leave all their efforts behind, resulting in settling with inferior or mediocre positions. Of course, there are also women who, despite the obstacles, they try to highlight their abilities and, finally, reach their goals. Through this paper, personal experiences of 21 women are shared, who now hold high executive positions. These experiences may come from Portugal, but gender discrimination is an international issue. In particular, within the tourism sector different patterns of inequality are observed, such as the exploitation of women in the workplace since their appearance and behavior is considered to bring employer profits. Future studies are important to emphasize the analysis of power relations and how women are treated in their work environment in the modern times. This study that was carried out in 2011 and within the next decade until today, societies worldwide have evolved, so it would be useful to analyze gender discrimination during these ten years, in order to consider whether this evolution has brought positive changes in the way the women are treated. Nevertheless, the studies do not necessarily focus only on hospitality, as gender discrimination is founded in every kind of working environment and in every sector. More specifically, inequality is not only observed in women, but also in people who have different sexual preferences. The bias for male leadership and management in organizations and societies carries these individuals as unsuitable and insufficient for any job, let alone for a position of high importance such as a managerial one. In any case, it is important to identify solutions for smooth cooperation and equity between the genders.

Gender diversity in hospitality and tourism top management teams: A systematic review of the last 10 years–Following the comments of the previous paper, this one analyzes the under-representation of women in managerial positions in tourism and hospitality industry through a systematic review of the last 10 years. As observed through this paper, despite the progress made by society in terms of gender equality, low percentages of women in high positions indicate that equality that supposed to exist in modern society is merely virtual, due to the fact that although the genders are considered as equal, gender roles and expectations of how each gender should behave still exist. An example of a gender role that continue to exist is that the man should bring home the money, and the woman should take on the role of the mother who brings up the children, or that girls should play with certain toys and boys with others. Such beliefs prevent from achieving real equality as by assigning roles based on their gender, stereotypes, and gender roles are maintained, thus the glass ceiling effect will continue to exist for women in their effort for career progression.

Segregation of women in tourism employment in the APEC region–This research paper is prepared by a group of scientists from Australian universities aiming at studying the discrimination faced by women employees in tourism sector of the 21 countries participating in the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC). The authors were motivated by the fact that while women are the majority of tourism workforce globally, they mainly cover low-paid jobs. Additionally, there are indeed previous studies dealing with the limitations and discrimination faced by women in the workplace, in general, but only a few that concern problems and obstacles for women working in tourism and hospitality industry. The survey consists of a questionnaire that combine quantitative and qualitative questions addressed to representatives of the tourism industry in APEC countries, while the respondents were business managers and government bodies mainly from Australia and Indonesia, 48% female and 52% male.

Findings indicate that the majority of female workers in the tourism industry are employed in positions related to customer service. There is a balance between part-time/full-time and permanent/seasonal work. The answers explaining the obstacles that arise in the employment and career progression of women are of high interest. It is remarkable that despite that the studied economies differ in terms of development, culture, perceptions and attitudes, there are common views regarding the gender discrimination burdening women with social perceptions and stereotypes that find fertile ground in patriarchal societies, affecting their work environment, where conflict between family and work is obvious without substantial institutionalized support but benefits that concern pension schemes, maternity leave and education or training leave. Benefits related to flexible hours, leaves or parenting are not that common, making it difficult for a working mother. It would be useful to repeat this research in other countries. Even in Europe, where relevant legislation protects women, a similar survey would reveal the reality providing data on the working conditions of women in tourism as this industry is very developed throughout Europe, a source of income and career path for millions of working women. Finally, a parameter that could be added in the future relevant research is the reasons that lead in firing or resignation of women working in tourism, which will contribute to drawing comprehensive conclusions. Besides, the travelers who are willing to experience new cultures and societies with diverse characteristics, observe the working conditions and form an opinion on working and living equality between men and women in a destination. Equality may be a motivation or disincentive for a future revisit and/or recommendation to friends and relatives.

How the #MeToo movement affected sexual harassment in the hospitality

industry: A U.S. case study–This paper deals with the very important issue of sexual harassment. In recent years there have been many discussions around this, while incidents of sexual violence or harassment are reported daily in the news and social media. The authors aim to develop the concept of "critical mass" on which the #MeToo movement was based and promoted to bring about significant changes. In particular, it is focused on the hospitality and catering industry, in which several cases of sexual harassment were found, and corresponding investigations and discussions were carried out. In the relevant research, the main question was "Why and how does sexual harassment occur in the sectors of hospitality and catering?". The data indicated that clothing, uniforms, and employee demographics such as gender, age, and ethnicity were the triggers for the incidents. A suggested way to deal with it is mentoring employees, but it is not mentioned throughout the paper nor a proposal for relevant campaign informing customers that inappropriate behavior is not allowed. The results of the research on the handling of sexual harassment showed that in the work environment, under appropriate circumstances and supportive superiors, inappropriate behaviors were not reproduced, and incidents occurred in a smaller degree. Obviously, both companies and institutions should provide mentoring and special training through informative programs for the workers, because they are often made up of young poor women who find it difficult to defend themselves (Poulston, 2008) and become easy targets. The use of special security codes and protocols will help businesses to prevent incidents and be more prompt in their response. Of equal importance is the existence of a "critical mass" in hospitality sector, especially in leadership positions. It is again underlined that the majority of the workers in tourism industry is women, but they are more likely to work for male employers or managers. The social change will occur when women will not be treated as less capable and there will be equal opportunities at work toward career progression, without perceived obstacles to success (glass ceiling effect).

Mentoring for gender equality: Supporting female leaders in the hospitality industry–Following the suggestions of the above paper, the mentoring programs are capable of empowering and broadening traditional perceptions and at the same time eliminating prejudices against women in the hospitality industry. Mentoring certainly helps build cultural competence by creating familiarity and understanding, which can bridge gender gaps. Furthermore, when done right, mentoring is an invaluable tool for creating more equitable and culturally competent workplaces. Mentoring makes people in an organization able to learn and grow together, exchange experiences and knowledge and level up in all areas. Therefore, mentoring is such an effective method for supporting diversity and inclusion. Undoubtedly, with the help of guidance, an effective organizational change intervention can be achieved and eliminate, as much as possible, the gender barriers and obstacles in the path of women in the hospitality industry.

In the modern era, thanks to the development of technology, the research of various issues is done more easily and quickly. This paper discusses the "glass ceiling effect" in the hospitality industry in the United Kingdom revealing gender inequalities in the workplace and specifically the treatment of women in the various positions. Undoubtedly, recruitment should be carried out according to the skills and knowledge of the individual interested in a position and not their gender. Mentoring for gender equality may help toward women support in daily working life and career progression, eliminating–at the same time–other forms of discrimination in the work environment.

2.3 *Evidence from Greece*

Workforce by Gender–Box-Jenkins methodology is applied to the series of three data sets (catering, accommodation, total). The time series of each set are illustrated in the below figures (Figs. 1, 2 and 3).

As observed in the above figures, food industry represents the bigger volume of tourism employment with men to slightly dominate with an average percentage of 55%. On the other hand, hospitality industry presents lower employment figures,

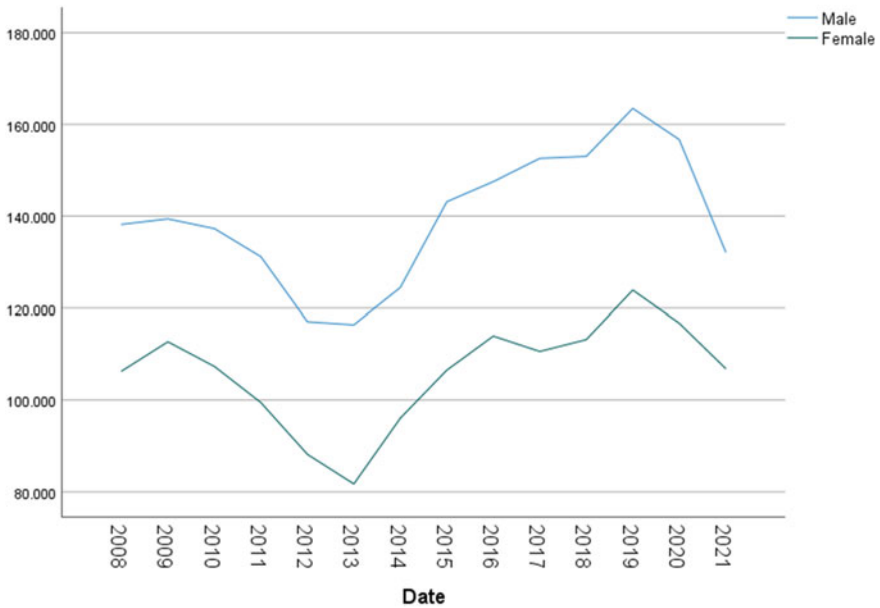


Fig. 1 Male and Female employment in Greek Catering sector. *Source* Processed by the authors using data available by INSETE (2022)

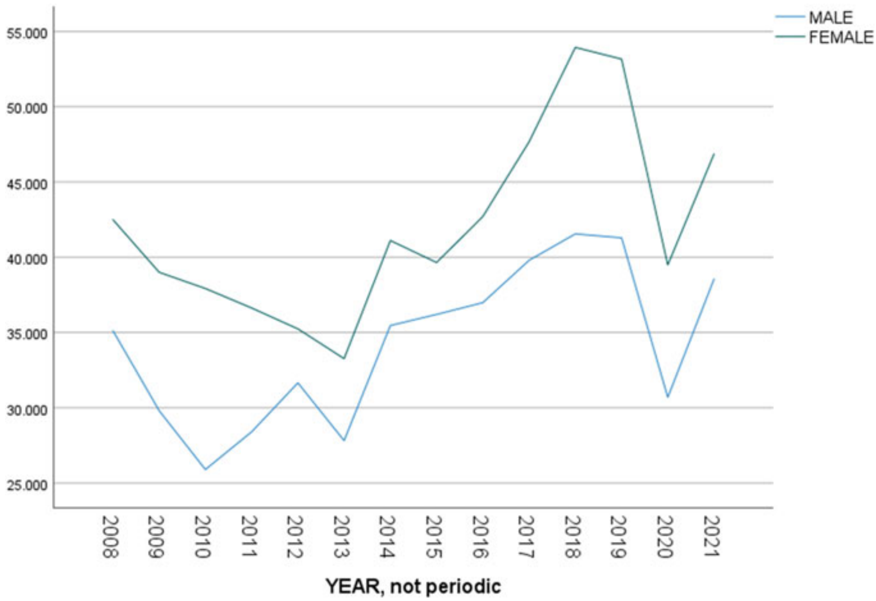


Fig. 2 Male and Female employment in Greek Accommodation sector. *Source* Processed by the authors using data available by INSETE (2022)

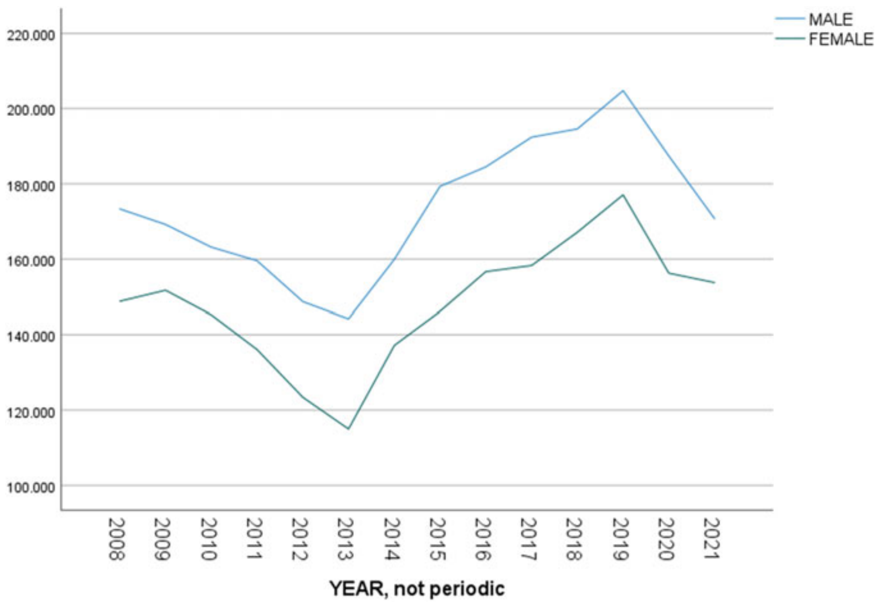


Fig. 3 Male and Female employment in Greek Tourism Industry (catering and accommodation). *Source* Processed by the authors using data available by INSETE (2022)

since the number of enterprises is significantly smaller, with women to slightly dominate with the same average percentage as men in food industry. When it comes to total employment figures in Greek tourism industry (catering and accommodation), catering trend prevails. Furthermore, a downward trend until 2013 is observed due to the economic recession with the recovery in tourism employment to start over in 2014. Evidently, it is impressive to compare male and female employment recovery, where u-shape pattern (male) and v-shape pattern (female) testifies the faster recovery of women employment in catering sector and tourism industry after economic recession. The same is observed after the COVID-19 crisis along the three figures.

Sexual Harassment and #MeToo movement in Greek Tourism Industry–In 2020, the #MeToo movement also appeared in Greece exposing many stories of sexual abuse in the workplace. ActionAid (ActionAid, 2020) as part of its "Never and Nowhere" campaign was the first to conduct a major nationwide survey on sexual harassment in tourism industry, aiming to determine the fact that the majority of employed women state that sexual harassment is part of their daily working life. The purpose of the research was, apart from raising public awareness, to ratify the first global Convention Against Violence and to mobilize the corporate sector to take responsibility for the protection of female workers. Research on sexual harassment in Greece is murky even though its data shows that it is quite widespread. More specifically, 85% of women have experienced sexual harassment in the workplace with 49% of tourism and hospitality workers to declare sexually assaulted/raped or blackmailed. The evidence showed that these types of incidents at work are frequent, confirming the diffusion of the phenomenon. Female employees do not feel safe in their work environment, they receive unwanted physical contact while there is a strong phenomenon of sexualization of the workplace, i.e., they tolerate with the sexually harassing behavior of customers to secure a tip or the customers themselves expect them to behave with sexual implications. Victims often suffered severe physical and mental consequences, many turned to alcohol, antidepressants, and drugs to cope with the stress they were experiencing, while many experienced personal and professional problems. In addition, 60% of women stated that there is no necessary institutional framework or policy to deal with or prevent from the phenomenon, pointing out that this is crucial as women are often afraid of being fired. In the bosom of Greek society, the attribution of responsibility to the victim who receives sexual harassment, and the impunity of the perpetrator are still evident.

3 Methodology

The methodology used for the present paper is a literature review, summarizing and synthesizing the selected literature with a critical analysis and comments. By presenting a comprehensive background of the literature regarding the studied fields, theoretical and conceptual frameworks were developed, aiming at highlighting the international experience in glass ceiling effect and sexual harassment in tourism industry and underline gender discrimination points that may be improved in the future, eliminating such phenomena. All the presented information was gathered from official scientific databases such as Elsevier. Additionally, workforce data was collected from official websites of relevance. The criteria to select the literature information, were the relevance to topic and the publishing date. The review involved a critical reading of each article, which was guided by the research question: How the international context of "being a woman working in tourism industry" is formed and how this may be improved?

4 Conclusion

To conclude, women career progression heavily depends on gender discrimination of the work environment and the culture of each organization. Glass ceiling effect is still penetrating tourism industry, sometimes driven by women self-perceptions of balance between work life and parenting. Substantial changes in human resources management (HRM) should occur supporting women in their professional success, starting from skill-based recruiting and not gender selection. In addition, institutional framework should protect women employment in a higher level. The very recent relevant discussions favor the first steps toward changes in the society perceptions. Such discussion also involves sexual harassment as a phenomenon that is constantly perpetuated and will exist unless there are appropriate tactics and policies to deal with it. It is right for political rulers to establish appropriate legislation on sexual offenses in the workplace and beyond. Today's laws and legislation hide several "loopholes" that the abuser can exploit and get away with it. Above all, employers need to be able to address incidents of sexual harassment and not ignore them. Human resources are the most important factor of a company success and when the environment in which they work does not make them feel safe, they cannot be efficient, and this reflects in the profits and in the image of the company. HRM is of high importance since its executives are skilled in dealing with these incidents and it is their duty to act whenever a complaint of a sexual nature is made and establish mentoring programs within the organization in order to inform and aware the employees with issues such as glass ceiling effect and sexual harassment. Society should not ignore incidents of sexual content and victims who find the courage to communicate their story prevent many incidents from happening in the future by empowering other victims to face their fears. This will create a society that will no longer be based on fear and shame, incidents of any violence will not exist and #MeToo will be only a historical movement.

References

ActionAid. (2020). "This is not our job" - sexual harassment against women at work: Investigating food and tourism industry. Retrieved from https://notpartofourjob.actionaid.gr/public/FINAL_Summary_NotPartofOurJob.pdf (in Greek)

Bendl, R., & Schmidt, A. (2010). From "Glass Ceilings" to "Firewalls": Different metaphors for describing discrimination. *Gender, Work and Organization, 17*(5), 612–634.

Carvalho, I., Costa, C., Lykke, N., & Torres, A. (2019). Beyond the glass ceiling: Gendering tourism management. *Annals of Tourism Research, 75*, 79–91. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2018.12.022

Casini, A. (2016). Glass ceiling and glass elevator. *The Wiley Blackwell Encyclopedia of Gender and Sexuality Studies*. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118663219.wbegss262

Cotter, D. A., Hermsen, J. M., Ovadia, S., & Vanneman, R. (2001). The glass ceiling effect. *Social Forces, 80*(2), 655–682.

Gerovasili, A., & Karagianni, S. (2017). Sexual harassment of women in the workplace. The example of the workers in the hotels of the city of Rethymno. Technological Educational Institute of Crete. (in Greek)

Katherine Dashper, K. (2020). Mentoring for gender equality: Supporting female leaders in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 88*(102397). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.102397.

Hutchings, K., Moyle, C., Chai, A., Garofano, N., & Moore, S. (2020). Segregation of women in tourism employment in the APEC region. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 34*(100655). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100655.

INSETE. (2022). Employment data - Labor force by gender. Retrieved from https://tinyurl.com/3t53rdyn

McDonald, P. (2012). Workplace sexual harassment 30 years on: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 14*(1), 1–17.

Morgan, N., & Pritchard, A. (2019). Gender matters in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 76*(Part B), 38–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.06.008

Paludi, M. A., Barickman, R. B., & Barickman, R. (1991). *Academic and workplace sexual harassment: A resource manual*. SUNY Press.

Pearlman, D., & Bordelon, B. (2022). How the #MeToo movement affected sexual harassment in the hospitality industry: A U.S. case study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 101*(103106). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.103106

Piquero, N. L., Piquero, A. R., Craig, J. M., & Clipper, S. J. (2013). Assessing research on workplace violence 2000–2012. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour, 18*(3), 383–394.

Poulston, J. (2008). Metamorphosis in hospitality: A tradition of sexual harassment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0278431907000527.

Russen, M., Dawson, M., & Madera, J. M. (2021). Gender diversity in hospitality and tourism top management teams: A systematic review of the last 10 years. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 95*(102942). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102942

Segovia-Pérez, M., Figueroa-Domecq, C., Fuentes-Moraleda, L., & Muñoz-Mazón, A. (2018). Incorporating a gender approach in the hospitality industry: Female executives' perceptions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

Stan, A. M. (2012). *Debating sexual correctness* (pp. 78–79). Dell Publishing.

Factors Influencing Urban Tourism Demand: The City of Tshwane Case

Medalto Gotore, Magdalena Petronella Swart, and Katlego Oliphant

Abstract The demand for urban tourism destinations has immensely increased since the start of the twenty-first century mainly due to technological developments that made the market highly knowledgeable, hypermobile as well as the world economy being continuously more efficiently inter-linked (Dube, 2021; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020). However, research on urban tourism has been concentrated to the developed world (Rogerson & Visser, 2011) with little focus on developing countries' cities like the City of Tshwane in South Africa. Hence, the aim of this research was to illustrate the correlation between cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourism demand in the City of Tshwane. The study was quantitative and descriptive in nature. That allowed researchers to evaluate how cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand are related in influencing the demand for urban tourism in South Africa. People who travelled to the City of Tshwane for touristic purposes and stayed at a chosen city three-star hotel and some who visited a museum provided primary data for this study. The findings of this study show that cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourism demand are significantly positively correlated. This study is expected to address a gap in the body of knowledge on how cognitive, affective and conative tourism demand are related in the South African context and how they can influence urban tourism demand.

Keywords Urban tourism · Cognitive tourist demand · Affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand

JEL Classification Z32 Tourism and Development

M. Gotore (✉) · M. P. Swart · K. Oliphant
University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa
e-mail: medagotore@gmail.com

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_21

1 Introduction

The urban tourism phenomenon has received extensive interest from business practitioners, local authorities, urban planners, national governments and scholars due to its economic significance. Demand for travel to urban tourism destinations greatly increased since 2010 stimulated by the market's hypermobility and the world being continuously more inter-linked (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020).

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) refers to urban tourism as "trips taken by travellers to cities or places of high population density" (UNWTO, 2020:8). The City of Tshwane has a variety of tourist attractions including natural, built and events with a conducive climate for tourism. Rogerson and Rogerson (2020) stated that in 2016 Tshwane contributed 7.59% of the total tourist trips to South African Metropolitans. Tourism demand in the City of Tshwane can be explored by an analysis of the city's cognitive, affective and conative tourism demand which are the three constructs for this study.

Cognitive tourism demand can be viewed as touristic visitation that is driven by the beliefs and knowledge that people have pertaining to the characteristics of a tourist destination (Michael et al., 2018). Tourist visitations that emanate from people's feelings towards a destination were referred to by Garay (2019) as *affective tourist demand*. If people decide to visit a tourist destination as a result of the cognitive and affective information they have, that can be regarded as *conative tourist demand* (Quoquab & Mohammad, 2020).

The research by Rogerson and Rogerson (2014) indicated that there is significant demand for urban tourism in South Africa. However, the research did not find out the factors that influence people to visit urban destinations as tourists. Thus Haarhoff (2018) proposed that a study be conducted to determine why visitors selected to visit a tourist destination. The aim of this research is to illustrate the correlation between cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand in influencing the demand for tourism in the City of Tshwane.

This research paper started by an abstract which gave an outline of the study followed by an introduction that gave some insights into the study constructs. The literature review which provides some theoretical background to the study came after the introduction and is followed by the methodology of the study. Findings of the study, implications and conclusion summed up the content of the study with the list of references provided at the end.

2 Literature Review

Cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand will be theoretically discussed, followed by an investigation of the relationships between (i) cognitive tourist demand and affective tourist demand, (ii) cognitive tourist demand and conative tourist demand as well as (iii) affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand.

Cognitive Tourist Demand

Cognitive tourist demand may be driven by the beliefs and knowledge that people have pertaining to the characteristics of a tourist destination (Michael et al., 2018). It will be conceptualised by a discussion on three dimensions. The urban tourism *pull factors* were summarised by Nikjoo and Ketabi (2015) as destination attributes that lure people to visit them for touristic purposes. However, in this study tourism pull factors will be differentiated between *primary urban tourism pull factors* and *secondary urban tourism pull factors*. *Cognitive image* of an urban destination can be positively created in the minds of potential visitors by effectively marketing the primary and secondary pull factors of the destination using effective promotional strategies (Adamo et al., 2018; Basaran, 2016). Thus, the following hypothesis can be proposed:

> H_1: Cognitive tourist demand with dimensions primary tourist pull factors, secondary tourism pull factors and cognitive image, can be reliably and validly measured.

Affective Tourist Demand

Affective tourist demand was referred to by Garay (2019) as tourist visitations that emanate from people's feelings towards a destination. Affective tourist demand will be conceptualised by focussing on affective image, tourism push factors and tourist satisfaction (Mapingure et al., 2019; Michael et al., 2018). *Affective image* components include aspects like distressing or relaxing, unpleasant or pleasant, boring or exciting, sleepy or lively and friendly or unfriendly (Rondonuwu et al., 2016; Stylidis et al., 2017). *Tourist push factors* originate from within an individual depending on their social context and are evidence of psychological needs (Antara & Prameswari, 2018). According to Mapingure et al. (2019) push factors force people to decide whether to travel to a tourist destination or not. Understanding push factors may provide urban destination management organisations (DMOs) with some insights on the needs of tourists. *Tourist satisfaction*, which is the feeling that visitors to a destination develop after their wholesome experience of its tourism products against what their expectations were before they embarked on a touristic journey to the city is also a crucial element of affective tourist demand (Melo et al., 2017; Wong et al., 2019). Thus, these three dimensions are used to investigate this construct. Against this background it can be hypothesised that:

> H_2: Affective tourist demand with dimensions affective image, tourist push factors and tourist satisfaction can be reliably and validly measured.

Conative Tourist Demand

The concept "conative" denotes behaviour and is the action step indicating how one reacts to cognition and affect (Basaran, 2016; Michael et al., 2018). If people decide to visit a tourist destination as a result of the cognitive and affective information they have, that can be regarded as conative tourist demand (Yuksel et al., 2010). Conative tourist demand has been assessed by various scholars through: (i) *Conative image* (Haarhoff, 2018) which is the action that one takes in relation to the information and the feelings they have about and towards a tourist destination (Sanz et al., 2016). (ii) *Intention to revisit* (Ramukumba, 2018) which is the willingness to travel to the visited destination in future and more than once (Wu et al., 2015). (iii) *Intention to recommend* (Ibzan et al., 2016) which is the desire by people to encourage others to visit a tourist destination that they would also have visited (Mun et al., 2018). (iv) *Word of mouth,* which is talking good about the destination enticing others to taste or experience the product or service by narrating their experiences (Wu et al., 2015). Against this background it can be hypothesised that:

H_3: Conative tourist demand with dimensions conative image, intention to revisit, intention to recommend and word of mouth can be reliably and validly measured.

The relationship between constructs

Relationship between cognitive tourist demand and affective tourist demand

When tourists have positive cognitive, mental evaluations and judgments about the destination's characteristics, then they may have favourable feelings or strong emotions about the destination (Basaran, 2016). Rice and Khanin (2019) stressed that favourable knowledge and beliefs about a destination may result in people having positive feelings towards a destination thus having high chances of reacting positively to a destination. From the above literature it can be hypothesised that:

H_4: There is a relationship between cognitive tourist demand and affective tourist demand.

Relationship between cognitive tourist demand and conative tourist demand

According to Michael et al. (2018) cognitive image, made up of the tangible aspects of a destination may influence conative image or behaviour. A good cognitive image can influence intention to visit, intention to revisit, intention to recommend and positive word of mouth by tourists (Basaran, 2016). Against this background it can be hypothesised that:

H_5: There is a relationship between cognitive tourist demand and conative tourist demand.

Relationship between affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand

Tourists who have positive feelings about a destination are likely to make the destination a first choice option when they will be considering making plans for future holidays (Ramukumba, 2018). They are also highly likely to have intention to recommend, intention to revisit and spread positive word of mouth (Stylidis et al., 2017) about the destination. Wong et al. (2019) also stated that a good affective destination

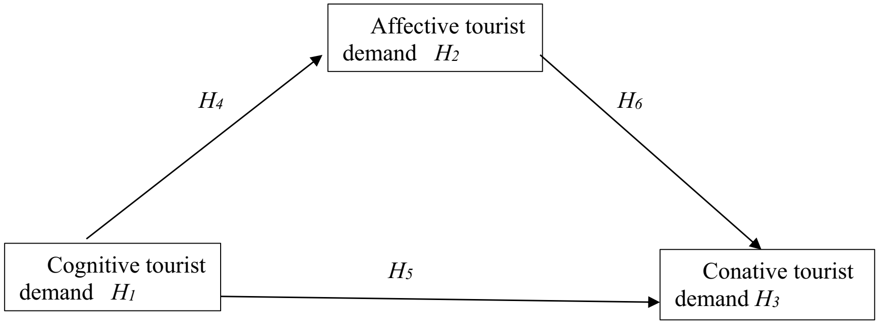


Fig. 1 Theoretical framework. *Source* Author's own compilation

image can lead to destination loyalty intention. Against this background it can be hypothesised that:

> H_6: There is a relationship between affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand.

Literature on the constructs that is (i) cognitive tourist demand, (ii) affective tourist demand and (iii) conative tourist demand was reviewed. The relationships between cognitive tourist demand and affective tourist demand, cognitive tourist demand and conative tourist demand as well as affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand were also scanned. The literature reviewed resulted in the drafting of the below theoretical model to illustrate the three constructs and their relationships.

Figure 1 illustrates the three constructs for this study which are cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand. The relationships between the constructs are also depicted.

3 Methodology

A quantitative research approach with a positivism paradigm was applied for this research (Hameed, 2020). This study was classified as a communication-based study since there was employment of self-administered online questionnaires that was done in a field setting (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Probability sampling technique was used to draw the study units from the target population of hotel guests who stayed at the selected three-star hotel in the City of Tshwane as well as visitors to a museum between 17 July 2021 and 20 November 2021.The minimum required sample size for the current study was 235 participants as 47 questions were contained in the questionnaire. Hair et al. (2014) stated that with multi-variate data analysis the number of items or questions in the questionnaire can be counted and multiplied by at least 5. For conducting Factor Analysis (FA) and exploring relationships a sample size of at least 141 participants could suffice for this research (Karatepe & Douri, 2012), however a sample size of at least 200 could help to obtain better quality FA solutions (Jung & Lee, 2011). The sample size for this research was 241. All the required permission and ethical clearance were sought from the university (Unisa), hotel and the museum before the URL link was distributed to the respondents. Pearson's correlation coefficient was applied to analyse the statistics in order to explore the relationships between the three constructs.

4 Results

Section A of this study's questionnaire required participants to respond to a screening question so that only tourists who stayed in the City of Tshwane for at least one day and one night could participate. Section B questions focussed on gender, academic qualification, purpose of visit, province of residence and the length of stay in the city as a tourist. The findings are based on a sample size (n) of 241 participants.

Male respondents constituted 46.5% while females were 52.3% and only 1.2% characterised themselves as non-binary. The age groups 18–30 years and 31–40 years constituted 27.4 and 36.5% of the respondents respectively. The other 36.1% were aged 41–65 years. Respondents whose highest academic qualification was tertiary (degree or diploma) were 44.0% while those with a post graduate academic qualification were 29.0 and 27.0% had primary, secondary or other qualification. Most of the respondents' purpose of visit was business and other (38.6%). 35.3% visited friends and relatives (VFR) while 26.1% visited for leisure. Most of the respondents were based in Gauteng (38.2%) and Limpopo & Mpumalanga (21,2%). The other 23.7 and 17.0% were based in all other South Africa provinces and Africa and international, respectively. 35.7% of the respondents stayed less than 7 days while 22.4% stayed for between 8 and 14 days. Those who stayed for 15 days to 6 months were 19.5% while those who stayed for more than 6 months were 22.4%.

Descriptive data was investigated by the degrees of freedom, mean, median, skewness and kurtosis that qualified it for further analysis as it met the criteria (Pallant, 2020).

Factor analysis for constructs: Cognitive tourist demand, Affective tourist demand and Conative tourist demand

The three constructs, *Cognitive tourist demand, Affective tourist demand and Conative tourist demand*, were subjected to exploratory first-order factor analysis (FA). For the FA to be accepted as suitable, Bartlett's test of sphericity must be significant ($p \leq 0.05$). The Kaiser, Meyer, Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) index varies from 0 to 1. A minimum value of 0.6 is required for a good FA (Pallant, 2020). The degree of variance in each factor that is reported is shown by communalities. The acceptable lowest value that have been recommended is 0.3, with optimal communalities being 0.7 or greater than 0.6 (Hair et al., 2014; Pallant, 2020), of which the results are indicated in Table 1.

Table 1 Bartlett's test for sphericity and KMO MSA values for constructs *Cognitive tourist demand, Affective tourist demand and Conative tourist demand*

Constructs	Bartlett's test of sphericity			KMO MSA	α
	x^2	*df*	*p*		
Cognitive tourist demand (H_1)	919.31	55	≤0.001	0.89	Factor 1 = 0.76
					Factor 2 = 0.81
Affective tourist demand (H_2)	491.06	10	≤0.001	0.82	Factor 1 = 0.85
					Factor 2 = 0.80
					Factor 3 = 0.88
Connative tourist demand (H_3)	1177.77	28	≤0.001	0.89	Factor 1 = 0.91

All constructs are significant at the $p \leq 0.001$

x^2–chi-square; *df*–degrees of freedom; *p*–probability value; *α*–Cronbach alpha coefficient

Results for Cognitive tourist demand

Table 1 shows that this hypothesised factor account for 76% of the variance in the factor space. Items C1-C20 were extracted. Factor 1 (Tourist pull factors) had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.76 while factor 2 had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.81. As the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was higher than the estimated Cronbach Alpha coefficient (0.70) (Pallant, 2020), the factor was appropriate for future investigation. A normality test was performed on the factors, yielding a value of $p \leq 0.001$, suggesting the scales are not normally distributed. As the sample size was bigger than 200 and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test tends to be sensitive to larger samples sizes, the test for normality was not critical (Tabachnic et al., 2013). Thus, the data supports H_1 through the latent variables.

Results for Affective tourist demand

Factor 1 (Push factors), Factor 2 (Affective image) and Factor 3 (Tourist satisfaction) were extracted as the new latent variables. Factor 1 had a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.85, while Factor 2 had a coefficient of 0.80 and Factor 3 had a coefficient of 0.88. As the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was higher than the estimated Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.70 (Pallant, 2020), all three factors were appropriate for future investigation. A normality test was performed on all three the newly formed factors, yielding a value of $p \leq 0.001$, suggesting the scales are not normally distributed. As the sample size was bigger than 200 and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test tends to be sensitive to larger sample sizes, the test for normality was not critical (Tabachnic et al., 2013). Thus, the data supports H_2 through the three newly formed latent variables.

Results for Conative tourist demand

Items E1-E8 were extracted. The factor had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.91 as the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was higher than the estimated Cronbach Alpha coefficient (0.70) (Pallant, 2020), the factor was appropriate for future investigation. A normality test was performed on the factors, yielding a value of $p \leq 0.001$, suggesting the scales are not normally distributed. As the sample size was bigger than 200 and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test tends to be sensitive to larger sample sizes, the test for normality was not critical (Tabachnic et al., 2013). Thus, the data supports H_3 through the latent variables.

Results from the construct relationships

A Pearson's correlation was conducted to investigate the relationship between cognitive tourist demand, affective tourist demand and conative tourist demand. Table 2 illustrates the relationships.

Following the results of the correlation matrix in Table 2, the following relationships are evident:

- There is a significant positive relationship between *Cognitive tourist demand* and *Affective tourist demand* $r = 0.768$, $n = 241$, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020). This indicates that the more people know about a tourism destination, the more they are likely to have a positive feeling about the destination. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggesting a good relationship between *Cognitive tourist demand* and *Affective tourist demand*, supporting H_4.
- There is a significant positive relationship between *Cognitive tourist demand* and *Conative tourist demand* where $r = 0.593$, $n = 241$, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020). This indicates that the more people know about a tourism destination, the more they are likely to intent to visit/revisit, recommend and speak positive about the destination. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggesting a good relationship between *Cognitive tourist demand* and *Affective tourist demand*, supporting H_5.
- There is a significant positive relationship between *Affective tourist demand* and *Conative tourist demand* where $r = 0.773$, $n = 241$, $\rho \leq 0.001$ (Pallant, 2020). This indicates that the more people have positive feelings and are satisfied with a tourism destination, the more they are likely to intent to visit/revisit, recommend and speak positive about the destination. The effect size was medium (Cohen, 1988), suggesting a good relationship between *Affective tourist demand* and *Conative tourist demand*, supporting H_6.

Following the above results between the factor relationships a new statistical model is proposed as indicated in Fig. 2.

5 Conclusion

This research aims to make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge, in assessing how *Cognitive tourist demand, Affective tourist demand* and *Conative tourist demand* can influence the demand for tourism in urban areas. The data collected on all the three constructs supported the importance of *Cognitive tourist demand, Affective tourist demand* and *Conative tourist demand* in determining the factors that influence urban tourism demand. The relationships between

Table 2 Pearson correlation

		Cognitive_Tourist_Demand	Affective_Tourist_Demand	Conative_Tourist_Demand
Cognitive_Tourist_Demand	Pearson correlation	1	**0.768****	**0.593****
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0	0
	N	241	241	241
Affective_Tourist_Demand	Pearson correlation	0.768**	1	**0.773****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0		0
	N	241	241	241
Conative_Tourist_Demand	Pearson correlation	0.593**	0.773**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	
	N	241	241	241

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

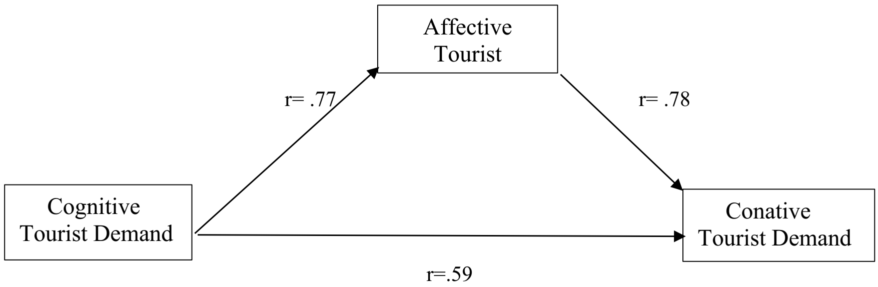


Fig. 2 New proposed statistical model

the constructs, were investigated using Pearson's correlation. While these findings add new dimensions to the understanding of urban tourism demand in South Africa, there are limitations relating to this research. This study was affected since the data was collected during the COVID-19 pandemic when travel patterns could have been temporarily altered. The data collection was disturbed by the study requiring respondents to only participate online as per COVID-19 restrictions thus no guidance whatsoever could be offered in case they needed help with interpreting the questions. It took more than 5 months to attain an appropriate sample size. The research also only looked at the correlation ships between the constructs thus further research will be required to determine the mediation between the constructs.

References

Adamo, G., Ferrari, S., & Gilli, M. (2018). Creativity as a source of differentiation in urban tourism: The case of Torino city. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 21*, 302–310.

Antara, M., & Prameswari, A. (2018). Push and Pull Factors of Tourists Visit the Tourism Destination of Bali, Indonesia. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 6*(1), 112–120.

Basaran, U. (2016). Examining the relationships of cognitive, affective, and conative destination image: A Research on Safranbolu, Turkey. *International Business Research, 9*(5), 164–179.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dube, K. (2021). Implications of COVID-19 Induced Lockdown on the South African Tourism Industry and Prospects for Recovery. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 10*(1), 270–287.

Garay, L. (2019). #Visitspain. Breaking down affective and cognitive attributes in the social media construction of the tourist destination image. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 32*, 1–11.

Haarhoff, R. (2018). Tourist perceptions of factors influencing destination image: A case study of selected Kimberley resorts. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 7*(4), 1–21.

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2014). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Hameed, H. (2020). Quantitative and qualitative research methods: Considerations and issues in qualitative research. *The Maldives National Journal of Research, 8*(1), 8–17.

Ibzan, E., Balarabe, F., & Jakada, B. (2016). Consumer Satisfaction and Repurchase Intentions. *Developing Country Studies, 6*(2), 96–100.

Jung, S., & Lee, S. (2011). Exploratory factor analysis for small samples. *Behavior Research Methods, 43*, 701–709.

Karatepe, M., & Douri, B. (2012). Does Customer Orientation Mediate the Effect of Job Resourcefulness on Hotel Employee Outcomes? Evidence from Iran. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 19*(13), 1–10.

Mapingure, C., du Plessis, E., & Saayman, M. (2019). Travel motivations of domestic tourists: The case of Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 8*(2), 1–11.

McMillan, J., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry* (7th ed.). Pearson Education.

Melo, H., Moniz, A., Silva, F., & Batista, M. (2017). Tourist destination image and consumer behaviour: The case of the Azores. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics, 5*(2), 73–82.

Michael, N., James, R., & Michael, I. (2018). Australia's cognitive, affective and conative destination image: An Emirati tourist perspective. *Journal of Islamic Marketing, 9*(1), 36–59.

Mun, W., Aziz, A., & Bojei, J. (2018). Mediating Impact of Perceived Destination Image on Intention to Recommend Malaysia as a Key Educational Hub. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 8*(16), 1–14.

Nikjoo, A. H., & Ketabi, M. (2015). The role of push and pull factors in the way tourists choose their destination. *Anatolia, 26*(4), 588–597.

Pallant, J. (2020). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS*. Open University Press/McGraw-Hill.

Quoquab, F., & Mohammad, J. (2020). Cognitive, affective and conative domains of sustainable consumption: Scale development and validation using confirmatory composite analysis. *Sustainability, 12*, 2–22.

Ramukumba, T. (2018). Tourists revisit intentions based on purpose of visit and preference of the destination. A case study of Tsitsikamma National Park. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 7*(1), 1–10.

Rice, J., & Khanin, D. (2019). Why do they keep coming back? The effect of push motives vs. pull motives, and attribute satisfaction on repeat visitation of tourist destinations. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism, 20*(4), 445–469.

Rogerson, C. M., & Visser, G. (2011). Rethinking South African urban tourism research. *Tourism Review International,15*(1), 77–90.

Rogerson, C., & Rogerson, J. (2014). Urban tourism destinations in South Africa: Divergent trajectories 2001–2012. *Urbani Izziv, 25*(Special Supplement), 189–203.

Rogerson, C. M., & Rogerson, J. M. (2020). COVID-19 and tourism spaces of vulnerability in South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 9*(4), 382–401.

Rondonuwu, D., Thoyib, A., & Noermijati, S. (2016). The destination of cognitive image, personality destination, and hedonic value, intention to recommends (Study on Sightseeing North Sulawesi). *International Journal of Business and Management Invention, 5*(7), 49–54.

Sanz, I., Musero, L., & Abril, L. (2016). Exploring the cognitive-affective-conative image of a rural tourism destination using social data. *The SLOD-BI Infrastructure, 18*(12), 1–5.

Stylidis, D., Belhassen, Y., & Shani, A. (2017). Destination image, on-site experience and behavioural intentions: Path analytic validation of a marketing model on domestic tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism, 20*(15), 1653–1670.

Tabachnick, G., Fidell, S., & Ullman, J. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (Vol. 7). Pearson.

Wong, I., Xu, Y., Tan, X., & Wen, H. (2019). The boundary condition of travel satisfaction and the mediating role of destination image: The case of event tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 25*(2), 207–224.

World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO). (2020). *International Tourism Highlights.*

Wu, H., Ai, C., Yang, L., & Li, T. (2015). A study of revisit intentions, customer satisfaction, corporate image, emotions and service quality in the hot spring industry. *Journal of China Tourism Research, 11*(4), 371–401.

Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F., & Bilim, Y. (2010). Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty. *Tourism Management, 31*(2), 274–284.

Cultural Heritage Tourism

Prospects for Heritage Tourism Branding in Eastern Arabia

Adriaan De Man

Abstract This paper provides an analysis on place branding, in the specific context of the United Arab Emirates and Oman. It does so through a qualitative insight into the heuristics and into the effective potential of cultural landscapes, relating to both policy and practice. It also challenges the notion that tangible heritage functions as a predictable accelerator for economic growth and favours more moderated takes on the effectiveness of geographical uniqueness as an instrument. While social development and cultural heritage are intrinsically connected in the many validations for tourism investment, the use of heritage as a destination branding element can also become a debatable option. Selecting a number of archaeological sites and cultural landscapes requires a justification as to what they effectively bring to a constructed and promoted image of a nation. Their mere inclusion as attractive pictures, instead of tangibles for consumable experiences, diminishes the return on the contemporary traveller's expectations. The paper concludes by arguing that branding a regional product in its real diversity cannot insist excessively on history and heritage, as it needs to forge a cohesive message that embraces technology, hospitality, travel, and the many other elements that appeal to the senses of the consumer.

Keywords Destination branding · Territory · Cultural tourism · Heritage · Z330 · Z380

JEL Classifications Z330 · Z380

1 Introduction

Much of the current destination branding worldwide is heavily based on bird's-eye views of pristine nature and built heritage, combined with the amenities of modern lifestyles, such as hotels, gastronomy, and individuals performing leisure activities in a holiday setting. Of course, nation branding transcends tourism campaigns and is in

A. De Man (✉)
United Arab Emirates University, Al Ain, UAE
e-mail: adriaandeman@uaeu.ac.ae

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_22

fact a major tool for soft power, political stability, and social wellbeing. The specific place of heritage landscapes, and the ways permanent communities and transitory groups such as travellers and short-term expat residents experience them, is part of daily life and, as such, of importance to a tourism mix perceived as authentic. The text below examines how a careful selection of emotionally constructed ideas on a given territory may be useful to both tourism and heritage management, taking selected Emirati and Omani realities as practical examples.

2 Literature Review

The notion that heritage components may be manipulated through procedures not dissimilar to any other parts of a tourism product is currently a mainstream idea. To be fair, the principle has arguably been present for some time now, yet initially without much theorization to fall back on. In contrast, the last two decades have been providing many a solid reference. A plethora of publications on commodification in ethnography, archaeology, or museums explored how one might consume the past, or simply otherness (e.g. Kempiak et al., 2017; Rowan & Baram, 2004; Timothy & Tahan, 2020). Based on this increasingly complex understanding, a step further consists of a proper market conceptualization, and Misiura (2006) is an early comprehensive source that overcame embryonic, self-justifying, passive assumptions on cultural heritage, by plainly regarding it as a customer-centred entity. This pulls heritage into the field of consumer satisfaction and business insights, in which a key factor is the perceived level of authenticity, which directly determines the quality of the product. Such a relationship has been systematically studied (Domínguez-Quintero et al., 2020; Park et al., 2019). Indeed, authenticity is affected by managerial approaches to cultural tourism, in establishing relationships with the consumer, ultimately creating destination post-experience behaviours such as loyalty (Bryce et al., 2015; Fu, 2019; Girish & Chen, 2017; Kolar & Zabkar, 2009).

The tourism landscape has become more complex to define, as it is now vastly integrated and interdependent, challenging traditional branding methods and engaging with local stakeholders in non-prescriptive ways. Especially from the demand side, activities carried out independently by consumers transform what used to be a one-dimensional picture into a dynamic "tourism-landscape nexus" (Meneghello, 2021) that eludes naive messages from the supplier to the consumer. One major yet understated hindrance in landscape heritage branding relates to the future of heritage itself. A recent study (Högberg et al., 2018) concluded that prospective analyses are focused mainly on technical means, to ensure for instance continuation in conservation and restoration, but not at all on the future as a concrete reality. Interviewed heritage professionals were unable to state coherent viewpoints on future generations or professional practices, although the preservation of heritage is obviously at the core of their profession. This represents a limitation that inherently impacts the consistency of a brand. Improving such consistency may be accomplished through a range of awareness strategies, some of which funnelled from large national tourism campaigns, or via UNESCO World Heritage designations, for instance. The latter confers no direct branding distinctiveness, yet has become a booster for enhancing a heritage resource and, to a certain extent, embodies a brand in its own right (Jimura, 2019; Ryan & Silvanto, 2009). This has been empirically demonstrated in regional case studies (e.g. Terlouw et al., 2015; Adie et al., 2017), and WH sites are routinely used as leverage for an already existing market offer.

3 Materials and Methods: Branding UAE and Omani Landscapes

Focusing this matter on the geography of eastern Arabia, namely the UAE and Oman, a primary image is that of daytrips into desert locations, which have been widely studied worldwide in terms of both value co-creation and authenticity (Michopoulou et al., 2021), but also of the general hidden costs related to developing quality desert infrastructures (Luo et al., 2020). The use of arid or desert landscapes, articulated with ultramodern urban skylines, has indeed provided the Gulf states with the potential for relatively predictable but successful service structures, mainly targeting long-haul, centric tourism with reduced loyalty, i.e. few returning visitors. One needs to point out that this has changed over the last few years in the specific case of Dubai, where the urban tourism industry has matured into a multi-segmented reality, with comparatively affordable, mainstream tourism offerings. In this and all other Gulf destinations, the typical off-road day trip, which may include different marketization degrees of falconry, gastronomy, and other ethnographic performances is a powerful and reasonably inexpensive experience, and one with a high social media return. Yet regardless of actual consumer satisfaction levels, it remains a one-time experience for many an intercontinental traveller, despite its meaningful contributions towards sustainable intangibles. Desert tourism has been seen as a niche product for revitalizing traditional ways of life, ethnic values, or pastoralism (Chatelard, 2006; Narayanan & Macbeth, 2009). On the other hand, quality matters, and international tourism demand for desert products stems from a sort of "lure of the Sahara" (Kohl, 2002), a pervasive tourist preconception between fantasy and reality that is often an effective revenue generator in desert tourism. Explanations on this success go back to the roots of spiritual significance, but also to the idea of openness, archaeological or geological heritage, photographic potential, wildlife, and adventure, with obvious marketing potential (Preston-Whyte et al., 2005; see Figs. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 for an assortment of such elements). It is this combination, not a sequence of mere background sceneries that provides substance and exceptionality to Arabian desert landscapes, and becomes an influential instrument for cultural tourism in places such as the United Arab Emirates (De Man, 2020).

The intimate connection between tourism and nation or region branding seems straightforward to the contemporary observer, but it is worthwhile reminding that this is a relatively recent phenomenon. What nowadays is taken as commonplace in

Fig. 1 Palm groves at Al Qattara Oasis

Fig. 2 Hafeet Tombs

Fig. 3 Hili Archaeological Park

Fig. 4 Al Ain desert landscape

Fig. 5 Camel in front of Jebel Hafeet

destination branding, namely the creation of an image for countries or regions, to which the price function alone is not decisive, has a history of little more than two decades (Anholt, 2004; Blain et al., 2005; Giannopoulos et al., 2011; Bagramian et al., 2016). In a highly competitive leisure landscape, the importance of continuous branding initiatives by the different national tourism organizations cannot be understated and has indeed become indispensable to achieving economic success (Marczak & Borzyszkowski, 2020). Zooming in on the eastern Arabian Peninsula as a case study, there has been quite some marketing research on Dubai as a brand. Traditional clusters, among which tourism, are greatly constructed on the emirate's geography (Hafeez et al., 2016), and part of the communicational success of Dubai's image is based on international ingredient branding, which creates additional confidence, sense of affiliation, as well as a foundation for cultural affirmation (Balakrishnan, 2008; Keshodkar, 2016). By its very logic, the Expo 2020 world exhibition has epitomized nation branding practice. Dubai is but one paradigmatic example activating a number of marketing and branding principles—still within the UAE, Abu Dhabi is another, with a definite strategic investment in culture and heritage (De Man, 2020), and one finds comparable branding efforts in neighbouring countries, either through landscapes or events; see Alsedrah (2021) for Saudi Arabia, Mansour (2018) for Oman, or Ahmed (2020) for Qatar, to name just three references. For nations such as the United Arab Emirates, which are rapidly investing in economic diversification, physically transforming itself through urban and infrastructural projects, it becomes a demanding effort to produce a unique, stable, hence marketable brand.

For the purpose of this paper, multi-level marketing, scaling from the private company to the national agency, is taken as a proxy for supplier perception on the usefulness of the desert imagery. A first observation is that no entity currently invests in monothematic products and services, meaning that the market would respond negatively to heavily allocentric consumer experiences such as exclusively desert-branded destinations. In other words, the desert allure is always used as a main, distinctive ingredient providing coherence, but not as the objective core attraction for conventional family-based travelling. This proposition applies as much to international as to domestic tourism, although the latter is naturally more prone to specific daytrips and social pastimes, such as regular weekend off-roading, cycling, hiking, camping, and so forth. These activities by residents are usually community-based and less commercially inclined in terms of scale. With this caveat in mind, a desert-focused advertisement can be interesting for targeting potential domestic visitors as well. But this directly leads to the concept of competitive identity (Anholt, 2007), that is, to the fact that other contenders use similar instruments to create recognizable nation brands. The UAE has become a top challenger in the Middle East, by investing early and persistently in this type of branding (Zeineddine, 2017). A particular case is that of neighbouring Saudi Arabia, where mass tourism has been well integrated in the local economy for a long time, but almost exclusively in the form of pilgrimage tourism, whereas other leisure dimensions were not easy, or simply not possible, to experience for international tourists. Very recently, the geographical attractiveness of the kingdom has been recognized in the economic transformation efforts that look at imminent post-oil scenarios. Through the Saudi Commission for Tourism and

National Heritage initiatives, the confluence of cultural, heritage, and geotourism has become a cornerstone of the nation's Vision 2030 strategy (Abuhjeeleh, 2019). It has been critically observed that the region makes some use of western forms of tourism discourse (even entering discussions about possible forms of "self-orientalism"; see Feighery, 2012), yet this is precisely what one might expect from hyper-stylized cultural experiences anywhere in the world, especially if the market to be targeted is primarily "western", from a very broad consumer behaviour perspective.

This is observable in multiple recent online campaigns, promoted directly or not by the national tourism authorities in eastern Arabia, namely in the UAE and Oman. According to the most obvious criteria (number of tourists, travel and tourism contribution to GDP, hospitality statistics), Dubai is arguably the primary destination for leisure in the region, and is branded as a welcoming cityscape by Dubai Tourism. The "desert adventure to remember" is a well-integrated component but not the core image; in other words, the urban experience is very dominant. Neighbouring Abu Dhabi feeds its tourism landing page with a message focusing culture, arts, and an effective hook into sea and desert sands that, at a certain level, inverts the suggested experiences, by including shopping and exclusively urban forms of leisure in a second degree of attention for the website visitor. This reflects, first and foremost, the respective geographies and the economic tissues, with local governments capitalizing on their respective iconic strengths. The northern emirates do invest in differentiation through picturesque landscapes that significantly differentiate from the sand dune bias. Ajman's Masfut enclave, surrounded by the eastern regions of the emirate of Ras Al Khaimah, and very close to Fujairah, with which it shares the Hajar mountains, is depicted as unique experience, with its "rocky countryside surrounding the town […] ideal for walking, mountain biking, picnics, and wadi exploration". The first experience on the Ras Al Khaimah tourism authority website is the Jebel Jais Flight, presented as the world's longest zipline, on the UAE's tallest mountain. Oman's governorates list a comparable assortment of experiences, based on a triple grouping of nature, leisure activities, and culture. The list goes on, with the seven emirates, and as a matter of fact all Gulf states, investing in the promotion of regional products that are frequently complicated to differentiate for international markets. Apart from ultra-recognizable anchor elements, such as the Burj Khalifa in Dubai, or the Louvre Abu Dhabi, many hinterland landscapes do not cater to the foreign tourist with the quintessential vigour of the Italian cuisine, or the Kenyan safari, or the Patagonian serenity. This is a challenge shared with many low-density regions worldwide, namely in the cases where heritage is used as a stimulus for regional development (De Man, 2016).

4 Results and Discussion

Archaeology undeniably constitutes a powerful segment not only for the obvious tangibles leading to tourism demand and satisfaction but, both up- and downstream, for added marketing value as well. What this means is that, no matter any existing (micro-) commodification of such a product, a brand extension requires, first and foremost, sustainable meeting grounds between archaeology and tourism (Walker & Carr, 2016). Second, a heritage brand identity necessitates a value proposition secured precisely through heritage (Ko & Lee, 2011), which seems self-explanatory but deserves a comment. When archaeology articulates with the wider tourism mix, it must not do so without substance but, on the other hand, it still needs to convey implicit messages, communicating emotional benefits for the consumer. This is facilitated in the case of well branded destinations, as long as the message is authentic and understandable, and links to the important concept of positioning a destination (Kolb, 2006). Simply put, branding relates to the (nation) supplier projecting an image, while positioning focuses on how the tourist will differentiate between comparable experiences. From this perspective, archaeological heritage offers a seminal uniqueness to otherwise rather similarly perceived landscapes.

Three examples inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage list may conveniently illustrate the intricacies of these tightly interwoven dynamics, linking archaeological sites to the involving landscape, and the social territory providing an economic meaning for tourism to articulate with. The oasis city of Al Ain in the emirate of Abu Dhabi, bordering Oman, is perhaps the finest example of sequential archaeological landscapes, with archaeological and natural components (Power & Sheehan, 2012) that interact with a modern city, its physical expansion, and its population of about three quarters of a million. The Department of Culture and Tourism has been investing in strict archaeological research, but also in the transformation of isolated heritage elements into family-oriented products, of which the Jebel Hafeet Desert Park is a recent example. Key imageries are Abu Dhabi's tallest peak, Jebel Hafeet, the main oasis, the forts, among other historical attractions, in a packaging that suggests an authenticity different from that of the close-by centres of Dubai, Abu Dhabi, and even Muscat. In fact, Al Ain shares its wide desert landscape, including the Hafeet Mountain, with Oman, and there is easy road access to the Indian Ocean, and from there to the capital. But one of the main Omani postcard destinations is Salalah, quite far away, in the southern region of Dhofar. It corresponds to a continuously changing landscape, with the yearly monsoon, or khareef, producing temporary green areas and waterfalls in an otherwise desertic countryside. The region includes the Al Baleed Archaeological Park, UNESCO-classified as well, in the "Land of Frankincense", the catchy designation given to this part of the Arabian Peninsula. The archaeological site of Al Baleed, the ancient Zafar, reflects a longstanding and culturally diverse trade centre (Fusaro, 2020) that becomes easily marketable as cosmopolitan intersection between Arabia and India, and beyond. Hospitality-wise, quality is based mainly on beach resorts. Thirdly, Mleiha, in the emirate of Sharjah, is a small town with little distinctiveness apart from its archaeological park, and the involving desert landscape combining hilltops with sand dunes. In scientific terms, it corresponds to a massively important site undergoing continuous research (Overlaet et al., 2016; Stein, 2017), although with challenges for tourism development, given the nature of the remaining structures. Again, these create a distinctive, saleable theme, yet for the actual sensorial experience they function as one of the emotional constituents of a landscape. Aspects central to archaeology matter little, or even become counterproductive regarding the tourist, to whom visiting two or three similar negative structures may be interesting—twenty will however become fastidious, especially in the absence of additional quality layers. One such layer is the narrative and physical reference provided by the local museum, while another relates to the hospitality arrangements, which in a certain sense do suffer from their very competitive advantage: a perceived remoteness connected with factual proximity to ultra-developed tourism centres. Good road infrastructures make it so that most landscapes in the UAE and northern Oman can be experienced as day trips. As mentioned, Salalah is an exception, located 1000 km south of Muscat, but plenty of domestic and regional flights serve its airport. It is however easy to reach Mleiha and Al Ain, and in fact most of the other UAE regions, by car, from the main tourism hubs of Dubai and Abu Dhabi. This poses challenges to the local hotel and restaurant business, which needs to produce a heritage appeal distinctive enough to supplement urban and beach alternatives.

The steps between these important yet either generic or standalone heritage units, on the one hand, and integrated product communication, on the other, contain potential obstacles to consumer attention. Articulations between landscape resources and the destination marcom of those same branded resources become perceptible, and therefore comparable, through the various parallel communication strategies put in place. As an example, five official tourism promotion websites (omantourism.gov.om, visitdubai.com, visitabudhabi.ae, visitrasalkhaimah.com, and ajman.travel) may provide a multi-level insight into apparently very similar approaches. By their very nature, they consist of one-way information, in stark contrast with interactive forms of social media. Still, the respective entry pages are structured differently from a user-based perspective; commonalities include external links to governmental and corporate services. But the incorporation of archaeological and landscape-based heritage is done at different levels and intensities. In the case of the Omani website, images of natural and manmade sceneries offer a general overview on the country's potential, and as far as heritage and archaeology are concerned, the user is invited to explore a tab with descriptive information. The Dubai website, on its turn, provides an interactional impression, directly engaging with the prospective tourist, both visually and through updated cultural activities. The main product is not archaeology-based, and one is required to delve into a second or third level, intertwined with the beaches and cityscapes, or the desert Bedouin experience. In addition to the beaches, dunes, and mangroves, a wider cultural territory is promoted as a core strength in the promotion of Abu Dhabi, intensified by the calendared activities and the serene, thematically organized "Find beautiful spaces that…" sections. Tangible heritage is also immediately accessible on the Ras Al Khaimah and Ajman sites, and, as in the cases above, fittingly linked to the idea of discovery and experience, and then also to the industry. In reality, the distribution features are central to a tourism entity website, as they cater to the expectations of the consumer, who is not spending time and effort to merely look at beautiful pictures, but to be persuaded and directed towards a decision, namely a purchase-based one. Critical in this relationship is the notion of authenticity in the promotion of UAE heritage tourism and archaeology (De Man, 2016; Seraphim & Haq, 2019). The major private players engage in fairly equivalent modules, with the top 10 tour operators offering city trips and desert experiences. In the UAE, the importance of entrepreneurship, smart tourism, and innovation in a heritage context has been instrumental for the cultural tourism SME, with spillover to and from other sectors (Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2015; Khan et al., 2017).

This convergence between tourism and landscape, which may seem self-evident in marketing campaigns, is indeed built on a tense balance and results in disordered notions of what the latter means to the former, in addition to providing carefully selected pictorial elements. A constructive tourism-landscape analysis should use geotourism as an approach that avoids sterile, contrastive discussions on either component (De Man, 2022; Stoffelen & Vanneste, 2015), and it is crucial to explore landscapes as dynamic systems, meaning that their geographical identity is not an immutable resource for tourism. In fact, a useful determinant is that of landscape optimization for tourism building (Anwar et al., 2020), as practice demonstrates different community relationships with theoretically promising tourism environments. Especially, the idea of landscape loss is emotionally disturbing to local people, a factor on which marketing and communication heavily depend, bearing in mind that the branding of landscapes also encourages group coordination (Maessen et al., 2008). Branding then becomes not a mere tool for optimizing commercial development, but ultimately social cohesion as well. This bottom-up dimension cannot ignore the integration of creativity in the branding process, and that new place identities may emerge from the successive formation and rediscovery of sensoryscapes (Lalou et al., 2017). This may, in theory, become a fully renewable resource, as it triggers emotional attitudes towards a constructed image. For instance, it was shown that UAE residents have positive but different opinions on what local cultural heritage actually entails, and very recent built environment is clearly considered part of it (Abbas & Dutt, 2017). In this domain, the Gulf states in particular have successfully invested in the creation of some hyperreal or non-places, in which an atmosphere of exoticism becomes the core of slogans and landscaped images for entire nations, as is the case for Oman (Wippel, 2014). In addition to the external, or demand-side vectors, comprehensive initiatives such as “Brand Oman” need to be communicated to local communities, creating a distinctively Omani branding awareness (Al Balushi et al., 2013). Precisely, the same effort is done at both federal and emirate-level in the neighbouring UAE (Haq et al., 2021; Saad, 2020; Valek, 2017).

5 Conclusions

An abundance of studies has demonstrated the decadence of monothematic, mass tourism products, and the growing opportunities that are heavily structured on both uniqueness and authenticity. The small-scale discovery of cultural landscapes often (but certainly not always) outmanoeuvres all-inclusive, pre-packaged formats. From the supply side, distribution as well has become much more democratized, and the industry is less dependent on a reduced number of players dominating the market, leading to a considerable grassroots variety. This is a highly competitive new normal in selected destinations and has growth potential in Arabian desert areas as well. Conditions are different, in terms of the landscape itself of course, and this includes climate and ancillary services. Also the motivation and expectation of overseas tourists are different from when they seek semi-domestic products in a neighbouring country, where cultural references are less contrasting. Luxury desert resorts have therefore occupied an interesting segment, by providing an arrangement of comfort and sufficient exclusivity, based on both the preconceived and the experienced landscape. But the positioning of archaeological and natural heritage in the branding, commercialization, and expected consumption of a product requires a careful balance. A nation brand conveys an inclusive message, not a niche concept, and therefore finds itself restricted to stereotypical advantages it cannot discard. In terms of heritage, what provides substance is the uniqueness of the experience, as many geographies offer highly produced cinematic panoramas that may come over as interchangeable, especially in desert environments. In contrast, archaeology is ultimately one of the few immutable building blocks in a tourism landscape, to be optimized as such in the competitive business of place branding.

Acknowledgements The author wishes to thank Rianne Norbart (DCT PR & Communications Department) and Amna Saif (DCT Museums Department, Culture Sector), for the photographs.

Research was funded by the United Arab Emirates University (UPAR grant 12H012).

References

Abbas, K., & Dutt, C. (2017). Residents' perception of cultural tourism in Dubai. *Journal of Tourism and Leisure Studies*, *2*(3), 21–39. https://doi.org/10.18848/2470-9336/CGP/v02i03/21-39.

Abuhjeeleh, M. (2019). Rethinking tourism in Saudi Arabia: Royal vision 2030 perspective. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 8*(5), 1–16.

Adie, B. A., Hall, C. M., & Prayag, G. (2017). World Heritage as a placebo brand: A comparative analysis of three sites and marketing implications. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 26*(3), 399–415. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1359277

Ahmed, N. (2020). Nation Branding Through a Mega-Event: A Case Study of Qatar 2022, University of Ottawa.

Al Balushi, M., Butt, I., & Al Siyabi, K. (2013). Review of awareness and views on branding Oman as a nation. *International Journal of Business and Economics*, *5*(1), 7–19.

Alsedrah, I. (2021). Branding the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Social and Management Research Journal, 18*(1), 1–16.

Anholt, S. (2007). *Competitive identity: The new brand management for nations, cities and regions*. Palgrave MacMillan.

Anholt, S. (2004). Branding places and nations. In *Brands and branding* (pp. 213–226). Bloomberg Press.

Anwar, R. K., Hadian, M. S. D., Hendarmawan, & Khadijah, L. S. (2020). Building tourism from the optimization of the landscape as a creative economic activity of the community. *Journal of Environmental Management & Tourism*, *11*(4(44)), 937–953. https://doi.org/10.14505//jemt.11.4(44).18.

Bagramian, R., Hughes, M. U., & Visconti, L. M. (2016). Bringing the nation to the nation branding debate: evidence from Ukraine. In Thriving in a new world economy. Developments in marketing science (pp. 381–384). Springer, Cham.

Balakrishnan, M. (2008). Dubai–a star in the east. *Journal of Place Management and Development, 1*(1), 62–91.

Blain, C., Levy, S. E., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2005). Destination branding: Insights and practices from destination management organizations. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(4), 328–338. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287505274646

Bryce, D., Curran, R., O'Gorman, K., & Taheri, B. (2015). Visitors' engagement and authenticity: Japanese heritage consumption. *Tourism Management, 46*, 571–581. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.08.012

Chatelard, G. (2006). Desert tourism as a substitute for pastoralism? Tuareg in Algeria and Bedouin in Jordan. In *Nomadic societies in the middle east and North Africa* (pp. 710–736). Brill, Leiden.

Domínguez-Quintero, A., González-Rodríguez, M. R., & Paddison, B. (2020). The mediating role of experience quality on authenticity and satisfaction in the context of cultural-heritage tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *23*(2), 248–260.

Feighery, W. G. (2012). Tourism and self-Orientalism in Oman: A critical discourse analysis. *Critical Discourse Studies, 9*(3), 269–284. https://doi.org/10.1080/17405904.2012.688210

Fu, X. (2019). Existential authenticity and destination loyalty: Evidence from heritage tourists. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 12*, 84–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2019.03.008

Fusaro, A. (2020). The Islamic Port of al-Balīd (Oman), between land and sea: Place of trade, exchange, diversity, and coexistence. *Journal of Material Cultures in the Muslim World, 1*, 67–95.

Giampiccoli, A., & Mtapuri, O. (2015). Diversification and innovation in tourism development strategy: The case of Abu Dhabi. *The Arab World Geographer, 18*(4), 245–261.

Giannopoulos, A., Piha, L., & Avlonitis, G. (2011). "Desti–Nation Branding": What for? From the notions of tourism and nation branding to an integrated framework. In *International economics congress*, Berlin.

Girish, V., & Chen, C. (2017). Authenticity, experience, and loyalty in the festival context: Evidence from the San Fermin festival, Spain. *Current Issues in Tourism, 15*, 1551–1556. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1296821

Hafeez, K., Foroudi, P., Dinnie, K., Nguyen, B., & Parahoo, S. (2016). The role of place branding and image in the development of sectoral clusters: The case of Dubai. *Journal of Brand Management, 23*, 383–402. https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2016.18

Haq, F., Seraphim, J., & Medhekar, A. (2021). Branding heritage tourism in Dubai: A qualitative study. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research, 9*(2), 1–25.

Högberg, A., Holtorf, C., May, S., & Wollentz, G. (2018). No future in archaeological heritage management? *World Archaeology, 49*(5), 639–647.

Jimura, T. (2019). *World Heritage Sites: Tourism, local communities and conservation activities*. CABI.

Kempiak, J., Hollywood, L., Bolan, P., & McMahon-Beattie, U. (2017). The heritage tourist: An understanding of the visitor experience at heritage attractions. *International Journal of Heritage Studies, 23*(4), 375–392. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527258.2016.1277776

Keshodkar, M. (2016). State-directed tourism branding and cultural production in Dubai, UAE. *Urban Anthropology and Studies of Cultural Systems and World Economic Development, 45*(1–2), 93–151.

Khan, M. S., Woo, M., Nam, K., & Chathoth, P. (2017). Smart city and smart tourism: A case of Dubai. *Sustainability, 9*(12), 2279. https://doi.org/10.3390/su9122279

Ko, E., & Lee, S. (2011). Cultural heritage fashion branding in Asia. *Tourism sensemaking: Strategies to give meaning to experience* (pp. 89–110). Emerald Group Publishing.

Kohl, I. (2002). The lure of the Sahara: Implications of Libya's desert tourism. *Journal of Libyan Studies, 3*(2), 56–69.

Kolar, T., & Zabkar, V. A. (2009). Consumer-based model of authenticity: An oxymoron or the foundation of cultural heritage marketing? *Tourism Management 31*(5), 652–664. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.07.010.

Kolb, B. (2006). *Tourism Marketing for cities and towns: Using branding and events to attract tourism.* Elsevier.

Lalou, G., Katsafadou, S., & Deffner, A. (2017). Sensory landscapes of creativity: Towards a new form of identity branding. *International Journal of Progressive Sciences and Technologies, 6*(1), 18–26.

Luo, L., Zhuang, Y., Zhao, W., Quntao, D., & Wang, L. (2020). The hidden costs of desert development. *Ambio, 49*, 1412–1422. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-019-01287-7

Maessen, R., Wilms, G., & Jones-Walters, L. (2008). Branding our landscapes: Some practical experiences from the LIFESCAPE project. In *Landscape as a frame for and a product of development in rural areas* (pp. 551–561). Clermont-Ferrand.

De Man, A. (2016). Archaeological heritage and regional development in Portugal. In *Heritage tourism destinations: Preservation, communication & development* (pp. 142–153). CABI Publishing.

De Man, A. (2020). Advances in cultural tourism: Two examples from the emirate of Abu Dhabi (UAE). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, *31*(3), 1027–1033. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.31314-537.

De Man, A. (2022). Two pre-Islamic places of worship in the tourism landscape of the UAE. *Religions*, *13*(8), 715. https://doi.org/10.3390/rel13080715.

Mansour, F. (2018). *Destination branding analytical study applied to Sultanate of Oman as a tourism destination.* University of Salford.

Marczak, M., & Borzyszkowski, J. (2020). Effectiveness of destination branding. The example of national tourism organizations. *Journal of Environmental Management and Tourism*, *11*(4), 779–793. https://doi.org/10.14505//jemt.v11.4(44).01.

Meneghello, S. (2021). The tourism-landscape nexus: Assessment and insights from a bibliographic analysis. *Land, 10*(4), 417.

Michopoulou, E., Al-Qasmi, I., & Melpignano, C. (2021). Co-creating value in desert tourism experiences. *Tourism Planning & Development*, *18*(2), 245–265.

Misiura, S. (2006). *Heritage marketing*. Elsevier.

Narayanan, Y., & Macbeth, J. (2009). Deep in the desert: Merging the desert and the spiritual through 4WD tourism. *Tourism Geographies, 11*(3), 369–389. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616680903032783

Overlaet, B., Macdonald, M., & Stein, P. (2016). An Aramaic-Hasaitic bilingual inscription from a monumental tomb at Mleiha, Sharjah, UAE. *Arabian Archaeology and Epigraphy, 27*(1), 127–142. https://doi.org/10.1111/aae.12072

Park, E., Choi, B., & Lee, T. (2019). The role and dimensions of authenticity in heritage tourism. *Tourism Management, 74*, 99–109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.03.001

Power, T., & Sheehan, P. (2012). The origin and development of the oasis landscape of al-Ain (UAE). *Proceedings of the Seminar for Arabian Studies, 42*, 291–308.

Preston-Whyte, R., Brooks, S., & Ellery, W. (2005). Deserts and savannah regions. In *Tourism and global environmental change. Ecological, social, economic and political interrelationships* (pp. 128–141). Routledge.

Rowan, Y., & Baram, U. (2004). *Marketing heritage: Archaeology and the consumption of the past*. Altamira Press.

Ryan, J., & Silvanto, S. (2009). The World Heritage List: The making and management of a brand. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 5*(4), 290–300. https://doi.org/10.1057/pb.2009.21

Saad, M. (2020). Key elements of nation branding: The importance of the development of local human capital in the UAE. In Human capital in the middle east. Palgrave studies in global human capital management (pp. 227–251). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

Seraphim, J., & Haq, F. (2019). Challenges for promotion of heritage tourism: Case study of the UAE. *Conservation and promotion of heritage tourism* (pp. 35–56). IGI Global Publishing.

Stein, P. (2017). South Arabian zabūr script in the gulf: Some recent discoveries from Mleiha (Sharjah, UAE). *Arabian Archaeology and Epigraphy, 28*(1), 110–124.

Stoffelen, A., & Vanneste, D. (2015). An integrative geotourism approach: Bridging conflicts in tourism landscape research. *Tourism Geographies, 17*(4), 544–560. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2015.1053973

Terlouw, F., Grätzer, M., & Rengard, M. (2015). *The World Heritage as a Brand Case study of World Heritage brand usage by sites and their stakeholders in context of Sweden and Denmark*. Linnaeus University.

Timothy, D., & Tahan, L. (2020). *Archaeology and tourism.* Channel View Publications, Bristol.

Valek, N. (2017). The role of expats, local residents and tourists in defining a destination: A branding case study for Abu Dhabi tourism. *International Journal of Sustainable Society, 9*(1), 76–93. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJSSOC.2017.085722

Walker, C., & Carr, N. (2016). *Tourism and archaeology: Sustainable meeting grounds.* Taylor & Francis.

Wippel, S. (2014). Port and tourism development in Oman: Between economic diversification and global branding. *Under construction. Logics of urbanism in the gulf region* (pp. 101–118). Routledge.

Zeineddine, C. (2017). Employing nation branding in the Middle East. *Management & Marketing, 12*(2), 208–221.

Meet West in East: New Routing of Old Footprints in the Heritage Tourism in Macao

Yuanyuan Cao and Eusebio C. Leou

Abstract After centuries of cohabitation in a tiny seaside town, a unique example of coexistence has been demonstrated in Macao, by forming different living communities, lifestyles, and cultures from Chinese and Portuguese. The incorporation of the "Historic Centre of Macao" as World Heritage List in 2005 by UNESCO marks the universal value of the Sino-Lusophone cultural mixture from east and west, which would be an irreplaceable attraction for tourists, especially for those fascinated with Portuguese culture destinations or historic background. However, current tourist arrival in Macao is mostly from Chinese-speaker, which means that there's a room for cultivating incoming tourists from the source of non-Chinese-speaker. The purpose of this study is to explore the possible undiscovered inbound visitors' source to Macao, by introducing the theme of "Portuguese Origins (Origem Portuguesa)". By introducing the mentioned concept into the new routes design for the certain visitors, it aims to build a new approach of the destination image to Macao, by emphasizing its cultural attraction besides the current gaming destination. The spatial analysis module of ArcGIS is used in this study to code the "Portuguese Origins" in Macao. Through the field measurement and consultative interview methods, this study confirmed that the concept of "Portuguese Origins" can demonstrate the cultural uniqueness in Macao, which would be a positive impact on the attractiveness of non-Chinese-speaker inbound tourists. To the finding, four theme routes of "Portuguese Origins" are designed by linking the relevant locations in Macao, in order to serve as the tourist attractions with these optimal paths.

Keywords Heritage tourism · Macao · "Portuguese Origin" · ArcGIS · Optimal path

JEL Classification Z32 Tourism and Development

Y. Cao · E. C. Leou (✉)
City University of Macau, Macao SAR, China
e-mail: chleou@cityu.mo

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_23

1 Introduction

Macao is a prosperous port and plays an important strategic role in the development of international trade. Since the middle of the sixteenth century, Macao has gradually been under the governance of Portugal until China resumed the exercise of sovereignty over Macao in 1999. As one of the most important bridgeheads of cultural exchanges between China and the West in modern times, for more than 400 years, various cultures have collided and exchanged with each other in Macao, forming today's unique cultural atmosphere in Macao.

On July 15, 2005, the "Historic Centre of Macao" was incorporated as World Heritage List of UNESCO and became the 31st World Heritage site in China. It marks the universal value of the Sino-Lusophone cultural mixture from east and west. Meanwhile, it provides Macao with an opportunity and a bright spot. The "Historic Centre of Macao" is a historic district with the old urban area of Macao as the core, which is connected by adjacent squares and streets, including 8 front plots and 22 buildings. From the perspective of spatial layout, the cultural relics buildings in the "Historic Centre of Macao" are mainly distributed in strips, which are quite dense. This area is the core part of the residence of foreigners who used to be mainly Portuguese. With main streets and many squares, it connects the important historical buildings in Macao and has basically maintained its original appearance. This large-scale building complex, with a unified style, presents all the typical characteristics of a seaport city and a traditional Sino-Lusophone settlement, which is different from any city in China. It would be an irreplaceable attraction for tourists, especially for those fascinated with Portuguese culture destinations or historic background. Nowadays, with the continuous development of tourism, cultural heritage tourism is favored by tourists, and cultural heritage tourism has also become an important part of Macao's tourism industry (Xuli, Yu Mingjiu, 2022). In the current trend, it is necessary to explore the image of a tourism destination that is more suitable for Macao. It is worth mentioning that many world cultural heritage sites are strictly isolated and protected, and visitors can only view from a distance rather than close contact. Or after the tourists leave, only an empty city is left. The "Historic Centre of Macao" is still the activity center of Macao residents, reproducing scenes of Macao residents' lives, which is the unique charm of the Historic Centre of Macao (Yan Jun, 2009). However, current tourist arrival in Macao is mostly from Chinese-speaker, which means that there's a room for cultivating incoming tourists from the source of non-Chinese-speaker.

The spatial analysis module of ArcGIS is used in this study to code the "Portuguese Origins" in Macao. Through the field measurement and consultative interview methods, this study confirmed that the concept of "Portuguese Origins" can demonstrate the cultural uniqueness in Macao, which would be a positive impact on the attractiveness of non-Chinese-speaker inbound tourists. This study uses the optimal path model in ArcGIS to link the relevant places in Macao and designs four new routes with Portuguese elements as the theme, so as to enrich and expand the new direction of the external promotion of Macao's cultural heritage tourism. By emphasizing the cultural attraction of Macao outside the current gambling destination, explore a more sustainable destination image.

2 The Concept of "Portuguese Origins"

The Convention for the protection of the world cultural and natural heritage was adopted at the general conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in 1972. In 1976, the World Heritage Committee was established, and the first batch of the world heritage list was established in 1978. So far, more than 194 countries have signed the Convention, making it an international legal instrument for the protection of cultural and natural heritage that most people abide by. As of June 2022, there are 1154 world heritages in the world heritage list, distributed in 167 countries, including 897 cultural heritages, 218 natural heritages, and 39 composite heritages. Of the 1154 world heritage sites, 14 are related to Portuguese historical factors. These sites are spread across three continents: Africa, America, and Asia, which is an important witness to the great discovery era and the spread of Portuguese culture around the world. Although the first Portuguese settlements were related to the strategic choice of occupying territory, exploiting natural resources or evangelizing, because they coexisted with the local culture for a long time, they adapted to the local reality and absorbed the indigenous customs while retaining their own culture. This adaptation to local realities and cultural blending reflects the uniqueness of Portugal's cultural heritage in Africa, America, and Asia. These world heritage sites related to Portuguese historical factors are officially named as "Portugal origin" (UNESCO, 2021). Monuments, group of buildings or sites that meet any of the above six criteria can be called "Portuguese Origins". The "Portuguese Origins" in world heritage sites are not only distributed in Portuguese-speaking countries, but also in non-Portuguese-speaking countries, such as Macau, China.

In this paper, the concept of "Portuguese Origin" is adopted in order to figure out the certain sites in Macao as tourist attractions. By referring to the definition of "world cultural heritage" adopted at the 17th UNESCO conference in Paris in 1972, and in combination with consultative interviews, the main body of "Portugal origin" consists of monuments, group of buildings and sites. The selection criteria are as follows:

(i) to represent a masterpiece of Portuguese creative genius;
(ii) to exhibit an important interchange of human values within a cultural of Portugal, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town-planning, or landscape design;
(iii) to bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a Portuguese cultural tradition which is living or which has disappeared;

(iv) to be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural, or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in Portugal history;
(v) to be an outstanding example of a traditional settlement, land-use, or sea-use which is representative of Portuguese culture, or interaction with the environment especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change;
(vi) to be directly or tangibly associated with events about Portugal or living Portuguese traditions, with Portuguese artistic or literary works of outstanding universal significance. (We consider that this criterion should preferably be used in conjunction with other criteria).

3 Research Method

Geographic information system (GIS) is a kind of database system used to acquire, save, operate, explore, and manage spatial or geographic data. Specifically, GIS is a large geographic information discipline used in a wide range of disciplines. It can connect engineering, planning, logistics, insurance, telecommunications, and commerce and carry out data analysis and visual services on this basis.

As one of the most important functions of GIS, network analysis plays an important role in the layout design of various pipe networks and pipelines, such as transportation and tourism, electronic navigation, urban planning, electric power, communication, and so on. It is one of the hot spots and difficulties in current research. In daily life, the commonly used path optimization methods mainly include parallel shortest path search algorithm, ant colony algorithm, EBSP algorithm, and Dijkstra algorithm. They have their own characteristics in space complexity, time complexity, ease of implementation, and scope of application.

The optimal path analysis is the most basic and key problem in the traffic network analysis. The optimal path is not only the shortest distance in the general geographical sense, but also can be extended to other measures, such as cost, time, physical consumption, and so on. Taking “Macau historical center” as an example, this paper establishes an optimal path model based on the influence of multifactor comprehensive factors and compiles a path optimization application program based on the path model by comprehensively using ArcGIS, ArcMap, and other software to discuss the optimal path of the “Portuguese Origins” road network, with a view to developing four new routes to visit Macau’s cultural heritage for tourists from non-Chinese-speaking zone, so as to provide some reference for tourists to travel and visit.

The data comes from the Baidu map image. The acquisition time is April 30, 2022. The study area covers about 16.1678 ha. The image resolution is 500 m. The GCS_WGS_1984 system is adopted. The remote sensing image map of the research target, the sites of the “Portuguese Origins” located in the Peninsula of Macau, can be margined as Fig. 1.

Fig. 1 Map of the Peninsula of Macau by remote sensing image. *Source* Drown by the authors

Data acquisition and input is the first step of establishing GIS, which lays the foundation for the next steps. Then, according to the image of the road network of the research area, it is vectorized to obtain the vectorization results of the road grade in the study area and form the road network data in the study area, as shown in Fig. 2.

The geographical distribution of "Portuguese Origins" in the study area is another issue to be solved, which should include the following contents: accurate longitude and latitude coordinate information, and relevant secondary factor information. Among them, the longitude and latitude coordinates have been corrected.

This study adopts the Dijkstra algorithm, which is the most commonly used in the optimal path algorithm. First, it takes the starting point as the center to search out a solution with the lowest cost or the best in the local scope (that is, the route that

Fig. 2 Road network of the research area the sites of the "Portuguese Origins" located in the Peninsula of Macau. *Source* Drown by the authors

takes the least time and the shortest distance in the tourist feasible walking network). Determine the path from the starting point to the solution, and then use the above method again to expand the search outward layer by layer until the end point is found.

Through consulting interviews, the concept of "Portuguese Origins" can be involved with several sites of the current UNESCO World Heritage Site of "the Historical Center of Macau", as well as several other historical sites within the Peninsula of Macau, which can be generated with four routes with certain themes. These theme routes are

- Theme 1: Route of the Portuguese Social Community and Daily Life;
- Theme 2: Route of the Portuguese Religious Life;
- Theme 3: Route of the Portuguese Civil Life and Fortress;
- Theme 4: Route of the Portuguese Governance and Military Sites.

Theme 1: Route of the Portuguese Social Community and Daily Life;

The length of this theme route is about 3.76 km. Walking along this route, tourists can experience the life of local residents and play the role of ordinary citizens of Macao for a day. As the starting point of the route, Escola Ling Nam has a long history and elegant environment. This is followed by the Autoridade Monetária de Macau, a Macao Regulatory Body established on December 20, 1999, as the currency and

State Administration of Foreign Exchange of the territory on July 1, 1989. The Small Monetary Authority is a witness to the development of history and a silent reflection of the profound changes in the local political and economic environment. After that, we will pass three squares with Portuguese style. The square is surrounded by the first Portuguese settlement in Macao. For example, Praça de Luís de Camões is one of the few places in Macao where there are trees, bus stops, seats, and car parking. There are also schools and residential spaces nearby. With dense trees and seating, the square is a perfect place for community residents and tourists to stay and cool off, with a strong atmosphere of daily life in Macao. After that, tourists will come to Teatro Dom Pedro V. This is the first Western-style theater in China, which is used for drama and concert performances. It is also the place where the Portuguese community held important activities in that year. Teatro Dom Pedro V is the only European theater building in Macao. Its dark green doors and windows and red roof are set off by green as the main color, and the surrounding environment with yellow as the main tone is harmonious coexistence and personality. It is worth mentioning that in addition to performing music, songs, and dances, Teatro Dom Pedro V also provided local residents with a new type of entertainment like film at the beginning of the twentieth century. It is the first place in China to show films and also witnessed the Asian Premiere of Puccini's Opera "Madame Butterfly". Largo do Lilao is one of the earliest Portuguese settlements in Macao. The Portuguese word "Lilao" means "water spring", while the Chinese name "a-po" comes from the Cantonese "old lady". There are many stories, poems, and ballads related to the Largo do Lilao, which shows that Largo do Lilao is of great significance to the local Portuguese. As the material carrier of urban collective memory, they all symbolize the indelible root connection between Largo do Lilao and Macao people. The important position and significance of Largo do Lilao is not only that it is at the core of the historical corridor, but also because it reflects the symbiosis of multiculturalism. The end of this route is Jardim do Sao Francisco which is located on the top of the mountain. It has Portuguese style and can overlook the panoramic view of Macao. It is a popular place for local residents to take wedding photos (see Table 1).

Table 1 Sites and geographical coordinates of Theme 1: Route of the Portuguese Social Community and Daily Life. *Source* Organized by the authors

Sites of the factors of "Portuguese Origins"	Longitude	Latitude
Biblioteca Sir Robert Ho Tung	113.53767	22.19244
Autoridade Monetária de Macau	113.54834	22.19553
Escola Ling Nam	113.54797	22.19521
Praça de Luís de Camões	113.53946	22.19946
Largo do Lilao	113.53496	22.18855
Largo de Santo Agostinho	113.53815	22.19226
Teatro Dom Pedro V	113.53827	22.19226
Praça do Tap Seac	113.54695	22.19815
Jardim do Sao Francisco	113.53335	22.18487

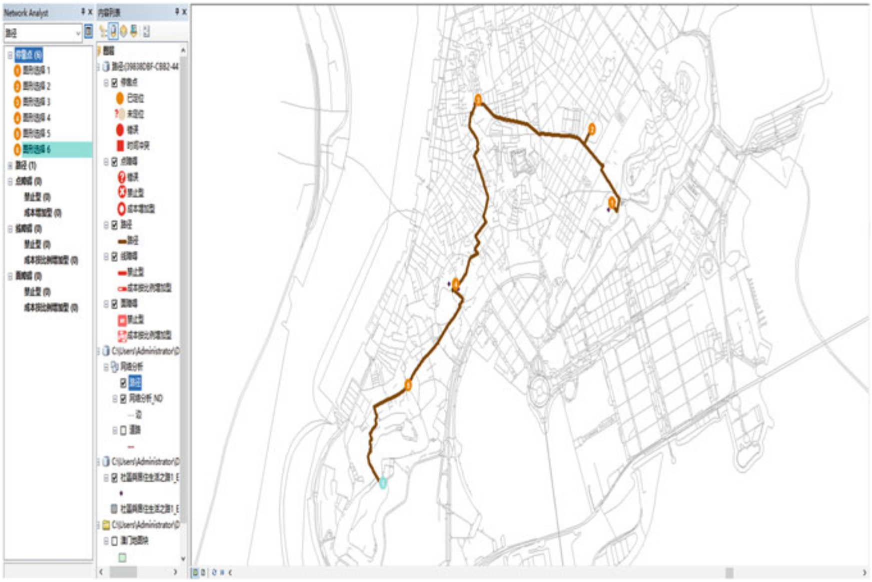


Fig. 3 Optimal path of Theme 1 for tourists: Route of the Portuguese Social Community and Daily Life. *Source* Organized by the authors

Through the vectorization operation of the research area and the introduction of the geographical coordinates of relevant places, the optimal path of Theme 1 is obtained (Fig. 3).

Theme 2: Route of the Portuguese Religious Life;

The length of this theme route is about 3.38 km. Walking along this route, tourists can experience the integration of western religion and Eastern Society within an urban area. This route is mainly religious. For more than 400 years, the Chinese and Portuguese have worked together to create different living communities in the historical urban area of Macao. These living communities not only show Macao's Chinese and Western architectural art characteristics, but also show the integration and respect of the different religions, cultures, and living habits of the Chinese and Portuguese people. This kind of warm, simple, and inclusive community atmosphere brewed by the Chinese and Portuguese people is a place of great characteristics and value in Macao, and it is also an irreplaceable attraction for tourists (see Table 2).

Through the vectorization operation of the research area and the introduction of the geographical coordinates of relevant places, the optimal path of Theme 1 is obtained (Fig. 4).

Theme 3: Route of the Portuguese Civil Life and Fortress;

The length of this theme route is about: 3.40 km. Walking along this route, tourists can observe the historical architecture of the Portuguese domination period, mostly

Table 2 Theme 2: Geographical coordinates of the integration of western religion and Eastern Society. *Source* Organized by the authors

Sites of the factors of "Portuguese Origins"	Longitude	Latitude
Igreja da Sé Catedral	113.54151	22.19349
Largo da Sé	113.54112	22.19366
Igreja de S. Lourenço	113.5366522	22.1906677
Igreja de St. António	113.53958	22.19891
Igreja do Seminário de S. José	113.53732	22.1917
Igreja de S. Domingos	113.54039	22.1948
Praça Santo Domingo	113.54045	22.19446
Praça Jesus Memorial	113.54084	22.19691
Ruínas da Antiga Catedral de São Paulo	113.54085	22.19743
Igreja de St. Agostinho	113.5384266	22.1917854
Museu de Arte Cardeal Newman de Macau	113.54792	22.19676
Colina do Bispo	113.53523	22.18681

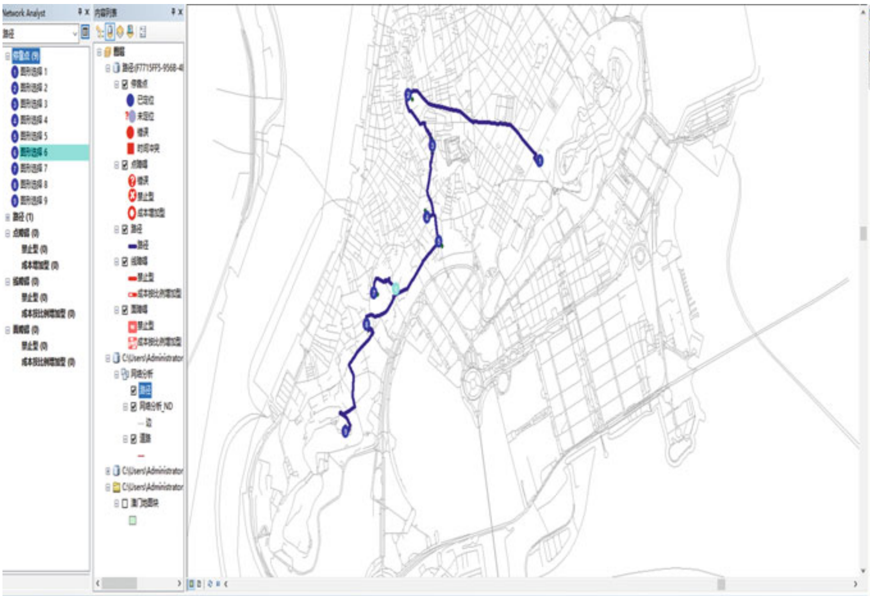


Fig. 4 Theme 2: The optimal path for tourists. *Source* Organized by the authors

Table 3 Theme 3: Geographical coordinates of municipal governance and fortification road. *Source*: Organized by the authors

Sites of the factors of "Portuguese Origins"	Longitude	Latitude
Leal Senado	113.53952	22.19331
Largo do Senado	113.53998	22.19382
Santa Casa da Misericórdia	113.54018	22.19372
Ruínas Da Antiga Muralha Da Cidade	113.54053	22.19764
Fortaleza de S. Paulo do Monte	113.54223	22.19704
Quartel dos Mouros	113.53264	22.18737
Fortaleza da Guia	113.54968	22.19661
Tunel do Monte da Guia	113.54994	22.19699

with public functions. Visitors may experience the art design of colonial style within the historical center of Macao during the route sightseeing. This is a route for tourists interested in military affairs. Military/defense related sites along the way witnessed the wonderful history of Macao. Take the Fortaleza de S. Paulo do Monte for example, it was the core of Macao's defense system at that time, and together with other forts, it formed a wide artillery defense network covering the east and west coasts. The northwest wall facing the Chinese mainland is mainly made of granite. The subwall is relatively low and there is no muzzle, which mainly shows its defensive role overseas and the Portuguese's friendly attitude toward the Chinese authorities at that time (see Table 3).

Through the vectorization operation of the research area and the introduction of the geographical coordinates of relevant places, the optimal path of Theme 1 is obtained (Fig. 5).

Theme 4: Route of the Portuguese Governance and Military Sites.

The length of this theme route is about: 3.38 km. Besides the route of Theme 3, tourists can continuously observe the historical architecture of the Portuguese domination period, mostly with public functions. Visitors may experience the art design of colonial style within the historical center of Macao during the route sightseeing. The Macao Portuguese government (1887-December 19, 1999) was the government agency of Macao during the Portuguese colonial period, and Macao was also an overseas province of Portugal at that time. Therefore, many government buildings of this period have been left in Macao. This route allows tourists to really touch the era that is not far away. Take the site of the Fundação Oriente in the route as an example. It was built in the 1970s. The original site was the villa of Manuel Pereira, a Portuguese Royal aristocrat, financial adviser and one of the founders of the Macao Insurance house. This building may be the first villa style garden house in Macao. Later, it was rented to the East India Company. The new tenants brought their country's architectural models and methods, and renovated them, which in essence had British influence. At that time, people invented a new Portuguese English word—"Casa garden" to describe this mansion. In 1885, the site became the property of the

Fig. 5 Theme 3: The optimal path for tourists. *Source* Organized by the authors

Portuguese Government. After the 1960s, it was changed into the James H Museum. It is now the site of the Fundação Oriente, and the interior has been transformed into an exhibition space. The building adopts the southern European style. There are Spanish marble steps at the entrance of the main gate and an ancient Roman porch. The outer wall is white, the window line and the female wall are pink, and the interior decoration is magnificent. The layout of this house creates a precedent for garden style residences in Macao. The places in this route have strong historical elements. Walking through them, the past years seem to be able to reappear in the minds of tourists (see Table 4).

Table 4 Theme 4: Geographical coordinates of Macao Portuguese government road. *Source* Organized by the authors

Sites of the factors of "Portuguese Origins"	Longitude	Latitude
Fundação Oriente	113.53985	22.20004
Consulado Geral de Portugal em Macau	113.54361	22.19517
Escola Portuguesa de Macau	113.54255	22.19128
Clube Militar de Macau	113.54429	22.19161
Gabinete do Governado Macau	113.53731	22.19047
Consulado Geral de Portugal em Macau	113.53656	22.18636
Fundação Macau	113.54024	22.19279
Clube de Ténis do Exército	113.53473	22.18496

Fig. 6 Theme 4: The optimal path for tourists. *Source* Organized by the authors

Through the vectorization operation of the research area and the introduction of the geographical coordinates of relevant places, the optimal path of Theme 1 is obtained (Fig. 6).

4 Findings

After the above analysis and verification, this paper can conclude the following conclusions, which are listed as follows.

Macao has the universal value of the Sino-Lusophone cultural mixture from east and west. This undoubtedly has great attraction for tourists who are obsessed with Portuguese cultural destinations or historical backgrounds. At this stage, most tourists arrival in Macao is mostly from Chinese-speaker, which means that there's a room for cultivating incoming tourists from the source of non-Chinese-speaker. This paper is based on the concept of "Portuguese Origin" put forward by Portuguese officials to explore Macao's potential tourist market. It aims to build a new image of Macao destination and promote the development of cultural heritage tourism in Macao by emphasizing the cultural attraction of Macao outside the current gambling destination.

Referring to relevant theories and using the method of consultative interview, this paper defines the concept of "Portuguese Origins" for the first time. Meanwhile, this study confirmed that the concept of "Portuguese Origins" can demonstrate the cultural uniqueness in Macao, which would be a positive impact on the attractiveness of non-Chinese-speaker inbound tourists. Moreover, on the basis of on-site measurement, the ArcGIS spatial analysis module in GIS is comprehensively used to establish the optimal path model, and on the basis of which, the path optimization application program is compiled to discuss the optimal path of the "Portuguese Origins" road network, so as to provide a certain reference for tourists to travel and visit. The study found that connecting the relevant sites of "Portuguese Origins" in Historic Centre of Macao through ArcGIS can create four new routes for Macao's cultural heritage and open up a new direction for the promotion of Macao's cultural heritage tourism besides the current gaming destination, which is of practical significance. Now that the Chinese government has apparently relaxed its grip on COVID-19, Chinese people are keen to travel. If the unique cultural background of Macao can be utilized to develop tourism activities, it will have a positive impact on the development of Macao tourism.

5 Conclusion

The "Historic Centre of Macao" World Heritage site is a unique piece of cultural coexistence in a global context, which reflects the cultural integration of east and west. Referring to relevant theories and using the method of consultative interview, this study defines the concept of "Portuguese Origins (Origem Portuguesa)" for the first time. This study confirmed that the concept of "Portuguese Origins" can demonstrate the cultural uniqueness in Macao, which would be a positive impact on the attractiveness of non-Chinese-speaker inbound tourists. The spatial analysis module of ArcGIS is used in this study to code the "Portuguese Origins" in Macao. By introducing the mentioned concept into the new routes design for the certain visitors, it aims to build a new approach of the destination image to Macao, by emphasizing its cultural attraction besides the current gaming destination. This study has a certain practical significance in expanding the new direction of Macao tourism. However, there are still shortcomings, such as insufficient routes. In the future, we look forward to more relevant routes to continuously enrich the connotation of Macao tourism.

References

Beilei, C. (2012). Overview of world heritage tourism research in China Economic Research Guide (35), 72–73. cnki:sun:jjyd.0.2012-35-031.

Bin, X. (2021). Cultural buffer zone: Macao's positioning and construction path of cultural exchanges between China and Portugal. *Journal of Guangzhou Institute of Socialism* (03), 65–71. cnki:sun:gzxy.0.2021-03-014.

Caifa, S. (2010). Discussion on historical sites and cultural landscapes in Macao. *Journal of Hubei University for Nationalities (Philosophy and Social Sciences)* (02), 20–25+110. https://doi.org/10.13501/j.cnki.42-1328/c.2010.02.016.

Chu, C. L. (2015). Spectacular Macau: Visioning futures for a World Heritage City. *Geoforum*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2015.06.009

Dewar, K., Du Cros, H., & Li, W. (2012). The search for World Heritage brand awareness beyond the iconic heritage: A case study of the Historic Centre of Macao. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 7*(4), 323–339.

Dexia, L. (2007). Catholic factors in early Portuguese colonial expansion in the Far East. *Research on Nanyang Issue* (04), 84–89. cnki:sun:lywt.0.2007-04-010.

Guiping, L., Xiaofan, Z., Chuan, C., & Baosheng, S. (2008). Implementation of shortest path in Arcgis spatial analysis. *Journal of Xinjiang University (Natural Science Edition)* (03), 353–355. CNKI:SUN:XJDZ.0.2008-03-021.

Io, M. U., & Hallo, L. (2011). Tour guides' interpretation of the Historic Center of Macao as a World Cultural Heritage site. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change, 9*(2), 140–152.

Jianyi, Z. (2019). Cultural construction and protection dilemma of architectural cultural heritage in Macao's later heritage era. *World Architecture* (11), 44–49+139. https://doi.org/10.16414/j.wa.2019.11.012, https://doi.org/10.16199/j.cnki.jwbu.2019.04.003.

Jinhua, C., & Jiayi, H. (2010). A study on the protection of Macao's cultural heritage based on the perspective of public perception and participation. *Journal of Leshan Normal University* (04), 88–90+113. CNKI:SUN:LSSZ.0.2010-04-022.

Jieshun, X. (1999). Perspective of Macao culture. *Journal Of Guangxi University For Nationalities (Philosophy And Social Sciences)* (04), 81–84. cnki:sun:gxzs.0.1999-04-020.

Hongliang, Z., & Jing, L. (2009). Cultivation of Macao heritage: Continuity and fracture after the return World Architecture (12), 56–59. https://doi.org/10.16414/j.wa.2009.12.009.

Keqin, S. (2009). Developing world heritage tourism–taking the historical center of Macao as an example Resources and industry (02), 85–89. cnki:sun:ziyu.0.2009-02-021

Meizhen, L., & Qian, C. C. (2011). Shaping and promotion of the image of tourism in Macao. *The Future and Development* (08), 107–112. CNKI:SUN:WLYF.0.2011-08-025.

Ma, Y. (2020). Research on modern architecture of Macao from the perspective of Sino-Portuguese cultural integration. *Frontiers in Art Research* (6.0). https://doi.org/10.25236/FAR.2020.020614.

Mingxia, S. (2021). Macao factors and Macao characteristics of the integration of Chinese and Western civilizations. *Northern Treatise* (05), 171–178. https://doi.org/10.13761/j.cnki.bflc.2021.05.017.

Xin-Ji, W., & Qinghua, L. (2012). Shortest path analysis based on GIS. *Logistics Engineering and Management* (06), 42–43. CNKI:SUN:SPCY.0.2012-06-019.

Shangxia, Y., & Jinhua, C. (2019). Analysis of temporal and spatial behavior characteristics of mainland tourists to Macao Based on tourism digital footprint. *Journal of Wuhan Business School, 04*, 15–20. https://doi.org/10.16199/j.cnki.jwbu.2019.04.003

Shuying, Z., Jiaming, L., He, Z., & Xiangju, Z. (2021). The characteristics of linear cultural heritage and its impact on tourism utilization patterns–a statistical analysis based on the world heritage list China ecotourism (02), 203–216. cnki:sun:stly.0.2021-02-005

Su strengthened. (2006). Calculate the optimal path with GIS. *Science and Technology Information* (10), 165–166. CNKI:SUN:KJXX.0.2006-10-097.

Zhang, Y. Y., & Wang, P. H. (2021). Investigation and analysis of architectural styles in the historical center of Macau. *Journal of the Science of Design* (1). https://doi.org/10.11247/JSD.5.1_1_forty-seven

Wanqing, Z., & Xiyuan, L. (2015). Culture or gambling: A preliminary analysis of Guangdong residents' cognition of Macao's tourism resources. *Contemporary Hong Kong and Macao Studies, 03*, 26–46. https://doi.org/10.13521/b.cnki.ddgayj.2015.0018

Wen, Z., Yueyin & Xingyue. (2019). Media mirror image and cultural imagination of "post colonial city"–a study based on Portuguese media reports on "Macao" (1999–2018) Journalism University (04), 100–115+120–121. cnki:sun:xwdx.0.2019-04-011

Xiaojing, L. (2012). The "capillaries" circulating in Macao's historical urban area–an empirical study on the scale of streets in Macao China building decoration (06), 168–169. cnki:sun:zjia.0.2012-06-033

Xiaoli, S., Liang, Z., Shujing, T., Wanrong, H., Chaoyuan, G., & Zhixiong, J. (2019). Discussion on the optimal path of urban road network based on ArcGIS. *Journal of Guizhou University (Natural Science Edition)* (03), 27–31. https://doi.org/10.15958/j.cnki.gdxbzrb.2019.03.05.

Leiqing, X., Wei, W., & Pengpeng, W. (2015). Exploration and research on the “activation” of Macao’s historical urban area–taking the perspective of tourist distribution as an example. *Southern Architecture* (06), 10–15. cnki:sun:nfjz.0.2015-06-003.

Songbin, Y., Jiahui, C., Xuejing, W., Hongzhe, Y., Yushan, Z., & Jing, Y. (2020). Research on safe travel path of blind people based on Arc GIS spatial analysis. *Sino Foreign Architecture* (06), 111–116. cnki:sun:zwjc.0.2020-06-033.

Yanzhang, Z. (2021). Research on Macao’s tourism development from the perspective of global tourism. *Northern Economy and Trade* (08), 145–148. cnki:sun:gfjm.0.2021-08-045.

Yao, W., & Rong, Z. (2009). Update process: A brief account of the study on the protection of the world heritage of historical buildings in Macao. *World Architecture, 12*, 126. https://doi.org/10.16414/j.wa.2009.12.024

Ye, A., & Liu, S. (2017, October). An exploration of cultural heritage trail development in the historic center of Macao. In *International conference on East Asian architectural culture* (pp. 407–421). Springer, Cham.

Yizhuang, H. (2007). Macau: A historic city and a new soul of culture. *Pearl River Economics* (Z1), 34–37. CNKI:SUN:ZJJA.0.2007-Z1-010.

Zheng, X. (2006). Rare “cultural synchronic structure”–the way of survival and development of “World Heritage” Macao Central China Architecture (08), 168–170. cnki:sun:hzjz.0.2006-08-050.

Zhenxiong, M., & Xiaoli, L. (2018). Urban marketing path: A practical analysis based on Macao. *Journal of Urumqi Vocational University* (01), 48–52. cnki:sun:wlzy.0.2018-01-012.

Zhongjing, L. (2005). Research on the attraction of Macao tourism to Taiwan’s tourist market (Master’s thesis, overseas Chinese University).

Zhujun, H. (2019). Macau city image change and tourism development. Hong Kong and Macao studies (02), 13–20+93. CNKI:SUN:YJGA.0.2019-02-002.

Digital Activities as Online Getaways to Cultural Heritage: The Paradigm of Greek Museums During the COVID-19 Era

Sofia Boutsiouki and Maria Damou

Abstract The recent COVID-19 pandemic led most countries to impose lockdowns in order to confront its unprecedented health and socioeconomic impact. Museums and cultural institutions were obliged to keep their physical doors closed to the public; however, many of them undertook initiatives in order to maintain their communication with their audiences and to respond to the social need for alternative cultural experiences. They took new approaches to digital transformation and audience engagement by focusing on digital tools and solutions for innovative initiatives, virtual events, and communication activities. This paper aims to examine the museum management in Greece in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic and to present museum initiatives that enabled the digital consumption of heritage and the increased virtual attendance of wider audiences via extrovert, online, interactive activities, and participatory experiences. For this purpose, a research was conducted in order to collect data from three Greek museums that are characterized by intense digital presence and activity: the Acropolis Museum, the Benaki Museum, and the Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki. The research uses methods of qualitative and quantitative analysis and offers a critical insight into the particular museums' extroversion and digital responses during two COVID-19 lockdown periods. The paper contributes to the identification of trends and new ways of enabling open access to cultural heritage resources and keeping cultural content relevant to the needs of society. Moreover, it attempts to outline the existing gaps and the arising challenges and opportunities for the museums' digital strategy, resilience, and sustainability in the post-coronavirus world.

Keywords Museum · Cultural heritage management · Digital transformation · Sustainability · Greece · COVID-19

JEL Classification Z10

S. Boutsiouki (✉) · M. Damou
University of Macedonia, Thessaloniki, Greece
e-mail: sofiab@uom.edu.gr

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_24

1 Introduction

In early 2020, governments worldwide enforced lockdowns and social distancing to reduce the spread of COVID-19. As expected, the museum sector was not exempted from the containment measures taken in response to the pandemic crisis. Almost 90% of museums had to close their doors (UNESCO, 2020, p. 4) and postpone or cancel exhibitions, projects, education programs, performances, and events (Samaroudi et al., 2020, p. 338). The majority of museums attempted to maintain the access of their audiences to culture and education by promoting digital projects and activities organized by staff working from home (NEMO, 2020, p. 6). Three weeks after the physical closure to the public, 80% of the European museums had already increased their online activity and changed staff tasks in order to accommodate current needs—30% of tasks were assigned to digital teams—while 16% of them had increased their budget for online activities (NEMO, 2020, p. 12). According to a NEMO's survey, four out of five museums "increased their digital services" and reported "an increase in online visits", with a range between 10 and 150% during the period of the first lockdown in Europe. The survey also highlighted the importance of a professionally trained and skilled museum staff and the necessity of ensuring education and access to museum collections for online audiences (NEMO, 2020, pp. 2–3).

At first, museums in Europe used their existing resources, like "online collection portals and social media accounts"; then, they tried to deliver "new content", such as virtual tours and exhibitions, "curatorial talks" and "educational material" for "home-bound audiences" (Zuanni, 2020b). According to NEMO's survey, museums' online service activity was mainly focused on: "online learning; online exhibitions; virtual tours; podcasts; YouTube programs; special newsletters, live content; adding objects to collection online; hashtags on social media; featuring individual objects; quizzes and contests" (NEMO, 2020, p. 12). The online access to museum activities was not simply a matter of keeping institutions alive and sustainable, but also of reducing isolation, improving mental health and supporting the creative and educational needs of diverse communities around the world (Samaroudi et al., 2020, p. 338). Many museums contributed to the online edutainment of these audiences in an interesting and innovative way. They created a variety of hashtags on social media that included #MuseumFromHome, #MuseumsUnlocked, #MuseumMomentofZen, #ClosedButOpen, #ClosedButActive; inspired by famous museum collections, users created their own works and shared them online, while cultural heritage professionals participated in special activities describing and analyzing stories and cultural objects (Zuanni, 2020b). In general, an accelerated digital consumption behavior developed, which dominated the cyberspace and increased the urgency for museums to explore and introduce new and remote ways of digitally experiencing cultural heritage (Samaroudi et al., 2020, p. 338).

The urgent matter of offering a cultural escape led the way in making museums available through new technologies and "immersive cultural experiences" (Cuseum, 2020). When social distancing measures were implemented, museum organizations used digital and virtual means to promote cultural heritage in an effort to reach and remain connected to audiences (American Alliance of Museums, 2020b). While being on lockdown and closed to visitors, museums increased their commitment to digital access, connectivity, and interaction through a variety of channels including digital platforms, online collections, virtual reality, live streams and 360° video (American Alliance of Museums, 2020b), online exhibitions, educational and mobile games, interactive digital artworks, online viewing rooms (Cuseum, 2020). Generally, there were four main types of digital experiences, which museums could implement during the challenging time of the pandemic crisis: (i) "unique campaigns and series on social media"; (ii) "engage in real-time with live streams"; (iii) "virtual tours"; and (iv) "virtual and artificial reality" (American Alliance of Museums, 2020a).

2 Literature Review. Going Digital

In the twenty-first century, digital cultural heritage and online audience engagement are dominating the museum sector as they offer opportunities for bringing people together in a virtual space, where they can share experiences, build ideas, and express their creativity (NEMO, 2020, p. 3) in the context of the democratization of culture. During the coronavirus lockdowns, access to cultural heritage emerged as a societal need and museums focused on their digital transformation to produce online cultural gateways. In this context, museums across the world increased their digital activities and online presence (UNESCO, 2020, p. 5). They adapted existing resources or developed new ones to offer audiences a variety of ways to engage with cultural heritage content and to participate remotely in museum events or shared stories and objects to preserve and learn from the experience of the pandemic (NEMO, 2020, p. 1). Access to these cultural resources requires a certain level of digital literacy (knowledge and skills to use new technologies effectively), a device that offers a different mode of experiencing online content (computer or laptop, smartphone or tablet) and a good internet connection, premises that are not equally distributed worldwide (Zuanni, 2020a). Thus, even though digital technologies have great potential for promoting culture, simultaneously they constitute "potential barriers" for museums and people that do not have access to them, a fact that underlines the digital divide worldwide (UNESCO, 2020, pp. 6–7). Besides, the development of digital activities and digital engagement with cultural heritage demands cultural policy and strategic management, which are big challenges for the viability of the museum sector.

The digital activities undertaken by the museums in the midst of the coronavirus pandemic can be categorized into five types (UNESCO, 2020, pp. 15–17):

(a) "*Use of previously digitized resources*" by museums that focused on digitization policy, which included online collections and digital exhibitions, virtual museums and 360° tours, online publications, digital productions, games and applications, cultural content from previous exhibitions.

(b) "*Digitization of planned activities during the months of lockdown*" presented online in the form of events—concerts, talks, radio shows—live or recorded, available on social media or on digital platforms, often downloadable, characterized by more or less interactivity.
(c) "*Increased activity on social media*", such as being active on social networks like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, and SoundCloud channel, contributing new digital content through the museum teams and community managers and partially transforming into "diversified digital media".
(d) "*Special activities created for lockdown*", that is, original projects developed in the context of the COVID-19 lockdown, which can be grouped into three categories: (i) "specific mediation" concerning new experiences and audience engagement, like "offbeat view" of museum collections and exhibitions in the "deserted rooms", tours with robots, use of museum reproductions in video games; (ii) presentation of the "invisible" museum works, such as collection management; (iii) encouragement of "participatory actions" at an international level, like inviting online visitors and web users to reproduce famous museum art works and take photos in order to exhibit them in the near future, to participate in educational games that could involve families and support parents to edutain their children, to share stories of children or communities, to play quizzes, coloring activities, and video games.
(e) "*Professional and scientific activities organized in the context of lockdown*", like web conferences (webinars, talks, or meetings through videoconferencing media, such as Zoom, Skype, Google Hangouts), which focused on topics related to the pandemic crisis, but had the potential of being continued in the future, due to the serious economic and social consequences of COVID-19 that affect the museum sector in the long term.

The digital activities offered to online visitors during the COVID-19 lockdown periods could be categorized in the following different types and subtypes (Samaroudi et al., 2020, pp. 343–344):

(a) Collection (free database exploration and images database/resources, guided exploration, collection-related resources, 3D collection, collecting content).
(b) Virtual visit (gallery tour, audio tour).
(c) Learning (educational material).
(d) Home activities (creative activities, well-being activities).
(e) Events (live event, festival, competition, other event).
(f) Funding (commercial venture).
(g) Communication (social media, podcast, videos, COVID-19 communication, practical info, student/artist resources, digital publications, racism related, music lists, other communication).

This categorization of museums' digital offerings indicates their effort to meet societal and emotional needs and to stay connected with audiences and communities in the quarantine era. These needs, which arose from the conditions of the pandemic lockdown, allow an "audience segmentation" of three groups (Samaroudi et al., 2020, pp. 344–345):

(i) "*Audiences seeking learning support*": Teachers, eager students, or parents doing homeschooling during the pandemic are included, and a traditional audience focused on formal and informal education to support online learning.
(ii) "*Audiences seeking emotional support and entertainment*": People who seek digital content and activities that might provide benefits of support, relaxation, and well-being, as they are stressed or scared, bored, lonely, workers, or people who want to help others.
(iii) "*Stakeholders who wish to keep involved*": Audiences who hold an important position in an organization and want to understand how the pandemic affects it, themselves, and what they can do to offer support. Internal audiences, museum professionals, members, or donors as well as the local community are included.

Obviously, the museum sector is facing a digital and mainly a societal challenge, a "new normal" that has to be considered during its preparation for a new start (ICOM, 2020a, p. 4). The shift toward digital transformation is the new trend in museum management, affecting the collections' management and their access, the exhibition and display policy, and the ways of generating revenues for sustainability. According to ICOM's third survey (ICOM, 2020a, pp. 15–16), online activities continue to increase through "new digital communication channels" (collection online, online exhibitions, live events, learning programs, newsletters, podcasts, social media), while there is an increased percentage of non-full-time staff (61%) assigned to digital and communication activities. Additionally, more and more museums are aware of the fundamental importance of upgrading their "digital infrastructure and resources" (ICOM, 2020a, p. 17) and they started or are planning to rethink their digital strategy, to increase and train staff as well as to increase their budget and digital offer. Apart from the development of digital presence and services and in response to the pandemic crisis, many institutions followed new directions in their strategy, like "new/flexible work structures, increased focus on local communities, new ways to generate revenues (online), increased focus on sustainability, renovation of (part of) the building, improvement of accessibility, new research on the collections, change of partnership strategy". In addition, many of them felt the need for "essential remote work skills, building a digital strategy, digital content creation, community outreach, developing digital/hybrid events, emergency preparedness, marketing management, crowdfunding/fundraising, IT and software development, HR management" (ICOM, 2020a, pp. 23, 27).

Sustainable museums are of pivotal importance, so a management framework with measures for sustainable development tailored to the specific strengths, contexts, and needs of each museum and cultural institution could really be useful (ICOM, 2020b). For this purpose and in collaboration with museum professionals, studio klv built the "Sustainability Management in Museums" (SMM). It is a framework that uses a "top-down and bottom-up approach" to "improve sustainability performance across all areas of museum operations", "a cross-functional task", which focuses on four basic areas (ICOM, 2020b): "(i) People, the social dimension of museums; (ii) Planet, the environmental footprint; (iii) Profit, business case for sustainability, and (iv) Program, the museum's mission". The integration of a sustainability management

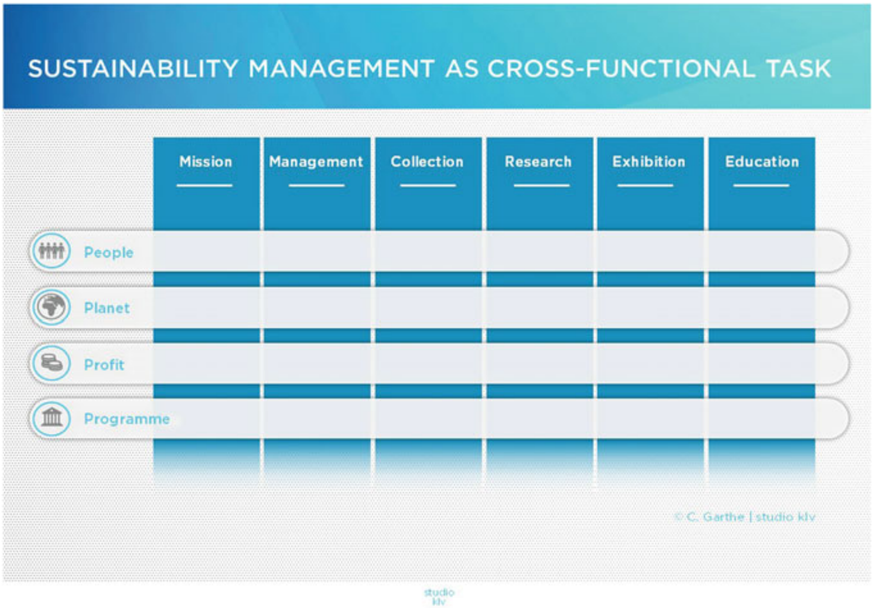


Fig. 1 Integration of sustainability management in museums' operations. *Source* ICOM (2020b)

system in museum operations is a challenge for museums, as well as a "core value" and a responsible attitude toward the society (ICOM, 2020b) (see Fig. 1).

3 Museum Digital Activities in Greece in the COVID-19 Era

3.1 Resilience of Greek Museums During the Pandemic Crisis

Cultural heritage is displayed in many museums across Greece. There are currently (Ministry of Culture and Sports, 1995–2020) about 272 museums in the country dedicated to different thematic areas, such as the archaeological, byzantine and post-byzantine, diachronic, historical and folklore, visual arts, cinema, music, nautical, photography, theater (Odysseus.culture, 2012). According to a UNESCO report, Greece is included among the countries that have 201–500 museums and 26–50 museums per million inhabitants (UNESCO, 2020, pp. 9, 11). From March 13, 2020, onward, the Greek state took radical measures to reduce the spread of the coronavirus disease, resulting in the mandated closure of museums until June 15,

2020. This was the first period of lockdown, physical distancing, and discouragement of in situ visits. The immediate reaction of the museum sector focused on the enhancement of its web presence in order to maintain a link with its audience mainly by promoting "investments made before the pandemic", like the digitization of collections and the creation of virtual museums (UNESCO, 2020, pp. 5, 14). Such responses highlight the importance of information and communication technologies (ICTs) and the urgency of digital transformation. Unfortunately, only few museums in Greece focused on digitizing and bringing to life online already planned activities or on offering new digital content and innovative actions to alleviate the challenges of the home confinement. The majority of museums developed activities on social networks and webinars, mainly for museum professionals. The digital investment and the use of social media were prioritized mostly by museums that had recently received European funding (Partnership Agreement for the Development Framework, Creative Europe, Digital Europe) or had redefined their policy regarding the promotion of their collections in the digital era.

The development of a digital presence by the museum sector in Greece during the COVID-19 pandemic comprised: (i) the use of museum web portals (websites), (ii) the promotion of virtual museum projects that had been underway previously, (iii) online collections, (iv) online exhibitions, (v) webinars, (vi) live stream events, and (vii) educational programs and material.

3.2 Methodology of Investigation

The aim of this paper is to understand how museums in Greece adapted to the COVID-19 health crisis and responded digitally during the two periods of physical closures and coronavirus lockdowns. Greek museums were compelled to remain closed to the public during March–June 2020 and November 2020–May 2021. The paper examines the extroversion and digital resilience of three important cultural heritage institutions renowned for their reach collections, the Acropolis Museum and the Benaki Museum in Athens and the Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki. It is an overview of their digital activities and initiatives and an in-depth analysis of their response to the crisis. The paper is based on an investigation during which data were collected from the museums' official online portals. The paper tries to document the impact of the health crisis on the museum sector in Greece and the application of creative solutions based on existing and new digital resources for distance audience engagement.

3.3 The Acropolis Museum

Starting with the Acropolis Museum in Athens, whose core mission was the public outreach, it responded to the pandemic by upgrading its digital presence (Acropolis Museum, 2021, p. 2). Its digital presence mainly gave emphasis to the official website (Acropolis Museum, 2020a), an online portal that offers free public access to the exhibitions and artifacts, scientific and research material. The museum introduced a Computer-Based Documentation and Collection Management System for its collections (*MuseumPlus*) in 2014 (Acropolis Museum, 2020c). On the museum website, online visitors can find multimedia technology offerings. Digital applications (virtual representations, virtual tours, online educational games, interactive timeline with the history of the Acropolis and its Museum, interactive projects) and videos (films, VR 360° video for panoramic tour, representation of three-dimensional models, activities, events) render all of the Museum's displays accessible to the global community (Acropolis Museum, 2021, p. 10). The multimedia applications were "designed in accordance with the general philosophy and museological approach of the Museum", employing experiential, interactive methods, complementing its exhibits and increasing their comprehensibility, taking into account the diversity of the visitors' age groups, promoting communication and interaction, and offering a cutting-edge experience to online and in situ visitors (Acropolis Museum, 2021, p. 10). These digital resources were available before the lockdowns and few were offered during the COVID-19 lockdown period; however, none of them was created for the lockdown.

As regards the museum's social media presence during the two periods of physical closure, hashtags on Facebook and Instagram presenting exhibits of the Acropolis Museum were the main activity *(#StaySafe* with the exhibits of the Acropolis Museum, *#StayHome* with the exhibits of the Acropolis Museum, *#EasterInGreece*) (Acropolis Museum Facebook, 2020). This fact revealed the absence of a professional team assigned the production of digital content on social media.

Moreover, two additional websites were released on December 22, 2020, although they were not designed especially for the second period of lockdown. The *Digital Acropolis Museum* (2020) provides a contemporary multilingual platform for audience engagement and interaction with digital exhibits and applications of cultural, educational, and touristic content, based on multimedia technology; the *Acropolis Museum Kids* (2020) *was* created especially for children 6–12 years old to have fun with the fascinating world of the museum via inspiring games, amusing videos, and a series of inventive activities. Both are part of the program "Creation of the Digital Acropolis Museum" that was integrated into the R.O.P. "Attica 2014–2020", an ambitious aim and an organic part of the museum's communication, museological and educational approach to different audiences, either local or international, actual and online visitors (Acropolis Museum, 2020b, p. 10). Within the context of this project, which follows international trends and practices on museums' digital transformation, the equal and free access to the Acropolis Museum's collection, the enhancement and enrichment of its exhibitions, and a wider audience engagement are the main goals of its strategy for the years to come, by embracing innovation (Acropolis Museum, 2020b, p. 2). Visiting this kind of digital museum can be a special and meaningful experience. During the period June 2019–May 2020, the virtual attendance at the Museum was 659,041 people (Acropolis Museum, 2020b, p. 8), while during the period June 2020–May 2021, it was 289,789 people (Acropolis Museum, 2021, p. 8).

3.4 The Benaki Museum

According to its mission statement, the Benaki Museum in Athens aims to "maintain a dynamic connection with ongoing cultural processes in Greece and beyond" (Benaki Museum, 2016a, 2016b). The museum uses multimedia technology in order to offer the opportunity to visitors to immerse in culture via its website and digital applications (Study International, 2020). The official website of the Benaki Museum (2016a, 2016b) is an online portal, designed for all, which offers free public access to seven museums with diverse collections and designates the dialogue of the Greek culture with world cultures (Benaki Museum, 2019, p. 5). In addition, in this platform, the museum's E-shop (Benaki Museum Shop, 2020) operates as a cultural venue, where online visitors enjoy a shopping experience enriched with unique highlights of the Greek history, jewelry, visual and applied arts, design, fashion, and architecture. Moreover, the inclusion of the museum in international cultural platforms, such as the Europeana and the Google Arts and Culture, made it resilient to the pandemic. The digital resources of the museum's collections, library and archives (Benaki Museum, 2019, p. 40), the online multimedia applications, like 360° virtual tours of all galleries that are supported by an audio guide in six languages (Benaki Museum, 2020a), and multimedia productions present the Benaki Museum to the online audience in an interesting way (Benaki Museum, 2016–2021).

All the digital resources mentioned above are part of its standard digital policy and philosophy, thus being available even before the lockdown. However, the Benaki Museum developed special digital activities for the lockdown period as well. The "CLOSE UPS" video series, starting with Season#1 during spring 2020 and continuing with Season# 2, available during the second period of lockdown in Greece, highlighted fascinating stories behind the museum's objects and people associated with them, inaugurating a way to reconnect and stay in touch with the audience. At the same time, the "Hellenic Together", an online lecture series of two periods (spring–summer 2020 and autumn–winter 2020–2021), which took place on a web-based conference platform and was accessed by a varied audience from around the world during the period of the global pandemic, aimed to showcase the museum's treasures, research, exhibition activities, and projects (Benaki Museum, 2020d). "Covintius the Terrible" (Benaki Museum, 2020c) was another digital activity created for the lockdown period. It was an online educational program–movie workshop, available since spring 2020, where children 9–12 years old created short narrative videos from home drawing inspiration from the Toy Museum collection.

During the second period of the lockdown, the Benaki Museum also organized the “Bid for the Benaki”, an online auction of objects and works of art in support of the museum (Benaki Museum, 2020b). As it was expected, an increased activity was observed on social media with the hashtags #StaySafe, #MuseumFromHome, and #throwbacktime; by presenting its exhibits, the Benaki Museum tried to remain “open” despite the closure of its physical doors. Just as importantly, #ExpoInLockDownMode, an online exhibition, took place during the second period of lockdown (January 2021) and was based on the digitization of a planned activity with a free online-guided tour (Benaki Museum, 2021a).

Additionally, during the pandemic, the Benaki Museum organized the “1821 Before and After” anniversary exhibition to celebrate the bicentennial of the Greek War of Independence. It was a tribute to 1821 (Benaki Museum, 2021e), the year when the Greek Revolution was declared, which resulted in the country’s independence. The exhibition would be open to the public for 8 months (March–November 2021); however, due to continuance of the pandemic, the exhibition was inaugurated on May 14, 2021, attracting 44,493 visitors (Benaki Museum, 2021e). On December 15, 2020, the Benaki Museum invited the audience to join a live streaming presentation of the “1821 Before and After” exhibition, entitled “Unfolding 100 years of history within an exhibition «1821 Before and After»”. Two historians–curators guided the online visitors to the backstage of the exhibition, discussing its identity and structure and giving them the opportunity to experience the “atmosphere of a museum show setup” (Benaki Museum, 2020e). Furthermore, videos were especially produced and made available on YouTube, and a 360° virtual tour presented the preparations for the anniversary exhibition and the exhibition itself, accompanied by an audio tour (Benaki Museum, 2021b). Moreover, the “1821 Digital Archive” (Research Centre for the Humanities, 2021) was a pioneering research program that aimed to create an open, free access, multi-layered digital platform referring to the 1821 Greek Revolution. It was dedicated (a) “to the collection of various archival material” deriving from Greek and international archives, libraries, private collections, museums, universities and research centers, and (b) “to the conduction of a series of new research, which promote modern scientific discourse”. The research results would be disseminated to the public through the program’s official website and the “1821 Digital Archive” exhibition, an installation in a physical space at the Benaki Museum (2021c). This museum space explores what an archive does and how “from a spatial perspective”, “as well as the dynamic narrative that results from the approach of documents regarding the 1821 Revolution in diverse ways”. It is treated as a “temporary studio for relaying physical and online meetings” (Benaki Museum, 2021c) and as a place for digital exhibits. The “How do we remember 1821?” (1821 Digital Archive, 2021), a local history school project (Research Centre for the Humanities, 2021) and crowdsourcing collaborative initiative, is an interesting example. Primary and secondary education students compiled “a dynamic digital archive that records the traces of 1821 in the public sphere”; they were encouraged to delve into their local history and describe monuments, museum objects, books/manuscripts of the early nineteenth century.

Similarly, the bicentenary of the 1821 Greek Revolution is celebrated at the e-shop of the Benaki Museum. Visitors can find original souvenirs (Benaki Museum Shop, 2021), created by traditional craftsmen, artists, and contemporary designers, who "researched for months the symbols, the iconography and the main actors of the Greek War of Independence", especially for this important anniversary (Benaki Museum, 2021d). Thus, the Benaki Museum appears to stay focused on a digital strategy that enabled its resilience and sustainability during the difficult times of the health crisis.

3.5 The Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki

The Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki organized extrovert cultural activities addressed to everyone according to its philosophy and tagline "A Museum for all" (Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki, 2021a). Its unique collection of ancient artifacts is accessible via the official website of the museum that was designed in 2017. Since the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, the Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki developed alternative ways and digital events for citizens to access culture (Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki, 2021b). At the same time, it maintained an intense digital presence on social media, especially on YouTube, with the hashtag #amthvlepoume (26 April–31 May 2020), offering free online access to its audiovisual productions referring to its permanent and periodic exhibitions, as well as to the fields of archaeometry and preservation of antiquities (Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki, 2021c). During the nationwide lockdown to restrict the spread of COVID-19, the Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki continued cultivating its relation with online visitors by offering them the "opportunity of a creative new approach of its antiquities" (Council of Europe, 2020f) through online actions that have been characterized as good practices of Strategy 21 (Council of Europe, 2020b).

The first online action, which was related to the Strategy 21 Social component (S) "S2—make heritage more accessible" (Council of Europe, 2020c), was entitled "Poetry in the shape of things" (Council of Europe, 2020f). It was organized on the occasion of the "International Museum Day" (18 May 2020) and lasted from May 18, 2020, to June 24, 2020. It was inspired by "visual poems known as calligrams, whose text is arranged in such a way that it creates the image of a thematically related object" (Council of Europe, 2021, pp. 57–58). Their origins date back to the "technopaignia" of the Hellenistic era (c. 300 B.C.), while they were used by Guillaume Apollinaire in his homonymous poetry collection in 1918 (Council of Europe, 2020f). The main goal of the museum was to reintroduce its collections as a "source of inspiration, imagination, self-expression and creativity" and as a challenge for "creative connections with present and past artworks". Thus, it encouraged people to get through the difficult situation of the pandemic closures by drawing strength from the inner power and beauty of cultural heritage (Council of Europe, 2020f). The museum produced online videos that were presenting two ancient objects of its collection as calligrams, inviting visitors, regardless of age, country of origin or educational level, to choose texts and poems written in their language and "to give them the form of their favorite objects", ancient or contemporary (Council of Europe, 2020f). Additionally, people were invited to send photos of their visual poems with personal thoughts and information via e-mail or to share them on Facebook or Instagram with the hashtag #amthcalligram (Council of Europe, 2020f). Over two hundred individuals, from 5+ to 80+ years old and from seven countries besides Greece, shared their calligrams, that were posted daily on the museum's social media and website, as part of the digital exhibition "Poetry in the shape of things" (Council of Europe, 2021, p. 58). The calligrams were divided into six sections, depending on the depicted object: (i) antiquities of the AMTh, (ii) antiquities, (iii) human, (iv) nature, (v) shapes, and vi) objects and space"; the particular initiative enriched the museum's interaction with the public and increased the online attendance and participation (Council of Europe, 2020f). This digital action introduced the "meaningful power of poetry and literature as carriers of human hopes and anxieties" and "the dynamics of monuments to mobilize emotions and imagination … monuments could be not just 'untouchable' exhibits, but also heritage that can touch our deeper self", on condition that they are considered "out of the (museum) box" (Council of Europe, 2020f).

The second online action, which was related to the Strategy 21 Social component (S) "S2—make heritage more accessible" (Council of Europe, 2020c), was entitled "Everything changes in time and all remain the same" (Council of Europe, 2020f). The action was also organized on the occasion of the "International Museum Day" and lasted from May 18, 2020, to May 31, 2021; it was characterized as a temporary and digital action and exhibition (Council of Europe, 2020d). The initiative was motivated by the museum's willingness to keep in contact with its visitors and friends by offering people who had to "stay at home" the opportunity to enjoy the most representative artifacts of its collection and interact with them (Council of Europe, 2020d). Thus, the museum gave its audience the opportunity to open a direct dialogue with cultural heritage "in relation to the past and to the present" and to realize that "some objects may have changed in time regarding their name, material, shape or use, but they still somehow remain the same" or that "nothing has changed and nothing is as it used to be" (Council of Europe, 2020d). The online audience had to search their homes for objects that looked like the ancient ones, to photograph them and send their photos via e-mail or upload them on the museum's social media with the hashtag #amtholataidiamenoun. The collected material was presented in a digital/online exhibition, contrasting "ancient artefacts with look-alike modern-day objects and, therefore, antiquity to modern everyday life" (Council of Europe, 2020d). This digital action was an opportunity not only for building relations and working in the public interest, but also for better familiarization with new technologies and social media. Thus, it enhanced and improved the museum's "digital channel of communication" with online visitors, which adapted quickly and effectively to the new conditions imposed by the pandemic and secured daily attendance via online getaways "while its doors remained hermetically closed" (Council of Europe, 2020d).

The third online action, which was related to the Strategy 21 Knowledge and Education component (K) “K11—explore heritage as a source of knowledge, inspiration and creativity” (Council of Europe, 2020a), was entitled “Let’s stay at home and make a paper ‘Plangon’ toy doll” (Council of Europe, 2020e). The action was also organized on the occasion of the “International Museum Day” and lasted from May 18, 2020, to May 17, 2021. It was designed for and addressed to young visitors and was inspired by the toy doll “Plangon” of ancient Greece that was ceramic and had movable arms and legs (Council of Europe, 2020e). The “Plangon” initiative—#amthdiaskedazoume—was designed as an online educational workshop that aimed to inspire young children to creatively interact with an ancient toy doll by constructing paper dolls and dressing them with material easily found at home (paper, coloring materials, textiles, many other household objects) while at home during the coronavirus pandemic (Council of Europe, 2020e). This initiative was giving to the audience the opportunity to interact with an archaeological object and connect with culture, while it engaged the entire family in a playful, creative, inspired, and amusing learning way (Council of Europe, 2020e). When the project came to an end, children’s artistic creations (the “Plangon” artworks) were displayed in a virtual exhibition that was held on the official museum website, establishing a dialogue between the present and the past (Council of Europe, 2020e). This online initiative was also an effort of the museum to readapt its strategy and enhance its digital activities and communication with the public amid the COVID-19 pandemic, while it indicated that “cultural engagement can be both feasible and fertile even without physical presence” (Council of Europe, 2020e).

During the two periods of lockdown, the online presence of the Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki focused on digital exhibitions of the artworks made by virtual visitors of the museum’s social media; the amateur artists were invited to draw inspiration from archaeological objects and to create their own. Several artistic activities took place through online channels: “We stay safe and we design an origami bird”, “I color the antiquity”, “We make a paper wreath from oak leaves”, “I make my own mask and disguise myself”, “I make a dough figurine”, “Seascapes” made as a collage, creative writing (“The museum has a story to tell. Yours!”), online seminars (“In ancient Thessaloniki during the pandemic”, an educational action structured as a role-playing game), expository narratives (“For a burning flame. Antiquities and Memory, Thessaloniki-Macedonia [1821–2021]”), and an online “Reading Club”.

The digital actions of the three Greek museums mentioned above were based mainly on a “visitor-oriented” approach, while there are fewer indications of them implementing a particular digital strategy; on the contrary, such a strategy does not seem to constitute a priority in an era that demands quick and easy information access and interaction (Kamariotou et al., 2021, pp. 397–398). Nowadays, the digital component is very important for the museum experience, because it can change visitors’ behavior, enhance audience engagement, and transform virtual visitors to “creators and distributors of content”, especially via online communities on social media (Kamariotou et al., 2021, pp. 398–399). The use of new technologies in museums can develop and support an interactive relation with online visitors that goes beyond the irreplaceable physical venue; thus, museums can be transformed into “virtual destinations” by living up to visitors’ expectations (Kamariotou et al., 2021, p. 402).

4 Results, Challenges, and Opportunities

The COVID-19 pandemic forced the museum sector to promote culture and reach audiences by focusing on digital technologies and remote engagement. The use of technology had to become a priority for a number or reasons: (a) purposes of marketing, communication and fundraising; (b) development of digital content; and (c) building online communities (Samaroudi et al., 2020, p. 340). In the digital era, museum resilience and sustainability constitute a big challenge that cannot be succeeded simply by boosting online presence, releasing new content or reaching audiences on the web. An internal and external preparedness is a necessary precondition for emergencies such as the outbreak of a global health crisis (American Alliance of Museums, 2020b). Under such circumstances, the development of the appropriate digital strategy can redefine museums’ social role, prioritize digitization and access, build immersive and meaningful online experiences, and balance the real with the digital.

The digital challenge encourages museums to embrace the virtual dimension and create the heritage of the future. The substantial rise in the number of online visitors of the websites and social networks of renowned European museums (Louvre Museum, The British Museum, etc.) during the lockdown period clearly showed that they implemented a preexisting digital policy. The specific policy is based on certain presuppositions: “(i) the digitization of collections, which itself relies on; (ii) a sufficiently up-to-date inventory of collections; (iii) a minimum IT infrastructure (phototaking, scanning, computers); (iv) sufficiently stable Internet access; and (v) dedicated staff with the minimum skills to carry out these various operations” (UNESCO, 2020, p. 15). Many European museums need additional support with digital technologies and transition practices, while the construction of a digital strategy has become a sine qua non for the museum sector, emphasizing investment in digital infrastructure, tools, programs, and professionals to manage the increased online presence, communication, and digital activity both during the pandemic and afterward (NEMO, 2021, pp. 4–5). Furthermore, the improvement of the digital policy will require a “comprehensive evaluation strategy” and appropriate management of the “increased demand for online engagement” (NEMO, 2021, pp. 7, 15).

An additional challenge for museums is the evaluation of their online presence and attractiveness. A proper assessment can facilitate benchmarking, decision-making, and resource allocation. Currently, the museum research focuses primarily on exhibitions and educational programs in situ, on physical visitor engagement and museum management, and less on digital cultural heritage, digital skills, and digital strategy, which can transform museums into agile cultural institutions in the “online environment” (NEMO, 2020, pp. 3–5). The assessment of their digital services, the “digital visitor research”, the definition and “tracking metrics of digital success” (NEMO, 2021, p. 17), and strong awareness are essential for the future of museums, if they aspire to be sustainable, in the service of humanity and flexible in offering creative, immersive, and emotional cultural experiences online (NEMO, 2020, p. 4).

Moreover, the success of museum practices in the era of globalization depends on networking and mutual learning that constitute an essential key in international cooperation and intercultural dialogue (NEMO, 2020, p. 4). These practices can help museums to confront one of their biggest future challenges, not only to attract visitors to their premises and restore their income to the pre-COVID-19 levels, but also to be capable of increasing them, while at the same time ensuring quality levels similar to those of the pre-pandemic era (NEMO, 2021, p. 6).

The economic impact of COVID-19 on the museum sector is enormous and the dramatic loss of income led museums to seek innovative funding sources not necessarily connected to state funding (NEMO, 2021, p. 5). Museums are compelled to confront a completely different reality: postponed international exhibitions and less tourists-visitors due to closed borders; loss of ticket sales; budget cuts; reduced costs related to museum staff and volunteer programs that demand "national coronavirus emergency funding schemes" or alternative funding, such as "online programs for a fee or with paid advertisement" (NEMO, 2021, p. 12), "developing projects, private funding, crowdfunding or donations, webshop, vouchers or renting out the space for private events" (NEMO, 2020, pp. 7–11). To accommodate these operations and be better prepared for future emergencies, skills in digital literacy, marketing, and fundraising are also needed (NEMO, 2021, p. 5).

In December 2020, the European Parliament and EU Member States came to a political agreement on the new Creative Europe program (2021–2027). It allocates €2.4 billion to the cultural and creative sector in order to better equip and support the use of new technologies, amplify further digitalization, strengthen their competiveness during unexpected situations, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, and reinforce media pluralism across the European Union (EU) (European Commission, 2020). Greece has to capitalize on this essential tool in order to promote its cultural heritage and creativity at international level and reach wider audiences. The particular program was designed to support the cultural and creative sector (CCS) specifically,[1] where museums are included. The key trends that are likely to affect the CCS in the EU until 2030 are the following: "diversity, fragmentation and concentration; changing funding environment and business models; workforce and skills; new technologies; audience and cultural participation; European CCS in an international environment; environmental challenges; policy framework" (KEA & PPMI, 2019, pp. 7–8). There are eight drivers, which seem really important for the CCS: "accessibility of public funding; innovation; flexibility, cooperation and networking; adoption of new technologies; development of new skills in the CCS organizations; business

[1] Culture and creative sectors (CCS) are: "Heritage, Education, Performing art, Music, Visual Art, Film & video, Design, Architecture, Books and press, Television and radio, Tourism, Video Games, Industrial design, Fashion design, Crafts, User-generated content, Software, Luxury brands, Advertising, Consumer electronics, Other" (KEA & PPMI, 2019, p. 92).

and organizational models and forms of work; accessibility of private funding; equal representation of different cultures and genders" (KEA & PPMI, 2019, pp. 93–94).

Following the trends mentioned above, Greek museums must explore new business models and tackle their financing gap through private financial sources and key European programs and mechanisms (KEA & PPMI, 2019, pp. 7, 10).[2] Furthermore, although it generates increasing concerns over the privacy of consumers, the embracement of "the trend towards a data-driven technology industry" is recommended for the museums, because it contributes to new and tailored content with the help of technological innovations, like Virtual Reality (VR), Augmented Reality (AR), and Artificial Intelligence (AI). In this way, museums break the limits of the "digital cultural participation" and (re-)attract audiences across the world (KEA & PPMI, 2019, p. 7). Besides, the adoption of digital technologies and skills offers alternatives to online mobility and better circulation of creative activities and works in an international environment; thus, it provides new means for museum operations, audience engagement, and modern opportunities for edutainment (KEA & PPMI, 2019, pp. 7, 69).

Moreover, in November 2021, the European Union recommended a "common European data space for cultural heritage" (European Commission, 2021) and envisaged the cultural sector powered by digital technologies. This approach should be implemented by the Greek museum sector in combination with the Digital Transformation "bible" of Greece (2020–2025) (Greek News Agenda, 2020). The latter places emphasis on "the development of digital models of cultural production and distribution" and on "innovative digital services" with the use of virtual reality technologies and various horizontal actions for "the enrichment of digital content" (Hellenic Government, 2020).

As regards Greek museums, they should prioritize the development of effective international cultural relations that can strengthen a "shared European Space", and focus on policy tools, mobility, and creativity, which enable cultural exchanges and intercultural dialogue and contribute to the objectives of the international and diplomatic relations, such as stability, security, and peace. Thus, museums can be involved in cultural relations and become agents of cultural diplomacy, increasing the awareness of the cultural production, the artistic mobility, and the trade of cultural services and goods in Europe (KEA & PPMI, 2019, p. 72).

5 Conclusion

This paper gave an insight of the digital resilience of three emblematic Greek museums as part of the framework of the digital activities promoted by museums worldwide during the COVID-19 crisis. The digital activities provided by the

[2] Indicative examples are: Creative Europe program, European Institute of Innovation and Technology's Knowledge and Innovation Community, EU strategy for culture in external relations, future Horizon Europe program, preparatory action supporting CCS social innovation projects.

museums to their audiences operated as cultural getaways addressing societal and emotional needs. The contribution of the paper's investigation is that it provides detailed information concerning the response of the museum sector in Greece to the consequences of the global health crisis. In particular, the three museums adapted their digital presence in order to remain open and attract existing audiences or online visitors. Many of their digital activities were available before the pandemic lockdowns, whereas others were created especially for/during the pandemic. However, the investigation designated the great potential for investment in communication, interaction, and cultural engagement in the digital environment. Each country and each museum were required to make its own assessment and adapt to societal changes (UNESCO, 2020, p. 18). It is very important for museums to perceive the necessity of proactive planning and of creative adaptation amid a disruption, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, as means to ensure their sustainability, to offer their communities opportunities for education, immersion, and leisure (Cuseum, 2020), and to enhance online and onsite visitor engagement (Stein, 2012).

The COVID-19 pandemic is a global health emergency with a significant socioeconomic impact; nevertheless, it will eventually come to an end. Dealing with uncertainty during the pandemic crisis, it is essential for museums—whether open or closed—to remain reliable places of knowledge, inspiration, and change. By considering a suitable strategic plan, museums have the power to go beyond their physical walls, embrace their digital transformation, and move toward both in situ and virtual visitor engagement. Thus, they will ensure their increased visibility and attractiveness and enhance their organizational sustainability. Finally, by developing museum networks and collaboration strategies, they can facilitate the cross-sectoral partnerships, the exchange of best practices, cooperation, and solidarity that support the resilience of the museum sector and preserve its social mission for current and future generations.

References

1821 Digital Archive. (2021). *How do we remember 1821?* Retrieved from https://1821.digitalarchive.gr/schools/index_en.php. Accessed the 20th of April 2021, at 17:20.

Acropolis Museum. (2020a). Retrieved from https://theacropolismuseum.gr/en. Accessed the 15th of December 2020, at 17:20.

Acropolis Museum. (2020b). *A highlights report June 2019–May 2020. 11 Years*. Retrieved from https://e.issuu.com/anonymous-embed.html?u=theacropolismuseum&d=acropolis_museum_annual_report_en_2020. Accessed the 30th of December 2020, at 17:30.

Acropolis Museum. (2020c). *Computer-based documentation and collections management*. Retrieved from https://www.theacropolismuseum.gr/en/new-technologies/computer-based-documentation-and-collections-management. Accessed the 15th of December 2020, at 18:00.

Acropolis Museum. (2021). *A highlights report June 2020–May 2021. 12 years*. Retrieved from https://issuu.com/theacropolismuseum/docs/aar_eng_body_170621. Accessed the 25th of June 2021, at 7:15.

Acropolis Museum Facebook. (2020). Retrieved from https://www.facebook.com/Acropolis-Museum-%CE%9C%CE%BF%CF%85%CF%83%CE%B5%CE%AF%CE%BF-%CE%91%CE%BA%CF%81%CF%8C%CF%80%CE%BF%CE%BB%CE%B7%CF%82-205743572267/. Accessed the 30th of December 2020, at 10:15.

Acropolis Museum Kids. (2020). Retrieved from https://www.acropolismuseumkids.gr/en. Accessed the 22nd of December 2020, at 11:00.

American Alliance of Museums. (2020a). *4 ways museums can successfully leverage digital content and channels during coronavirus (COVID-19).* Retrieved from https://www.aam-us.org/2020/03/25/4-ways-museums-can-successfully-leverage-digital-content-and-channels-during-coronavirus-covid-19/. Accessed the 18th of December 2020, at 11:15.

American Alliance of Museums. (2020b). *Health in the workplace. COVID-19/Coronavirus. Resources & information for the museum field*. Retrieved from https://www.aam-us.org/programs/resource-library/human-resource-resources/health-in-the-workplace/?fbclid=IwAR3rOo17yz_Thk76x4CdpzQugFKvKRspAxoGmqiEBQ5rc37MGXCoufxY4rA. Accessed the 17th of December 2020, at 14:00.

Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki. (2021a). *A museum for all*. Retrieved from https://www.amth.gr/en. Accessed the 22nd of April 2021, at 09:10.

Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki. (2021b). *Digital events.* Retrieved from https://www.amth.gr/news?field_news_category_tid=30. Accessed the 22nd of April 2021, at 09:20.

Archaeological Museum of Thessaloniki. (2021c). *Digital events.* Online Access To Audiovisual Productions Of The AMTH. Retrieved from https://www.amth.gr/news/online-prosvasi-se-optikoakoystikes-paragoges-toy-amth. Accessed the 22nd of April 2021, at 09:30.

Benaki Museum. (2016a). Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?lang=en. Accessed the 13th of January 2021, at 08:30.

Benaki Museum. (2016b). *Mission statement*. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_buildings&view=landing&Itemid=568&lang=en. Accessed the 13th of January 2021, at 08:45.

Benaki Museum. (2016–2021). Multimedia. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_multimedia&view=multimedia&type=0&PageType=0&MediaType=0&Itemid=612&lang=en. Accessed the 13th of January 2021, at 09:00.

Benaki Museum. (2019). *The museum at a glance*. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/images/publications/pdf/Benaki-Museum-2019.pdf. Accessed the 13th of January 2021, at 10:00.

Benaki Museum. (2020a). *#MuseumFromHome. The Benaki museum remains open online.* Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=3322:the-benaki-museum-remains-open-online&catid=38&lang=en&Itemid=1114. Accessed the 13th of January 2021, at 12:00.

Benaki Museum. (2020b). *BID FOR THE BENAKI: Online auction of works of art and objects in support of the Benaki Museum.* Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_events&view=event&type=&id=1005934&lang=en. Accessed the 14th of January 2021, at 08:45.

Benaki Museum. (2020c). *Educational program–movie workshop Covintius The Terrible.* Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_educations&view=education&id=984&Itemid=165&lang=el. Accessed the 14th of January 2021, at 09:00.

Benaki Museum. (2020d). *Multimedia. Lectures.* Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_multimedia&view=multimedia&PageType=2&MediaType=0&Category=24&Itemid=1120&lang=en. Accessed the 14th of January 2021, at 09:15.

Benaki Museum. (2020e). Unfolding 100 years of history within an exhibition '1821 Before and After'. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=3324:1821-101&catid=29&lang=en&Itemid=780. Accessed the 15th of December 2020, at 09:40.

Benaki Museum. (2021a). *#ExpoInLockdownMode ALI BANISADAR "Ultramarinus–Beyond the Sea".* Retrieved from https://www.facebook.com/TheBenakiMuseum/videos/expoinlockdownmode-ali-banisadr-ultramarinus-%CF%80%CE%AD%CF%81%CE%B1-%CE%B1%CF%80%CF%8C-%CF%84%CE%B7-%CE%B8%CE%AC%CE%BB%CE%B1%CF%83%CF%83%CE%B1-beyond-the-sea/395752408281700/. Accessed the 14th of January 2021, at 11:10.

Benaki Museum. (2021b). *1821 Before And After*. Under the Patronage of H.E. the President of the Hellenic Republic Ms. Katerina Sakellaropoulou. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_events&view=event&type=0&id=1004529&lang=en. Accessed the 20th of April 2021, at 20:15.

Benaki Museum. (2021c). *Exhibition 1821 Digital Archive*. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_events&view=event&type=&id=1006858&lang=en. Accessed the 20th of April 2021, at 20:00.

Benaki Museum. (2021c). The special 1821 anniversary range at the Benaki shop. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=3348&Itemid=1131&lang=en. Accessed the 20th of April 2021, at 17:25.

Benaki Museum. (2021e). *Tribute To 1821*. Retrieved from https://www.benaki.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=3348&Itemid=1131&lang=en. Accessed the 15th of May 2021, at 12:10.

Benaki Museum Shop. (2020). Retrieved from https://www.benakishop.gr/en/. Accessed the 13th of January 2021, at 13:00.

Benaki Museum Shop. (2021). *1821 Before And After*. Retrieved from https://www.benakishop.gr/en/exhibition-merchandise/1821-prin-kai-meta.html?p=3. Accessed the 20th of April 2021, at 13:15.

Council of Europe. (2020a). *K11–explore heritage as a source of knowledge, inspiration and creativity*. Retrieved from https://www.coe.int/en/web/culture-and-heritage/strategy-21-k11. Accessed the 21st of September 2020, at 10:00.

Council of Europe. (2020b). *Strategy 21–good practices*. Retrieved from https://www.coe.int/en/web/culture-and-heritage/strategy-21-good-practices. Accessed the 15th of September 2020, at 09:55.

Council of Europe. (2020c). *S2–make heritage more accessible*. Retrieved from https://www.coe.int/en/web/culture-and-heritage/strategy-21-s2#{%2233128406%22:[0],%2233128421%22:[]}. Accessed the 16th of September 2020, at 09:40.

Council of Europe. (2020d). Strategy 21–*good practices. "Everything Changes in Time and All Remain the Same"–temporary & digital action and exhibition*. Retrieved from https://www.coe.int/en/web/culture-and-heritage/-/everything-changes-in-time-and-all-remain-the-same-temporary-digital-action-and-exhibition-temporary-digital-action-and-exhibition. Accessed the 20th of September 2020, at 11:10.

Council of Europe. (2020e). *Strategy 21–good practices. Let's stay at home and make a paper "Plangon" toy doll*. Retrieved from https://www.coe.int/en/web/culture-and-heritage/-/let-s-stay-at-home-and-make-a-paper-plangon-toy-doll. Accessed the 21st of September 2020, at 08:30.

Council of Europe. (2020f). *Strategy 21–good practices. Poetry in the shape of things*. Retrieved from https://www.coe.int/en/web/culture-and-heritage/-/poetry-in-the-shape-of-things. Accessed the 15th of September 2020, at 09:20.

Council of Europe. (2021). *Culture in times of Covid-19 or how we discovered we cannot live without culture and creativity. Impressions and lessons learnt from Covid-19*. Zoom-in on culture during the Covid-19 crisis–contributions provided by members of the Steering Committee for Culture, Heritage and Landscape (CDCPP). Retrieved from https://rm.coe.int/culture-in-times-of-covid-19-or-how-we-discovered-we-cannot-live-witho/1680a18dc0. Accessed the 20th of September 2021, at 15:20.

Cuseum. (2020). *How museums and attractions are preparing and responding to coronavirus*. Retrieved from https://cuseum.com/blog/2020/3/2/how-museums-and-attractions-are-preparing-and-responding-to-coronavirus?utm_source=aam&utm_campaign=coronavirus. Accessed the 17th of December 2020, at 14:15.

Digital Acropolis Museum. (2020). Retrieved from https://theacropolismuseum.gr/en/digital-museum. Accessed the 22nd of December 2020, at 11:48.

European Commission. (2020). *Commission welcomes political agreement on Creative Europe Programme*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/ip_20_2405. Accessed the 19th of December 2020, at 10:00.

European Commission. (2021). Commission Recommendation (EU) 2021/1970 of 10 November 2021 on a common European data space for cultural heritage. OJ L401, of 12.11.2021. Retrieved from https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32021H1970&from=EL. Accessed the18th of April 2021, at 14.00.

Greek News Agenda. (2020). *The Digital Transformation "Bible" of Greece (2020–2025)*. Retrieved from https://www.greeknewsagenda.gr/topics/business-r-d/7379-the-digital-transformation-%E2%80%9Cbible%E2%80%9D-of-greece-2020-2025. Accessed the 10th of December 2020, at 10:15.

Hellenic Government. (2020). *The Digital Transformation Bible of Greece 2020–2025. Culture.* Retrieved from https://digitalstrategy.gov.gr/sector/politismos. Accessed the 10th of December 2020, at 12:00.

ICOM. (2020a). *Museums, museum professionals and Covid-19: Third survey*. Retrieved from https://icom.museum/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/Report-Museums-and-COVID-19.pdf. Accessed the 21st of June 2020, at 08:50.

ICOM. (2020b). *Sustainability management in museums: A new approach to implementing the sustainable development goals*. Retrieved from https://icom.museum/en/news/icom-voices-sustainability-management-museums/. Accessed the 21st of June 2022, at 10:00.

Kamariotou, V., Kamariotou, M., Champipi, E., & Kitsios, F. (2021). Moving towards museum digital strategy: A transformational framework. In D. P. Sakas, D. K. Nasiopoulos, & Y. Taratuhina (Eds.), *Business intelligence and modelling* (chapter 40, pp. 397–402). Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics. Springer International Publishing.

KEA & PPMI. (2019). *Research for CULT Committee–culture and creative sectors in the European Union–Key future developments, challenges and opportunities*. Brussels: European parliament, policy department for structural and cohesion policies. Retrieved from https://catalogus.boekman.nl/pub/P19-0561.pdf. Accessed the 19th of December 2020, at 13:00.

Ministry of Culture and Sports. (1995–2020). Retrieved from https://www.culture.gov.gr/en/SitePages/default.aspx. Accessed the 18th of December 2020, at 10:20.

NEMO. (2020). *Survey on the impact of the Covid-19 situation on museums in Europe. Final report*. Retrieved from https://www.ne-mo.org/fileadmin/Dateien/public/NEMO_documents/NEMO_COVID19_Report_12.05.2020.pdf. Accessed the 22th December 2020, at 13:15.

NEMO. (2021). *Follow-up survey on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on museums in Europe. Final report*. Retrieved from https://www.ne-mo.org/fileadmin/Dateien/public/NEMO_documents/NEMO_COVID19_FollowUpReport_11.1.2021.pdf. Accessed the 26th of January of 2020, at 14:00.

Odysseus.culture. (2012). Museums thematical list. Retrieved from http://odysseus.culture.gr/h/1/eh110.jsp. Accessed the 18th of December 2020, at 19:15.

Research Centre for the Humanities. (2021). *1821 Digital Archive. About the project*. Retrieved from https://www.rchumanities.gr/en/1821-about-the-project/. Accessed the 20th of May 2021, at 14:10.

Samaroudi, M., Echavarria, K. R., & Perry, L. (2020). Heritage in lockdown: Digital provision of memory institutions in the UK and US of America during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Museum Management and Curatorship, 35*(4), 337–361. https://doi.org/10.1080/09647775.2020.1810483

Stein, R. J. (2012). *Visitor engagement online and onsite*. Retrieved from https://www.slideshare.net/rstein/visitor-engagement-online-and-onsite. Accessed the 17th of December 2020, at 20:00.

Study International. (2020). *4 famous museums you can visit without leaving your dorm room*. Retrieved from https://www.studyinternational.com/news/famous-museums-virtual-tour/?fbclid=IwAR232sNa-tdjtDD392UAFVrqS6sFnpv44SPUjXxPlnBwGpEMYJiiwsKtrPE. Accessed the 13th of January 2021, at 23:12.

UNESCO. (2020). *Museums around the world in the face of COVID-19*. Retrieved from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000373530. Accessed the 10th of September 2020, at 23:15.

Zuanni, C. (2020a). *Digital responses from locked-down museums. Cultural practice*. Retrieved from https://www.culturalpractice.org/article/digital-responses-from-locked-down-museums. Accessed the 15th of December 2020, at 18:00.

Zuanni, C. (2020b). *Mapping museum digital initiatives during COVID-19*. Retrieved from https://pro.europeana.eu/post/mapping-museum-digital-initiatives-during-covid-19. Accessed the 15th of December 2020, at 17:00.

A Legal Approach of Diving Tourism and the Protection of Marine Cultural Heritage. The Case of Greece

Dimitrios Mylonopoulos, Polyxeni Moira, and Aikaterini Kontoudaki

Abstract In the perspective of utilizing the marine cultural wealth of the country, the Greek state formed an institutional framework for the development of diving tourism. The Greek legislator, influenced by the investment nature of tourism development, moved with a broad mind to shape leisure diving activity away from the strict framework of professional diving. The present study examines the new institutional framework by examining whether the new provisions for the development of diving tourism meet the needs of the protection of marine archaeological resources but also the need for sustainable tourism development.

Keywords Diving tourism · Recreational diving · Shipwrecks · Diving parks
JEL Classifications K00 · K11 · K15 · L83 · Z38

1 Introduction

Although the underwater world is a mysterious and unexplored world for man, the search for food, the inspection for the ship's reef and the observation of the marine world were among the main reasons that motivated man to dive. From antiquity, the Greek sponges were known to dive to great depts. In addition to the sponges' divers and the diver-fishermen, there were also the diver-inspectors who checked the condition of the seabed, the hull of the ship, the anchorage, etc. (Moira & Mylonopoulos, 2020a).

Insecurity and difficulty in accessing the underwater environment resulted in the reluctance of man to participate in recreational activities that brought him in contact with the seabed. But with the advent of technology combined with the influence of television, photography and books, the general public has become more aware of the

D. Mylonopoulos (✉) · P. Moira
Department of Tourism Management, University of West Attica, Athens, Greece
e-mail: dimilon@uniwa.gr

A. Kontoudaki
Ministry of Tourism of Greece, Athens, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_25

marine environment and the organisms that live in it. In particular, the explorations of Frenchman Jacques-Yves Cousteau (Cousteau & Dugan, 1963, 1965; Cousteau & Dumas, 1953; The Cousteau Society, 2021) increased man's knowledge for the underwater world and sparked the desire to explore it. The result of this effect was an increase of the interest in diving and in general of the desire to explore and enjoy the underwater marine environment. Soon a new category of diving was created, the *recreational diving*, aimed at the general public.

2 Diving as a Recreational Activity

Today, diving can be divided to four categories, namely diving of scientific interest, diving that is part of military activities, professional diving and recreational diving (Moira & Mylonopoulos, 2020b).

Recreation diving creates an important area of economic activity, which could be described as a "diving tourism industry" (Mylonopoulos & Moira, 2019: 7). It includes companies selling diving equipment, diving training schools, transport services with specialized boats at diving sites, companies that advertise and promote diving areas, tourist resorts for diving, publishing companies of specialized press and electronic press, travel agencies dealing exclusively with diving, etc. Total diving equipment sales in the US are estimated at $750 million annually (Kieran, 2019).

Many of the major diving destinations are located outside Europe (e.g., Maldives, the Rea Sea, Mexico, Australia, Indonesia, Micronesia and Hawaii), resulting in a significant foreign exchange outflow. According to available data, there are more than 25 million certified divers worldwide, including 4 million Europeans, who spend more than 2 billion Euros per year (Yassirani, 2017).

According to a study conducted in 2017, recreational diving seems to be new and dynamic field of alternative leisure activity, with many opportunities for further development, as recreational divers are willing to travel to enjoy the marine environment, have a high disposable income and stay several days at the destination (Mylonopoulos & Moira, 2019). This study highlighted the inadequacy of the Greek institutional framework, which acts as a deterrent due to the restrictions and delays in demarcating the areas where diving is allowed. The new institutional framework of diving tourism removes the relevant shortcomings and creates positive conditions for the development of diving tourism.

Greece has 9,835 island territories, with a total coastline of 15,021 km, exceptional climatic conditions, historicity, world class cultural heritage and a rich marine fauna and flora. If used rationally, all the above can constitute the basis for the development of diving tourism, making Greece a diving destination throughout the year (Mylonopoulos & Moira, 2019).

3 The Administrative Framework of Diving Tourism in Greece

The diving activity in Greece was regulated by provisions of police nature, taking the form of the General Port Regulation (Mylonopoulos, 2012: 128). In this context, the General Port Regulation Number 10 (JMD Merchant Shipping 3131.1/20/1995, Government Gazette B'978) "on diving operations" came into force. Also, as the recreational dimension of diving was recognized, that is that diving offers physical and mental exercise as well as health and peace of mind at the same time, many people began to engage in this recreational activity. Thus, the state, though its competent administrative authority, the Ministry of Merchant Shipping, enacted the General Port Regulation (No 3131.1/9/94, Government Gazette B'858) regulating the underwater activities with an autonomous device, i.e., the recreational diving.

Many problems arose by the implementation of this regulation, since the object of recreational diving was not regulated entirely and especially the issue of underwater antiquities, a competency of the Ministry of Culture. In many cases, citizens who are engaged in diving as providers of services of recreational activities, have appealed to the administrative judiciary against decisions of the competent services that did not allow them to engage in such activities. The Hellenic Council of State (CoS) with its decision 531/1991 (Department D') rejected the application of an individual, who operated a swimming school in a coastal hotel, requesting the cancelation of a document of the Central Port Authority of Rhodes, notifying him/her that the exercise of diving in the sea by individuals (foreigners or not) for learning or entertainment purpose is governed by the General Regulation the Port of Rhodes (Government Gazette B'456 of 1978, articles 242–256) "on schools of underwater activity". According to the regulation, the exercise of underwater activity presupposes the permission of the Port Authority, for the issuance of which it is necessary to have a relevant license from the Ephorate of Underwater Antiquities of the Ministry of Culture. In addition, the CoS with the decision 1743/2002 (Department E') rejected an application of an individual requesting the cancelation of document of the Ministry of Merchant Shipping-Directorate of the Port Police, which notified him that the sea areas of Kamari and Armeni of Thira (Santorini) have not been released by the Ministry of Culture and, therefore, recreational diving is not allowed in these areas.

It should be noted that the protection of marine antiquities of the country was established by the first archeological law 10/22-5-1834 and was strengthened by the codified Law 5351/1932. Article 24 of the 1975 Constitution guarantees the protection of the natural and cultural environment. Law 3028/2002 "On the protection of antiquities and cultural heritage in general" (Government Gazette A'153), which replaced K.N. 5351/1932 is now the basic law. This law contains provisions that refer to the protection of underwater antiquities. In particular, Article 15, entitled "Underwater Archeological Sites", prohibits underwater activity with breathing apparatus, unless authorized by the Ministry of Culture. Moreover, for the exercise of underwater activity with breathing apparatus or with a submarine or with other means of surveillance of the seabed in the sea areas that are not characterized as underwater archeological sites but there are important indications of underwater antiquities, it is required, for reasons of protection of the underwater cultural heritage, to get a permission from the archaeological service, which sets the terms and conditions on a case-by-case basis.

The state, recognizing the importance of diving tourism for the country and under the perspective of its development as a form of alternative tourism (Moira & Mylonopoulos, 2020b), established a special legal framework for recreational diving, using as a pillar the Law 3409/2005 (Government Gazette A'273). This law was amended by the Law 4276/2014 (Government Gazette A'155), Law 4582/2018 (Government Gazette A'208) and Law 4688/2020 (Government Gazette A'101). These provisions create a multi-level administrative framework, regulating the joint competence of the Ministries of Maritime Affairs and Insular Policy, Culture and Sports, Environment and Energy and Tourism.

Law 4688/2020 (Government Gazette A'101) "Special forms of tourism, provisions for tourism development and other provisions" codifies the provisions referring to diving tourism. In particular, the law sets the regulatory framework that is necessary for the development and promotion of diving tourism in Greece. At the same time, this law aims to ensure the protection, preservation and utilization of the natural and cultural underwater environment of the country under the principles of sustainable development.

According to the law, "*recreational diving tourism*" is characterized as a special form of tourism, which refers to underwater touring in every water area of the Greek territory, including the sea, inland waters (lakes, rivers, caves), the protected underwater sites, diving parks, visited underwater, inland and inland lakeside archeological or historical sites, shipwrecks older or not of 50 years old from their sinking and free artificial underwater sites. The water areas are selected by the visitors-tourists, who combine their holidays with individual or organized diving with specific equipment and techniques, opting for learning or guided diving or seeing the surface with a mask and snorkel in order to explore the seabed and the underwater geomorphology for reasons of recreation, physical exercise and acquisition of knowledge and experience.

In particular, according to the law, the following "*types of diving tourism*" are indicatively mentioned: (a) autonomous or guided diving with a breathing device (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus/SCUBA diving), (b) free diving, (c) snorkeling, (d) underwater touring with underwater cruising boats and (e) observation of the seabed by clear-bottomed vessels or by other technical means (Fig. 1).

3.1 The Exercise of Underwater Activity

Recreational diving tourism refers to the exercise of underwater activity with breathing apparatus or other submarine means, in any water area of the Greek territory, for leisure purposes. The exercise of this kind of activity is allowed freely

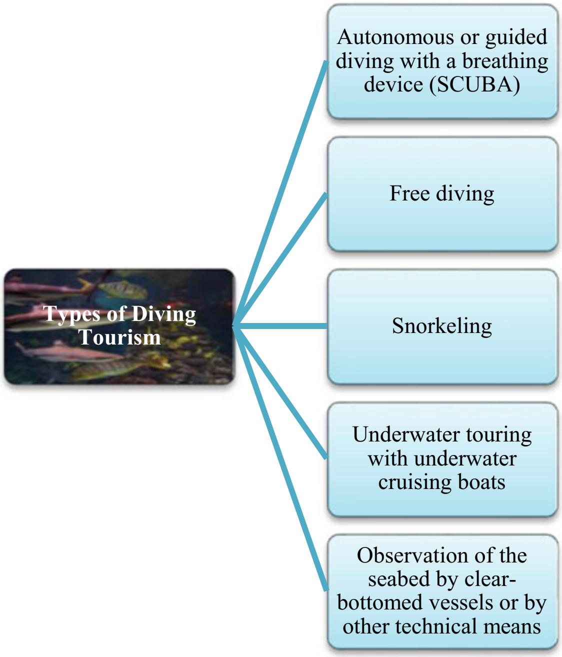


Fig. 1 Types of diving tourism according to the Greek Law

throughout the territory as well as in the sea areas adjacent to diving parks, regardless of the depth of the dive.

It is pointed out the law identifies the areas of the Greek territory within which recreation diving is prohibited. In particular, the prohibitions per sector of interested are defined as follows (Fig. 2):

(a) In *sea areas of archeological interest*, i.e., in the marine areas of underwater archeological sites, as they are determined by the competent services of the Ministry of Culture and Sports.
(b) In *maritime areas of military interest*, i.e., in maritime areas that are the exercise areas of the armed forces or areas where military operations and exercises are developed or in facilities designated as defense areas or as naval forts or areas where there are navy moors of the Navy or at anchorages supplying fuel pipelines or in watery parts of the lighthouses' safety zones.
(c) In *marine areas of environmental interest*, i.e., for which there is an explicit relevant prohibition by the maritime special framework. A key parameter of Maritime Spatial Planning is sustainable development, referring to the actions of various agents at economic, social, environmental and cultural levels. Achieving sustainable development requires the rational management of all maritime economic activities (e.g., shipping, fishing, mining, recreation) with a view to preserving the biodiversity of the marine environment and the maritime cultural heritage.

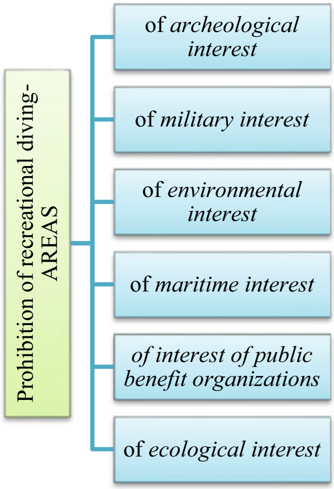


Fig. 2 Prohibitions of recreational diving

(d) *In maritime areas of maritime interest*, i.e., in the maritime areas of passage or mooring of ships, of trips with leased motorized marine recreational vessels and at a distance of 100 m on either side of their starting points or in maritime areas where prohibitions are imposed by the Navy, for the safety of ships or persons.

(e) *In marine areas of interest of public benefit organizations*, i.e., in marine areas of submarine cables' laying or other installations.

(f) *In marine areas of ecological interest*, i.e., in areas with ecologically sensitive marine ecosystems. However, it is possible to allow recreational diving under certain conditions, based on a joint ministerial decision of the relevant ministries.

3.2 Diving Tourism Council

For the first time, a permanent, inter-ministerial body is established—the Diving Tourism Council, in order to ensure the most effective action of the co-competent administrative bodies. The Diving Tourism Council is a an advisory body, and it aims to constantly inform the Minister of Tourism on issues of sustainable tourism development of recreational diving and the promotion of recreational diving attractions of Greece in order to formulate a national strategy for the development of diving tourism as well as the creation of a national network of diving attractions. The Diving Tourism Council is established by decision of the Minister of Tourism, and it is staffed by members representing the public sector—the relevant ministries, the scientific field of diving, the amateur field of diving and the professional field of diving. Specifically, the council includes (a) two scientists with knowledge and experience in issues related to diving tourism, (b) an official of the Ministry of Environment and Energy, an official of the Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Insular Policy, an official of the Ministry of Rural Development and Food and an official of the Ministry of Tourism, (c) a representative of amateur diving clubs and (d) a representative of diving leisure services' providers. In addition, in cases that fall within the competence of the Ministry of National Defense, a representative of the General Staff of the Navy (GEN) also participates.

The responsibilities of the Diving Tourism Council are divided into:

(a) *Responsibilities of advisory nature.* It makes proposals for the formulation of a national development strategy for diving tourism.
(b) *Responsibilities of coordination.* It cooperates with the services of the relevant co-competent ministries for the development of diving tourism.
(c) *Cooperation* with (c1) public services at regional and local level proposals for the formulation of a national development strategy for diving tourism as well as the creation of the national network of diving attractions, (c2) professional diving associations, (c3) educational bodies for the creation and strengthening of environmental education and awareness in the field of maritime and especially diving tourism.
(d) *International cooperation with European and international organizations* for the exchange of data and good practices on diving tourism issues.
(e) *Promotion of the Greek diving tourism* in cooperation with the Greek National Tourism Organisation (GNTO).
(f) *Collection of statistical data* regarding the operation, the condition and the visitors of the underwater archeological sites and the diving parks of the country.

3.3 Recreational Diving Services' Provider

The provider of diving leisure services, e.g., a diving center, an underwater swimming school, etc., is a natural or legal person certified by the Diving Certification Organization.

The cycle of diving leisure services includes (a) scuba diving training, (b) the provision of organized or guided diving services, (c) the diving equipment rental, (d) the provision of mask and snorkel swimming services and (e) the provision of equipment rental services for surface navigation with mask and snorkel.

As organized diving is characterized the service of transport, underwater escort, surveillance and support, in case of emergency, offered by the Recreational Diving Service Provider to divers, who have qualifications and experience at a level commensurate with the diving activity.

As guided diving is characterized the organized diving, during which scuba divers are accompanied by the Recreational Diving Service Provider.

In addition, the Law 4688/2020 adds as an activity the surface navigation with mask and snorkel. This is the provision of service of transport, escort, surveillance and support, in case of emergency, for swimming with the use of mask, snorkel and flippers, in which the participants stay afloat or have occasional diving just by holding their breath. During it, participants can use buoyancy adjustment devices or equipment to support themselves in the surface, depending on the prevailing conditions and their capabilities. This service is offered by a diving leisure service provider, according to the certified training program of the organization from which she/he is authorized.

In order to provide these services, the provider must have obtained a license from the competent Port Authority. The Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Insular Policy maintains a Register of Licenses, in which the details of the recreational diving services' providers are registered.

4 The Attractions of Diving Tourism

The law clearly defines, for the first time, the poles of attractions of diving tourism, which are characterized as "attractions of diving tourism". Thus, "diving tourism attractions are the underwater attractions that are located or constructed within the Greek territory and can be used as poles of attraction for tourist traveling in the context of diving tourism". Attractions of this kind are (a) the underwater archeological sites open to visitors, (b) the shipwrecks, (c) the free artificial underwater sites, (d) the diving parks (Fig. 3).

The sitting, licensing, construction and operation of underwater archeological sites, diving parks and free artificial underwater sites, open to visitors, as considered as investments of developmental, tourist, cultural and environmental character. There is also the possibility of receiving subsidies for this kind of investments from national, European and international funding programs. Within this investment framework, sponsorships from natural or legal persons to natural or legal persons are encouraged, since no donation tax is imposed and any other exemption or favorable provision of the applicable legislation applies to them.

(1) *Underwater archeological sites open to visitors.* The seabed of the Greek seas is known for its richness of antiquities. The underwater cultural heritage is an

Fig. 3 Attractions of diving tourism

attractive factor for diving tourism and the underwater archeological sites to be visited offer a comparative advantage.

The Law 3409/2005 provided the possibility of guided diving, always accompanied by diving guardians of antiquities or diving archeologists in underwater archeological sites that were characterized as "underwater museums" (article 11, par.1). Based on this provision, sea areas of the Sporades islands, sea areas in the western Pagasitikos (Government Gazette B' 19), sea areas of Lavreotiki Makronissos (Government Gazette B'2655), sea areas of Methoni and the declared archeological site of Navarino Bay, Municipality of Pylos-Nestora (Government Gazette B'2489) were declared as underwater archeological sites to be visited, by joint ministerial decisions and the permitted activities within these sited were regulated as well as the conditions of guided diving. Despite the issuance of ministerial decisions for the establishment of underwater archeological sites that functioned as underwater museums, the relevant provision of Law 3409/2005 proved to be unrealistic in its implementation, due to the small number of diving archeologists and guardians of antiquities and remained in practice inactive.

Realizing this weakness, the legislator, with Law 4688/2020 provides the possibility to the competent ministries—Ministry of Culture and Sports, Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Insular Policy—with a joint decision, to characterize the already declared underwater archeological sites as *Underwater Archeological Sites* to be visited, where diving is allowed, accompanied by recognized and legally licensed recreational diving services' providers.

The management of Underwater Archeological Sites to be visited is entrusted to the competent ephorate of underwater antiquities or to a management body, which is appointed by a decision of the Ministry of Culture and Sports. Each Underwater Archeological Site or group of Underwater Archeological Sites to be visited operates on the basis of rules of operation issued by decision of the Minister of Culture and Sports. Diving leisure services' providers and visitors must comply with the rules of operation, when visiting the terms of the Underwater Archeological Sites.

Guarding service in the Underwater Archeological Sites to be visited is provided by the personnel of the competent Archeological Service in cooperation with the personnel of the Port Authority. Due to the sensitive nature of Underwater Archeological Sites, it is possible to exercise physical control and control of the luggage of visitors and their companions by the staff of the competent archeological service. For the boats that are used in recreational diving, specific departure and return points are determined, which can be guarded also by the competent archeological service. For safety reasons, vessels are prohibited from approaching another part of land or other vessel during their stay in the Underwater Archeological Sites. Moreover, boats used for recreational diving can also be inspected. Both visitors and boats are prohibited from carrying metal detectors on the seabed and on the premises of the Underwater Archeological Sites.

In the Underwater Archeological Sites, it is only allowed to:

(a) Guided diving or surface navigation with mask and snorkel, accompanied with a licensed diving leisure services' provider.

(b) The navigation and observation of the seabed with boats of transparent bottom or other means of observation of the seabed.
(c) Archeological or other scientific research, during which the possibility of visiting the Underwater Archeological Site is interrupted.
(d) *Shipwrecks.* In 2003, the Ministry of Culture, with its decision, characterized the wrecks of ships and aircrafts as cultural assets (Government gazette B'1701), because of their historical, technological, scientific and cultural interest. A basic condition for the designation is the lapse of at least 50 years from the date of the shipwreck. This concept also includes the moving parts of ships and aircrafts.

For the first time in the legislation, a provision is set for the utilization of wrecks of ships and aircrafts, which have sunk at least 50 years ago for the last with the Law 4688/2020. According to Article 7, the wrecks of ships and aircrafts sunk at least 50 years ago:

(1) Guided or organized by recreational diving providers free or autonomous diving or surface tour with mask and snorkel, (b) seabed observation with transparent bottom vessels or other seabed observation devices, (c) private surface navigation with mask and snorkel are only and exclusively allowed.
(2) It is not allowed for the divers, during the diving in the shipwrecks, to make any operation or alteration in the shipwrecks, as well as to collect, remove or even simply move any object from them.

The law provides for the possibility of issuing a joint ministerial decision by the Ministries of Culture and Sports, Shipping and Island Policy and, whenever there is responsibility from the Ministry of National Defense, to determine (a) the conditions of diving in shipwrecks, (b) the process of notifying diving in the competent ephorate of marine antiquities, (c) the obligations of the providers of diving leisure services, (d) the obligations of the diving visitors.

To mark the diving activity, it is permitted to attach a float to the wreck. The float is orange in color and bears a special mark or a red flag with a white diagonal line, which is internationally recognized as a flag indicating diving activity. In this case of the surface marking of the diving activity, the anchoring of any boat at a distance of 100 m is prohibited.

The competent Port Authority has the possibility to provide an administrative permit for the seasonal mooring of public shipwrecks near the wrecks for use from boats used in diving, in order to avoid anchoring, provided that there is no deterioration or risk of deterioration in the wrecks. The boats bear the appropriate marking, according to the instructions of the Hydrographic Service and the Lighthouse Service. In these moorings, it is forbidden to anchor any boat at a distance of 100 m.

(C) *Free artificial underwater attractions.* The legislator innovates and introduces for the first time the possibility of creating free artificial underwater attractions. Law 4688/2020 provides the possibility to interested parties either of the public sector (e.g., municipalities) or of the private sector (e.g., coastal hotel companies) to create artificial underwater attractions at their own expense. This concept includes ships, traditional ships, shipwrecks, floating structures or other artificial structures or works of art, which are installed on the seabed in order to improve the biodiversity and the diving attractiveness of the marine area. A necessary condition for the creation of a free artificial underwater attraction is the issuance of a relevant environmental license (N. 4014/2011). A free artificial underwater attraction may not be created within a radius of less than a thousand meters from the limits of a diving park.

It is pointed out that free artificial underwater attractions are created without having to pay any fee to the State and without having the right to collect a ticket for the recreational diving that takes place in them. That is to say that the free artificial underwater attractions remain public and free to visit for everyone. Ownership of the free artificial underwater attractions remains with the pre-dive owner or any successor, who has the right to withdraw them at any time. In this case, she/he has the obligation to immediately and completely restore the underwater environment, returning it to its previous state. This practice is common in well-known diving destinations in Europe and around the world. A typical example is the underwater museum, Atlántico in the Mediterranean, off the coast of the island of Lanzarote in the Canary Islands. The museum has more than 300 statues at a depth of about 12 m that have been designed to function as an artificial reef that will boost marine life (Museo Atlántico Lanzarote, 2021). The museum opened to the public in 2016, and the dives are controlled, always accompanied by professional divers. Guided glass-bottomed boat trips are also offered. In Cancun, Mexico, in a huge underwater space, more than 400 sculptural statues have been placed, which attract the interest of divers. The underwater museum can also be visited by glass-bottomed boats. The purpose of its creation was to attract visitors in order to reduce the pressure on the coral reef of Cancun National Marine Park, from the 750,000 recreational divers, who visit it annually (Moira & Mylonopoulos, 2020).

During the diving activity, it is forbidden to anchor any boat at a distance of 100 m from the surface marking of the dive. Also, any form of fishing within a radius of 50 m from the perimeter of the free artificial underwater attraction is prohibited. In the free artificial underwater attractions, seasonal or even permanent mooring for use from boats used for diving is allowed, to avoid anchorage, provided there is no deterioration or risk of deterioration of them. The mooring of boats is subject to permission of the Port Authority, after the submission of a relevant anchorage study and topographic diagram. The boats must be properly marked in accordance with the instructions of the Hydrographic Service and the Lighthouse Service.

In free artificial underwater attractions, where there are shipwrecks, it is forbidden to anchor any boat at a distance of 100 m from them.

(D) *Diving parks.* The legislation for the creation of diving parks refers to Laws 3409/2005 and Laws 4688/2020. A sea areawith its corresponding bottom, is designated as a "diving park" after the issuance of a joint decision by the Ministries of Finance and Environment and Energy. A prerequisite for the designation of a diving park is the previous relevant suggestion of the Ministries of National Defense, Culture and Sports, Maritime Affairs and Insular Policy, Rural Development and Food, and Tourism. The total area of a diving park cannot exceed 2 km^2. However, it can consist of one to three separate sections of marine space with a maximum distance between them of 150 m.

A diving park may include or refer to a maritime area, which is part of the Natura 2000 network or to a National Marine Park or to another protected marine area or parts of such areas. The formulation and operation of the Natura 2000 network is based on two EU Directives for nature, namely the Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC) and the Wild Birds Directive (2009/147/EC, ex 79/409/EC).

Moreover, the designation may include marine areas, where marine aquaculture is located and operates for the purpose of recreation, promoting, at the same time, the Greek aquaculture. Additionally, diving parks may include shipwrecks and Underwater Archeological Sites open to visitors. A decision of the Ministry of Culture and Sports is required for the location of a diving park in an area of a delimited Underwater Archeological Site. In the area designated as a diving park, exclusively guided diving activities are carried out as well as related underwater activities, such as underwater photography, underwater cinematography and environmental education. Moreover, scientific research is allowed in the diving park. Within the delimited sea area of the diving park, the prohibited and permitted activities are precisely identified.

(1) It is allowed: (a) the navigation exclusively of boats, vessels and submarines of the management body and of boats that are used to serve the visitors, (b) the navigation of floating and submarine means of the competent authorities in order to control compliance of the conditions and obligations imposed by the provisions in force, (c) the immersion of ships, shipwrecks, floating shipyards or other man-made structures in order to improve the underwater flora and fauna or the attractiveness of the underwater landscape.
(2) It is forbidden (a) anchoring. The mooring of boats and vessels is done exclusively on specific infrastructure that has appropriate marking, according to the instructions of the Hydrographic Service and the Lighthouse Service. The boats are immersed with the least possible disturbance to the underwater environment, (b) fishing of all forms and underwater fishing, (c) catching the fauna and collecting the flora of the area, (d) any sporting or other maritime activity that hinders the dives or the management operations of the park.

The management authority. The management of the diving park can be undertaken by either a natural person or a legal entity or their partnership. The management authority does not provide recreational diving services and exercises exclusively the management, organization, supervision, protection, guarding and exploitation of the park, as an underwater recreation area open to visitors. The management authority may produce and market informative, educational, informative and tourist material related to the park in printed, photographic, electronic or other form. It may also charge a fee for the granting of professional photography or filming rights within the park or for public use of the name, distinctive mark and general elements of the park inside and outside of it, in conjunction with the name and general characteristics of the recipients of this service. The management authority of the diving park can collect a fee from the visitors.

In case of repeated violation of the law, of the concession decision and/or of the operation and safety regulations of the park, the management authority may temporarily or permanently prohibit the entry into the park to a specific Recreational Diving Service Provider or Visitor.

5 Scuba Diving Certification Organization

The Scuba Diving Certification Organization (N. 3409/2005 and N. 4688/2020) becomes the central institution in the system of regulating recreational diving. This organization, which may take the form of a legal entity under public law or a legal entity under private law or of a federation, is recognized by the Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Insular Policy in accordance with the provisions in force.

The mandate of the organization is to (a) prepare the training programs for recreational diving and the training programs for surface touring with a mask and a snorkel, (b) control and authorize recreational diving service providers and (c) issue the training certificates of the trainers and amateur divers as well as of trainees taking part in a surface tour with a mask and a snorkel. Moreover, the organization is obliged, each January, to submit to the Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Insular Policy a list of the Diving Recreation Service Providers, authorized by it and a list with the details of the persons to whom training certificates were issued, either for scuba divers or amateurs.

6 Conclusion

The state, realizing the importance of diving as a maritime leisure activity, proceeded to formulate the necessary legal framework. It is observed, however, that the state has moved from the previous regime of complete prohibition of diving, strictly allowed only for professional reasons, to a regime of freedom, with restrictions and prohibitions, of course, both in terms of conducting the diving activity itself and in terms of conducting the diving activity against other maritime activities of an intense economic nature.

It could also be argued that the underwater environment is "directed" in order to attract tourists with a particular interest in recreational diving. In this way, however, especially through the free artificial underwater attractions, the authenticity of the underwater landscape is altered and consequently, the element of authenticity is removed from the reality, which is now directed. It is not considered necessary to "direct" the reality for the Greek underwater space, as we belive that the authentic-marine environment and landscape attracts mainly the interest of people involved in diving as a recreational activity.

The establishment of a legal framework for diving tourism in combination with the rational management of marine resources by the competent authorities will contribute to the sustainable tourism development of the country. Due to the rich underwater archaeological heritage of Greece, the reinforcement and increase of the personnel of the control authorities as well as the training of the competent personnel for the provision of the appropriate escort services for the diving leisure activities are also considered as necessary.

References

Cousteau, J. Y., & Dugan, J. (1963). *The living sea*. Harper & Row.

Cousteau, J. Y., & Dugan, J. (1965). *World without sun*. Harper & Row.

Cousteau, J. Y., & Dumas, F. (1953). *The silent world*. Ballantine Books.

Kieran, D. (2019). *The size of the scuba diving industry*. https://medium.com/scubanomics/the-size-of-the-scuba-diving-industry-573b8ac44c7c.

Museo Atlántico Lanzarote. (2021). *The underwater museum*. https://underwatermuseumlanzarote.com/en/.

Mylonopoulos, D., & Moira, P. (2019). Exploring the profiles and motives of recreational divers. Case study from Greece. *Tims. Acta: naučni časopis za sport, turuzam i velnes, V., 13*(1), 5–14. http://aseestant.ceon.rs/index.php/timsacta/article/view/19755/8013.

The Cousteau Society. (2021). https://www.cousteau.org/about-us/.

Yassirani, H. (2017, October 4). Diving into underwater tourism in Greece, *European Commission*. https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/newsroom/news/2017/10/10-04-2017-diving-into-underwater-tourism-in-greece.

Moira, P., & Mylonopoulos, D. (2020a). *Marine tourism*, B' Edition. Phaedimos (in Greek).

Moira, P., & Mylonopoulos, D. (2020b). *Thematic tourism. Legal and conceptual approach*. Environment and Law, 1/2020 (Issue 1, pp. 26–43). [in Greek].

Mylonopoulos, D. (2012). *Maritime Law*. Stamoulis SA. [in Greek].

Legal Texts

DIRECTIVE 2009/147/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 30 November 2009 on the conservation of wild birds (codified version).

Decision CoS 1743/2002 (Department E').

Decision CoS 531/1991 (Department D').

Decision of the Ministry of Culture ΥΠΠΟ/ΓΔΑΠΚ/ΑΡΧ/Α1/Φ43/48604/3385/5.9.2003 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE B'1701) "Designation of wrecks as cultural assets".

General Port Regulation of Rhodes (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE B'456/1978) "On schools of underwater activity".

Joint Ministerial Decision ΥΠΠΟΑ/ΓΔΑΠΚ/ΔΙΠΚΑ/ΤΑΧ Φ41/176862/94489/11963/5535 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE B'2489) "Establishment of Underwater Archeological Sites—terms, conditions of operation and permitted activities within them, in sea areas of Methoni and the declared archeological site of Navarino Bay, Municipality Pylos-Nestora, Region of Peloponnese".

Law 3409/2005 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE A'273) "Scuba diving and other provisions".

Law 4014/2011 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE A'209) "Environmental licensing of projects and activities, regulating of arbitrary buildings in connection with the creation of an environmental balance and other provisions within the competence of the Ministry of Environment".

Law 4276/2014 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE A'155) "Simplification of operating procedures of tourism enterprises and tourist infrastructures, special forms of tourism and other provisions".
Law 4582/2018 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE A'208) "Thematic tourism—Special forms of tourism—Regulations for the modernization of the institutional framework in the field of tourism and tourism education—Support for tourism entrepreneurship and other provisions".
Law 4688/2020 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE A'101) "Special forms of tourism, provisions for tourism development and other provisions".
Joint Ministerial Decision no ΥΠΠΟΑ/ΓΔΑΠΚ/ΔΙΠΚΑ/ΤΠΚΑΧΜΑΕ/Φ53/12387/6960/772/240/2015 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE B'119) "Establishment of Underwater Archeological Sites—terms, conditions of operation and permitted activities within them, in sea areas of Sporades islands and sea areas in the western Pagasitikos, Magnesia, Region of Thessaly".
DIRECTIVE 92/43/EC of the Council of 21 May 1992 "On the conservation of natural habitats and of wild fauna and flora" (EE L 206 of 22.7.1992, p. 7).
Decision No. 3131.1/9/94 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE B'858) "Approval of the General Port Regulation", 5 "On underwater activities with an autonomous device".
MD of Merchant Shipping 3131.1/20/1995 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE B'978) (General Port regulation 10) (Codified) Approval of the General Port regulation no 10 "On diving works".
Joint Ministerial Decision no ΥΠΠΟΑ/ΓΔΑΠΚ/ΔΙΠΚΑ/ΤΠΚΑΧΜΑΕ/Φ17/344762/203211/16908/4712/2015 (GOVERNMENT GAZETTE B'2655/B) "Establishment of Underwater Archeological Sites—terms, conditions of operation and permitted activities within them, in sea areas of Lavreotiki Makronissos, Attica".

Authenticity as an Antecedent of the Tourist Experience in Measuring the Gap Between Tourist Experiences at an Accommodation Establishment and a Tourist Attraction in Lesotho

Shale Johannes Shale, Sello Samuel Nthebe, and Magdalena Petronella Swart

Abstract Authenticity has been a key concept in the description of the genuineness and realness of various cultural heritages, making it very important for the success of cultural festivals and events. Tourists seek authentic experience through engaging in meaningful conversation with indigenous people, thus experiencing the real lives of other people in a geographic area different from their own. Tourists seek out authentic and unique experiences that motivate them to explore cultural events that are new to them, and authenticity is usually a measure of their perception of the genuineness of tourism attractions and experiences. Authenticity refers to the quality of the experience relevant to those who seek it. The purpose of this paper is to explore whether authenticity can be applied as an antecedent of the tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at an accommodation establishment and a tourist attraction in Lesotho. The researchers adopted qualitative content analysis, following content-logical guidelines and step-by-step paradigms before providing qualification in the form of tables. By utilising qualitative content analysis as a methodological approach the researchers followed a positivist epistemology, as it is considered to be objective in its utilisation to reveal true findings. The findings from 96 peer-reviewed published research reports (ScienceDirect Elsevier and Scopus, but excluding research methodology reports) show the dimensions local culture, involvement, meaningfulness, and social interaction to be the most appropriate for measuring authenticity. Furthermore, authenticity can be applied as an antecedent of the tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and tourist attractions in Lesotho.

Keywords Authenticity · Local culture · Involvement · Meaningfulness · Social interaction

JEL Classifications L83 · Sports · Gambling · Restaurants · Recreation · Tourism

S. J. Shale (✉) · S. S. Nthebe · M. P. Swart
University of South Africa, Pretoria, Republic of South Africa
e-mail: 57995176@mylife.unisa.ac.za

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*,
Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_26

1 Introduction

Since 1990−2022, authenticity has become the main term denoting the legitimacy and origin of traditional heritages, and the concept has come to be regarded as significant in the context of traditional festivals and events (Akhoondnejad, 2016; Brida et al., 2013). For tourists, authenticity is usually a measure of their perception of the genuineness of tourism attractions and experiences (Akhoondnejad, 2016). Tourists seek authentic experience through engaging in meaningful conversation with indigenous people (MacCannell, 1976 as cited in Pearce, 2012; Paulauskaite et al., 2017), thus experiencing the real lives of other people in a geographic area different from their own (Pearce, 2012). Moreover, tourists seek authenticity in the form of originality and trustworthiness, which play a key role in current life, changing life ethic, political interpretations, and customer behaviour (Carroll, 2015: 2). For this reason, authenticity is regarded as a pull factor for tourists, and as various tourism businesses compete for customers, authenticity is a key aspect governing tourists' travel decision making (Bernardi, 2019). Nonetheless, it is contended that in scientific research, knowledge concerning the contribution of service providers towards the tourist experience is insufficient (Pan et al., 2018).

According to Makwindi (2016: V), Lesotho tourism is not real, despite the slogan: "Real People, Real Mountains, and Real Culture"; moreover, at cultural sites in Lesotho, "there is an apparent research deficiency into the nature of tourism experience". Makwindi (2016: 128) further observes that visitors to Thaba-Bosiu expressed numerous complaints relating to inadequacies in respect of culture, food, attire, and performances. In reporting on a different study conducted at a different location, Yang and Wall (2009) encouraged the development of cultural products of high quality to attract local and foreign tourists. In the light of this, the authors contend that authenticity can be applied as an antecedent of the tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments (such as the Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and tourist attractions (such as the Moshoeshoe Walk event). Begin with an introduction of your paper. If required you may change the title but without changing its format.

2 Literature Review

Cultural authenticity and natural resources are well documented as being important and valuable tools in that countries and destinations utilise them to attract tourists (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2020). As the experience economy matures, it evolves into authenticity because consumers search for real experiences rather than manufactured "products" (Yeoman, 2008). Raj and Musgrave (2009) explain that commodification is an indication that the demands of tourism, as well as events, have led to changes in and the destruction of the sense of cultural performances and unique events, and that staged authenticity constitutes imitated experiences that are created purely to satisfy the needs of those attending them. Boorstin (1961) argues that there is no such thing as authenticity, and that everything that tourists experience is nothing more than imitation, simulation, and fabrication. In similar vein, Moutinho and Vargas-Sanchez (2018) propose that the contemporary universal world is full of counterfeit authenticity and pseudo-events staged simply to create photo opportunities.

Golomb (1995) as cited in Cohen (2010:5) explains authenticity as "experiencing one's authentic self", while Wang (1999) states that authenticity in the tourism community has been introduced as existential authenticity, defined by researchers (Cohen, 2010:7; Mavondo & Reisinger, 2005:217; Morgan et al., 2010:32; Steiner & Reisinger, 2006:300) as being in touch with one's inner self, knowing one's self, having a sense of one's own identity and then living in accord with one's sense of oneself. According to Kim et al., (2011) and Wang (1999), objective authenticity is the authenticity of archetypes, and consequently, the authentic tourist experience correlates to the theory of knowledge (epistemology) of experience (awareness) of the authenticity of the genuine. Wang (1999) and Kim et al. (2011) describe constructive authenticity as the authenticity projected onto visited objects by tourists based on their beliefs, preferences, influences, and so on. Scholars such as Ahlin (2018) and Rickly and Vidon (2018) argue that authenticity, by contrast, is unique, real, and factual such that it is impossible to duplicate the experience, while Gilmore (2007) states that authenticity refers to the quality experience relevant to those who seek it and regard such quality experience as authentic. Richards (2008) notes that tourists search for authentic and unique experiences that motivate them to explore cultural events unknown to other tourists. For the purposes of this paper, authenticity refers to the availability of unique displays of original cultural heritage at an accommodation establishment and a tourist attraction in Lesotho.

McNulty and Koff (2014) assert that engagement with cultural heritage includes taking tours and viewing various places that form part of the important past or the contemporary cultural identity of a specific cluster of society, while van Zyl (2005) states that cultural heritage is preserved to promote a unique way of understanding living cultures. Kempiak et al., (2017) explain that cultural heritage tourists travel mainly to experience other cultures and acquire knowledge about the past.

In the context of tourist attractions, Kang et al., (2014) postulate that cultural heritage events are used to commemorate local culture and past practices and as a leisure activity to absorb heritage guests. In the context of the lodging industry, scholars (Lee & Chhabra, 2015; Mendiratta, 2013; Timothy & Teye, 2009) indicate that heritage hotels offer the tourists who demand a luxury experience an opportunity to be exposed to the past, sculpture, ethos, styles, customs, and views of different stages that countries have passed through. At Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village, guests may sleep in the chalets and have an authentic Lesotho cultural experience (Lesotho Review, 2019).

Cultural heritage events contribute significantly to "the interpretation of local cultural heritage or as a tool for economic development for both the local economy and host community" (Kang et al., 2014:71). A number of scholars (Kang et al., 2014; Richards, 2008) identify a correlation between cultural heritage and guest satisfaction, and authenticity in particular is mentioned as being a key aspect of guest satisfaction. On the other hand, both Chang (1997:47) and Lee and Chhabra (2015:103) stipulate that heritage lodging possesses the ability to be a sustainable tourism product in a wide array of contexts as “a tool to promote civic pride, local identity, and cultural capital”. Similarly, Foster (2017) asserts that historic hotels have the potential not only to be an attraction in the form of a tourist destination but also to act as a catalyst for community development as a platform to disseminate information which holds great promise for public historians.

In the lodging industry, heritage and historic hotels are heritage resources that have not been well researched (Lee & Chhabra, 2015). It was for this reason that the study reported on in this paper focused on Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village as a heritage and historic accommodation facility as a basis for investigating tourist experience gaps.

In a study assessing the effects of heritage status the heritage building on minor lodging buildings, Pongsermpol and Upala (2018:92) state that their study lays a solid foundation for evaluating “physical, economic, value, and social issues”, and go on to suggest that further research be undertaken using their study as a standard to investigate hotel changes and impacts (refurbishment). Since Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village was refurbished to become a full hospitality establishment, the value of a study to investigate tourist experience gaps between an accommodation establishment (such as Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (such as the Moshoeshoe Walk event) was recognised. Knowledge relating to the role of service providers in the tourist experience is lacking, and it is this that provided the motivation for the study undertaken to measure tourist experience gaps in terms of authenticity between an accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event).

3 Methodology

The purpose of the study was to explore whether authenticity can be applied as an antecedent of the tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho. To achieve the objective of the study, the researchers adopted qualitative content analysis following content-logical guidelines and step-by-step paradigms before making qualification in the form of tables (Philipp, 2000, 2014). By utilising qualitative content analysis as a methodological approach, the researchers embraced a positivist epistemology, as objectivity was sought as a means to reveal true findings (Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

4 Results and Discussions

In support of the research problem, a systematic literature review was conducted. Table 1 shows 30 articles reviewed to support authenticity as an antecedent of the tourist experience. These articles were selected based on a keyword search including "authenticity AND tourist experience".

Table 1 lists the 30 articles identified that support the concept of *authenticity* as an antecedent of the *tourist experience*. From these articles, ***local culture***, ***involvement***, ***meaningfulness***, and ***social interaction*** were identified as the most relevant dimensions for an investigation of authenticity.

4.1 Local Culture

Vilet (2011) defines local culture as something that one is immersed in from an early age, and that is safeguarded by literature, history, faith, educators, and parents. Local culture is defined as how people perceive and view the world, their way of responding to and evaluating the world, and how people interact with others both verbally and non-verbally (Dingwall et al., 2018). Guleria (2019) and Said and Maryono, (2018) consider culture to be one of the pull factors motivating people to travel to a particular destination. Because local culture forms part of a memorable tourist experience, visitors who engage with and relate to local culture build an exceptional and unforgettable vacation experience (Kanagasapapathy, 2017; Tsai, 2016). For the purpose of the study, local culture was taken to refer to the opportunity to experience Lesotho's local culture at an accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event).

Local culture in the lodging industry includes traditional food and an authentic way of cooking (Ivanova et al., 2014:123). Činjarević and Almir (2014) concur, stating that local culture includes aspects related to cuisine (local food) and dining in a traditional restaurant. Paulauskaite et al. (2017) suggest that guests in the accommodation sector

Table 1 Studies supporting authenticity as an antecedent of the tourist experience

Construct	Authors
Authenticity	Akhoondnejad (2016); Brida et al. (2013); Boorstin (1961); Carroll (2015); Cohen (2010); Chang (1997); Foster (2017); Kim et al. (2011); Kempiak et al. (2017); Kang et al. (2014); Lee and Chhabra (2015); Lesotho Review (2019); Makwindi (2016); Mavondo and Reisinger (2005); Mendiratta (2013); McNulty and Koff (2014); Moutinho and Vargas-Sanchez (2018); Morgan et al., (2010); OECD, (2020); Pearce (2012); Pan, et al. (2018); Pongsermpol and Upala (2018); Raj and Musgrave (2009); Richards (2008); Steiner and Reisinger (2006); Timothy and Teye (2009); Zyl (2005); Wang (1999); Yang and Wall (2009); Yeoman (2008)
Number of articles	30

consider experiences to be particularly authentic when they interact with the local culture, and Frumkin (2012) explains that in the hotel setting, local culture can be demonstrated through the incorporation of art; thus, the inclusion of traditional furniture contributes to creating a unique experience. Paulauskaite et al. (2017:17) make the observation that in the lodging industry, tourists' contact with local culture is mediated by sociability factors, including "personal and companionable experience, sparking feelings of familiarity", which in turn results in authentic experiences.

Guttentag et al. (2017) state that in the context of the lodging industry, tourist derive pleasure from the distinctive features and unpretentious feel of accommodation, customised service, a special conversation with the hosts, and the opportunity to acquire local knowledge. As part of attractions such as events, the inclusion of local culture (local cultural festivals or events) contributes towards the development of the local economy and increases the opportunity for recreational activities (Blešić et al., 2014).

Richards (2008) asserts that the demand for an authentic experience in cultural events has resulted in the modification of cultural events content to meet the needs and expectations regarding authentic local culture of those attending the event. Blešić et al. (2014) state that internationally the number of events that incorporate cultural content are increasing significantly, and that to further enrich local culture, events introduce international travellers to indigenous people and their traditions.

The study conducted by Seyfi et al. (2019) to explore memorable cultural experiences in Paris contains the recommendation that further research be directed towards creating a correlation model and investigating other important aspects. In an attempt to fill this gap, the study reported on here used local culture as a dimension of authenticity to investigate tourist experience gaps between an accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event). The literature included in Table 2 consists of articles that support local culture as a dimension of authenticity.

Table 2 lists the 17 articles supporting local culture as a dimension of authenticity.

Table 2 Studies supporting local culture as a dimension of authenticity

Dimension	Authors
Local culture	Ahlin (2018); Blešić et al. (2014); Činjarević and Almir (2014); Dingwall et al. (2018); Frumkin (2012); Gilmore (2007); Guleria (2019); Guttentag et al. (2017); Ivanova et al. (2014); Kanagasapapathy (2017); Paulauskaite et al. (2017); Richards (2008); Rickly and Vidon (2018); Said & Maryono (2018); Seyfi et al. (2019); Tsai (2016); Vilet (2011)
Number of articles	17

4.2 Involvement

Involvement is described as a "state of motivation, arousal, or interest" (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, 1999; McWilliams & Crompton, 1997, as cited in Kim, et al., 2009: 249; Warnick & Bojanic, 2010). Scholars (Ayazlar & Arslan, 2017; Paulauskaite et al., 2017) define involvement as those experiences that are unique and fit in with a person's interests. Yu etal. (2019) state that tourists more clearly recall experiences that fit in closely with their interests, and that involvement increases when a person takes part in tourism activities while on vacation. For the study reported on in this paper, involvement refers to participation in recreational activities at an accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event).

Cevik and Simskek (2017) note that in the lodging industry, guests often seek opportunities for recreation and fun. Chhabra et al. (2001) undertook research to ascertain the authenticity of staged Highland Games; the results revealed that attendees viewed the games as being authentic, even though participation in the games involved staging. In their study on green events, Wong et al. (2015) make the observation that involvement forces people to reconstruct and think about relaxation and leisure activities influencing their participation and behaviour. With regard to the lodging industry, scholars such as Costa et al. (2004) and Vovk and Vovk (2017) state that guests involve themselves in recreational activities and that these leisure activities fall within the category of "leisure, fitness and sports activities, as well as live entertainment". Hemsworth (2018) mentions that guests no longer enjoy simply staying in luxury rooms, but also seek outdoor recreational activities that involve experiencing something real, such as taking adventure tours. At Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village, guests can enjoy an adventure tour and are educated about Thaba-Bosiu, the mountain used by King Moshoeshoe I as a fortress to protect the Basotho nation (Review, 2019).

White et al. (2014:1) state, "Recreation contributes greatly to the physical, mental, and spiritual health of individuals, bonds family and friends, and instils pride in natural and cultural heritage", while Wong et al. (2015) assert that involvement in events yields positive consumer behaviour and loyalty. At accommodation establishments, recreational activities can offer guests memorable experiences, which can in turn assist in attracting more new customer segments while simultaneously growing the loyalty of existing guests (Hemsworth, 2018).

In their study on the creation of experience value in tourism, Prebensen et al. (2018) note that leisure and tourism scholars have made a significant contribution to the body of knowledge over the past two decades. Prebensen et al. (2018) emphasise that notwithstanding the efforts of these scholars, visitor participation, visitor behaviour, and the creation of quality experience remain areas for potential research that need to be investigated and understood in terms of their usage as well as their practical contributions. Therefore, the study discussed in this paper will fill this important omission by using involvement (participation in recreational activities) as a dimension of authenticity to investigate tourist experience gaps between an

Table 3 Studies supporting involvement as a dimension of authenticity

Dimension	Authors
Involvement	Ayazlar and Arslan (2017); Cevik and Simskek (2017); Chhabra et al. (2001); Costa et al. (2004); Havitz and Dimanche, (1997, 1999); Hemsworth (2018); Kim et al., (2009); Review (2019); McWilliams and Crompton (1997); Paulauskaite et al. (2017); Prebensen et al. (2018); Vovk and Vovk (2017); Warnick and Bojanic, (2010); White et al. (2014); Wong et al. (2015); Yu et al. (2019)
Number of articles	17

accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event). The literature listed in Table 3 comprises articles that support involvement as a dimension of authenticity.

Table 3 lists the 17 articles identified as supporting involvement as a dimension of authenticity.

4.3 Meaningfulness

King et al., (2006: 180) postulate that meaning entails the notion that life has "significance beyond the trivial or momentary", while Tov et al. (2019) assert that significance means that events have a positive effect on an individual's life. Scholars (Chen et al., 2020; Movahed et al., 2020; Packer & Gill, 2017; Sthapit, 2017) express the view that meaningfulness is the way people discover the meaning of the over-tourism experience. Such meaningfulness, according to Ayazlar and Arslan (2017) and Yu et al. (2019), offers a sense of physical, responsive, or spiritual accomplishment. Sthapit and Coudounaris (2018) postulate that the tourist's state of being happy is prompted by meaningfulness. For the purposes of the study, meaningfulness is understood as the availability of activities that result in meaning at accommodation establishments (such as Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and tourist attractions (such as the Moshoeshoe Walk event). Scholars (Paulauskaite et al., 2017; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016) indicate that in the lodging industry, hotel guests seek meaningfulness when they interact with local people to have a unique experience in an authentic environment. This also sparks guests' motivation to travel regularly, spend more time on leisure, and involve themselves in new leisure activities. Crespi-Vallbona and Richards (2007) express the view that in the context of cultural events, meaningfulness is the source of identity.

In the study conducted by Tov et al. (2019) on aspects of meaningful event experiences, the results revealed the need for research to elicit views on the experiences of visitors attending traditional events; as such events include cultural makeup and meaning. In the study discussed in this paper, meaningfulness was taken to be a dimension of authenticity in an investigation of tourist experience gaps between an

Table 4 Studies supporting meaningfulness as a dimension of authenticity

Dimension	Authors
Meaningfulness	Ayazlar and Arslan (2017); Chen et al. (2020); Crespi-Vallbona and Richards (2007); King et al. (2006); Movahed et al. (2020); Packer and Gill (2017); Paulauskaite et al. (2017); Sthapit and Coudounaris (2018); Sthapit (2013); Tov et al. (2019); Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016); Yu et al. (2019)
Number of articles	12

accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event). The literature listed in Table 4 consists of articles that support meaningfulness as a dimension of authenticity.

Table 4 lists the 12 articles supporting meaningfulness as a dimension of authenticity.

4.4 Social Interaction

Rummel (1976) classifies social interactions as performances, activities, or exercises between two or many persons sharing their experiences. Mele (2017:1) contends: "Social interaction is defined as the process by which people act and react to each other", and Carpentier (2015:14) defines social interactions as "Any form of the social encounter between individuals" or "the general series of activities whereby two or more persons are in meaningful contact". Tourism experiences emerge as people come into contact with other people (Larsen et al., 2019), and so the experiences of tourists are continuously intermediated over social relations (Reichenberger, 2014).

Tourists seek out authentic activities with opportunities for experiencing meaningful social interactions with indigenous inhabitants (Paulauskaite et al., 2017). Social interaction is one of the socio-psychological aspects motivating tourists to travel, and happy moments occur when tourists meet local people, fellow tourists, and other people encountered at random during the tour (Vuuren & Slabbert, 2011). For the study, social interaction was defined as an opportunity for social interaction between tourists and staff at an accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event).

For tourists, event authenticity depends on existential authenticity, which is linked to the enjoyableness of both cultural and leisure activities or events, social life and meeting, and interacting with indigenous people or their counterparts (Richards, 2008). Nordvall et al. (2014) express the view that socialisation inspires people to attend events and that the social relations among people attending an event heighten the experience of the event. In the context of the lodging industry, Prayag and Ryan (2012) refer to social interaction as the communication between hotel employees and guests, while Paulauskaite et al. (2017) assert that the feeling of authentic experience occurs when there is close contact and interaction between tourists and local hosts in conjunction with shared information.

Scholars (Brendon et al., 2016; Park, 2016; Simons, 2019) explain that events present an opportunity for customer interaction, and Quinn and Wilks (2013) state that events themselves hold the promise of social interaction.

Scholars (Durantin et al., 2017; Jutbring, 2017a, 2017b; Park, 2016; Sun et al., 2019) further observe that events are social by nature and that they allow those attending them to engage in interaction and share memories with others; in that way, social interactions lead to meaningful experiences. Nordvall et al. (2014) assert that social interactions among those attending events make up a significant part of the event experience and ensure a greater degree of satisfaction for those attending. Laing and Mair (2015) note that social interaction at events has been identified as an aspect contributing to social attachment through learning new skills. Sun et al. (2019) are of the view that interactions among tourists to an increasing degree encourage positive behaviour responses not limited to the willingness to stay, a sense of pleasure, and loyalty.

Zgolli and Zaiem (2017) contend that in the lodging industry social interaction (interaction between guests) is a key aspect, as it forms the basis of human relationships that motivate tourists to go on holiday, and this social interaction gives rise to greater satisfaction, tourist intention to revisit, and loyalty. Also with regard to the lodging industry, Prayag and Ryan (2012) note that social interaction between hotel staff and guests leads to vacation satisfaction, behavioural intention to revisit, and destination competitiveness.

In the study conducted by Wilks and Quinn (2016) dealing with linking social and cultural capital, and heterotopia at events, further research is suggested as a means to find out how events change social relationships. The study reported on in this paper seeks to use social interaction (opportunity for social interaction) as a dimension of authenticity to examine tourist experience gaps between an accommodation establishment (Thaba-Bosiu Cultural Village) and a tourist attraction (Moshoeshoe Walk event). The articles listed in Table 5 support social interaction as a dimension of authenticity.

Table 5 lists the 20 articles supporting social interaction as a dimension of authenticity.

Based on the discussion of the results, a theoretical framework for authenticity as an antecedent of the tourist experience for measuring the gap between tourist

Table 5 Studies supporting *social interaction* as a dimension of *authenticity*

Dimensions	Authors
Social interaction	Brendon et al. (2016); Carpentier (2015); Durantin et al. (2017); Jutbring (2017a, 2017b); Laing and Mair (2015); Larsen et al. (2019); Mele (2017); Nordvall et al. (2014); Paulauskaite et al. (2017); Park (2016); Prayag and Ryan (2012); Quinn and Wilks (2013); Reichenberger (2014); Richards (2008); Rummel (1976); Simons (2019); Sun et al. (2019); Vuuren and Slabbert (2011); Wilks and Quinn (2016); Zgolli and Zaiem (2017)
Number of articles	20

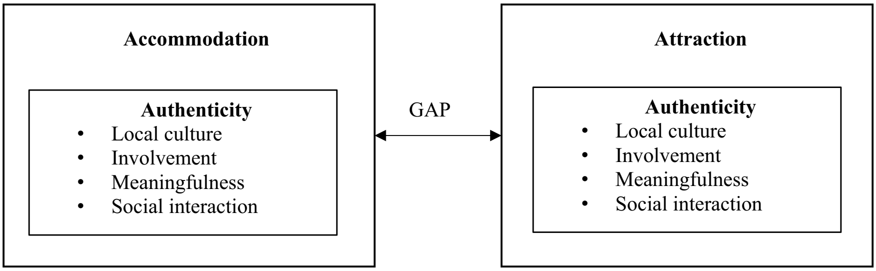


Fig. 1 Theoretical framework

experiences at an accommodation establishment and a tourist attraction is proposed and is depicted in Fig. 1.

5 Conclusion

The purpose of the study reported on in this paper was to investigate whether authenticity can be applied as an antecedent of the tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho. The findings reveal that authenticity is supported through the dimensions: local culture, involvement, meaningfulness, and social interaction. The practical implications of the findings are very important for strategic consideration by the managers of accommodation establishments and tourist attractions. In accommodation establishments and at tourist attractions, tourists seek authentic experiences, and so managers need to plan such that their facilities are able to improve tourists' authentic experiences in an effective way.

This paper makes a new contribution to the body of knowledge contained in the tourism and hospitality management literature, as none of the existing studies were found to have explored whether authenticity through the dimensions: local culture, involvement, meaningfulness, and social interaction can be applied as an antecedent of the tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at an accommodation establishment and a tourist attraction in Lesotho. Since the authors used qualitative content analysis, future research could adopt a quantitative research methodology. Through the utilisation of the quantitative research approach, future studies could use confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) as multivariate statistical techniques to test the theoretical model proposed in this paper. The research in this context has yet to be conducted, in Lesotho specifically.

Acknowledgements Authors would like to pass the sincere thanks to the University of South Africa for its financial support.

References

Ahlin, J. (2018). The impossibility of reliably determining the authenticity of desires: Implications for informed consent. *Med Health Care and Philos, 21*(1), 43–50.

Akhoondnejad, A. (2016). Tourist loyalty to a local cultural event: the case of Turkmen handicrafts festival. *Tourism Management,* 52(C), 468–477.

Ayazlar, G., & Arslan, A. R. (2017). A cross-cultural investigation of tourists' memorable experiences between two nationalities. *Almatourism . Journal of Culture, and Territorial Development,* 15, 136–151.

Bernardi, C. (2019). Authenticity as a compromise: A critical discourse analysis of Sámi tourism websites. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 14*(3), 249–262. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2018.1527844

Blešić, I., Pivac, T., Đorđević, J., Stamenković, I., & Janićević, S. (2014). Cultural events as part of cultural tourism development. Case study: Sombor and Apatin (Serbia). *Acta Geographica Slovenica* 54(2), 381–390.

Boorstin, D. J. (1961). *The image: A guide to pseudo-events in America.* Harper & Row.

Brendon, K., Alan, F., & Ian, J. (2016). Leveraging nation branding opportunities through sport mega-events. *Faculty Scholarship and Creative Works*, 394. https://stars.library.ucf.edu/ucfscholar/394

Brida, G. J., Disegna, M., & Osti, L. (2013). The effect of authenticity on visitors' expenditure at cultural events. *Current Issues in Tourism, 16*(3), 266–285.

Carpentier, N. (2015). Differentiating between access, interaction, and participation. *Transdisciplinary Journal of Cultural Participation, 2*(2), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.7146/tjcp.v2i2.22844

Carroll, G. R. (2015). Authenticity: Attribution, value and meaning. In R. A. Scott & S. M. Kosslyn (Eds.), *Emerging trends in the social and behavioral sciences.* New York, NY: John Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118900772.etrds0020.

Cevik, H., & Simskek, K. Y. (2017). The quality of five-star hotel animation services in Turkey with regard to tourists' demographics. *Tourism, 65*(3), 280–293.

Chang, T. C. (1997). Heritage as a tourism commodity: Traversing the tourist–local divide. *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography, 18*(1), 46–68.

Chen, X., Cheng, Z., & Kim, G. (2020). Make it memorable: Tourism experience, fun, recommendation and revisit intentions of Chinese outbound tourists. *Sustainability, 12*(5), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12051904

Chhabra, D., Healy, R., & Sills, E. (2001). Staged authenticity and heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(3), 702–719.

Činjarević, M., & Almir, P. (2014). Tourist perceived image of local cuisine: The case of Bosnian food culture. *British Food Journal, 116*(11), 1821–1838.

Cohen, S. (2010). Searching for escape, authenticity and identity: Experiences of lifestyle travellers. In M. Morgan, P. Lugosi & J. R. B Ritchie (Eds.),*The tourism and leisure experience: consumer and managerial perspectives* (pp. 27–42). Bristol: Channel View Publications.

Costa, G., Glinia, E., Goudas, M., & Antoniou, P. (2004). Recreational services in resort hotels: Customer satisfaction aspects. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 9*(2), 117–126.

Crespi-Vallbona, M., & Richards, G. (2007). The meaning of cultural festivals. *International Journal of Cultural Policy, 13*(1), 103–122.

Dingwall, J. R., Labrie, C., McLennon, T., & Underwood, L. (2018). *Professional Communications: Foundations: Educational Technology and Curriculum Team.* Canadian Ed., Olds College: creative commons.

Durantin, G., Heath, S., & Wiles, J. (2017). Social Moments: A perspective on interaction for social robotics. *Frontiers Robotics and AI, 4*(24), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.3389/frobt.2017.00024

Foster, C. V. (2017). *An exploration of Tennessee's historic hotels as cultural heritage tourism assets.* Doctoral thesis, Middle Tennessee State University.

Frumkin, I. (2012). *5 U.S. hotels utilizing art to stand out amongst the competition.* Accessed on: (13 Dec. 20). Retrieved from https://www.interiorsandsources.com/article-details/articleid/22900/title/hotels-utilizing-art

Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language Teaching, 40*, 97–118.

Golomb, J. (1995). I*n search of authenticity: Existentialism from Kierkegaard to Camus*. Routledge.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 191–215). Sage.

Guleria, A. (2019). *Himachal Pradesh culture survey of rural Himachal*. Notion Press.

Guttentag, D., Smith, S., Potwarka, L., & Havitz, M. (2017). Why tourists choose airbnb: a motivation-based segmentation study. *Journal of Travel Research, 57*(1), 1–18.

Havitz, M. E., & Dimanche, F. (1997). Leisure involvement revisited: Conceptual conundrums and measurement advances. *Journal of Leisure Research, 29*(3), 245–278.

Havitz, M. E., & Dimanche, F. (1999). Leisure involvement revisited: drive properties and paradoxes. *Journal of Leisure Research, 31*(2), 122–149.

Hemsworth, L. (2018). *Ideas for indoor and outdoor activities for your hotel guests. Create unforgettable experiences that sell very easy*. Accessed on 26 Sep 2020. Available at https://www.hospitalitynet.org/opinion/4087119.html.

Ivanova, L., Terziyska, I., & Trifonova, J. (2014). Characteristics of traditional food—the viewpoint of the tourism business. *Service Management, 14*(3), 123–130.

Jutbring, H. (2017a). Social marketing through a music festival: Value perceived by festival visitors who reduced meat consumption. *Journal of Social Marketing, 8*(2), 237–256. https://doi.org/10.1108/JSOCM-03-2017-0017

Jutbring, H. (2017b). *Social marketing through events*. Doctoral thesis, University of Gothenburg.

Kanagasapapathy, G. D. (2017). *Understanding the flow experiences of heritage tourists*. Doctoral thesis, Bournemouth University.

Kang, S., Kim, K., Ryan, C., & Park, S. (2014). What makes people travel to cultural heritage festival? *International Journal of Tourism Sciences, 14*(3), 70–87.

Kempiak, L., Hollywood, L., Bolan, P., & McMahon-Beattie, U. (2017). The heritage tourist: An understanding of the visitor experience at heritage attractions. *International Journal of Heritage Studies, 23*(4), 375–392.

Kim, J., Bojanic, D. C., & Warnick, R. B. (2009). Price bundling and travel product pricing practices used by online channels of distribution. *Journal of Travel Research, 47*(4), 403–412. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287508328658

Kim, H., Chang, H. S., & Huh, C. (2011). *The relationship between types of tourist and destination authenticity.*

King, L. A., Hicks, J. A., Krull, J. L., & Del Gaiso, A. K. (2006). Positive affect and the experience of meaning in life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90*, 179–196.

Kim, J., Bojanic, D. C., & Warnick, R. B. (2009). Price bundling and travel product pricing practices used by online channels of distribution. *Journal of Travel Research, 47*(4), 403–412. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.umass.edu/htm_faculty_pubs/4

Laing, J., & Mair, J. (2015). Music festivals and social inclusion—the festival organizers' perspective. *Leisure Sciences, 37*(3), 252–268.

Larsen, S., Wolff, K., Doran, R., & Øgaard, T. (2019). What makes tourist experiences interesting. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*, 1603. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01603

Lee, W., & Chhabra, D. (2015). Heritage hotels and historic lodging: Perspectives on experiential marketing and sustainable culture. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 10*(2), 103–110.

MacCannell, D. (1976). *The tourist: a new theory of the leisure class.* London: Macmillan

Makwindi, N. (2016). *The role of authenticity in Lesotho cultural tourism: a study of Thaba Bosiu and Morija.* Master's dissertation, University of Johannesburg.

Mavondo, F. T., & Reisinger, Y. (2005). Travel anxiety and intentions to travel internationally: implications of travel risk perception. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(3), 212–225.

McNulty, R., & Koff, R. (2014). *Cultural heritage tourism. Partners for livable communities organisation.* Accessed 9 Feb 2016. Retrieved from http://www.livable.org/storage/documents/reports/CBC/culturalheritagetourism.pdf

McWilliams, E. G., & Crompton, J. L. (1997). An expanded framework for measuring the effectiveness of destination advertising. *Tourism Management, 18*(3), 127–137.

Mele, V. (2017). *Social interaction.* Accessed on (08 Oct 2020). Retrieved from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118430873.est0811

Mendiratta, A. (2013). *Heritage hotels: Building a future by preserving the past*. Eturbonews.com. Retrieved from http://www.eturbonews.com/35433/heritage-hotels-building-future-preservingpast

Morgan, M., Lugosi, P., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (Eds.). (2010). *The tourism and leisure experience : Consumer and managerial perspectives. Aspects of tourism series, Bristol, UK; Buffalo.* Channel View Publications.

Moutinho, L., & Vargas-Sanchez, A. (2018). *Strategic management in tourism* (3rd ed.). CABI Tourism Texts.

Movahed, A., Ghasemi, M., & Gholamalifard, N. (2020). An analysis of the culinary tourism experience between gender groups in Iran. *Quaestiones Geographicae, 39*(1), 99–108. https://doi.org/10.2478/quageo-2020-0008

Nordvall, A., Pettersson, R., Svensson, B., & Brown, S. (2014). Designing events for social interaction. *Event Management, 18*(2), 127–140.

OECD, (2020). Chapter 3: Rethinking tourism success for sustainable growth. *Tourism trends and policies 2020 Edition.* Policy highlights. Retrieved from https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/82b46508-en/index.html?itemId=/content/component/82b46508-en

Packer, J., & Gill, C. (2017). Meaningful vacation experiences. In S. Filep, J. Laing, & M. Csikszentmihalyi (Eds.), *Positive Tourism* (pp. 19–34). Routledge.

Park, S. S. (2016). *Designing interactive digital installation for human–human interaction in live music events.* Bachelor's thesis, Vassar College.

Pan, L., Xu, X. Lu, L., & Gursoy, D. (2018). How cultural confidence affects local residents wellbeing. *Service Industries Journa, 41*(7), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1080/02642069.2018.1540595

Paulauskaite, D., Powell, R., Coca-Stefaniak, J.A., & Morrison, A.M. (2017). Living like a local: Authentic tourism experiences and the sharing economy. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* 19(6), 619–628.

Pearce, P. (2012). The experience of visiting home and familiar places. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(2), 1024–1047. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.11.018

Philipp, M. (2000). Qualitative content analysis. *forum qualitative sozialforschung* / forum: *Qualitative Social Research*, 1(2), 1–7. http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs0002204.

Philipp, M. 2014. *Qualitative content analysis: theoretical foundation, basic procedures, and software solution.* Klagenfurt. http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-395173

Pongsermpol, C., & Upala, P. (2018). Changes and impacts of heritage building to small hotel building: a case study of bangkok story hostel. *Asian Social Science, 14*(1), 79–94.

Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2012). Visitor interactions with hotel employees: The role of nationality. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 6*(2), 173–185.

Prebensen, N. K., Chen, J. S., & Uysal, M. (2018). *Creating experience value in tourism* (2nd ed.). CABI.

Quinn, B., & Wilks, L. (2013). Festival connections: people, place, and social capital. In G. Richards, M. P. de Brito & L. Wilks, *Exploring the social impacts of events*, pp. 15–30. Oxon: Routledge.

Raj, R., & Musgrave, J. (2009). *Event management and sustainability.* London, UK: CABI International.

Reichenberger, I. (2014). *Social interactions between international visitors in New Zealand: contacts, processes, and impacts.* Doctoral thesis, Victoria University of Wellington.

Lesotho Review, (2019). An overview of the Kingdom of Lesotho's economy—2019 edition.

Richards, G. (2008). Culture and authenticity in a traditional event: The views of producers, residents, and visitors in barcelona. *Event Management, 11*(1–2), 33–44. https://doi.org/10.3727/152599508783943228

Rickly, J. M., & Vidon, E. S. (2018). *Authenticity & tourism: materialities, perceptions, experiences,* 1st Edn. Tourism Social Science series, 24, pp. 1–12. Bingly, UK: Emerald Publishing limited.

Rummel, R. J. (1976). *Understanding conflict and war, Vol. I-V*. New York: Halsted Press. CA: Sage Publications book.

Said, J., & Maryono, M. (2018). Motivation and perception of tourists as push and pull factors to visit national park. *E3S Web of Conferences, 31*(1), 08022. https://doi.org/10.1051/e3sconf/20183108022

Seyfi, S., Hall, C. M., & Rasoolimanesh, S. M. (2019). Exploring memorable cultural tourism experiences. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 15*(3), 341–357.

Simons, I. (2019). Events and online interaction: The construction of hybrid event communities. *Leisure Studies, 38*(2), 145–159.

Steiner, C. J., & Reisinger, Y. (2006). Understanding existential authenticity. *Annals of Tourism Research, 33*(2), 299–318. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2005.08.002

Sthapit, E. (2017). Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences: A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown. *Anatolia, 28*(3), 404–421.

Sthapit, E., & Coudounaris, D. N. (2018). Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 18*(1), 72–94. https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2017.1287003

Sun, H., Wu, S., Li, Y., & Dai, G. (2019). Tourist-to-tourist interaction at festivals: A grounded theory approach. *Sustainability, 11*(15), 1–15.

Timothy, D. J., & Teye, V. B. (2009). *Tourism and the lodging sector*. Butterworth Heinemann.

Tov, W., Ng, W., & Soon-Hock, K. (2019). The facets of meaningful experiences: An examination of purpose and coherence in meaningful and meaningless events. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 16*(1), 129–136.

Tsai, C.-T. (2016). Memorable tourist experiences and place attachment when consuming local food. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 18*(6), 536–548.

Tussyadiah, I. P., & Pesonen, J. (2016). Impacts of peer-to-peer accommodation use on travel patterns. *Journal of Travel Research, 55*(8), 1022–1040.

Vilet, J. (2011). *Corporate culture versus. Local culture: The Impact on management and HR.* Accessed on 21 Sep. 20. Available at https://www.tlnt.com/corporate-culture-vs-local-culture-the-impact-on-management-and-hr/

Vovk, I., & Vovk, Y. (2017). Development of family leisure activities in the hotel and restaurant businesses: Psychological and pedagogical aspects of animation activity. *Economics Management and Sustainability, 2*(1), 67–75.

Vuuren, C. V., & Slabbert, E. (2011). Travel motivations and behaviour of tourists to a South African resort. *Book of proceedings* I, 295–304. International conference on tourism & management studies-Algarve 2011.

Wang, N. (1999). Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 26*(2), 349–370.

Warnick, R. B., & Bojanic, D. C. (2010). Purchase decision involvement: event management segments and related event behavior. In C. L. B. Fisher & C. E. Watts, Jr., (eds). *Proceedings of the 2010 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium. Gen. Tech. Rep. NRS-P-94.* Newtown Square, PA: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Northern Research Station: 248–256.

White, E.M., Bowker, J.M., Askew, A.E., Langner, L.L., Arnold, J.R., & English, D. B. K. (2014). Federal outdoor recreation trends: effects on economic opportunities. National Center for Natural Resources Economic Research (NCNRER) Working Paper No 1.

Wilks, L., & Quinn, B. (2016). Linking social capital, cultural capital, and heterotopia at the folk festival. *Journal of Comparative Research in Anthropology and Sociology, 7*(1), 23–39.

Wong, I. A., Wan, Y. K. P., & Qi, S. (2015). Green events, value perceptions, and the role of consumer involvement in festival design and performance. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 23*(2), 294–315.

Yang, L., & Wall, G. (2009). Authenticity in ethnic tourism: Domestic tourists' perspectives. *Current Issues in Tourism, 12*(3), 235–254.

Yeoman, I. (2008). *The Authentic tourist*. Accessed on 16 Dec 2021. Retrieved from https://www.hospitalitynet.org/opinion/4037066.html.

Yu, C.-P., Chang, W.-C., & Ramanpong, J. (2019). Assessing visitors' memorable tourism experiences (MTES) in forest recreation destination: A case study in Xitou nature education area. *Forests, 10*(636), 1–15.

Zgolli, S., & Zaiem, I. (2017). Customer-to-customer interaction in tourism experience: Moderating role of nationality. *Arab Economic and Business Journal, 12*(1), 44–56.

Van Zyl, C. J. (2005). *The role of tourism in the conservation of cultural heritage with particular relevance for South Africa.* Doctoral thesis, University of Stellenbosch.

Turning Cultural and Creative Challenges into Local Development Opportunities

Andreea Claudia Serban, Huseyin Uzunboylu, Gheorghe-Alexandru Stativa, and Ana-Maria Bocaneala

Abstract Under the challenges of globalization, sustainability, digitalization, and other fast changes required by unexpected situations, the need for more sustainable and resilient cities increases. Creative and cultural opportunities in many sectors can be translated into local development by exploiting the potential and openness of many cities and regions around the world and particularly in European Union. This paper focuses on the Cultural and Creative Index as a useful tool to compare cities' performance and to identify recommendations for increasing the capability of cultural and creative favorable context to support local development. It is important to link academic knowledge to sustainable local development by summarizing the key findings of our research. Exploiting the holistic view of the Cultural and Creative Cities Index, we identified three dimensions that need to be considered and explored to make possible the objectives of the EU: building cohesive societies through culture and education and creating a more inclusive Union, supporting innovation, creativity, and sustainable jobs and growth. The three dimensions refer to employment, tourism, and environmental protection. Based on these dimensions, we aim to provide a scheme for turning cultural-creative challenges into opportunities for local development.

Keywords Urban tourism · Cultural-creative cities · Local development

JEL Classifications Z10 · R11

A. C. Serban (✉)
Department of Economics and Economic Policies, Bucharest University of Economic Studies, Bucharest, Romania
e-mail: andreea.serban@economie.ase.ro

H. Uzunboylu
Higher Education Planning, Supervision, Accreditation and Coordination Board, Nicosia, North Cyprus, Turkey

G.-A. Stativa · A.-M. Bocaneala
Bucharest University of Economic Studies, Bucharest, Romania

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_27

1 Introduction

Urban tourism and creative tourism represent new branches of the tourist industry that can be turned into opportunities for local development (Milin et al., 2020). For this reason, these tourism branches can become a social and economic engine for local development. Even if the academicians have not provided a fully accepted definition, there are certain aspects such as interaction, authenticity, or active participation which characterize these new concepts (Karim et al., 2021; Richards, 2011). According to some researchers, creative tourism represents the possibility of developing creative potential by participating in the learning experiences that are the characteristics of the vacation destination (Richards and Raymond, 2000).

In the communication of the European Commission *A New European Agenda for Culture* (COMM, 2018), it is presented how the EU member states will be supported to exploit the potential of culture, stimulate the innovation process, and encourage links between communications to increase Europe's external relations and economic growth. *A New European Agenda for Culture* includes three strategic objectives: the social objective (using cultural diversity to increase welfare and social cohesion), the economic objective (enhancing economic growth and jobs by using innovation and cultural-based creativity in education), and the third is an objective related to increasing the international connections based on culture (increasing and consolidating international cultural relations).

On June 29, 2022, the European Commission published the *Work Plan for Culture 2019–2022* (COMM, 2022), which helps to design the collective strategy of the European Union member states to support the priorities and needs of the cultural and creative sectors. This plan emphasizes long-term priorities, such as the relationship between culture and sustainability, but also digital transformations. In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, new opportunities and challenges have been identified, like the resilience and recovery of the cultural and creative sectors after the pandemic, as well as expanding access to culture and creativity for people with disabilities (Seilkhan et al., 2022). Considering these aspects, it is important to highlight that the tourism sector increases the awareness of aspects related both to cultural heritage and environmental protection (Oyarzo, 2020). Cultural heritage represents a transversal element in achieving certain objectives, such as raising awareness of common values, and promoting and protecting European cultural heritage as a common resource.

Under these circumstances, from an economic point of view, urban tourism and creative cities can be considered efficient tools within the strategies of economic development starting from the local level and continuing with the spillover effects at regional and national levels. Moreover, this type of tourism can be considered one of the main economic engines in the local economy, due to the growth of start-up and spin-off companies (Belmerabet, 2021; Dzupka & Sebova, 2016).

European Union developed a tool, the Creative Cities Monitor (COMM, 2017, 2019) useful to assess the local opportunities and compare cities with similar conditions. Providing an expanded analysis from 2017 (the first report) to 2019 (the second one), the EU developed a Cultural-Creative Cities Index (C3), which is the main tool for reducing the gap between cities, as it provides the extensive necessary information for studying and comparing cities from the point of view of creative and cultural aspects.

To carry out our study, data from the last version of the Cultural and Creative Cities Index (C3) were used, which is a complementary tool of the Cultural and Creative Cities Monitor. This index presents synthetically the cultural and creative performance of the cities: the higher the value the city registers, the more it excels (Montalto et al., 2019).

Our objective starts from the common understanding, stressed also by OECD (OECD, 2008) that using composite indexes became a common practice as they represent a useful tool in policy analysis, strategies, and also in public communication. Under these circumstances, we aim to provide a scheme for turning cultural-creative challenges into opportunities for local development.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: the next part presents a brief literature review of the main concept used in our paper (the cultural and creative sector, creative and urban tourism, and local development), then we will present the methodology and the results, and in the last section, we will design a scheme of our proposed generalization for turning challenges into opportunities al local level considering the creative and cultural aspects.

2 Literature Review

A. Local development

Local development is a dynamic process that requires the engagement and mobilization of all economic and social actors for the well-being of the citizens of a well-defined territory.

Local development relies on the ability to create and maintain complementary relationships of various kinds (productive complementarities, complementarities between supply and demand, and demand complementarities) (Gaffard, 2005). The existence of these complementarities of demand/supply is an important factor in maintaining interregional balances and, consequently, in local development. Local development cannot exist without good management of local authorities or the existence of a political desire. This approach requires a holistic integration of economic, social, cultural, and political components. Local development involves local dynamism dependent not so much on the structures as on the actors (Violier, 1999).

The local development is based on the social and economic appropriation of territory and on the collective identity that helps to create it. The community of interest through its actors often takes the form of a collective will to carry out local development projects (Kahn, 2010). There are not exclusively economic development projects, but economic prosperity is their objective. In the sphere of tourism, the relationships that are developed between the actors themselves on the one hand,

and between the actors and the region characteristics on the other, are based on economic interests. The dynamics of tourism are based on several characteristics, a patchwork of situations involving all forms of tourism and all the actors. Thus, local development implies the interconnection of actors and the implementation of a sustainable development strategy (Karim et al., 2018). The culture is involved in every step of the implementation of a local development project. The sense of the cultural dimension can be improved by accepting that not only cultural industries and regional cultures are important, but also local development has a strong cultural dimension.

Local development involves channeling the resources mobilized (traditions, heritage, language, etc.) and orienting them with priority toward a specific development objective (industrial sector, tourism, cooperation, etc.). In this context, each territory/city needs to be led to carry out a preliminary diagnosis of public policies, to better understand its profile (strengths and weaknesses), identify its opportunities, and establish a demographic profile of the population (young/old, sedentary/mobile, skilled/unskilled), a profile in terms of economic indicators (e.g., GDP, unemployment). The local development of cities can be defined as the result of a permanent dialogue between economy and culture.

In this volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (VUCA) times of crisis, the local development appears to be a desperate effort of the most responsible part of the "survivors" to stop this fall and, if possible, to go back up the road (Gontcharoff, 2002).

B. Creative and urban tourism

Creative tourism facilitates development by making the most of what is local, promoting the Creative Economy, and by not limiting culture to the act of consuming products (Carlos A. Máximo Pimenta, 2020). Creative tourism can be a tool to promote local development, highlighting the role of creativity of a community in generating income, and obtaining benefits from local resources, both tangible and intangible. This type of tourism tends to contrast with more conventional/traditional tourism, both in terms of the role of local stakeholders and of the tourist experience, which explains its potential as a promoter of local development. Creative tourism creates direct links with tangible and intangible cultural factors by engaging and involving local development agents—public and private—in the development and implementation of cultural policies that attract creative tourists.

Creative tourism allows the involvement of other forms of organizational policy that favor consumer-oriented practices focused on community, sustainability, cooperation, trust, security, exchange, tradition, a sense of belonging, co-participation, sharing, and co-creation. The relationship between creative tourism and economic development implies a commitment to creating a different social, cultural, environmental, and local organizational framework.

The urban environment is a complex and multifunctional space, the place of its social dynamics and phenomena (Balazs & Zoltan, 2021; Tehdit, 2021). The inclusion of tourist activity in these spaces has increased this complexity by integrating new actors: the tourists. The urban space has become one of the favorite spaces for tourists.

The phenomenon of urban tourism has developed in Europe along with increased mobility and, in particular, the emergence of low-cost flights. Increased mobility has contributed to the awareness of the attractiveness of Europe's major cities. Until the crisis of the nineteenth century, city breaks (short breaks) were the symbol of urban tourism consumption. The higher accessibility of tourism has contributed to changing the morphology of cities, which have become leisure areas in search of attractiveness. Thus, the boundaries between tourism and leisure seem to be increasingly permeable, and the inhabitant seeking a break from everyday life is engaging now in practices similar to the tourist practices of a foreign tourist. However, due to the multitude of tourist and leisure offers and the multifunctionality of their spaces, metropolises are places for endogenous tourism and a change in the local landscape. The city has become a real strategic place, a place of decision-making, a place where wealth and power are concentrated; with shifting borders and growing attractiveness because currently, we are watching an urbanization phenomenon on a global scale (Coquet, 2021).

Cultural and creative industries contribute positively to the prosperity and economic well-being of states. These industries support social components regarding the development of local communities. Cultural and creative industries have a significant impact on job creation and export revenues, as they generate income. Moreover, these industries stimulate innovation and the supply of ideas through various business connections (OECD, 2020).

The development of tourism activity represents an incredible challenge for the major metropolises: it creates jobs, generates consumption and foreign exchange in the host area and territory, showcasing the city's dynamism on the national and international scene.

3 Methodology

The Cultural and Creative Cities Monitor (C3) provides a detailed and comprehensive source of information on different types of cultural cities of cultural and creative relevance. It is also an efficient instrument for mapping creative tourism (Mareque, 2021). Furthermore, the C3 Monitor provides a transparent measurement framework that can establish different relationships between variables that can be of great interest to researchers, policymakers, creative workers, investors, creative travelers, and entrepreneurs, who can find insightful details about city improvement, new business initiatives, and opportunities.

We used data from Eurostat (2022), Official Statistics of the European Union, and the Cultural and Creative Cities Monitor, 2019 edition (Coin, 2019). The C3 Index is a composite indicator, it is a set of twenty-nine indicators, nine dimensions, and three sub-indices that represent the main aspects of the cities' cultural, social, and economic vitality: "Cultural Vibrancy" (40%), "Creative Economy" (40%), and "Enabling Environment" (20%). This indicator measures cultural and creative performance in 190 cities in 30 European countries: EU countries, Norway, the UK, and

Table 1 C3 index components

C3 Index	D1 cultural vibrancy	D1.1 Cultural venues and facilities
		D1.2 Cultural participation and attractiveness
	D2 Creative economy	D2.1 Creative and knowledge-based jobs
		D2.2 Intellectual property and innovation
		D2.3 New jobs in creative sectors
	D3 Enabling environment	D3.1 Human capital and education
		D3.2 Openness, tolerance, and trust
		D3.3 Local and international connections
		D3.4 Quality of governance

Source Authors' own based on the cultural and creative cities monitor: 2019 edition

Switzerland. This index is developed by the internal research center of the European Commission, the European Commission's Competence Centre on Composite Indicators and Scoreboards (CC-COIN). A weighted average of the scores of the three sub-indices provides the overall measure of the city's cultural and creative performance: the higher the score, the higher the city's performance. Table 1 describes the theoretical component of the C3 indicator.

We narrowed the analysis of creative and cultural cities to the extra-large (XXL) group (in terms of a number of inhabitants) as included and defined in the Cultural and Creative Cities Monitor (more than 1 million inhabitants). To achieve our objective, we have evaluated local development using the GDP per capita, our own calculation using data from Eurostat (GDP at current market prices in million euro and average annual population in thousands of persons).

In line with our objective, we used a multilevel approach. We have analyzed the cities in XXL in terms of local development and the C3 index, to identify the cities with the best and low performance, to identify factors of good results, and to recognize the challenges for cultural and creative sectors that could endanger the local development, to find a way to turn them into opportunities.

4 Results and Discussions

The C3 indicators rank cities according to the demographic level in 5 groups considering the number of inhabitants. In our study, we focus on the classification of cities included in the XXL cluster and in particular on the analysis of Bucharest.

The XXL cluster is included 20 cities, 18 from the EU (Paris, München, Milano, Berlin, Wien, Budapest, Prague, Barcelona, Hamburg, Madrid, Warsaw, Köln, Roma, Lyon, Bruxelles, Bucharest, Rotterdam, and Sofia) and 2 from UK (Birmingham and London). Figure 1 presents the C3 index of the EU cities from XXL and GDP/capita. The median value for the C3 index for the whole group is 24.12 and for GDP/capita

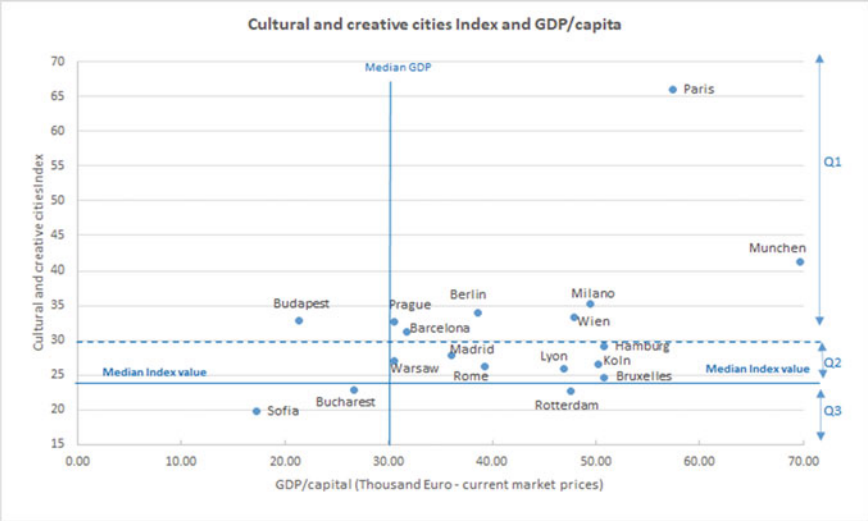


Fig. 1 Cultural and creative cities Index and GDP/capita in XXL cities cluste. *Source* Authors' own based on the cultural and creative cities monitor: 2019 edition

is 30 thousand euro/capita according to the monitor (for all 190 cities). We have used these values to position the EU XXL cities to easily identify good practices model for cities with low performance both in terms of GDP and Cultural and Creative Index.

From the group of 18 cities, Paris ranked 1st in terms of C3 index value (66) and München ranked 1st in terms of GDP value (69.70 thousand Euro/capita). Both have good performances in linking local development and cultural and creative industries. Moreover, 83% of the cities in cluster EU XXL cluster (15 cities) have values higher than the median for the C3 index. The 3 cities with values below the median are Bucharest, Sofia, and Rotterdam. Bucharest and Sofia have also low performance in terms of GDP/capita which means that there is a high need of finding opportunities in cultural and creative sectors to support local development.

It is interesting to analyze the cities in the first quartile in terms of the C3 index, having GDP/capita above the median value. For Berlin, for example, the high value of the C3 index (the 4th) is supported by the high value of the dimension D3.3. Local and international connections indicator (the 2nd place after Paris). This dimension refers to connections via air, rail, and road links, and it is considered decisive for cultural and creative sectors through its capacity to enable the flows of investments, tourists, and ideas (COMM, 2019). Berlin's transport infrastructure is very complex, providing a diverse range of inter and intra-urban mobility. The Berlin highest values are recorded for dimension C1.2. Cultural participation and attractiveness. This dimension refers to the capacity of the cities to attract audiences to participate in their cultural life (not only local but also national or international). Cultural participation is the most significant outcome of the city's engagement in promoting culture and encouraging creativeness. Berlin is a popular location for international film productions, and also the city is known for its festivals, diverse architecture, and contemporary arts.

The cities with low economic performance in terms of GDP per capita below the median value of the 190 cities group are from Eastern EU: Sofia, Budapest, and Bucharest. They need to value better the opportunities in all domains, including cultural and creative sectors, to create jobs, and use knowledge and innovation potential.

Figure 2 presents the Cultural Vibrancy domain for all 20 cities in the XXL cluster. The cities that can be found in the 3rd quartile C3 index value are Bucharest (20th place for cultural venues and facilities and 19th place for cultural participation), Rotterdam (19th place for cultural venues and facilities and 6th place for cultural participation), Sofia (18th place in cultural venues and facilities and 20th place in cultural participation) and from the UK—Birmingham (place 17th in cultural venues and facilities and cultural participation). On the opposite side, the cities that are in the 1st quartile index value are Paris (1st place in cultural venues and facilities), München, London, Milan, Berlin, Vienna, Budapest, Prague, and Barcelona. These cities are also very well ranked in the C3 index hierarchy. Lower performances compared to the other cities from the first quartile has Budapest, both in terms of cultural facilities and participation.

Figure 3 shows the Creative Economy subcomponent/domain. Paris has the highest value of the index for this domain, being ranked first in dimension D2.1. Creative and knowledge-based jobs and the second in D2.2. Intellectual property and innovation and D2.3. New jobs in creative sectors. The cities in the 3rd quartile of the C3 index have also low performance in Creative Economy, mostly in D2.2. Intellectual property and innovation (where Bucharest has the lowest performance in

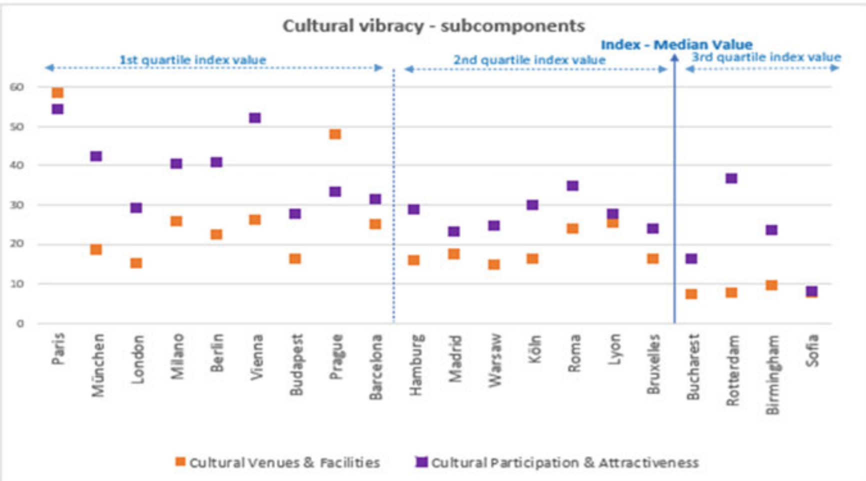


Fig. 2 Cultural vibrancy—subcomponents in XXL cluster. *Source* Authors' own based on the cultural and creative cities monitor: 2019 edition

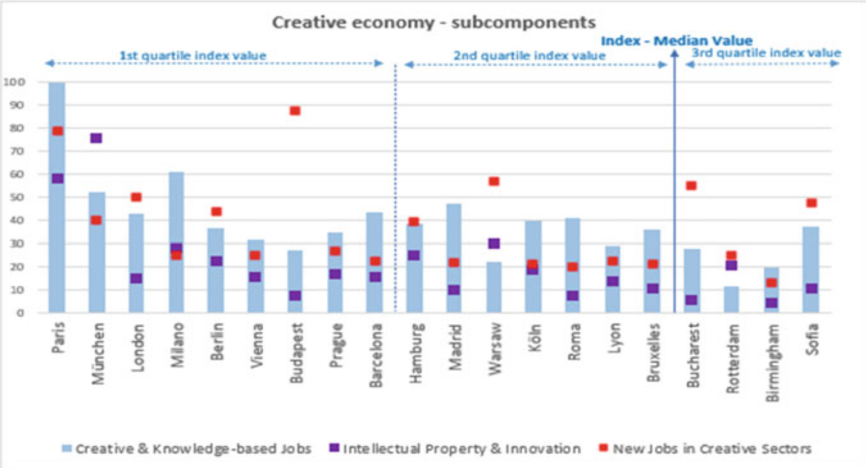


Fig. 3 Creative economy—subcomponents in XXL cities cluster. *Source* Authors' own based on the cultural and creative cities monitor: 2019 edition

EU XXL cities). The innovation potential is highly connected with economic growth and economic development at all levels: national, regional, and local. In supporting this statement, we use the Budapest example, a city with very low performance in terms of intellectual property and innovation, the second low in the EU XXL cities. Even though it has an overall high C3 index, the economic performance is low (GDP/capita). Moreover, all the 3 cities with economic performances below the median value of the group (190 cities): Budapest, Bucharest, and Sofia have good ranking positions in terms of the new jobs in creative sectors, but these jobs are not requiring highly qualified workers, innovation, knowledge, enrollment on the trajectory of digital transformation and as result, their potential to contribute to local development is reduced.

Figure 4 shows the Enabling Environment subcomponent. For the cities ranked in the 3rd quartile of the C3 index, we found low performances in dimensions D3.1. Human capital and education and for D3.3. Local and international connections. The dimension D3.1. refers to higher education system quality in terms of university ranking and number of graduates in art, humanities, and ICT sector. These aspects can build a strong capacity of the cities or countries to have short but also long-term economic development potential which is why improvements are needed at this stage to ensure the resilience, flexibility, and resources for future economic development.

Further, we will discuss the strengths and weaknesses of Bucharest, the only Romanian city from the XXL cluster. In Romania, 5 cities are part of the Cultural-Creative Cities Monitor: Bucharest XXL cluster, Cluj-Napoca, Iasi and Timisoara—L cluster, and Sibiu and Baia Mare—M cluster). We chose Bucharest as it is close to the median value both for the C3 index and for GDP/capita, and based on linking its performances to the well-ranked cities we can identify a strategic path

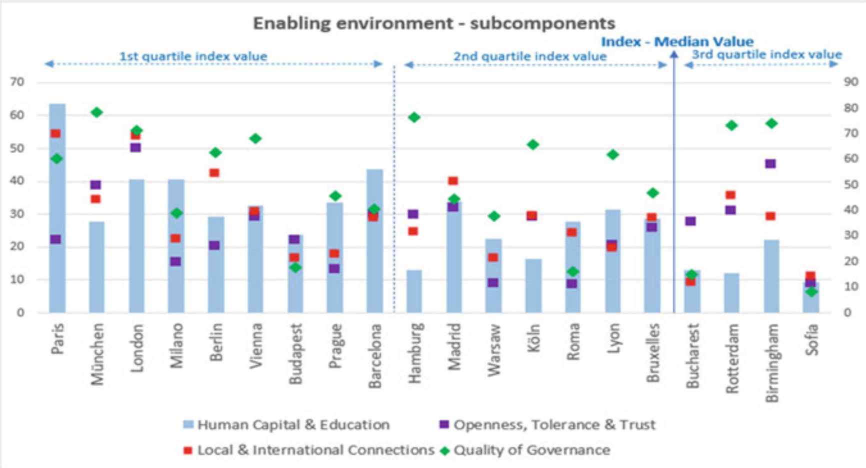


Fig. 4 Enabling environment—subcomponents in XXL cities cluster. *Source* Authors' own based on the cultural and creative cities monitor: 2019 edition

for turning cultural and creative challenges/facts into opportunities for local development. Bucharest is the capital of Romania as well as its cultural, industrial, and financial center. Economically, it is the most prosperous Romanian city.

The city's cultural strategy was adopted in August 2016. It covers the period 2016–2026. It has six long-term objectives: embodying culture for sustainable urban development, ensuring access for the participation of all to culture, establishing Bucharest as an attractive cultural capital, bringing culture to the entrepreneurship from the margins to the center, communicating Bucharest as a connective city, and increasing the capacity of the cultural sector (European Capital of Culture 2021 in Romania Final Selection Report, 2016).

Bucharest ranks 16th (within the group of 18 EU XXL cities or 17th within the group of 20 cities) in the Creative and Cultural Cities Monitor Index hierarchy with an index of 22.8. The maximum value of the C3 index is 66 (Paris) and the average value is 31.07. As Fig. 1 shows, Bucharest has values below the median both for the C3 index and for the GDP/capita.

The three major facets of the cultural, social, and economic vitality of cities related to indicator C3 are Cultural Vibrancy (D1) which measures a city's cultural "pulse" in terms of cultural infrastructure and cultural participation; Creative Economy (D2) which captures how the cultural and creative sectors contribute to a city's employment, job creation and innovation capacity; Enabling Environment (D3) identifies tangible and intangible assets that help cities attract creative talent and foster cultural engagement (COMM, 2019).

As Fig. 5 shows, the value for the D1 (Cultural Vibrancy) is 11.9 (the 17th position in EU XXL cities), while the highest value is 56.5 (Paris). For both components of this facet, D1.1. cultural venues and facilities and D1.2. cultural participation and

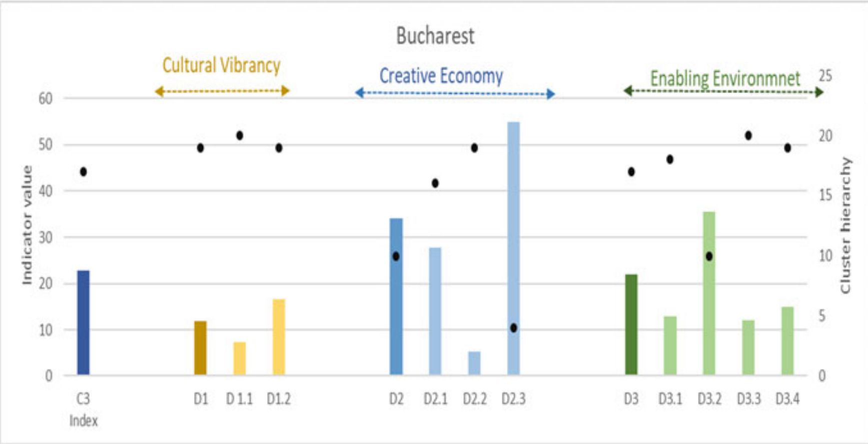


Fig. 5 Bucharest—the C3 index, by components. *Source* Authors' own based on the cultural and creative cities monitor: 2019 edition

attractiveness, Bucharest has low performance. It needs improvements to increase the attractiveness of cultural sites and to make better use of the facilities and venues.

In the Creativity Economy (D2 domain), Bucharest has a net advantage for the dimension D2.3. new jobs in creative sectors. This could turn into an opportunity if it will be successfully exploited with a performant education system, effective innovation applications, digital transformation of the economy, etc. Dimension 2.3. is a proxy of how well a city can translate creative and innovative ideas into new jobs? This is measured in terms of jobs in newly created enterprises in the creative and knowledge-intensive sectors, as listed in Dimension 2.1.

For dimension D3 Enabling Environment, the value is 22, Bucharest ranking 15th of 18 cities. Improvements are urgently needed in the dimensions Dimension 3.1. human capital and education (3rd lower performance), Dimension 3.3. local and international connections measure (lowest performance), and D 3.4. quality of governance (2nd lower performance). Education and quality of national/international transportation infrastructure accessibility are very important for increasing the local development potential, attracting investors, and tourists, and for developing innovation potential (Mekhael & Karameh, 2018; Oyarzo, 2020).

5 Conclusion

Under the challenges of globalization, sustainability, digitalization, and other fast change required by unexpected situations, the need for more sustainable and resilient cities increases. Creative and cultural opportunities in many sectors can be translated into local development by exploiting the potential and openness of many cities and regions around the world and particularly in the European Union.

Our paper focuses on the Cultural and Creative Index as a useful tool to compare the cities' performance and to identify recommendations for increasing the capability of cultural and creative favorable context to support local development. It is important to link academic knowledge to sustainable local development by summarizing the key findings of our research.

We should highlight the resources needed and used by the creative and cultural sectors, including human capital, cultural venues, and innovation to add value and contribute to local development. The local development is not new but a constantly expanding challenge to focus, use, and reinterpret the new opportunities. Exploiting the holistic view of the Cultural and Creative Cities Index, and based on learning and knowledge, we identified three dimensions that need to be considered and explored to make possible the objectives stated by the *New European Agenda for Culture* and the *EU Work Plan for Culture 2019–2022*: building cohesive societies through culture and education and creating a more inclusive Union, supporting innovation, creativity, and sustainable jobs and growth.

Based on our analysis, we consider that cultural and creative sector can contribute to cohesion and increased local development, through three dimensions: employment, tourism, and environment protection (Fig. 6). We focused on exploiting human and natural resources, considering the objective of a more sustainable environment.

We considered employment as the first component of our proposed generalization for turning cultural-creative challenges into local development opportunities. *Employment* refers to skills, education, and innovation. The current need for digital transformation in the information and communication technologies (ICT) society should be supported by education and adequate skills delivery. The number of graduates in the ICT sectors is of high importance in supporting a more resilient and inclusive society. Increasing the number of foreign graduates, other included in the C3 index, is also a very important aspect that contributes not only to more cultural

Fig. 6 Proposed generalization for turning cultural-creative challenges into local development opportunities. *Source* Authors' own contribution

cities but also to the rebalance of the demographic aging. Innovation is another critical aspect of local development as it supports activities in higher competitiveness and value-added sectors. Under new current and needed skills, employment can be used as a virtuous circle of local development. Our analysis showed that cities with low economic performance, in terms of GDP/capital, had low performance in innovation and also in human capital, and education.

The second component of our proposed scheme, also closely linked to creative and cultural opportunities, is **tourism**. Our analysis showed that cities with low economic performances in terms of GDP/capita had also low performances in terms of cultural venues and facilities and also in local or international connections. Cultural tourism is a new and increasing branch of the tourism sector, but it needs a strategy for a more flexible and generalized approach. Under these circumstances, we consider that enabling the tourism sector by supporting cultural venues and facilities should be on the authority's agenda in the future. Low performance under these issues does not mean that there are no opportunities, but these are not exploited to create value through adequate infrastructure (accessibility by road, rail, and flights) and highly touristic attractiveness.

The third component of our scheme is the **environment**. This component cannot be excluded from any development strategy. Sustainability is the cornerstone for future societies, and it should be targeted in all development models. Through education, innovation, and knowledge, sustainable local development will successfully contribute to the future cohesion of our societies. Exploiting cultural venues and facilities by the tourism sector could interact with the environment by increasing pollution (transportation, more trashes on the environment, consumers of scarce resources) and strain on resources (e.g., electricity, water, etc.). The second and third components of our scheme are closely linked, as tourism could increase the awareness of the environment and cultural heritage issues.

The limitation of our research was related to data availability of more variables that can be used to analyze the local development (e.g., unemployment by educational attainment, value added by economic sectors at the city level, etc.). We overpassed this limitation, by highly exploiting the components of the C3 index (it comprises 29 indicators).

Authors' Contributions Andreea Claudia Serban and Huseyin Uzunboylu carried out the abstract, the objectives of the paper, and the Conclusions, and they designed the figures. Alexandru Gherghe Stativa and Ana Maria Bocaneala carried out the Introduction, the Literature Review, and the Methodology sections. All authors contributed to the Results and Discussion section. Andreea Serban participated in the design and coordination of the manuscript and helped to draft it. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

References

Balazs L. & Zoltan P. (2021). Review of economic growth patterns and regional disparities in Central and Eastern European countries. *International Journal of Current Innovations in Interdisciplinary Scientific Studies. 5*(2), 13–27. https://un-pub.eu/ojs/index.php/IJ-CISS/article/view/5682.

Belmerabet, F. (2021). Thematic implications and representativeness in Wuthering Heights (1848): Dialect as a social reality. *International Journal of New Trends in Social Sciences*, *5*(1), 16–27. https://doi.org/10.18844/ijntss.v5i1.5499.

Carlos A. & Máximo Pimenta, J. C. (2020). Creative tourism and regional development: a survey of the. 27th apdr congress sustainable management of the sea for sustainable regional development, (pp. 163). https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042812054663.

Coin (2019). Cultural and creative cities monitor data. The European commission's competence centre on composite indicators and scoreboards (CC-COIN). https://composite-indicators.jrc.ec.europa.eu/cultural-creative-cities-monitor/performance-map.

COMM (2017). The cultural and creative cities monitor, 2017 ed. European Commission, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. https://www.ecsite.eu/sites/default/files/kj0217787enn.pdf

COMM (2018). A new european agenda for culture. European Commision, SWD (2018) 167 final, Brussels, 22.5.2018. https://culture.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2020-08/swd-2018-167-new european-agenda-for-culture_en.pdf

COMM (2019). The cultural and creative cities monitor, 2019 Edn. European Commission, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2019. https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/bitstream/JRC117336/citiesmonitor_2019.pdf.

COMM (2022). Work plan for culture 2019–2022. *Official Journal of the European Union*, C 460/12. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-ontent/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52018XG1221(01)

Coquet, R. (2021). Le tourisme urbain, l'inscription de l'habitant, dans la dynamique touristique de proximité. Retrived from https://dante.univtlse2.fr/access/files/original/359693b8c88265866b589300c21fb1a93283df86.pdf

Dzupka, P., & Sebova, M. (2016). Local economic impact of the WHITE night festival in Kosice. *E+M Ekonomie a Management*, *19*(2), 132. https://search.proquest.com/openview/038d0b59877ceff3151fbe4d41c149a5/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=39163

EUROSTAT (2022). The statistical office of the European Union. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/main/data/database

Gaffard, J. L. (2005). Développement local et globalisation. revue de l'OFCE, (pp.17–44).

Gontcharoff, G. (2002). Développement local: petite généalogie. Territoires.

Kahn, R. (2010). La dimension culturelle du développement territorial. *Revue d'économie régionale et urbaine*, *2010*, 625. https://tinyurl.com/5fkdh264

Karim, B., Seksembaevich, M. M., Suyuberdieva, A., Maulenberdieva, G., Kudaibergenova, M., Baybolat, L., & Ibrayeva, K. (2021). Painting education of Kazakh mythology. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, *16*(4), 1956–1975. https://doi.org/10.18844/cjes.v16i4.6064

Karim, S., Sandu, N., & Gide, E. (2018). The economic benefits of Cloud-based e-commerce in Indian service SMBs. *Global Journal of Information Technology: Emerging Technologies*, *8*(2), 75–85. https://doi.org/10.18844/gjit.v8i2.3529

Mekhael, E., & Karameh, J. (2018). Measuring grade 10 students' knowledge, skills, and attitudes of sustainable development. *International Journal of Learning and Teaching*, *10*(3), 269–291. https://doi.org/10.18844/ijlt.v10i3.1032

Mercedes Mareque, E. d.-D. (2021). Exploring creative tourism based on the cultural and creative. *Sustainability*. https://www.mdpi.com/2071-1050/13/9/5145/htm

Milin, I.A., Merce, I., Iancu, T., Pet, E., & Tigan, E. (2020). Tourism contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross Value Added (GVA). *Global Journal of Business, Economics, and Management: Current Issues*, *10*(3), 176–182. https://doi.org/10.18844/gjbem.v10i3.4686

Montalto, V., Moura, C. J. T., Langedijk, S., & Saisana, M. (2019). Culture counts: An empirical approach to measure the cultural and creative vitality of European cities. *Cities*, *89*, 167–185. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0264275118303640

OECD (2008). Handbook on constructing composite indicators, methodology and user guide. Paris: OECD Publications. https://www.oecd.org/sdd/42495745.pdf

OECD (2020). Culture shock: COVID-19 and the cultural and creative sectors. Paris: OECD Publications. Available online https://read.oecd-ilibrary.org/view/?ref=135_135961-nenh9f2w7a&title=Culture-shock-COVID-19-and-the-cultural-and-creativesectors&_ga=2.120109835.2059683614.1626271791-1169709466.1626271791

Oyarzo, F. (2020). The cultural improvement theory and the social sciences' intellectual crisis. *New Trends and Issues Proceedings on Humanities and Social Sciences*, *7*(3), 01–12. https://doi.org/10.18844/prosoc.v7i3.5226

Richards, G. (2011). Creativity and tourism: The state of the art. Ann. Tour. Res. (pp. 1225–1253).

Richards, G., & Raymond, C. (2000). *Creative Tourism. ATLAS News, 2000*(23), 16–20.

Seilkhan, A., Abdrassulova, Z., Erkaebaeva, M., Soltan, R., Makhambetov, M., & Ydyrys, A. (2022). Problems of distance education in Kazakhstan during the COVID-19 pandemic. *World Journal on Educational Technology: Current Issues*, *14*(2), 380–389. https://doi.org/10.18844/wjet.v14i2.6913

Tehdit, H. (2021). Investigation of the cognitive, psychomotor, and social-emotional progress in primary schools by directors' ideas. *International Journal of Innovative Research in Education*, *8*(1), 12–26. https://doi.org/10.18844/ijire.v8i1.5537

Violier, P. (1999). Le Pays entre institution et développement local.

Much More Than a Museum: Motivations and Experiences of Young Visitors at Urban Cultural Clusters

Daria V. Kondrateva, Alexander M. Pakhalov, and Natalia A. Rozhkova

Abstract Statistics show that members of Generation Z (Gen Zers) are less interested in visiting "classic" museums than other age groups. At the same time, young visitors show a noticeable interest in contemporary art and prefer more collaborative formats of interaction with art and culture. Urban cultural clusters (art clusters) and cultural centers could be alternative attractions of potential interest to Gen Zers. Our study aims to identify factors that influence the motivations and the experiences of young visitors at urban cultural clusters and centers. Despite the presence of studies focused on these attractions, researchers have so far paid little attention to the experience of their visitors. We fill this gap with primary data obtained from a series of semi-structured interviews and a survey of young visitors at urban cultural clusters and centers in Moscow, which is well known for a number of such attractions. Based on the collected data, we test several hypotheses using factor and regression analysis. In particular, based on survey data, we measure the role of various factors that bring visitors to an attraction and the features of their visitor experience. Our results show that for Gen Zers information from social media is a key factor in shaping the initial intention to visit a cultural cluster or center. In turn, satisfaction and revisit intention increase if an attraction provides young visitors with more interactive and immersive experiences. Our findings confirm the earlier observation that young generation members want to be not just visitors but co-creators of cultural attractions.

Keywords Cultural clusters · Cultural centers · Visitor experiences · Visitor motivations

JEL Classifications M31 · L83 · Z11 · Z33

D. V. Kondrateva · A. M. Pakhalov (✉) · N. A. Rozhkova
Lomonosov Moscow State University, Moscow, Russia
e-mail: pakhalov@gmail.com

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_28

1 Introduction

According to statistics from a number of European countries, representatives of generation Z (Gen Zers) are less interested in visiting "classical" museums than other age groups. In particular, according to the UK National Statistics Office for 2019–2020. The proportion of people aged 16–24 who visited museums at least once during the year was 45%, which is at least 9% points lower than the same indicator in other age groups (Allen & Rice, 2020). Recent study from Poland shows that more than 80% of surveyed Gen Zers visits art museums rarely, very rarely, or not at all (Kisiel, 2021). At the same time, representatives of generation Z show a noticeable interest in contemporary art (Illeris, 2005). In addition, the younger generation prefers more interactive formats of interaction with art and culture, involving a transition from passive observation to active participation (Nofal et al., 2020).

Urban cultural clusters (art clusters) and cultural centers could be perspective alternative attractions for Gen Zers (Engqvist & Möntmann, 2018). Such attractions include galleries, exhibition halls, workshops, stores, cafes, cinemas, educational sites, and other elements that are located close to each other and linked by a common concept (Kim, 2007; Mommaas, 2004). Examples of such attractions in Europe include *Westergasfabriek* in Amsterdam, *Löwenbräu-Areals* in Zurich, *Technopolis/Gazi* area in Athens, and many others.

In Moscow, since the mid-2000s, thanks to the activity of the art community and the support of large business groups (Kuleva, 2020; Milam, 2013), a number of such attractions have appeared. Most of them position themselves precisely as "urban art clusters" or "city cultural centers". These cluster and centers include, for example, such attractions as *GES-2, Artplay, Flacon, Winzavod, Hlebozavod 9, and Red October*.

Despite the fact that art clusters and cultural centers differ significantly from traditional cultural institutions (such as museums or galleries), no research has yet been published that study these attractions in terms of the motivations that bring visitors there and the experiences visitors get there.

This study aims to identify factors that influence the motivations and the experiences of young visitors at urban cultural clusters and centers. We believe that understanding of this experience can be valuable both for academics and various professionals including urban policy makers, clusters' residents, and managers.

2 Literature Review

In this study, we define urban cultural (art) cluster as a specific form of attraction consisting of a set of independent but interconnected cultural facilities (such as galleries or small museums) and infrastructure facilities (such as cafes or shops) located within the same city area. This definition is based on basic features of such clusters described in the earlier papers (Kim, 2007; Mommaas, 2004).

Urban cultural centers are similar attractions, however, suggesting a closer connection between objects on their territory (including a possibility of their management by a single owner). Within the framework of the empirical part of this study, the terms "urban art cluster" and "urban cultural center" will be used as synonyms, which is due to the difficulty of their differentiation by the respondents.[1]

Most of the previously published work on art clusters and urban cultural centers either focused on various aspects of cluster creation and intra-cluster interaction (Hitters & Richards, 2002; Zarlenga et al., 2016) or studied these attractions from an urban development perspective (Kim, 2007; McCarthy, 2006). Recent systematic review of papers focused on cultural and creative clusters (Chapain & Sagot-Duvauroux, 2020) and showed that research on clusters more often focuses on the supply side (cluster members or residents) than on the demand side (cluster visitors or guests). Empirical studies exploring the motives and impressions of visitors to such attractions have not yet been published.

In the absence of earlier empirical evidence on the experience of visitors (and particularly young visitors) to urban art clusters and cultural centers, we decided to conduct a comprehensive study in which the quantitative part is preceded by the qualitative one. Both parts of the study are built around three key research questions (RQ):

RQ1. What brings young visitors (Gen Zers) to urban art clusters and cultural centers?

RQ2. What factors shape the positive and negative experiences of young visitors (Gen Zers) to urban art clusters and cultural centers?

RQ3. What factors influence the intention of young people (Gen Zers) to revisit urban art clusters and cultural centers?

3 Qualitative Study

The qualitative part of our research includes a series of semi-structured interviews followed by content analysis in the QDA Miner package. Sixteen respondents aged 18–25 years old took part in the interview.[2] Invitations to participate in the interview were sent to users who had written a review on social networks about visiting the GES-2 Cultural Center[3] with a geolocation mark. During the interview, the respondents

[1] Moreover, these difficulties are associated with the self-identification of attractions. For example, the Moscow "Winzavod", which is certainly an art cluster from a theoretical point of view, positions itself as a "center for contemporary art".

[2] We chose the age range of 18–25 for qualitative and quantitative research for two reasons. On the one hand, 25 years is the upper limit of generation Z according to a common classification (Dimock, 2019). On the other hand, 18 years is the legal age of majority in Russia, which makes it possible to involve respondents over 18 years of age in the study without obtaining the consent of their parents.

[3] This cultural center was chosen for quantitative analysis due to its extremely high popularity among young visitors in early 2022. All interviews were completed before the cessation of exhibition activities at GES-2 due to the military and geopolitical crisis.

were asked questions about their reasons for visiting GES-2 and their impressions of the visit. As part of the content analysis, the visitors' statements were assigned codes, the frequency of which is presented in Table 1.

The interview participants named recommendations on social networks, publications of their friends or acquaintances on social media, as well as publications on lifestyle online media as the main reasons for visiting the GES-2. When describing the criteria for choosing a place to visit, 11 out of 16 respondents identified transport accessibility (proximity to the center or proximity to a metro station within Moscow). Eleven out of 16 respondents named the cultural center's website as a source of information used in the preparation and planning of the visit, since there it is possible to register for entry and for an event (master class, lecture), read the posters of ongoing events, study the history of the location, and find information about the concept of the exhibition. The website was mentioned as both a source of preparation for the first visit and for a revisit. Five out of 16 respondents also visited the profile of the GES-2 in social media in order to carry out an initial review of the location and a visual acquaintance with the exhibits.

As factors that caused positive impressions, six out of 16 respondents singled out a library with unusual rare books, which is also used as a co-working area, seven out of 16 respondents mentioned a book and gift shop where you can browse books and buy vintage and rare editions books and magazines. The majority of respondents (14 out of 16) noted the importance of the social aspect of the experience: visiting such places enriches their relationship with friends/acquaintances, as new topics for discussion and the opportunity to reveal a familiar person from a new side appear. Respondents positively perceived the architecture and design of the location. The beauty of the building was noted even by those respondents who, in general, were not too pleased with the visit. Many respondents singled out the musical installation, in which musicians from different parts of the world synchronously played a common melody. In general, the respondents positively perceived the use of new technologies.

Speaking about their attitude to the main exposition, the respondents were divided in their opinions: Five respondents expressed a positive attitude toward the exposition, they liked the presentation of the exhibits, their originality, they responded to the problems that were raised in the exposition; eleven out of 16 respondents expressed an ambivalent attitude toward the exposition: The exposition was either not fully understood and uninteresting for them or simply ridiculous, meaningless, and made in haste.

The main factors that had a negative impact on the respondents' impressions were problems with navigation through the building and through the exposition: Six out of 16 respondents mentioned that due to the unusual layout and the lack of signs, respondents often could not understand how to move forward according to the exposure. At the same time, seven out of 16 respondents reported that they did not receive proper support from the staff in case of difficulties with navigation. Nevertheless, one of the interview participants noted that she had been provided with the first-class service at the information desk. Some respondents also noted the lack of interactive activities, and they expected something more interactive. Six out of 16

Table 1 Codes used in the content analysis of the interviews with the visitors to the GES-2

Code name	Occurrence in the conducted interviews (out of 16)
Reason for the first visit	
Location	11
Publications on social media	8
Publications/stories of friends/acquaintances	7
Publications in urban lifestyle media	7
Watching the reconstruction process during walk	6
Sources of information for the first visit	
Cultural center website	11
Accounts of the cultural center in social networks	5
Factors that shaped positive experiences	
New topic for discussion with friends/acquaintances	14
Modern interesting space	12
Book and gift shop	7
Feeling of falling into another reality	7
Library	6
Observation of the filming process	5
Café	5
Music installation	5
Exposure	5
Good place for a photoshoot	5
Factors that shaped negative experiences	
Unclear exposure concept	8
Lack of staff support	7
Incomplete usage of space	7
Lack of explanatory information	7
Pre-registration required	6
Difficulties with navigation in the building and in the exposition	6
Lack of interactive events/exhibits	5

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Code name	Occurrence in the conducted interviews (out of 16)
Future intentions	
Recommend	14
Revisit	13
Motives for a return visit	
See the new exhibition	11
Bring friends/acquaintances	5

respondents mentioned that they were disappointed with the need to preregister for certain events and the difficulties associated with registration.

In general, almost all respondents (13 out of 16) were ready to visit the GES-2 again: They wanted to wait for the exposition to change and they planned to come for new impressions, to attend a master class/interactive event, and to bring friends and acquaintances to the cultural center. Most interview participants (14 out of 16) were ready to recommend GES-2 to friends and acquaintances. The intention to recommend was expressed, among other things, by those respondents who were not completely satisfied with the first visit, and nevertheless, they believed that everyone needed to go, to see everything with their own eyes, and to form their own point of view.

4 Quantitative Study: Design and Sample

Qualitative data for our study were collected using an online survey. The online survey questionnaire included questions to assess drivers of internal visit intention, experiences, satisfaction, and revisit intention. The questionnaire also included two screening questions (age and date of the last visit to Moscow art clusters) and several questions to control the sample structure.

The main part of the questionnaire includes several statements on different aspects of experiences proposed based on the results of our qualitative study. We measure satisfaction using the statement, "*I am satisfied with my visit to this cultural center*", while for revisit intention we use the statement "*I plan to visit this cultural center again*". All the items (internal visit intention, experiences, satisfaction, and revisit intention) are rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale, where 1 is for "strongly disagree" and 7 is for "strongly agree".

The survey of art clusters' and cultural centers' visitors was conducted in March 2022 using Anketolog online survey platform. The link to the questionnaire was distributed through thematic communities in the VK (also known as VKontakte), one of the most popular social media services in Russia. We received 246 filled questionnaires. Out of all the participants, 207 had experience of visiting at least one

Table 2 Sample structure (n = 207)

Sample characteristic		Frequency	(%)
Age	18–25	207	
Gender	Female	161	77.8
	Male	46	22.2
Region	Moscow	141	68.1
	Moscow region	52	25.1
	Other Russia's region	12	5.8
	Other country	2	1.0
Frequency of visits to cultural institutions	Once a week or more often	47	22.7
	Once a month	68	32.9
	About every few months	85	41.1
	Once a year	4	1.9
	Less often	3	1.4
Name of the last visited Moscow art cluster or cultural center	GES-2	47	22.7
	Artplay	43	20.8
	Flacon	39	18.8
	Winzavod	27	13.0
	Hlebozavod 9	24	11.6
	Red October	21	10.2
	Other	6	2.9
Total number of visits to the selected cluster or center (including the last visit)	1	82	39.7
	2–3	57	27.5
	4 and more	68	32.8

Moscow art cluster or cultural center during the last year. These respondents form our final sample (Table 2).

The sample structure is balanced in terms of frequency and places of visit. The geographical imbalance in favor of Moscow residents is explained by the focus of the study only on Moscow attractions, while the prevalence of female respondents in the sample is consistent with both the results of previous studies and the demographic structure of the social media communities through which we distribute the survey link.

5 Quantitative Study: Results and Discussion

We conduct the two-step data analysis of survey results. At the first step, we produce an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to propose structure for "experiential" variables, while at the second step we conduct a regression analysis to test relationships between variables. Both steps of analysis were made using IBM SPSS 25.

Before doing EFA, we estimated the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure and the Bartlett test of sphericity. In our study, we observe KMO of 0.86 (0.86 > 0.6). When analyzing the Bartlett test, we observe the significance of <0.01.

We perform EFA using the principal components and the direct oblimin rotation methods, with a cutoff eigenvalue of 0.5. Results of EFA allow to propose the following three-factor structure (Table 3). Three proposed factors together explained 68.5% of the total variance of items.

The first two of the three proposed factors correspond to two dimensions of experience in the "experience economy" concept (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) that was already tested for traditional cultural institutions such as museums (Radder & Han,

Table 3 Factor loadings (EFA)

Factor (construct)	Initial variable (item)	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
Active_experience	During my visit to the cultural center, I actively communicated with people around me (ACT1)	0.82	0.74
	During my visit to the cultural center, I actively interacted with the exposition and art objects (ACT2)	0.73	
	While visiting the cultural center, I felt more like a participant than an observer (ACT3)	0.53	
Immersive_experience	Inside the cultural center, everything encourages me to understand and feel themes of expositions (IMM1)	0.56	0.85
	While visiting the cultural center, I was immersed in what surrounded me there (IMM2)	0.66	
	While visiting the cultural center, I felt like I was in a different reality away from the daily routine (IMM3)	0.91	
	When I was inside the cultural center, I felt nostalgic for a while (IMM4)	0.73	
	When I was inside the cultural center, I felt like I was transported into the future (IMM5)	0.84	
Digital_experience	I followed the accounts of the cultural center on social media even before my visit (DIG1)	0.82	0.64
	I read online reviews written by other visitors to the cultural center before my visit (DIG2)	0.79	

2015). Nevertheless, the sets of variables within the factors look quite interesting. For example, immersive experiences in art clusters and cultural centers are shaped by both a sense of nostalgia and a feeling of being transported into the future. This can be explained by the fact that many clusters and centers are located in old (usually industrial) buildings, while exhibitions and events held inside these buildings are often devoted to contemporary art and innovations.

The third factor covers things that we call "digital experiences". These experiences could happen even before the actual visit to attraction and potentially influence the intention to such visit. The emergence of this factor is also consistent with earlier work on the experience of museum visitors (Özdemir & Çelebi, 2017).

Three regression models were tested at the second step. The factors formed as a result of factor analysis, along with other variables, were included in the regression. We built three regressions for three different dependent variables. The first of these regressions explains the attractiveness of a cluster or center for an initial visit, the second regression focuses on factors of visit satisfaction, and the third regression focuses on factors sharping the revisit intention. Table 4 summarizes the results of regression analysis.

The results of the regression analysis show that interaction with digital content is significantly associated only with the intention of the initial visit to an art cluster or cultural center. The satisfaction and intention of the revision are already formed on the basis of the real experience inside the attraction, which must be both active and immersive. Our findings confirm the earlier observation (Gofman et al., 2011) that young generation members want to be not just visitors but co-creators of cultural attractions. Our results also confirm the important role of immersive experience for art clusters and cultural centers, previously proven for museums (Komarac & Ozretić Došen, 2021).

The frequency of visiting cultural attractions has a positive effect only on the intention of the initial visit, while female respondents are more ready for the initial visit and more satisfied with their experiences. Other variables (including perceived convenience of location) do not affect any of the three dependent variables. The only exception is the dummy variable for the GES-2 center, which has a significant negative effect on visit satisfaction. This can be explained both by the increased interest in the center from "random" visitors due to the hype around its opening and by the suspension of many GES-2's activities in early spring 2022.

6 Limitations and Further Research

Our study has some limitations that guide directions for future research.

Our approach to analyze visitor experiences leads to the first group of limitations. In our study, we focus on overall experience from a visit to an art cluster or center. However, this "macro" experience is built from many "micro" experiences that happens in particular galleries, workshops, art studios, and other facilities. One of the most perspective directions of further studies assumes shift to more "granular"

Table 4 Regression analysis results

	Visit intention	Satisfaction	Revisit intention
Active_experince	N/R	0.16[c] (0.06)	0.38[c] (0.09)
Immersive_experience	N/R	0.45[c] (0.07)	0.25 [c] (0.08)
Digital_experience	0.19[b] (0.08)	−0.04 (0.06)	−0.06 (0.08)
Location	−0.04 (0.04)	0.02 (0.03)	−0.01 (0.04)
Frequency	0.45[a] (0.24)	0.29 (0.18)	0.35 (0.23)
Female	0.34[a] (0.19)	0.26[a] (0.14)	0.22 (0.18)
Moscow	0.20 (0.17)	0.05 (0.13)	0.19 (0.16)
Ges2	−0.26 (0.21)	−0.29[a] (0.16)	0.23 (0.20)
Artplay	0.09 (0.21)	−0.04 (0.16)	0.24 (0.20)
Flacon	0.30 (0.22)	−0.06 (0.16)	0.30 (0.20)
Constant	5.35 (0.39)	5.56 (0.30)	4.96 (0.37)
R^2	*0.09*	*0.35*	*0.24*
R^2 (adjusted)	*0.05*	*0.32*	*0.20*
p-value(F)	*< 0.05*	*< 0.01*	*< 0.01*
N	*207*	*207*	*207*

$^a = p < 0.10$, $^b = p < 0.05$, $^c = p < 0.01$
Standard errors are shown (in brackets)
N/R = not relevant (we cannot expect the influence of the experience inside the attraction on the intention to visit it for the first time)

approach to analyze how visitors gain their experience during a journey through an art cluster.

The second group of limitations are connected with the structure of our sample. We use a non-probability sampling in our survey, so we cannot extend our results to the entire population of art clusters' visitors. Moreover, our evidence is limited to young visitors of art clusters located only in Moscow. Thus, we expect even more fruitful results from the future studies with cross-regional and cross-national comparisons.

The last (but not the least) set of limitations have arisen due to a very specific period of data collection. While the qualitative part of the study was finished in the middle of February 2022, the quantitative survey took place during the early spring 2022. This spring was already the time of heavy military and geopolitical crisis that lead to termination of exhibition activities in many of Moscow art clusters and centers (Sauer & Roth, 2022). Such situation negatively influences visitor experiences that is why we are waiting for a chance to continue our study in better times.

Acknowledgements This paper was supported by the Lomonosov Moscow State University's Faculty of Economics under the research project "Entrepreneurial networking as a self-organization tool for the sustainable development of municipalities". We are also grateful to Dr. Marina Sheresheva for her valuable comments on the early version of our study.

References

Allen P., & Rice A. (2020). *Taking Part survey, adults (16+), 2019/20: Museums*. https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/916533/Museums.xlsx. Last Accessed 25 Aug 2022

Chapain, C., & Sagot-Duvauroux, D. (2020). Cultural and creative clusters–a systematic literature review and a renewed research agenda. *Urban Research & Practice, 13*(3), 300–329.

Dimock, M. (2019). Defining generations: Where Millennials end and Generation Z begins. *Pew Research Center, 17*(1), 1–7.

Engqvist, J. H., & Möntmann, N. (2018). *Agencies of Art: A report on the situation of small and medium-sized art centers in Denmark, Norway and Sweden*. OK BOOK.

Gofman, A., Moskowitz, H. R., & Mets, T. (2011). Marketing museums and exhibitions: What drives the interest of young people. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 20*(6), 601–618.

Hitters, E., & Richards, G. (2002). The creation and management of cultural clusters. *Creativity and Innovation Management, 11*(4), 234–247.

Illeris, H. (2005). Young people and contemporary art. *International Journal of Art & Design Education, 24*(3), 231–242.

Kim, H. H. (2007). The creative economy and urban art clusters: Locational characteristics of art galleries in Seoul. *Journal of the Korean Geographical Society, 42*(2), 258–279.

Kisiel, P. (2021). A young audience's expectations of a contemporary museum of art. *Przegląd Socjologiczny, 70*(2), 11–28.

Komarac, T., & Ozretić Došen, Đ. (2021). Discovering the determinants of museum visitors' immersion into experience: The impact of interactivity, expectations, and skepticism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–19.

Kuleva, M. I. (2020). The only place where one can feel connected to an international context and still speak Russian: Hybrid creative work in post-soviet contemporary art institutions. In The industrialization of creativity and its limits (pp. 49–59). Cham: Springer.

McCarthy, J. (2006). Regeneration of cultural quarters: Public art for place image or place identity? *Journal of Urban Design, 11*(2), 243–262.

Milam, J. (2013). "Art Girls": Philanthropy, Corporate sponsorship, and private art museums in post-communist Russia. *Curator: The Museum Journal, 56*(4), 391–405.

Mommaas, H. (2004). Cultural clusters and the post-industrial city: Towards the remapping of urban cultural policy. *Urban Studies, 41*(3), 507–532.

Nofal, E., Panagiotidou, G., Reffat, R. M., Hameeuw, H., Boschloos, V., & Moere, A. V. (2020). Situated tangible gamification of heritage for supporting collaborative learning of young museum visitors. *Journal on Computing and Cultural Heritage (JOCCH), 13*(1), 1–24.

Özdemir, G., & Çelebi, D. (2017). A social media framework of cultural museums. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research (AHTR), 5*(2), 101–119.

Pine, J., & Gilmore, J. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review, 76*(4), 97–105.

Radder, L., & Han, X. (2015). An examination of the museum experience based on Pine and Gilmore's experience economy realms. *Journal of Applied Business Research (JABR), 31*(2), 455–470.

Sauer P., & Roth A. (2022). *Empty galleries and fleeing artists: Russia's cultural uncoupling from the west. The Guardian.* https://www.theguardian.com/world/2022/apr/17/ges-2-moscow-empty-gallery-fleeing-artist-russia-cultural-uncoupling-from-west. Last Accessed 14 Aug 2022.

Zarlenga, M. I., Ulldemolins, J. R., & Morató, A. R. (2016). Cultural clusters and social interaction dynamics: The case of Barcelona. *European Urban and Regional Studies, 23*(3), 422–440.

Exploring the Role of Toponymy in Wine Naming Strategy: A Greek Case Study

Theodosios Tsiakis, Eleni Anagnostou, and Giuseppe Granata

Abstract The choice of wine label raises questions whether it intends to communicate historical concepts, identity, or quality. There are elements that can influence the buying operation in terms of purchase decision. The label reflects the winemaker's perceptions, while the name remains a crucial point for the general wine context. A vineyard name attributes in the storytelling of a wine's origin. Labels tell the story of the specific vineyard from which the wine originated. The application of toponymy as name in wine label is of significant importance, because it conveys the element of terroir. This paper aims at decipher the toponymy of Greek wine labels, providing valuable insights about description of the name, the cause of selection, and the language.

Keywords Toponymy · Wine communication · Wine regions

JEL Classification Z32

1 Introduction

The wine label constitutes the winemaker's throwback to his awareness, ideas, and feelings about his own wine. These aspects are the ones that he tries to communicate to his customers. All labels make vigorous efforts to convince us that there is something special about wine. This effort is the one that contributes to the increased prize of it and makes the consumers willing to purchase it. Some wineries, in order to overcome this confusion, provide less information on their labels. But the question that logically arises is this; do those words give the notion of quality to the wine or reflect marketing technics? The answer is not simple; it may even be as controversial as the practice

T. Tsiakis (✉) · E. Anagnostou
Department of Organisation Management, Marketing and Tourism, International Hellenic University, Thessaloniki, Greece
e-mail: tsiakis@ihu.com

G. Granata
Department of Economics, University Mercatorum of Rome, Rome, Italy

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_29

itself. When we refer to wine branding, we do not refer only to the creative of the label and the general packaging (bottle), but to the values, the correlations, and in general to the whole "myth" that can surround the wine and give to it a certain status. We can consider, in terms of simplicity, that this is limited to the design of the label or the name of the wine.

Wine reports indicate that consumers still pay more per bottle while consuming less frequently, establishing a shift from quantity to quality (Intelligence, 2019). Wine consumption has certain characteristics involving quality and brand in form of identity that motivates consumer with high annual income to select high-quality wine (Di Vita et al., 2019). According to International Organization of Vine and Wine (OIV), annual per capita wine consumption in Europe fluctuates from 52 L per year of Portuguese champions in wine consumption to average 32 L per year for average European civilian. Premiumization is the effort to offer higher quality wine(s) that consumers value, not in financial terms (expensive in price), but with the assumption|expectation that the wine bottle—brand stands for what consumer expect from consuming it (having in mind the diversification of value to each and every person). Lim and Reed (2020) indicate that consumers are willing to pay premiums for either organic or sustainable wine. And for consumers, terroir matters economically as they are evidently willing to pay more for wines with extrinsic qualities such as area of origin (Cross et al., 2011). The breaking point is how to explain why this wine is worth an extra amount of money (considering that an inexperienced drinker can understand, let alone the insider).

The main factors to achieve the production of high-quality wines are the variety, the viticulture or winegrowing techniques and the so-called terroir. This combination is unique and cannot be copied or transferred. The concept of terroir constitutes the ultra-core component of the Geographical Indication (GI) an official description of a wine zone, region or subregion in a form of a textual description). Neither the grapes are grown on their own, nor the wine is created automatically, so the element of human factor is fundamental for terroir. The deeper concept that terroir reflects is that wines of a certain area|plots are unique and cannot be produced outside this domain even if everything is copied (variety, oenological methods etc.). This distinctive characteristic is considered to give elements of recognition to wine, something like a fingerprint. Wine must have an identity of origin, meaning not being a blend of large different regions. A major issue is the equivocal meaning of wine names.

The naming strategy of a product used by manufacturers (in our case a winery) provides a basic background why consumerist culture is determinant (Danesi, 2011). Communication is dual; is both signified and signifier, it includes the level of the message or the content or the information and the level of the form, the statement or, in other words, the expression of the content. Due to the fact that the relationship between content and form is never a one-to-one relationship, there is always the possibility of choices, which is the most creative process of language. But what is language? It is the creation and use of signs(s) recognizable and understandable in the same way by members of a community of people.

There are three typical ways for the producers to name their wines which are related to the specific grape variety, the wine zone where the vines are planted, and lately, the terroir of the wider region, which is characterized by the climate and soil.

Naming strategy is separated in accurate and metaphorical. The single most popular approach from literal naming seems to be the use of toponyms (Caballero et al., 2019). The totality of information resulting from the wine label provides the basic information background which influence consumer choice (Danner et al., 2017). Findings also suggest that younger consumers are more influenced by the label of bottled wine (Lunardo & Guerinet, 2007). Also, front labels seem to be more important than back labels (Thomas & Pickering, 2003).

2 The Greek Wine Zones

Greece is a country that has as key concept to get along the quality with premiumization. Greece is divided into 13 regions (perifereies). Each region (perifereia) was further divided in departments (nomoi), provinces (eparchies), municipalities (dimoi), and communities (koinotites). The European Union Geographical Indications System consists a protection frame for the names of products origin from specific regions and have specific (Wines of Greece) (European Commission). The differences between product of denominated origin (PDO) and a product of geographic indication (PGI) is identified with the distinction whether how much of the product's raw materials must come from the area or how much of the production process has to take place within the specific region. PDO Wines of Greece originates from a specific winegrowing zone (based on the borders of communal municipalities that have been established). In addition, all production phases must be carried out in that specific area. The PGI Wines of Greece are in specific geographical boundaries, with varietal compositions to be set and at least one production phase must be carried out in that specific area. Greek wine is a niche market (meaning that consumers exist in a market willing to pay a higher price for specific products or benefits, i.e., limited and specialized) and has nothing to do with mainstream industrial productions, such as Chilean or Australian wine.

3 The Concept of Terroir and the Sequence of Toponymy

Terroir is a concept that is not limited to the sense of flavor because it hides in it the cue of culture effect (Trubek, 2008). This is the element that makes the difference and is created autonomously, since neither producers can create it nor consumers can find it anywhere (Charters et al., 2017). This means that there is a connection between taste and regions (Trubek, 2008). A negative point in the theory of terroir as a sales enhancing factor is the confused attitude of the consumer (Wilson & Jourjon, 2010). Many producers use terroir in order to give to their wines the antagonistic advantage of the origin in their marketing plan (Charters, 2010).Territory, plant growing, advertising, and identity are the four components that characterize terroir (Marlowe & Lee, 2018).

The geographical dimension emerges as stepping stone in the terroir equation as it connects soil and climate (Bohmrich, 1996). It seems that only the use of terroir will not be enough for the economic enhance of the wine, that is why blending it with places could contribute to the amplification of wine purchases (Lenglet, 2014). Additionally, interconnecting areas of wine with identity (with a particular focus on terroir) may lead to the fact that the wine consumers could understand it in a more profound way (Harvey et al., 2014). Not to mention that the specific place could give to the consumers a wider idea about the wine as a structural element of the area, fact very useful for the planning of the niche markets (Sillania et al., 2017).

4 Approaching Wine Labels and Labeling Through Toponymy

During the wine communication process, many transmitters are involved, as the consumers, communicators, and marketers who try to focus on different messages and marketing means each time (Sillania et al., 2017). The very first step between the communication of the wine producers and the possible buyer is the wine label (Tonder & Mulder, 2015). This does not only happen with the front labels but also the back labels seem to influence the purchase and preference (Danner et al., 2017). An object is preferable to be distinguished and have commercially attractive place names that have a certain economic interest (Medway & Warnaby, 2014).

Segmentanting the place names has not been an easy project as the bibliography indicates. Stewart, (1954) has made a categorization based on the theory the name functions as a separate and distinct advantage. His taxonomy conveys:

1. Descriptive names
2. Associative names
3. Incident-names
4. Possessive names
5. Commemorative names
6. Condemnatory names
7. Folk-etymologies
8. Manufactured names
9. Mistake-names
10. Shift-names.

After an extensive research using websites, social media, and digital environments related to wine, personal communication and interviews, we collected data regarding the naming choices of the wine producers. The basic core of the feedback we had is that wine producers had not been so drastic about the naming strategies, at least until so far. The data presented below indicates wines with toponymic labels (Tsiakis et al, 2022).

Descriptive names

A name that describes a geographically descriptive, a feature located there. The geographic element is considered the name laureate of wineries.

Tselepos Winery

In 1989, Yiannis and Amalia Tselepos founded Ktima Tselepos in Mantinia and made the first plantings. It is situated on the eastern side of the Mantinian plateau, in the center of Arcadia, at an altitude of 750 m, at the foothills of Mount Parnonas.

Label *Kokkinomilos*–Kokkino (>Eng. "red") + milos (>Eng. "mill") = Kokkinomilos (the red mill). The vineyard with gravelly red clay soils (loam) that surrounds the watermill gave its characteristic name.

Label *Melissopetra*–Melisso (>Eng. "bee") + petra (>Eng. "rock") = Melissopetra. Similar, the soils are schist (type of rock) and the place used to host beehives.

Label *Avlotopi*–Avlo (>Eng. "reeds") + topi (>Eng. "field") = Avlotopi (the field with many reeds). Reed area, the place where reeds grow that, are suitable for the construction of flute (musical instruments mainly for shepherds). Vineyard is close to an affluent River (Dolianitis) where reed grows. τόπι [tópi] as 2nd compositional to composite neutral indicates the area full of what the first compositional expresses.

Label *Marmarias*–Marmarias (>Eng. "marble"). The soil up in the hill after the plot of Kokkimomilos is gravelly clay with limestone, it contains significant amounts of marble, and the locals gave the characteristic toponymy "Marmarias" as marmaro stands for marble.

T-oinos

The winery was founded by Greek businessman Alexandros Avatangelos and Gerard Margeon, executive head sommelier for Alain Ducasse restaurants worldwide, back in 2002. The winery name T-OINOS comes as a neologism, (T) for Tinos island and oinos (allegory from greek word "οΐνος"» standing for oenos). It produces eight labels, wines giving to the half of selection (4 in number, the premium ones) the toponymic name of vineyard, referred as "stegasta".

Label *Stegasta*–A name stemming from the Greek word "στεγαστά" [stéγasta] referring to a kind of stonework low buildings, a type of small roof that covers the topically placed wine press (usually in contact with the vineyards) that workers and residents of Tinos island used in order both to protect themselves from the strong winds and because after the harvest it was practical impossible to transport the grapes through the labyrinthine villages, so they needed to press and ferment the vines on the certain spot of production.

Acroterra Wines

Or «Acro-Terra», means in a simplified translation "Earth at the Edge". This name oenologist Thymiopoylos and viticulturist Chryssos chose to give as in showing directly the extreme and adverse conditions in which Assyrtiko grows in the land of Santorini.

Label *Skafida*–{σκαφίδα} is a rectangular wooden or tin washtub in which they threw food or water for the animals. This was the place for the animal to rest and feed.

Artemis Karamolegos Winery

The winery is established in 1952, and from 2004, the 3rd generation, the grandson Artemis Karamolegos proceed to contemporary facilities and vinification in the privately owned vineyards.

Label *Louroi*-Platia–Various areas in Greece have taken their name from the old owners. Societas Iesu settled in Santorini at about 1642 and used the word Louro (dark blonde; golden) for the characteristic color of Santorini land. Platia {πλατιά}–stands for widely, as the area is giving the essence of space.

Ktima Kir-Yianni

Kir-Yianni Estate was founded in 1997 by Yiannis Boutaris (Greek businessman and politician, former mayor of Thessaloniki city when he left the Boutari Wine Group, the premium family wine company that his grandfather established in 1879. Kir, a less formal calling (from abbreviated Kyrios), and Yiannis forms the synthesis of the winery name.

Label *Ramnista*–{ράμνιστα} is a compound word formed by Ramnos < latin Rhamnus and loan word (-ista = -ιστα). The winery also states that Ramnos (white buckthorn) was characteristic of the fields before they become vineyard. The first Xinomavro PDO label was given the name Ramnista.

Label *Samaropetra*–The steep hill (a layer of solid rock- petra"πέτρα") that vineyard is placed on the top of it, gives the aspect of packsaddle (samari {neuter} σαμαρι in greeks). So Samaropetra equals the sum of samari + petra.

Dalamaras Winery

Dalamaras winery continues a great family tradition, since in 1840, John G. Dalamaras created his first vineyard in Naoussa. From then till today, the family is inextricably connected with viticulture and production of quality wines.

Kokkinos Winery

Stavros Kokkinos, first generation producer and winemaker, created a "boutique" winery by its first bottling in 2009. The winery facilities are located in the outskirts of the historic town of Naoussa in Greece.

Label *Paliokalias*–Both wineries (and only those two until now) share the same toponymy. Paliokalias is the name of the vineyard located north of Stenimahos, an area of the City of Naousa, in the region of Imathia in Greece, and possibly the first ever single vineyard wine in the appellation of Naousa. Paliokalias is known for the deep underground waters and the cool breezes that come down from Mount Vermio. The soils are alkaline and clay-limestone. "Palio" (old) + kalias (nest) = Paliokalias (land that looks like an old nest). The lash-up wooden hut gave the image of how ancestors were imagine the area.

Associative names

Associative names are differianted from descriptives in that they identified with human adaptions to the location.

Lyrarakis winery

Lyrarakis winery was established in 1966 by two brothers, Manolis and Sotiris Lyrarakis who gave their last name to the winery. It is established in the place of origin of the family, in the heart of the prefecture of Heraklion (Crete), in a village called Alagni.

Label *Armi*– "αρμί" is a word in the cretan dialect to define the top of a mountainside. The vineyard called "Armi" is an area that faces the east and lies at an altitude of 500 m.

Label *Plakoura*– "Πλακούρα" delineation of soil morphology in simply terms wide and large stone: plaka (>Eng. "flagstone") + magnifying suffix oura = plakoura.

Label *Gerodeti*–Gero (>Eng. "old") + detis (>Eng. "stone") In Cretan dialect, an old stonewall that joins or separates two fields.

Label *Pirovolikes*–Toponyms referring to war from pyrovolo (>Eng. "firearms") where in general, their location, position is determined on the one hand by the importance of the space and the purpose of coverage, on the other hand by combining the maximum possible visible area of control.

Label *Voila*–The name Voila probably comes from the Byzantine name "Voilas" as it was called by the Byzantines, the landholder.

Incident names

A name associated with something that happened there.

Douloufakis winery

Is located at the village of Dafnes, located in Crete, the largest island of Greece, and is named after the last name of the owner of the winery.

Label *Aspros Lagos*–Aspros Lagos (white hare) is a toponym of vineyards and came from the hares and "Asperoula". Asperoula is a wild flower that grows in the area and an endemic plant of Crete (Asperoula rigida M.). In the spring, the dry stones around the vines are filled with its white flowers. Their stems are the favorite food of the hares, which prefer the area to build their nests.

Commemorative names

Commemorative Names are result from the desire to honor a person.

Alpha Estate

Alpha (= α) is the first letter of the Greek alphabet and the initial letter of Amyndeon, the geographical location of the estate's vineyards (the northwest and coolest part of Greece in Florina region, province of Macedonia) and also a declaration of a quality term in the greek argo. For those reasons, the name Alpha was chosen. It is the soil, the climate, the human factor, and the evolution in time that create the ecosystem philosophy behind the label choice.

Label *Barba Yannis*–Barba (>Eng. "mister") + Yannis (John) = Barba Yannis (mister John). Mister (Barbas from the Latin barbas meaning bearded and uncle, as bear were a sign of maturity and therefore of respect) and Greek name Yiannis. Named in honor of the last owner, Barba Yannis, that planted the single block vineyard in 1919 and sold it in 1994 to the current owners (Alpha estate). The vines are ungrafted, pre-phylloxera bush vines which are over 90 years old.

Lyrarakis (mentioned above)

Label *Aggelis*–Aggelos > diminutive "Aggelis", a patronymic surname, derived from the baptismal name Aggelos {Άγγελος}. Apparently, from a person called "Aggelis" who was the owner (gen. Possessor) of this plot.

Artemis Karamolegos Winery (mentioned above)

Label *Papas*–Papas (>Eng. "clergyman") apparently was the owner of this resource and gave his name to the vineyard.

5 Conclusions

Winemakers desire to improve the recognizability, differentiation and value proposition of their wine(s) in the market. In order to achieve that, they usually use two methods or combine them. One consists of using international varieties with the local ones as blend and the other one refers to using toponymic names to wine label. The certification in the form of either PDO or PGI influences consumer choices and the market for origin labelled is working (Di Vita et al., 2019; Skuras & Vakrou, 2002).

As geographers and historians begin to examine the role of toponymy in relations to commerce, it is the right time to start combing geographic position and economic prospect with the names and the Greek wines are the perfect example. Greek wine labels and names should be synoptic, in agreement and reconciliation with the Latin rather than the Greek alphabet. Simplicity is the key; the assumption that the consumer will keen on pompous names is erroneous and leads the consumers to confusion. A vineyard name helps to tell a wine's origin story. Labels tell the story of the specific vineyard which the wine is originated from. Recognizing the value of grapes grown on specific vineyards, wineries have begun using vineyard designates and use them in their toponymy name on the wine label. Due to the fact that consumers' choices apart from price, are determined also by quality features of the product, the provision of quality signals by producers, such as toponymy in a wine label, could assist to the consumer's buying process so as to reduce information search costs and to augment their willingness to purchase.

Acknowledgements A portion of this chapter has appeared previously as "*Tsiakis, T., Anagnostou, E., Granata, G., & Manakou, V. (2022). Communicating Terroir through Wine Label Toponymy Greek Wineries Practice. Sustainability, 14(23), 16067.* https://doi.org/10.3390/su142316067*"*.

References

Artemis Karamolegos Winery, (2021a.). Retrieved June 22, 2021a, from https://www.artemiskaramolegos-winery.com.

Caballero, R., Suárez-Toste, E., & Paradis, C. (2019). *Representing wine: sensory perceptions, communication and cultures.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Charters, S., Spielmann, N., & Babin, B. (2017). The nature and value of terroir products. *European Journal of Marketing, 51*(4), 748–771.

Charters, S. (2010). Marketing terroir: A conceptual approach. In Proceedings of the 5th International academy of wine business research conference 2010(pp. 8–10).

Cross, R., Plantinga, A., & Stavins, R. (2011). What Is the Value of Terroir? *American Economic Review, 101*(3), 152–156.

Dalamaras Winery, (2021b.). Retrieved June 17, 2021b, from http://www.dalamara.gr.

Danesi, M. (2011). What's in a brand name? A note on the onomastics of brand. *Naming. Names, 59*(3), 175–185.

Danner, L., Johnson, T., Ristic, R., Meiselman, H., & Bastian, S. (2017). I like the sound of that! Wine descriptions influence consumers' expectations, liking, emotions and willingness to pay for Australian white wines. *Food Research International, 99*(1), 263–274.

Di Vita, G., Caracciolo, F., Brun, F., & D'Amico, M. (2019). Picking out a wine: Consumer motivation behind different quality wines choice. *Wine Economics and Policy, 8*(1), 16–27.

Douloufakis winery, (n.a.). Retrieved June 20, 2021, from https://www.douloufakis.wine.

Alpha Estate, (2021a). Retrieved June 30, 2021a, http://www.alpha-estate.com

Kir-Yianni Estate, (n.a.). Retrieved June 19, 2021b, from https://kiryianni.gr.

European Commision, (n.a). Aims of EU quality schemes. Retrieved June 01, 2021, from https://ec.europa.eu/info/food-farming-fisheries/food-safety-and-quality/certification/quality-labels/quality-schemes-explained_en#pdo.

Harvey, M., White, L., & Frost, W. (2014). *Wine and identity: Branding, heritage, terroir*. Routledge.

Wine Intelligence, (2019). Wine Intelligence's Global Compass 2019 report. Retrieved June 15, 2021, from https://www.wineintelligence.com/view-reports.

International Organisation of Vine and Wine (OIV), (n.a.). Definition of Vitivinicultural "terroir, (n.a.). Retrieved June 15, 2021a, from http://www.oiv.int/public/medias/379/viti-2010-1-en.pdf.

International Organisation of Vine and Wine (OIV), (n.a.). Statistical report on world vitiviniculture. Retrieved June 15, 2021b, from http://www.oiv.int/public/medias/6371/oiv-statistical-report-on-world-vitiviniculture-2018.pdf.

Lenglet, F. (2014). Influence of terroir products meaning on consumer's expectations and likings. *Food Quality and Preference, 32*(C), 264–270.

Lim, K. H., & Reed, M. (2020). Do ecolabels cheapen wines? *Journal of Cleaner Production, 245*, 1–10.

Lunardo, R., & Guerinet, R. (2007). The influence of label on wine consumption: its effects on young consumers' perception of authenticity and purchasing behavior. 105th Seminar, March 8–10, 2007, Bologna, Italy 7847, European Association of Agricultural Economists.

Lyrarakis winery, (n.a.). Retrieved June 11, 2021, from https://www.lyrarakis.com/en/home.

Marlowe, B., & Lee, S. (2018). Conceptualizing terroir wine tourism. *Tourism Review International, 22*, 143–151.

Medway, D., & Warnaby, G. (2014). What's in a name? Place branding and toponymic commodification. *Environment and Planning: Economy and Space, 46*(1), 153–167.

Sillania, S., Miccolia, A., & Nassivera, F. (2017). Different preferences for wine communication. *Wine Economics and Policy, 6*, 28–39.

Skuras, D., & Vakrou, A. (2002). Consumers' willingness to pay for origin labelled wine: A Greek case study. *British Food Journal, 104*(11), 898–912.

Stewart, 1954Stewart, G. (1954). A classification of place names. *Names, 2*(1), 1-13.

Thomas, A., & Pickering, G. (2003). The Importance of wine label information. *International Journal of Wine Marketing, 15*(2), 58–74.

T-oinos, (n.a.). Retrieved June 08, 2021, from https://toinos.com.

Trubek, A. (2008). *The taste of place: A cultural journey into terroir*. University of California Press.

Tselepos Winery, (n.a.). Retrieved June 07, 2021, from https://www.tselepos.gr/.

Tsiakis, T., Anagnostou, E., Granata, G., & Manakou, V. (2022). Communicating terroir through wine label toponymy Greek wineries practice. *Sustainability, 14*(23), 16067.

van Tonder, E. M., & Mulder, D. (2015). Marketing communication for organic wine: Semiotic guidelines for wine bottle front labels. *Communicatio, 41*(1), 131–151.

Wilson, D., & Jourjon, F. (2010). Promoting wine by 'terroir'. In Refereed paper—5th International Academy of Wine Business Research Conference, 8–10 Feb. Auckland (NZ).

Kokkinos Winery, (n.a.). Retrieved May 27, 2021, from https://www.kokkinoswinery.gr/?lang=en.

Wines of Greece, (n.a.). Wine categories. Retrieved June 10, 2021, from https://winesofgreece.org/articles/wine-categories/.

Acroterra Wines, (2021). Retrieved June 20, 2021, from https://www.acroterrawines.com.

Cultural Tourist's Intention To Visit Greece During the Pandemic Era

Papaioannou Vasiliki, Constantoglou Mary, and Pavlogeorgatos Gerasimos

Abstract Tourism, arts, and cultural and creative industries have been among those sectors of the economies worldwide that were most seriously impacted by COVID-19 pandemic. Thus, in this paper, we study the intention of people to visit Greece for cultural reasons. Questionnaires were given to answer to people traveling on board to flights to Greece, the UK, Belgium, and Italy. On board, passengers had the time and comfort to answer a fourteen questions long questionnaire aiming at examining the intention to undertake cultural trips. The research took place during the first lockdown at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, and it contributes to the assessment of cultural tourism dynamics.

Keywords Cultural tourism · COVID-19 · Planning · Management · Motivation · Greece

JEL Classifications Z30 · Z32

1 Introduction

Tourism is a phenomenon that creates complex interrelations with the environment, the society, the economy, culture, and politics of the destination areas. Cultural tourism is one of the sectors of the tourism industry with an extensive range of tourist interests. It has been recognized as one of the fastest-growing sectors at least until 2020, when the COVID-19 pandemic was started. Heritage and culture were always an important motivation for travel. At the same time, traveling from the ancient times generates education and culture.

P. Vasiliki (✉) · C. Mary · P. Gerasimos
Department of Cultural Technology and Communication, University of the Aegean, Mytilene, Greece
e-mail: papaioannou1986@gmail.com

C. Mary
Department of Economics and Tourism Management, University of the Aegean, Chios, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_30

It is well recognized that the definition of cultural tourism is not simple as culture is always related to the perspective of time and space. According to UNWTO (2017) cultural tourism is the type of tourism activity in which the visitor's essential motivation is to learn, discover, experience, and consume the tangible and intangible cultural attractions/products in a tourism destination". Richards (2018) refers that cultural tourism is sub-divided into sectors including heritage tourism, arts tourism, gastronomic tourism, film tourism, and creative tourism. The importance of cultural tourism is very well indicated in UNWTO Report on tourism and culture synergies as for the first time it was shown that (a) 89% of national tourism administrations have reported that the development of cultural tourism was in their priorities and (b) the size of cultural tourism market accounts for over 39% of all international arrivals of 2017 meaning 516 million trips (UNWTO, 2018).

Greece has more than 25,000 monuments and museums throughout its territory, and specifically for every 10,000 km^2, there are 1.4 monuments. This clearly shows the competitive advantage of the country since in such a small area an impressive percentage of cultural wealth is concentrated (Vagionis & Skoultsos, 2016). Greece is a remarkable tourist destination due to its tangible and intangible heritage. The Best Countries ranking of the US News and World Report (2021) has put Greece as the third country in Heritage Rankings and 17th for its cultural influence. This suggests the most common representations about Greece and its cultural background as perceived from people outside Greece.

Tourism, arts, cultural, and creative industries have been among those sectors of the economies worldwide that were most seriously impacted by COVID-19 pandemic with responses at various levels of government focused upon social distancing, travel restrictions, prohibitions on gatherings of large groups and the resulting economic recession. Prior to COVID-19 Richards (2018) has pointed out that overtourism in World Heritage Sites was causing problematic situations. Now, as governments and policymakers attempt to simultaneously prop up public health and the economy, the challenge for tourism destinations and cultural tourism operators and actors was to remain solvent during a crisis that restricts people's movement.

The paper sought to analyze the perceptions of inflight tourists regarding cultural tourism during the COVID-19 pandemic in Greece. Research conducted during autumn 2020 to tourists traveling from Athens to Belgium, England, and Italy and vice versa. More precisely the objectives of this were to examine during the first global lockdown in 2020 amid the pandemic of COVID-19 (a) travel trends, (b) the travelers' attitudes toward cultural tourism in Greece (c) how the pandemic affected travelers' decisions to undertake a cultural trip.

2 Literature Review

Cultural tourism is universal as its attractions can be consumed by any tourists without distinguishing their social and demographic backgrounds (Hall et al., 2018; UNWTO, 2020). The distinction and the exploitation of cultural heritage and of the archaeological, historic, and architectural monuments gave the visitor the opportunity to understand culture, the tradition, and the way of life of the locals better (Coccosis et. al., 2011).

Cultural tourism is defined by the UNWTO (2018) as 'a type of tourism activity in which the visitor's primary motivation is to learn, discover, experience, and consume the tangible and intangible cultural attractions/products in a tourist destination. These attractions/products relate to a set of distinctive material, intellectual, and emotional characteristics of a society that includes arts and architecture, historical and cultural heritage, the culinary and gastronomic heritage, literature, music, creative industries, and living cultures with their way of life, value systems, beliefs and traditions'. In this study we apply our analysis and discussion of the cultural tourism, namely, the type of tourism that links culture and tourism, par excellence (Fig. 1) (Du Cros & McKercher, 2020; Duxbury, 2021; McKercher & du Cros, 2002). Cultural tourism refers to the compound set of activities of tourism planning, effectuating, and experiencing a destination with the motive of culture. The model of cultural tourism as the common ground between culture and tourism (Fig. 1) illustrates the reciprocal relationship between the local side and the tourism side, in terms of the specific processes (identity formation and development/change) taking place at the interface between the two sides, with regard to culture and cultural tourism. This two-way/reciprocal relationship is assumed to occur more generally as regards tourism and culture (Terkenli & Georgoula, 2022).

Tourists who prefer cultural tourism are looking for unique, authentic, and personal experiences and accommodation ("stay like a local"), they wish to explore the natural environment and the protected areas and seek to engage in creative or

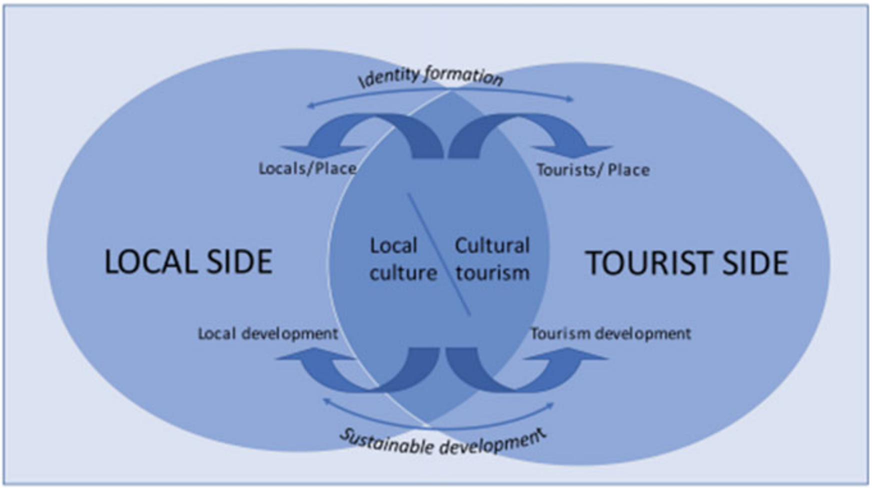


Fig. 1 Model of cultural tourism as the common ground between culture and tourism (Terkenli, 2000)

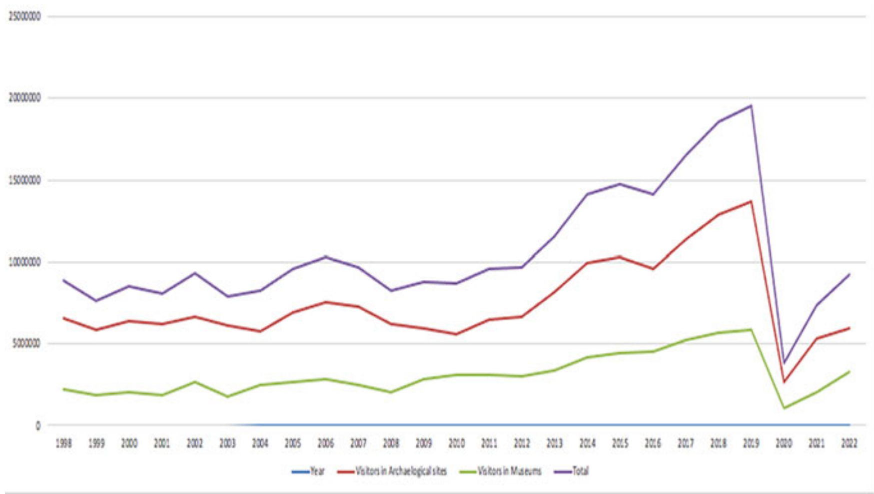


Chart 1 Visits in museum and archaeological sites of Greece (1998–2022) (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2022)

artistic activities. At the same time, cultural tourism is closely related to a multitude of tourist products like cruise, sun and beach, City Break, MICE, wellness tourism, ecotourism, and adventure tourism, while the travelers are increasingly looking for personalized experiences and flexibility in its design of their journey.

A key element in understanding cultural tourism and its development is the concept of identity. On the one hand, the uniqueness of cultural identity leads to the promotion of cultural consumption and on the other hand, the promotion of identity by the natives attracts the population (Mousavi et al., 2016). It is often asserted that building self-identity through cultural tourism is one of the primary motivations for cultural tourists (Quan & Wang, 2004) Chart 1.

Research shows that compared to average tourists, cultural tourists tend to spend more money and travel for a longer time period (Silberberg, 1995). According to the data of INSETE (2021), the average age of cultural travelers is 42 years, with 51.8% of them being women, 56.8% having high incomes, and 75.5% having higher education. In addition, 41.8% travel as a family. Cultural tourists show an average length of stay equal to 6.8 nights and average daily expenditure at the level of €169. The hotel is the main type of accommodation they choose (77%), while they prefer to make their reservations mainly via the Internet (79%) and travel agencies (32%). Cultural tourism tourists wish to explore the attractions of the destination (90.8%), visit other cities that are nearby (62.5%), get in touch with the natural landscape (58.1%), while they are also looking to know better the gastronomy of the destination (44.2%), along with their visits to museums (43.6%). Conversely, they prefer less activities like swimming/sunbathing (9.0%) as well as traveling for religious reasons (7.8%).

Starting in the 50's and until today, tourism has followed a steady upward trend. In terms of its benefits are multiple with the most important of which being the increase in consumption and therefore production. Also, tourism has a decisive influence on the inflow of foreign exchange and therefore on the balance of payments. It also contributes to the overall stimulation of the economy, and GDP, and creates new jobs. For Greece, tourism is one of the most important pillars of the economy, contributing dynamically to the GDP and employment. According to the data of WTTC (2022), the total contribution of travel and tourism to the national GDP was 20.7% in 2019 and 14.9% in 2021. At the same time in travel and tourism contribute to employment by creating 21% of in total jobs in 2019 and 19.9% in 2021.

Cultural tourism is susceptible crises and thus on health issue threats. COVID-19 is the most recent health crisis shutting all tourism businesses down in the world. In a global level and in accordingly in Greece as well, the arts, cultural, and creative industries have been among those sectors of the economy most seriously impacted by COVID-19, with responses at various levels of government focused upon social distancing, travel restrictions, prohibitions on gatherings of large groups, and the resulting economic recession. Analyzing the data provided by the Greek Statistical Authority (2022) from 1998 to 2022, it is more than obvious the effects of the pandemic in museums and archaeological sites. Data in Chart 1 show visits in museum and archaeological sites in Greece from 1998 until today. While visits are flourishing from 1998 to 2005 (Pavlogeorgatos et al., 2005) and for 2005 until 2019, in 2020 due to the pandemic number of visits spotted to be minimum recorded since 1998. In this chart data for 2022 were estimated based on the available data from the Hellenic Statistical Authority of the first four months of 2022. This Chart 1 essentially confirms the inextricable relationship between tourism and culture that is presented in Chart (1).

COVID-19 pandemic has become hot debates among tourism scholars due to the great impacts generated from this issue which were investigated from different perspectives. Ioannides and Gyimothy (2020) and Higgins-Desbiolles (2020) argue that the global tourism shutdown by COVID-19 is the best time to change the future direction of tourism developments heading to responsible tourism and the vision of sustainable development goals.

COVID-19 successfully stopped the overtourism issues wherein tourism destinations which used to have too many tourists and rapid developments of tourism amenities destroying local environment and cultures are now collapsed and very difficult to recover (Constantoglou & Klothaki, 2021; Constantoglou & Chatziliadou, 2021).

Thus, the rise of COVID-19 demands global changes which alter common systems applied in entire world communities and tourism businesses (Gossling et al., 2020). Tourism destination managements adapt and apply precise strategies facing crisis which distract tourism including epidemic (Laws et al. (2007); Sifolo & Sifolo, 2015;, pandemic (Gossling et al., 2020; Ioannides & Gyimothy, 2020), terrorist attack (Hitchcock & Putra, 2007), earthquake and tsunami (Subadra, 2020), or other form of crises like the recent refugee crisis in Greece (Constantoglou, 2020; Constantoglou & Prinitis, 2020).

3 Methodology

In order to undertake this research, the quantitative approach was chosen. The basic tool of this research is a self-completed questionnaire. Questionnaires were designed after literature review. Prior to the drafting the final questionnaire, and in order to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire a pilot questionnaire was distributed to ten passengers on board flights from and to Athens to be answered. Those passengers did not participate in the final survey. Those questionnaires gathered in this phase were used in order to identify possible ambiguities and duplications in the questions. Little modifications were then made based on their recommendations.

The questionnaire had two basic parts. In the first part respondents were asked to give basic and necessary demographic data. In the second section of the questionnaire respondents were asked to submit their opinions about cultural tourism in Greece and the pandemic.

Convenience sampling was the statistical method used in this study. Data collection was done through structured questionnaires that were given to passengers on board flights from and to Athens. The passengers older than 18 years were randomly approached during the flights from and to Athens; they were informed of the nature of the survey and asked to complete the questionnaire. In total, 147 questionnaires were gathered, 89 of which were from passengers returning from Athens to UK, Italy, and Belgium, while the rest come from incoming flights from the same destination to Athens.

The survey was conducted from October to November 2020. The statistical analysis of the data was implemented with the use of IBM SPSS v24.

4 Results

The demographic profile of the respondents was mainly young as 41.7% were in the age between 18 and 35 years old, 23.1% were in the age between 36 and 45, and the rest were up to the age of 65 years old. In a percentage of 47% they were working on the private sector of their countries, 22% were freelancers, 17% were employed in the public sector, 6% were students, and 2% were retired. Most of them were well-educated and with a medium to high annual income. Chart 2 shows that over 40% of the correspondents hold a bachelor's degree and a 5% holds a Ph.D.

According to Chart 3, almost 32.7% of the correspondents have a monthly income higher than 2000 euros.

The participants of this survey had various origins. The majority of them came from the UK (37.4%), Belgium (24.5%), Italy (10.9%), France (8.8%), Germany (2.7%), and Romania (2%). A percentage of 8.2% came from other EU countries like Luxenburg, Finland, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, Switzerland, etc. The most interesting element in the passengers' place of origin are those that are coming from

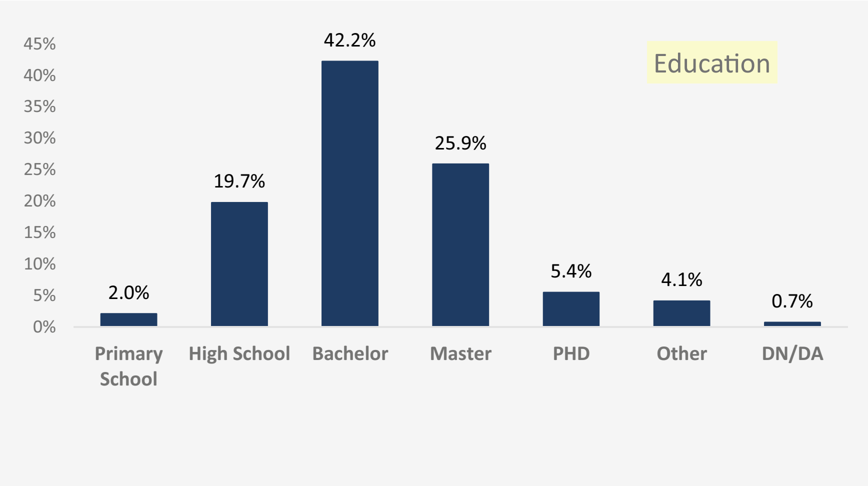


Chart 2 Level of education of the participants in this survey

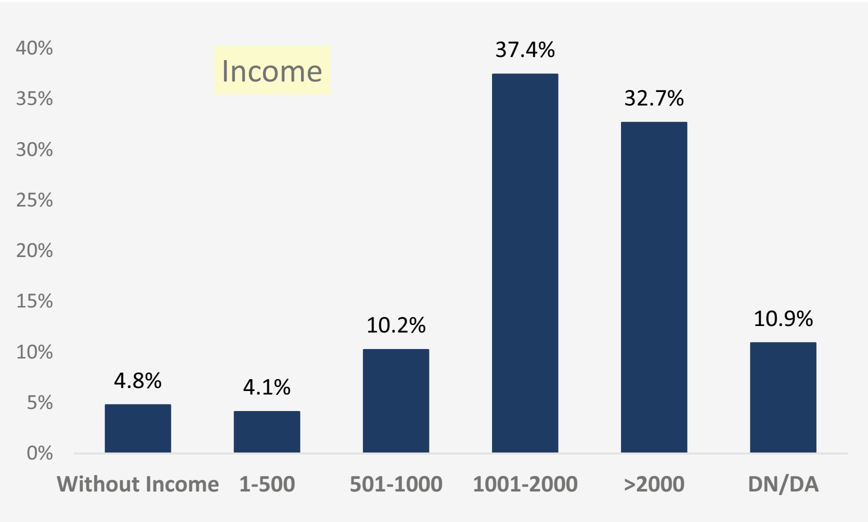


Chart 3 Income of participants in this survey

countries like Israel, Canada, the USA, Australia, New Zealand, Jordan, and Lebanon (5.4%) Chart 4.

In conclusion, the general profile of the respondents is mainly young and middle-aged people, foreign visitors from Western European countries, working mainly in the private sector or freelancers, with a high level of education and a fairly good financial status.

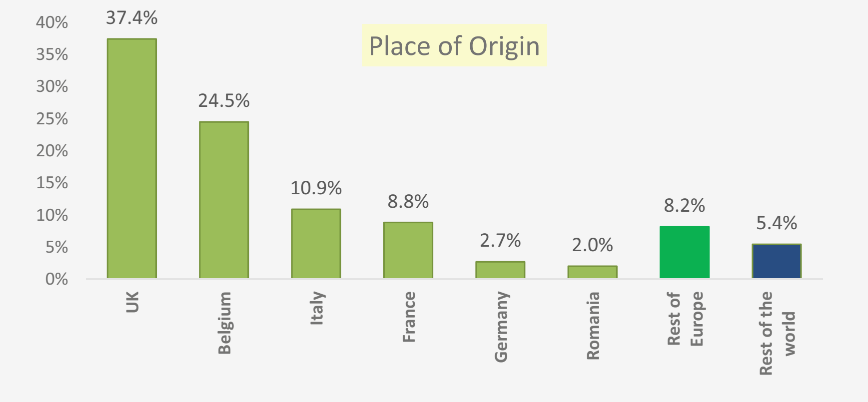


Chart 4 Country of origin of the survey participants

The second and most important part of the questionnaire consists of a total of fourteen questions which are essentially gathered around two central thematic cores. The first has to do with the preferences of tourists in relation to cultural tourism, their knowledge about Greece and its cultural heritage as well as the detection of the purpose of visit. The second has to do with the coronavirus pandemic and how it has affected the overall traveler experience. Finally, as a summary that could leave room for further comment, reflection, and research, comes the part of the last three questions, which focuses on whether Greece could be proposed as a worthwhile tourist destination, based on all the tourist of products and stocks. The questionnaire closes with an open question which leaves room for the respondent to leave his opinion in relation to whether there was something that bothered him during his stay in the country.

In general, the tourists of the Autumn season of 2020, showed interest in the culture and history of Greece and seemed to know several monuments of the cultural heritage of Greece. Although most of the people have sea and sun as the main purpose to visit Greece, they are indenting also to have a cultural activity during their trip to the country like visits to museums, monuments and archeological sites. Other visit purposes are entertainment, food, religious tourism and much more attract tourists as well (Chart 5).

Asked on whether they are interested in the cultural background of the country they are visiting, respondents in the vast majority responded positively (Chart 6).

Also, the survey showed that the frequency of cultural trips and travels for the purpose of visiting an archeological site / museum, or monument was high (Chart 7) as 45.6% of the respondents declared that once or twice a year they travel in order to undertake a cultural activity.

The research also showed that the History and Culture of Greece are two very basic reasons why tourists visit Greece. This was shown by the relative percentages on a scale from not at all to too much (Chart 8).

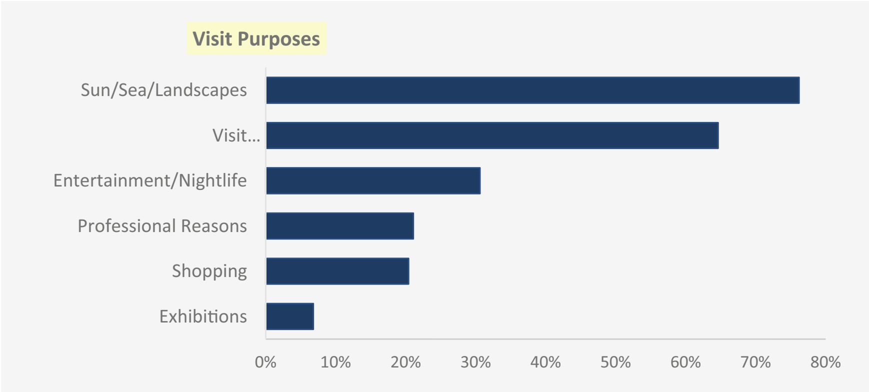
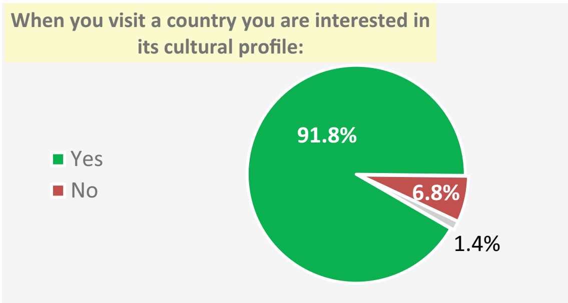


Chart 5 Purposes of visit

Chart 6 Interest in the cultural profile of a country



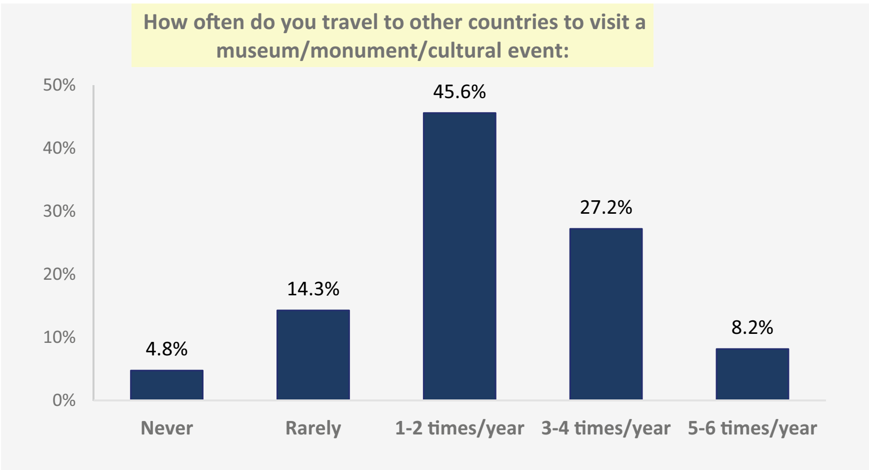


Chart 7 Frequency of cultural trips

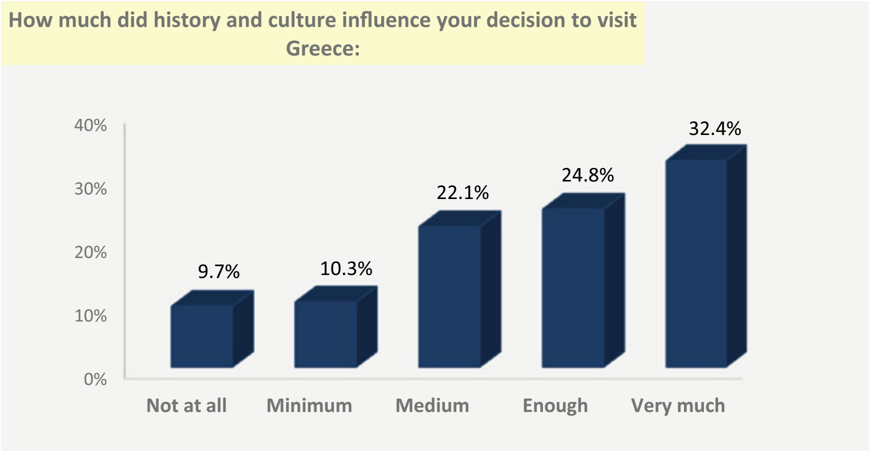


Chart 8 History and culture of Greece as reasons to visit the country

Tourists visiting Greece seem to be well aware of the cultural burden it possesses worldwide, and when are asked about monuments, they gave a plethora of different answers, with the Acropolis and the Parthenon in first place, along with Acropolis Museum (Chart 9).

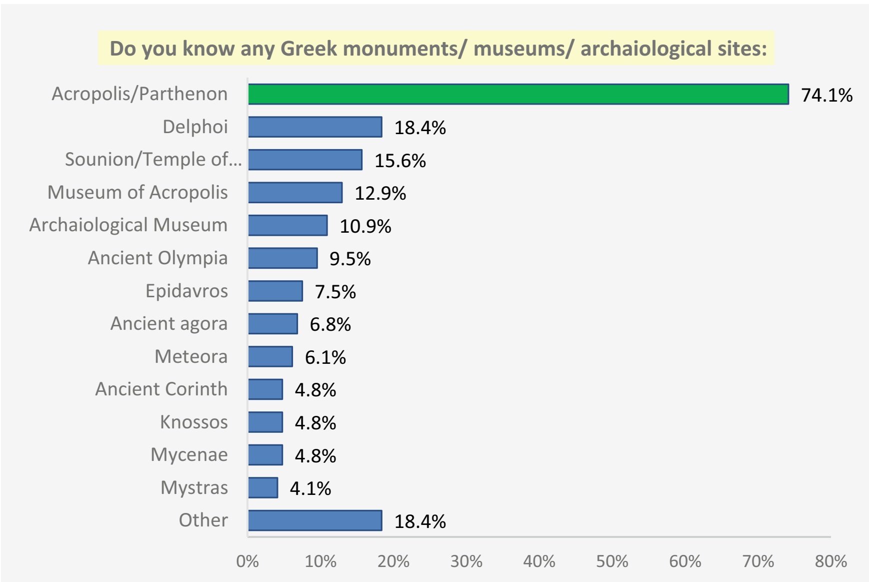


Chart 9 Most famous monuments of Greece

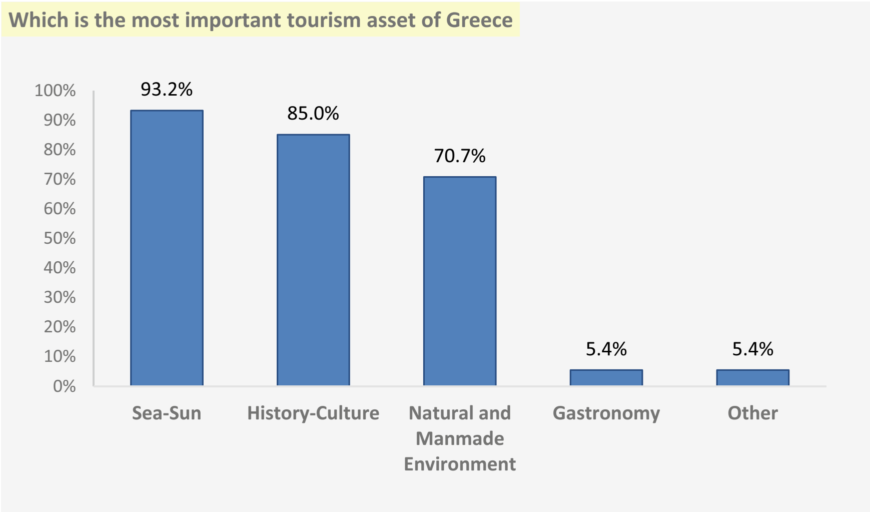


Chart 10 Important tourism assets of Greece

Respondents when asked about the most important tourism asset that Greece has to show believe in their majority (93.2%) that this is the mild weather conditions, sea, and sun. Following they believe (85%) that the history and culture of the country is equally important. Finally, they find the natural and manmade environment a very serious reason to visit the country (Chart 10).

Next question (Chart 11) was two-sided and had to do with on the one hand which parts of Athens the tourists visited during their stay in the country and on the other hand with which other parts they visited, outside of Athens, in case they decided to combine their holidays. The first part of the question contained some ready-made answers, which included the most famous monuments of the city, such as the Acropolis, the Parthenon, the Acropolis Museum, the Archaeological Museum, the Ancient Agora, Sounion, etc. The second part of the question was open and asked the respondents to list other places that they had either already visited when completing the questionnaire (outbound tourists) or planned to visit during their visit to Greece (inbound tourists). And to this question, the Acropolis and the Parthenon came first and by a large margin as an answer (Graph 15). However, the other options also gathered high percentages, relatively close to 50%, such as the Acropolis Museum with a percentage of 53.7%, the Historical Center with a percentage of 49%, the Ancient Agora with a percentage of 44.9%, Sounio with a percentage 34.7% and the National Archaeological Museum with a percentage of 33.3%. From all of this, it can be seen that the museums and monuments of Athens are well-known and popular among tourists, while at the same time maintaining a high percentage of visitors.

Regarding the second part of the same question, whether there was the intention to visit other parts of Greece and record them, the research proved that Greece is widely known and visited for its sites, especially those that offer cultural interest. In addition,

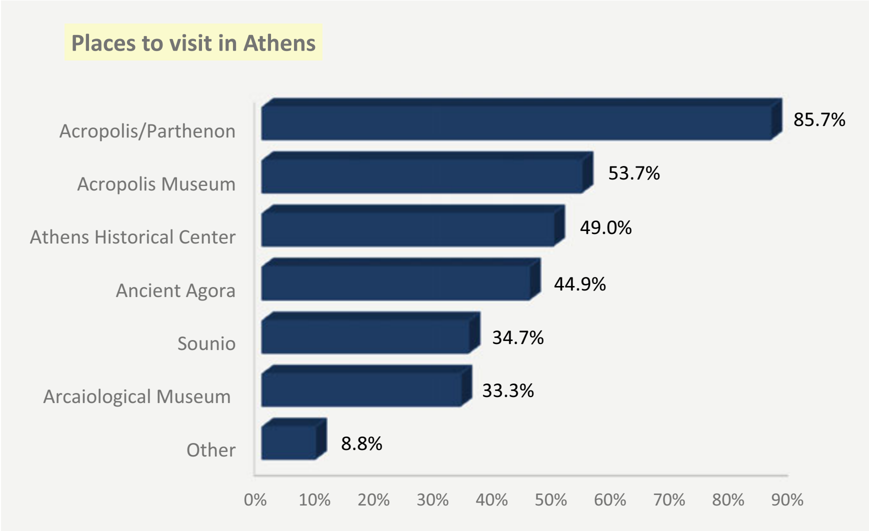


Chart 11 Places to visit in Athens

a large percentage of people showed a strong interest in the Greek islands, which shows that the ‘Sun-Sea’ dipole is, until today, the main product that still supports the Greek tourism industry and generates the most important economic results. In general, 70% of visitors express a strong interest in visiting at least one place or monument in Greece, outside of Attica. Also, Greece offers a very large number of locations and cultural monuments with strong tourist interest, compared to its small geographical area. To this question, the respondents answered spontaneously and unexpectedly mentioned a large number of landscapes, monuments, and locations, while an attempt was made to graphically record the answers which are shown below (Chart 12).

The following question had to do with whether visitors find some cultural elements of Greece attractive, placing them on a rating scale from not at all to very much. These are the following:

- Art, literature, music
- Morals, customs, traditions
- Religion, religious architecture
- Food, Gastronomy, local products
- Museums, archaeological sites
- Sports.

Based on their answer’s food, gastronomy, and locals’ products are the most interesting (85%), concentrated in the options ‘a lot’ and ‘very much’. Museums and archaeological sites followed with 68%; morals, customs, and traditions follow at 61%; while art, literature, and music on the one hand and religion and religious

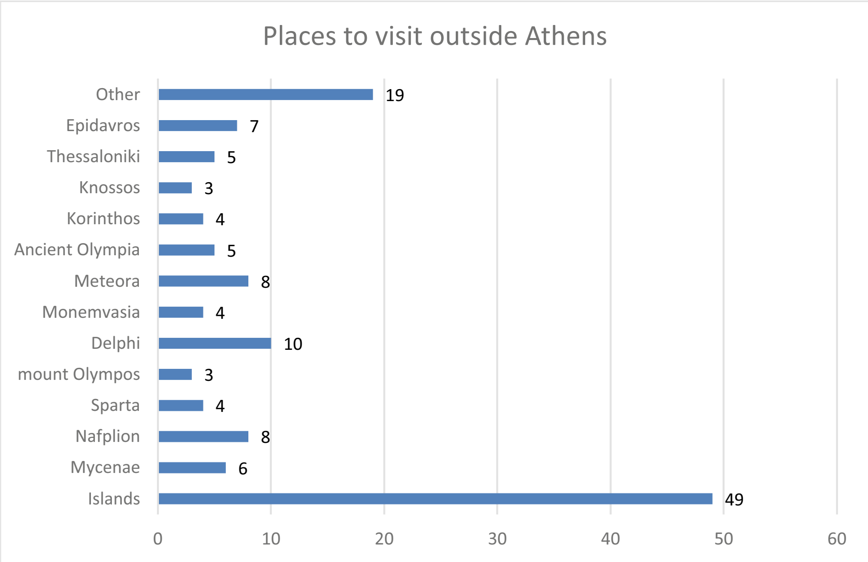


Chart 12 Places to visit outside Athens

architecture on the other attract to a much lesser extent. Finally, sports gather a negative percentage of preference, since only 26% of respondents expressed an interest in this field (Chart 13).

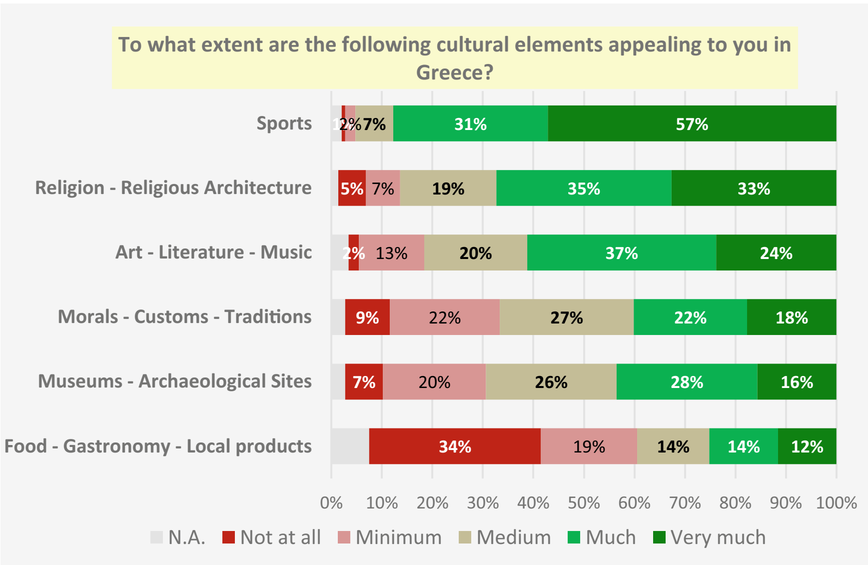


Chart 13 Important cultural assets of Greece

Table 1 Preventive measures due to the COVID-19 pandemic

What would you avoid during your trip to Greece due to COVID-19 pandemic:		
Social contacts	66	44.9%
Businesses that I would find that do not follow the necessary protection measures (e.g., Hotels, Restaurants, Entertaining centers, etc.)	65	44.2%
Visits to high-traffic places such as Museums, Archaeological Sites, Cultural Events, and Shopping centers	50	34.0%
Do not know/Do not answer	17	11.6%
Nothing	9	6.1%
Public transportation	5	3.4%
Crowded places/Parties	4	2.7%

However, in the general situation of the pandemic, the restrictions, and the continuous lockdowns, it was considered important to pay attention in this direction, in order to make an effort to understand the passengers' views and thoughts, about whether and to what extent they were affected from the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, some questions were selected at the end of the questionnaire, which would determine the audience's reactions to the pandemic and travel restrictions.

One question sought the preventive measures of tourists due to coronavirus. What would they watch out during the trip, what would they limit, what would they plan better, etc. The answers were ready and given for choice, but at the end there was and open question where everyone could add his/her opinion. In this case, almost half agreed that they would avoid social contacts, followed by the option that cited as a precautionary measure the avoidance of restaurants, etc., with a rate of 44.2%. The selection of visits to cultural sites came third with a rate of 34%, which may indicate that the attendance of cultural events or visits to famous and well-known cultural attractions was directly affected (Table 1).

The next question is quite important, because it asks openly and directly how much the overall experience of visitors to Greece was affected by the pandemic. Not to be forgotten at this point, the fact that the questionnaires were given during a quarantine period, from the end of October 2020 to November 2020, with passenger traffic at the lowest possible levels. The question, then, showed that on a scale from not at all to very much, visitors were moderately to minimally affected (Chart 14).

The next question was about whether the overall travel experience was influenced by the fact that the shops and cultural venues were closed or open with limited opening hours. Almost half and more (53.7%), answered positively, a 34.7% answered negatively and a small percentage of 11.6% answered 'I do not know / I do not answer' (Chart 15).

In the last part of the questionnaire, the purpose was to find out if there was an intention to visit Greece again in the future and for what reason. The vast majority answered in the affirmative, while the second part of the question showed various

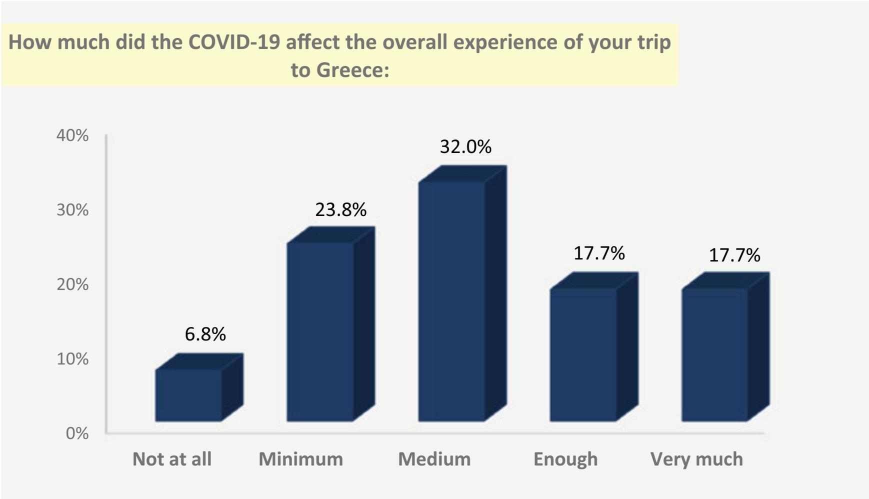
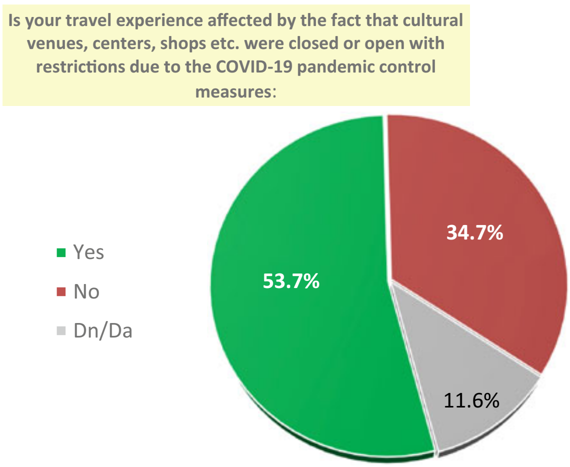


Chart 14 Overall travel experience of the participants

Chart 15 Impact of the pandemic on the travel experience due to the closure of cultural places and activities



reasons, the most prevalent being those related to the landscapes, the climate, and the natural beauty of Greece (Chart 16).

In another question, tourists were asked to answer whether they would suggest Greece as a tourist destination and if so why. And in this case, almost everyone answered in the affirmative. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance that Greece remains in a high position in what has to do with the preferences of tourists. They would definitely recommend it and would definitely visit it at least once again. As for the reason why, the answers clearly show the advantage of Greece in three main areas (Chart 17):

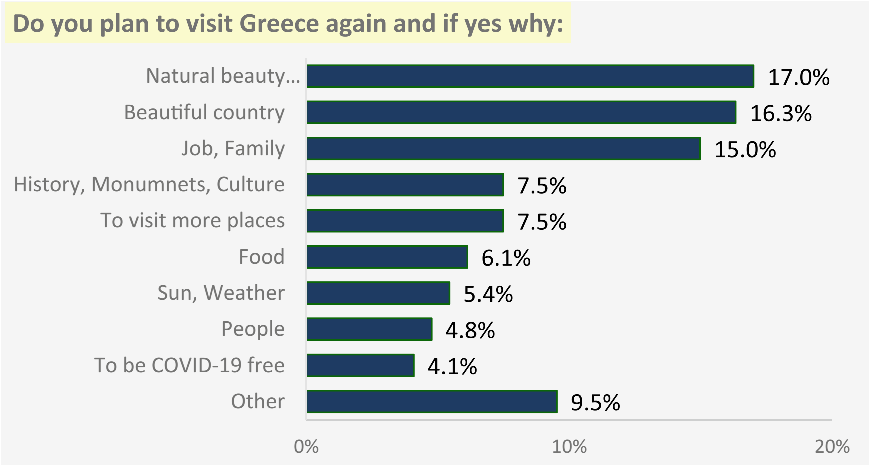


Chart 16 Reasons for visiting Greece again

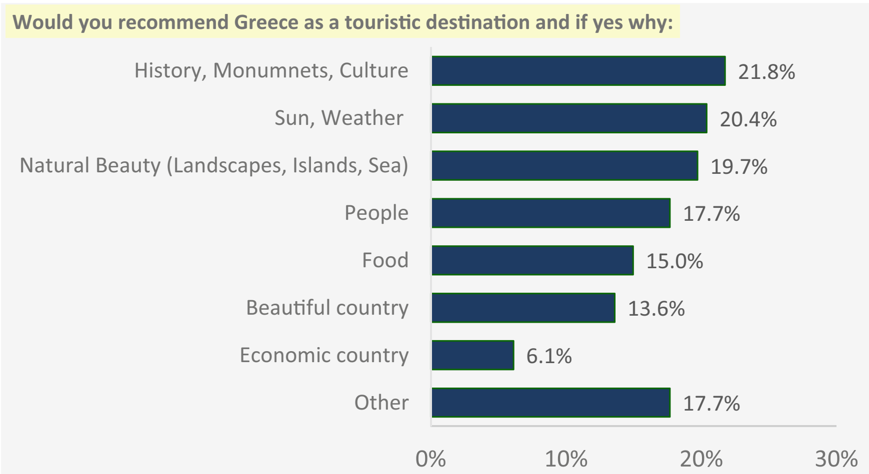


Chart 17 Greece as touristic destination

- History & Culture
- Climatic conditions
- Natural beauty.

The last question had to do with whether there was something that was difficult or unsatisfactory during the staying in Greece and if the answer was yes, what was it. To this question, more than the half of the answers were negative. However, there was a percentage who reported some negative experiences, such as garbage in the city center as well as the traffic (Chart 18).

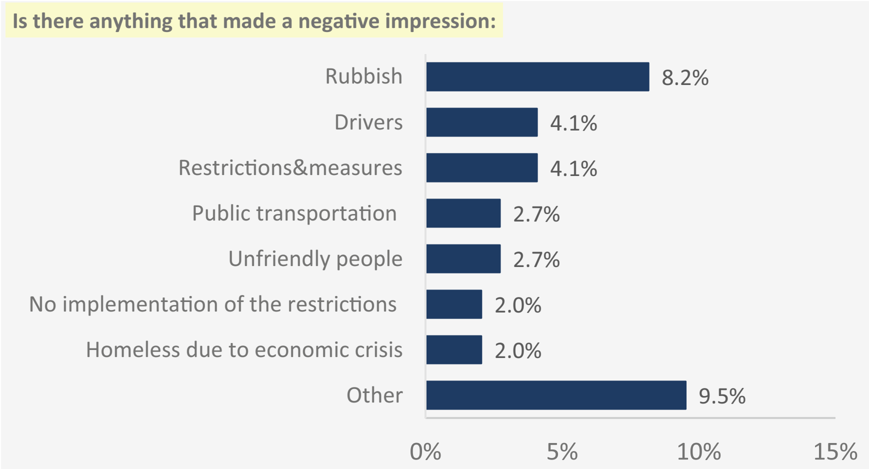


Chart 18 Negative impressions

In a deeper study of the demographic data from the entire sample, some phenomena were observed which helped to draw some additional conclusions. With the use of correlation, it was found that people with a higher educational level travel more often to other countries in order to visit a museum, monument, or cultural event (Chart 19).

Subsequently, it was observed that the higher the respondents' income, the more frequent their trips. Consequently, people with an income of more than 2000 euros have the highest percentage in the answer '3 times or more a year', while at the same time, the lowest percentage in the answer 'Never or rarely' (Chart 20).

Age was a factor that also determined the frequency of traveling for cultural reasons. Specifically, it was observed that people under the age of 35 and over 55 were the ones who traveled the most. This can be explained by the fact that these

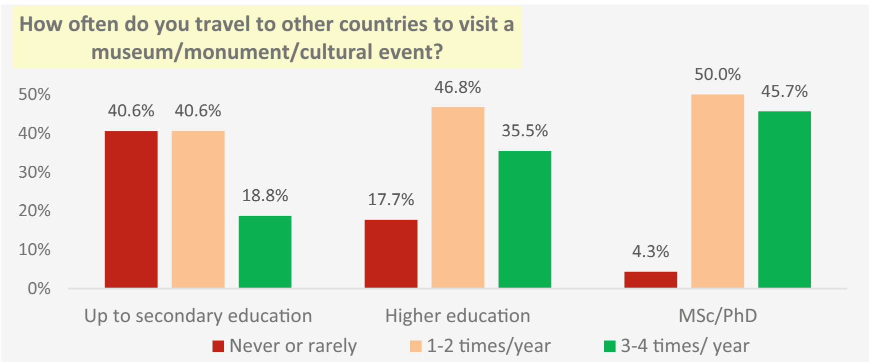


Chart 19 Cultural tourism related to education level

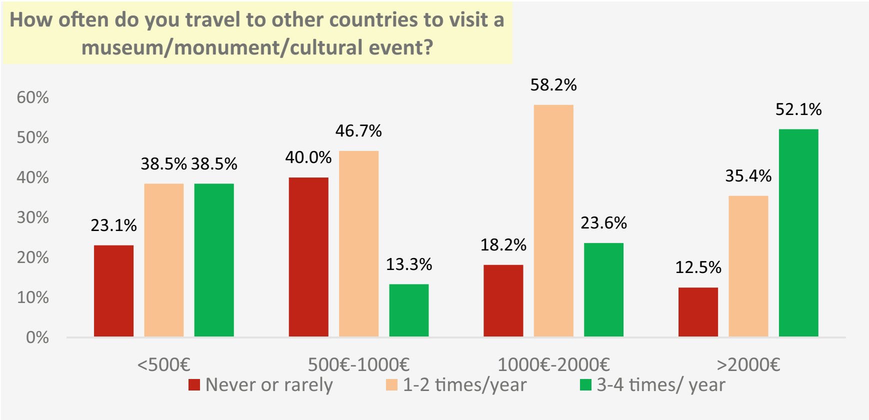


Chart 20 Cultural tourism related to income

people have more free time, as they are retired or students, without important and binding professional and family obligations (Chart 21).

Also, there is positive correlation between the history and culture of Greece and to the intention to visit the country from persons with higher incomes and a good educational level.

Regarding their nationality, the Germans as well as the residents of countries outside Europe are those who are most attracted by the country's cultural resources (Chart 22).

Regarding the way COVID-19 pandemic has affected the experience that tourists from different nationalities they gained from their trip to Greece a great differentiation is observed at the European and global level. People from other European

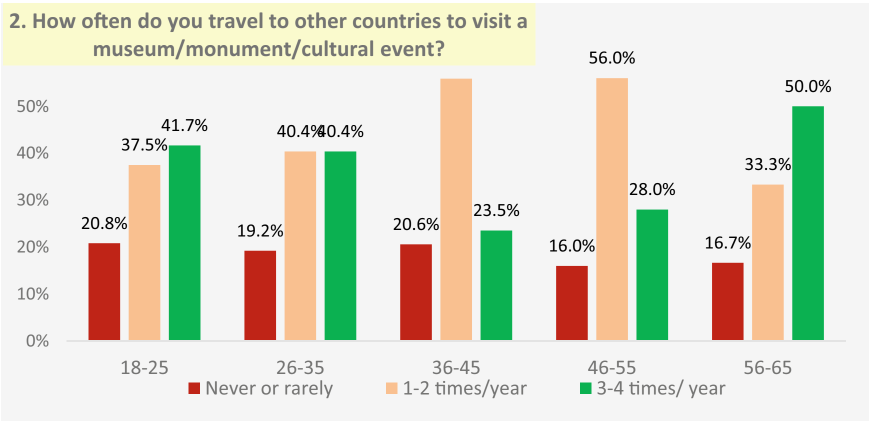


Chart 21 Cultural tourism related to the age of the participants

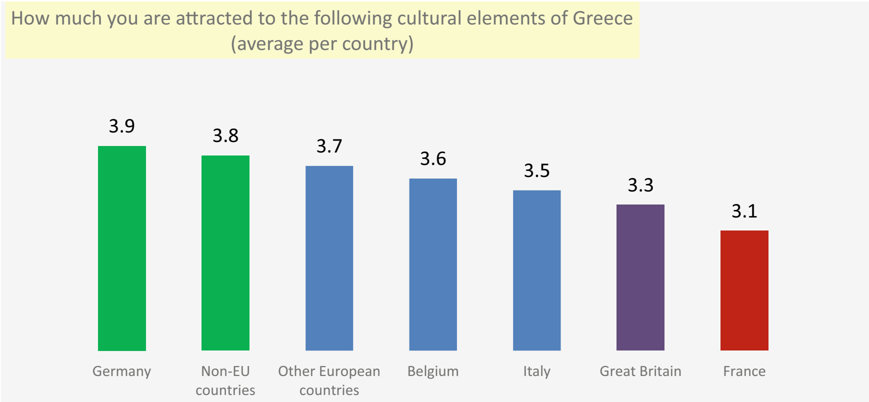


Chart 22 Cultural tourism related to the country of origin of the participants

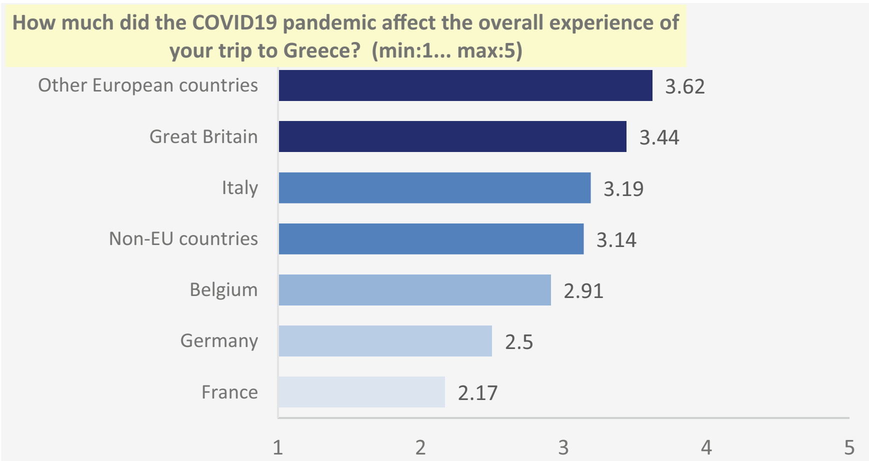


Chart 23 Sensitivity on Covid 19 pandemic according to nationality

countries (as described above) seem to be more affected. Also, the British say they are most affected, while the Germans and the French seem to be least affected by the coronavirus phenomenon (Chart 23).

5 Discussion and Conclusions

This article described the social representations and perceptions of inflight tourists to Greece from England, Belgium, and Italy and vice versa about cultural tourism in time of the coronavirus. The questions posed at the questionnaire provided an understanding of what the respondents spontaneously believe about Greece as a destination and identified the main cultural attractions, sites, and monuments that they considered important.

In the context of the present research, it has become obvious that tourism, as a phenomenon, is a complex phenomenon and complicated process with many peculiarities. It is a fact that under certain and specific conditions, it can become a particularly important economic activity, contributing decisively to the size of the national and global economy. Cultural tourism is a large but untapped capital for Greece. Nevertheless, the history and culture of Greece are one of the greatest economic resources for Greece. Cultural tourism is a form of alternative tourism with a dynamic development in recent years at the international level. What is evident from the results described until now is the close bound between history/culture and tourism industry of the country. This dipole is crucial as it seems that tourism development is depended upon cultural recourses development and vice versa.

The present research was conducted in the difficult and unprecedented conditions created by the coronavirus pandemic. The method of quantitative research using questionnaires was a useful and crucial tool for measuring tourists' opinion in order to draw conclusions. The research focused on two main themes, on the one hand, cultural tourism; and on the other hand, the coronavirus phenomenon and whether this affected the travel experience of the participants.

The most important conclusions of this survey, which aimed to investigate the views, perceptions, and expectations of foreign tourists in our country, can be summarized as follows:

The participating foreign tourists showed:

- Increased interest in the History and Culture of Greece.
- 1 to 2 times a year visit for cultural reasons.
- The 'Sun-Sea' package still holds the forefront of preferences.
- The history and culture of Greece are one of the most important reasons to visit.
- Greece is known for many of its monuments, most notably the Acropolis and the Parthenon.
- The islands of Greece, as well as most of its resorts are very popular world widely, since a large number of people flock every year to visit them.
- Greece is also a destination of flavors since one of the main reasons for visiting is its local cuisine.

What is striking about the coronavirus is that a percentage said it was moderate or even unaffected by the situation caused by the pandemic. Nevertheless, almost the majority said they were negatively affected by the measures. Also, almost everyone stated that they would limit social contacts and even visits to museums and places of culture.

Last but not least, in relation to the demographic data, the profile of the cultural tourist based on and relevant but also the specific research is the one that belongs to a higher educational and economic level. Women are more interested in the culture of an area, and the age groups that travel most often are under 35 and over 55 years old. Finally, the coronavirus mainly affected Britain and non-European countries, and less so Germany and France. Finally, Greece is a popular and beloved destination worldwide that almost everyone could suggest it as a place of recreation that combines many different interests compared to its limited geographical area.

Greece remains a popular touristic destination based on international rankings, and tourists choose it for its interesting natural and man-made environment, its climate, its culture, etc. It is worth mentioning, however, that they were found by the participants in the research and negative elements during their stay in the country, with the most important being the poor cleaning and the bad road behavior.

6 Suggestions for Future Research

The present research was conducted and completed in a particularly difficult period, while the results it gave were useful for two main reasons. Firstly, to determine the interest of visitors in cultural tourism, and secondly, to observe whether the coronavirus affected the movement and travel experience of tourists. Suggestions for further future research are as follows:

- Based on the results of this dissertation, research with more targeted questions in specific fields could follow as well as the use of more open-ended questions would be suggested, in order to determine the perceptions of the participants, which led them to choose specific answers.
- Similar research would be interesting to conduct after the end of the pandemic, providing useful data comparable to the present work.

References

Chatziliadou, G., & Constantoglou, M. (2021). New insights in sharing economy during the COVID 19 pandemic. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management., 9*(5), 275–287. https://doi.org/10.17265/2328-2169/2021.05.003

Coccosis, H., Tsartas, P., & Gkrimpa, E. (2011). *Special and alternative forms of tourism* (p. 203). Kritiki Publishing S.A.

Constantoglou, M., & Klothaki, T. (2021). How much tourism is too much? Stakeholder's perceptions on Overtourism, Sustainable Destination Management during the pandemic of COVID 19 era in Santorini island Greece. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management., 9*(5), 288–313. https://doi.org/10.17265/2328-2169/2021.05.004

Constantoglou, M., & Prinitis, M. (2020). Tourism destination crisis management: The case study of Lesvos island Greece. *Journal on Tourism & Sustainability, 3*(2), 14–31.

Constantoglou M., (2020). Destination Management in Lesvos, Greece. Characteristics, preferences, images, satisfaction and overall experience. *Business Ethics and Leadership*, 4(3), 81–106.

Du Cros, H., & McKercher, B. (2020). *Cultural tourism*. Routledge.

Duxbury, N. (Ed.). (2021). *cultural sustainability, tourism and development. (re)articulations in tourism contexts*. Routledge: London, UK. p. 45.

Gossling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism and global change: A rapid assessment of COVID-19. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 29*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1758708

Hall, C. M., Prayag, G., & Amore, A. (2018). *Tourism and resilience: Individual, organisational and destination perspectives.* Bristol: Channel View.

Hellenic Statistical Authority,(2022). Data. Retrieved from http://www.statistics.gr/el/home. Accessed 20 Jul 2022.

Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2020). Socialising tourism for social and ecological justice after COVID-19. *Tourism Geographies, 22*(3), 610–623. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1757748

Hitchcock, M., & Putra, I. N. D. (2007). *Tourism, development and terrorism in Bali.* Ashgate Publishing Limited.

INSTETE. (2021). *greek tourism towards 2030. action plans to strengthen competitiveness and the structural adjustment of the tourism sector*. https://insete.gr/greektourism2030/. Accessed 20 Aug 2022.

Ioannides, D., & Gyimothy, S. (2020). The COVID-19 crisis as an opportunity for escaping the unsustainable global tourism path. *Tourism Geographies, 22*(3), 624–632. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1763445

Jansen, M. V., Priestley, G. K., & Russo, A. P. (2008). *Cultural resources for tourism: patterns.* New York, Nova Science Publishers Inc.

Laws, E., Prideaux, B., & Chon, K. (2007). *Crisis management in tourism.* CAB International.

McKercher, B., du Cros, H. (2002). The partnership between tourism and cultural heritage management. Hamworth Press: New York, NY, USA. p. 46.

McKercher, B., & και Gross H. (2002). *Cultural Tourism: The partnership between tourism and cultural heritage management*. Haworth Hospitality Press.

Mousavi, S. S., και Doratli, N., και Mousavi, S.N., και Moradiahari, F. (2016). Defining cultural tourism. Retrieved from http://iicbe.org. Accessed 20 Aug 2022.

Pavlogeorgatos, G., Constantoglou, M. (2005). Cultural tourism: the case of Greece. In N. Vernicos (ed.), *Cultural industries. Athens*. Kritiki publishing SA, pp. 59-85.

Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management, 25*(3), 297–305.

Richards, G. (1996). *Cultural tourism in Europe.* CAB International.

Richards, G. (2018). Cultural tourism: A review of recent research and trends. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management., 36*, 12–21.

Richards and και Pereiro X, 2006Richards, G., και Pereiro, X. (2006). Cultural tourism: negotiating identitie. Portugal, Atlas.

Sifolo, N., & Sifolo, P. P. (2015). The tourism inconvenience of the Ebola epidemic: Lessons for the South African tourism sector. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 4*(1), 1–11.

Silberberg, T. (1995). Cultural tourism and business opportunities for museums and heritage sites. *Tourism Management, 16*(5), 361–365.

Subadra, I. N. (2020). Mitigating earthquake and tsunami risks in coastal tourism sites in Bali. In C. M. Hall & G. Prayag (Eds.), *Tourism and earthquakes* (pp. 65–81). Channel View Publications.

Terkenli, T. (2000). Landscapes of tourism: A cultural geographic perspective. In H. Briassoulis & J. van der Straaten (Eds.), *Tourism and the environment: regional, economic, cultural and policy Issues* (2nd ed., pp. 179–202). Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Terkenli, T. S., & Georgoula, V. (2022). Tourism and cultural sustainability: views and prospects from Cyclades. *Greece. Sustainability, 14*, 307. https://doi.org/10.3390/su14010307.(Accessed: 20/8/2022)

The best countries ranking of the US news & world report. Available online https://www.usnews.com/news/best-countries/influence-rankings. Accessed 28 Aug 2022.

The Best countries ranking of the US news & world report. Available online https://www.usnews.com/news/best-countries/greece. Accessed 2 Jan 2022.

UNWTO. (2017). *Definitions committee on tourism and competitiveness*. CTC. http://cf.cdn.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/ctcdefinitionsenweb.pdf. Accessed 20 Aug 2022.

UNWTO. (2018). Report on tourism and culture synergies. UNWTO: Madrid, Spain.
UNWTO. (2020). Tourism and culture. the world tourism organization (UNWTO). Retrieved from https://www.unwto.org/tourism-and-culture. Accessed: 20/8/2022.
Vagionis, N., & Skoultsos, S. (2016). *Cultural and religious tourism as components of the national tourism product*. Center for Planning and Economic Research.
WTTC. (2022). GREECE 2022 Annual Research: Key Highlights. Retrieved from https://wttc.org/Research/Economic-Impact. Accessed 20 Aug 2022.

Urban Mega-Projects, Cultural Flagships and Their Effect on the Destination Image and Visitor Economy: The Case of the Waterfront of the Metropolitan Area of Athens

Nicholas Karachalis and Efthymia Sarantakou

Abstract Tourism-led urban regeneration strategies, the role of cultural flagships and their sustainability have been discussed critically in various research works the last three decades; the "Guggenheim effect" and the power of iconic cultural venues have become familiar not only among policy makers and researchers but also to a wider audience. New cultural infrastructure and emblematic buildings are strongly associated with efforts to change the image and boost the fame of a city with the use of city branding techniques, often leading to dilemmas regarding their effectiveness and sustainability. Arguably there has been a downturn of this type of developments, and examples such the new Elbphilarmonie in Hamburg that was associated with delays and overspending and the cancellation of the plans to build a new Guggenheim museum in Helsinki show that there is a growing skepticism on this type of development. Still, many city strategies are prioritizing similar projects for the next years in order to boost tourism and to support real estate developments (Boix et al., 2017; Heuer and Runde, 2022). The waterfront of Athens is presented as an example: while still suffering from the effects of the financial crisis, the flagship building complex of the Stavros Niarchos Foundation (SNFCC) on the Athenian waterfront which hosts the National Library and the Opera alongside with the Lipasmata and Agios Dionysios development, and the new real estate development at the old airport of Hellinikon create the conditions for Athens to develop as cultural destination. As the so-called "Athens Riviera" becomes a strong identity element for the whole city, Athens is also labeled as the "New Berlin" by both Greek and foreign media. Do these developments lead to a specific tourism image for Athens and under what conditions can they be connected? To what extent will the tourism experience of the visitors change in the future, and will it also prioritize culture and leisure? The aim of the paper is to critically discuss the contradictions within this discussion. While Athens has an opportunity to develop a new identity through the developments at its waterfront, a coherent strategy mission and goals towards this direction are still missing. The

N. Karachalis (✉)
University of the Aegean, Chios, Greece
e-mail: nkarachalis@aegean.gr

E. Sarantakou
University of West Attica, Egaleo, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_31

connection with city branding and the conditions under which these investments in the cultural sector will be sustainable on the long term are also discussed.

Keywords Culture-led regeneration · Urban tourism · Destination image · Waterfront · Athens

JEL Classification Z32: Tourism and Development

1 Introduction

Within a period of transitions, so-called "new urban tourism" is changing the agenda of cities: "new tourism cultures" are moving beyond the typical tourism enclaves in search of new places and experiences in the city (Gravari-Barbas et al., 2019). The COVID-19 pandemic effects have also changed the way visitors but also stakeholder representatives, and policymakers are dealing with tourism and cultural planning (Pasquinelli et al., 2022). Culture and leisure infrastructure play a key role, and the localization of cultural infrastructure in metropolitan areas is combined with effects on the visitors' economy but also with social impact, influence on the image of the city, and urban regeneration. Especially for abandoned or post-industrial areas of the city, planning cultural activities can lead to a rediscovery but also to gentrification effects due to the increase in the value of real estate. In the context of the economy of experience, cities invest in star architects and new cultural buildings (museums, opera houses, libraries, performance venues, etc.) as well as in special events, spectacles, exhibitions, mega-events, etc. in order to attract the interest of residents and visitors and improve their image and reputation (Alaily-Mattar et al., 2018). Cities with a weak image such as Frankfurt which had the nickname "Krankfurt"–"sick city" or the port of Rotterdam are already investing on culture and musuems as solution since the 1980s within their efforts for urban regeneration (Bianchini & Parkinson, 1994, pp. 18–22). Nowadays, new projects such as Saadiyat in Abu Dhabi combine cultural flagship projects with tourism consumption and real estate development, setting a new paradigm (Dumortier, 2016).

An increasing number of cities are using images related to cultural production and consumption as part of organized city marketing/branding efforts in order to attract residents, visitors and businesses. The COVID-19 pandemic crisis has also triggered a more general debate on quality of life in cities (Florida et al., 2021). The need to connect the city's identity with a good quality everyday life, inclusion, openness and the creative economy is therefore strong. The time the contribution of the cultural sector to the image and reputation of city but also of the country in the context of nation branding and cultural diplomacy is highlighted (Dinnie, 2011). Large metropolitan cities such as Paris, Rome or Athens represent, to a great extent, the national identity and reputation; therefore, efforts to rebrand themselves also affect the national brand.

For Athens, this debate is particularly relevant since it has been attracting interest as a "city in crisis" with artistic and touristic appeal the last few years, leading to an important tourism boom. Athens is a capital city, a metropolitan city and a tourist city that tries to establish itself as a cultural tourism destination and connect with positive images seems to benefit from the presence of cultural sites and the presence of young artists who choose Athens as a cheap working and living place the last decade (Souliotis, 2013). The successful hosting of the Olympic Games in 2004 and the austerity crisis that followed a few years after consisted of two basic milestones that have led to new development goals for Athens: increasing tourism and attracting investors (the former Hellinikon airport regeneration being a key project, but also key projects in Piraeus and Drapetsona) and real estate buyers. Indeed, the increasing popularity of Athens as a tourist and "golden visa" destination led to strong pressure on the housing market through real estate speculation and Airbnb rentals (Leontidou, 2021). The tourism boom of Athens in 2018 and 2019 and, according to the evidence, in 2022, has also led to tourism-related investments affecting parts of the city that were not touristic. (Vitouladiti, et al 2018) Especially large regeneration projects such as Hellinikon and the Agios Dionysios project in Piraeus combined with the new cultural infrastructure bring optimism that in the coming years the city may significantly improve its international attractiveness. Still, this is particularly fragmented as the Athenian waterfront is diverse and of each suburb is different, so the discussion about the positive impact of cultural and tourism activity in an area should be explored on a case-by-case basis.

Hence, in this debate, the geography of tourism plays a key role as its further development needs new landmarks, spaces for consumption, and experiences that can lead to multiple visits. The global fame of the Acropolis and the surrounding archaeological sites lead most tourists to the historical centre and Monastiraki Plaka, and only a smaller proportion will reach other areas and suburbs (Karachalis, 2015). The waterfront of Athens, is currently being rediscovered as a luxury "riviera" for leisure, tourism and culture. The purpose of the paper is to present the discussion on the impact of cultural infrastructure and cultural activity on the image and reputation of a city and to comment on the particularities of combining cultural and tourism activity with real-estate on the waterfront. Special emphasis is given of the new emblematic buildings such as the Cultural Centre of the Stavros Niarchos Foundation and the new developments on the waterfront. The emergence of Athens by the Greek and foreign media as "New Berlin" as well as the key role of the creative economy in the city is also critically commented. Moreover, the future perspectives and dilemmas of the re-development of parts of the waterfront as leisure and tourism enclaves is discussed critically.

2 Literature Review

Scott (1997) links intangible, symbolic capital to the revival or revitalization of cities that have experienced de-industrialization and refers to the creative climate (creative milieu) in which cultural enterprises and organizations can develop. The effects (spillovers) of cultural development at the local level in other sectors of the economy such as tourism and education are very important (Evans, 2009, pp. 1004–1008). Central to the discussion is cultural and leisure planning, which can be linked to different scales of implementation or objectives (Bell & Oakley, 2015). Especially the localization of flagship cultural buildings (museums, performance venues, etc.) can have important effects both on a neighbourhood level, but also on the way the visitor's economy is organized in a city. The key objective is to develop synergies and networking between artists, organizations and companies in the creative and cultural industries in combination with leisure/tourism activity (Pratt, 2011:29).

Waterfront redevelopment raises issues concerning an extensive range of urban planning and management perspectives, extending from space design to economic, environmental, cultural, and tourism considerations (Kostopoulou, 2013). Following the decline of waterfront industrial areas in many cities all over the world in the second half of the twentieth century, urban waterfront redevelopment started in North America with Baltimore's Inner Harbour in the 1970s, and has gradually became a widely spread and largely accepted tool against urban dereliction of inner city areas close to water (Gospodini, 2001; Jauhiainen, 1995). Waterfront redevelopment is linked to the recent development of urban policy, tourism, and real estate policy. Barcelona is by far the most well known and well-documented successful example, using its high-quality waterfront spaces as a part of an improvement urban policy. The redesign of Barcelona's waterfront in preparation for the 1992 Olympic Games contributed to the explosive growth of national and international visitors (Jauhiainen, 1995).

Real estate investment and urban mega-projects connected to tourism and leisure are part of this discussion: metropolitan areas are attracting attention as places for office space, leisure and high-value housing, a trend which is often leading to gentrification effects (Zukin, 2010). Still leisure activities are not only meant for tourists and visitors but also primarily for residents. Public access to parks, open, etc. are linked with their sustainability and a daily visitation is necessary in order to make these places popular, safe and attractive (Lubowiecki-Vikuk et al., 2021). Therefore, complementing real estate development with leisure activities (parks, libraries, museums, restaurants and cafes, shopping malls, etc.) is often seen as a way of creating acceptance and an improved urban environment (Sperke and Kennedy, 2019).

The contribution of modern cultural infrastructure (cultural buildings, museums, multipurpose spaces, etc.) and the special cultural events associated with these spaces in shaping the reputation, identity, and image of the wider metropolitan area of Athens is associated with important dilemmas. Apart from the "instrumentalization" of culture, i.e., its use for non-cultural purposes, an important dilemma is related to the representativeness of the projected form of culture—in many cases the images and aesthetics chosen are addressed to specific elites. Marketers often end up adopting similar images and choices in terms of promoting culture that are not directly related to the city and are characterized by mass and duplication by projecting homogeneous images of cultural consumption. Finally, these images may cover images of urban poverty or urban decay. It is therefore important that the design processes are participatory and open and controlled in terms of objectives and representativeness (Karachalis, 2021; Martínez-Pérez et al., 2019).

The recent literature on "cultural flagship projects" has been focusing on the subject of economic, social and cultural influences, with the so-called "Guggenheim effect" dominating the discussion referring to the case of Bilbao (Frey, 1998; Plaza & Haarich, 2015). The reference to the Bilbao case and the impact of the construction and operation of the Guggenheim Museum on the designs of architect Frank Gehry is central in this discussion: it is the museum that has identified more than any other case with the positive effects on the city. It was the project that marked the effort of urban revitalization and later became the symbol of changing its image by attracting thousands of visitors, creating conditions for increased investments and employment opportunities, and was an example that other cities have tried to copy it, a trend characterized as the "Bilbao effect". Today, the effectiveness of investing in expensive projects of this type is being questioned as critical attitudes increase, with the (negatively charged) term McGuggenheim (or Mc Guggenheimisation) often used to describe the tendency of many cities to invest in costly related "flagship projects" with culture in order to attract global interest (Zukin, 2010, pp. 4–8). The case of Helsinki and the imminent construction of a corresponding Guggenheim museum is also indicative. The total cost of \$138 million and, in particular, the high cost of using the brand (\$20 million) provoked significant reactions in the local community and eventually led to the cancellation of the implementation. This decision was accompanied by celebrations but also criticism, for example by the director of the Solomon Foundation R. Guggenheim who claimed that "the decision is a reaction against globalization" (Siegal, 2016).

In Amsterdam, the strategy of highlighting the city's museums, either through expensive renovations (e.g. the new entrance to the Stedelijk Museum), or through the construction of new museums such as the iconic New Film Museum (Eye) on the northern part of the IJ, aims at both strengthening the image of the city as a "city of culture: and attracting cultural tourists (Eye Museum Website, 2022). An effort that is more directly identified with city branding is that of Vienna and the Museumsquartier. This is a relatively recent (2001) development of a complex of museums and cultural sites in the former Imperial stables. The development is directly related to the effort of the city authorities to overcome the established identities associated with the "imperial city", the "Christmas city", etc. and to promote a more youthful image internally to residents and externally to visitors. From the beginning, the goal of the operation of the museum area was to create a positive image for the whole city. Tourists and inhabitants meet in the common yard of the museums where there is no entrance fee. The development of the Museumsquartier, which combines exhibitions, daily activities, the hosting of creative teams within the Quartier 21 and special events such as the Wiener Festwochen and the Impulstanz, manage to attract a younger audience and also to renew its image city. The most impressive case of cultural investment concerns the Saadiyat in Abu Dhabi where a large number of emblematic buildings are being constructed which will host international museums (Louvre branch, Guggenheim museum, etc.) in an effort to establish itself as a global Saadiyatat cultural destination (Plaza and Haarich, 2015).

Most of the examples have as strong connection to tourism development and city branding, raising the issue of the relation between urban planning and city branding which is a symbiotic relation that cannot easily be separated (Deffner et al., 2020). Critical aspects are also pointed out as most of these projects represent an emphasis on luxury real estate. Still, despite their popularity, this kind of entrepreneurial strategies also came with many hidden costs, such as the negative political and social effects from the so-called "Calatrava Model" in the case of Valencia (Boix et al., 2017; Rius-Ulldemolins & Gisbert, 2019).

3 Relaunching the Athenian Waterfront as Destination and the Role of Cultural Flagships

3.1 Methodology

The paper is based on an analysis of the transformation of the waterfront of Athens which is now being re-developed and re-intrdouced as the so called "Athens Riviera" for leisure, tourism and cultural consumption. Planning public cultural uses and buildings as a policy choice and as a marketing tool are ate the center of the analysis. The purpose of the paper is to present the discussion on the impact of cultural infrastructure and cultural activity on the image and reputation of a city and to comment on the particular characteristics that give Athens its identity as a tourist city. More particularly, based on evidence from tourist organizations and stakeholders, evaluation reports, etc., the spatial development of tourism and culture in the metropolitan area of Athens is commented on, with a special emphasis on the role of the waterfront. The main research question is related to the role of culture and tourism regarding the development of the waterfront of Athens as a tourism destination. Special emphasis is given of the new emblematic buildings such as the Cultural Centre of the Stavros Niarchos Foundation and the new developments on the waterfront. Moreover, the future perspectives and dilemmas of the re-development of parts of the waterfront as leisure and tourism enclaves is discussed critically. The main hypothesis is that the cultural infrastructure with a semi-public character (such as the Stavros Niarchos complex or the Hellinikon park) hold a key role in attracting both visitors and inhabitants to the waterfront, affecting its destination image and functions.

3.2 The Waterfront of Athens as a Tourism Destination

Since the post-war period until today, the relationship between the waterfront and the city of Athens has been changed and redefined following the development policies and priorities of each period, but has also been shaped to a certain extent by the function of a tourist destination. One can distinguish five main periods. The first period ends in 1950 and the includes the pre-WWII developments: the tourist/leisure activity in Athens was mainly limited to the area of Piraeus and Neo Faliro, which was already developed as a residential area. The rest of the coastal zone was not inhabited with only a very few settlements (in the Delta complex of Faliron, Elliniko, Glyfada, and elsewhere) (Karidis, 2006; Kolonas, 2015). Industrial activity gradually added a new character in the areas of Drapetsona and the coastline of Piraeus. The second period lasts from 1950, right after the Second World War, when international tourism was recognized as a driving force for the reconstruction of the Greek economy till 1974. The state, through the Greek National Tourism Organization (EOT), exercised a central, top-down planning for the creation of the first Greek tourism destinations. The part of the coastal front from Faliro to Kavouri became the key tourism area for Athens because it combined natural and cultural resources and was also the main tourist entrance point thorugh airport of Hellinikon. As the city was expanding along the Saronic Gulf waterfront, the need to protect the coastal zone from increasing urbanization and to preserve it as a valuable tourist resource was identified (Papaevestratiou, 1957). Large areas on the coastal front, including archaeological sites, harbours and beaches became public spaces for tourist development, run either by the Greek National Tourism Organization (EOT) or by private individuals. In 1959, the first comprehensive spatial planning studies for the development of tourism on the Saronic Coast from Kastela to Sounion were commissioned. The detailed study by Doxiadis was only partly implemented though. During the dictatorship (1968–1974) tourism development of the waterfront was intensified, directing significant public resources to the creation of a significant number of organized coastlines—beaches and ports (Sarantakou, 2022).

The period from 1975–2000, Attica/Athens gradually lost its significance as a tourist destination. In 1980, the number of overnight stays in Athens was 8.9 million and represented 22.1% of the country's total, while in 2000 the corresponding figures were 3.9 million and 7.3%. The tourist geography of the city mostly considered its historic centre, as the majority of tourists make a short visit to the Acropolis before moving on to the islands or coastal destinations. In the 1970s, a series of projects in the Faliro, including extensive embankments, the elevation of Poseidonos Avenue, and the creation of a sporting complex cut off Kallithea, Moschato, and N. Faliro from the waterfront. The waterfront was astatically and environmentally downgraded, becoming mostly a transport axis rather than a place for leisure and tourism. The period from 2000 until 2012 is characterized by the 2004 Olympic Games preparation and legacy, a mega event which created high expectations the tourist recovery of Athens and reopened the discussion of waterfront development. However, the Olympic projects were not integrated into a holistic urban development and tourism strategy. This led Athenian tourism to further decline, while the Olympic infrastructure was not re-used effectively (Deladetsimas, 2015; Hatzidakis, 2015).

The current period starts from 2013 and last till nowadays: despite the austerity crisis, Athens has been on a path of tourism recovery and opening up to new markets (HCH, 2013–2021; Hatzidakis, 2015; SETE Intelligence, 2018). According to the data form the Hellenic Hoteliers Association, Athens is no longer just a stop-over destination, but is also developing markets for city break tourism, congress tourism, and youth tourism with 70.6% of inbound tourism from Eleftherios Venizelos airport choosing to stay overnight in Attica in 2019 . At the same time, the city's tourism map is expanding. The large growth of short-term rentals in the Attica region (from 1.254 in 2013 to 30.184 in 2018) activates new tourist areas along Stadiou Avenue (Koukaki, Neos Kosmos, Kallithea) (AirDNA, 2015; Athanasiou & Kotsi, 2018) which connects the two main tourist poles of the capital, namely the waterfront and the historical centre (Sarantakou & Xenitellis, 2019). In 2019, 9.1 million overnight stays were recorded in Attica, with 62.3% of them in the central sector of Athens and 21% in the coastal front. The state's interest is returning to the coastal front, which is characterized by the Attica Regulatory Plan of 2014 as a key "comparative advantage" of both the Attica Region and Metropolitan Athens. Under conditions of economic crisis and memorandum obligations (2010–2019), new development processes and flexible spatial tools are created for the utilization of former tourist and Olympic properties and inactive areas (Hellinikon, Faliro, Drapetsona) (Sarantakou, 2022; Sarantakou & Tsartas, 2015, Skoultsos, et al 2017). Especially the Hellinikon project which will be developed the next years and until 2030, opens up a new chapter in the discussion on the Athenian waterfront, introducing luxury property-led development.

3.3 Athens and Its Waterfront as a Cultural Destination

From the periods between the two World Wars and during the reconstruction in the 1950s an 1960s tourism and culture are tightly linked with each other in the case of Athens. Even before the context of the grand Tour, Athens attracted attention due to the privilege of having a rich cultural heritage and world famous collections of antiquities. Hence, classical Athens and the image of the Acropolis are dominant elements of the city's identity. Yalouri (2001) refers to the fact that modern Athens with the organization of the Olympic Games to be presented as a national claim and the construction of the Acropolis Museum in 2008 to be associated with the repatriation of the Parthenon sculptures relies heavily on the "symbolic capital" of the ancient Greek past. From this past, after removing elements that are not desirable, a narrative is created which is largely identified with ancient history, provoking an interesting discussion about the current value of these concepts and their possible conflict with its contemporary identity–as is the case with Rome (Settis & Cameron, 2006, pp. 64–66). In the "suffocating" context created by this dominant identity, the alternative images of contemporary cultural production, artistic experimentation, the young creative scene, and graffiti seem to create an interesting contrast which, however, has not become part of the city's identity.

The 1960–1980 period was characterized by the implementation of the plans for the protection of Plaka, still it is only until the late 1990s when the preparation for the Olympics of 2004 creates the need to plan an archaeological park in the city centre: this was carried out with great success. Especially the Acropolis Museum can be characterized as one of the emblematic flagship museums that, arguably, have changed the routes of the city's visitors. According to the data in the relevant entries (museums, theatres, and cinema) of the Social Atlas of Athens, there are peculiarities (e.g. many theatrical scenes) and rather low performance in terms of museums—most do not attract the interest of foreign visitors with the exception of Acropolis Museum which has a significant number of visitors (Deffner et al., 2015). Several new museums and cultural buildings have been added to the cultural infrastructure the last 5 years creating new opportunities and spatial concentrations. Despite these prospects, however, the financial crisis makes it almost impossible to find and allocate financial resources for the implementation of cultural development programs, and several existing museums face problems of sustainability and day-to-day management issues (ibid.). However, several public and private cultural institutions continue to be active with significant work, which shows remarkable resilience, although there is a decrease in the consumption of relevant services (Souliotis, 2013). These new cultural buildings, together with the renovated National Gallery (2022), the NEON building in Sepolia (2021), the Goulandris Modern Art Museum (2021) etc. are the new "portfolio" of Athens in terms of modern culture—and especially the art sector—offering the opportunity to display images that differ from the image of the Acropolis, the ancient heritage and the 2004 phantasmagoria, focusing on citizens and urban social movements (Leontidou, 2021). In the future, they are expected to be enriched with the image of museum spaces of the "Cultural Coast" of Piraeus, a project by the Harbour Authority which will gather commercial, tourist and cultural uses in the port. However, non-profit or informal cultural sites should not be excluded from this list, which may give special characteristics to the image of the city and the daily life of each neighbourhood.

Athens is already being promoted as "New Berlin", which, especially in the 1990s, was identified with the message "Arm aber sexy" ("Poor but attractive"), a message that is relevant to today's Athens. In many central areas of the city one observes the presence of non-Greek creatives (painters, actors, designers, and architects) who are attracted by the cheap rents and the creative environment. Berlin followed a similar trajectory in the 1990s, and today its image and marketing strategy are based on modern culture and in particular on the arts, galleries, music scenes, electronic music, etc. (see Colomb, 2012). To what extent can one relate the new cultural infrastructure to the needs of supporting the image of "New Berlin"? Does the image of the new Opera and the National Library complement or compete with the "alternative" image of the city that attracts artists? And how realistic is this picture when Athens has a regional position and has a low performance in terms of exhibitions, concerts, etc.? The answers to these questions are largely subjective and must take into account the daily operation of the cultural venues and the special events organized there. Audience development, cultural policy and funding schemes, the precarity of artists are, therefore, at the center of this discussion.

3.4 Planning and Branding the Waterfront of Athens as a Destination for Cultural Tourists

Are new cultural buildings and, more generally, spaces that are open to visitors, able to have a central role in the tourism development of the waterfront?. Reservations were already being expressed about the SNFCC: an article in the Financial Times entitled "If you build it they will come, Greece's new temple to high culture" states that the operation of this particular cultural project comes with insecurity (Hope, 2016). Since the National Library opened in the new building, it has attracted a new public and 20 million visitors, while it is also included in tourist routes (SNFCC, 2022; Makowska, 2021)

In order to comment upon urban planning and cultural uses on the waterfront it has to be understood that cultural tourism and, particularly, museum or festival tourism are not strong advantages for Athens and don't form a recognizable element in terms of reputation. It is mostly heritage that attracts the attention of visitors. It is indicative that every year there are few temporary exhibitions of contemporary art that manage to attract foreign visitors or can be labelled as "blockbusters" (e.g. the exhibitions of the Museum of Cycladic Art or the Benaki Museum). In the category of annual festivals, exhibitions and special events, the Greek Festival is the most recognizable state institution, with some more cases having been established (e.g. Aeschylus in Eleusis, Rockwave, etc.). New cultural sites, if not combined with events and audience development policies, are difficult to create a positive image or impact. The case of the Museumsquartier in Vienna is characteristic: the daily program of events, the original—targeted at the young audience—projection, the easy access, the hospitality of artists and the offer of leisure services make the space lively and creative in the perception of visitors and residents. Therefore, the exhibition policy of the museums, the support of the local art scene, the hosting of festivals and special events, the possibility of combining the visit with leisure activities, etc. are especially important. The relevant literature and publications on cultural statistics is limited, and the need for more systematic research is necessary. Investing in special events and festivals is not just about attracting "festival tourism", but also developing the local cultural scene, boosting employment in the creative economy, and improving the overall image of the city (Konsola & Karachalis, 2009; Richards & Palmer, 2010, pp. 413–435).

The "city in crisis" creates a contradictory narrative to the one on the waterfront: Although the crisis is a negative element, the city seems to become attractive to "alternative tourists", artists and creative groups, as well as to tourists with a special interest in contemporary culture. Although for most visitors it is not a final destination and the average stay per tourist is low, there is a percentage of tourists who choose Athens as a cultural urban destination, mainly for antiquities and museums but also for its emergence as a youth destination. Therefore, the waterfront development becomes an interesting addition to the tourism portfolio of the city which will either empower its attractiveness to a segment of new urban tourists or will aim at the high-end segment. This question is part of a wider discussion on the future of tourism of

Athens, and several studies identify, based on market research, the low recognition of some tourist features of Athens (e.g., coasts) and the identification of negative characteristics (pollution, crisis, etc.) (Kyratsoulis, 2015).

In terms of city marketing and branding, one can detect contradictory messages and narratives concerning Athens: from the one side, the luxury real estate development, and the star architect buildings; and on the other hand, the more authentic, alternative art scene of the Athenian city centre. The Municipality of Athens through the Athens Development and Tourism Promotion Company follows a more coherent approach to city marketing/branding: initially with the "Breathtaking Athens" campaign and today with the "This is Athens" campaign it focuses on new features and multiple identities. The promotion of Athens as a "city of events" is at the centre, while Documenta was a unique occasion for a special promotion. Since December 2016, as part of the Athens Tourism Partnership, an original collaboration between government agencies and private partners, a TV spot has been created which visually captures the main features of the city through 51 images: the National Library building, the National Museum of Contemporary Art in Fix, the Acropolis Museum, Documenta, the graffiti scene, etc. appear as images, while it is noteworthy that the Archaeological Museum does not appear, emphasizing mainly the modern cultural infrastructure towards the waterfront as mentioned above.

The focused promotion strategy that could highlight the image of Athens as a lively and experimenting city that responds to the needs of a particular tourism segment that looks for experiences related to the new urban tourism is currently missing from the relevant strategies (Karachalis, 2015). Especially on the waterfront the post-industrial landscape of Piraeus and Drapetsona could be attractive for a particular tourism segment. The rest of the waterfront develops a more typical sea, sun and sand approach with luxury services. Lamda Development who is the company that is running the Hellinikon project has launched a campaign where it presents the investment mostly for real estate clients rather than visitors. It is quite characteristic though that there is an estimation of 1 million tourist visiting Hellinikon every year and that the public functions such as the park and the open theatre will get more attention the next years (Lamda Development, 2022). Still it is hard to connect the Hellinikon promotion campaign and its messages to the one of the city branding strategy.

4 Conclusions

Reflecting on the recent developments in Athens and the above analysis, it can be noticed that cultural development is very much connected to the discussion on city breaks and tourism development (Karachalis & Deffner, 2022). Although the waterfront is increasingly recognized as a key element of Athens, the potential for tourism development is arguably still note met, a fact which is also highlighted through the latest data: although it has more than 166 points of tourist interest (monuments, sites, museums, nature and parks, etc.), the coastline is still in a good state of development and has a high level of development. Based on TripAdvisor's travel platform rating, it is among the destinations with low international reputation and awareness (INSETE, 2021). According to a survey for 2019, 41% of Attica's tourists have not visited the waterfront and 36% do not know that Attica has a waterfront at all (Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, 2019).

Currently, the planning strategy of Athens' waterfront focuses on the zoning of tourist real estate, parks, beaches, transport, culture, and leisure in order to control the increasing demand for housing near the sea and, while also protecting the coastal area as a vulnerable ecological and cultural resource. Historical legacy, recent interventions before and after the 2004 Olympics, and mostly the lack of consensus on a common vision, make the prospect of a coherent integrated planning process difficult. The various strategic and regulatory spatial planning frameworks such as the Athens Master Plan (2014) and the 2004 Presidential Decree on land use in the coastal zone—a decree that has been amended at least ten times to add various specific regulations—are no longer relevant as new major public and private interventions have taken place. The need for a new integrated spatial planning is being met by the drafting of a Special Urban Plan (SPP) for the Attica Coastal Waterfront between Piraeus and Sounion, which will modify the urban planning regime of the 11 coastal municipalities, but still time will be needed in order to evaluate its implementation and impacts.

From an urban geography perspective an interesting fact is that cultural tourism is still mostly connected to the city centre (with the exception of the SNFCC). Especially Piraeus and Drapetsona, although hosting derelict industrial buildings near the sea have not reached their potential as cultural nodes. This tendency of having only a very few cultural amenities outside the city center is also met in the rest of the city with only a few exceptions e.g. the post-industrial NEON building on Lenorman Street and the cultural buildings on Piraeus Street building (Karachalis & Deffner, 2012). In the field of art/culture tourism, Athens' performance is also limited: it is not a city that attracts large exhibitions, nor is it a reference point in this field in terms of galleries (the exception is the graffiti scene).

Regarding the connection between urban planning, mega projects and city marketing, the Athenian coastline still is not recognized as a separate tourist destination, with the exception of some general references to the "Athenian Riviera" (visitgreece.gr) which mainly emphasize the offer of yachting and sun and beach tourism products. However, in the current period, the demand for the implementation of an integrated and dynamic communication strategy has begun to emerge, mainly on the part of tourism entrepreneurs and coastal municipalities (Association of Municipalities of South Attica), branding the "Athenian Riviera" as a distinct but connected destination with Athens in the context of the development of a Tourism Management Organization (DMO) and the development of a master plan for the entire coastal front from Piraeus to Sounion, promoting an integrated strategy of spatial investments and the wider coordination of public and private sector actions (INSETE, 2021).

From the above presentation of the relationship between the new places of culture, the waterfront development, and the identity of Athens as a tourism destination, some basic findings can be drawn:

1. The first finding is related to the fact that even if the emblematic architectural buildings and the large investments in the field of culture (grand projects by Mitterrand, emblematic museums such as Guggenheim, etc.) are considered outdated and questionable as a choice in the case of the Athens, for the waterfront of Athens the SNFCC and other cultural investments could effectively support the tourist function and also decentralize tourism flows from the city center. Despite the dangers associated with the instrumentalization of culture and the homogenization of images projected by cities, given that the same aesthetic standards are followed worldwide, the diversity of the Athenian waterfront which includes typical sun and beach parts, residential and post-industrial parts could become an interesting alternative to the area around the Acropolis.
2. The second finding concerns the daily functioning of the waterfront's cultural buildings as meeting points for both tourists and locals with an emphasis on the local cultural scene. The development of emblematic cultural buildings cannot create conditions for cultural development, nor is the Guggenheim-type cultural franchise able to support cultural tourism. On the contrary, the spontaneous bottom-up development of the creative-artistic community in a city is more important in order to create the necessary daily visitation. Relationship between cities and their waterfronts changes following the change of cities.
3. A third finding is connected to the fact that, generally, successful waterfront redevelopment projects are available as best practices and have demonstrated how city resources—such as available land, beaches, historic preservation, former industrial areas—can be integrated into the city and public life. While in many ways they have been proven successful in reviving prime urban areas, waterfront redevelopments have also been contested (Avni & Teschner, 2019). Numerous factors including social, economic, environmental, and governance issues affect the success and effective use of urban waterfronts.
4. More crucial, however, is to establish cultural sites as points of reference for the neighbourhood and the daily life of the city that will also connect to the so-called "new urban tourism" needs. The notion that a museum, a library, a leisure park that primarily aims at international visitors will not be successful. On the contrary, it is important for them to emerge as open spaces of culture with an emphasis on participation and, as Mouliou states (2019), to become the "soft power" of cities and not to focus only their emblematic architecture or on cultural consumption.

The above initial findings need to be further investigated as the waterfront of Athens will be witnessing rapid changes the next few years. Especially on a tourism development management level, for the younger visitors, it is the lively 24-hour city, the youth scene, the open artistic community, the attractive neighbourhoods, and the nightlife which will be strong advantages and not the high-end real estate or hospitality services. The latter will attract a completely different audience. Policymakers of the metropolitan area of Athens will be determining the tourism future of the city, so we believe that a further discussion is necessary.

References

Alaily-Mattar, N., Dreher, J., & Thierstein, A. (2018). Repositioning cities through star architecture: How does it work? *Journal of Urban Design, 23*(2), 169–192.

Athanasiou, E., & Kotsi, A. (2018). Developments in short-term renting in Greece. *Economic Developments, KEPE, 37*, 56–61.

Avni, N., & Teschner, N. (2019). Urban waterfronts: Contemporary streams of planning conflicts. *Journal of Planning Literature, 34*(4), 408–420. https://doi.org/10.1177/0885412219850891.

Bell, D., & Oakley, K. (2015). *Cultural policy*. Routledge.

Bianchini, F., & Parkinson, M. (1994). *Cultural policy and urban regeneration: The west European experience*. Manchester University Press.

Boix, R., Rausell, P., & Abeledo, R. (2017). The Calatrava model: Reflections on resilience and urban plasticity. *European Planning Studies, 25*(1), 29–47.

Colomb, C. (2012). Pushing the urban frontier: Temporary uses of space, city marketing, and the creative city discourse in 2000s Berlin. *Journal of Urban Affairs, 34*(2), 131–152. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9906.2012.00607.

Deffner, A., Karachalis, N., & Katsafadou, S. (2015). Museums. In T. Maloutas & S. Spyrellis (Eds.), *Social Atlas of Athens*. Digital collection of texts and maps. Retrieved August 7, 2022, from https://www.athenssocialatlas.gr/en/article/museums.

Deffner, A., Karachalis, N., Psatha, E., Metaxas, T., & Syrakoulis, K. (2020). City marketing and planning in two Greek cities: Plurality or constraints? *European Planning Studies, 28*(7), 1333–1354. https://doi.org/10.1080/09654313.2019.1701291.

Deladetsimas, P. (2015). Olympic Games and Olympic Facilities, Urban Environment Research Group, National Technical University of Athens, 2017, "Integrated Coastal Management Plan of Attica, Strategies and Directions for the Spatial Unit: SEF - Agia Marina Kropia."

Dinnie, K. (Ed.) (2011). *City branding: Theory and cases*. Palgrave McMillan.

Dumortier, B. (2016). The cultural imperative: Saadiyat cultural district in Abu Dhabi between public policy and architectural gesture. In *Under construction: Logics of urbanism in the gulf region* (p. 171).

Florida, R., Rodríguez-Pose, A., & Storper, M. (2021). Cities in a post-COVID world. *Urban Studies*. https://doi.org/10.1177/00420980211018072.

Frey, B. (1998). Superstar museums: An economic analysis. *Journal of Cultural Economics, 22*(2), 113–125. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007501918099.

Gospodini, A. (2001). Urban waterfront redevelopment in Greek cities: A framework for redesigning space. *Cities, 18*(5), 285–295. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0264-2751(01)00022-1.

Gravari-Barbas, M., Jacquot, S., & Cominelli, F. (2019). New cultures of urban tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Cities, 5*(3), 301–306. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJTC-09-2019-160.

Hatzidakis, A. (2015). *Trends in tourist 2008–2015*. Hellenic Tourism Organisation.

Heuer, T., & Runde, J. (2022). The Elbphilharmonie and the Hamburg effect: On the social positioning, identities and system functions of a building and a city. *European Planning Studies, 30*(1), 85–104.

Jauhiainen, J. (1995). Waterfront redevelopment and urban policy: The case of Barcelona, Cardiff and Genoa. *European Planning Studies, 3*, 3–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/09654319508720287.

Karachalis, N. (2015). New tourism geographies in Athens: Heritage routes, changing neighbourhoods, and the need for new narratives. In *Pharos. Journal of the Netherlands Institute at Athen*s (pp. 57–71). Netherlands Institute at Athens. https://doi.org/10.2143/PHA.21.1.3146863.

Karachalis, N. (2021). Temporary use as a participatory placemaking tool to support cultural initiatives and its connection to city marketing strategies—The case of Athens. *Sustainability, 13*(4), 1652.

Karachalis, N., & Deffner, A. (2012). Rethinking the connection between creative clusters and city branding: The cultural axis of Piraeus Street in Athens. *Quaestiones Geographicae, 31*(4), 87–97.

Karachalis, N., & Deffner, A. (2022). City breaks. In *Encyclopedia of tourism management and marketing*. Edward Elgar Publishing. Retrieved July 25, 2022, from https://www.elgaronline.com/view/nlm-book/9781800377479/b-9781800377486.city.breaks.xml.

Karidis, D. (2006). *The seven books of urban planning*. Papasotiriou.

Kolonas, V. (2015). Tourist facilities in Greece-1950-1974. In C. Aesopos (Ed.), *Tourism landscapes—Rebuilding Greece* (pp. 62–87). Structures.

Konsola, D., & Karachalis, N. (2009). Arts festivals and urban cultural policies: The case of medium sized and small cities in Greece. In *Cultural policy and management yearbook 2009*, σελ (pp. 51–63). Istanbul Bilgi University Press, Boekman Publications.

Kostopoulou, S. (2013). On the revitalized waterfront: Creative milieu for creative tourism. *Sustainability, 5*, 4578–4593. https://doi.org/10.3390/su5114578.

Kyratsoulis, T. (2015). *Tourism in Greece, the environment and sustainable development* (Technical Report). Athens: SETE.

Leontidou, L. (2021). Chapter 8: Athens, 21st-century invisible city: From Olympic illusions to the crisis and its contestation by the urban grassroots. In A. Loukaki (Ed.), Urban art and the city: Creating, destroying and reclaiming the sublime (pp. 134–148). Routledge.

Lubowiecki-Vikuk, A., Đerčan, B. M., & de Sousa, B. M. B. (2021). Sustainable development and leisure services: Changes and trends. In A. Lubowiecki-Vikuk, B. M. B. de Sousa, B. M. Đerčan, & W. Leal Filho (Eds.), *Handbook of sustainable development and leisure services*. World Sustainability Series. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-59820-4_1.

Makowska, B. (2021). Practical functioning of a sustainable urban complex with a park—The case study of Stavros Niarchos Foundation Cultural Center in Athens. *Sustainability, 13*(9), 5071. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13095071.

Martínez-Pérez, Á., Elche, D., García-Villaverde, P. M., & Parra-Requena, G. (2019). Cultural tourism clusters: Social capital, relations with institutions, and radical innovation. *Journal of Travel Research, 58*(5), 793–807.

Mouliou, M. (2019). Athens as a museum of possibilities: Reflections on social innovation and cultural production. *Museum International, 71*(3–4), 16–27.

Papaevestratiou, D. (1957). Exploitation of the coasts of Saronic Gulf. *Architecture, 1*.

Pasquinelli, C., Trunfio, M., Bellini, N., & Simona Rossi, S. (2022). Reimagining urban destinations: Adaptive and transformative city brand attributes and values in the pandemic crisis. *Cities, 124*.

Plaza, B., & Haarich, S. (2015). The Guggenheim Museum Bilbao: Between regional embeddedness and global networking. *European Planning Studies, 23*(8), 1456–1475.

Pratt, A. C. (2011). The cultural contradictions of the creative city. *City, Culture and Society, 2*(3), 123–130.

Richards, G., & Palmer, R. (2010). *Eventful cities: Cultural management and urban revitalisation*. Butterworth-Heinemann.

Rius-Ulldemolins, J., & Gisbert, V. (2019). The costs of putting Valencia on the map: The hidden side of regional entrepreneurialism, 'creative city' and strategic projects. *European Planning Studies, 27*(2), 377–395. https://doi.org/10.1080/09654313.2018.1547367.

Sarantakou. (2022). Development, spatial and investment policies. In P. Tsartas & E. Sarantakou (Eds.), *Greek tourism development and policy* (pp. 145–175). KRITIKI.

Sarantakou, E., & Tsartas, P. (2015). A critical approach to the new framework for creating tourism investment during the current period of economic crisis 2010–2014. *Greek Economic Outlook, 26*, 46–55.

Sarantakou, E., & Xenitellis, S. (2019). Innovative cultural tours in Athens: An interesting internship in the era of economic crisis. In V. Katsoni & M. Segarra-Oña (Eds.), *Smart tourism as a driver* *for culture and sustainability. Fifth international conference IACuDiT, Athens 2018*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. ISBN 978-3-030-03909-7. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-03910-3.

Scott, A. (1997). The cultural economy of cities. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research, 21*(2), 323–339. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2427.00075.

Settis, S., & Cameron, A. (2006). *The future of the classical*. Wiley.

Siegal. (2016). Guggenheim Helsinki museum plans are rejected, Article 1.12.2016. *New York Times*.

Skoultsos, S., Kontis, P., & Sarantakou, E. (2017). Conceptualization of changes in tourism industry's distribution channels: The case of peer-to-peer business models and sharing economy platforms. *Journal of Tourism Research, 16*, 295–306.

Souliotis. (2013). Cultural economy, sovereign debt crisis and the importance of local contexts: The case of Athens. *Cities, 33*, 61–66. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2012.06.003.

Speake, J., & Kennedy, V. (2019). 'Buying' into the waterfront dream? Trajectories of luxury property led developments in Malta. *Tourism Management, 71*, 246–258. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.10.014.

Vitouladiti, O., Ntaka, A., & Sarantakou, E. (2018). Evaluating Athens as a city-break destination: A marketing management approach in tourism and travel. In *TOURMAN 2019 conference proceedings*, Thessaloniki, Greece, 28 Oct 2018 (pp. 51–57).

Yalouri, E. (2001). *The Acropolis: Global fame, local claim*. Berg.

Zukin, S. (2010). *Naked City: The death and life of authentic urban places*. Oxford University Press.

Websites

Atiarbnb Website. Retrieved August 8, 2022, from https://blog.atairbnb.com/airbnbs-positive-impact-in-athens/.

Eye Museum Website. Retrieved August 9, 2022, from https://www.eyefilm.nl/en.

Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (HCH), Visitor Satisfaction Survey & Hotel Performance in Attica for 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2019. Retrieved August 8, 2022, from https://www.grhotels.gr/.

Hope, J. (2016). *If you build it, they will come, Greece's new temple to high culture*. Retrieved August 8, 2022, from https://www.ft.com/content/818705b0-abdf-11e6-ba7d-76378e4fef24.

INSETE. (2021). *Destination "Athenian Riviera", Greek Tourism 2030, Action Plans*. Retrieved August 8, 2022, from https://insete.gr/wp-content/uploads/pdf/proorismoi/executive-summary-athinaiki-ribiera.pdf.

Lamda Development Website. Retrieved August 8, 2022, from https://theellinikon.com.gr.

SETE Intelligence. (2018). *Key Figures Attica Region*. Retrieved August 8, 2022, from https://insete.gr/intelligence/.

SNFCC Website. Retrieved August 8, 2022, from https://www.snfcc.org.

Tourism Consumer Behavior

Gastronomy Tourism in Athens, Motivations and Resources: A Push and Pull Approach

Charilaos Kalpidis, Fragiskos Bersimis, and Paris Tsartas

Abstract The study aims to utilize the push–pull factors approach to address the internal motives of tourists and their preferred gastronomy-related resources in the capital city of Greece, Athens. The quantitative approach was applied, with data collected using the methodological research instrument of a specifically designed structured questionnaire. A tourist survey was conducted, generating a number of participants (N = 640) responses. Exploratory data analyses on push and pull factors were conducted with appropriate parametric and non-parametric statistical tests. The results revealed that the sensory experience—taste of food and cultural motivators (authentic experience, knowledge of different cultures) are the primary motivators for their trip. The most significant gastronomical resources (pull factors) were core food tourism appeals (Greek cuisine restaurants and taverns for casual dining). The research results add to the comprehension of food travel motivations and attractions from a tourist's and the destination's viewpoint, with relevant implications for restaurant entrepreneurs, Destination Management Organizations (DMOs), and tourism policy planners.

Keywords Gastronomy tourism · Travel motivation · Push and pull factors
JEL Classification Z390

1 Introduction

Tourism is a rapidly expanding and economically significant global and local industry, essential for the economy, society, and culture, offering real chances for inclusive and long-term development (UNWTO, 2020). As in other Mediterranean destinations, tourism has been a significant economic force and an essential driver

C. Kalpidis (✉) · P. Tsartas
Harokopio University of Athens, Athens, Greece
e-mail: chkalpidis@hua.gr

F. Bersimis
Univesrity of Piraeus, Athens, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_32

for change in post-war Greece (Tsartas et al., 2013) and its capital Athens which continues until the present. In the same period, fundamental technology innovations substantially influence the perception, consumption, and building of tourism spaces and their local development results (Katsoni & Venetsanopoulou, 2013).

Parallel with the growth and technological shifts, we witness shifts in tourist behavior, needs, and expectations that necessitate ongoing adaptations. Tourists are becoming more knowledgeable, have more discretionary income, and have more accessible time to tour (UNWTO, 2012). As a result, many seek authentic experiences characteristic of the local culture, with gastronomy being one of the most important (Everett & Aitchison, 2008). Destinations that depend on tourism as a source of revenue differentiate their tourism products and offerings, which compelled local governments and business owners to create new items to diversify their supply and meet the growing demand (Tsartas et al., 2015). As a potential answer to these challenges, according to a UNWTO report (2017), gastronomy tourism develops as a significant resource that adds value and offers locations the means to identify themselves and provide distinctive products. Food expresses a location's identity and promotes its cultural and natural geography (Everett & Aitchison, 2008).

The above signifies the rise of a type of special interest tourism, "gastronomy tourism" (named food/culinary/taste tourism by other scholars and researchers), which hereafter are used interchangeably, with minor or significantly different definitions (Horng & Tsai, 2010). Hall and Sharples (2003) presented the most adopted definition by scholars (Ellis et al., 2018) of food tourism, having as the primary motivating factor the visits of food producers, gastronomy festivals, and food establishments for the taste and experience of local food. The various definitions of food tourism have two categories, one from the standpoint of tourist motivation (Boniface, 2003; Hall & Mitchell, 2000; Karim & Chi, 2010; UNWTO, 2012) and the other from the standpoint of a tourist experience (Green & Dougherty, 2008; Long, 2004; Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2010; Smith & Xiao, 2008). Currently, gastronomy tourism is a significant niche market with implications for destination policy, marketing, and management (Ellis et al., 2018).

Many of the millions of visitors that travel to the world each year go on journeys in a quest for new and unique cuisines and then return to eat the food they had previously experienced (UNWTO, 2012). The motivating approach describes food tourists as primarily driven by exploring and enjoying the destination's food and drinks and appreciating unique culinary experiences (Kivela & Crotts, 2005).

Prior studies have concentrated on comprehending the travel motives of visitors for whom gastronomy-related experiences, in food establishments and food and wine festivals, are seen as an integral component of the touristic experience but not the principal purpose of their trip (Fields et al., 2002; Kim & Eves, 2016). In this frame, scholarly attention must focus on the internal and external factors that drive these potential tourists to visit a destination, especially since there is less research on the tourists' external factors and how attractive a destination is for food experiences.

This research aims to add to the literature by applying the push–pull approach to identify (a) push motivations for engaging in gastronomical experiences, (b) uncover the relative appealing pull features of a destination, and (c) the level of influence of gastronomy for traveling to a destination—an understanding of the dimensionality of food travel motivation from the tourists' standpoint.

2 Literature Review

Crompton (1979) suggested that push factors could be beneficial for defining the initial arousal, energizing a travel plan, and orienting the visitor toward a particular destination. Motivation, according to some researchers, Dan (1981), Chon (1989), Pearce (1993), Uysal and Hagan (1993), is a need that includes both internal and external forces. Those forces can shed light on how tourists are pushed by various motivational factors when deciding to travel and how the destination attractions pull or attract them during the decision and selection process.

Existing work on gastronomy tourism has mainly focused on local food and beverage consumption and destination motivation (Kim & Eves, 2012, 2016; Kim et al., 2009, 2013; Mak et al., 2012; Son & Xu, 2013) and the push factors influencing food tourism (Dimitrovski et al., 2016; Fields et al., 2002).

According to Klenosky (2002), in the context of food tourism, a supply-side perspective to the research of travel motivation, that is, the appealing aspects of a travel destination, must also be considered since the previous studies have concentrated on the psychological perspective of visitors.

Several studies have been conducted on tourist satisfaction, with some investigating its correlation with motivations or destination attributes (Meng et al., 2008). Together with motivation, it was discovered that tourist satisfaction is related to destination attributes, such as the destination's attractiveness and supporting gastronomical attributes (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999).

According to Solomon (2004), motivation can be defined as a driving force in doing things that leads people to act as they wish. As a result, motivation is a process that begins with actual needs and ends with self-satisfaction. These forces illustrate how visitors are pulled by many motivational reasons while deciding to travel and how the destination attraction pulls or draws them during the decision-making process. Previous studies suggested that visitors travel because their internal forces drive them, and the external factors of the place pull them concurrently (Cha et al., 1995; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994).

Motivation and the Push Factors

Kim and Eves (2012) highlighted five motivational dimensions of local food consumption: cultural experience, interpersonal relation, excitement, sensory appeal, and health concern. The factors that motivate tourists to destinations for local food and beverages can be grouped as physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators, and status and prestige motivators, according to Fields et al. (2002) and McIntosh et al. (1995).

Excitement, one of the physiological motivators, is considered an essential factor in leisure activities (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Urry, 2002). Lupton (1996) indicated that eating experiences add excitement to a person's life, and Mayo and Jarvis (1981) suggested that unpredictability can be considered a source of excitement that can attract tourists. Regarding eating experiences as excitement, Otis (1984) argued that the urge to try new foods is symptomatic of an overall inclination to engage in exciting activities. Specifically, the desire or inclination to consume strange and unusual food and cuisine may stem from a desire for adventure. Rust and Oliver (2000) noted that a meal's unexpected or unforeseen pleasantness contributes to a positive dining experience. According to Kim et al. (2009), one of the most exciting things to do in tourist locations is to try something new, the local cuisine uneaten before.

Previous research (Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Telfer & Wall, 2000) suggested that the primary motivator in food tourism is the experience of consuming local food and drinks. Kim et al. (2009) stated that physical motivators allude to the tourists' minds and body rejuvenation. Fields et al. (2002) states that tasting regional cuisine and trying a new flavor might be considered a physical incentive. Boniface (2003) mentioned that the sensory experience of food—or taste of food—is a primary motivator for travel. It is essential for travelers to engage in food tourism settings such as traditional/local food eateries, food festivals, and events (Kim & Eves, 2012). Tasting food and wine is the most common reason people attend food festivals and events (Park et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2010). Travelers are given opportunities to try different meals and experience food and wine in a foreign country. As a result, the food taste can be critical in tourists' acknowledgment and attraction of a destination.

Cultural experiences have been analyzed in the literature on tourism as the interest in learning about different countries cultures and heritage of (Kim & Eves, 2012). It is recognized as a crucial incentive for visiting heritage sites (Kerstetter et al., 2001) and deciding to participate in local recreational activities (Funk & Brun, 2007). The research suggests that the cultural experience involves a desire mainly to learn and engage in authentic experiences. According to Crompton and McKay (1997), attending festivals and events, travel may help people satisfy the demand for the progress of their knowledge and the enrichment of cultural experiences. Tourists can learn about local wine culture and how locals eat and drink by participating in local food experiences in food tourism (Getz, 2000). Similarly, travelers are urged to attend food events to gain cooking expertise and increase their cuisine knowledge (Kim et al., 2010).

Crompton (1979) argues that socializing or interpersonal motivator is the desire to meet new people in different settings. Tourists travel for interpersonal reasons, such as the desire to meet new friends, share experiences, and exchange ideas (Fields et al., 2002). Togetherness is a component of interpersonal motivation, which is seen as a desire to socialize and spend time with family and friends (McIntosh et al., 1995). People with a similar interest in food and tourism, such as food tourists, chefs, food and wine specialists, and caterers, converge at food tourism locations, providing a fantastic chance for social travel (Park et al., 2008). Socialization is identified as a factor in travel motivation in food tourism research (Kim et al., 2013; Park et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2005).

The Pull Factors and Resources

Swarbrooke and Horner (2005) highlighted the significance of various consumer motivators in the tourism market, which could be classified into those that encourage a person to take a vacation and those that motivate someone to take a specific vacation to a particular destination. It is critical for tourism marketers to evaluate not only why people travel and what they strive to do on vacation concerning their internal motivation but also their motivating factors about the tourism destinations. A pull factor can be connected to a destination's features, places of interest, and the attribute itself (Kim et al., 2003). Moreover, pull factors are associated with many attributes of places of interest that entice people to visit (Klenosky, 2002). As a result, it is stated that pull factors are external forces in making the journey (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996), and in the tourism motivation theory, local attraction attributes for tourists are the dominant pull factors (Riley & Van Doren, 1992).

Research on tourists from two different nations (U.K. and Japan) that were touring the USA, based on an intercultural comparison of push and pull variables (You et al., 2000), found that visitors from these two nations had distinct travel desires. Correia and Pimpao (2008) examined the process of decision-making for Portuguese tourists traveling to South Africa and identified as the pull factors the destination's touristic resources, the topography, and the sights.

For certain travelers, eating is a gateway to comprehending a region's intangible traditions and culinary and drinking culture (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). Some visitors are so excited about eating and attaining gourmet experiences that the anticipated food-related activities may influence their destination selection (Basil & Basil, 2009; Lopez-Guzman & Sanchez-Canizares, 2012). Tsartas et al. (2015) defined tourist resources as those elements that make it feasible to create a tourism experience, comprising the destination's culture, environment, and infrastructure.

A UNWTO report on food tourism (2012) highlighted the resources, regarded as pull factors, the cultural and natural attractions, special events and festivals, experiences with food items in the destinations and other leisure and entertainment options, value, resident friendliness, culinary diversity and variety, and other traits or characteristics of the region (UNWTO, 2012). Smith and Xiao (2008) suggested a typology of gastronomy tourism resources as in Table 1.

According to a UNWTO report (2012), food tourism appeals are primary factors related to the most critical aspects of food, like events, fairs, trails, tours, markets, restaurants, and cooking schools (UNWTO, 2012). Smith et al. (2010) stated that one of the three major pull factors motivating tourists to engage with a gastronomical experience was the food products. The second element is the destination appeals, which Getz and Brown (2006) defined, within the wine tourism context, as the characteristics of cultural attractiveness. The study by Su et al. (2020) on food travel motivations identified the two main groups/dimensions of pull factors, the "core food tourism appeals," including restaurants, cooking lessons, food tours, and F&B products, and the "local destination appeals" including cultural features, artisanal food shops, cultural events.

Research Objectives and Hypotheses

Table 1 Typology of gastronomy tourism resources

Facilities	Activities	Events	Organizations
Buildings/structures • Restaurants and eateries • Food-related museums • Farmers' markets • Wineries • Breweries • Food stores *Land uses* • Urban restaurant districts • Orchards • Vineyards • Farms *Routes* • Food routes • Gourmet trails • Wine routes	*Consumption* • Dining at restaurants • Food and beverages consumption (eateries, street food) • Purchasing retail food and beverages • Picnics utilizing locally grown produce *Touring* • City food districts • Agricultural regions • Wine regions *Education/observation* • Observing food processing • Participating in harvesting and cooking • Reading food and beverage magazines, books • Cooking schools/lessons • Wine tasting/education • Chef cooking competitions	*Consumer shows* • Food and wine shows • Cooking equipment and kitchen shows • Food product launches *Festivals* • Food festivals • Harvest festivals • Wine festivals	*Food classification systems and associations* • Restaurant classification/certification systems (e.g., Michelin Guide) • Food/wine classification systems (e.g., P.D.O. wines/cheese) • Associations (e.g., Slow Food)

Source Smith and Xiao (2008)

The above indicates the complexity of the food tourism phenomena, illustrates various approaches, and underlines the importance of determinants, sources, information, and context. The current study identified the motivating push factors, the attractions-pull factors for food-related activities, and the influence of local gastronomy in traveling to Athens. The research was, first, an analysis of the intrinsic motivators that mobilize a traveler for food-related experiences; secondly, an analysis of the gastronomical attractions that may pull a traveler to a destination.

Thirdly, an evaluation of the level of influence of local food (in this case Greek Gastronomy) to engage in a trip to Athens.

The following hypotheses were developed:

H1. Push factors enhance food-related experiences when traveling.

H2. The food-related pull factors attract tourists to a destination.

H3. Local food significantly influences the tourists' decision to visit Athens.

3 Methodology

Data Collection

The research used the quantitative methodology of questioning a representative sample of tourists that visited Athens (Greece) in July and August 2021, aiming to identify their views concerning the city's gastronomical attributes and their motivations to visit them (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Before the survey implementation, collaboration was conducted with specialists from the tourism sector, developing a questionnaire in English. In the period before the research, a pre-test was executed, aiming to detect errors and misunderstandings.

The tourists had to comply with two conditions, to have already visited a restaurant with Greek food and not to be a permanent resident of Athens. As commonly in this type of research, a mix of simple random and convenience sampling techniques was used. A total number of 640 surveys were valid. To collect the maximum range of persons, the fieldwork was performed proportionally—the same number of surveys per day—on different days and times in the metropolitan area of Athens.

Socioeconomic and Demographic Profile of Tourists

The sample consisted of 349 females (54.5%) and 289 males (45.2%), as presented in the pie chart in Fig. 1. The age distribution is presented analytically in Fig. 2. Most respondents were aged between 18 and 44 (almost 90%). The respondents with a university or College degree were 47.5%, while 39.1% had a master or doctoral degree. Furthermore, 8.8% of the sample has completed high school and 4.1% technical school (Fig. 3). The most significant percentage of the sample's respondents comes from Europe (51.6%) and secondly from the USA (13.3%) (Fig. 4). Private employees account for 43.8% of the sample, students for 20.5%, and entrepreneurs/freelancers correspond for 6.1% of the sample (Fig. 5). The majority have an annual income of less than 12,000€ (23%), followed by those over 70,000€ (16.1%), and 14.9% respondents have annual income within the range of 20,000–30,000€ (Fig. 6).

Survey Design

Based on previous papers (Axelsen & Swan, 2010; Chang & Yuan, 2011; Kim et al., 2009, 2013; Lee et al., 2004; Pérez-Gálvez et al., 2015; Su et al., 2020, Testa et al., 2019), the survey used a questionnaire with a Likert five-point scale that had different response options.

The questionnaire contained four sections. First, "Motivation for local food and gastronomy" focuses on the motivations of the tourists following Kim et al. (2013), who indicated four different gastronomical motivational dimensions: cultural experience, excitement dimension, interpersonal (social) relationship, and sensory appeals. The second "food-related attractions in Athens" included attributes with an adaptation of the findings of Smith and Xiao (2008) and the analysis of pull factors by Su et al. (2020) and items by Testa et al. (2019). The third, "Influence of Greek gastronomy in deciding the trip to Greece," presents the influence of Greek

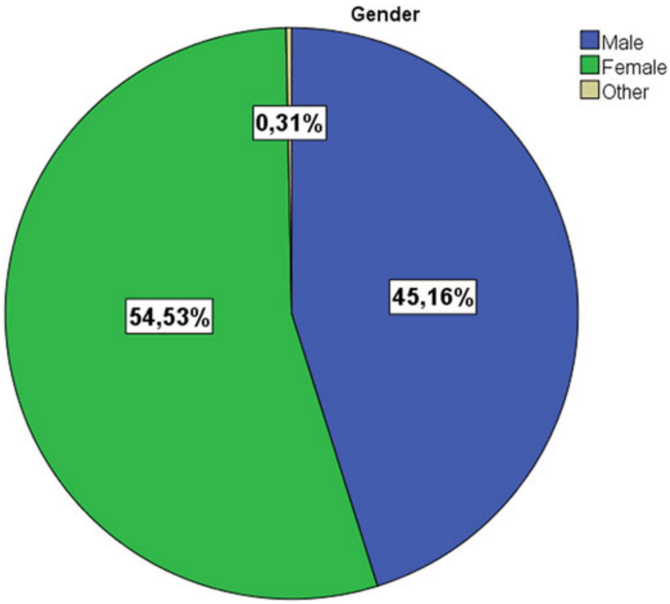


Fig. 1 Frequency distribution of the respondents according to gender

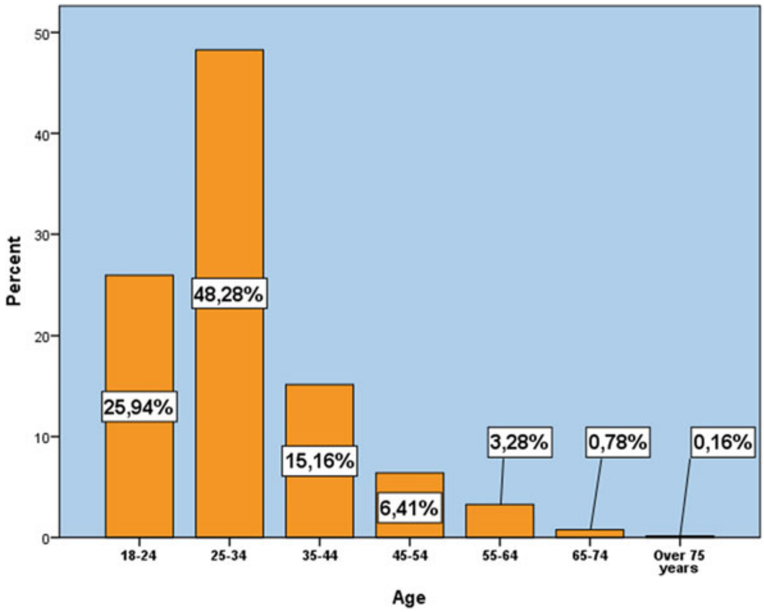


Fig. 2 Frequency distribution of the respondents according to age clusters

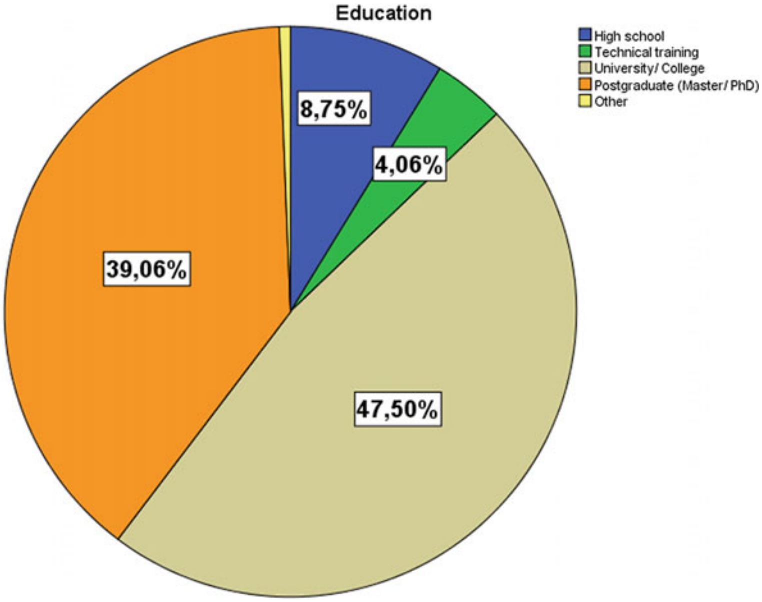


Fig. 3 Frequency distribution of the respondents according to educational level

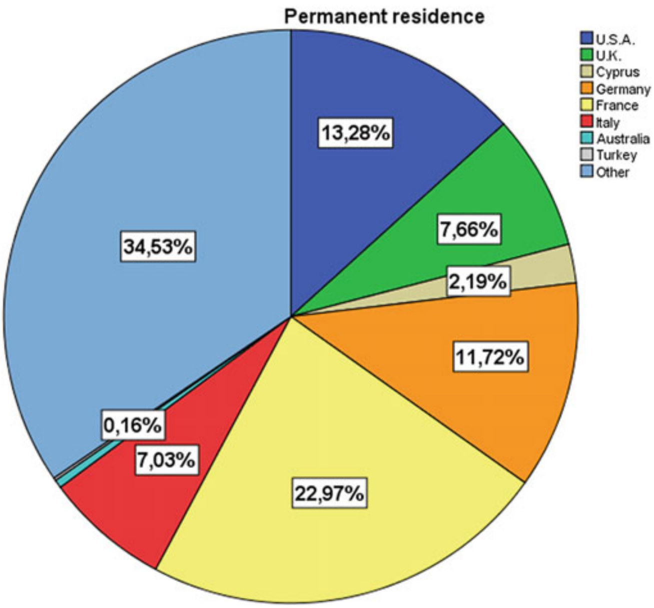


Fig. 4 Frequency distribution of the respondents according to permanent residence

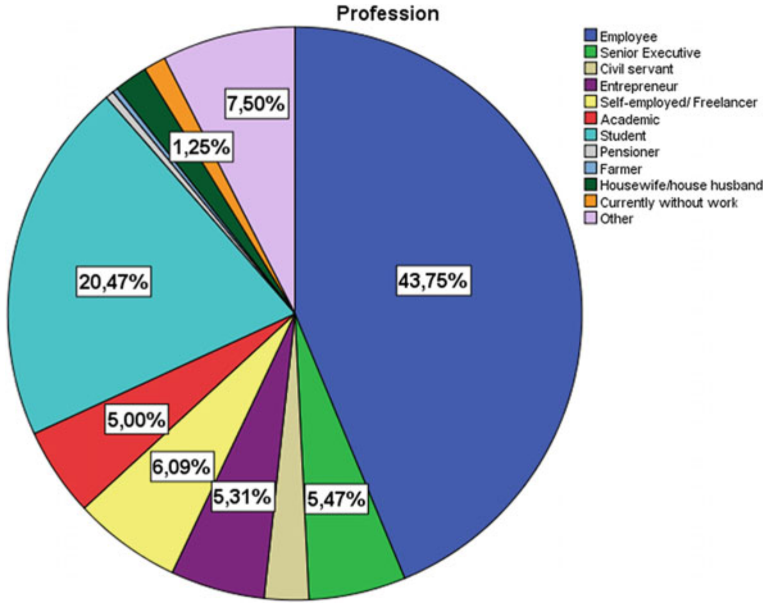


Fig. 5 Frequency distribution of the respondents according to profession

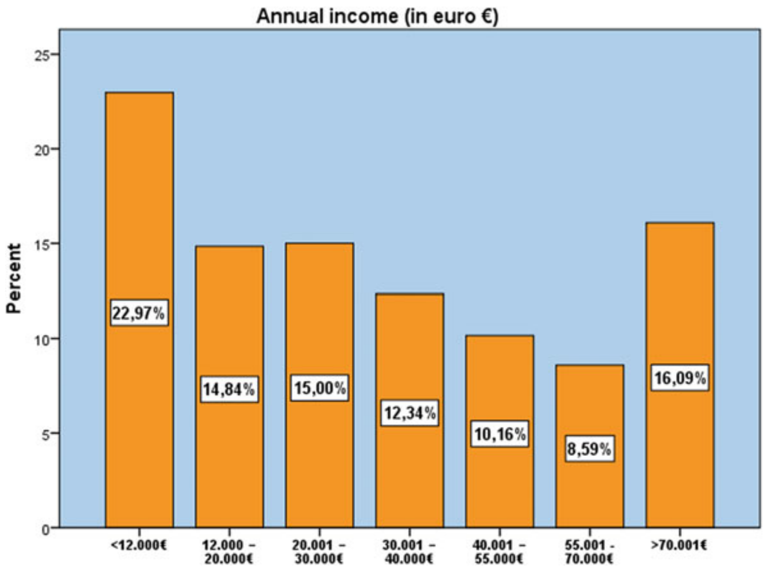


Fig. 6 Frequency distribution of the respondents according to annual income

gastronomy on the tourists' decision to arrange and fulfill the trip. The final section consists of the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the tourists.

Push factors were researched using eight variables corresponding to four dimensions: excitement, interpersonal, sensory, and cultural. The pull factors were investigated using 11 food-related items corresponding to the engagement of tourists with local destination appeals, "food markets," "wine bars," "wine tours with tasting and storytelling," "visiting farms, agritourism units and artisan producers," and, core food tourism appeals "cooking lesson/workshop," "street food tour with tasting and storytelling," "food events and festivals," "Gourmet restaurants-fine dining," "Greek cuisine restaurants and taverns-casual dining," "grill, souvlaki, yeros small eateries," "Greek fast-food eateries." The reliability coefficient Cronbach's Alpha was calculated to be equal to 0.874 for push factors and 0.861 for pull factors, providing a high internal consistency of the tests used (Cronbach, 1951).

The collected data were analyzed using statistical software (IBM SPSS ver.25). Besides descriptive statistics such as mean value and standard deviation for each variable, parametric and non-parametric tests were performed (Bersimis et al., 2022). Although dependent variables are of ordinal scale since the sample size is sufficiently large, the parametric means' equality test was employed for one (one sample t test with a test value of 3 corresponding to the median of the scale, i.e., the neutral response), two (independent samples t test) or more than two samples (ANOVA) (Cox, 2006; Derrick et al., 2017). The previous results from parametric tests were confirmed using the non-parametric tests: Mann–Whitney U and Kruskal–Wallis (Conover, 1999). Additionally, in the case of three or more samples, the robust tests "Welch" and "Brown–Forsythe" were conducted in the cases of subsamples with non-homogenous variances. Multiple comparisons were conducted using Bonferroni (equal variances) or Tamhane's T2 (unequal variances) adjustment (Cox, 2006).

4 Results

Push Factors

In the survey, respondents had a high degree of agreement in all push factors, i.e., from "agree" to "strongly agree," meaning that the level of agreement was statistically significantly greater than the neutral attitude (Appendix 1/$p < 0.01$). The mean values per push factor are presented in Fig. 7 in ascending order. Specifically, the respondents had a significant degree of agreement with the attitudes: "Tasting local food on holiday helps me to relax" ("agree"/4.00 $\pm$ 0.85, $t = 29.532$, $p < 0.01$), "Tasting local food on holiday takes me away from my daily routine" ("agree"/4.05 $\pm$ 0.93, $t = 28.499$, $p < 0.01$), "Tasting local food enables me to have an enjoyable time with friends and/or family" ("agree to strongly agree"/4.21 $\pm$ 0.78, $t = 38.944$, $p < 0.01$), "The taste of local food in its original place is different from home" ("agree to strongly agree"/4.21 $\pm$ 0.80, $t = 38.083$, $p < 0.01$), "Experiencing local food increases my knowledge for different cultures" ("agree to strongly agree"/4.26 $\pm$

0.73, t = 43.489, p < 0.01), "Experiencing local food in its original place make me excited" ("agree to strongly agree"/4.27 ± 0.77, t = (42.045), p < 0.01), "It is important to me that the local food I eat on holiday tastes/smells/looks good" ("agree to strongly agree"/4.35 ± 0.71, t = (48.225), p < 0.01) and "Tasting local food in its original place is an authentic experience" ("agree to strongly agree"/4.35 ± 0.73, t = (47.054), p < 0.01) (Appendix 1).

Compared the genders, women (4.33 ± 0.73) had a higher mean value than men in the push factor described by the statement "Experiencing local food in its original place makes me excited" (4.20 ± 0.81) (t = −2.144, p = 0.031) (Appendix 2). Women also had a higher mean value (4.12 ± 0.94) than men in the push factor described by the statement «Tasting local food on holiday takes me away from my daily routine» (4.12 ± 0.94) (t = −2.060, p = 0.040) (Appendix 2).

Respondents aged from 18 to 24 years (4.10 ± 0.85) had a lower mean value in attitude «Experiencing local food increases my knowledge for different cultures» than respondents with greater age (Fig. 8) (F = 3.845, p = 0.01) (Appendix 3).

Regarding education, respondents with a Postgraduate Diploma (Master/Ph.D.) (4.19 ± 0.81) had a higher mean value in the push factor «Tasting local food on holiday takes me away from my daily routine» than respondents with a degree from University/College or High school and Technical training (Fig. 9) (F = 5.639, p = 0.004) (Appendix 4). Additionally, respondents with high school or technical training (4.10 ± 0.84) had a lower mean value in the push factor "Tasting local food in its original place is an authentic experience" than respondents with a degree from University/College or Postgraduate (Master/Ph.D.) (Fig. 10) (F = 6.091, p = 0.002) (Appendix 4).

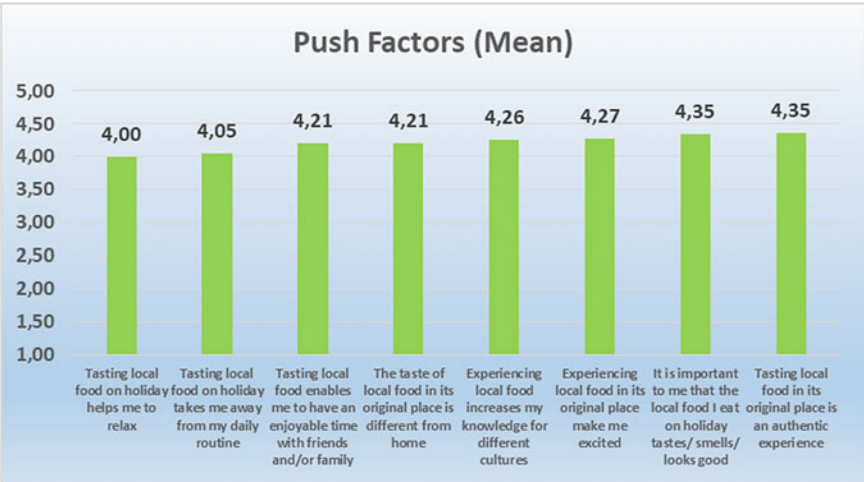


Fig. 7 Mean values of push factors. Green color corresponds to push factors expressing high agreement (mean value statistically significant greater than 3—p < 0.01)

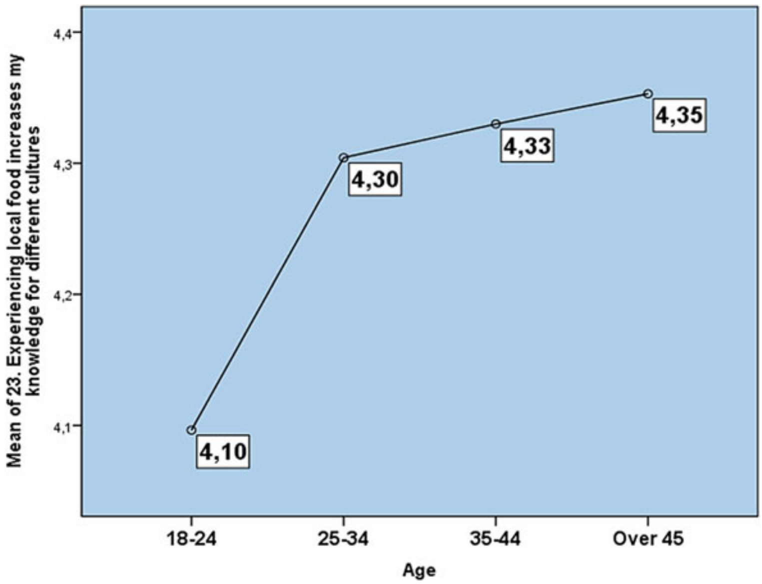


Fig. 8 Means plot of "Experiencing local food increases my knowledge for different cultures" according to age

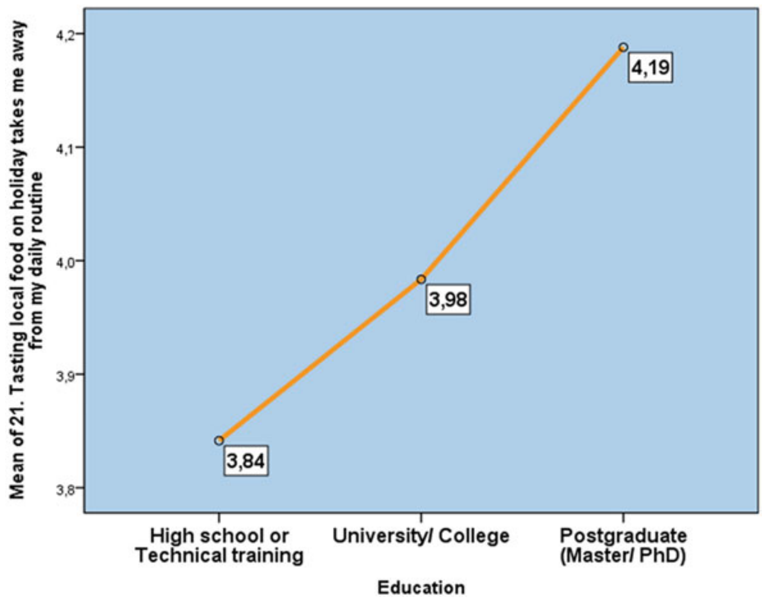


Fig. 9 Means plot of "Tasting local food on holiday takes me away from my daily routine" according to educational level

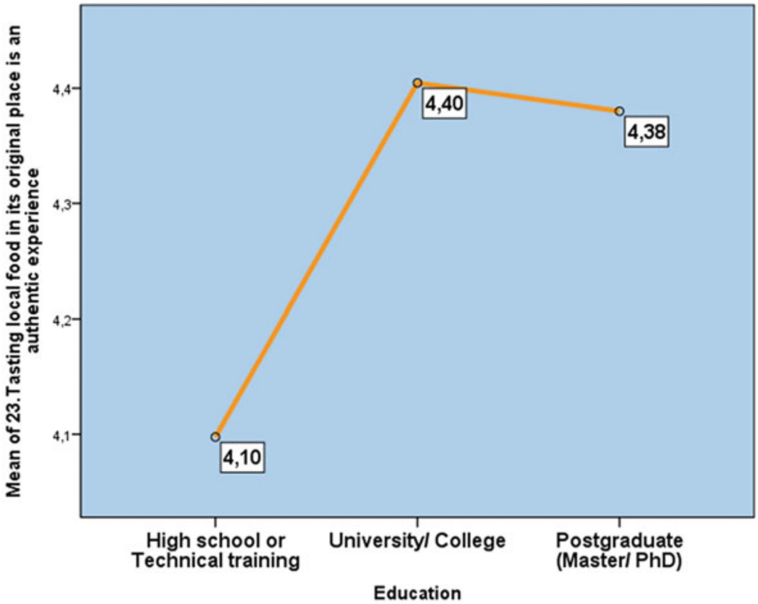


Fig. 10 Means plot of "Tasting local food in its original place is an authentic experience" according to educational level

Pull Factors

In the survey, respondents' answers presented a low frequency of involvement in attributes to most of the pull factors, meaning that the corresponding frequency was statistically significantly lower than the median frequency (2–3 times) (Appendix 5/p < 0.01) except in the case of the pull factor "Greek cuisine restaurants and taverns-casual dining," in which they had a higher frequency than the median.

The mean values per pull factor are presented in Fig. 11 in ascending order. Specifically, the respondents answers presented a significant low frequency at "Cooking lesson/workshop" ("Never to one time"/1.19 ± 0.71, t = −64.291, p < 0.01), "Visiting farms agritourism units and artisan producers" ("Never to one time"/1.26 ± 0.81, t = −54.274, p < 0.01), "Food events and festivals" ("Never to one time"/1.30 ± 0.85, t = −50.763, p < 0.01), "Wine tour with tasting and storytelling" ("Never to one time"/1.32 ± 0.88, t = −48.334, p < 0.01), "Wine bars" ("Never to one time"/1.63 ± 1.08, t = −32.293, p < 0.01), "Street food tour with tasting and storytelling" ("Never to one time"/1.72 ± 1.21, t = −26.824, p < 0.01), "Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's, etc.)" ("Never to one time"/1.86 ± 1.19, t = −23.724, p < 0.01), "Food markets (fruit, meat, fish, spices etc.)" ("One time"/2.00 ± 1.23, t = −20.511, p < 0.01), "Gourmet restaurants (awarded, high ranking)-fine dining" ("One time"/2.03 ± 1.24, t = −19.776, p < 0.01), "Grill, souvlaki, yeros small eateries" ("One time to 2–3 times"/2.79 ± 1.46, t = −3.649, p < 0.01) and

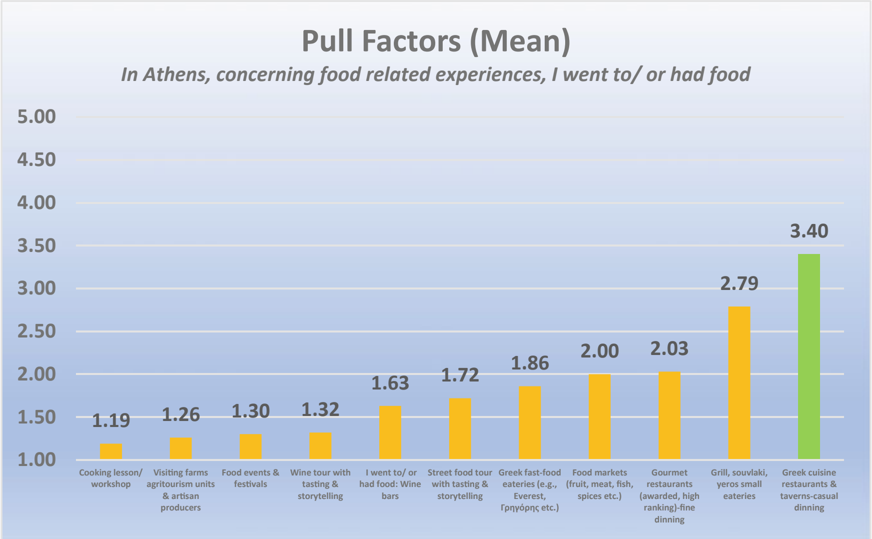


Fig. 11 Mean values of pull factors. Green color corresponds to push factors expressing high agreement (mean value statistically significant greater than 3—$p < 0.01$)

"Greek cuisine restaurants and taverns-casual dining" ("3–4 times"/3.40 ± 1.26, t = 8.151, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 5).

Women (1.25 ± 0.83) had a higher mean value/frequency than men (1.12 ± 0.53), in the pull factor described by the statement "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: cooking lesson/workshop" (t = −2.482, p = 0.013) (Appendix 6). Similarly, women had a higher mean value/frequency (1.95 ± 1.26) than men (1.74 ± 1.15) in the pull factor described by the statement "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's, etc.)" (t = −2.133, p = 0.033) (Appendix 6).

Respondents aged from 18 to 24 years (4.10 ± 0.85) had a lower mean value in the pull factor «In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Gourmet restaurants, awarded, high ranking, fine dining» than respondents with greater age (Fig. 12) (F = 4.882, p = 0.002) (Appendix 7). Regarding education, respondents with a University/College educational level have a statistically significant higher mean value in the variable "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Grill, souvlaki, yeros small eateries" versus respondents with Postgraduate (Master/Ph.D.) educational level (Fig. 13) (F = 4.784, p = 0.009) (Appendix 8). Additionally, respondents with Postgraduate (Master/Ph.D.) educational levels have a statistically significantly lower mean value in the variable "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: cooking lesson/workshop" versus respondents with university/college or high school or technical training educational level (Fig. 14) (F = 4.629, p = 0.010) (Appendix 8).

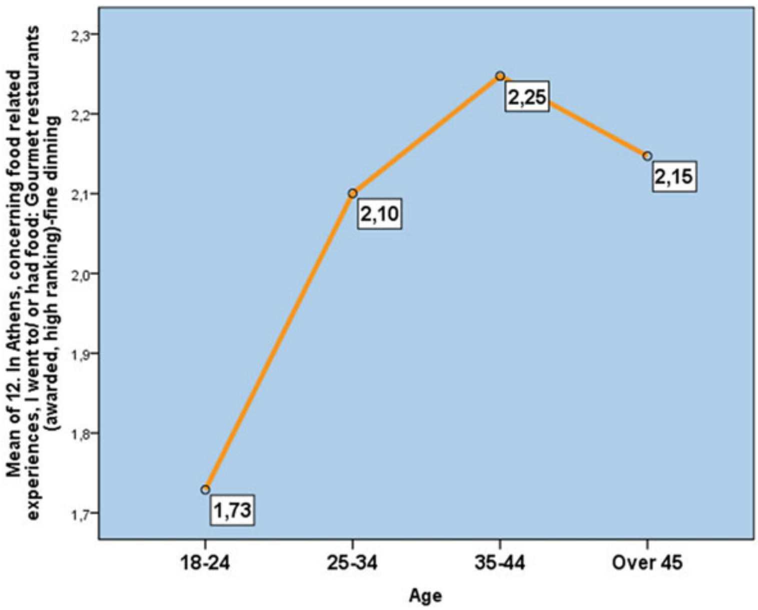


Fig. 12 Means plot of "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Gourmet restaurants (awarded, high ranking)-fine dining" according to age

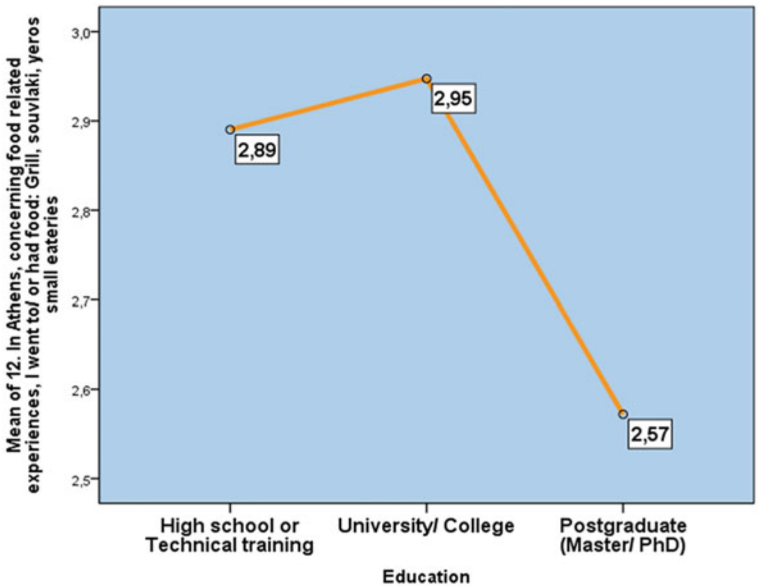


Fig. 13 Means plot of "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Grill, souvlaki, yeros small eateries" according to educational level

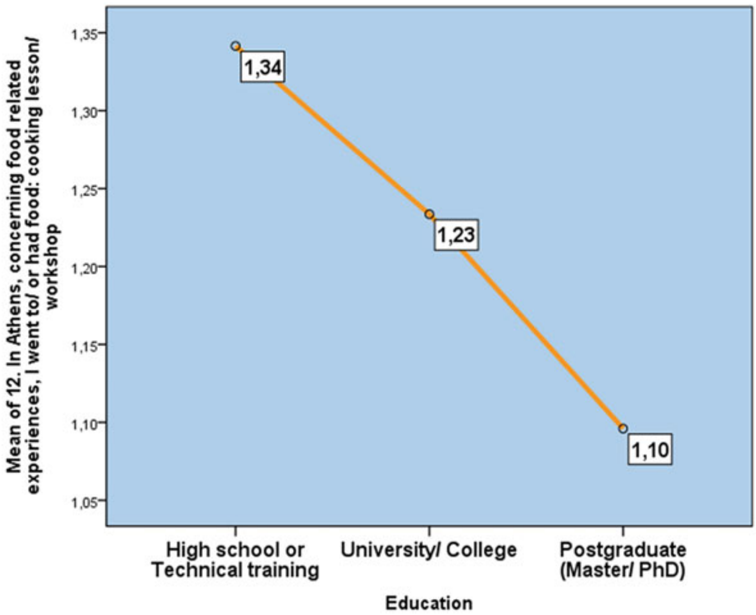


Fig. 14 Means plot of "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: cooking lesson/workshop" according to educational level

Respondents with Postgraduate (Master/Ph.D.) educational levels have a statistically significantly lower mean value in the variable "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's, etc.)" versus respondents with University/College or High school or technical training (Fig. 15) ($F = 4.636$, $p = 0.010$) (Appendix 8). Similarly, respondents with Postgraduate (Master/Ph.D.) educational level have a statistically significantly lower mean value in variable "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Street food tour with tasting and storytelling" versus respondents with University/College or High school or technical training (Fig. 16) ($F = 7.944$, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 8).

Regarding the degree of influence that Greek gastronomy had on the interviewed tourists' decision to visit Athens, from their answers, it appeared that it was more than moderately important ("Moderately influential to very influential"/3.14 ± 1.19, $t = 3.060$, $p < 0.01$/Appendix 9), especially for women (3.27 ± 1.20) compared to men (2.98 ± 1.16) ($t = -3.084$, $p = 0.02$) (Appendix 10).

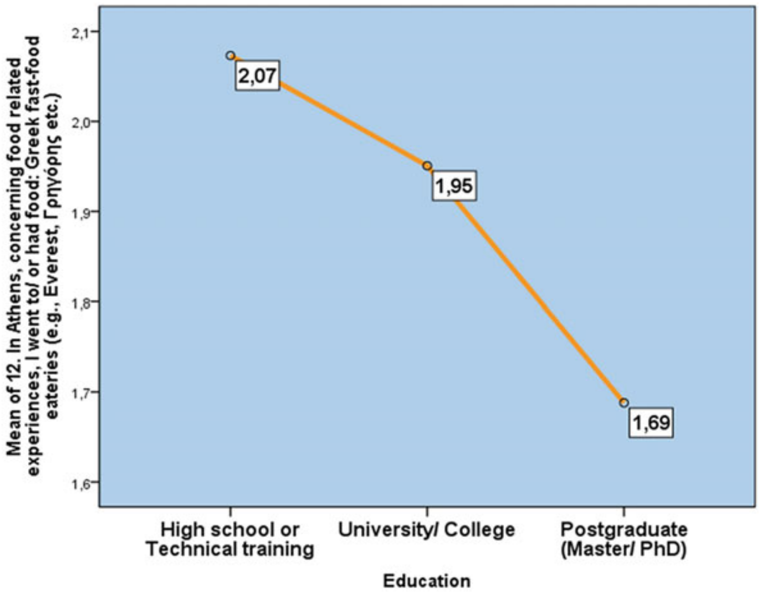


Fig. 15 Means plot of "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's etc.)" according to educational level

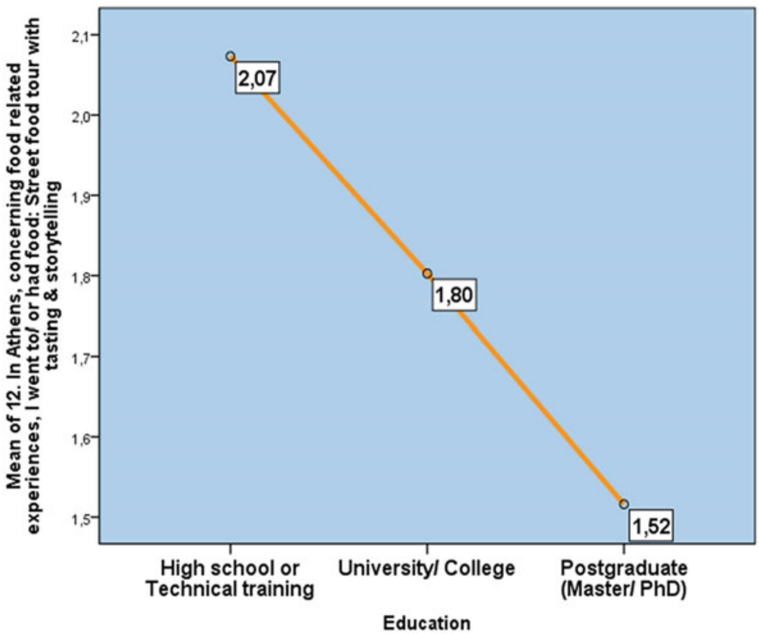


Fig. 16 Means plot of "In Athens, concerning food-related experiences, I went to/or had food: Street food tour with tasting and storytelling" according to educational level

5 Conclusion

Concerning the H1 hypothesis, the results (Fig. 7) identified the significant push factors enhancing food-related experiences in Athens, "sensory appeals/taste of food," the "cultural experience," and the "interpersonal factor." The most important motivational factor for international travelers concerning gastronomy in Athens was the sensory appeal/taste of food. In previous studies, the importance of local food's sensory aspects (appearance, smell, taste) as sensational arousal has been outlined as an influential internal factor that motivates tourists to engage with food (Boniface, 2003; Kim & Eves, 2012). On an equal level, "cultural experiences" were an essential intrinsic push factor motive. The paper revealed cultural experience as essential since it promotes the quest for authenticity and knowledge for different cultures, which, according to previous research (Chang et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Mak et al., 2012), is a combination of motivating factors as, acquiring knowledge and authentic experiences. These results also align with Kim and Eve's (2012) research on the motivations for consuming local food. To a lesser degree, participants agreed on the interpersonal factor expressed in the dimensions of "togetherness" as part of socialization and "excitement," which agrees with previous research, such as that of Kim et al. (2013), who viewed the motivation for socialization as enhancing friendship and family ties while discussing local food experiences.

In this frame, women had a higher tendency for authenticity (experiencing local food in its original place) and along with those with higher education (Master/Ph.D.) presented a higher mean concerning the dimension of excitement for the local food on vacation due to the provision of a sense of escape from the daily routine, indicating a greater need for authenticity and a change. Participants of a younger age (18–24) had a lower interest in the cultural dimension, to search for the culture of food and the knowledge about different cultures, a result that implies that the younger ages prefer a more joyful trip which was also found with the respondents with high school and technical training.

On the H2 hypothesis, pull factors for food-related activities, the dimension of the "core food tourism appeals" was partially supported, based on respondents' answers, since all items had a lower median frequency. The only pull factor with a higher than the median was "having local food in Greek food restaurants and taverns-casual dining," followed by the item "Grill, souvlaki, yeros, small eateries" and "Gourmet restaurants (awarded, high ranking)-fine dining."

Concerning pull factors, women presented higher participation in cooking lessons, indicating a greater willingness to participate in a hands-on learning process. They preferred Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's) providers of fast and tasty Greek food more than men. Respondents at a younger age (18–24) seemed less attracted to fine dining than the older tourists, implying that they prefer a more casual style of dining or a lower budget. Concerning education, respondents with university/college backgrounds had a greater interest in small eateries and food tours than those with a Master's/Ph.D. who had a lower interest in cooking lessons in the small eateries and food tours.

Regarding the H3 hypothesis concerning the influence of local food, which in this case was the Greek gastronomical offer in Athens in the decision process to embark on a trip to Athens, the evidence from the survey presented that it was relatively supportive since it had just a more than moderate influence, notably for women compared to men. The moderate influence of Greek cuisine might seem as evidence that further improvement is required, especially on the promotional side and the need to enhance the image of Greek gastronomy in the global travel market as a distinct and valuable destination component.

Implications and Limitations

With this research on the motivators in the engagement with local food at destinations, the study attempts to contribute to the expanding literature on food tourism. It focused on the effect of motivating push and pull factors on the decision-making for travel and food-related choices. The tourist and the tourism attractions are the central aspects of the system in food tourism. Tourism inflows are dependent on the destination's resources and the tourists' attitudes toward those resources. Furthermore, tourism is a result of the interaction between demand and supply. In an attempt for a supply element (destination attribute) to substantively react to demand or enhance affective factors, it must be regarded and valued, which leads to the assessment of market responses and the comprehension of consumer behavior (Uysal & Hagan, 1993).

Consequently, there is a strong correlation between destination characteristics (pull forces) and tourist motivations (push forces). Demand and supply factors influence the production and growth of tourism goods and services and travelers' decision-making process. Thus, the combined elements of demand and supply—push and pull motivational factors—determine the level of demand for a particular destination and produce the final tourism experience.

The findings provide valuable information for tourism planners and food providers since this research revealed particular motives and significant food attributes that generally affect tourists' engagement with local gastronomy while traveling by gender, age, and education. Hence, businesses and authorities in hospitality, tourism, and regional development must address these issues to enhance tourism value and perception.

As anticipated in all studies, some limitations must be acknowledged to promote future research. First, new studies should employ larger sample sizes and from other socioeconomic and demographic populations to validate the findings and provide more evidence of representativeness. Second, the present study results focused on the local-Greek food; alternatively, researchers might approach tourists at a variety of other food servicescapes to learn about the experiential gains of the destinations' gastronomy like the other present and increasing ethnic cuisines (Italian, Asian, Indian). Many other servicescapes (food tours, farmers' markets, cooking lessons, food delicatessen shops) may also affect the food-related engagement of travelers. For instance, food tours may encourage the purchase of local food-related artifacts and products, which indicates additional potential for tourism development and destinations' promotional activities.

Disclosure Statement The authors declare no potential conflict of interest.

Appendix 1: One Sample t Test and One Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test (test value = 3)

Push Factors	Mean	Std. Deviation	One-Sample t Test (p value)	One sample Wilcoxon signed Rank Test
Tasting local food on holiday helps me to relax	4.00	0.85	29.532 (<0.01)	<0.01
Tasting local food on holiday takes me away from my daily routine	4.05	0.93	28.499 (<0.01)	<0.01
Tasting local food enables me to have an enjoyable time with friends and/or family	4.21	0.78	38.944 (<0.01)	<0.01
The taste of local food in its original place is different from home	4.21	0.80	38.083 (<0.01)	<0.01
Experiencing local food increases my knowledge for different cultures	4.26	0.73	43.489 (<0.01)	<0.01
Experiencing local food in its original place make me excited	4.27	0.77	42.045 (<0.01)	<0.01
It is important to me that the local food I eat on holiday tastes/ smells/ looks good	4.35	0.71	48.225 (<0.01)	<0.01
Tasting local food in its original place is an authentic experience	4.35	0.73	47.054 (<0.01)	<0.01

Appendix 2: Independent Samples t Test and Mann–Whitney U (Gender)

Push Factors	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Independent Samples t Test (p value)	Mann-Whitney U (p value)
Experiencing local food in its original place make me excited	Male	289	4.20	0.81	- 2.144 (0.031)	46,228 (0.047)
	Female	349	4.33	0.73		
Tasting local food on holiday takes me away from my daily routine	Male	289	3.97	0.92	- 2.060 (0.040)	45,063 (0.013)
	Female	349	4.12	0.94		

Appendix 3: ANOVA and Kruskal–Wallis Test (Age)

Push Factors	Age	N	Mean (Std. Dev.)	ANOVA F (p value)	Welch F_a (p value)	Brown-Forsythe F_a (p value)	Kruskal Wallis X^2 (p value)
Experiencing local food increases my knowledge for different cultures	18-24	166	4.10 (0.85)	3.845 (0.010) Multiple Comparisons Bonferroni Adjustment 18-24 vs 25-34 (p=0.019) 18-24 vs 25-34 (p=0.074) 18-24 vs 25-34 (p=0.088)	3.152 (0.026)	3.932 (0.009)	7.789 (0.050)
	25-34	309	4.30 (0.69)				
	35-44	97	4.33 (0.67)				
	Over 45	68	4.36 (0.73)				

Appendix 4: ANOVA and Kruskal–Wallis Test (Education)

Push Factors	Education	N	Mean (Std. Dev.)	ANOVA F (p value)	Welch F_a (p value)	Brown-Forsythe F_a (p value)	Kruskal Wallis X^2 (p value)
Tasting local food on holiday takes me away from my daily routine	High school or Technical training	82	3.84 (1.07)	5.639 (0.004) Multiple Comparisons Bonferroni Adjustment Postgraduate vs High school (p=0.010) Postgraduate vs University/ (p=0.030)	5.697 (0.004)	5.108 (0.007)	8.132 (0.017)
	University/ College	304	3.98 (0.97)				
	Postgraduate (Master/ PhD)	250	4.19 (0.81)				
Tasting local food in its original place is an authentic experience	High school or Technical training	82	4.10 (0.84)	6.091 (0.002) Multiple Comparisons Bonferroni Adjustment High school vs University (p=0.002) High school vs Postgraduate (p=0.007)	4.662 (0.010)	5.428 (0.005)	10.712 (0.005)
	University/ College	304	4.40 (0.72)				
	Postgraduate (Master/ PhD)	250	4.38 (0.69)				

Appendix 5: One Sample t Test and One Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test (test value = 3)

Pull Factors	Mean	Std. Deviation	One-Sample t Test (p value)	One sample Wilcoxon signed Rank Test
Cooking lesson/ workshop	1.19	0.71	-64.291 (<0.01)	<0.01
Visiting farms agritourism units & artisan producers	1.26	0.81	-54.274 (<0.01)	<0.01
Food events & festivals	1.30	0.85	-50.763 (<0.01)	<0.01
Wine tour with tasting & storytelling	1.32	0.88	-48.334 (<0.01)	<0.01
I went to/ or had food: Wine bars	1.63	1.08	-32.293 (<0.01)	<0.01
Street food tour with tasting & storytelling	1.72	1.21	-26.824 (<0.01)	<0.01
Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's etc.)	1.86	1.19	-23.724 (<0.01)	<0.01
Food markets (fruit, meat, fish, spices etc.)	2.00	1.23	-20.511 (<0.01)	<0.01
Gourmet restaurants (awarded, high ranking)-fine dinning	2.03	1.24	-19.776 (<0.01)	<0.01
Grill, souvlaki, yeros small eateries	2.79	1.46	-3.649 (<0.01)	<0.01
Greek cuisine restaurants & taverns-casual dinning	3.40	1.26	8.151 (<0.01)	<0.01

Appendix 6: Independent Samples t Test and Mann–Whitney U (Gender)

Pull Factors	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Independent Samples t Test (p value)	Mann-Whitney U (p value)
In Athens, concerning food related experiences, I went to/ or had food: cooking lesson/ workshop	Male	289	1.12	0.53	- 2.482 (0.013)	48,129 (0.038)
	Female	349	1.25	0.83		
In Athens, concerning food related experiences, I went to/ or had food: Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's etc.)	Male	289	1.74	1.15	- 2.133 (0.033)	45,928 (0.030)
	Female	349	1.95	1.26		

Appendix 7: ANOVA and Kruskal–Wallis Test (Age)

Pull Factors	Age	N	Mean (Std. Dev.)	ANOVA F (p value)	Welch F_a (p value)	Brown-Forsythe F_a (p value)	Kruskal Wallis X^2 (p value)
In Athens, concerning food related experiences, I went to/ or had food: Gourmet restaurants (awarded, high ranking)-fine dinning	18-24	166	1.73 (1.13)	4.882 (0.002) Multiple Comparisons Bonferroni Adjustment 18-24 vs 25-34 (p=0.011) 18-24 vs 25-34 (p=0.006) 18-24 vs 25-34 (p=0.018)	4.311 (0.002)	4.590 (0.004)	18.324 (<0.01)
	25-34	309	2.10 (1.23)				
	35-44	97	2.25 (1.26)				
	Over 45	68	2.15 (1.40)				

Appendix 8: ANOVA and Kruskal–Wallis Test (Education)

Pull Factors	Education	N	Mean (Std. Dev.)	ANOVA F (p value)	Welch F_a (p value)	Brown-Forsythe F_a (p value)	Kruskal Wallis X^2 (p value)
In Athens, concerning food related experiences, I went to/ or had food: Grill, souvlaki, yeros small eateries	High school or Technical training	82	2.89 (1.55)	4.784 (0.009) Multiple Comparisons Bonferroni Adjustment Postgraduate vs University/ (p=0.008)	5.015 (0.007)	4.615 (0.011)	8.413 (0.015)
	University/ College	304	2.95 (1.51)				
	Postgraduate (Master/ PhD)	250	2.57 (1.35)				
In Athens, concerning food related experiences, I went to/ or had food: cooking lesson/ workshop	High school or Technical training	82	1.34 (0.97)	4.629 (0.010) Multiple Comparisons Tamhane Adjustment Postgraduate vs University (p=0.032) High school vs Postgraduate (p=0.086)	5.040 (0.007)	3.655 (0.028)	7.134 (0.028)
	University/ College	304	1.23 (0.79)				
	Postgraduate (Master/ PhD)	250	1.10 (0.71)				
In Athens, concerning food related experiences, I went to/ or had food: Greek fast-food eateries (e.g., Everest, Gregory's etc.)	High school or Technical training	82	2.07 (1.37)	4.636 (0.010) Multiple Comparisons Tamhane Adjustment Postgraduate vs University (p=0.026) High school vs Postgraduate (p=0.064)	4.800 (0.009)	4.283 (0.015)	8.303 (0.016)
	University/ College	304	1.95 (1.27)				
	Postgraduate (Master/ PhD)	250	1.69 (1.08)				
In Athens, concerning food related experiences, I went to/ or had food: Street food tour with tasting & storytelling	High school or Technical training	82	1.34 (0.97)	7.944 (<0.01) Multiple Comparisons Tamhane Adjustment Postgraduate vs University (p=0.009) High school vs Postgraduate (p=0.004)	7.951 (<0.01)	7.040 (0.001)	12.924 (0.002)
	University/ College	304	1.23 (0.79)				
	Postgraduate (Master/ PhD)	250	1.10 (0.71)				

Appendix 9: One Sample t Test and One Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test (test value = 3)

Push Factors	Mean	Std. Deviation	One-Sample t Test (p value)	One sample Wilcoxon signed Rank Test
How much has Greek gastronomy influenced your decision to visit Greece/ Athens?	3.14	1.19	3.060 (0.002)	0.004

Appendix 10: Independent Samples t Test and Mann–Whitney U (Gender)

Push Factors	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Independent Samples t Test (p value)	Mann-Whitney U (p value)
How much has Greek gastronomy influenced your decision to visit Greece/ Athens?	Male	289	2.98	1.16	- 3.084 (0.002)	43,274 (0.001)
	Female	349	3.27	1.20		

References

Axelsen, M., & Swan, T. (2010). Designing festival experience to influence visitor perceptions: The case of a wine and food festival. *Journal of Travel Research, 49*(4), 436–450.

Baloglu, A., & Uysal, M. (1996). Market segments of push and pull motivation: A canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 8*(3), 32–38.

Basil, M., & Basil, D. Z. (2009). Reflections of ultra-fine dining experiences. In A. Lindgreen, J. Vanhamme, & M. B. Beverland (Eds.), *Memorable customer experiences: A research anthology* (pp. 135–147). Gower Publishing Company.

Bersimis, S., Bersimis, F., & Sachlas, A. (2022). *Introduction to statistics and probability* (2nd ed.). Tziola & Sons SA Publications (in Greek).

Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räisänen, H. (2016). Local food: A source for destination attraction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 28*(1), 177–194.

Boniface, P. (2003). *Tasting tourism: Traveling for food and drink*. Ashgate.

Cha, S., McCleary, K. W., & Uysal, M. (1995). Travel motivations of Japanese overseas travelers: A factor-cluster segmentation approach. *Journal of Travel Research, 34*(2), 33–39.

Chang, R. C. Y., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. H. N. (2010). Food preferences of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research, 37*(4), 989–1011.

Chang, W., & Yuan, J. (2011). A taste of tourism: Visitors' motivations to attend a food festival. *Event Management, 15*(1), 13–23.

Chon, K. S. (1989). Understanding recreational travelers' motivation, attitude and satisfaction. *Tourist Review, 44*(1), 3–7.

Conover, W. (1999). *Practical nonparametric statistics* (3rd ed.). Wiley.

Correia, A., & Pimpao, A. (2008). Decision making processes of Portuguese tourist travelling to South America and Africa. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 2*(4), 330–373.

Cox, D. R. (2006). *Principles of statistical inference*. Cambridge University Press.

Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(4), 408–424.

Crompton, J. L., & McKay, S. L. (1997). Motives for visitors attending festival events. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24*(2), 425–439.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*(3), 297–334.

Crouch, G. I., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1999). Tourism, competitiveness, and social prosperity. *Journal of Business Research, 44*(3), 137–152.

Dan, G. M. (1981). Tourism motivations: An appraisal. *Annual of Tourism Research, 4*(4), 184–194.

Derrick, B., Toher, D., & White, P. (2017). How to compare the means of two samples that include paired observations and independent observations: A companion to Derrick, Russ, Toher and White. *The Quantitative Methods for Psychology, 13*(2), 120–126.

Dimitrovski, D., & Crespi-Vallbona, M. (2016). Role of food neophilia in food market tourists' motivational construct. The case of La Boqueria (Barcelona, Spain). *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 34*(4), 475–487.

Ellis, A., Park, E., Kim, S., & Yeoman, I. (2018). What is food tourism? *Tourism Management, 68*, 250–263.

Etikan, I., & Bala, K. (2017). Sampling and sampling methods. *Biometrics & Biostatistics International Journal, 5*(6), 215–217.

Everett, S., & Aitchison, C. (2008). The role of food tourism in sustaining regional identity: A case study of Cornwall, South West England. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 16*(2), 150–167.

Fields, K., Hjalager, A. M., & Richards, G. (2002). Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: Motivational factors. In A. M. Hjalager & G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and gastronomy* (pp. 36–50). Routledge.

Funk, D. C., & Brun, T. J. (2007). The role of socio-psychological and culture-education motives in marketing international sport tourism: A cross-cultural perspective. *Tourism Management, 28*(3), 806–819.

Getz, D. (2000). *Explore wine tourism: Management, development & destinations*. Cognizant Communication.

Getz, D., & Brown, G. (2006). Critical success factors for wine tourism regions: A demand analysis. *Tourism Management, 27*(1), 146–158.

Green, G. P., & Dougherty, M. L. (2008). Localizing linkages for food and tourism: Culinary tourism as a community development strategy. *Community Development, 39*(3), 148–158.

Hall, M., & Mitchell, R. (2000). We are what we eat: Food, tourism and globalization. *Tourism, Culture and Communication, 2*(1), 29–37.

Hall, C. M., & Sharples, L. (2003). The consumption of experiences or the experience of consumption? An introduction to the tourism of taste. In C. M. Hall, L. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis, & B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 1–24). Routledge.

Horng, J. S., & Tsai, C. T. (S.). (2010). Government websites for promoting East Asian culinary tourism: A cross-national analysis. *Tourism Management, 31*(1), 74–85.

Karim, S. A., & Chi, C. G. (2010). Culinary tourism as a destination attraction: An empirical examination of destinations' food image culinary tourism as a destination attraction. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 19*(6), 531–555.

Katsoni, V., & Venetsanopoulou, M. (2013). Use of innovation systems for an effective tourism marketing development strategy. *e-Journal of Science & Technology, JST, 8*(5), 33–40.

Kerstetter, D. L., Confer, J. J., & Graefe, A. R. (2001). An exploration of the specialization concept within the context of heritage tourism. *Journal of Travel Research, 39*(3), 267–274.

Kim, Y. G., & Eves, A. (2012). Construction and validation of a scale to measure tourist motivation to consume local food. *Tourism Management, 33*(6), 1458–1467.

Kim, Y. G., & Eves, A. (2016). Measurement equivalence of an instrument measuring motivation to consume local food: A cross-cultural examination across British and Korean. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 40*(5), 634–652.

Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28*(3), 423–431.

Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2013). Empirical verification of a conceptual model of local food consumption at tourist destination. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 33*(3), 484–489.

Kim, S. S., Lee, C. K., & Klenosky, D. (2003). The influences of push and pull factors at Korean Nation Park. *Tourism Management, 24*(2), 169–180.

Kim, Suh, Eves. (2010). The relationships between food-related personality traits, satisfaction, and loyalty among visitors attending food events and festivals. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29*(2), 216–226.

Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2005). Gastronomy tourism. *Journal of Culinary Science & Tourism, 4*(2–3), 39–55.

Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 30*(3), 354–377.

Klenosky, D. (2002). The pull of tourism destinations: A means-end investigation. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(4), 385–395.

Lee, C., Lee, Y., & Wicks, B. E. (2004). Segmentation of festival motivation by nationality and satisfaction. *Tourism Management, 25*(1), 61–70.

Long, L. M. (Ed.). (2004). *Culinary tourism.* The University Press of Kentucky.

Lopez-Guzman, T., & Sanchez-Canizares, S. (2012). Culinary tourism in Córdoba (Spain). *British Food Journal, 114*(2), 168–179.

Lupton, D. (1996). *Food, the body and self*. Sage.

Mak, A. H. N., Lumbers, M., Eves, A., & Chang, R. C. Y. (2012). Factors influencing tourist food consumption. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(3), 928–936.

Mayo, E., & Jarvis, L. P. (1981). *The psychology of leisure travel.* CBI.

McIntosh, R. W., Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. R. (1995). *Tourism: Principles, practices, and philosophies* (7th ed.). Wiley.

Meng, F., Tepanon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2008). Measuring tourist satisfaction by attribute and motivation: The case of a nature-based resort. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 14*(1), 41–56.

Otis, L. (1984). Factors influencing the willingness to taste unusual foods. *Psychological Report, 54*(3), 739–745.

Ottenbacher, M., & Harrington, R. (2010). Culinary tourism—A case study of the gastronomic capital. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology, 8*(1), 14–32.

Park, K.-S., Reisinger, Y., & Kang, H.-J. (2008). Visitors' motivation for attending the South Beach wine and food festival, Miami Beach. Florida. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 25*(2), 161–181.

Pearce, P. L. (1993). *Fundamentals of tourists' motivation.* In D. G. Pearce & R. W. Butler (Eds.), *Tourism research: Critique and challengers.* Routledge.

Pérez-Gálvez, J. C., Muñoz-Fernández, G. A., & López-Guzmán, T. (2015). Motivation and tourist satisfaction in wine festivals: XXXI ed. Wine tasting Montilla-Moriles, Spain. *Tourism & Management Studies, 11*(2), 7–13.

Riley, R. W., & Van Doren, C. S. (1992). Movies as tourism promotion: A pull factors in a push location. *Tourism Management Research, 13*(3), 267–274.

Rust, R. T., & Oliver, R. L. (2000). Should we delight the customer? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(1), 86–94.

Smith, S., Costello, C., & Muenchen, R. A. (2010). Influence of push and pull motivations on satisfaction and behavioral intentions within a culinary tourism. *Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 11*(1), 17–35.

Smith, S. L., & Xiao, H. (2008). Culinary tourism supply chains: A preliminary examination. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(3), 289–299.

Solomon, M. R. (2004). *Consumer behaviour* (8th ed.). Prentice Hall.

Son, A., & Xu, H. (2013). Religious food as a tourism attraction: The roles of Buddhist temple food in Western tourist experience. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 8*(2), 248–258.

Su, D., Johnson, L., & O'Mahony, B. (2020). Analysis of push and pull factors in travel motivation. *Current Issues in Tourism, 23*(5), 572–586.

Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (2005). *Consumer behaviour in tourism* (1st ed.). Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Telfer, D. J., & Wall, G. (2000). Strengthening backward economic linkages: Local food purchasing by three Indonesian hotels. *Tourism Geographies, 2*(4), 421–447.

Testa, R., Galati, A., Schifani, G., Trapani, A., & Migliore, G. (2019). Culinary tourism experiences in agri-tourism destinations and sustainable consumption—Understanding Italian tourists' motivations. *Sustainability, 11*(17), 1–17.

Tsartas, P., Coccossis, H., & Vasileiou, M. (2013). *Geographies of tourism: European research perspectives tourism social science series* (Vol. 19, pp. 91–103).

Tsartas, P., Despotaki, G., & Sarantakou, E. (2015). New trends for tourism products: The issue of tourism resources. *Tourism Research Institute, Journal of Tourism Research, 10*(1), 191–200.

UNWTO. (2012). *Global report on food tourism, Madrid, Spain (UNWTO)*. Retrieved from https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2019-09/food_tourism_ok.pdf.

UNWTO. (2017). *Red de gastronomía de la OMT: plan de acción 2016/2017*. Retrieved from https://webunwto.s3-eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/imported_images/46789/gastronomy_action_plan_print_2_es_web_0.pdf.

UNWTO. (2020). *International tourism and Covid-19*. Retrieved from https://www.unwto.org/international-tourism-and-covid-19.

Urry, J. (2002). *The tourist gaze* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Uysal, M., & Hagan, L. (1993). Motivations of pleasure travel and tourism. In M. Khan, M. Oslen, & T. Var (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of hospitality and tourism* (pp. 798–810). Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Uysal, M., & Jurowski, C. (1994). Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of Tourism Research, 21*(4), 844–846.

You, X., Oleary, J., & Morrison, A. (2000). A cross-cultural comparison of travel push and pull factors: United Kingdom Vs. Japan. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration, 1*(2), 1–26.

Yuan, J. J., Cai, L. A., Morrison, A. M., & Linton, S. (2005). An analysis of wine festival attendees' motivations: A synergy of wine, travel and special events? *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 11*(1), 41–58.

Gastronomy Tourist Behavior in Macao as the "UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy"

Valeria Wenlan Jiang and Eusebio C. Leou

Abstract As a demonstration of local food culture, gastronomy is an integral part of the tourism experience, which can strictly give an impact to the visitors about the destination. It even might be relative to the encouragement or discouragement the revisiting intention of tourists to any destination. Since Macao was ascribed to UNESCO Creative City Network of Gastronomy in 2017, with the promotion from the government, Macao has been considered officially as a destination with gastronomy attractions. However, there are rarely visitors to Macao with the motivation particularly for experiencing its gastronomy aspect, besides its famed gambling activities. In terms of existing academic research, relatively few studies related to food tourism have been conducted in conjunction with food culture in Macao. Even the more established disciplines that study the "human element" of food consumption, such as anthropology, sociology, or cultural studies, have rarely explored the consumption experiences of food tourists. Aiming for a deeper mining to visitors' real experience during their stay in Macao, this study has investigated tourists' perception and its effect on loyalty through questionnaires and interviews. Moreover, based on Hofstede's cultural dimension theory, this study has also explored the connection among tourists' behaviors, culture impressions, and the holistic impressions of Macao. The results have revealed that the perception of gastronomy tourism is multi-dimensional, which could create cultural value and work as guidance for further promotion. The stronger the visiting motivation, the higher the tourists' perception, so that tourists would be more loyalty to the destination.

Keywords Food culture · Tourist's behavior · Gastronomy tourism · Creative City Network · Macao

JEL Classifications O53 Asia including Middle East · Z32 Tourism and Development

V. W. Jiang · E. C. Leou (✉)
City University of Macao, Macao SAR, China
e-mail: chleou@cityu.mo

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_33

1 Introduction

Gastronomy is an important aspect of cultural legacy since a people's culinary traditions show their habits and practices and serve as a representation of who they are. As a matter of fact, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) dedicated foods, widespread dishes, and food systems as a World Heritage. And furthermore, the Creative Cities Network—UCCN (Creative Cities Network) project was launched with the objective of preserving and promoting traditional local cuisines around the world. Since Macao was ascribed to UCCN of Gastronomy as Chinese second site in 2017, with the promotion from the government, Macao has been considered officially as a destination with gastronomy attractions. "City of Gastronomy" is the title of the creative city with the theme of food in the "Creative City Network." UNESCO's "Creative Cities Network" instructs to promote the development of cultural diversity through the development of creative industries, to enter the international stage, to highlight the cultural personality of the city, and to promote the overall development of society and culture. Macao is in the Guangdong–Hong Kong–Macao Greater Bay Area. The Greater Bay Area has become the most economically dynamic area with its own unique advantages. Today, the development of the Guangdong–Hong Kong–Macao Greater Bay Area has become a national development strategy and is one of the four major bay areas in the world.

Gastronomy tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future (Xie et al, 2014). It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems (WTO, 2004). As a special city business card, the development of food is also included in the development strategy of building the city's tourism image and enhancing the soft power of the city's culture. As one of the fastest growing tourism industries in the world, food tourism is also prosperous in Macao (Leou et al, 2016; Okumus, 2021). Macau is a metropolis where Chinese and Western cultures meet, and Chinese and Western food cultures also meet here. There is not only traditional Chinese food here, but also many Southeast Asian, Japanese, and Korean, Portuguese, Western, American, and other food, and there are also many local specialties of Macao. Macao can make full use of food resources to develop tourism, combine food and travel, attract a large number of tourists, and at the same time promote the development of local tourism and establish a good image of a tourist city.

In the theoretical sense, in response to the relatively little research on food tourism related to the food culture of Macao and the lack of research on tourists' consumption experience of food, this paper constructs the connotation of tourists' consumption experience of food and its dimensions, analyzes its intrinsic correlation with satisfaction and behavioral intention, and reveals the factors influencing tourists' consumption experience of food on satisfaction, behavioral intention and motivation, in order to enrich the theoretical content of food theoretical connotation of the study of tourism consumer behavior. By deepening the study of food tourism consumer behavior, we explore the intrinsic needs of tourists and make theoretical contributions to the enhancement of tourists’ food experience.

In the practical sense, with the advent of the era of experience economy, tourists’ consumption activities of gourmet food nowadays gradually tend to be refined and personalized. On the one hand, by studying the consumption experience characteristics of different tourists toward food, it provides new ideas for effective positioning of destinations and creating food tourism business cards. On the other hand, taking Macao as an example, by analyzing the influence of tourists’ experience of food consumption on satisfaction and behavioral intention, it is expected to provide practical suggestions for promoting local catering development and enhancing the gastronomic attractiveness of tourist destinations, and provide reference and inspiration for similar food tourism case sites and their food consumption markets. The creation of Macao Food City has a guiding role in the development of its cultural economy and tourism, the realization of the economic transformation and upgrading of Macao’s food culture industry, the improvement of Macaou’s popularity, and the promotion of Macao’s characteristic food culture. It is of constructive significance to enhance the development of Macao’s tourism service industry.

2 Research Background

Macao, a city with an area of 32 km^2, has assumed the historical responsibility of being the frontier where Chinese and foreign cultures meet, merge, and spread over the centuries. As the “World Capital of Gastronomy” awarded by UNESCO, Macao cuisine has become a vivid example of the exchange and mutual appreciation of Eastern and Western civilizations and the harmonious convergence of multiple cultures.

In 2017, Macao was granted membership in the UNESCO Creative Cities Network and awarded the title of “World Capital of Gastronomy,” adding to its “delicious” distinction. In November 2020, MGTO, together with the Macau Institute for Tourism Studies (IFTM), Cultural Affairs Bureau (ICM), and Macao International Institute (MII), launched a web version of the Macao Local Cuisine Database and set up a special room for the Macao Local Cuisine Database in the library of IFTM, offering a series of treasured recipes, manuscripts, local cuisine books and publications. In 2021, the culinary skills of the native Portuguese people of Macao were selected as a representative item of the national intangible cultural heritage.

Gastronomy is one of Macao’s shining business cards and a window for people to understand and love Macao. The filming and dissemination of Chinese food documentaries, such as “A Taste of Macau”, has made Macau’s food more and more visible to the public and recognized by the cultural market, enhancing Macao’s culinary influence and identity. The Portuguese rule over Macao for more than 400 years has also left a deep mark on the food scene. In particular, the “native Portuguese cuisine,” which has been improved by the Macanese, is one of the best. It is a unique dish in the world because the cooking methods and ingredients of Macanese cuisine are a combination of Portuguese, Indian, Malaysian, and Chinese Cantonese cooking techniques, and the original Portuguese cuisine has been improved to complement its strengths and weaknesses. In addition, through the "Macau Food Festival," the International Trade and Tourism Festival and other events (Zeng & Li, 2019), Macao's food culture has become a feature and highlight of the city's tourism.

Since the return of Macao, the development of the tourism service industry has made remarkable achievements, which fully reflects the development advantages and characteristics of the tourism service industry in Macao and has become an important part of the development of the high-end service industry in Macao (Wu, 2021; Liu et al, 2023). Since the return of Macao, the central government has successively issued a series of promotion policies to support the development of the tourism service industry in the Macao SAR. However, the development of tourism and leisure services in Macao is still dominated by the gaming industry, and some extended industrial services around the needs of the gaming industry, including hotels, shopping and restaurants, lead to people's impression of Macao as "casinos" and "shopping malls," while others such as the history and culture, local characteristics, and world heritage are poorly understood, and some "human flavor" and "smell" are lacking, which directly leads to a single tourism structure. From the perspective of GDP, the gaming industry accounted for 86.52% of the total financial revenue of the SAR in 2018. From the perspective of industrial structure, the proportion of the gaming industry dropped from 50.9% in 2019 to 21.3% in 2020, but it is still the industrial structure of Macao. The largest industry. The source of inbound tourists to Macao's tourism industry is mainly the mainland, followed by Hong Kong, with fewer tourists from other countries and regions. Especially with the "Hong Kong and Macao Free Travel" policy opened after the handover, the number of mainland tourists entering Macao has continued to increase, and the proportion has continued to increase. In 1999, inbound tourists from the mainland accounted for only 21.1% of the total inbound tourists. In 2019, inbound tourists from the mainland reached 70.7%. Under the epidemic situation, the dependence on inbound tourists from the mainland is even higher. 16.3% in 2020 fell to 9.9% in 2021.

Gastronomy is a broad concept that it includes the close association of food, activities related to food and culinary practices (Rojas-Rivas et. al, 2020). The opportunity to enjoy a different culture in a new setting, experiment with new cooking techniques, and go to locations where certain local cuisines have a strong cultural identity is provided by the culinary experience (Fields, 2002). Prayag (2017) points out due of the connection between gastronomy and emotions, it might have a good impact on tourists' emotions and conduct. A gastrotourist's journey is primarily about enjoying cuisine, which greatly enhances their experience while traveling there (Williams et al., 2014). A memorable experience at the location where authentic, high-quality food is consumed can be enhanced by local cuisine. The loyalty of tourists means they have the willingness to maintain a future relationship with the destination (Mao & Zhang, 2014) and have the intension to revisit in the future (Leou & Wang, 2023).

Culture is usually defined as a set of shared values and beliefs that characterize group behavior in terms of national, ethnic, moral, and other related aspects (Faure &

Sjöstedt, 1993; Craig & Douglas, 2006; Adapa, 2008). Individual culture can be revealed through the food, songs, and stories exchanged with people outside the zone (Parra & Oliva, 2001).

Cultural difference is the difference that arises from the different cultures of different regions. In this paper, there are two levels of cultural distance: The first level is the intangible "distance" that exists in culture, and the second level is the distance that data can express.

The difference between cultural distance and the cultural difference lies in the fact that cultural distance is a concrete number that can be calculated, and the size of cultural difference can be expressed concretely by data and models. As Hofstede (1983) points out, there are significant differences between cultures and these cultural differences increase the costs of transactions. Therefore, cultural distance constitutes a barrier to trade, and countries with similar cultures are more willing to trade. Most scholars have measured cultural distance based on Hofstede's (1980) dimensions, and the larger the value, the greater the cultural distance.

This paper draws on Hofstede's six-dimensional theory of culture, a framework, and a tool for studying cross-cultural communication, in which values are used to measure cultural distance (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018). The theory is based on 116,000 questionnaires from 72 countries administered to people from all social classes and income groups (Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). The reason for using Hofstede's cultural theory to study cultural distance in this study is based on the fact that culture can only be used meaningfully through comparison. Hofstede (2001) summarized the cultural differences among countries into six basic cultural dimensions: Power Distance Index (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (AVI), Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV), Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS), and Long-Term Goals and Indulgence Index. Each dimension is described by its intensity on a scale from 0 to 100. This shows that culture is a behavioral consciousness characteristic shared by most people in the same socio-historical context and the same educational environment and is not a characteristic unique to individuals. People in different countries or regions think differently due to their different education and social and work backgrounds.

The cultural dimension theory was put forward by Dutch scholar Hofstede. It is one of the most influential cultural management theories. We can use the six dimensions of the cultural dimension theory to analyze the tourism consumers in our country. Individualism and Collectivism. Hofstede defines individualism and collectivism as "the degree to which people care about collective membership and group goals (collectivism) or one's own and individual goals (individualism)." His research found that Americans scored the highest in individualism (92/100), ranking first in the world, populations with Chinese cultural roots, such as Singaporeans, residents of Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan (who were left out of the initial study since there was no branch in China at the time), did include mainland China, scored the lowest on individualism (29/100). This is completely in line with the values of tourism consumers. Tourists under the background of Chinese culture emphasize the interdependence and inseparable connection between people, so they emphasize the preferences of others in their tourism behaviors. When choosing tourism products, especially when they are faced with a new type of tourism product, they will consider the preferences of others. One of the characteristics of Macao food tourism is that it should be based on group consciousness, with a fusion of diverse Chinese and Western cultures and food.

Power Distance refers to the degree to which groups of people in a society accept the fact that power is unequally distributed. A country with a high degree of acceptance has a distinct social hierarchy and a large power distance; otherwise, the opposite is true. Obviously, in Chinese culture, power distance is one of the most important components. Chinese society emphasizes order and the distance and hierarchy between people. This does not seem to have a direct impact on travel consumer behavior, in fact it indirectly affects travel consumers' attitudes toward destination consumption, thereby driving consumer behavior. Uncertainty Avoidance refers to the degree to which people tolerate ambiguity (low uncertainty avoidance) or feel threatened by ambiguity and uncertainty (high uncertainty avoidance). People in low uncertainty avoidance cultures take risks and have confidence in the future; people in high uncertainty avoidance cultures do the opposite. In this article, we analyze uncertainty avoidance in Chinese culture from a risk-taking perspective. In Chinese culture, people are more inclined to take risks in the economic field rather than the social field. The creation of food culture satisfies people's more conservative concepts than the gaming industry.

Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS)—It refers to the preference of members of society for "decision power and material success" or "emotional and interpersonal relationship", that is, career success and quality of life. This dimension refers to the degree to which people emphasize self-confidence, competition, materialism (career success orientation), or emphasis on relationships and the interests of others (quality of life orientation). At this stage, Chinese culture pays more attention to career success, that is, Chinese people are willing to give their entertainment time and life rhythm for career success, so when they have time to travel and consume, they want to fully relax and enjoy the vacation, and they are not willing to travel by themselves. "Do it yourself," in Chinese culture, travel is enjoyment, which is still deeply rooted, and the enjoyment of food is also a part of the enjoyment of travel. Therefore, food travel destinations can be said to be the icing on the cake for travel destinations.

Long-term goals and Indulgence Index—The dimension of long-term-short-term orientation was discovered by Hofstede in his investigations in the late 1980s and early 1990s. This dimension refers to the degree to which a culture attaches importance to traditional culture. Chinese people's thinking and actions belong to the long-term direction, but because the long-term direction always guides our actions, we cannot detect it. Chinese consumers are more willing to talk about "business" after they understand the whole situation. Therefore, in terms of consumer behavior, Chinese consumers will be more inclined to traditional cultural industries, and Macao also has traditional characteristics.

3 Research Methodology and Findings

Assuming that tourists' perception of food tourism is multi-dimensional, it can guide further promotion on the premise that cultural value can be created. The stronger the tourist motivation, the higher the tourists' perception, and the higher the tourists' loyalty to the destination.

This study is mainly based on Hofstede's cultural dimension theory and uses questionnaires and interview surveys as the main methods to explore tourist perceptions of traveling in Macao and their influence on destination loyalty. Taking Macao cuisine as the starting point, it can better show the perception and satisfaction of tourists and explore the links between tourist behavior, cultural impressions of Macao, and overall impressions of Macao. The aim is to answer the following questions:

1. What is the specific consumer experience of Macao food when tourists visit Macao?
2. What kind of cultural impressions do tourists have of Macao when they visit Macao?
3. What is the overall impression of visitors to Macao when they visit Macao?
4. What is the connection between tourists' behavior when visiting Macao and the cultural impression of Macao and the overall impression of Macao?

Two principles are followed to establish the satisfaction evaluation index system. First, there is a reasonable logical relationship between the influencing factors, and each indicator is independent, complete, and interrelated. Second, the indicators and factors can reflect the essential factors of tourism and summarize the characteristics of tourist attractions core functions. A tourist survey was conducted around the six elements of tourism behavior, namely "food, accommodation, transportation, tourism, shopping and entertainment", to identify the factors influencing satisfaction with religious tourism in Macao. Based on the preliminary survey results, more than 10 evaluation indicators were selected based on the local government database of Macao, including public safety conditions, staff service attitude, management conditions, public facilities, external transportation, internal transportation, climate and environment, consumer prices, natural scenery, historical sites, East-meets-West cultural fusion, local architecture, and gastronomy, to evaluate the satisfaction of Macao visitors. The questionnaire consists of three parts to obtain the required data in a structured format. The first part is the basic demographic information of visitors. It mainly includes gender, age, customer origin, education, occupation, income, etc. The second part is an importance and satisfaction measure of more than 10 evaluation indicators, assigned a score of 5–1 from high to low, representing "very satisfied/very important, satisfied/important, average, dissatisfied/unimportant, very dissatisfied/very unimportant"; the third part is a survey of tourists' overall satisfaction and loyalty, including overall satisfaction with Macao tourism, perception of food, willingness to revisit and willingness to recommend.

This study uses semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions to investigate the relationship between Macao's food tourism destination image, perceived value, tourism experience, and the food tourism industry, using Macao tourists as the survey respondents. The quantitative research method was then applied to test whether the correlation between the three was significant. In the semi-structured interviews, the following two questions were designed: (i) Can Macao's food tourism attract tourists? (ii) Does the perceived value of Macao's food tourism affect your tourism experience? Tourists were surveyed with questionnaires, and audio and video recordings were made with the participants' consent during the survey. The qualitative study used SPSS statistical software as an analytical tool to analyze the questionnaires. Data analysis included descriptive analysis, reliability and validity analysis, and factor analysis. The main factor packages included history and culture, recreation, climate and environment, tourism safety, tourism conditions, and others. In terms of perceived value, this study modified the content, ordering and expression of the questionnaire items and tried to avoid the ambiguity of the questions from the respondents' point of view, resulting in a preliminary scale for food tourism in Macao, including five dimensions: functional value, perceived value, situational value, social value, and cost value. At present, most of the research on tourism experience is qualitative, and there are few results of quantitative research.

4 Conclusions

This paper aims to define the connotation of tourists' consumption experience of food in tourism context, construct a scale of tourists' consumption experience of food, and examine the dimensions of tourists' consumption experience of food, and then interpret its dimensional characteristics and differences. Besides, this study tried to analyze the factors influencing the satisfaction and behavioral intention of tourists' consumption experience of food, to analyze the paths of tourists' consumption experience of food on satisfaction, behavioral intention, and motivation, and to explain their effects, and then to provide relevant suggestions for promoting the development of local catering and enhancing the attractiveness of food in tourist places. In general, this paper mainly asks the question, as the world capital of gastronomy, what is the real experience of tourists in travel? The assessment is made by analyzing the impact of tourists' perception and loyalty. Explore the relationship between behavior, cultural impression, and overall impression of Macao. The influence of Macao's image of the city of gastronomy on its urban cultural appeal and innovation has an important role in promoting and promoting the development of Macao's tourism industry and soft power competition.

To gain an in-depth understanding of tourists' real experiences during their travel in Macao, this research uses questionnaires and interviews to investigate tourists' perceptions and their impact on loyalty. In addition, based on Hofstede's theory of cultural dimension, this study also explores the link between tourist behavior, cultural impression, and overall impression of Macao. The research results show that the perception of food tourism is multi-dimensional, which can create cultural value and guide further promotion. The stronger the tourist motivation, the higher the tourists' perception, and the higher the tourists' loyalty to the destination.

The results of the study provide theoretical implications related to gastronomy and cultural tourism. The data obtained from the culinary experiences of tourists indicate that tourists have a positive impact on the perception of the destination because of their culinary experiences. The results of this study also have practical implications for the service industry in Macao, enabling them to contribute more effectively to the upgrading of the dining, tourism, and service experience through direct feedback from tourists. Finally, this paper provides conclusions that consider the different impacts on different flavors of restaurants in Macao and offers suggestions to help improve the chances of return visits. The findings show that the perception of food tourism is multi-dimensional and can create cultural value and lead to further promotion. The stronger the visitor's motivation, the higher the visitor's perception, and the higher the visitor's loyalty to the destination.

In terms of research perspective, we take tourists visiting Macao as the research object, construct the connotation and dimensions of tourists' consumption experience of Macao cuisine and verify them, analyze the differences of tourists' consumption experience of Macao cuisine and the factors influencing tourists' satisfaction, behavioral intention, and motivation of Macao cuisine consumption experience, and enrich and deepen the research content of tourism cuisine consumption. On the other hand, in terms of theory construction, the connotation, and dimensions of tourists' consumption experience of food in tourism context are constructed and defined, and the paths of tourists' satisfaction and behavioral intention with respect to their consumption experience of food in Macao are analyzed, and the effects are interpreted from the subject-object perspective, which provides a theoretical basis for the subsequent research development of tourists' food experience.

References

Adapa, S.(2008). Adoption of Internet Shopping: Cultural Considerations in India and Australia. *Journal of Internet Banking & Commerce* 13(Aug):1–17.

Beugelsdijk, S., & Welzel, C. (2018). Dimensions and dynamics of national culture: Synthesizing Hofstede with Inglehart. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 49*(10), 1469–1505. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022118798505.

Craig, C. S., & Douglas, S. P. (2006). Beyond national culture: Implications of cultural dynamics for consumer research. *International Marketing Review*, 23(3), 322–342. https://doi.org/10.1108/02651330610670479.

De Mooij, M., & Hofstede, G. (2010). The Hofstede model: Applications to global branding and advertising strategy and research. *International Journal of Advertising: The Quarterly Review of Marketing Communications,* 29(1), 85–110. https://doi.org/10.2501/S026504870920104X.

Faure, G. O. & Sjöstedt, G. (1993). Culture and negotiation: An introduction. In Faure, G. O. & Rubin, J. Z. (Eds.). *Culture and negotiation.* SAGE. 1–13.

Fields, K. (2002). Demand for the gastronomic tourism product: Motivational Factors. In Hjalager, A.-M., & Richards, G. (Eds.). *Tourism and Gastronomy (1st ed.).* Routledge. 50–64. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203218617.

Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, leadership, and organization: do American theories apply abroad? *Organizational dynamics*, 9(1), 42–63. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(80)90013-3.
Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14(2), 75–89. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490867.
Hofstede, G. (2001). Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations (2nd ed.). SAGE.
Leou, C. H., Wang, X. & Hsiao, C. (2016). The Relationship between destination image and satisfaction: Visits to Macao World Heritage as a moderator. In Brebbia, C. A. (ed.). *Sustainable Development (WIT Transactions on The Built Environment Series, Vol. 168).* Wessex Institute of Technology Press. 795–806. https://doi.org/10.2495/SD150702.
Leou, E. C. & Wang, H. (2023). A holistic perspective to predict Yoga tourists' revisit intention: An integration of TPB and ECM model. *Frontiers in Psychology*, (13)1090579. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1090579.
Liu, J., Leou, E. C., Chen, C., & Li, X. (2023). Can Trust Bring Satisfaction to the Festival Under Pandemic? SAGE Open, 13(1). https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440221147248.
Mao, I. Y. & Zhang, H. Q. (2014). Structural relationships among destination preference, satisfaction and loyalty in Chinese tourists to Australia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(2), 201–208. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1919.
Okumus, B. (2021). Food tourism research: a perspective article. *Tourism Review*, 76(1), 38–42. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-11-2019-0450
Parra, Á., & Oliva, A. (2001). Autonomía emocional durante la adolescencia. *Infancia y aprendizaje*, 24(2), 181–196.
Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B., & Del Chiappa, G. (2017). Understanding the Relationships between Tourists' Emotional Experiences, Perceived Overall Image, Satisfaction, and Intention to Recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(1), 41–54. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515620567.
Rojas-Rivas, E., Rendón-Domínguez, A., Felipe-Salinas, J. A., & Cuffia, F. (2020). What is gastronomy? An exploratory study of social representation of gastronomy and Mexican cuisine among experts and consumers using a qualitative approach. Food Quality and Preference, (83)03930. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2020.103930.
Williams, H. A., Williams Jr, R. L., & Omar, M. (2014). Gastro-tourism as destination branding in emerging markets. *International Journal of Leisure and Tourism Marketing*, 4(1), 1–18.
WTO (2004). *Indicators of sustainable development for tourism destinations: A guidebook*. World Tourism Organization. 516.
Wu, J. H. (2021). Research on the relationship between destination image, perceived value and tourism experience of gourmet tourism—A case study of Macau gourmet tourists. *Chinese Market* (12), 26 and 27. https://doi.org/10.13939/j.carolcarrollnkiZGSC.2021.12.026.
Xie, H. J., Bao, J., & Kerstetter, D. L. (2014). Examining the effects of tourism impacts on satisfaction with tourism between native and non-native residents. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(3), 241-249. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1922
Zeng, T., & Li, X. (2019). Optimization of Macao's tourism diversified development: From the perspective of the relationship between tourist types and tourism and leisure experience quality. *Journal of South China Normal University (Social Science Edition),* (05), 49–59 + 190.

Behavior Analysis of Glamping as a Novel Tourism Marketing Trend

Ioanna Giannoukou, Eirini Fafouti, and Constantinos Halkiopoulos

Abstract In the current period, the influence of mass tourism has begun to diminish due to measures and travel limitations. In the post-COVID period, variations in tourist demand and consumption patterns are evident. In this research paper, the concept of alternative tourism is analyzed, along with its characteristics and philosophy, with an emphasis on camping as well as a profile analysis of campers. In addition, the concept of Glamping, a trend in alternative tourism that blends living in nature with the conveniences of a luxury hotel, is examined. There is a review of the evolution of Glamping and the locations where it is practiced, as well as an examination of the profile of tourists who habitually select Glamping and their variations from campers. In addition, a focused behavioral study is undertaken on a sample of 135 individual campers (N = 135) by inquiring about their preferences for luxury camping. Through data analysis, rules are extracted, the research's findings are presented, and conclusions are drawn. Finally, the long-term sustainability of this modern type of tourism in contrast to current mass tourism (camping) is evaluated through the development of new innovative tourism services and their dissemination via contemporary digital marketing channels.

Keywords Glamping · Alternative tourism · Mass tourism · Camping · Digital marketing · Behavior analysis

JEL Classifications Z32 · Z33 · M31 · O32 · O33

I. Giannoukou · C. Halkiopoulos (✉)
EDILAB, Department of Management Science and Technology, University of Patras, Patras, Greece
e-mail: halkion@upatras.gr

E. Fafouti
School of Social Sciences, Open University, Patras, Greece

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_34

1 Introduction

Alternative Tourism Basic Concepts

Tourism is now listed among the major sectors worldwide. Tourism is a crucial source of income for many nations, including our own (Greece). Tourism also contributes to the social sector by playing a crucial role in infrastructure development and the preservation of natural and cultural resources. However, tourism has been severely impacted by the epidemic since it has undergone a complete transformation as a result of rules emphasizing safety and hygiene. In the current period, the influence of mass tourism has begun to diminish due to measures and travel limitations. In the post-COVID period, variations in tourist demand and consumption patterns are noticeable.

Alternative tourism supplanted mainstream tourism because of restrictions imposed to prevent the virus from spreading further. Alternative tourism is a wise investment for generating substantial returns by catering to smaller elite groups. The desire of visitors for alternative forms of tourism (experiences close to nature, culture, religion, etc.) is clear, requiring them to leave their "comfort zone" (Samarathunga, 2022). Due to a certain requirement, the motive for a journey is generated. Consequently, motivation motivates individuals to fulfill this need. The motivations of an alternative tourist differ from those of a mass tourist and deviate from the established norms.

This study paper will focus on the alternative kind of tourism known as "Glamping" or glamorous camping, examining its application sites and the feasibility of its implementation in Greece. Finally, it will be determined if this type of tourism is more resilient than mass tourism in our country.

2 Literature Review

Tourist Profile

The new generation of tourists consists of individuals born between 1981 and 2000. They appear to demonstrate distinct differences from prior generations:

- Creating memories through a variety of experiences is a key goal for Millennials, who define a happy, meaningful life as the accumulation of such memories.
- Traveling Millennials are hungry to explore, engage, and experience the world. They are travelers with an open mind who strive to independence and flexibility and view travel as a good opportunity to know themselves and the world.
- Millennials are an engaged audience who are more inclined than previous generations to travel independently and are receptive to new travel products and experiences.

These traits fuel the trend of creative tourism, which is characterized by the proactive development and execution of unique personal experiences suited to the tourist's own interests, personality, and way of life. Consequently, whereas earlier generations were more likely to allow businesses to guide their trips, Millennials prefer to take charge of their experiences. As a result, this generation is more likely to individually plan their travel itineraries as opposed to relying on the advice of travel agents or participating in scheduled tours or group vacations.

In addition to accumulating experiences, Millennials also visit off-the-beaten-path locations and appreciate unique activities. Part of this age group's travel motive is the pursuit of novelty: experiencing a different way of life, visiting new locations, and learning new knowledge. When it comes to choosing a destination, Millennials tend to choose less popular locales, i.e., developing destinations that they view as "genuine," demonstrating less interest in the conventional destination that their parents choose. This off-the-beaten-path tourism can also encourage some aspects of sustainability, since many people eschew hypertourism sites in favor of under tourism locations. In their pursuit of real experiences, they contribute to local economies and support small-scale, locally owned enterprises. This is accompanied by environmental awareness, environmental ideals, and a readiness to pay a premium for sustainable brands.

Sustainable Tourism

The increasing expansion of tourism raises several concerns. Popular tourist sites, congestion, and poor infrastructure have become a concern, and unsustainable tourist numbers can stress the natural environment and residents. Today, however, there is a strong emphasis on so-called Sustainable Tourism. According to Euromonitor International's Sustainable Travel Index, compared to other continents, Europe is a model for sustainable tourism development, placing a high value on economic, environmental, and social sustainability (Katsoni et al., 2012). Greece ranks 32nd out of 99 countries, fourth in sustainable transport, and fourteenth in economic sector instability (Antonopoulou et al., 2022; Theodorakopoulos et al., 2022). However, what exactly is sustainable tourism? According to the World Tourism Organization (*UNWTO*), *sustainable tourism* is defined as "tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social, and environmental implications and serves the demands of tourists, the industry, and the people at the receiving locations." Its principles include:

- the correct use of environmental resources.
- the preservation of each community's cultural distinctiveness; and
- the promotion of enterprises' long-term economic development.

Many have cited COVID-19 as an opportunity to promote sustainable tourism. However, among the industry's concerns are whether tourism will resume normal operations and whether the pandemic has permanently altered the nature of travel. How can we guarantee that small, local tourism businesses continue flourishing and contributing to sustainable development? Then, there is a significant paradox: Is sustainable tourism growth even possible? The COVID-19 virus is an ongoing global pandemic that has surpassed the 2003 severe acute respiratory syndrome

(SARS) and 2012 Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) as the world's worst epidemic since World War II. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council, the COVID-19 virus had spread to more than 180 nations by April 14, 2020, infecting approximately 1.98 million individuals and causing 126,753 deaths worldwide. It is commonly considered that the tourism industry was the vehicle for the global transmission of the COVID-19 virus, resulting in significant economic losses due to local lockdowns and strict travel restrictions enforced to curb the virus's spread (Matiza, 2020).

The pandemic has incited consumer preferences toward greener, closer to natural solutions. To lessen the tourism industry's impact on the environment, it is necessary to adopt more sustainable practices. Consumers now advocate for more sustainable practices. Therefore, tourism must place a strong emphasis on the transition to sustainable growth. It is highlighted how important it is to manage a destination, even if it means restraining expansion and lessening the social and environmental demands of rapid tourism development. In a broader sense, an effort is made to balance the three dimensions of social, environmental, and economic sustainability over the long term.

Tourism Pre-COVID Era

Tourism undoubtedly provides relaxation, enjoyment, an escape from daily life, unusual experiences, and education through the amusement. It boosts the income in the host countries, eliminates economic crises, provides jobs, and enhances the destination's image. However, the error is believing that it can only have beneficial effects. The opposing force is the term "hypertourism." Hypertourism refers to the presence of an insufficient number of tourists at a particular destination and causes pollution, destruction of the environment, inability to enjoy the landscapes due to excessive people, heightened anxiety among the local population, and an increase in hotel prices. This is owing to the rapid growth of technology and social media of natural and cultural heritage, which has resulted in gathering enormous numbers of people in a specific time frame. In other words, hypertourism refers to the unhappiness of tourists and locals owing to the impact of tourism on a place that exceeds specified limitations (economic, ecological, psychological, etc.). Hypertourism is a result of technological progress and its repercussions. Specifically, easier trip planning and execution, with greater flexibility and freedom of choice, cheaper flights, simple international connectivity, and wide social media exposure (Instagram, Facebook, Internet in general). Before their journey, the latter made many aware of each location's attractions and how to access them (Panas et al., 2017).

Tourism Post-COVID Era

Due to the development of COVID-19, this circumstance has drastically altered. The coronavirus has altered how we travel and live. Local lockdowns, border closures, and travel restrictions have been enacted in nearly all tourist sites. As a result, most tourists will select a domestic or regional international location. The conduct of tourists has undergone a substantial change. People are more cautious, avoiding crowds and hypertourism, and preferring more isolated and less frequented areas over group travel. Every trip is characterized by social distance and several hygienic standards.

In general, the risk makes it tough for psychology, and there is a chance that it will affect the tourist's desire to travel negatively (Giannoukou et al., 2022). In general, natural disasters have a bad effect on a destination's image, making it risky for tourists. Specifically, when confronted with risk, tourists may postpone their vacation, reevaluate their destination of choice, and endeavor to lessen the perceived risk, or eventually cancel their excursions (Matiza, 2020). Globally, the tourism industry suffers demand challenges (due to instability and uncertainty) as well as supply issues (job vacancies, economic deficits, etc.). Therefore, the recovery of the travel and tourist industry necessitates a coordinated multi-stakeholder strategy that addresses both the demand and supply elements of tourism. The hotels were dealt a tremendous blow. Specifically, the micron mutation caused many hotel cancelations in the first quarter of 2022, particularly in metropolitan hotels that run year round (Halkiopoulos et al., 2020). This occurs because of the cancelation of major events and trade exhibits. In January, only 20% of hotels in the city were available. This industry is in a difficult position because to the pandemic, the previously existing unfair competition, and the phenomena of short-term leasing. Listed below are some current hotel sector trends:

– Health and safety regulations. This not only improves the hotel's image, but also fosters a relationship of trust with the consumer, whose key concern in the post-COVID period is assuring a "protected" lodging.
– Sustainable tourism. This is not a new sort of tourism, but due to our confinement during the past two years, there is a pressing urge to reconnect with nature and her splendor.
– The specialized journeys. Tourists are always in search of new experiences, trends, and "something new." Examples include "smart tourism," "cultivation," "health and luxury" trips, and of course, "Glamping."
– Local travel. Despite the continuous opening of international borders, most travelers choose to stay within national borders. The "staycation" is consequently a trend that is here to stay for quite some time, and hotels should capitalize on this by targeting local tourists. (The top seven hotel marketing trends for 2022 and 2021)
– Alternative accommodation. Regarding the selection of accommodations, Millennials (the new generation) travel differently than older generations. First, they are frequently picky about how much they spend on their accommodations, opting for expensive boutique hotels on one trip and reducing their spending on the next. However, they frequently spend more time outside of the lodging, returning just to sleep and spending their money on unique activities rather than lodging. Today, these attitudes have resulted in numerous changes: The rise of Airbnb and other internet platforms, as well as the emergence of Glamping and luxury lodges, offer an air of sophistication to classic lodging categories (Ketter, 2020; Pawlicz et al., 2022).

Tourism has never been required to pause and reassess the model, nor has it ever had the opportunity to do so. Destinations can take this opportunity to implement selective and sustainable practices. If tourism experts and marketers who are the leaders of tourism industry (and with the technological advances ought to become digital leaders) (Antonopoulou et al., 2019, 2020, 2021) are continually reflective to notice and respond to developments in the tourism sector, they can avoid obstacles (Deyoung, 1987). Every place, activity, and business are starting from fresh, and only the most well-prepared will survive (Pardo & Ladeiras, 2020).

Alternative Tourism

According to Laarman and Durst (1988), alternative tourism presents the following characteristics:

- Preferable virgin places that the human element have not altered.
- They choose to "mingle" with the permanent residents of an area rather than staying within the culture.
- They do not care about tourist infrastructure.
- Before making a trip, they have done personal "research."
- They travel alone or in small groups of people.
- They are higher paid individuals, with more days in a place than a traditional tourist.

Some of the conditions around which alternative types of tourism operate are the following:

- Caring for the environment
- Small accommodation
- Accommodations that are following the local architecture but also friendly to the environment
- The small number of visitors
- The protection of cultural heritage and traditional values (familiarity with local cultures)
- The active participation and activation of tourists
- The quality of the services offered (environmental protection, friendly service, etc.)
- The financial benefit for the local economy.

It seems to have some benefit to the host culture that goes beyond simply injecting money into its economy. The coronavirus outbreak provides an opportunity for not-so-popular destinations to establish a long-term image as sustainable. Although the development of alternative types of tourism is slow, there are several benefits (financial, environmental, mixing of locals, etc.). Concerning the size of tourist accommodations, Schumacher's (1972) saying "small is beautiful" prevails in alternative tourism. Alternative tourists mostly choose small accommodation units and local businesses.

Types of Alternative Tourism

Some of the alternative types of tourism are

- Conference-Exhibition tourism. Display in urban centers (or more generally inaccessible areas) where delegates and visitors can carry out further activities.
- Religious Tourism. It entails highlighting, organizing, and promoting religious monuments or monuments for pilgrimage (e.g., the Holy Mount, Meteora, Patmos, etc.).
- Sports Tourism. The holding of global sports events using sports facilities in big cities (Olympic Games, para-Olympic Games, winter games, football games, etc.).
- Spa and Therapeutic Tourism. Utilization of thermal natural resources to develop thermal areas (Panteli et al., 2021).
- Rural Tourism. Development of outdoor areas of tourist interest, from the point of view of carrying out activities that bring people closer to nature, e.g., walking, hiking, mountain climbing.
- Geotourism. Highlighting, promotion, and visitor activities of a country's geosites (volcanoes, caves, canyons, fossiliferous sites, major geological faults, ancient or inactive mines and quarries, landforms, and landscapes created over the geological ages or nature) and activities for their inclusion in tourist networks (thematic or non-thematic) according to the (general or special) characteristics they gather (Katsoni, 2015).
- Marine Tourism. It refers to land-based tourism activities such as swimming, surfing, sunbathing, and other coastal leisure activities that take place on the coast and for which proximity to the sea is a prerequisite, including their related services. Marine tourism refers to marine activities such as boating, yachting, cruising, and nautical sports, as well as land-based services and infrastructure.
- Cultural Tourism. A tourism activity in which the visitor's primary motivation is to learn, discover, experience, and consume the tangible and intangible cultural attractions/products at a tourist destination. These attractions/products related to a set of distinctive material, intellectual, spiritual, and emotional characteristics of a society that includes arts and architecture, historical and cultural heritage, literature, music, creative industries, beliefs, and traditions.
- Culinary Tourism. Tourism activity is characterized by the visitor's experience associated with food, products, and activities while traveling. These activities include visits to food production sites, cooking classes, gastronomy festivals, etc. (Panas et al., 2022).

As tourism is dynamic and societies evolve, so make people's demands for new experiences. Some genres have huge appeal, others are at an early stage. The only certain thing is that in the post-COVID era, many forms of alternative tourism have emerged due to the human need for safer experiences in line with health protocols. After COVID-19, alternative tourism will completely replace the mass one, as it helps to exploit tourism's economic resources and protect the operators in a short-term context. Places like Spain and Greece, which suffered the devastating effects of mass tourism, are embracing alternative tourism largely due to their small economies (Arora & Sharma, 2021). Due to changes in tourism demand, new, emerging, or renewed products already fit the new tourism pattern:

– Premium services: Perhaps the most durable pattern. A type of tourism more exclusive and personalized and therefore much easier to adapt to the transition period through vaccination (money will not be a problem for the consumer if safety is ensured).
– Cycling, hiking, nature, and rural tourism: These products answer the main concerns of tourists in the new situation by offering outdoor activities in uncrowded destinations and facilities, allowing them, at the same time, to improve their health and mental and physical situation. In fact, the sale of bicycles is increasing and is used daily as an alternative to public transportation, especially now with the tremendous gasoline price increase.

New products, unconventional: People find new ways to respond to market needs in every crisis. The pandemic crisis is no exception, and the solution of traveling to visit family and friends is popular. Likewise, Glamping is an unconventional product, i.e., the combination of premium service with “returning to nature.” In other words, a luxury experience in a safe location, away from the fear of contracting the virus.

Camping

Camping has varied implications for different people. It represents a wilderness experience for adventurers. Camping is an escape, family vacation, and inexpensive accommodation for parents. Camping is a type of outdoor recreation that includes both action and accommodation (Brooker & Joppe, 2013). We would suggest that the meaning of the word camping is group synergy in the countryside during the summer months. In the literature, the term “Glamping” has been interpreted in a variety of ways, one of the most common being “glamorous camping.” “It is a long-lasting experience that provides creative, recreational, and educational opportunities through outdoor group living (Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2016). It uses skilled leaders and natural environment resources to foster the psychosocial, physical, social, and spiritual growth of each camper.” Who are the campers, though? The camp is demographically open to all age groups (Stott, 2019). In contrast to the rest of the globe, only in Australia and the USA has the involvement of teenagers (18–24) fallen marginally. The camp is primarily attended by couples with children ages 6–12. Outdoor hospitality is also popular with childless couples of elderly ages (Brooker & Joppe, 2013). Camping has become an important tourism commodity in the present day. Using a tent or trailer to sustainably camp close to nature is increasingly popular (Caldicott et al., 2022). A variety of camping accommodations are available (Lang’at, 2020). Camping is unique in that visitors can bring their own accommodations, and the campsite offers space and infrastructure (Ma et al., 2020). Camping as a kind of lodging offers a variety of levels, allowing everyone to find a suitable style (Sommer, 2020). The diagram below illustrates the various types of camping accommodations (Fig. 1).

Fig. 1 Types of camping (Camping Tourism, 2017)

Glamorous Camping or "Glamping"

In the last 20 years, ecotourism has developed rapidly, and much research has been conducted on it. For example, camping is a type of tourism that is part of ecotourism. Camping accounts for 373 million overnight stays and for some European countries, including Croatia, it represents one of the essential tourism products. However, the Mediterranean, known as the leading camping destination for Europeans, has reached a stage of maturation/stagnation but even decline. This shows the vital need for changes in development strategies and the creation of new activities that will lead to the recovery of camping and the creation of a more significant competitive advantage through sustainable development and technology. These changes concern the implementation of new business ideas (Markova & Nikitina, 2022). After all, innovation and seasonality are at the center of interest in tourism in general. Overcoming seasonality ensures the even distribution of economic profits but also reduces the environmental pressure destinations face (Cvelić-Bonifačić et al., 2017). Over the past decade, camping has transformed by implementing new and innovative accommodations called Glamping (Young, 2017). Although "Glamping" has become an umbrella term for many accommodation units and equipment types, there is still no clear picture of its unique quality characteristics (Vrtodušić Hrgović et al., 2019). Camping in the century we are going through is based on the trends of the time which show the preference of tourists to stay in the countryside and have all the "facilities" of an accommodation. The popularity of Glamping, especially among younger people, results in the complete transformation of traditional camping, thus affecting the competitiveness of this sector (Milohnić et al., 2019).

What is Glamping, and where is it found?

Glamping—a combination of the word's "glamor" and "camping"—is an emerging concept in camping that combines comfort with direct contact with nature (Brochado & Pereira, 2017). By Glamping, we mean luxurious accommodation in various types of accommodation in the countryside and, more generally, in structures entirely in harmony with the natural environment that combines high aesthetics and offers superior level services. According to the Oxford Dictionary, "Glamping" is a form of camping that includes accommodation, facilities, and services that are more luxurious than those traditionally associated with camping. It is, therefore, not simply staying in a tent but an upgrade to camping. This is a new philosophy in tourism, fully adapted to the standards of the post-COVID era. We would call it an "affordable" extravaganza. Accommodation can be in a tent, in "yurts" (old version of the modern tent), tree houses, mobile homes, caravans, igloos, "capsules," "bubbles," and many more with all the comforts of a luxury hotel (Lopes et al., 2020). Therefore, glamorous camping combines escape from everyday life, contact with nature, and exploring new experiences (Goldkamp, 2022).

It seems that it is a type of tourism that "came to stay"!. More generally, it is not yet clear which types of accommodation belong to Glamping, their characteristics, and how the various stakeholders perceive Glamping. Furthermore, the question arises as to whether there is sufficient demand for accommodation units to be considered Glamping and how this demand is perceived by various stakeholder groups in the camping business. Another issue is how Glamping is defined by operators, manufacturers, and visitors. Glamping removes the negative features of camping—shaky tents, smelly sleeping bags, improvised food, etc., and they are replaced by accommodations such as cabins, yurts, treehouses, and more. These residences are often furnished with luxurious beds, quality linens, carpets, antique furniture, and modern, stylish bathrooms (Brooker & Joppe, 2013). Additionally, it would be noteworthy if this sort of alternative tourism, as Glamping, could be adapted to special groups, such as those with spinal cord injuries or who face a variety of mobility-related health issues, in order to improve their quality of life (Tzanos et al., 2019). Moreover, for optimal incorporation into the social network, they are challenged with social isolation in many nations.

Lately, Glamping is gaining the benefits of camping, but also of hotel businesses at the same time. Glamping motivates many entrepreneurs to transform classic camping sites into Glamping as a competitive advantage for their further development (Milohnić et al., 2019). Glamping is widely popular in France as well as in most Mediterranean countries. Camping and Glamping, particularly as holiday options, have also become very popular in Germany (Groß et al., 2022). In Slovenia, clubbing in the last ten years has developed considerably. The government, in 2004, to support innovative ideas, proceeded to award them. Also significant is the development of various types of camping in Croatia, which started with caravans on campsites. However, the number of Glamping sites is not the same in every European country. There are significant differences in the number of offers in different countries (Wellner, 2015). The demand for Glamping and the number of sites in Europe suggest that Glamping is not just a new word but a new segment of the camping industry (Olcay & Turhan, 2017). It appeals to new groups of customers who would not usually camp. This could create new opportunities for campsite operators and the camping industry at times of higher domestic demand (Sommer, 2020).

Who are Glampers?

Millennials (born between 1980 and 2000) seem to be big fans of Glamping vacations. They have embraced Glamping vacations to differentiate themselves from their parents' generation through new experiences. In addition, millennials' desire to share their Glamping vacation on social media is evident when on vacation (Milohnić et al., 2019). Our country, although at an early stage, seems to adopt this global trend.

According to a 2020 survey, among 18–40-year-olds (a sample of 150 people), 41% would stay at a glamorous campsite, regardless of price. 75% belonged to the age group of 26–40 years. However, this trend seems to be reaching other audiences as well. More generally, workers who need to relax and avoid the daily routine, residents of urban centers who want to escape from the fast daily pace, families, couples, and individual travelers. Generally, we would say that glampers are younger, educated, and permanently employed with good incomes (Milohnić et al., 2019).

Campers and glampers are not fundamentally different. Both are vacationers who enjoy being outdoors. Campers and glampers seek authenticity by experiencing nature as a form of escape. However, they do it differently. Nature and escape are the two main elements involved in experiencing authenticity. Campers like to interact with nature and seek adventure, while glampers like to experience nature as spectators and see it as a fairy tale (Sommer, 2020).

The push factor ("getting away from it all") obviously motivates people to seek Glamping vacations. Glampers' most important driving factor is spending time with family or friends. Another driving factor is the need for rest, relaxation, and tranquility. Glampers want to relax and enjoy a quiet place. They want to escape everyday life and have a strong need for privacy. The most crucial pull effect that impacts where glampers travel (destination-wise) is the glamper's desire to experience nature and see beautiful places (Sommer, 2020). Specifically, Leci Sakáčová identified several pull factors:

- The need to be close to nature
- The need for privacy
- Interest in outdoor activities
- The need for luxury and high-quality service.

Resort glampers like to have everything they need during their vacation. On the one hand, they want to be close to nature, but on the other hand, they also want every possible comfort. Glampers expect high quality and are willing to pay a higher price for it (Petrusa & Vlahov, 2019). According to Petrusa and Vlahov, the tourists' desire to see beautiful places and live an unforgettable natural experience is the primary motivation for Glamping. Environmental friendliness is also essential for glampers (Sakáčová, 2013). These are two critical features of Glamping that seem difficult to combine: luxury versus eco-friendliness. Camping and Glamping can be classified under nature-based special interest tourism. For both variants, proximity to nature is essential, despite the difference in the perception of nature. The type of accommodation is essential for both glampers and campers. For glampers, however, staying in unique or particularly luxurious accommodation is important. Moreover, they want more comfort and higher infrastructure and services. The most significant difference between campers and glampers seems to be the glamper's desire for privacy, while campers seek social contact (Sommer, 2020).

Glamping in the Post-COVID Era

According to research conducted in 2021 by Craig and Karabas, the popularity of Glamping seems to be increasing in the post-COVID-19 era because it allows for social distancing. Secondly, it is an accessible form of outdoor recreation (Brochado & Pereira, 2017). So since social distancing is an inherent feature of Glamping, travelers enjoy their trip with less risk compared to traditional accommodations while at the same time participating in outdoor recreation. Before COVID-19, travelers planned their leisure trips, creating various accommodation channels to consider all their alternatives. One consumer targeting strategy is to target leisure travelers based on their past Google searches. Locating past plans can be particularly fruitful for Glamping vacations considering travelers with pre-COVID-19 plans are exponentially more likely to have post-COVID-19 plans. Another characteristic we are interested in is experience. Future consumer behaviors are closely related to their past experiences. The research results (Craig & Karabas, 2021) also reveal that current hotel/resort travel plans are the main predictor of plans after the COVID-19 era.

Glamping in Greece

Greece and a few others passed a legislation about the alternative form of tourism known as "Glamping" immediately. Its form is the same as it is in the rest of the world: accommodations in nature that offer luxury hotel amenities. More specifically, in October 2020, the Glamping brand was established in Greece, with a duration of 5 years. Accommodations that receive this mark must necessarily be at least 3*.

The criteria that were determined are the following:

– The natural environment should not be burdened, but the facilities should be in harmony with it.
– To use environmentally friendly materials.
– Accommodations should be of quality construction but simultaneously able to be "assembled" and "disassembled" or transported.
– To include systems of electricity supply, water supply, drainage, etc.
– Promote the forms of tourism (Fig. 2).

Let us look at some Glamping options in Greece below.

Hani Agramada in Halkidiki

A tree house and loft-type apartments at the foot of a mountainside in Halkidiki combine unique experiences such as hiking on beautiful, unmapped paths, wine-tasting, visiting Peristeri's waterfalls and walking in the forest with a four-wheel drive vehicle.

Surf Club Keros, Limnos

Tourist resorts with a series of activities such as yoga, windsurfing, kiting, exploring the natural environment, walking in nature, etc., with a restaurant that offers traditional recipes, local wines, and cocktails.

Odyssey Eco Glamping, Poros

Ten tents among olive, lemon, and orange trees decorated with taste and respect for nature and Greek traditions, with electricity, some necessary electrical appliances,

Fig. 2 Glamping logo

and private bathrooms a short distance away. Naturally, activities such as cooking classes, wine tasting, soap making, weaving classes, etc., could not be missing.

Bubble Tents, Nea Moudania

A unique luxury camping experience inside inflatable tents and an option for outdoor jacuzzis. An eco-resort with options for hiking, boat trips, kayaking, diving, mountain biking, paragliding, 4 × 4 offroad, and various other water sports.

Stolidi mou

A tree house in Atsipopoulos Rethymno, Crete that offers a luxury accommodation experience with bar, garden, air conditioning and terrace, free Wi-Fi, bathroom with hydromassage, and flat screen TV.

Kotsifas Estate Treehouse

"Hidden" on a farm with olive trees and orchards with organic products, looks like something out of a fairy tale. Breakfast comes in bed while meals come directly from the garden and vegetable garden.

Margariti's Treehouse

This Tree House on the west coast of Corfu, built on a 7-m-high olive tree, is ideal for those who love nature and are looking for a quiet place to relax, among olive groves, with a beautiful view of the sea in front and the mountain in the back.

Mountain tea, Pauliani, Fthiotida

An unforgettable Glamping experience in luxury tent-domes, built on the green slopes of Mount Oiti, with an outdoor heated jacuzzi with hydromassage and all the necessary electrical appliances. The possibility also for activities in nature.

Episkopos Lux Caravan, Nikiana, Lefkada

A landscape of extraordinary beauty, the accommodation covers all types of holidays with the comforts of luxury accommodations for natural holidays.

Sea view Mobile homes, Vourvourou, Halkidiki

A unique summer adventure in brand new luxury mobile homes with panoramic sea views, contemporary luxury, timeless style, and elegance for ultimate moments of relaxation.

Yurt Treehouse Combo, Kalamata, Messinia

The Art Farm highlights the agricultural and cultural heritage of the area and aims to inform, educate and entertain visitors. Inside it is built the "Yurt Tree House Combo." It combines nature and activities like cooking classes, drone handling, trekking, cultural events in the amphitheater, seminars on rural culture, and many more.

3 Methodology

The questionnaire-based collection of primary data constitutes the research methodology. To lower the cost of time, Google Forms were used to design and fill them, and their dissemination was accomplished by putting them on social network pages, such as Facebook and Instagram, and sending them via email. They were also provided in physical copy at a tourist office to tourism sector professionals. The administered questionnaire was developed by the researchers based on secondary data gathered through a survey of secondary sources, such as scholarly papers, books, articles, the Internet, and statistical studies. The questionnaire contains three sections. In the introduction text, the goal of the study is stated, respondents are informed that their responses would be kept strictly confidential, and an appeal is made for their participation in the study. The first section of the questionnaire asks individuals about their demographic and socioeconomic factors. The questions in Section A pertain to the choices and travel preferences of tourists in general. In part B, the questions are pertinent to the investigated topic, namely Glamping.

Methods of Statistical Analysis

Some statistical analysis methods were used to analyze the following questionnaire and draw conclusions. First, the t-test is a type of statistical inference used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the means of two groups, which may be related to specific characteristics. It is mostly used when data sets, such as the data set resulting from flipping a coin 100 times, follow a normal distribution and may have unknown variances. A t-test is used as a hypothesis testing tool, which allows the testing of a hypothesis that applies to a population. To determine statistical significance, a t-test examines the t statistic, t distribution values, and degrees of freedom. An analysis of variance must be used to conduct a test with three or more means. Essentially, a t-test allows us to compare the means of two data sets and determine whether they come from the same population. Mathematically, the t-test takes a sample from each of two sets and determines the problem statement by assuming a null hypothesis that the two means are equal. Then, based on the applicable formulas, certain values are calculated and compared with standard values, and the assumed null hypothesis is accepted or rejected accordingly. If the null hypothesis qualifies for rejection, it indicates that the data readings are robust and likely not due to chance. There are three types of t-tests, and they are categorized as dependent and independent t-tests.

Research Objectives

The research objectives are the following: to record demographic data regarding tourists who prefer alternative types of tourism and specifically Glamping, to capture travel and tourism habits, to investigate whether tourists are aware of Glamping, and whether they will be choosing it for their future holidays. To be able to proceed with further research, but also to derive our research hypotheses, we should first study the already existing research, which has generally outlined the profile of glampers, as well as their habits. More specifically, the research by Cvelić-Bonifačić, Milohnić and Cerović showed that those who choose Glamping are younger (34% were 36–45 years old, and 17% were 18–35 years old). They also seem to have higher incomes (40% 3,000–5,000 euros monthly, 22% more than 5,000 euros). Glampers are usually families; according to this survey, 78% travel with their families. Regarding the reason for choosing Glamping, most participants seem to choose it to relax, to have a "passive vacation" without concepts and obligations. Finally, it seems that glampers generally prefer staying in hotels on their vacations, thus answering whether glampers refer to camping guests or hotel guests who have discovered a new original type of accommodation on a campsite.

Another survey conducted by KOA, which owns more than 500 campgrounds across North America, highlighted other characteristics of glampers. More detail suggests that those who travel a lot (>7 trips per year) choose to try Glamping. Also, it seems that they choose Glamping mainly because of absolute relaxation, tranquility, and escape from everyday life. Still, staying in cabins is preferred over other types of Glamping accommodation. Finally, 67% of travelers surveyed agree that Glamping is an authentic vacation experience.

Research Hypothesis

- [RH1] Those who choose Glamping for their future holidays are of a younger age.
- [RH2] Those who will choose Glamping on their next vacation are people who travel more.
- [RH3] Main reason for choosing Glamping is relaxation.
- [RH4] There is a preference for the choice of "cabins" as opposed to the other types of Glamping accommodation.
- [RH5] People with a higher level of education would choose Glamping on their next vacation.
- [RH6] It is considered important that Glamping is an original-unique experience.
- [RH7] People with higher incomes would try Glamping.

4 Results

Most of the sample were women at 62.2% (N = 84), with the corresponding percentage of men at 37.8% (N = 51). Regarding the age groups, most participants were 25–34 years, at 36.3%. Regarding the educational level of the participants, 27.4% (N = 37) were holders of master's and doctoral degrees, while 54.1% (N = 73) were graduates of higher education, i.e., TEI and post-secondary education. 80.7% (N = 109) of the participants were employed, 3% (N = 4) were unemployed, and 5.2 (N = 7) were retired. The monthly income of most participants ranged from 800 to 1,500 euros in a percentage that corresponded to 41.5% (N = 56) of the participants, while the next income range was that of 0 to 800 euros in a percentage of 28.1% (N = 38). Most participants answered that they travel twice a year at a rate of 39.3% (N = 53). To the question with whom you usually travel, most participants answered that they travel most often with their family, 43.7% (N = 59) while 27.4% (N = 37) answered that they travel with friends and 23% (N = 31) answered how he/she travels with his/her partner. When asked how long the respondents' vacations last on average, most answered that their vacations last from four to seven days at a rate of 48.9% (N = 66). The next question was about the intention of the participants to make a trip within 2022, and 82.2% (N = 111) answered that they intend to make a trip within the year. The next question aimed to investigate where this trip will take place, and 43.7% (N = 59) answered that if they travel within the year, they will travel to Greece, while 41.5% (N = 56) answered that they would travel both to Greece and abroad. The next question concerns the participants' accommodation type, to which 60.7% (N = 82) answered that they usually stay in hotels while only

21.5% (N = 29) answered that they stay camping and Glamping. Most participants answered how they book their vacations through online platforms such as Airbnb booking and Trivago, at 56.3% (N = 76). The next question aimed to investigate the participants' knowledge about Glamping. 47.4% (N = 64) answered that they know Glamping. Most participants answered negatively about whether they have ever stayed in glamorous Glamping at a rate of 73.3% (N = 99). The next question explored what type of Glamping accommodation the participants would choose; the majority answered that they would choose bungalows and cabins. Rather positively, most of the participants answered the question if they would choose Glamping for their next vacation, 47.4% (N = 64). The next question was about the inhibiting factors regarding the choice of Glamping, and the price is one of the main inhibiting factors for the participants at a rate of 37.8% (N = 51).

Regarding the price they would be willing to pay to stay in a Glamping accommodation, most participants answered that this price would vary between 50 and 70 euros, with a response rate of 50.4% (N = 68). At the same time, the next question regarding why they would choose Glamping accommodation had to do with relaxation at a rate of 40.7% (N = 55). When asked how important specific factors are for participants to choose a Glamping accommodation, the survey findings show how environmentally friendly a Glamping accommodation is considered very important with an average of 4.42, while including sports and recreational activities are considered almost neutral with an average of 3.36. In addition, the participants consider it very important that the accommodation is in a quiet and remote location with an average of 4.12 responses and that it is an alternative and original experience with an average of 3.91, while at the same time they consider it important that the equipment is modern with an average of 3 0.81 and consider it neutral to provide catering services clothing supplies and food with an average of 3.33. Also, they consider it indifferent to vital that it is a beautiful location 3.55 while at the same time they consider it indifferent to vital that it has Wi-Fi with an average of 3.67 (Table 1).

It can be seen from the t-test analysis (Table 2) that $T = 38{,}732 > 2$ kai $p = 0.000 < 0.005$; this means that there are statistically significant differences between the

Table 1 Descriptive statistics [How important do you consider the following factors for Glamping?]

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std.
[Friendly environment]	130	2	5	4.42	0.725
[Sport/entertainment activities]	135	1	5	3.36	1.266
[Quiet/remote area]	128	2	5	4.12	0.944
[Alternative/innovative experience]	135	1	5	3.91	1.181
[Modern equipment]	135	1	5	3.81	1.175
[Extra facilities/amenities restaurants/clothing stores shopping/food supplies, etc.]	135	1	5	3.33	1.309
[Picturesque place/area]	135	1	5	3.55	1.262
[WIFI]	135	1	5	3.67	1.304

Table 2 Sex [ANOVA one-sample test]

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	95% conf.	
					Lower	Upper
Sex	38.732	134	0.000	1.622	1.54	1.71

averages of the genders of the sample regarding their intention to choose a Glamping accommodation.

As F is small 2.161 (Table 3) the adjusted p value = 0.062 is greater than alpha 0.005, we accept the null hypothesis and conclude that the difference between the means of the age groups is not statistically significant.

The ANOVA test that examines the relationship between the means of educational level regarding the intention to visit Glamping accommodation on their next vacation (Table 4) with $F = 6.707$ $p = 0.002 < 0.005$ shows that there are statistically significant differences between the means of educational level regarding with the intention of choosing Glamping on their next holiday.

In relation to the average of the working status groups and their intention to do Glamping (Table 5), it seems that there are no significant statistical differences between the groups with $F = 2.151$ $p = 0.078 > 0.005$.

A one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the effect of salary group averages on Glamping choice on subsequent vacations (Table 6). A one-way ANOVA revealed

Table 3 Age [ANOVA one-sample test]

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	9.573	5	1.915	2.161	0.062
Within groups	114.308	129	0.886		
Total	123.881	134			

Table 4 Do you choose Glamping for your next holidays/age? [ANOVA for educational level]

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	11.428	2	5.714	6.707	0.002
Within groups	112.453	132	0.852		
Total	123.881	134			

Table 5 Do you intend to choose Glamping for your next holidays? [ANOVA for job occupation]

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	7.689	4	1.922	2.151	0.078
Within groups	116.193	130	0.894		
Total	123.881	134			

Table 6 Do you intend to choose Glamping for your next holidays? [ANOVA for wage groups]

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	1.500	4	0.375	0.398	0.810
Within groups	122.382	130	0.941		
Total	123.881	134			

Table 7 People who choose Glamping for their holidays are used to travel more

		Intention	Travel frequency
Intention	Pearson correlation	1	-0.366^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	134	134
Travel frequency	Pearson correlation	-0.366^{**}	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	134	134

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

that there was not a statistically significant difference in choice intention between at least two groups of the independent variable as $F = 0.398$ and $p = 0.810$.

A Pearson correlation test was performed to test the following hypothesis (Table 7). The two variables seem to have a negative correlation, which means that the more the participants get used to traveling, the less they intend to visit Glamping accommodation on their future holidays.

5 Discussion

[RH1] Those who choose Glamping for their future holidays are younger

According to the statistical analysis results, since the difference between the means of the age groups is not statistically significant, the hypothesis we made that the people who would choose Glamping to a greater extent are the millennials is not proven. Other ages seem to view this type of holiday as positive or to a greater extent.

The above could be happening because Glamping is a type of alternative tourism, which, as mentioned above, combines contact with nature but also the comforts of a luxury hotel. For this reason, older people can choose it, as a classic campsite has no restrictions.

[RH2] Those who will choose Glamping on their next vacation are people who travel more

The research showed that the more used participants travel, the less they intend to visit Glamping accommodation on their next holiday. Therefore, our original hypothesis is rejected. This may be explained by the fact that people who have traveled a lot and thus acquired many different travel experiences may have already tried Glamping. Therefore, it does not seem such an original and new experience to them, unlike people who do not have many travel experiences.

[RH3] Main reason for choosing Glamping is relaxation

According to the respondents' responses, the main reason for choosing a Glamping accommodation is relaxation, at 40.7%. Therefore, hypothesis 3 is confirmed. This is because its comforts (lux services) are suitable for relaxation, just as is the case with, for example, a 5-star hotel.

[RH4] There is a preference for the choice of "cabins" as opposed to the other types of Glamping accommodation

The analysis of the data set also confirms hypothesis 4, as most respondents said they would choose bungalows and cabins for their accommodation. The specific type of accommodation is known to the Greek public, in contrast to, for example, other types (e.g., yurts), which appeared unknown during the test survey carried out before the regular one.

[RH5] People with a higher level of education would choose Glamping on their next vacation

According to Table 4, we observe that people with a higher educational level outperform with a statistically significant difference compared to people with a lower educational level in terms of choosing Glamping in future vacations. So, our original hypothesis is confirmed. This could be since these people read and search more, even their personal issues such as vacations. So possibly, people with a lower educational level considered Glamping as something almost the same as camping.

[RH6] It is considered necessary that Glamping is an original-unique experience

It becomes apparent, with a mean of 3.91, how the participants consider it essential that Glamping is an original-unique experience. More specifically, it is the 3rd most crucial criterion right after environmental friendliness and quiet/remote location. The tourist, especially after the influence that COVID-19 has on the choice of his vacation, is looking for new original experiences, "out of the box," which will offer him security, but at the same time, will take him out of the daily routine, of 2 years old, who didn't even have the opportunity to travel.

[RH7] People with higher incomes would try Glamping

According to Table 6, the hypothesis that income influences the choice of Glamping is not confirmed as there is no statistically significant difference between the various wage scales. Therefore, the above case could be settled, as Glamping is a type of alternative tourism that we would not say that its competitive advantage is considered the price, quite the opposite. Nevertheless, perhaps also due to a lack of the necessary knowledge regarding this type of vacation (judging from the answer given to the question "19. How much money would you be willing to pay for one night in a Glamping accommodation?") that most participants answered that this price would vary between 50 and 70 euros with a response rate of 50.4%), people of all salary scales choose it.

6 Conclusion

This study's objective was to examine the attitudes of tourists concerning Glamping accommodations. For this purpose, a questionnaire was developed, which included the opinions and attitudes of participants on this sort of lodging. Based on this survey, we can conclude the following. First, most participants were females between the ages of 25 and 34. Most of the participants were tertiary or post-secondary education graduates, and a significant proportion of them were employed. In terms of their travel behavior, their average monthly income varied between 800 and 1500 euros. Most respondents travel an average of two to three times per year, typically with their families on vacations that run between four and seven days.

The respondents were then required to answer questions regarding their travel habits throughout this year, during which they indicated that Greece will be their most likely travel destination in 2022. In contrast, most respondents indicated that when selecting accommodations, they prefer hotels, with only 21% indicating that they prefer camping. The attendees reserve their accommodations through online portals. Similarly, the majority responded negatively when asked if they were familiar with Glamping and when asked whether they had ever been at a glamorous camping. When asked which style of Glamping accommodations they prefer, most respondents selected bungalows or cabins. Simultaneously, they appeared optimistic about picking Glamping for their next vacation. For the research participants, the cost appears to be the most significant deterrent to selecting this type of holiday. In addition, they indicated that they are willing to pay between 50 and 70 euros per night for this type of lodging. Finally, they responded that the primary reason they would pick Glamping is to escape their normal routine. On a 5-point Likert scale, the following questions required respondents to indicate which Glamping-related considerations they deemed most significant. Most participants responded that they would choose it to be more environmentally conscious, and a very important factor is that the accommodation is in a quiet and remote area. However, with an average response of 3.91, the participants consider how it is to be about an alternative and original experience to be quite significant.

Then, the participants' average responses to the question addressing their intention to visit Glamping lodgings were compared to a variety of demographic variables. The findings of the t-test, which analyzed gender as an independent variable, revealed statistically significant variations between the sample averages of men and women regarding their propensity to select this type of lodging. In contrast, the

ANOVA analysis of the remaining demographic factors revealed a significant difference between the typical age groups and their intents to visit these lodgings. Similarly, the differences between the averages of the participants' educational level and their inclination to visit Glamping lodgings are statistically significant. In contrast, no statistically significant differences were detected between pay groups and the intention of individuals to visit Glamping accommodations.

Further Implications

The issue was chosen due to the interest it generated, as it relates to a relatively new kind of alternative tourism that has not been developed in Greece to the same extent as in other countries. Consequently, the relevant literature was rather restricted. Future study might be conducted on a larger scale, with more resources and over a longer *period*, as there are unexplored areas that are worthy of investigation so that Glamping can be implemented in our nation to the same extent as it is in other countries. By claiming the Glamping brand, a beginning has been established, and there is room to expand this unique sort of alternative tourism. The audience seemed to have showed a great deal of interest in the topic, as there *were* favorable comments following the survey. However, it appeared to be an unfamiliar genre to the majority. Future studies could include tourism businesses in addition to the final consumer (potential tourist). Finally, integrating additional variables and investigating more components would help to obtain more qualitative results. Consequently, we would suggest that Glamping represents a new template of alternative tourism, which, particularly in the post-COVID-19 period (Craig, 2021), might witness significant growth in Greece. To refer to some limitations of the present study we could add that due to a lack of financial resources and concurrent activities, sample collection was hampered by cost and time constraints. To collect as many responses as possible in the shortest amount of time, a particular number of questions were selected so that completing the questionnaire would not be demanding. Furthermore, using typical data collection techniques such as questionnaires and self-report scales, this study aimed to identify Glamping as a new alternative tourist trend within the tourism industry. Since it is imperative to apply innovative techniques through the field of artificial intelligence and expert systems (Giotopoulos et al., 2019; Halkiopoulos & Giotopoulos, 2022; Halkiopoulos & Papadopoulos, 2022; Halkiopoulos et al., 2021; Katsoni & Dologlou, 2017; Sarigiannidis et al., 2021), as well as the field of neuromarketing (Halkiopoulos et al., 2022) with the application of neuroimaging tools (Al-Kwifi, 2015) for the analysis of behavioral patterns (Giannoukou et al., 2022) and choices in the tourism industry (Panas et al., 2020), promoting crucial themes and leading decision-making we consider these issues and the method of data collection to be among the study's limitations.

References

Al-Kwifi, O. S. (2015). The impact of destination images on tourist's decision making. A technological exploratory study using fMRI. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology, 6*(2), 174–194. EmeraldGroup Publishing Limited 1757-9880. https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTT-06-2015-0024.

Antonopoulou, H., Halkiopoulos, C., Barlou, O., & Beligiannis, G. (2019). Transition from educational leadership to e-leadership: A data analysis report from TEI of Western Greece. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research, 18*(9), 238–255. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.18.9.13.

Antonopoulou, H., Halkiopoulos, C., Barlou, O., & Beligiannis, G. (2020). Leadership types and digital leadership in higher education: Behavioural data analysis from University of Patras in Greece. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research, 19*(4), 110–129. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.19.4.8.

Antonopoulou, H., Halkiopoulos, C., Barlou, O., & Beligiannis, G. N. (2021). Associations between traditional and digital leadership in academic environment: During the COVID-19 pandemic. *Emerging Science Journal, 5*(4), 405–428. https://doi.org/10.28991/esj-2021-01286.

Antonopoulou, H., Mamalougou, V., & Theodorakopoulos, L. (2022). The role of economic policy uncertainty in predicting stock return volatility in the banking industry: A big data analysis. *Emerging Science Journal, 6*(3), 569–577. https://doi.org/10.28991/ESJ-2022-06-03-011

Arora, S., & Sharma, A. (2021). Covid-19 impact on overtourism: Diversion from mass tourism to alternative tourism. In A. Sharma & A. Hassan (Eds.), *Overtourism as destination risk (tourism security-safety and post conflict destinations)* (pp. 275–283). Emerald Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-83909-706-520211018.

Blichfeldt, B. S., & Mikkelsen, M. V. (2016). Camping tourism. In *Encyclopedia of tourism* (pp. 123–124). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-01384-8_468.

Brochado, A., & Pereira, C. (2017). Comfortable experiences in nature accommodation: Perceived service quality in Glamping. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism, 17*, 77–83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jort.2017.01.005.

Brooker, E., & Joppe, M. (2013). Trends in camping and outdoor hospitality—An international review. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism, 3–4*, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jort.2013.04.005.

Caldicott, R. W., Scherrer, P., & Harris, A. (2022). The RV camping framework for understanding modern camping practices. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 43*, 100990. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2022.100990.

Camping Tourism. (2017). *The SAGE international encyclopedia of travel and tourism*. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483368924.n85.

Craig, C. A. (2021). Camping, glamping, and coronavirus in the United States. *Annals of Tourism Research, 89*, 103071. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.103071.

Craig, C. A., & Karabas, I. (2021). Glamping after the coronavirus pandemic. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 21*(2), 251–256. https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358421993864.

Cvelić-Bonifačić, J., Milohnić, I., & Cerović, Z. (2017). Glamping—Creative accommodation in camping resorts: Insights and opportunities. In *Tourism in Southern and Eastern Europe*. https://doi.org/10.20867/tosee.04.39.

Deyoung, B. J. (1987). *Wilderness camping and leadership development*. https://doi.org/10.2986/tren.031-0054.

Giannoukou, I., Nikolopoulou, A., & Halkiopoulos, C. (2022). Tourists' and employees' psychology in the framework of strategic management in Greek tourism. In V. Katsoni & A. C. Şerban (Eds.), *Transcending borders in tourism through innovation and cultural heritage*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92491-1_42.

Giotopoulos, K., Halkiopoulos, C., Papadopoulos, D., & Antonopoulou, H. (2019). Towards bring your own device marketing policy. *International Journal of Technology Marketing, 13*(2). Inderscience Publishers: IJTMKT-10313. https://doi.org/10.1504/ijtmkt.2019.10023906.

Goldkamp, H. (2022). Glamping way past oral. *The Minnesota Review, 2022*(98), 10–12. https://doi.org/10.1215/00265667-9563611.

Groß, S., Culemann, J., & Rebbe, J. (2022). *Glamping in Deutschland*. https://doi.org/10.24053/9783739882116.

Halkiopoulos, C., Antonopoulou, H., Papadopoulos, D., Giannoukou I., & Gkintoni, E. (2020). Online reservation systems in e-business: Analyzing decision making in e-tourism. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing (JTHMS), 6*(1), 9–16. ISSN: 2529-1947. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3603312.

Halkiopoulos, C., Antonopoulou, H., Gkintoni, E., & Giannoukou, I. (2021). An expert system for recommendation tourist destinations: An innovative approach of digital marketing and decision-making process. *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology, 6*(4), 398–404. ISSN: 2456-2165.

Halkiopoulos, C., Antonopoulou, H., Gkintoni, E., & Aroutzidis, A. (2022). Neuromarketing as an indicator of cognitive consumer behavior in decision-making process of tourism destination—An overview. In V. Katsoni & A. C. Şerban (Eds.), *Transcending borders in tourism through innovation and cultural heritage*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92491-1_41.

Halkiopoulos, C., & Giotopoulos, K. (2022). Tourism's use of web-based information systems and the influence of tourism trends. In V. Katsoni & A. C. Şerban (Eds.), *Transcending borders in tourism through innovation and cultural heritage*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92491-1_25.

Halkiopoulos, C., & Papadopoulos, D. (2022). Computational methods for evaluating web technologies and digital marketing techniques in the hospitality industry. In V. Katsoni & A. C. Şerban (Eds.), *Transcending borders in tourism through innovation and cultural heritage*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92491-1_24.

Katsoni, V. (2015). Application of a cultural landscape tourism marketing management approach in a mountainous area. In *Cultural tourism in a digital era* (pp. 121–130). Springer proceedings in business and economics. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-15859-4_11.

Katsoni, V., & Dologlou, N. (2017). ICT applications in smart ecotourism environments. In *Smart cities in the Mediterranean* (pp. 225–244). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-54558-5_11.

Katsoni, V., Giaoutzi, M., & Nijkamp, P. (2012). Market segmentation in tourism: An operational assessment framework. In *Quantitative methods in tourism economics* (pp. 329–352). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-7908-2879-5_18.

Ketter, E. (2020). Millennial travel: Tourism micro-trends of European Generation Y. *Journal of Tourism Futures, 7*(2), 192–196. https://doi.org/10.1108/jtf-10-2019-0106.

Laarman, J. G., & Durst, P. B. (1988). Nature travel and tropical forests. *Journal of Travel Research, 26*(3), 45. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287588026003105.

Lang'at, R. K. (2020). Camping missiology: Camping to promote holiness and missions. *Methodist History, 58*(1–2), 55–65. https://doi.org/10.5325/methodisthist.58.1-2.0055.

Lopes, D., Brandão, F., Breda, Z., & Costa, R. (2020). The four dimensions of tourist experience: A comparative analysis between camping and glamping. In *Smart innovation, systems and technologies* (pp. 385–395). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-33-4256-9_35.

Ma, S., Craig, C. A., & Feng, S. (2020). The Camping Climate Index (CCI): The development, validation, and application of a camping-sector tourism climate index. *Tourism Management, 80*, 104105. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104105.

Markova, E. S., & Nikitina, T. I. (2022). Glamping as a trend of modern business. *Innovative Economics and Law, 1*, 96–103. https://doi.org/10.53015/2782-263x_2022_1_96.

Matiza, T. (2020). Post-COVID-19 crisis travel behaviour: Towards mitigating the effects of perceived risk. *Journal of Tourism Futures, 8*(1), 99–108. https://doi.org/10.1108/jtf-04-2020-0063.

Milohnić, I., Cvelić Bonifačić, J., & Licul, I. (2019). Transformation of camping into glamping—Trends and perspectives. In *Tourism in Southern and Eastern Europe*. https://doi.org/10.20867/tosee.05.30.

Olcay, A., & Turhan, U. (2017). Opinions and interviews of glamping service owners and business directors about "New tourism trend: Glamping" in Turkey (Muğla and Antalya sample). *Gaziantep University Journal of Social Sciences, 16*(4), 980–996. https://doi.org/10.21547/jss.314773.

Panas, G., Heliades, G., Halkiopoulos, C., Tsavalia, D., & Bougioura, A. (2017). Evaluation of Athens as a city break destination: Tourist perspective explored via data mining techniques. In *Tourism, culture and heritage in a smart economy: Third international conference IACuDiT, Athens 2016* (pp. 85–103). Springer International Publishing.

Panas, G., Thrasidi, N., Halkiopoulos, C., & Gkintoni, E. (2022). Consumer behavior and cognitive factors in relation to gastronomic tourism and destination marketing in Greece. In V. Katsoni & A. C. Şerban (Eds.), *Transcending borders in tourism through innovation and cultural heritage*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92491-1_40.

Panas, G., Vasiliadou, S., & Halkiopoulos, C. (2020). Data analysis evaluation of web technologies enhancing communication in tourism industry: Case Study in Kefalonia Island. In V. Katsoni & T. Spyriadis (Eds.), *Cultural and tourism innovation in the digital era*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36342-0_14.

Panteli, A., Kompothrekas, A., Halkiopoulos, C., & Boutsinas, B. (2021). An innovative recommender system for health tourism. In V. Katsoni & C. van Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_42.

Pardo, C., & Ladeiras, A. (2020). Covid-19 "tourism in flight mode": A lost opportunity to rethink tourism—Towards a more sustainable and inclusive society. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes, 12*(6), 671–678. https://doi.org/10.1108/whatt-07-2020-0064.

Pawlicz, A., Petaković, E., & Vrtodušić Hrgović, A.-M. (2022). Beyond Airbnb. Determinants of customer satisfaction in P2P accommodation in time of COVID-19. *Sustainability, 14*(17), 10734. https://doi.org/10.3390/su141710734.

Petruša, I., & Vlahov, A. (2019). The role of glamping in development of camping tourism offer-possibilities and future prospects in the Republic of Croatia. In J. Simurina, I. N. Braje & I. Pavić (Eds.), *Proceedings of FEB Zagreb 10th international Odyssey conference on economics and business* 12–15 June, Opatija, Croatia (pp. 826–843). Zagreb: University of Zagreb Faculty of Economics & Business.

Sakáčová, K. L. (2013). *Glamping—Nature served on silver platter*.

Samarathunga, W. H. M. S. (2022). Gaze. In *Encyclopedia of tourism management and marketing*. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781800377486.gaze.

Sarigiannidis, C., Halkiopoulos, C., Giannopoulos, K., Giannopoulou, F., Politis, A., Boutsinas, B., & Kollias, K. (2021). Do hotels care? A proposed smart framework for the effectiveness of an environmental management accounting system based on business intelligence technologies. In V. Katsoni & C. van Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world*. Springer proceedings in business and economics. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_41.

Schumacher, S. (1972). *Limitations of a research development, and diffusion (R, D, and D) strategy in diffusion: A case study of nine local implementations of a state-adopted curriculum*. St. Ann, Mo: Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory.

Sommer, K. (2020). *Holidays at home—Camping and glamping as a part of domestic tourism: An overview and analysis of camping (and in particular luxury camping) as an alternative form of domestic tourism in the time of the coronavirus*. IUBH.

Stott, T. (2019). Camping, wild camping, snow holing, and bothies. In *Outdoor recreation* (pp. 187–214). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-97758-4_8.

Theodorakopoulos, L., Antonopoulou, H., Mamalougou, V., & Giotopoulos, K. C. (2022). The drivers of volume volatility: A big data analysis based on economic uncertainty measures for the Greek banking system. *Banks and Bank Systems, 17*(3), 49–57. https://doi.org/10.21511/bbs.17(3).2022.05

Tzanos, I. A., Kyriakides, A., Gkintoni, E., & Panagiotopoulos, E. (2019). Quality of Life (QoL) of people with Spinal Cord Injury (SCI) in Western Greece. *Rehabilitation Science, 4*(1), 7–12. ISSN: 2637-594X. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.rs.20190401.12.

Vrtodušić Hrgović, A.-M., Cvelić Bonifačić, J., & Milohnić, I. (2019). Dimensions of service quality in glamping. In *Tourism in Southern and Eastern Europe*. https://doi.org/10.20867/tosee.05.14.

Wellner, K. (2015). Empirical study among camping & caravanning tourists. In *User innovators in the silver market* (pp. 75–151). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-09044-9_7.

Young, T. (2017). The art of camping. In *Heading out*. https://doi.org/10.7591/cornell/9780801454028.003.0003.

Behavioural Intention of the South African Youth Towards Birds, Bird Habitat and Avitourism

Nicolene Conradie

Abstract South Africa is rich in birdlife, and this needs to be protected for future travellers. Avitourism (birding) is presented as a viable option for enhancing local economic activity, and for the protection and conservation of natural resources. Yet birding habitats are under severe threat. Thus, enthusiasm for birds amongst the youth of South Africa is touted as a means to promote a groundswell of support for preserving bird habitats. As such, it is crucial to encourage support for birds, bird habitats and avitourism within the youth of South Africa. This paper aimed to investigate behavioural intention of the South African youth towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism. This empirical research applied multi-stage sampling to collect primary data by distributing questionnaires at 17 purposively selected secondary schools in Gauteng (South Africa). The data were obtained from n = 5,488 secondary school learners (aged 13–17). Descriptive statistics and an exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were used to analyse the data. The results indicated that, overall, learners showed a moderate to low intention to act pro-environmentally for the sustainability of birds. The research poses clear challenges to professionals and educators within the tourism industry of South Africa to increase learners' willingness and motivation to act pro-environmentally through dedicated education. This supports the need to introduce an intervention programme to promote behavioural intention and ultimately pro-avi and environmental behaviour among learners.

Keywords Sustainable avitourism · Birding · Youth · Behavioural intention · Pro-environmental behaviour

JEL Classifications Q01 Sustainable Development · Z320 Tourism and Development

N. Conradie (✉)
University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa
e-mail: conran@unisa.ac.za

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_35

1 Introduction

Post COVID-19 tourism recovery in the African context is high on the agenda. The UNWTO (2021a, 2021b) proposes to accelerate economic recovery of the tourism sector through innovation, *education* and investment. Sustainable development is not possible unless the young people are involved and conditions that allow them to grow are created (UNWTO, 2021a, 2021b). No wonder the Global Youth Tourism Summit plans events where the youth will be empowered to share their ideas and vision for the future of sustainable tourism. This is incorporated in the global framework of the UN Agenda 2030 and 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UNWTO, 2021a, 2021b). Therefore, research on the conservation behaviour of young people can contribute to sustainable avitourism.

Avitourism (birding) is presented as a viable option for enhancing local economic development, as well as for the protection and conservation of natural resources (Biggs, 2013; Newsome et al., 2005; Steven et al., 2021). It is described as one of the most ecologically sound and sustainable of versions of wildlife tourism (Connell, 2009). South Africa, home to over 951 bird species, with 117 of Southern Africa's endemic and near-endemic species, is ideally suited for avitourism, offering unique birding experiences (Conradie, 2017[1]; Nicolaides, 2013; Pahlad & Procheş, 2021). To enable sustainable avitourism in South Africa, the protection and conservation of birds and their natural habitats are imperative and were highlighted as a priority research in this field (Steven et al., 2015).

However, birds and their natural habitat are facing a 'code red for humanity' if climate change is not to be addressed through educational programmes (UN, 2021). The natural resource base is under increasing pressure to bring about economic growth (Bramwell & Lane, 2013). The world is currently characterised by pervasive consumerism, and people have formed habits and social practices that are resource-intensive, which involve negative influences on the natural environment (De Beer et al., 2017; Van As et al., 2012). The cumulative effect of environmental problems (e.g. habitat destruction and degradation, deforestation, pollution—air, soil, water and noise) is compromising the natural resource base on which birdlife depends and causes increased levels of climate change (De Beer et al., 2017; McKechnie, 2013). Hence, sustainable resource utilisation must be promoted to ensure that birds and their natural habitat are kept intact to further enhance positive birding experiences.

Thus, enthusiasm for birds amongst the youth of South Africa is touted as a means to promote a groundswell of support for preserving bird habitats. Research indicated elevated rates of conservation behaviour among birdwatchers and wildlife recreationists (Cooper et al., 2015) while the influence of nature on humans brings the issue of reasonable consumption to their consciousness (Cobar et al., 2017). Thus, when the youth establishes personal connections to nature (e.g. enjoying birdlife and exposure to birdwatching), the benefits to individual and societal health are laying a foundation for lifelong support for birdlife and nature conservation (IUCN, 2017).

[1] Selected portions of this chapter have appeared in Nicolene Conradie's Doctor of Philosophy thesis (Conradie, 2017).

As such, it is crucial to encourage support for birds, bird habitats and avitourism within the youth of South Africa.

The enhancement of behaviour intention of young people (i.e. learners' affirmation or verbal commitment that they intend to perform environmentally sustainable behaviour towards birds and bird habitat in future) has been identified as an approach to promote pro-environmentalism over the long term. Behavioural intention is considered as a key component and crucial in determining pro-environmental behaviour (Pan et al., 2018; Stevenson et al., 2013; Zsóka et al., 2013). This notion is based on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and the model of responsible environmental behaviour (pro-environmental behaviour) (Hines et al., 1987) suggesting that behavioural intention is a crucial antecedent to behaviour and argues that many of the factors that predict behaviour do so indirectly by first influencing intentions (Levine & Strube, 2012). Therefore, this paper aimed to investigate behavioural intention of the South African youth towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism.

The paper commences with a literature review on sustainable avitourism and the conceptualisation of youth behavioural intention towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism. The empirical design and method applied are discussed, followed by the results. The paper ends with a conclusion and recommendations for avitourism stakeholders.

2 Literature Review

The literature review includes (Sect. 2.1) the sustainable avitourism context within which the research was applied, (Sect. 2.2) the conceptualisation of behavioural intention towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism and (Sect. 2.3) a summary of studies related to measuring behavioural intentions and its application to this research.

2.1 Sustainable Avitourism

Definitions of 'avitourism' provided in literature include birding and birdwatching. Birding (birdwatching) refers to a recreational outdoor activity which comprise of searching for, observing, identifying and enjoying birds in their natural habitats (Biggs, 2013; Biggs et al., 2011; Cheung et al., 2017; Cobar et al., 2017; Randler, 2021). The observation and study of birds, with the naked eye or through equipment, such as binoculars, cameras, tripods, spotting scopes, as well as specialised audio equipment, to identify and/or capture images (bird photography) and sounds of birds are referred to as the birding activity (Cobar et al., 2017; Istomina et al., 2016). Watching birds around the home is the most common form of birding, while birders who take trips away from home (i.e. avitourists) participate in a more active form of birding (Kim et al., 2010). Avitourism is thus defined as a tourism niche market, who travels for the main purpose of viewing birds in their natural habitat (Chen & Chen, 2015; Cheung et al., 2017; Steven et al., 2021).

Avitourism receives considerable attention from conservation leaders, land managers, business leaders and the national press as a viable option for enhancing local economic activity, as well as for the protection and conservation of natural resources (Biggs, 2013; Newsome et al., 2005) and has therefore been described as one of the most ecologically sound and sustainable versions of tourism (Connell, 2009). Sustainable avitourism can therefore be defined as avitourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of avitourists, the avitourism industry, the environment and host communities (UNWTO, 2017b).

Sustainable avitourism is however dependent upon the natural resource base, specifically birds and their native habitats, which is being placed under increasing pressure due to the cumulative effect of environmental influences, for example habitat destruction, degradation and fragmentation, pollution and increased level of climate change (De Beer et al., 2017; McKechnie, 2013; Van As et al., 2012). Sustainable management of avitourism necessitates the conservation of the natural environment, particularly biodiversity and habitats of birds (Nevard & Nevard, 2014; Pintassilgo et al., 2021). Managing this nature-based activity (avitourism) therefore requires an understanding of behaviour towards the natural environment (Pintassilgo et al., 2021). The present paper therefore investigated behavioural intention of youth towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism, which is defined next.

2.2 Defining Behavioural Intention Towards Birds, Bird Habitat and Avitourism

In general, behavioural intention reflect how hard a person is willing to try, how motivated the person is to perform the specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and indicate a person's perceived likelihood or subjective probability that the person will engage in a specific behaviour (Institute of Medicine, 2002). Behavioural intention is conceptualized in literature using various terms, including 'behavioural intention', 'intention to act' and 'verbal commitment' that are used interchangeably. In the context of behaviour towards to environment, verbal commitment refers to an expressed intention to act in a specific manner, for example, an environmental problem (Hines et al., 1987; Maloney & Ward, 1973).

'Pro-environmental behavioural intention' therefore refers to a person 'affirming that one intends to perform an environmentally sustainable behaviour in the future' (Wiernik et al., 2013) and provides an indication of how much effort individuals are planning to exert to perform a particular pro-environmental behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Bamberg & Möser, 2007). Pro-environmental behaviour (environmental action) is thus operationalised through pro-environmental behavioural intentions, such as intentions towards nature conservation, waste reduction, energy use and traffic behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Bögeholz, 2006; Klöckner, 2013; Wang et al., 2014).

For the purpose of this research, behavioural intention towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism is defined as 'A learner's perceived likelihood or subjective probability that he or she will engage in actual pro-avi- and pro-environmental behaviour, how hard a learner is willing to try or how much effort the learners are planning to exert to perform a particular pro-environmental behaviour, and also the learner's affirmation or verbal commitment that they intend to perform environmentally sustainable behaviour towards birds and bird habitats in future' (Conradie, 2017).

2.3 The Measurement of Behavioural Intention Towards Birds, Bird Habitat and Avitourism

Various studies reported findings related to pro-environmental behavioural intention and indicated that several measurement scales were used to measure this construct, for example MSELS (McBeth & Volk, 2010; Stevenson et al., 2013), CHEAKS (Alp et al., 2006; Duerden & Witt, 2010; Leeming et al., 1995), Intended Pro-Environmental Behaviour scale (Levine & Strube, 2012), Verbal commitment subscale of the Ecology Scale (Maloney & Ward, 1973), a willingness to act scale (Boyes et al., 2009), a behavioural intention scale (Carrus et al., 2008; Fujii, 2006; Heath & Gifford, 2006), and the intentions to recycle scale (Knussen et al., 2004).

Furthermore, the measuring scales were applied to various contexts, samples or target groups, for example, primary or elementary school children (e.g. Leeming et al., 1995); middle school learners (e.g. Duerden & Witt, 2010; Leeming et al., 1995; McBeth & Volk, 2010; Stevenson et al., 2013); high school learners (e.g. Alp et al., 2006; Boyes et al., 2009; Duerden & Witt, 2010; Leeming et al., 1995); university students (e.g. De Groot & Steg, 2010; Hsu, 2004; Levine & Strube, 2012) and adults (e.g. Carrus et al., 2008; Fujii, 2006; Heath & Gifford, 2006; Knussen et al., 2004; Maloney & Ward, 1973).

For the present study, measures of pro-environmental behavioural intention were based on the verbal commitment subscale of CHEAKS (Leeming et al., 1995). The reasons for choosing this measurement scale was that CHEAKS was specifically developed for elementary, middle and junior high school learners (Leeming et al., 1995). Secondary learners in junior high school (Grades 8–10, aged 13–17 years) were the target group for the present study. Moreover, the scale proved to be a reliable and valid instrument with sound psychometric properties that can be applied to different settings (Leeming et al., 1995).

The CHEAKS verbal commitment subscale measures 'intentions to act' or 'willingness to act' towards various environmental topics, and include six content-dependent sub-domains, namely animals, energy, pollution, recycling, water and general environmental issues (Leeming et al., 1995). These sub-domains were adapted for the present study to measure the youth's pro-environmental behavioural intentions towards birds, the natural environment and avitourism.

3 Methodology

Multi-stage sampling was used to collect primary data. Questionnaires were distributed to 17 purposively selected secondary schools in Gauteng (South Africa). All ethical principles and protocols were followed for doing research on minors (Bureau of Market Research Ethics Committee, RF005.4). The data were obtained from $N = 5{,}488$ secondary school learners (aged 13–17).

The demographic profile of the respondents was gender (male = 43.7%; female = 55.3%), home language (Afrikaans = 42.1%; African = 39.5%; English = 18.8%). This target group was chosen as the present-day secondary school learner will, as future adults and leaders, have a major influence, on not only the tourist of tomorrow, but also the future state of the natural environment (including birds and bird habitat). Birding as a potential hobby may enable innovative ways of interactive learning and engagement at school level, enhancing pro-environmental behaviour intention, which could be highly relevant for on environmental sustainability.

The verbal commitment subscale of the CHEAKS (Leeming et al., 1995), reflecting pro-environmental intentions, comprises 12 items that are sampled systematically from six content-dependent sub-domains, including animals, energy, pollution, recycling, water and general environmental issues. Ten items were adapted to measure the pro-environmental behavioural intentions of the learners regarding birds and bird habitat. An additional 9 items were added, measuring the willingness of the learners to participate in birding activities and avitourism. Following the CHEAKS, a semantic differential scale ranging from 'not at all true of me' to 'extremely true of me' was used. Data from a pilot study were analysed, and minor adjustments were made. The adapted items from the CHEAKS scale are outlined in Table 1.

Descriptive statistics for this study relate to frequencies, percentages, and averages. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to explore the underlying structure of the data. Internal consistency estimates (Cronbach Alpha), was used to confirm reliability of the measuring scales. The results thereof are presented next.

4 Results

The results of the analyses on behaviour intention of the South African youth towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism are reported in this section. Firstly, descriptive statistics for the construct are presented, followed by the EFA analysis.

Table 1 Adapted items from the CHEAKS verbal commitment (behavioural intention) subscale

Item no.	Item
E1.1	I would be willing to stop buying some products to save the lives of birds
E1.2	I would be willing to save electricity if it could avoid killing birds
E1.3	I would be willing to save water because it is important for the survival of birds
E1.4	I would be willing to give my own money to protect bird habitats
E1.5	I would be willing to ride the bus or walk to more places if it could save more birds
E1.6	I would be willing to separate my family's waste for recycling if it could preserve bird habitats
E1.7	I would be willing to give my own money to help protect wild birds
E1.8	I would be willing to turn off the water while I wash my hands if it could preserve bird habitats
E1.9	I am willing to buy a bird book to assist me in identifying birds
E1.10	I am willing to buy a bird book to learn more about birds and bird habitats
E1.11	I am willing to talk to my teachers about a bird club at school
E1.12	I am willing to join a local birdwatching club
E1.13	I would be willing to put up a bird house or a bird feeder near my home
E1.14	I would be willing to go on a birdwatching tour in my area
E1.15	I would be willing to go on a birdwatching tour in a nature reserve
E1.16	I would be willing to visit a local zoo to learn more about birds

4.1 Descriptive Results: Behavioural Intention of Learners Towards Birds, Bird Habitat and Avitourism

Measures of pro-environmental behavioural intentions were based on the adapted verbal commitment subscale of the CHEAKS (Leeming et al., 1995) (See Table 1). Behavioural intention of learners towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism are reflected in Fig. 1.

Less than half of the learners stated that they are willing to save water for the survival of birds (E1.3; 45.8%) and the preservation of bird habitats (E1.8; 44.8%), while even fewer learners stated that they are willing to save electricity (E1.2; 39.6%) and to recycle waste (E1.6; 40.9%) in order to protect birds. Only 27.6% of the learners stated that they are willing to give own money to protect bird habitats (E1.4). These results are in accordance with results of studies conducted on general pro-environmental behavioural intention of middle-school learners in the USA (McBeth & Volk, 2010).

Furthermore, Boyes et al. (2009) suggest that for actions involving minimal inconvenience, such as switching off unused electrical appliances and recycling, learners' willingness to act was greater than for actions relating to personal inconvenience, such as using public, rather than private, transport. In the current study, the learners were willing to turn off the water while washing their hands as well as to separate

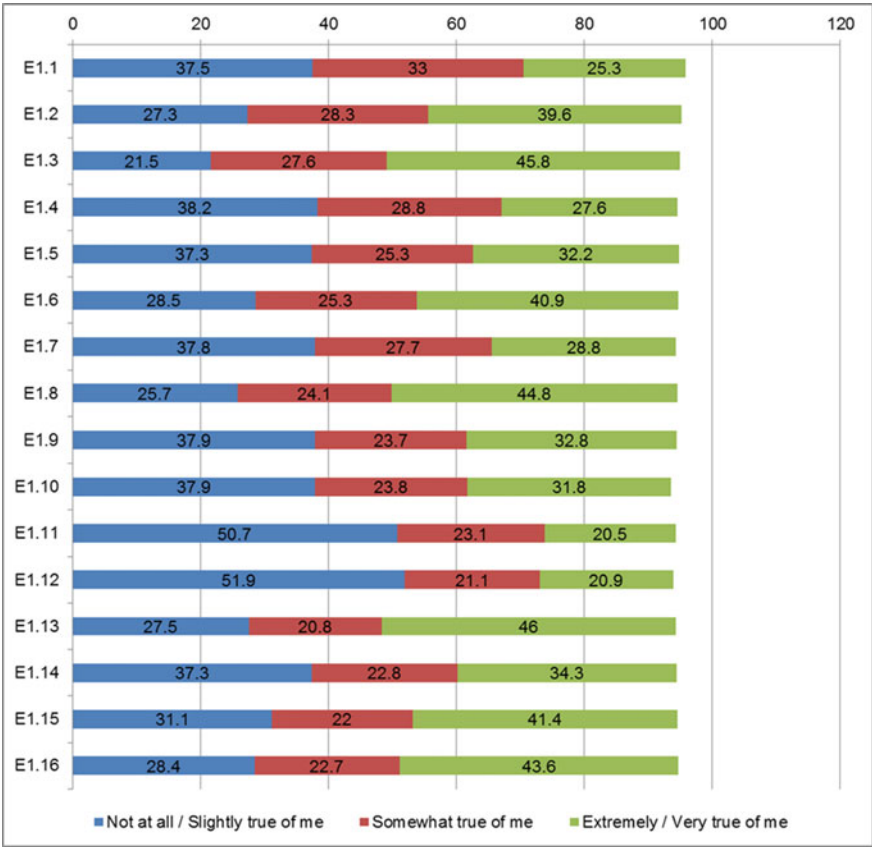


Fig. 1 Behavioural intention of learners towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism (%) (for items see Table 1)

their family's waste for recycling, but less inclined to take the bus/walk to places (E1.5; 32.2%), and to give own money to protect bird habitats.

Regarding behavioural intention regarding birding activities and avitourism, less than half of the learners stated that they are willing to put up a bird house or a bird feeder near their home (E1.13; 46.0%). However, 43.6% of the learners said they are inclined to visit a local zoo to learn more about birds (E1.16), while 41.4% said they were willing to go on a birdwatching tour in a nature reserve (E1.15). The learners seemed least interested in joining a local birdwatching club (E1.12; 20.9%) or talking to teachers about a bird club at school (E1.11; 20.5%). Overall, the learners showed a moderate to low intention to act pro-environmentally for the sustainability of birds. These results strongly indicate an urgent need for relevant education.

4.2 Factor Analysis Results: Behavioural Intention of Learners Towards Birds, Bird Habitat and Avitourism

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was applied to the responses of the 16-item scale used to measure learners' intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour (See measuring scale, Sect. 3). An EFA was conducted, using the PAF and promax rotation with Kaiser normalisation. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.948, which is well-above the recommended threshold of 0.6 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < 0.001$), indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate.

The PAF analysis identified two factors, based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue > 1), which cumulatively explained 60.68% of the variance (Table 2).

The results indicated a number of strong factor loadings (factor loadings above 0.30). Based on similar characteristics, the factors were labelled as 'intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour' and 'intended birdwatching behaviour'. The internal consistency of responses that were assessed by Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Reliability estimates were 0.89 and 0.92 for responses to 'intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour' and 'intended birdwatching behaviour', respectively, indicating good reliability.

A higher mean score indicates a stronger agreement with the factor. The learners' mean level of agreement with the intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour factor was neutral (3.0), while the learners' mean level of agreement with the intended birdwatching behaviour factor (2.87) was slightly below neutral. Therefore, the results indicate that the learners' perceived likelihood that they will engage in a given pro-environmental and avi-behaviour is only moderate. Regarding intended birdwatching behaviour, the learners also showed a moderate to low likelihood to participate, indicating the need to raise the learners' willingness to act for the birds and their habitat.

5 Recommendations and Implications

Based on the results, the following is suggested to improve behavioural intention towards birds and the natural environment:

- Awareness, affinity, knowledge and values towards birds and the natural environment should be raised amongst school learners by including these components in the development of environmental programmes or interventions (Conradie, 2017). Environment-based education has become imperative for educational institutions (including schools) in accomplishing environmental sustainability (Yusliza et al., 2020).
- Learners should be encouraged to spend time outdoors, since outdoor activities have been linked to improvement of behavioural intentions and were found to be a key predictor of pro-environmental behaviour (Stevenson et al., 2013). Thus, time

Table 2 Results of the factor analysis on the behavioural intentions (n = 5,488)

	Factor 1: Intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour	Factor 2: Intended birdwatching behaviour
E1.1: I would be willing to stop buying some products to save the lives of birds	0.696	
E1.2: I would be willing to save electricity if it could avoid killing birds	0.835	
E1.3: I would be willing to save water because it is important for the survival of birds	0.801	
E1.4: I would be willing to give my own money to protect bird habitats	0.585	
E1.5: I would be willing to ride the bus or walk to more places if it could save more birds	0.519	
E1.6: I would be willing to separate my family's waste for recycling if it could preserve bird habitats	0.625	
E1.7: I would be willing to give my own money to help protect wild birds	0.552	
E1.8: I would be willing to turn off the water while I wash my hands if it could preserve bird habitats	0.683	
E1.9: I am willing to buy a bird book to assist me in identifying birds		0.766
E1.10: I am willing to buy a bird book to learn more about birds and bird habitats		0.803
E1.11: I am willing to talk to my teachers about a bird club at school		0.795
E1.12: I am willing to join a local birdwatching club		0.833
E1.13: I would be willing to put up a bird house or a bird feeder near my home		0.376
E1.14: I would be willing to go on a birdwatching tour in my area		0.780

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

	Factor 1: Intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour	Factor 2: Intended birdwatching behaviour
E1.15: I would be willing to go on a birdwatching tour in a nature reserve		0.642
E1.16: I would like to visit the local zoo to learn more about birds		0.611
Cronbach's alpha	0.89	0.92
Mean	3.00	2.87

spent outdoors complements the use of published curricula in addressing environmental behavioural intentions (Stevenson et al., 2013). The influence of nature on humans also brings the issue of reasonable consumption to their consciousness (Cobar et al., 2017). Environmental educators and avitourism role-players should create opportunities for learners to encounter and experience birdlife and encourage learners to spend time outdoors and to visit informal educational settings (e.g. national zoological or botanical gardens).

- Opportunities to experience and explore nature (e.g. enjoying birdlife and exposure to birdwatching) should be created for learners to enhance personal connections to nature, as the benefits of individual and societal health are laying a foundation for lifelong support for birdlife and nature conservation (IUCN, 2017). As highlighted by Collado and Evans (2019), contact with nature is positively associated with environmental behaviour.
- The promotion of a sense of self-efficacy among learners. Heath and Gifford (2006) suggests that self-efficacy explained most of the variance of behavioural intention, indicating that it will be fruitful to promote the sense of self-efficacy. It appears that before individuals are ready to act against for example, climate change, they must believe that even a small thing one individual can do will make a meaningful difference for the environment (Heath & Gifford, 2006). Interventions to change behaviour should therefore also focus on increasing self-efficacy by concrete information about how to act (Klöckner, 2013).
- Environmental issues and the implementation of a pro-environmental behaviours should be explained on the level of the target group (i.e. school learner). Opportunities for positive environmental behaviour should be created at schools and must be easily implemented by the school learner. Fujii (2006) finds that *perceived* ease of implementation, or perceived behavioural control, had a significant positive effect on behavioural intention for pro-environmental behaviour. If implementing a specific pro-environmental behaviour is believed to be difficult, the behaviour may not be attempted, even if the motivation to do so is present (Fujii, 2006).

6 Conclusion

The success and sustainability of avitourism, an important niche market, growth area and a trend in tourism (Chen & Chen, 2015), is dependent upon the natural resource base (birds and their natural habitat). Humanity's ecological footprint remains deeply unsustainable. To realise the potential of avitourism in South Africa, in offering sustainable birding experiences, the protection and conservation of birds and their natural habitat are imperative. The numbers of certain bird species are decreasing at a rapid rate in all parts of the world due to environmental problems, such as climate change. It is evident from the literature that enhancing positive behavioural intentions as an approach to promote pro-environmentalism and sustainable resource utilisation amongst the youth and children inevitable is to ensure the sustainability of birds and their natural habitat. Education of this generation has the potential to address climate change and so instal change in behaviour.

Therefore, the research on which this paper is based, investigated behavioural intention of the South African youth towards birds, bird habitat and avitourism. To reach this aim, an empirical research design and method was applied.

The results of research on school learners (aged 13–17) in the Gauteng Province (South Africa), revealed the following significant outcomes:

- Overall, learners showed a moderate to low intention to act pro-environmentally for the sustainability of birds.
- Less than half of the learners were willing to save water and electricity, while even fewer learners were willing to recycle waste or to give own money to protect birds and bird habitat.
- Less than half of the learners showed willingness to participate in birding activities and to join a bird club.
- Two factors, namely 'intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour' and 'intended birdwatching behaviour' derived from the EFA analysis.
- The learners' level of agreement towards the 'intended pro-environmental and avi-behaviour' factor was neutral, while their level of agreement towards the 'intended birdwatching behaviour' factor was slightly below neutral.

A recommendation is made that role-players in conservation, environmental educators and tourism managers (including for example interpretation centres at bird sanctuaries, nature reserves and zoos) should improve the behavioural intentions of young people to enhance pro-environmental behaviour towards birds, their natural environment and avitourism. The valuable role education can play is in line with the UNWTO notion of empowering children and young people through the planned Global Youth Tourism Summit (GYTS) events. Furthermore, installing environmental hobbies, intervention or educational programme promoting pro-environmental behaviour intentions among young people is recommended.

While 'pro-environmental behavioural intentions' points to the learners' affirmation or verbal commitment that they intend to perform environmentally sustainable behaviour towards birds and bird habitats in future, it is increasingly recognised that pro-environmental actions (actual commitment) are essential for decreasing environmental problems and to promote sustainable lifestyles (De Groot & Steg, 2010). Therefore, future research could include the question relating to what learners actually do on a day-to-day, personal level to protect and care the environment.

Climate change is here to stay. It is known from 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (UNWTO, 2017a) that the younger generation has the potential to be agents of change. The sustainable development goals will provide them with a platform to channel their infinite capacities for activism into the creation of a better world. Environmental education in the form of an intervention programme, is needed from a young age. To practise birding as a hobby in South Africa might be one of the most practical solutions to eliminate the risk of 'code red for humanity' our planet is currently facing.

References

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 179–211.

Alp, E., Ertepinar, H., Tekkaya, C., & Yilmaz, A. (2006). A statistical analysis of children's environmental knowledge and attitudes in Turkey. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education, 15*(3), 210–223.

Bamberg, S., & Möser, G. (2007). Twenty years after Hines, Hungerford, and Tomera: A new meta-analysis of psycho-social determinants of pro-environmental behaviour. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 27*(1), 14–25.

Biggs, D. (2013). International handbook on ecotourism. In R. Ballantyne & J. Parker (Eds.), *Birding, sustainability and ecotourism* (pp. 394–403). Edward Elgar.

Biggs, D., Turpie, J., Fabricius, C., & Spenceley, A. (2011). The value of avitourism for conservation and job creation: An analysis from South Africa. *Conservation and Society, 9*(1), 80–90.

Bögeholz, S. (2006). Nature experience and its importance for environmental knowledge, values and action: Recent German empirical contributions. *Environmental Education Research, 12*(1), 65–84.

Boyes, E., Skamp, K., & Stanisstreet, M. (2009). Australian secondary students' views about global warming: Beliefs about actions, and willingness to act. *Research in Science Education, 39*(5), 661–680.

Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2013). Getting from here to there: Systems change, behavioural change and sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 21*(1), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2012.741602.

Carrus, G., Passafaro, P., & Bonnes, M. (2008). Emotions, habits and rational choices in ecological behaviours: The case of recycling and use of public transportation. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 28*(1), 51–62.

Chen, L., & Chen, W. (2015). Push–pull factors in international birders' travel. *Tourism Management, 48*, 416–425.

Cheung, L. T., Lo, A. Y., & Fok, L. (2017). Recreational specialization and ecologically responsible behaviour of Chinese birdwatchers in Hong Kong. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 25*(6), 817–831.

Cobar, A. G. C., Borromeo, M. C. B., Agcaoili, J. K. M., & Rodil, A. M. T. (2017). Acute effect of birdwatching on mood states of senior high school students in the physical education setting. *Ovidius University Annals, Series Physical Education & Sport/Science, Movement & Health, 17*(1), 18–25.

Collado, S., & Evans, G. W. (2019). Outcome expectancy: A key factor to understanding childhood exposure to nature and children's pro-environmental behavior. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 61*, 30–36.

Connell, J. (2009). Birdwatching, twitching and tourism: Towards an Australian perspective. *Australian Geographer, 40*(2), 203–217.

Conradie, N. (2017). *A literacy model for sustainable tourism.* Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Cooper, C., Larson, L., Dayer, A., Stedman, R., & Decker, D. (2015). Are wildlife recreationists conservationists? Linking hunting, birdwatching, and pro-environmental behavior. *The Journal of Wildlife Management, 79*(3), 446–457.

De Beer, J., Dreyer, J., & Loubser, C. P. (2017). Environmental issues and risks. In C. Loubser, C. H. Swanepoel, & C. Chacko (Eds.), *Environmental education and education for sustainability: Some South African perspectives* (pp. 1–36). Van Schaik.

De Groot, J. I., & Steg, L. (2010). Relationships between value orientations, self-determined motivational types and pro-environmental behavioural intentions. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30*(4), 368–378.

Duerden, M. D., & Witt, P. A. (2010). The impact of direct and indirect experiences on the development of environmental knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30*(4), 379–392.

Fujii, S. (2006). Environmental concern, attitude toward frugality, and ease of behavior as determinants of pro-environmental behavior intentions. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 26*(4), 262–268.

Heath, Y., & Gifford, R. (2006). Free-market ideology and environmental degradation: The case of belief in global climate change. *Environment and Behavior, 38*(1), 48–71.

Hines, J. M., Hungerford, H. R., & Tomera, A. N. (1987). Analysis and synthesis of research on responsible environmental behavior: A meta-analysis. *The Journal of Environmental Education, 18*(2), 1–8.

Hsu, S. (2004). The effects of an environmental education program on responsible environmental behavior and associated environmental literacy variables in Taiwanese college students. *The Journal of Environmental Education, 35*(2), 37–48. https://doi.org/10.3200/JOEE.35.2.37-48.

Institute of Medicine. (2002). *Speaking of health: Assessing health communication strategies for diverse populations.* The National Academies Press.

Istomina, E. A., Luzhkova, N. M., & Khidekel, V. V. (2016). Birdwatching tourism infrastructure planning in the Ria Formosa Natural Park (Portugal). *Geography and Natural Resources, 37*(4), 371–378.

IUCN (International Union for the Conservation of Nature). (2017). *Youth voices curriculum sourcebook*. Gland.

Kim, A. K., Keuning, J., Robertson, J., & Kleindorfer, S. (2010). Understanding the birdwatching tourism market in Queensland, Australia. *Anatolia, 21*(2), 227–247.

Klöckner, C. A. (2013). A comprehensive model of the psychology of environmental behavior—A meta-analysis. *Global Environmental Change, 23*(5), 1028–1038.

Knussen, C., Yule, F., MacKenzie, J., & Wells, M. (2004). An analysis of intentions to recycle household waste: The roles of past behaviour, perceived habit, and perceived lack of facilities. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 24*(2), 237–246.

Leeming, F. C., Dwyer, W. O., & Bracken, B. A. (1995). Children's environmental attitude and knowledge scale: Construction and validation. *The Journal of Environmental Education, 26*(3), 22–31.

Levine, D. S., & Strube, M. J. (2012). Environmental attitudes, knowledge, intentions and behaviors among college students. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 152*(3), 308–326. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2011.604363.

Maloney, M. P., & Ward, M. P. (1973). Ecology: Let's hear from the people: An objective scale for the measurement of ecological attitudes and knowledge. *American Psychologist, 28*(7), 583–586.

McBeth, W., & Volk, T. L. (2010). The national environmental literacy project: A baseline study of middle grade students in the United States. *The Journal of Environmental Education, 41*(1), 55–67.

McKechnie, A. E. (2013). Ecological and environmental physiology of birds. *Ostrich, 84*(2), 167–168.

Nevard, T., & Nevard, G. (2014). The Mareeba Wetlands—Conservation through sustainable ecotourism. *Journal of Ecotourism, 13*(2–3), 152–158. https://doi.org/10.1080/14724049.2014.998231.

Newsome, D., Dowling, R. K., & Moore, S. A. (2005). *Wildlife tourism.* Channel View.

Nicolaides, A. (2013). Promoting avitourism as a special niche area of ecotourism in South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 2*(3), 1–16.

Pahlad, R., & Procheş, Ş. (2021). Birdwatching in a southern African context: Explaining highlights on bird lists. *South African Geographical Journal, 1–9*. https://doi.org/10.1080/03736245.2021.1894597.

Pan, S. L., Chou, J., Morrison, A. M., Huang, W. S., & Lin, M. C. (2018). Will the future be greener? The environmental behavioral intentions of university tourism students. *Sustainability, 10*(3), 634.

Pintassilgo, P., Pinto, P., Costa, A., Matias, A., & Guimarães, M. H. (2021). Environmental attitudes and behaviour of birdwatchers: A missing link. *Tourism Recreation Research.* https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2021.1920755.

Randler, C. (2021). Motivations for birdwatching: Support for a three-dimensional model. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife.* https://doi.org/10.1080/10871209.2021.1993385.

Steven, R., Morrison, C., & Castle, J. G. (2015). Birdwatching and avitourism: A global review of research in its participant markets, distribution and impacts, highlighting future research priorities to inform sustainable avitourism management. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 23*(8–9), 1257–1276.

Steven, R., Rakotopare, N., & Newsome, D. (2021). Avitourism tribes: As diverse as the birds they watch. In C. Pforr, R. Dowling, & M. Volgger (Eds.), *Consumer tribes in tourism.* Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-7150-3_8.

Stevenson, K. T., Peterson, M. N., Bondell, H. D., Mertig, A. G., & Moore, S. E. (2013). Environmental, institutional, and demographic predictors of environmental literacy among middle school children. *PLoS ONE, 8*(3), 1–11.

UN (United Nations). (2021). IPCC report: 'Code red' for human driven global heating. Retrieved August 19, 2021, from https://news.un.org/en/story/2021/08/1097362.

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization). (2021a). Global Youth Tourism Summit (GYTS). Retrieved August 19, 2021a, from https://www.unwto.org/europe/global-youth-tourism-summit.

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization). (2021b). 2nd Edition UNWTO Global Tourism Investment Forum. Retrieved August 19, 2021b, from https://www.unwto.org/2nd-edition-unwto-global-tourism-investment-forum.

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization). (2017a). 2017a is the international year of sustainable tourism for development. Retrieved December 15, 2016, from http://media.unwto.org/press-release/2017-01-03/2017-international-year-sustainable-tourism-development.

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization). (2017b). UNWTO annual report 2016. Retrieved July 17, 2017b, from http://media.unwto.org/publication/unwto-annual-report-2016.

Van As, J., Du Preez, J., Brown, L., & Smit, N. (2012). *The story of life & the environment: An African perspective.* Struik Nature.

Wang, P., Liu, Q., & Qi, Y. (2014). Factors influencing sustainable consumption behaviors: A survey of the rural residents in China. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 63*, 152–165. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2013.05.007.

Wiernik, B. M., Ones, D. S., & Dilchert, S. (2013). Age and environmental sustainability: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*(7), 826–856.

Yusliza, M. Y., Amirudin, A., Rahadi, R. A., Nik Sarah Athirah, N. A., Ramayah, T., Muhammad, Z., Dal Mas, F., Massaro, M., Saputra, J., & Mokhlis, S. (2020). An investigation of pro-environmental behaviour and sustainable development in Malaysia. *Sustainability, 12*(17), 7083.
Zsóka, Á., Szerényi, Z. M., Széchy, A., & Kocsis, T. (2013). Greening due to environmental education? Environmental knowledge, attitudes, consumer behavior and everyday pro-environmental activities of Hungarian high school and university students. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 48*, 126–138.

Exploring the Relationship Between Tourist Safety and Tourist Experience: Theories from Accommodation Establishments and Attractions

Shale Johannes Shale, Sello Samuel Nthebe, and Magdalena Petronella Swart

Abstract Accommodation and lodging together with attraction management have a significant role in ensuring that tourists are offered quality experiences. In the world of contemporary tourism, it is well-known globally that tourism markets are neither relying on products nor services but rather experiences to make tourists loyal prescribers. Therefore, experience is an important aspect of tourism development and evaluation. This means that providing safe experiences is of the greatest value for the attractiveness and competitive advantage of the tourism fraternity. The purpose of this paper is to determine if there is a relationship between tourist safety and tourist experiences supported by the literature, specifically to investigate the gap between these concepts at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho. To achieve the objective of this paper, the researchers followed the qualitative directed-summative content analysis technique to interpret meaning from the content of text data published in 62 research reports from Scopus. This method adhered to the interpretive and applied content analysis as an analytical approach to produce results and put them into context. The literature shows that the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience can be supported especially to investigate the gap between these concepts at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho.

Keywords Tourist safety · Tourist experience · Accommodation establishment · Tourist attraction

JEL Classifications L83 Sports · Gambling · Restaurants · Recreation · Tourism

---

S. J. Shale (✉) · S. S. Nthebe · M. P. Swart
University of South Africa, Pretoria, Republic of South Africa
e-mail: 57995176@mylife.unisa.ac.za

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_36

1 Introduction

The tourist experiences are considered the cornerstone of the hospitality and tourism industry, particularly in the sectors such as accommodation and lodging and events management. These sectors, therefore, need to reconsider their important function to exceed tourists' expectations and satisfy them with quality experiences (Parsons et al., 2018). Literature (Saner et al., 2015; Fuste & Nava, 2015; World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2017) designates that in the modern world, there is a worldwide observation that tourism marketplaces are no longer relying on products and services; however, they offer experiences to satisfy tourists and ensure their loyalty. Carballo et al. (2015) describe tourist experience as a collective practice that incorporates three stages: before travelling to the destination, during the holiday at a preferred destination and post-travelling, which ultimately requires clear planning to happen. Rivera (2013) refers to the experience as something personal which replicates tangible and intangible factors that affect and endure the effect of distinctive and memorable events. Championing experience, many authors (Chen et al., 2020; Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Ferrari, 2020; Hernández et al., 2015; Scott & Dung, 2017; Soria, 2016; Sotiriadis & Gursoy, 2016; Vergopoulos, 2016) hold the same sentiment that high-quality experiences make people happy; hence, experience is regarded as an important aspect of tourism development and evaluation. Sernatur (2016) therefore asserts that providing quality experiences is of the greatest value for the attractiveness and competitive advantage of the tourism fraternity. The purpose of this paper is to determine if there is a relationship between tourist safety and tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho.

Mody et al. (2017) state that scientific research linked to experience appears to be in the immaturity stage in the literature of the hospitality and tourism industry. Matovelle and Baez (2018) argue that tourist experience has received in-depth research from academicians; however, the need for different approaches for measuring it from a full picture stays in infancy. Ingram et al. (2017) postulate that as there is increasing and advancing knowledge around the tourism experience and its dimensions, determinants as well as impacts, it is furthermore important to expand methods and approaches of investigation. This motivates the current paper to determine if there is a relationship between tourist safety and tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho. The following sections entail the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience.

Given the critical importance of experience, Alawi et al. (2018) underline safety as one of the factors (e.g. presented information, cultural values, entertainment) influencing experience. Barbosa et al. (2021) highlight that amongst the destination attracting factors for people who consider migrating, safety appears as the important aspect people would assess their experiences during their stay as immigrants.

Cheng et al. (2022) contend that safety is a part of significant pre-conditions for outdoor recreation and tourism growth; hence, safety makes the list of management implications to improve tourist experience. However, none of these studies explored if there is a gap in the safety experiences of tourists when they visit an accommodation establishment and tourist attraction. It is important to investigate this gap as both accommodation establishments and attractions are part of the tourism value chain and can influence the overall experience of the tourist. Based on these studies, researchers postulated that there is a relationship between safety and tourist experience. This motivates the present paper to determine if literature supports the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience to investigate the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho.

The paper comprises sections such as literature review, safety in tourism, the impact of tourist safety at an attraction and the impact of tourist safety at accommodation establishment, methodology, discussions and conclusion.

2 Literature Review

Safety in tourism, the impact of tourist safety at an attraction and the impact of tourist safety at accommodation experiences are discussed in the paragraphs below.

2.1 Safety in Tourism

In the tourism industry, safety is a complex problem that is steadily rated as one of the highest matters confronting the fraternity (Edgell et al., 2008). Globally, studies have been conducted on the impact of safety on the tourism industry, of which a few are highlighted in the preceding discussion. In Europe, Varna University of Management (2021) states that there are factors (e.g. crime) impacting tourists' safety and fear of visiting the destination. In Asia, Tegar and Gurning (2018) have underlined that image linked to safety is one of the main important factors that tourists consider in the selection of a destination. Still, in Asia, Mohammed et al. (2020) have highlighted that safety is amongst factors (e.g. landscape, services) that are given negative reviews by tourists in Malaysia's Marine Park. In North America, McGee (2017) indicates that safety warning is identified as the need necessary to protect visitors in the US Natchez Trace Parkway. In Africa, Starmer-Smith (2008) highlights that government research shows that more than a third of tourists have pinpointed safety as a major concern restricting them from revisiting South Africa. Under safety, violence and crime (e.g. gun-related crimes and break-ins) are specified as types of crimes currently targeting tourists in Lesotho (Smartraveller, 2021). In addition, security is cited to be the risk that upsurges at night and during weekends (Smartraveller, 2021). Muggers in the capital city of Lesotho-Maseru target foreigners, and therefore, advice is made to people to avoid walking and driving in remote areas, especially at night (Government of United Kingdom, 2022).

In the study on young tourists' perception of fear on holiday by Mura (2010), it is found that perceptions of safety and security are considered when choosing a destination. Mura (2010) continues to emphasise that perceptions of fear and tourist experience are said to remain in infancy. Mohamad et al. (2020) postulate that social factors such as safety and tourist experience as socio-economic carrying capacity factors are identified as aspects that should be given the extra effort and instant consideration because they are constructs showing moderate carrying capacity equal standards. These authors argue that there is a relationship between safety and tourist experience, which will further be explored in the paragraphs below.

2.2 *Impact of Tourist Safety at an Attraction*

Damster (2005) states that the primary objective of any attraction, such as an event, is to offer its attendees a pleasurable experience. Hence, Perić et al. (2016) postulate that event attendees are more concerned about their safety than any other kind of audience. Hence, safety at an attraction such as an event is a crucial aspect for event attendees and a significant aspect of the tourist experience. In the study of event sport tourism experience, Peric et al. (2018) propose that safety needs to be offered as an important aspect of customer value. Beard and Russ (2017) and Dashper et al. (2021) assert that attractions such as events are by nature all about experiences that should be unusual, recollected and beyond the everyday. Rutley (1997) implies that to pleasurable experience can only be attained by creating a conducive environment that directs all participants to the required behaviour. In the case of attraction such as hosting events (e.g. festivals, fairs and game concerts), it is necessary to obtain participants' voluntary compliance to the set regulations to guide the accepted and anticipated behaviour to ensure safety and pleasurable experiences (Rutley, 1997).

Nadda et al. (2020) express that customers (event attendees) are understood to attend an event after considering the unlikelihood of threats, such as terrorism, and whether an event will be safe. Bladen et al. (2012) indicate that safety is one of the aspects that can be used as a basis for posing restrictions on attraction aspects such as event design. Should safety be managed competently and effectively, the experience will never be compromised, and as a result, the attraction such as events can be hosted safely (Bladen et al., 2012). Werner and Ye (2020) proclaimed that for attractions such as events, experience and safety are amongst the forces impacting the event fraternity. Authors (Yeoman et al., 2015; Yeoman, Robertson, Ali-Knight, Drummond & McMahon-Beattie, 2012) indicate that safety has been pinpointed as one of the aspects that positively impacted visitor experience when the change approach to safety was adopted for the Glastonbury Festival of Contemporary Performing Arts, in Somerset in the United Kingdom (UK).

2.3 Impact of Tourist Safety on Accommodation Experiences

Safety and security appear to be aspects that tourists take into consideration when deciding on the selection of accommodation (Anichiti et al., 2021). In February 1945, the recommendation was made to the Board of Directors of Hotel Association of New York City to create a new department within the organisation with the primary objective of inspiring all members to get involved in preventing accidents and creating ideas that can likely ensure more safety in the hotel operations. Also, the recommendations were intended to cut accidents and finally promote positive experiences for specific members (United States Bureau of Labour Standards, 1962). Prioritising the safety and health of hotel guests and staff, Hyatt hotels adopted new standards and procedures to reimagine the hotel experience (Gursoy et al., 2021). Furthermore, Brownell (2008) and Lashley (2017) reveal that feelings of safety are acknowledged as some of the significant aspects that women become satisfied with when their hotel experience incorporates them.

In the study conducted in Romanian by Anichiti et al. (2021) with an attempt to find tourists' experience of safety in hotels, it was found that executives of tourist accommodation sectors are required to evaluate safety needs continuously to maintain conditions and standards provided to visitors. Clifton (2019) indicates that the ability to manage safety in hospitality establishments offers experience and acts as a practice to prevent and solve the challenges that impact the hospitality fraternity. Peric et al. (2018) contend that traveller safety is one of the key aspects related to tourist experience, particularly for attractions such as sports events where sports travellers are quick to detect safety concerns when compared with non-sports travellers.

In the study on fear of crime amongst British holiday markers by Mawby et al. (2000), respondents were asked to reveal their experiences of crime during the vacation and their view of safety. In their response, harassment was rated amongst the highest experiences by tourists. Laily et al. (2020) have identified safety as one of the five factors, besides location, services and facilities, environment and ambiance, by tourists at the end of the trip evaluation of tourist experience. Lee (2015) indicates that tourist experience is influenced by safety and sustainability as one of the three (e.g. information services, recreation facilities) factors at the destination. Therefore, Le et al. (2020) propose that security can be enhanced not only to ensure better safety but also to increase tourist satisfaction.

Against this background, the study aims to determine the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience to investigate the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and tourist attractions in Lesotho.

3 Methodology

To achieve the objective of this paper, researchers followed qualitative directed-summative content analysis technique to interpret meaning from the content of the text data (62 published research reports), hence adhering to the interpretive paradigm (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005), and applied content analysis as an analytical approach to produce results and put them into context (White & Marsh, 2006). Adopting the directed approach, researchers started analysis with theory from published research reports on Scopus using tourist safety and tourist experience as guidance for initial code (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Assuming summative design, researchers applied content analysis to count and compare content to interpret underlying context (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Based on all these articles, the researchers declare that the selected articles are motivated by the article's contents' relevancy and accessibility (content validity). To do this, the researchers firstly wrote the paper and then afterwards compiled the articles' statistics in a table. Researchers, therefore, pronounce that selection was not motivated by any act of biases and any act of discrimination or any sought of continent preferences.

4 Results

The findings show that there is theoretical support for the relationship between safety and tourist experience to investigate the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho. Table 1 illustrates the studies in support of this theoretical relationship.

Table 1 above contains information supporting the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience. Supporting such aforementioned correlation, Vitouladiti (2014) postulates that the development of the management of natural environment and safety leads to improvement of the inclusive gained experience. Xie et al. (2021) state that safety for tourists at places visited is essential to their enjoyment and experiences. Wan (2017) indicates that at some stage in travel, unsafe feelings and experiences reduce tourists' positive temperament and wish to participate in tourism activities and destroy the quality of their travel experience. Anichiti et al. (2021) postulate that the reliable methods adopted by hotels to ensure the safety of guests have an affirmative influence on the societies residing in geographic areas where hotels are located. Henceforward, tourists may have pleasurable experiences when staying in the area. Peric et al. (2018) assert that safety and security are shown to be significant aspects of the tourist experience and a complete prerequisite for positive tourist management.

In addition to the findings from Tables 1 and 2 shows the 62 studies (conducted in different continents) that the researchers reviewed.

As shown in Table 2, of the 62 studies that were reviewed following the Scopus search, 29 (47.8%) were conducted in Europe and 16 (25.8%) were conducted in Asia.

Table 1 Studies showing the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience

Researcher	Segment	Findings	Mean/Chi-square
Vitouladiti (2014)	Destination image marketing in tourism and tour operating	Safety leads to improvement of general attained experience	$n = 376$; 3.80 ($a = 0{,}05$)
Anichiti et al. (2021)	Safety and security in hotels	Reliable methods adopted by hotels to ensure the safety of guests correspondingly have an affirmative influence on the societies which are geographic areas where hotels are established; henceforward, tourists may like pleasurable experiences when staying in the area	$p = 0.9605$
Xie et al. (2021)	Travel research	Safety for tourists at places visited is essential to their enjoyment and experiences	$n = 1{,}830$ $p = 0.362 > 0.05$) $p < 0.01$
Wan (2017)	Travel safety	Factors (safety seekers, safety balanced, risk-takers) show diverse safety attitudes towards various aspects of the travel experience	$n = 535$ ($p > 0.001$)
Peric et al. (2018)	Event sport tourism	Safety has to be a component of customer value (e.g. experience)	Mean = 4.16

Source (Adapted from: Vitouladiti, 2014; Wan, 2017; Peric et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2021; Anichiti et al., 2021)

From North America, 12 (19.4%) studies were relevant to support the investigation of the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experiences. From Africa, 2 (3.2%) studies were reviewed, which is similar to the number of relevant studies from South America. Finally, only 1 (1.6%) study that was conducted in Oceania was reviewed. From the literature, the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience is supported. A study in this context has not been done in Lesotho; hence, the present study seeks to find the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience.

Based on the discussion of findings, the following theoretical framework is proposed in Fig. 1.

Table 2 Systematic literature review of studies related to tourist safety and tourist experience

Continents	Asia	Africa	Europe	North America	South America	Oceania
Authors	Alawi et al. (2018), Albattat and Romli, (2017); Chen et al., (2020); Cheng et al., (2022); Tegar and Gurning (2018); Mohammed et al., (2020); Hsieh and Chuang (2020) Hsieh and Shannon (2005); Laily et al., (2020); Lee (2015); Mohamad et al., (2020); Mura (2010); Mohammed et al., (2020); Tegar and Gurning (2018); Xie et al., (2021); Werner and Ye (2020)	Starmer-Smith (2008); Smartraveller (2021)	Anichiti et al., (2021); Barbosa et al., (2021); Beard and Russ (2017); Bladen et al., (2017); Brownell (2008); Carballo et al., (2015); Clifton, (2019); Cutler and Carmichael (2010); Dashper et al., ed(s). (2021); Gursoy et al., (2021); Edgell et al., (2008); Varna University of Management (2021); Government of United Kingdom (2022); Ferrari (2020) Ingram et al., (2017) Mawby et al., (2000); Nadda et al., (2020) Peric et al., (2018); Perić et al., (2016); Rivera (2013) Saner et al., (2015) Soria (2016); Sotiriadis and Gursoy (2016); UNWTO (2017) Vergopoulos (2016) Yeoman et al., (2015) Yeoman et al., (2004); Yeoman (2012); Vitouladiti (2014)	McGee (2017) Fusté and Jiménez (2015); Hernández et al., (2015) Lashley (2017); Le et al., (2020); Mody et al., (2017); Parsons et al., (2018); Rutley (1997); Tarlow (2002); United States Bureau of Labour Standards (1962); White and Marsh (2006); Wan (2017)	Matovelle and Baez (2018); Sernatur (2016)	Scott and Dung (2017)

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Continents	Asia	Africa	Europe	North America	South America	Oceania
No. of articles	16	2	29	12	2	1

Source (Authors own contribution)

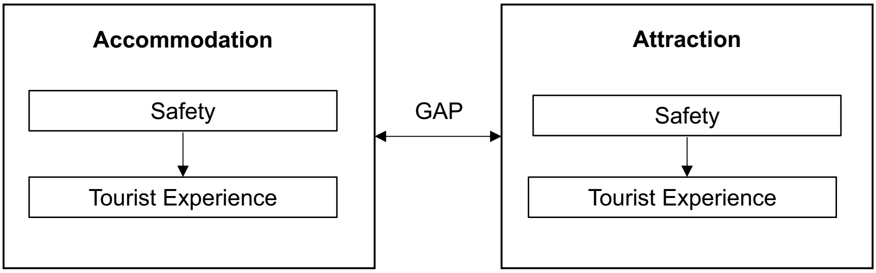


Fig. 1 Theoretical model of the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience in measuring the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attraction attractions. *Source* (Author's own compilation).

5 Conclusion

This paper focused on content analysis to determine the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience to investigate the gap between tourist experiences at accommodation establishments and attractions in Lesotho. The findings of this paper found that there is theoretical support to investigate the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience to be further explored in a developing tourism destination such as Lesotho. This paper is significant to managers of accommodation establishments and tourist attractions to strategically plan and develop the safety measures to be implemented to improve experiences offered to tourists during their visits to accommodation establishments and attractions.

This paper followed qualitative content analysis; further research is encouraged to use quantitative research methods and adopt surveys to collect primary data to run statistical analysis to validate the relationship between tourist safety and tourist experience. By so doing, future research can generalise quantitative findings to the whole population from which the study sample is drawn.

Acknowledgements Authors would like to sincerely thank the University of South Africa for its financial support.

References

Alawi, G.M., Jamjoom H., & Samir, H. (2018). Enhancing the cultural tourism experience: the case of historical old Jeddah. DOI: https://doi.org/10.2495/IHA180041. *Conference: ISLAMIC HERITAGE* 2018 At: https://www.witpress.com/elibrary/wit-transactions-on-the-built-environment/177/36542

Albattat, A., & Romli, S. R. M. (2017). Determining visitors' repetition by using SERVQUAL dimensions in attraction parks: A Case from Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. *International Journal of Applied Business and Economic Research, 15*, 351–372.

Anichiti, A., Dragolea, L.-L., Tacu Hârsan, G.-D., Haller, A.-P., & Butnaru, G. I. (2021). Aspects Regarding Safety and Security in Hotels: Romanian Experience. *Information*, 12(44). Available at: https://doi.org/ https://doi.org/10.3390/info12010044

Barbosa, B., Santos, C., & Santos, M. (2021). How prospective international retired migrants use tourism for decision making. *Tourism, 69*(4), 494–504.

Beard, C., & Russ, W. (2017). Event evaluation and design: Human experience mapping. *Event Management, 21*(3), 365–374.

Bladen, C., Kennell, J., Abson, E., & Wilde, N. (2012). *Events management: An introduction* (2nd Ed). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203852972.

Bladen, C., Kennell, J., Abson, E., & Wilde, N. (2017). *Events Management: An Introduction.* Taylor and Francis.

Brownell, J. (2008). Women in hospitality management: General Managers' perceptions of factors related to career development. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 13*(2), 101–117.

Carballo, F., Moreno, S., León, C., & Ritchie, J. (2015). La creación y promoción de experiencias en un destino turístico: Un análisis de la investigación y necesidades de actuación. *Cuadernos De Turismo, 35*, 71–94.

Chen, X., Cheng, Z., & Kim, G.-B. (2020). Make it memorable: Tourism experience, fun, recommendation and revisit intentions of Chinese outbound tourists. *Sustainability, 2020*(12), 1904. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12051904

Cheng, T. M., Chen, M. T., Hong, C. Y., & Chen, T. Y. (2022). Safety first: The consequence of tourists' recreation safety climate. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 37: 100471.ISSN 2213-0780

Clifton, D. (2019). *Hospitality Security: Managing Security in Today's Hotel, Lodging, Entertainment, and Tourism Environment*. London: New York: CRC Press: Taylor & Francis Group.

Cutler, S. Q., & Carmichael, B. A. (2010). The dimensions of the tourist experience. *In book: The Experience of Tourism and Leisure: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives. Editors: M. Morgan, P. Lugosi, B. Ritchie. Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(3), 1205–1206. Channel View Publications. DOI: https://doi.org/10.21832/9781845411503-004

Damster, G., & Tassiopoulos, D. (Eds.) (2005). *Event management: A professional and developmental approach* (2nd Ed). Lansdowne; India: Juta and Company Ltd.

Dashper, K., Helgadottir, G., & Sigurdardottir, I. ed(s). (2021). *Humans Horses and Events Management*. CABI Publishing. ISBN 9781789242751

Edgell, S. D. L., Allen, M. D., Smith, G., & Swanson, J. R. (2008). *Tourism policy and planning: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow*. Routledge.

Ferrari, F. (2020). Key drivers of tourism experience. *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism Experience Management and Marketing. Editor: S. K. Dixit.* (Abingdon: Routledge, 27 May 2020). (accessed 12 Feb 2022), Routledge Handbooks Online.

Fusté, F. F., & Jiménez, N. C. (2015). La Experiencia Turística y su Crítica Intercultural. *Turismo Em Análise, 26*(4), 843–858.

Fuste, F. F., & Nava, J. C. (2015). The tourist experience and its cultural critique. *The SAGE International Encyclopedia of Travel and Tourism, 26*(4), 843–858.

Government of United Kingdom, (2022). Foreign travel advice to Lesotho: Safety and security. Accessed on: (10 February 2022). Available at: https://www.gov.uk/foreign-travel-advice/lesotho/safety-and-security

Gursoy, D, Sarıışık, M, Nunkoo, R., & Boğan, E. ed(s). (2021). *COVID-19 and the Hospitality and Tourism Industry: A Research Companion.* United Kingdom: Edward Elgar Publishing. ISBN-13: 978-1-80037-623-6.

Hernández, F., Vargas, J., & Aguilar, J. (2015). El efecto emocional de una experiencia turística: El mercado de artesanías de Oaxaca, Mexico. *Cathedra Et Scientia. International Journal, 1*(1), 147–154.

Hsieh, H.-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three Approaches to Qualitative Content Analysis. *Qualitative Health Research, 15*(9), 1277–1288. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305276687

Hsieh, Y.-H., & Chuang, I.-C. (2020). Evaluation of key factors for service experience: A comparison of tourism factories and international tourism hotels. *Tourism Economics: THe Business and Finance of Tourism and Recreation, 26*(3), 404–436. https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816619840099

Ingram, C., Caruana, R., & McCabe, S. (2017). PARTicipative inquiry for tourist experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 65*, 13–24.

Laily, I. L., Budi, I., Santoso, A. B., & Putra, P. K. (2020). Mining Indonesia tourism's reviews to evaluate the services through multilabel classification and LDA. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Electrical Engineering and Informatics*, 2020.

Lashley, C. (2017). Hospitality research: the story so far/ways of knowing hospitality. *In book: The Routledge Handbook of Hospitality Studies Edition: First Chapter: Chapter 1*. Oxford editors: Routledge

Le, H. B. H., Le, T. B., Le, H. C., Le, Q. H., & Ngo, C. T. (2020). Examining the structural relationships of destination image and tourist satisfaction. *Management Science Letters, 10*, 1993–2000.

Lee, C. F. (2015). Tourist satisfaction with forest recreation experience: A segment-based approach. *Anatolia, 26*, 535–548.

Matovelle, P. A. T., & Baez, S. (2018). Tourist experience measurement in Quito city. *Brazilian Journal of Tourism Research, 12*(1), 133–156.

Mawby, R. I., Brunt, P., & Hambly, Z. (2000). Fear of crime among British holidaymakers. *British Journal of Criminology, 40*, 468–479.

McGee, D. S. (2017). *An analysis of visit an analysis of visitor safety in the Natchez Trace Parkway*. University of Southern Mississippi.

Mody, M.A., Suess, C., & Lehto, X. 2017. The accommodation experiencescape: a comparative assessment of hotels and Airbnb. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(9), 2377–2404. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-09-2016-0501

Mohamad, D., Jaafar, M., & Ismail, M. M. (2020). Socio-economic carrying capacity assessment for Bukit Tinggi. *Planning Malaysia, 18*, 118–127.

Mohammed, N., Aziz, Y. A., Awang, K. W., & Samdin, Z. (2020). Influence of destination attractiveness on place satisfaction and environmentally responsible behaviour in marine parks. *Journal of Sustainability Science and Management, 15*, 52–67.

Mura, P. (2010). 'Scary...but I like it!' Young tourists' perceptions of fear on holiday. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 8(1–2), 30–49.

Nadda, V., Arnott, I., & Sealy, W. 2020. *Legal, safety, and environmental challenges for event management: emerging research and opportunities*. Publisher: IGIISBN: 1799832317, 9781799832317. London. ISBN 9781799832300

Parsons, R., Skripak, S. J., Cortes, A., Walz, A., & Walton, G. (2018). *Chapter 16 Hospitality & Tourism-Fundamentals of Business* (2nd ed.). VT Publishing.

Peric, M., Djurkin, J., & Vitezić, V. (2018). Active event sport tourism experience: The role of the natural environment, safety and security in event business models. *International Journal of Sustainable Development and Planning, 13*(5), 758–772.

Perić, M., Vitezić, V., & Mekinc, J. (2016). Conceptualising innovative business models for sustainable sport tourism. *International Journal of Sustainable Development and Planning, 11*(3), 469–482.

Rivera, M. (2013). El turismo experiencial como forma de turismo responsable e intercultural. Universidad de Córdova, Cátedra Intercultural (Eds). Jornadas sobre Investigación e Innovación para la Interculturalidad. (pp. 199–217) Córdoba, España

Rutley, J. A. (1997). *Security, IFEA 's Event Operations, 75*–83.

Saner, R., Yiu, L., & Filadoro, M. (2015). Tourism development in least developed countries: challenges and opportunities. *Published in Angelo A. Camillo (editor) "Handbook of Research* *on Global Hospitality and Tourism Management,* 13, 234–261. Hershey, Pennsylvania: IGI Global Publishers

Scott, N., & Dung, L. (2017). *Visitor experience design. literature reviews models psychology tourism tourists*. Editor(s) Scott, N., Gao Jun, Ma JianYu. DOI https://doi.org/10.1079/9781786391896.0030

Sernatur (2016). Manual de Diseño Experiencias Turísticas. Verde Ltda. Santiago, Chile. 103 p.

Smartraveller, (15 December 2021). COVID-19 AND TRAVEL Global COVID-19 Health Advisory: Lesotho. Accessed on: (10 February 2022); Available at: https://www.smartraveller.gov.au/destinations/africa/lesotho

Soria, I. D. (2016). Being a tourist is a chosen experience in a proximity destination. Tourism Geographies, Taylor & Francis (Routledge). *Proximity and Intraregional Aspects of Tourism*, 19(1): 96–117. ff10.1080/14616688.2016.1214976ff. ffhalshs-01371723f

Sotiriadis, M., & Gursoy, D. eds. (2016). Conclusions: Issues and Challenges for Managing and Marketing Tourism Experiences. *The Handbook of Managing and Marketing Tourism Experiences.* Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp. 507–528. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-78635-290-320161025

Starmer-Smith, C. (2008). *Crime puts tourists off South Africa*, Telegraph Travel, 2 February

Tarlow, P. E. (2002). *Event Risk Management and Safety*. J. Wiley Event Management Series.

Tegar, D., & Gurning, R. O. S. (2018). Development of marine and coastal tourism based on blue economy. *International Journal of Marine Engineering Innovation and Research, 2*(2), 128–132.

United States Bureau of Labour Standards, (1962). *Proceedings of the President's Conference on Occupational Safety, March 6–8, 1962, Washington, D.C. Issue 243* Washington, D.C, United States: Bulletin United States Bureau of Labour Standards.

UNWTO, (2017). *Second global report on Gastronomy, affiliate members report. Volume sixteen.* Madrid, Spain; World Tourism Organisation

Varna University of Management (2021). *European Journal of Tourism Research: Volume 28.* Bulgaria: Varna University of Management, Bulgaria

Vergopoulos, H. (2016). The tourist experience: an experience of the frameworks of the tourist experience? *Open Edition Journals of Tourism Experiences*, 10: Available at: https://journals.openedition.org/viatourism/1352

Vitouladiti, O. (2014). Combining primary destination image with acquired experience for effective marketing in tourism and tour operating. *South-Eastern Europe Journal of Economics, 1*(22), 107–133.

Wan, Z. (2017). *Modification and Validation of a Travel Safety Attitude Scale (T-SAS).* Master dissertation, The University of Guelph.

Werner, K., & Ye, D. (2020). *Events-Future, Trends, Perspectives: an international approach*, 53(1), 29–41. Publisher : utb GmbH; 1. Aufl. edition (11 May 2020)

White, M. D., & Marsh, E. (2006). Content Analysis: A Flexible Methodology. *Library Trends, 55*(1), 22–45. https://doi.org/10.1353/lib.2006.0053

Xie, C., Zhang, J., & Morrison, A. M. (2021). Developing a scale to measure tourist perceived safety. *Journal of Travel Research, 60*(6), 1232–1251. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287520946103

Yeoman, I. (2012). *2025: Tomorrow's tourism.* Channel View Publications, Bristol.

Yeoman, I., Robertson, M., Ali-Knight, J., Drummond, S., & McMahon-Beattie, U. ed(s) (2004). *Festival and events management: an international arts and cultural perspective.* Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Hheinemann.

Yeoman, I., Robertson, M., Ali-Knight, J., Drummond, S., & McMahon-Beattie, U. (2012). *Festival and Events Management.* 1st Ed. Taylor and Francis. Available at: https://www.perlego.com/book/2192408/festival-and-events-management-pdf (Accessed: 25 September 2021).

Yeoman, I., Robertson, M., McMahon-Beattie, U., Backer, E., & Smith, K. (2015). *The future of events and festival*. Routledge.

Satisfaction of Visitors with Folklore Festivals in Slovakia

Andrej Malachovský

Abstract Folklore festivals in Slovakia have a rich history and a strong tradition. They are among the most common events that began to be organized in the middle of the twentieth century. Today, selected festivals are among the most popular and most visited events in our territory, so they are an important part of the anthropogenic offer of domestic tourism. The importance of similar festivals is constantly growing because they develop culture and support artistic creation. The aim of this paper is to examine consumer behavior and product satisfaction with selected folklore festivals in Slovakia. The research sample consists of four festivals with the highest attendance. A structured questionnaire was used for data collection, which was placed on social networks. The obtained data were processed by selected methods of descriptive statistics and graphically interpreted. The results of the research indicate reserves in terms of comprehensive provision of the festival product, the aim of which is to achieve the satisfaction of visitors. We classify the product of folklore festivals among the products of cultural tourism. The main task of the festival product is to provide the event visitor with a comprehensive experience. It is also important to thoroughly secure the festival and satisfy the basic needs of the visitor.

Keywords Satisfaction · Visitors · Folklore festivals · Tourism product · Sharing economy · Online reputation management

JEL Classifications Z30 · Z32 · Z38

1 Introduction—Folklore Festivals as a Part of Cultural Tourism

Folklore festivals are an important part of cultural tourism. Their goal is the presentation of folk culture and the provision of a comprehensive experience to visitors. The quality of a folklore festival is determined by a set of services that make up the overall

A. Malachovský (✉)
Matej Bel University, Banská Bystrica, Slovak Republic
e-mail: andrej.malachovsky@umb.sk

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_37

product of the festival. Numerous folklore festivals are held every year in Slovakia, many of which have a long-standing tradition and international significance, such as Východná, Detva, Myjava, and Terchová. Some festivals have a regional character, e.g., Hontian parade in Hrušov, Gemer folk festival in Rejdová, national festivals, e.g., Hungarian nationality in Gombasek, Ruthenian and Ukrainian nationality in Svidník, Roma nationality—Roma heart in Humenno. The biggest event is the Days of Traditional Culture, which take place in summer. We will pay attention to selected traditional folklore festivals with high attendance, we will point out the creation of their products, and at the end, we examine the satisfaction of their visitors.

2 Literature Review—the Product of the Folklore Festival and Its Implementation

The tourism product represents the benefit resulting from the consumption of goods and services offered by the destination (primary supply carrier) and produced by businesses and organizations in it (secondary supply carriers). Alves et al. (2010) characterize the product of cultural tourism as a set of elements that satisfy people's spiritual needs, such as knowledge, education, entertainment, and distraction. The basic element of any cultural tourism product is its attractiveness, which attracts the attention of visitors.

Folklore festivals are a component of the anthropogenic offer of tourism, that is, they are created by human activity. Becker et al. (2012) emphasize that folklore festivals are closely connected with a certain region, and their culture is based on a certain tradition. Even Birkland and Warnemert (2017) emphasize the existence of cultural–historical conditions in a given environment, especially the occurrence of spiritual folklore (songs, customs, traditions) and material folklore (clothes, dwellings, traditional artistic production).

In connection with the preparation and implementation of the product of the folklore festival, it is necessary to define the interested entities. According to Frost (2015), these are organizers, artists and presenters, service providers including their employees (catering services, transport services, emergency medical services, security services, technology distributors, etc.), organizers, and volunteers. Baumgartner et al. (2006) present a complex concept of the management of organized events.

The most important stage of product preparation is the creation of the festival program, which according to Mouratidis et al. (2020) is the most important aspect of achieving visitor satisfaction. The organizers of the festival should therefore prepare a high-quality and unique program, which is the basis for satisfying the needs and expectations of visitors. An important role is also played by the moderators of the program, who, according to Mair and Weber (2019), are supposed to provide festival visitors with information about its history and tradition to prove its specific value compared to other festivals.

The main program of the folklore festival consists of stage programs that include artistic performances by performers, musicians, and dancers (Getz, 2007). Performances are usually of a singing, musical, and dramatic nature. In general, we can say that it is a tour of traditional folk culture and its folklore expression. The creation of the festival program is done well in advance, usually several months before the event Frost (2015). The dramaturgical council participates in this, creating the festival's concept and determining its artistic direction in the long term. It is made up of ethnologists, choreographers, dramaturgs, and directors (Mouratidis et al., 2020). Their work is followed by the program committee, which creates the structure and schedule of the program, is responsible for professional and artistic training, and selects and invites the authors of individual programs (DeLeo et al., 2021). Folk culture and folklore experts are represented in the program committee. The final preparation and implementation of the program are in charge of the program board, whose members, in addition to the program committee, are also the authors of individual programs, lecturers, technical staff, stage technicians, and representatives of television and radio (Jarábková, 2019). The final preparations of the program take place several days before the start of the event and, according to Birkland (1997), include work team meetings, technical and time trials, as well as performer training and staff training.

Security is in charge of a team created by the main organizer—the organizing committee or preparatory staff. Organizers must ensure that visitors' basic needs are met. According to Formica and Uysal (1996), it is necessary to ensure first-aid services, communication services, personal hygiene equipment, cleanliness and order, the safety of all participants and train volunteers at the event. It is important to prepare the premises, arrange them, and decorate them in such a way that they correspond to the theme of the event and create a natural atmosphere (Skoultsos & Tsartas, 2010). Folklore festivals are organized in open outdoor areas that are surrounded by the natural environment. The cultural program takes place in amphitheatres. According to Marčeková et al. (2021), accessibility by public transport and a sufficient number of parking spaces near the campus are also important. Festival visitors prefer alternative ways of buying tickets. Mohanty et al. (2021) apply two methods of ticket sales. Festivals can use sales through a website or professional agencies. Tickets are distributed to customers by mail or e-mail.

Folklore festivals are characterized by the fact that they include local sales markets. The range of goods is varied. In addition to refreshments, vendors mainly offer classic fair goods such as souvenirs, clothes, and children's toys, but also traditional foods from the region, wooden products, folk clothes and accessories (Pearlman & Mollere, 2009). Specific products are costumes and their parts, as well as folk musical instruments (Mair & Weber, 2019). Some products are made by manufacturers right on the spot (musical instruments, costumes, leather products, etc.), and for some visitors, it is an unusual experience (Jarábková, 2018).

3 Methodology

The goal of the paper is to examine consumer behavior and visitor satisfaction with the product of selected folklore festivals in Slovakia.

The object of investigation is selected folklore festivals in Východná, Terchová, and Detva with a long tradition, as well as a younger festival in Hrušov. The folklore festival in Východná has been organized since 1953 and is the oldest in Slovakia. It is held annually on the first weekend of July and is attended by approximately 30,000 paying visitors. Jánošík Days have been held in Terchová since 1963. Since 1991, it has an international character. The festival takes place every year in the last week of July, lasts 4–5 days, and is visited by approximately 60,000 visitors. Folklore festivals under Poľana in Detva have been held every second weekend of July since 1966. Approximately 50,000 visitors visit the festival every year. The Hontian parade festival in Hrušov has been held since 1990 on the second weekend of August, and approximately 14,000 visitors visit the festival annually.

The subject of research is the consumer behavior of visitors and their satisfaction with the product of folklore festivals. We obtained the necessary data through a primary survey in 2021 and 2022. The data collection tool was a questionnaire that we distributed through social networks. The condition for filling out the questionnaire was at least one participation in the selected folklore festival. The questionnaire contained 15 closed questions with the possibility of choosing one or more answers. In the questionnaire, we identified the addressed persons and investigated their consumer behavior as festival visitors and the circumstances under which they traveled and spent time at the festival, and then, we ascertained their satisfaction with the product of the selected folklore festival. We received 155 completed questionnaires, which were completed by 73% women and 27% men. In terms of age, the most represented age category was 21–35 years (44%), 51–65 years (15%), and young people under 20 (14%). Most festival visitors had secondary education (49%) and a university education (47%). In terms of economic activity, the majority were economically active persons (48%), students (32%), and pensioners (8%). Due to the small research sample, the results of the survey are indicative and refer only to the festivals in the research sample.

We processed the data obtained from the survey using selected methods of descriptive statistics and interpreted them graphically.

4 Results

In the survey, we first focused on the consumer behavior of visitors to selected folklore festivals, and then, we also examined satisfaction with the product of folklore festivals.

4.1 Consumer Behavior of Visitors to Folklore Festivals

The most interviewed visitors to folklore festivals (35%) tend to spend one day at the event. We believe that these are visitors from the near and wider area who can easily get to their homes. About 19% of respondents participate in the festival for two days. About a third of the respondents (32%) will spend three days at the festival; it means the entire festival weekend. Only 3% of respondents stay at the festival for four or more days. These are visitors to the festival in Východná, which usually lasts four days. Up to 11% of visitors spend only a few hours at the festival. We assume that these are residents who will watch a certain part of the program, meet their families, and buy some products. The survey showed that approximately half of the respondents (46%) spend several hours to one day at festivals. On the contrary, the other half (54%) spend more days at the festival and become potential customers of accommodation facilities, respectively, private accommodation.

Up to 92% of the interviewed visitors to folklore festivals consider their participation or organizing the stay themselves. Only 8% of respondents use the services of an organization. Festival visitors in Východná used the services of other organizations to the greatest extent and festival visitors in Detva the least.

For transportation to the festival site, visitors most often use a car (75%) and public transport (32%). A high proportion of the approached visitors, who arrive by car, also have requirements for parking options.

The services of temporary accommodation during festivals are used by the visitors with a longer stay than one day, of which 34% most often use the services offered by the event organizers in a reserved part of the area, where they sleep in tents, cars, and caravans. This way of spending the night is especially popular with young people with a lower income. About a quarter of the respondents (24%) will stay with their friends and acquaintances during the festival. The services of the public network of accommodation facilities are used by 42% of the festival visitors.

Festival visitors use the catering services (72%) offered by outpatient facilities on the event premises. More than half of the respondents (53%) confirmed that they also use the services of permanent hospitality facilities in the destination. The most visited are restaurants (33%) and inns (19%). Only 3% of the respondents said that they do not use catering services during their participation in the festival.

More than half of festival visitors (55%) confirmed that they also use other tourism services. However, a large group of respondents (45%) stated that they are not interested in similar services and focus exclusively on the festival program.

4.2 Visitors' Satisfaction with the Product of Folklore Festivals

From the factors influencing the satisfaction of visitors with the product of folklore festivals, we focused on five elements, namely the cultural program, organizational security of the festival, shopping opportunities, catering, and accommodation services. We monitored a total of 33 signs of satisfaction.

The cultural program is the main goal of participation in the folklore festival and a decisive factor influencing the satisfaction of visitors. Up to 80% of the interviewed visitors consider the festival program to be the most important element of the festival offer. Only 7% of respondents consider the organizational security of the festival to be the most important. Up to half of the interviewed festival visitors said that shopping opportunities are the least important. It turned out that a fifth of visitors consider additional attractions as the least important, as well as the quality of other services (Chart 1).

At the beginning of the satisfaction evaluation, the interviewed persons chose a festival that they can evaluate based on their previous participation. Individual characteristics were evaluated on a scale from 1 to 5, with one being an excellent grade and five being inadequate. Individual signs were made up of five investigated factors.

Average satisfaction with the festival program reached 80%. Festival visitors were most satisfied with the experience of the program, which was described as excellent or very good by 92% of the interviewed visitors (Chart 2).

The addressed visitors expressed great satisfaction with the interestingness and diversity of the program. Visitors to the festival in Východná (12%) were dissatisfied with the observance of customs and traditions.

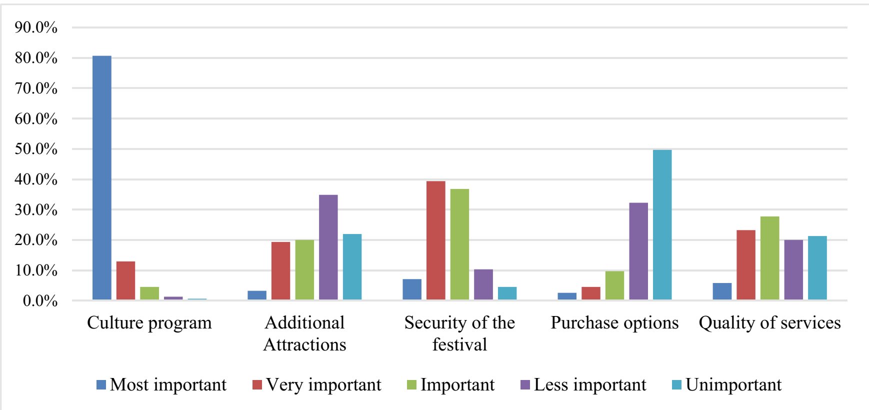


Chart 1 Selected factors of satisfaction of visitors to folklore festivals. *Source* Own processing (2022)

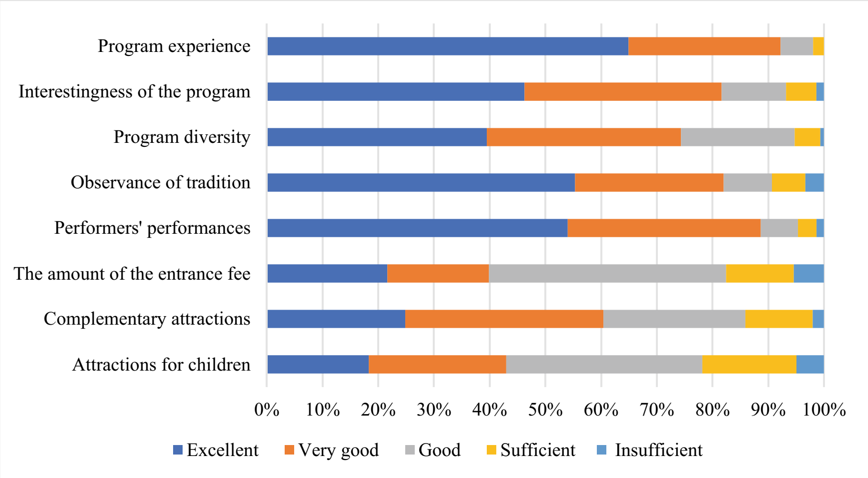


Chart 2 Visitors' satisfaction with the cultural program. *Source* Own processing (2022)

The visitors expressed great satisfaction with the interestingness and diversity of the program. Visitors to the festival in Východná (12%) were dissatisfied with the observance of customs and traditions. Almost no visitors were dissatisfied with the artistic performances of the performers. On the contrary, up to 89% of those interviewed praised their performances, which is a satisfaction for the artists and authors of the program. Festival visitors expressed the greatest dissatisfaction with the prices of tickets for performances. Only 40% of visitors were satisfied with the prices, and up to 43% think that the entrance fee could have been lower, while 18% consider the ticket prices too high. Festival visitors in Východná were the most dissatisfied with the admission prices, with up to 16% of them being absolutely dissatisfied. Approximately 60% of the interviewed visitors were satisfied with the accompanying events (exhibitions, festivities, etc.). The most satisfied were visitors to the Hontian parade (53%). This rating was to be expected, as the festival is largely based on accompanying events. We saw a higher level of dissatisfaction with children's attractions, as more than a third of visitors (35%) think that they should have been better and 22% think that they should be much better. It seems that they are the least able to entertain children's visitors in Detva, where only 19% of the interviewed visitors described the children's attractions as excellent and 6% of them as insufficient.

In the survey, we also paid attention to the satisfaction of visitors with the organizational security of festivals (Chart 3).

At organized events, it is important how safe the participants feel at the event. About 67% of the visitors interviewed felt safe at the festival, and a third felt relatively safe, but would still welcome some improvements. Only half of the visitors (52%) said that the premises are clean and orderly, and the other half (48%) considered cleanliness and order to be poorly managed. The biggest dissatisfaction was expressed by visitors to the festival in Detva. Almost no one criticized the arrangement and

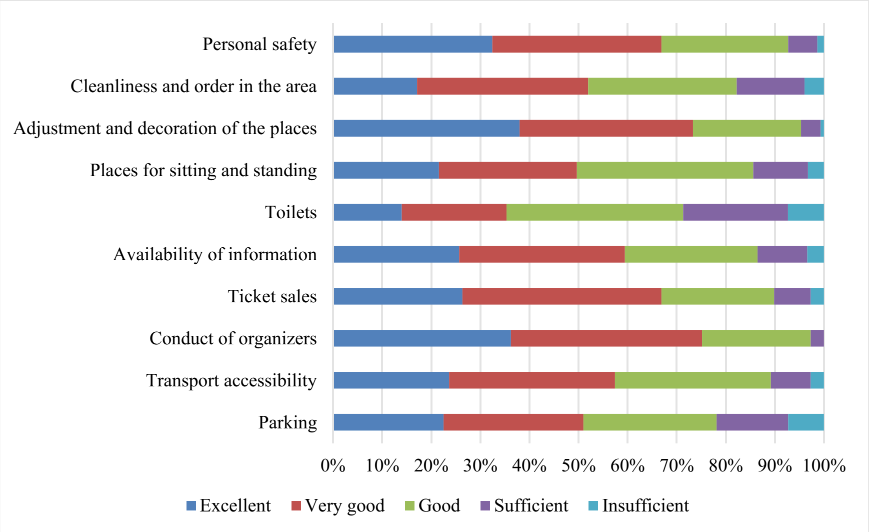


Chart 3 Visitors' satisfaction with festival security. *Source* Own processing (2022)

decoration of the grounds, and the majority of the visitors who were contacted rated this item positively. Folklore festivals are known for not providing much comfort for seated spectators, and there are usually only wooden benches in the amphitheatres.

This fact does not bother the visitors, because only 3% of the respondents rated the places for sitting and standing as insufficient, and half were satisfied. Festival visitors expressed high dissatisfaction with hygiene facilities. More than 7% of the interviewed visitors assessed their condition as insufficient and 21% as only sufficient. The most satisfied were the visitors to the festival in Východná, and the least satisfied were the visitors to the festival in Detva, where new sanitary facilities were built only recently. From this, we conclude that the negative reactions are caused by their cleanliness and maintenance. The majority of respondents were satisfied with the availability of information about the festival, slight dissatisfaction was expressed by visitors to the Hontian parade, and a quarter of whom (24%) gave this sign the two worst marks. The festival in Hrušov does not have its website. Ticket sales are well managed at festivals, as 67% of the visitors contacted were satisfied and only 10% were dissatisfied. Visitors of the festivals were most satisfied with the behavior of the organizers, whose work was not rated poorly by anyone. About 57% of visitors were satisfied with transport accessibility and 11% expressed dissatisfaction. Only half (51%) of the respondents were satisfied with parking on campuses, and almost 22% consider the parking options unsatisfactory. At the same time, the most completely dissatisfied visitors were at the festival in Východná (17%) and Terchová (13%).

Visitors in folklore festivals consider shopping opportunities to be the least important in terms of their satisfaction. However, if traders at the festival offer low-quality

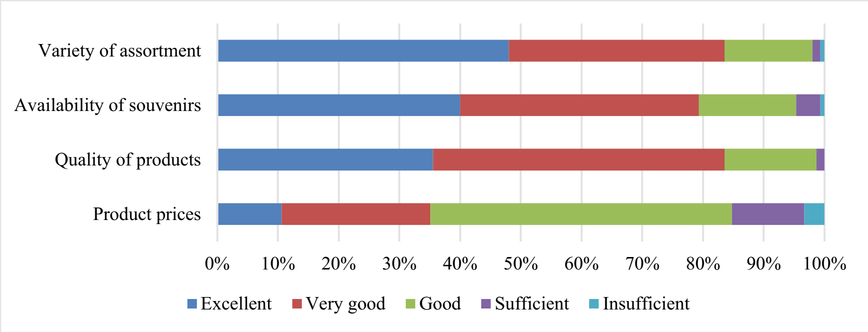


Chart 4 Visitors' satisfaction with shopping options. *Source* Own processing (2022)

products at too high prices or inappropriate souvenirs, this can be reflected in the level of satisfaction of visitors or even spoil the final impression of the event (Chart 4).

Most of the approached festival visitors (84%) were satisfied with the offered assortment. The vast majority of visitors (79%) were satisfied even with a suitable offer of souvenirs, and only a few respondents commented negatively on this sign. The most satisfied were the visitors to the festival in Detva. We were surprised by the evaluation of the quality of the products, as up to 84% of festival visitors gave them an excellent or very good mark. We recorded the lowest level of satisfaction when evaluating product prices, as only 35% of respondents were satisfied with product prices. At the same time, up to half (50%) think that the products should be a little cheaper, and 15% of the respondents consider the prices very high. According to the interviewed visitors, the most expensive products and souvenirs are at the festival in Východná.

Subsequently, we focused on researching the satisfaction of visitors to folklore festivals with catering and accommodation services. Catering service providers offer a diverse range of food and drinks, from fast food to specialties of regional gastronomy. This fact was also confirmed in our survey. Seventy-three % of the respondents were satisfied with the breadth of the assortment. Sixty-five % rated the quality of the food and drinks offered as excellent or very good, and only 5% of respondents expressed slight dissatisfaction. Only 33% of respondents were satisfied with the price of catering services, 44% consider the prices to be reasonable, and 23% think that the prices of food and drinks are high. Visitors to the festivals in Detva and Terchová expressed slight dissatisfaction with the prices. Sixty-four % of respondents were satisfied with the behavior of service providers. Only 14% of the respondents rated the places for sitting and standing during refreshments as excellent, while 17% as only sufficient and 9% as insufficient (Chart 5).

The festival visitors in Terchová expressed the greatest satisfaction with the places to sit and stand when providing catering services (63%), and the festival visitors in Východná (20%) expressed the greatest dissatisfaction. The creation of places for sitting and standing when providing catering services is mostly the responsibility of

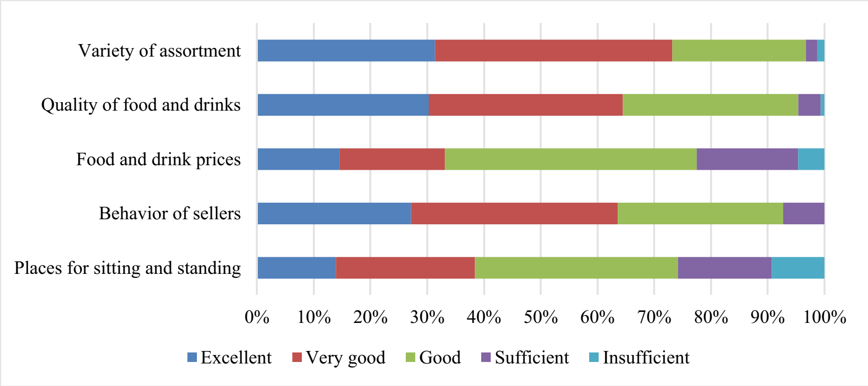


Chart 5 Visitors' satisfaction with catering services. *Source* Own processing (2022)

festival organizers; therefore, they should pay attention to their sufficiency and the proper comfort of customers.

In the future, gastronomy and regional gastronomy will play an increasingly important role in the offer of festivals. Visitors demand high-quality catering services and a competitive gastronomy product.

The organizers of folklore festivals also pay attention to the provision of temporary accommodation services. These are usually camping options and private accommodation. Since the majority of festival visitors are transported to their destination by their own transport, some also sleep in their own cars (Chart 6).

We were also interested in the traffic accessibility of the destination. Almost 67% of the respondents were satisfied with the transport accessibility. Similarly, the visitors evaluated the technical and material equipment of the premises, while the

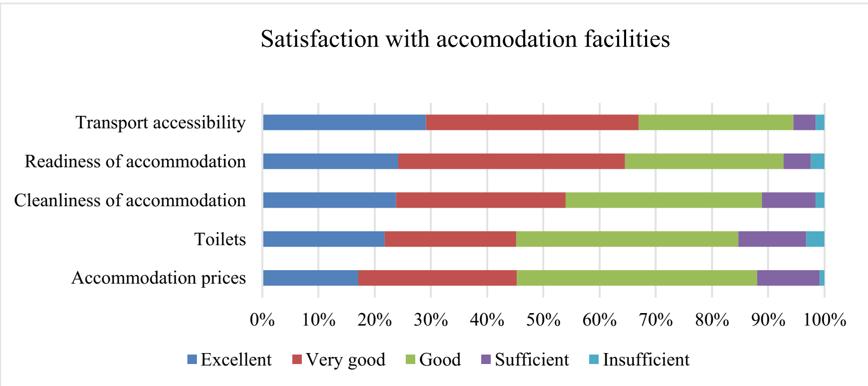


Chart 6 Visitors' satisfaction with accommodation services. *Source* Own processing (2022)

best-prepared premises were at the festival in Terchová, where up to 75% of visitors were satisfied. More than half of the respondents (54%) were satisfied with the cleanliness of the premises, while more than a third (35%) think that the cleanliness of the premises is average, and 11% of the respondents consider the premises to be insufficiently clean. We noted a higher level of dissatisfaction in the case of hygiene facilities, in which more than 15% of respondents evaluated with the two worst marks, 40% perceived the condition of the facilities as acceptable, and 45% were satisfied. The visitors in Detva were the most dissatisfied with the accommodation facilities' hygiene facilities. We recorded interesting results in the case of the price of accommodation. Almost no one was dissatisfied with the accommodation prices, but at the same time, only 17% of the respondents considered them to be excellent. At the festival in Východná, not one of the people interviewed rated the prices for accommodation as excellent. From this, we conclude that the prices for accommodation there seem high to visitors.

After examining the satisfaction of visitors at selected folklore festivals, we processed the collective assessment in Table 1. We compared the satisfaction of visitors with five factors and 33 signs of the quality of folklore festivals, which contain a summary measure of satisfaction and which were evaluated by the addressed festival visitors. We then calculated the overall average satisfaction of visitors to individual festivals.

Visitors to the festival in Hrušov were most satisfied with the cultural program (85.7%). Festival visitors in Terchová (84.0%) and Detva (81.1%) were also satisfied with this factor. The least satisfied were the visitors in Východná (74.8%), who negatively evaluated ticket prices and adherence to tradition. The visitors in Hrušov (79.6%) were again most satisfied with the organizational security of the festival. Satisfaction in the case of other festivals was lower, especially in Detva (71.0%), where visitors were mainly disturbed by the mess in the area, the poor state of sanitary facilities or the low comfort of places for sitting and standing in the case of catering establishments. In the case of purchasing options, the satisfaction rate was

Table 1 Comparison of the satisfaction of visitors to selected festivals (in %)

Factor/festival	Folklore festival Východná	Jánošík days in Terchová	Folklore festival in Detva	Hontian parade in Hrušov
Culture program	74.8	84.0	81.1	85.7
Security of the festival	72.7	71.9	71.0	79.6
Shopping options	73.3	85.1	85.4	85.3
Catering services	66.9	78.1	68.3	81.2
Accommodation services	64.3	83.3	71.1	76.3
Overall satisfaction	70.4	80.5	75.4	81.6

Source Own processing (2022)

high (around 85%) at the festivals in Detva, Hrušov, and Terchová, but less so in Východná (73.3%). Participants of the festival in Východná (66.9%) were the least satisfied with the catering services, who did not particularly like the quality of the food and drinks offered, the prices, but also the places intended for consumption. In this group of factors, the participants of the festival in Hrušov (81.2%) showed a high level of satisfaction, which is known for offering regional gastronomic specialties directly from the courtyards. Visitors to the festival in Terchová were most satisfied with the accommodation services (83.3%), especially with the cleanliness and readiness of the premises. Visitors in Východná (64.3%) were the least satisfied with this group of factors.

In terms of overall average satisfaction, the most satisfied were visitors to the Hontian parade in Hrušov, followed by visitors to the Jánošík Days in Terchová, the Folklore Festival under Poľana in Detva and the Folklore Festival in Východná.

We believe that the lower level of satisfaction with the product of folklore festivals is mainly a consequence of repeated visits, visitors' experiences, and their high expectations. The high demands of visitors on the quality of the festival product also depend on the long-term tradition and popularity of the festival. At the same time, visitors are sensitive to even small flaws that cause expressions of dissatisfaction. They also react sensitively to the entrance fee and the prices of the local products offered.

A folklore festival and every large organized event presuppose a perfect preparation and elaborate solution of all components of the festival product, not only respecting the elements of folk culture, in which all interested partners should participate, not only the organizers of the event.

When participating in folklore festivals, more than 68% of surveyed visitors use accommodation with the help of the sharing economy. It is mostly private accommodation that is offered on smaller advertising portals. Satisfaction with this type of accommodation exceeds 83%. There are only minor flaws. Respondents appreciate the excellent price-quality ratio. At the same time, they expressed their satisfaction with the quality of food and the opportunity to help the local population. They shared this satisfaction as part of online reputation management on the websites of folklore festivals, towns, municipalities, and internet portals focused on accommodation options for the local population. From the point of view of online reputation management of festivals, the possibility of consuming high-quality local and regional specialties is very popular. This is a significant source of competitive advantage for Slovak, and especially, Czech visitors.

5 Conclusion

The goal of the state was to examine consumer behavior and visitor satisfaction with the product of selected folklore festivals. We included famous folklore festivals in Východná, Terchová, Detva, and Hrušov in the research sample, at which we conducted a questionnaire survey in 2020 and 2021 to determine the consumer behavior of visitors and their satisfaction with the festival product. Each of the festivals has its own tradition and particularities regarding, above all, the festival program. The visitors expressed the greatest satisfaction with the cultural program and the least with the organizational security of festivals and catering options. This means that festival organizers must pay increased attention to all components of the festival product, including supporting activities, such as care for the quality of food, the level of hygiene facilities, monitoring the price level of the services offered and information about accommodation options. Folklore festivals are a dynamic element of the offer of traditional culture with a high potential for competitiveness in the tourism market.

Acknowledgements This article was created with the grant support of the VEGA agency within the project VEGA 1/0368/20 Sharing economy as an opportunity for sustainable and competitive development of tourist destinations in Slovakia.

References

Alves, H. B., Campon Cerro, A. C., & Martins, A. F. (2010). Impacts of small tourism events on rural places. *Journal of Place Management Development, 3*, 22–37.

Baumgartner, F. R., Green-Pedersen, C., & Jones, B. (2006). Comparative studies of policy agendas. *Journal of European Public Policy, 13*(7), 959–974. https://doi.org/10.1080/13501760600923805

Becker, H., Iter, D., Naaman, M., & Gravano, L. (2012). Identifying content for planned events across social media sites. In *Proceedings from WSDM '12: The Fifth ACM International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining* (pp. 533–542). ACM.

Birkland, T. A. (1997). *After disaster: Agenda-setting, public policy and focusing events*. Georgetown University Press.

Birkland, T. A., & Warnemert, M. K. (2017). Focusing events, risk, and regulation. In E. J. Balleisen (Ed.), *Policy shock* (pp. 107–128). Cambridge University Press.

DeLeo, R. A., Taylor, C., Crow, D. A., & Birkland, T. A. (2021). During disaster: Refining the concept of focusing events to better explain long-duration crises. *International Review of Public Policy, 3*(1), 5–28. https://doi.org/10.4000/irpp.1868

Formica, S., & Uysal, M. (1996). A market segmentation of festival visitors: Umbria Jazz Festival in Italy. *Festival Management & Event Tourism, 3*, 175–182.

Frost, N. (2015). Anthropology and festivals: Festival ecologies. *Ethnos Journal of Anthropology, 81*(4), 569–583. https://doi.org/10.1080/00141844.2014.989875

Getz, D. (2007). *Event studies: Theory, research and policy for planned events*. Elsevier. Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management, 29*(3), 403–428.

Jarábková, J. 2018. Vidiecky cestovný ruch jedným ťahom. 1. vyd. Nitra : Slovenská poľnohospodárska univerzita. 2018. 130 s. ISBN 978-80-552-1797-0.

Jarábková, J. 2019. Nástroje podpory zvyšovania kvality ubytovacích služieb na Vidieku (na príklade značky kvality – certifikované ubytovanie na vidieku). In *Aktuální problemy cestovního ruchu.* Jihlava: Vysoká škola polytechnická, 2019, s. 124–131. ISBN 978-80-88064-43-5.

Mair, J., & Weber, K. (2019). Events and festival research: A review and research directions. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management, 10*(3), 209–216.

Marčeková, R., Šebová, Ľ., Pompurová, K., & Šimočková, I. (2021). Tourism transportation services provided on the principle of sharing economy. In V. Katsoni, C.V. Zyl (Eds.), *Culture and tourism* *in a smart, globalized, and sustainable world,* Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics (pp. 231–250). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-72469-6_15

Mohanty, P., Dhoundiyal, H., & Choudhury, R. (2021). [Preprint] Events tourism in the eye of the COVID-19 storm: Impacts and implications. In S. Arora & A. Sharma (Eds.), *Event tourism in Asian countries: Challenges and prospects.*

Mouratidis, K., Doumi, M., Thanopoulos, V. (2020). Spectators' satisfaction of a small-scale sport event and intention to re-visit the sport event's destination. In V. Katsoni & T. Spyriadis (Eds.), *Cultural and Tourism Innovation in the Digital Era. Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics*. Springer, Cham.

Pearlman, D., & Mollere, L. (2009). Meetings, incentive, convention, and exhibition evaluation practices: An exploratory study among destination marketing organizations. *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism,* 14–165.

Skoultsos, S., & Tsartas, P. (2010). Young attendees' motivation: The case of Rockwave festival in Athens. *4th Global Events Congress.*

The Benefits of Tourism and Travel to the Tourist's Well-Being: A Conceptual Discussion

John Ebejer

Abstract Daily hassles and negative life events are common occurrences for many people. Stressors, such as work-related problems, are detrimental to a person's well-being and can be detrimental to health, especially if they persist over a long period of time. Many people resort to tourism to restore their mental and physical well-being. Restoration enables people to recover from mental fatigue and helps them meet the demands of everyday life. At the destination, tourists engage in activities that enable them to put aside thoughts about their work and other personal concerns. This paper explores how the engagement with different elements of the destination enables tourists to enhance their physiological and psychological well-being. The tourism activities considered in this paper are (i) engagement with nature, (ii) engagement with the physical environment, (iii) engagement with culture, (iv) engagement with the spiritual, (v) engagement with other people. For each, the implications for the tourist's well-being are discussed.

Keywords Tourism · Well-being · Nature · Culture · Spirituality
JEL Classification L83

1 Introduction—The Relevance of Travel to a Tourist's Health and Well-Being

Tourism derives well-being benefits to tourists themselves. If it was not so, people would not spend time and money to travel away from home. But, how is travel beneficial to tourists? What specific benefits do they get? There is a gap in the tourism literature in the understanding and in deriving meaningful responses to these questions.

The impacts of tourism are often a topic of discussion in academic literature. The focus is normally about the effects on the host community or the destination. When

J. Ebejer (✉)
University of Malta, Msida, Malta
e-mail: john.ebejer@um.edu.mt

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_38

negative, the predominant discussion is on the impacts on the environment and/or on the quality of life of local residents. When positive, the discussion is about the economic benefits for the host community. An area of study that has not been given sufficient attention is the impacts of tourism on the tourists themselves.

For many people, the normal day-to-day routine is a source of stress. Daily hassles and negative life events are frequent occurrences and have become a normal part of life. Work-related problems, financial burdens, illness in the family and separation or loss of a loved one are negative events in people's lives that cause stress. Stressors are detrimental to a person's well-being and can be detrimental to health, especially if they persist over a long period of time (Caldwell, 2005). They bring about physiological responses such as high blood pressure and increased heart rates. Even when the source of stress ends, the physiological responses may persist thus putting the person's health at risk. Inadequate recovery may lead to stress-related illnesses such as burnout and severe sleep disturbances (De Bloom et al., 2013).

Alienation from work or negative personal circumstances has become an important motivating factor in tourism (Puczkó & Smith, 2012). Frequently, people go on holiday to escape from the pressures of work and of their daily routine. Mitas et al. (2016) contend that tourism experiences generally contribute to positive emotions and therefore to well-being. Uysal et al. (2016) claim that people engage and participate in tourism activities because they generate a sense of well-being, excitement and fulfilment of higher-order needs such as self-enrichment, personal development and self-actualisation.

The anticipation of trips and relived memories can also play a role in prolonging the positive effect of travel. The anticipation of a trip, the trip itself and post-trip satisfaction can all contribute to emotional well-being (Mitas et al., 2016; Puczkó & Smith, 2012).

Sharpley (2022) contends that tourism involves the temporary movement from one place or centre of meaning (typically ordinary home life) to another place, one that offers the potential for new meaningful experiences. Tourists choose to travel to particular places in the expectation of meaningful experiences. At the destination, tourists engage in activities that are very different from their normal home-life routine. The tourist puts aside home-related thoughts by engaging in leisure-oriented activities. This reduces mental stress. After the vacation, the tourist returns reinvigorated back to the normal daily routine. Smith and Puczkó (2009: 40) sum it up very well as follows: '*Travel can contribute to all aspects of health if we consider the physical and mental benefits of rest and relaxation, the social aspects of mixing with other tourists and local people, and the intellectual stimulation that can come from learning about new places'*.

Well-being, wellness and health are different and yet closely related to each other. Well-being is a much broader concept than wellness. According to one definition, subjective well-being is 'a broad category of phenomena that includes people's emotional responses, domain satisfactions and global judgements of life satisfaction' (Uysal et al., 2016: 67). In the discipline of psychology, debates have shifted away from negative functioning towards positive aspects of human life. There is now a greater emphasis on emphasising factors that are associated with meaningful and satisfying life experiences, often described as well-being (Ross, 2013).

A discussion about health tourism or any other type of tourism is beyond the scope of this article. Having said that it is useful to clarify some of the tourism-related terminology. Health tourism is the umbrella term for two types: wellness tourism and medical tourism. As a primary motivation, these have the contribution to physical and/or mental health by acquiring well-defined services at the destination. Medical tourism involves travel to acquire medical healing resources and services. This may include diagnosis, treatment, cure, prevention and rehabilitation. Wellness tourism involves people whose motive for travel is to seek wellness services. These are services that are preventive and/or curative in nature and provide for healing, relaxation or beautifying of the body (WTO, 2018). People travel for wellness to maintain or enhance their personal health and well-being. The wellness experience is often supplemented with the usual tourism activities of sightseeing and experiencing the local culture.

This article is not about any specific type of tourism, health-related or otherwise. It is about the well-being that is derived by the tourist when he or she engages in different activities during the travel. The tourist derives well-being from these different activities irrespective of whether the tourism is categorised as cultural, sun and sea, religious or anything else. The article seeks to better understand the well-being benefits that are derived from different tourism activities.

The stress reduction effect of the tourism activity is similar to the positive mental effects that are brought about when people engage in leisure activities at their home environment. The difference is that in leisure activity the positive effects are for a few hours normally for the duration of the activity. In tourism, not thinking about home and work concerns spans several days. For the duration of the travel, the tourist does not have thoughts which, at home, would normally cause them some level of mental stress. In a tourist situation, therefore, the person is able to be, for a relatively extended period of time, in an environment that is free of stress. Tourism provides a long period of mental rest that enables the person to recover more fully from work-related stressors and is therefore a powerful weapon against the negative consequences of stress (De Bloom et al., 2013). This makes the positive mental effects of tourism more far-reaching than engaging in leisure close to home.

According to the Attention Restoration Theory (Kaplan, 1995; Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989), mental exhaustion significantly reduces a person's capacity to continually focus attention on a particular activity. This state can result in irritability, anxiety, frustration and a diminished ability to perform cognitive tasks. In order to fully recover from mental fatigue, it is important that the individual's attention is engaged on activities and tasks other than the everyday chores and work (Packer, 2013).

An activity or experience is said to be restorative if there are attributes present (Kler, 2009; Packer, 2013), namely fascination, being away, perception of extent and compatibility. Fascination occurs when the person is involved in involuntary attention and no effort is required to direct attention to a specific task. In a place not visited before, there are ample opportunities for fascination as the tourist engages the mind to learn about and appreciate the sites and activities that the destination offers. Being away is about being mentally detached from daily chores and/or physically removed from the everyday environment. In tourism, the person is in a different location away from the everyday routines and tasks.

Most destinations offer different types of tourism, and very often on a single trip, a tourist can combine different tourism activities. Rarely do tourists travel to a destination for just one purpose (Ferrari & Gilli, 2016). For example, in many cases the main purpose for travel to Mediterranean resorts is to enjoy the sunshine and good weather, but this is often combined with other activities such as cultural excursions and countryside walks. The tourist puts aside home-related thoughts by mentally and physically engaging in specific activities during the vacation. In this article, we elaborate on specific tourism activities that help reduce stress. The following tourism activities are discussed in the next sections:

- Engaging with nature.
- Engaging with the physical environment.
- Engaging with culture.
- Engaging with the spiritual.
- Engaging with others.

2 Engaging with Nature

Since the mid-twentieth century, people's lifestyles in many developed countries has become urbanised and this has reduced opportunities for contact with the natural world. Prosperity tends to bring long working hours and a culture highly embedded in consumption (Curtin, 2013). With increased urbanisation, people's physiological and psychological health tends to deteriorate. Life satisfaction and well-being are normally lower in densely populated areas.

People derive psychological and physical benefits from spending time in the natural world (Mayer et al., 2009). There is a growing body of research that shows the restorative effects on mental health of engaging with nature and with green spaces in general (Packer, 2013; Sharpley, 2022). Exposure to the natural environment positively enhances perceptions of physiological and psychological health. It supports recovery from stress, alleviates anxiety, improves mental health, aids the healing process and provides opportunities for reflection (Curtin, 2013; Hermes et al., 2018; Gladwell et al., 2013; Steckenabuer et al., 2018).

The natural environment is a resource that provides ample opportunities for recreational and leisure activities for tourists as well as for residents of nearby urban areas (Ferrari & Gilli, 2016). Many of the activities are reliant on proximity and connectedness with nature. The countryside is attractive to visitors also because of its sense of rurality. Apart from the physical attributes, the countryside generates well-being effects from the idea of what the rural space represents to them (Pesonen & Tuohino, 2016). Rural areas are perceived by many as places to escape the overcrowded and stressful urban life.

Contact with nature can also take place in urban areas as green spaces and public gardens are common features in most cities. Their provision and appropriate upkeep are considered to be essential for the quality of life of city residents. Often, green spaces are also used by tourists, especially in popular city destinations, and therefore, they are considered as part of the city's tourism product offer. In this respect, the more important green spaces in cities are parks and public gardens. City parks are large areas of green that often include extensive grass meadows, picnic areas as well as clusters of trees. In some cities, the park is surrounded by highly urbanised development.

Appropriate management of public gardens ensures that they offer a pleasant environment with trees, shrubs and flowering plants. Gardens provide enjoyment and well-being to visitors in a number of different ways (Benfield, 2020). People can appreciate the design and the ingenuity of assembly of soft and hard landscaping. They could also admire the attractiveness and beauty of plants individually and also in combination with other plants. In visiting gardens, it is possible to stroll quietly and enjoy nature (Connell & Meyer, 2004; Ebejer, 2021). For visitors with no special interest in plants, there is the enjoyment of the scenic qualities offered by gardens as well as the simple enjoyment of being outdoors in a pleasant environment. Whatever the mode of engagement with the garden, the visitor derives mental health benefits primarily because of the release from stress.

3 Engaging with the Physical Environment

Urban environments are normally considered to be mentally tiring, but there are areas within cities which have attributes that are conducive to a person's restoration. Such urban areas are likely to have at least some of the following features: pleasant architecture, historical features, some greenery, waterside location, pleasant outward views, minimal vehicle traffic and not noisy. It is such features that 'create a sense of peace and calm that enables people to recover their cognitive and emotional effectiveness' (Kaplan et al., 1993: 726).

Interaction with the physical environment involves the sensory engagement of the tourist with the surroundings. By means of the senses, primarily vision, the tourist gathers information about shapes, colour, detail and texture of buildings and features. Together with sight, physical movement through space enables a person to perceive the three-dimension and develop a strong feeling for spatial qualities (Wunderlich, 2008:128).

Walking is an aspect of tourism that is often understated. When visiting an area with several visitor sites, the visitor inevitably needs to move from one site to another. If the sites are in close proximity, then walking is the means to do so. Moreover, persons can best appreciate the city's aesthetics if they are pedestrians, giving them the possibility to walk through spaces in relaxed and irregular rhythms (Burns, 2000, Ebejer, 2021). Walking is an activity that is intrinsic to sightseeing.

One researcher claims that urban tourists spend two-thirds of their time in the streets, piazzas and green spaces of the city and that they walk an average of 10 kms per day through these spaces (Specht, 2014). The activity of walking at the destination is physically beneficial to the tourist, even if it might be limited for the duration of the holiday. The health benefits of walking are improved cardiovascular circulation, reduced stress, better weight control and improved mental alertness (Caldwell, 2005).

In many cities, the concept of walkability and catering for pedestrian needs is frequently linked to broader sustainability goals embracing ideas of liveability, active mobility, access to public transport and reduction of private car use (O'Mara, 2019). The efforts of cities to enhance their walkability are normally intended for locals as part of an overall strategy to make the city more liveable. Making city centre streets and spaces more amenable to pedestrians is a means for making the city's urban spaces more attractive to tourists. Creating additional pedestrian spaces in city centres helps ease the pressure at tourist hotspots as it reduces the likelihood of crowding at peak times. The tourism incentive provides added justification to cities to invest in their urban spaces. Seaside environments and blue spaces in general are also thought to have significant well-being impacts (Jarratt, 2022). It is no coincidence, therefore, that public authorities create promenades along urban coasts and riversides.

A walking holiday is a type of tourism that potentially derives greater physical and mental health benefits than other forms of tourism. Walking holidays have become increasingly popular across Europe (Eagles, 2002). Although predominantly in natural areas, they often include urbanised environments in the shape of small towns and villages that are along the walking itinerary. The specific intent of such holidays is two-fold, engaging in a physical activity and the appreciation of the cultural and natural heritage of the area. The health benefits of natural areas are elaborated upon in Sect. 2.

4 Engaging with Culture

A cultural experience takes place when a visitor seeks to know, learn or understand something about the culture of the destination. The tourist seeks to engage emotionally and cognitively with places, people and aspects of lifestyle. Sightseeing does not constitute a cultural experience unless the visitor seeks to learn and understand knowledge and information related to that site. There is a very broad range of visitor attractions that offer a cultural experience in some shape or form because they enable the visitor to learn and understand better some aspect relating to the place or to modern society.

Culture activities involve both the tangible (e.g. national and world heritage sites, monuments, historic places and buildings, cultural routes and others) as well as the intangible heritage (e.g. crafts, gastronomy, traditional festivals, music, oral traditions, religious/spiritual tourism, etc.). It also involves contemporary culture (e.g. film, performing arts, design, fashion, new media, etc.) (WTO, 2018).

When engaging with culture, there is a process of learning, discovering, experiencing and consuming tangible and intangible cultural attractions and products. This involves the tourist being mentally engaged. It is an effective way for tourists to take their minds of their work and home concerns. This is beneficial to the tourist's well-being and mental health.

In tourism, engaging in culture is not limited to cultural tourism. Whatever the motivation for travel, tourists often dedicate part of the time of their visit to cultural activity. In city destinations, engaging with culture is often a predominant activity during tourism. This can take many different forms including visits to museums, walking through the historic area of a city, appreciating architecture, attending theatre, going to concerts or simply partaking in the daily lives of locals.

Grossi et al. (2011) contend that participation in cultural experiences is beneficial to health and well-being. Participating in the arts and experiencing culture on a somewhat regular basis can have physical, mental and social effects. According to Sacco (2011), there is evidence that cultural participation may have strong and significant effects on life expectation and on self-reported psychological well-being. Although the above assertions do not refer directly to a tourism context, it is reasonable to claim that they are also relevant to people who engage in cultural activities when visiting a tourism destination.

5 Engaging with the Spiritual

The development of more individualistic cultures and societies has increased social alienation, rendering a greater need for seeking spiritual solace. In a society that is increasingly based on consumerism, tourism activities that involve meaningful engagement with self are becoming more in demand (Puczkó & Smith, 2012). When people travel, they sometimes engage in activities of a spiritual nature. There are many different ways how this takes place, the more obvious and common one being a visit to a building or site that is relevant to the tourist's belief system. There are different levels of engaging with the spiritual. At one end of the spectrum, it might be a few minutes meditation upon seeing, say, a religious painting in a museum. At the other end of the spectrum, it may be a travel experience for which most of the time is dedicated to religious or spiritual thought. The latter case would be described as religious tourism which according to Smørvik (2021:3) is a form of tourism 'whose participants are motivated in part or exclusively for religious reasons'.

The concept of spirituality refers to two somewhat different yet related ideas, namely religiousness and spirituality. Religiousness generally involves the regular attendance and participation in religious activities within the context of a formal association with a religious organisation. Spirituality typically encompasses spiritual beliefs involving no specific church or organisation (Ross, 2013). It is largely an individual phenomenon identified with finding meaningfulness and direction in life based on the belief in a higher power of some kind (Moal-Ulvoas & Taylor, 2014).

Religion and spirituality are generally associated with better mental health and tend to have a positive influence on patients' overall quality of life (Weber & Pargament, 2014). Greater religion or spirituality has been associated with less perceived stress, lower levels of depressive symptoms, fewer negative symptoms in schizophrenia. There are various benefits to the elderly derived from spiritual engagement, including better quality of life, lower levels of stress and years more of survival (Coleman, 2005).

For believers, religion can also be experienced at a deeply personal level through individual prayers and meditation as well as visits to churches, sacred shrines, monasteries and memorials. For the individual, experiences in these places can lead to inner peace and serenity. Even a collective ritual, such as a pilgrimage, can be a transformative experience for the individual as it leads to greater clarity and awareness of one's beliefs, practices and role in life (Mazumdar & Mazumdar, 2004). A higher level of certainty in one's belief system is associated with greater psychological health.

In the context of tourism, religious sites often provide visitors with peacefulness and tranquility that are the ideal conditions for restorative experiences to occur (Bond et al., 2015). Such sites enable visitors to 'slow down' for a while. Not feeling overwhelmed or rushed may also lead to restorative benefits. Bond et al. (2015) found that some of the benefits derived from visiting cathedrals included personal fulfilment, spiritual growth, learning, social bonding and restoration. Activities that enable the tourist to meditate and reflect are conducive to well-being. Visits to religious sites is one example, but the discovery of meaning in tourism does not necessarily take place in the formalised and ritualised setup that is offered in traditional religious contexts (Friedl, 2016).

Compared with previous generations, retired elderly enjoy better health, increased life expectancy and greater disposable income. They are therefore more willing and able to travel, including travel for spiritual or religious purposes. Whilst their own death may not be imminent, the elderly become increasingly aware of their own mortality with the illness and deaths of an increasing number of their age peers. Spiritual growth facilitates older adults surviving and rising above the struggles associated with ageing. Religiousness enables better coping mechanisms for the challenges associated with advanced age (Moal-Ulvoas & Taylor, 2014). Elderly have more time available and are able to schedule their travel away from the peak tourism periods and thus avoid the crowds at airports and visitor attractions. The down side is that they face the challenges that come with ageing such as a decline in physical and mental capabilities and a decline in body image. In the context of growing dependency and frailty, a belief system is an important resource for older people in responding to questions about the meaning of survival (Coleman, 2005).

Travel creates a favourable context for older adults to think and meditate about their own lives and about life in general. It can be a quieter time of introspection away from their daily routines and worries. Moreover, travelling alleviates the boredom that may come about from day-to-day monotony and generates meaning for older adults at various levels. Scheduling a trip is a short- or medium-term project that gives additional meaning to their life (Moal-Ulvoas & Taylor, 2014).

The well-being benefits are likely to be more significant in the case of pilgrimages and retreat-based tourism. A pilgrimage is considered to be a search for spiritual experience that involves travel to a place that is perceived to be of spiritual significance. A place of pilgrimage serves as a place of retreat to visitors, where they experience special feelings of being uplifted and possibly experience transcendence, connectedness and a new perspective on life (Friedl, 2016).

Retreat-based tourism is for people who want to escape from everyday stress and also to engage in processes of self-development (Kelly & Smith, 2016). The understanding of retreat is no longer associated with traditional spiritual and religious contexts alone but includes many types of travel and holidays. A retreat centre can be a place for quiet reflection and rejuvenation and an opportunity to regain good health (Puczkó & Smith, 2012). Removed from the complex world with its many perceived contradictions, such places can help people regain their personal sense of coherence and enable them to better cope with the difficulties and stress of daily life (Mróz, 2019). There are many different categories of retreat including spiritual/religious, yoga, meditation, nature/wildlife outdoor/ adventure, health and fitness (Glouberman & Cloutier, 2016; Kelly & Smith, 2016; Smith, 2021).

6 Engaging with Others

Both physical and mental health are badly affected by loneliness and social isolation. In the case of older people, social isolation has been found to be associated with a higher risk of death (Glouberman & Cloutier, 2016). The notion of belonging or social identity is a central aspect to well-being. An individual's sense of belonging is reliant on active membership in families, communities or groups. Social networks and friendships not only have an impact on reducing the risk of mortality or developing certain diseases, but also help individuals to recover when they do fall ill (Glouberman & Cloutier, 2016).

During vacations, social interactions are an important source of positive emotions and hence of well-being. Mitas et al. (2016) urges tourism industry operators to make tourism as rich with meaningful social interaction as possible. They also note that destinations can use events and attractions to promote social interactions among tourists and between tourists and locals, whilst keeping privacy concerns in mind.

The tourist temporarily leaves behind the community to which they belong be it the family, a group of friends or a social group of some sort (Puczkó & Smith, 2012). During the travel, they interact with other people within the travel group or at the destination. They therefore become part of a new community, even if for a relatively short time. It is within this community that social interactions takes place.

When engaging with family or friends in the same travel group, a shared pleasant experience helps strengthen relationships and the sense of family or community and thus enhances the well-being of each member of the travel group.

For some, the purpose of the travel is to visit family and friends (commonly known as Visiting Friends and Relatives or VFR). Here too, there is ample scope for social interaction and the potential reduction of loneliness and isolation not only for the VFR tourist but also for those being visited at the destination.

Many people also travel with the intention of making new friends. Examples include singles' holidays looking for romance or company and those going on group package tours or special interest holidays with like-minded people (Puczkó & Smith, 2012).

Diekmann and McCabe (2016) reported on research carried out by two Belgian universities on organised groups of elderly tourists. They found that social interactions affected the tourists' perception of their own health and that feelings of loneliness were reduced during the trip. The break from daily routines seemed to have positive effects on perceived mental health. There is little evidence of direct effects on physical health, but participants appreciated the opportunity to be more active during the trip, more than they would normally be.

7 Conclusion

In tourism literature, a lot of attention is given to an understanding of tourist motivation as this is considered useful in the planning, marketing and management of destinations (Kler, 2009). By the same token, more attention needs to be given to the benefits that tourists themselves derive from the various activities in which they engage when at the destination. It is useful for destination managers to understand the factors that support and facilitate the tourist's well-being as this will better enable them to meet the needs and expectations of visitors (Packer, 2013).

There is a lack of literature that tries to understand the benefits that tourists derive to their own general well-being. The article tries to address this gap. It does so by considering benefits that are derived from different activities in which a tourist engages during travel. It provides a framework for future research and it does so by segregating the discussion into different tourism activities, namely (i) engagement with nature, (ii) engagement with the physical environment, (iii) engagement with culture, (iv) engagement with the spiritual, (v) engagement with other people. With reference to nature, there is a fair amount of research but not the same can be said about well-being benefits that are derived from engaging with culture. This is an area of study in which there is ample scope for development.

References

Azara, I., Niccolini, F., Taff, B. D., Michopoulou, E., & Clarke, A. (2018). Introduction: tourism, health and wellbeing and protected environments. *Tourism, health, wellbeing and protected areas*, 1–7. CABI.

Benfield, R. W. (2020). *New Directions in Garden Tourism.* CABI.

Bond, N., Packer, J., & Ballantyne, R. (2015). Exploring visitor experiences, activities and benefits at three religious tourism sites. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 17*(5), 471–481.

Caldwell, L. (2005). Leisure and health: Why is leisure therapeutic? *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 33*(1), 7–26.

Coleman, P. G. (2005). Spirituality and ageing: The health implications of religious belief and practice. *Age and Ageing, 34*(4), 318–319.

Connell, J., & Meyer, D. (2004). Modelling the visitor experience in the gardens of Great Britain. *Current Issues in Tourism, 7*(3), 183–216.

Curtin, S. (2013). The intrinsic motivations and psychological benefits of eco- and wildlife tourism experiences. In R. Ballantyne & J. Packer (Eds.), *International Handbook on Ecotourism* (pp. 203–216). Edward Elgar Publishing.

De Bloom, J., Geurts, S., & Kompier, M. (2013). How does a vacation from work affect tourists' health and well-being? In S. Filep & P. Pearce (Eds.), *Tourist experience and fulfilment: Insights from Positive Psychology* (pp. 167–185). Routledge.

Diekmann, A., & McCabe, S. (2016). Social tourism and health. In M. Smith & L. Puczkó (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism* (pp. 131–140). Routledge.

Eagles, P. (2002). Trends in park tourism: Economics, finance and management. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 10*(2), 132–153.

Ebejer, J. (2021). *Tourism in European Cities: The Visitor Experience of Architecture*. Rowman & Littlefield.

Ferrari, S., & Gilli, M. (2016). Protected natural areas as innovative health tourism destinations. In M. Smith & L. Puczkó (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism* (pp. 419–429). Routledge.

Friedl, H. A. (2016). 'Places of power': can individual 'sacred space' help regain orientation in a confusing world?' In Smith, M. K., & Puczkó, L. (Eds.) *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism*, pp. 347–364.

Gladwell, V., Brown, D., Wood, C., Sandercock, G., & Barton, J. (2013). The great outdoors: How a green exercise environment can benefit all. *Extreme Physiology & Medicine, 2*, 3.

Glouberman, D., & Cloutier, J. A. (2016). Community as holistic healer on health holiday retreats: The case of Skyros. In M. Smith & L. Puczkó (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism* (pp. 180–195). Routledge.

Grossi, E., Sacco, P. L., Tavano Blessi, G., & Cerutti, R. (2011). The impact of culture on the individual subjective well-being of the italian population: An exploratory study. *Applied Research Quality Life, 6*, 387–410.

Hartig, T., & Staats, S. (2003). Guest editors' introduction: Restorative environments. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 23*, 103–107.

Hermes, J., Albert, C., & von Haaren, C. (2018). Assessing the aesthetic quality of landscapes in Germany. *Ecosystem Services, 31*, 296–307.

Jarratt, D. (2022). The importance of built heritage in the English seaside experience. In R. Sharpley (Ed.), *Routledge Handbook of the Tourist Experience* (pp. 481–497). Routledge.

Kaplan, S. (1995). The restorative benefits of nature: Toward an integrative framework. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 15*, 169–182.

Kaplan, R., & Kaplan, S. (1989). *The Experience of Nature: A Psychological Perspective*. Cambridge University Press.

Kaplan, S., Bardwell, L. V., & Slakter, D. B. (1993). The museum as a restorative environment. *Environment and Behavior, 25*(6), 725–742.

Kelly, C., & Smith, M. (2016). Journeys of the self: The need to retreat. In M. Smith & L. Puczkó (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism* (pp. 138–151). Routledge.

Kler, B. K. (2009). 'Tourism and restoration'. In Tribe, J. (ed.) *Philosophical issues in tourism, 37*, 117. Channel View Publications.

Mayer, F. S., Frantz, C. M., Bruehlman-Senecal, E., & Dolliver, K. (2009). Why is nature beneficial? The role of connectedness to nature. *Environment and Behavior, 41*(5), 607–643.

Mazumdar, S., & Mazumdar, S. (2004). Religion and place attachment: A study of sacred places. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 24*(3), 385–397.

Moal-Ulvoas, G., & Taylor, V. A. (2014). The spiritual benefits of travel for senior tourists. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 13*(6), 453–462.

Mitas, O., Nawijn, J., & Jongsma, B. (2016). Between tourists: Tourism and happiness. In M. Smith & L. Puczkó (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism* (pp. 47–64). Routledge.

Mróz, F. (2019). Changes in religious tourism in Poland at the beginning of the 21st century. *Turyzm, 29*(2), 95–103.

O'Mara, S. (2019). *In praise of walking: The new science of how we walk and why it's good for us*. The Bodley Head.

Packer, J. (2013). Visitors' restorative experiences in museum and botanic garden environments. In S. Filep & P. Pearce (Eds.), *Tourist Experience and Fulfilment: Insights into Positive Psychology* (pp. 202–221). Routledge.

Pearce, P. L., & Lee, U. I. (2005). Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*, 226–237.

Pesonen, J., & Tuohino, A. (2016). Rural wellbeing tourism destinations–demand side viewpoint. In M. Smith & L. Puczkó (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism* (pp. 401–418). Routledge.

Puczkó, L., & Smith, M. (2012). An analysis of tourism QOL domains from the demand side. *Handbook of Tourism and Quality-of-life Research* (pp. 263–277). Springer.

Ross, G. (2013). Meaning making, life transitional experiences and personal well-being within the contexts of religious and spiritual travel. In S. Filep & P. Pearce (Eds.), *Tourist experience and fulfilment: Insights into Positive Psychology* (pp. 91–109). Routledge.

Sacco, P. L. (2011). *Culture 3.0: A new perspective for the EU 2014–2020 structural funds programming*. European Expert Network on Culture (EENC) of the Directorate-General for Education and Culture of the European Commission.

Sharpley, R. (2022). 'Tourism: A spiritual experience?' In Sharpley, R. (ed.) *Routledge Handbook of the Tourist Experience,* 153–165. Routledge.

Specht, J. (2014). *Architectural tourism: building for urban travel destinations*. Springer Gabler.

Smith, M. K. (2021). Creating wellness tourism experiences. In R. Sharpley (Ed.), *Routledge Handbook of the Tourist Experience* (pp. 364–377). Routledge.

Smith, M. K., & Puczkó, L. (2009). *Health and wellness tourism*. Butterworth Heinemann.

Smørvik, K. K. (2021). Why enter the church on holiday? Tourist encounters with the Basilica of Santa Maria in Trastevere, Rome. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 16*(3), 337–348.

Steckenbauer, G., Tischler, S., Hartl, A., & Pichler, C. (2018). A model for developing evidence-based health tourism: The case of alpine health region Salzburg, Austria. In I. Azara, E. Michopoulou, F. Niccolini, B. D. Taff, & A. Clarke (Eds.), *Tourism, Health, Wellbeing and Protected Areas* (pp. 69–81). CABI.

Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. L. (2016). The impact of tourist activities on tourists' subjective wellbeing. In M. Smith & L. Puczkó (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Health Tourism* (pp. 65–78). Routledge.

Weber, S. R., & Pargament, K. I. (2014). The role of religion and spirituality in mental health. *Current Opinion in Psychiatry, 27*(5), 358–363.

World Tourism Organization. (2018). *Tourism and Culture Synergies,* UNWTO, Madrid, DOI: https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284418978.

Wunderlich, F. M. (2008). Walking and Rhythmicity: Sensing Urban Space, *Journal of Urban Design,* 13(1),http://www.informaworld.com/smpp/title~db=all~content=t713436528~tab=issueslist~branches=13 125–139.

Understanding Behavioral Intentions in a Spa Experience: Insights from Contemporary Literature

Cristina Rodrigues, Fernanda A. Ferreira, Vânia Costa, Maria José Alves, Márcia Vaz, Paula Odete Fernandes, and Alcina Nunes

Abstract The current emphasis on quality of life and its importance in contemporary society has brought light to the entire health and wellness industry, particularly spa facilities. These places have become very desirable and popular for health, wellbeing, and leisure. This popularity is largely influenced by the offer of positive experiences full of benefits for the body and mind. Therefore, it is essential to understand what makes these experiences positive and satisfying or, on the opposite, what can make them negative and what aspects can compromise a positive and memorable spa experience, important for the success of these establishments. Following this line of thought, the main objective of this study is to understand, from the existing literature, the consumption behavior toward a spa experience, from the consumers' point of view. This paper was developed based on content analysis and literature review, a systematic and narrative approach. These three techniques were applied as a research methodology to identify keyword trends, report findings and conclusions from previous empirical studies, and discuss substantive aspects related to this topic. The findings of the three techniques are consistent and provide an overall and specific understanding of the consumer perspective regarding spa experiences. The main results highlight the most critical aspects affecting satisfaction, service quality, and perceived consumer value and identify three key moments that can systematize the spa experience: expectations, consumption, and consequences. The theoretical

C. Rodrigues
UNIAG, ESHT, Polytechnic of Porto, Vila do Conde, Portugal

F. A. Ferreira (✉)
UNIAG, CiTUR, ESHT, Polytechnic of Porto, Vila do Conde, Portugal
e-mail: faf@esht.ipp.pt

V. Costa
CiTUR, Polytechnic Institute of Cavado and Ave, São Martinho de Vila Frescainha, Portugal

M. J. Alves
CIMO, Instituto Politécnico de Bragança, Bragança, Portugal

M. Vaz · P. O. Fernandes · A. Nunes
UNIAG, Instituto Politécnico de Bragança, Bragança, Portugal

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_39

discussion presented in this study is valuable for spa managers. It provides several important management implications and recommendations for their success.

Keywords Spa experiences · Consumer behavior · Health and wellness services · Tourism · Behavioral intentions · Service quality

JEL Classifications I31 · M31 · Z32

1 Introduction

Contemporary society is more aware and concerned with the state of health and well-being, both physical and psychological (Alén et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2017). The intersections between health, wellness, and leisure are huge (Young et al., 2021), and it is scientifically proven that spa units combine these three aspects. Masiero et al., (2020, p.953) regarding thermal centers conclude that "many spas are real multi specialist structures with a potential rehabilitation value with an adequate rehabilitation staff and rehabilitative and assistive technologies". Particularly, thermal spas establishments help treat different disorders and prevent certain diseases related to different medical specialties. The spa industry has a great potential for various tourism market segments: Medical tourism (Birader & Ozturen, 2019; Groshev & Krasnoslobodtsev, 2017; Habibi et al., 2021); Wellness tourism (Dimitrovski & Todorović, 2015; Wang et al., 2021); Spa tourism (Anaya-Aguilar et al., 2021b; Pinos Navarrete et al., 2021; Štefko et al., 2020); and Thermal tourism (Chrobak et al., 2020). Y. Choi et al. (2015) consider that spas have become a popular tourist destination, largely influenced by the current emphasis on well-being in the touristic experience. According to Langviniene and Sekliuckiene (2008), spa services are commonly identified as leisure services and health tourism services. In this perspective, one of the motivations for the consumption of health and wellness services and associated products is often related to tourism. Anderssen (2016) states that these services target personal care, health, and wellness, and they aim to cultivate or improve the body and soul or make the users feel or look good. It is important to note that there are many types of spas establishments, and often, in literature, authors do not make this distinction clearly. According to the ISPA foundation (2021), "spas are places devoted to overall well-being through a variety of professional services that encourage the renewal of mind, body and spirit", with significant growth in the last two decades (Choi et al., 2015). The Global Wellness Institute [GWI] (2022) defines spas as establishments that promote wellness by providing therapeutic and other professional services aimed at renewing the body, mind, and spirit. GWI includes the following spa sub-categories: (i) day/club/salon spas; (ii) destination spas and health resorts; (iii) hotel/resort spas; (iv) thermal/mineral springs' spas; (v) medical spas; and (vi) other spas such as cruise ship spas, airport spas, mobile spas, as well as historically/culturally based facilities that have incorporated spa-like services into their supply. Despite the above distinctions, it can be considered that there are essentially three types of spa establishments, which differ according to their purpose or function and provide different experiences: recreational, wellness, therapeutic or curative (Lin & Mattila, 2018).

In these establishments, the impact of the experience is tremendous because spa services and, in general, the whole industry are experience creators for its consumers (Buxton & Michopoulou, 2021; A. Lo et al., 2015; Poluzzi & Esposito, 2019). This experience is affected by many aspects, including the quality of service, which is probably the most important (Blesic et al., 2014; Cham et al., 2015; Liu, Fu, Chao, et al., 2019a, 2019b; A. Lo et al., 2015). Service quality has been a matter of concern for public and private healthcare institutions worldwide, which has led to several investigations to explore what determines service quality and how it can be measured (Upadhyai et al., 2019). Choi et al., (2015, p.273) approach the relevance of experience in tourism, stating that "spas have become a popular tourist destination, largely influenced by the current emphasis of well-being in touristic experience". But despite the popularity of the experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), particularly in tourism (Kutlu & Ayyıldız, 2021). Chang (2018) and Buxton and Michopoulou (2021) consider that there is scant research specifically in a spa context. A similar opinion is shared by Ahani et al. (2019) regarding consumers and their motivations underpinning engagement with spa hotels and resorts.

Under these considerations, presented previously, the importance of exploring the issue related with thermalism and all its underlying environment became clear. A deep understanding of the experiences is essential to know what may influence consumer satisfaction, perceived value, behavioral intentions, and assessment of the spa experience. This analysis is also very useful for spa management as it provides an understanding of the most critical aspects of their success and their market competitiveness. Consequently, all the analyses that will be carried out in this research study intend to provide an answer to one of the tasks of the research project entitled "GreenHealth-Digital strategies in biological assets to improve well-being and promote green health". The "GreenHealth" project aims to provide the best conditions for the sustainable development of competitive products and activities linked to active life, well-being, and quality of life. One of the activities that is directly associated with these values is thermalism (Rodrigues et al., 2022).

This paper is organized into five sections. The introduction provides a framework for the whole paper. Then, the methodological options identify the three research strategies used. This is followed by the presentation of the results of the content analysis, the systematic literature review, and the narrative literature review. Finally, the results are analyzed and a final conclusion is drawn.

2 Methods

The papers' objective is achieved using three techniques: (1) content analysis, (2) systematic literature review, and (3) narrative literature review. The following subsections address each of these techniques, considered at different stages of the research. There are different types of literature review, but, in general, the literature review is an essential feature for advancing scientific knowledge that must be built upon existing studies (Xiao & Watson, 2019). According to Henry et al. (2018), systematic and narrative are the two main types of review articles and should be combined to provide the best information to advance scientific knowledge. This type of research method is more relevant than ever, as it allows to keep up with the state of the art, at the forefront of research, and evaluate the collective evidence in a particular area (Paul & Criado, 2020; Snyder, 2019). The adoption of this type of method is common on studies in the large field of health and wellness (Cacciapuoti et al., 2020; Chen & Petrick, 2013; Pessot et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2021). The literature review here presented was performed in February 2022. Globally, 88 publications were analyzed.

Content analysis

As a first approach, to provide an overview of the main issues that guide this paper, a content analysis was explicitly applied to analyze keyword trends. Vespestad and Clancy (2021, p. 6) consider that "content analysis is a versatile method for understanding a wide range of consumer experiences". Content analysis can be applied through various techniques, as Laurence (2011) states, for analyzing communications that use systematic and objective procedures to describe the content of messages. Similarly, Landrum and Ohsowski (2018) consider that is a type of textual analysis that examines the text of the messages to interpret its meaning. Their study also combines content analysis with keyword analysis. Keywords can be understood as the synthesized representation of several ideas from a document (Xiao & Watson, 2019). Keyword analysis can be instrumental in identifying research themes in a particular area of knowledge (Karimi Takalo et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2021). According to Tu et al. (2021), keyword analysis has been used for document categorization, summarization, indexing, and clustering. They also mention that many visualization methods are proposed to support this analysis.

Systematic literature review

A systematic literature review was conducted to identify and understand the empirical evidence on spa consumption experience. This type of review has been developed to summarize the best evidence on a specific question (Henry et al., 2018). There are some studies that, through systematic review, analyze the most relevant fields and aspects of already existing studies and their evidence concerning the research topic (Chen & Petrick, 2013; Clark-Kennedy et al., 2021; Flores-Romero et al., 2021; Thomas et al., 2020). To reach the objective of this technique, the focus was on analyzing two sections: findings/results (Ahani et al., 2019; Karimi Takalo et al., 2021) and conclusions to obtain a more conclusive perspective of the entire study. Usually, systematic literature reviews follow inclusion and exclusion criteria to justify the choice of articles considered for the review (Henry et al., 2018; McFadden & Williams, 2020; Xiao & Watson, 2019). The strategy for this procedure was to analyze the thirty-two studies identified in the content analysis, but subjected to an inclusion and exclusion processes, presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Inclusion and exclusion criteria implemented

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Focus on consumption experience in spa	Not directly related to the subject;
Focus on the critical aspects of a spa experience	Different interpretations of spa, e.g., Student Project Allocation (SPA)
Focus on assessment of a spa experience	Service Provision Assessment (SPA)
Include spa context	Do not include the spa context
Empirical studies	Focus on the consumer profile
Document with open access	Document with closed access
15 papers	17 papers

Source Authors' elaboration

Narrative literature review

The literature presented in this field followed the logic of a narrative review, in which the most important is the gathering of relevant information that provides substance to the overall purpose of the study (Cacciapuoti et al., 2020; Henry et al., 2018; Xiao & Watson, 2019). Batbaatar et al. (2015) used this type of method to conceptualize patient satisfaction. The narrative review is probably the most common type of descriptive review of the literature (Henry et al., 2018; Xiao & Watson, 2019), although it has a little explicit structure which can be a disadvantage (Henry et al., 2018). Following this logic, the selection of articles and other scientific papers was based on identifying their keywords and reading their abstracts, analyzing the most relevant ones for the study's purpose. For this reason, a wide range of studies were considered, namely quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods' approach. The analysis was conducted using the most reliable databases, primarily the Web of Science and Scopus (Pranckutė, 2021), also PubMed, and Google Scholar.

To present more clearly the methodology followed, Table 2 presents the different stages of the research, the objectives, and the research questions for each of them.

3 Results

Content analysis

To perform the content analysis, the following four terms/keywords were identified—spa, service, satisfaction, and experience—as those that best answer the objective and the question of this research stage. This is in line with the methodologies used in similar research that define the best set of terms/keywords to cover a large portion of publications regarding the research topic (Habibi et al., 2021; Rama et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2020). For McAllister et al. (2021), the VOSviewer maps are best suited for identifying networked keywords. They can help researchers know what to look for in the literature and understand current lines of research and what other lines or

Table 2 Summary of design methodology

Stages of research	Objectives	Questions
1. Content analysis	Analyze the keyword trends in the existing literature	What are the main research themes and what are the most used keywords in this field?
2. Systematic literature	Report of findings and conclusions of empirical studies	What findings and conclusions are known from the existing studies, and what evidence stands out?
3. Narrative literature	Discuss substantive aspects on relevant literature	What type of motivations do these consumers have to have a spa experience? What are the most critical aspects of a spa experience? What are the consequences for spa establishments after the consumer experience?

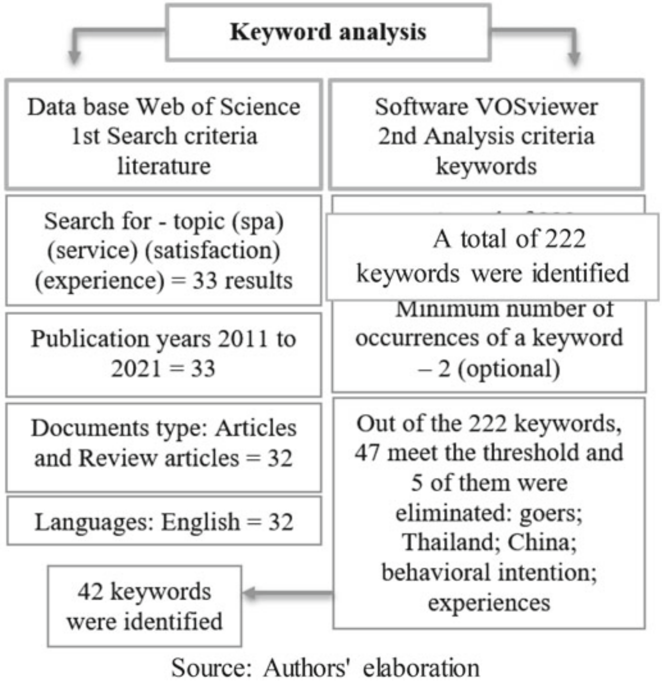
Source Authors' elaboration

topics should be considered in the future. VOSviewer software is also widespread in bibliometric and literature review articles (Cavalcante et al., 2021; McAllister et al., 2021), namely in medical, health, and wellness tourism (Correa et al., 2018; Zhong et al., 2021). For this purpose, the Web of Science database and the software VOSviewer were used to create a visual map of the keywords and identify their clusters. This search on Web of Science allowed the identification of thirty-two publications. Before analyzing the keyword co-occurrence, a filtering procedure was used in order to extract the most relevant keywords (Faust, 2018; Feng & Law, 2021). This procedure should include: (1) converting plurals into a singular form; (2) removing hyphens; (3) converting to lowercase; (4) avoidance of abbreviations; (5) removing redundant words (Feng & Law, 2021). Table 3 summarizes the use of WoS and VOSviewer. The content analysis concerning the keywords of the publications can be seen in Fig. 1.

The size of the label and an item's box are determined by their weight, which indicates the frequency of keywords' occurrence. It is clearly observed that the two labels that stand out the most are: satisfaction and service quality. The lines among items represent links between keywords. In general, the closer keywords are located, the stronger their relatedness is. The cluster determines the colour of an item it belongs to. In this case, four clusters are identified in Table 4, which presents the total number of keywords (forty-two). These keywords show that different themes and particular issues have been considered over the years regarding this study area.

Of the forty-two keywords identified, the top ten keywords (in higher number) were satisfaction; service quality; tourism; model; behavioral intentions; health; perceived value; wellness tourism; emotions; and consumer perceptions. The five keywords (in higher number) were satisfaction (20 occurrences and 118 total link strength); service quality (14 occurrences and 89 total link strength); tourism (10

Table 3 Use of web of science and VOSviewer to analyze the keywords



Source Authors' elaboration.

occurrences and 73 total link strength); model (8 occurrences and 65 total link strength); and last, behavioral intentions (6 occurrences and 53 link strength).

Systematic Literature Review

The articles' findings/results and conclusions were analyzed for conducting a systematic literature review analysis. This section was designed to synthesize the available scientific evidence from the thirty-two studies previously identified on the Web of Science. Although all these publications were found with the terms: spa, service, satisfaction, and experience, which represent well the content of the present paper, five publications were disregarded for not having open access to the full document, while twelve were disregarded for not being directly related to the subject matter. After this refinement, through inclusion and exclusion criteria, fifteen studies were identified for this systematic review, as presented in Table 5.

Narrative Literature Review

Motivations for health and wellness services

Numerous factors can influence wellness consumer purchasing behavior, namely push factors—motivations (Dryglas & Różycki, 2017). According to Dimitrovski

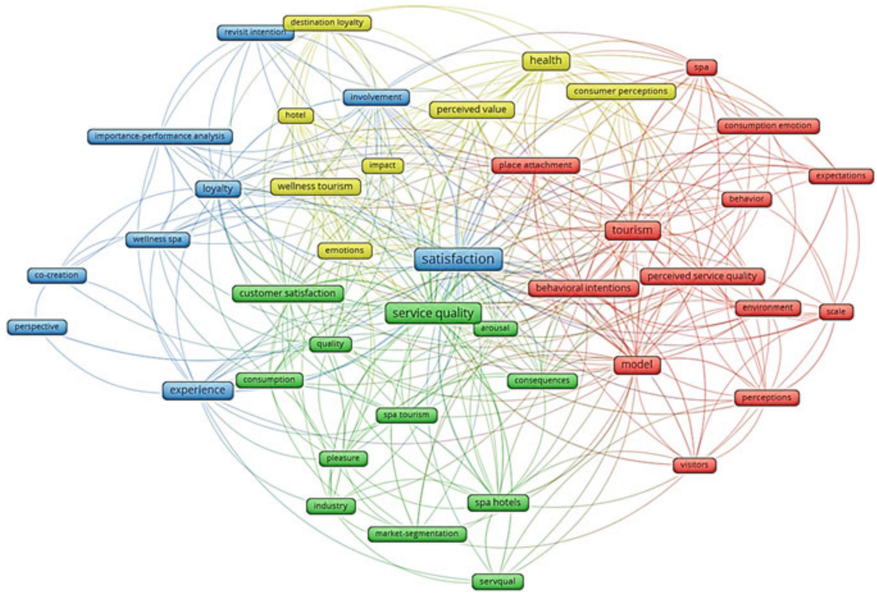


Fig. 1 Use of Web of Science and VOSviewer to analyze the keywords. *Source* Authors' elaboration, report from VOSviewer

Table 4 Keywords' clusters

Cluster 1 (13 items)	Behavior; behavioral intentions; consumption emotion; environment; expectations; model; perceived service quality; perceptions; place attachment; scale; spa; tourism; visitors
Cluster 2 (12 items)	Arousal; consequences; consumption; customer satisfaction; industry; market-segmentation; pleasure; quality; service quality; servqual; spa hotels; spa tourism
Cluster 3 (9 items)	Co-creation; experience; importance performance analysis; involvement; loyalty; perspective; revisit intention; satisfaction; wellness spa;
Cluster 4 (8 items)	Consumer perceptions; destination loyalty; emotions; health; hotel; impact; perceived value; wellness tourism

Source Authors' elaboration, report from VOSviewer.

and Todorović (2015), the wellness market is divided into two groups: socially active and self-focused tourists. The main motivations of these two groups are socialization, excitement, and relaxation. Aleksijevits (2019) argued that self-development and self-satisfaction motivational factors have the most influence on a consumer. The Wellness Tourist Motivation Scale, by Kessler et al. (2020), is composed of seven dimensions: (1) Movement and Fitness; (2) Healthy Food and Diet; (3) Meditation and Mindfulness; (4) Rest and Relaxation; (5) Learning about Wellness; (6)

Table 5 Main findings and conclusions of the publications

References	Spa context	Main findings and conclusion
Anaya-Aguilar et al. (2021a)	Spa tourism (Spain)	The study found statistical significance between the highest satisfaction values and the variables of future intention. In the general assessment questions (global assessment by dimension, importance, general satisfaction, satisfaction in quality/price, intention to recommend it, and intention to return), an ICC of greater than 0.61 was obtained in all the items of the quantitative variables
Loke (2020)	Spa (Hungary)	In the case of medical tourists, Pearson's correlation coefficients are higher than wellness tourists, confirming an even closer relationship between quality and satisfaction. However, in the case of wellness tourists, satisfaction and loyalty relations are less obvious. Regression analysis draws our attention to the key role of the pleasure and satisfaction dimension, directing spa services toward providing joyful experiences
Nilashi et al. (2019)	Eco-friendly hotels with spa services (Malaysia)	The results showed that, in general, traveler satisfaction was relatively higher in green spa hotels compared to green non-spa hotels. This result was proved in four traveling groups, Traveled with friends, solo travelers, traveled with family, and traveled as a couple, and accordingly, they indicate a higher degree of overall ratings to the hotels with spa services

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

References	Spa context	Main findings and conclusion
Liu et al. (2019a,b)	Hot-spring resort (China)	This study has determined three main dimensions of visitors' on-site experience: (a) environmental experience, (b) on-site self-related experience, and (c) on-site social interaction. Tourists in hot-spring resorts pay more attention to social factors, and on the other hand, tourist experience and level of place attachment can affect loyalty formation
Liu et al. (2019a,b)	Hot-spring resorts (China)	This study confirms six components of service quality: water quality, customer service, facilities, surroundings, alternative activities, and convenience. These components may influence consumers' attachment to such places
Huang et al. (2019)	Spa hotel (Taiwan)	A person's internal disposition and his spa experience both have positive effects on subjective well-being regardless of the duration of the stay. It is also found that travel experience and well-being positively affect customer loyalty, meaning that experience can predict consumers' intentions to revisit and recommend spa hotels
Virabhakul and Huang (2018)	Wellness spa service (Thailand)	According to this study's findings, there is an insignificant direct effect of service experience on behavioral intentions, and there are significant indirect effects of service experience on behavioral intentions when mediated via emotions, perceived value, and satisfaction, indicating the presence of full mediation

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

References	Spa context	Main findings and conclusion
Han et al. (2018)	Wellness spa tourism destination (Thailand)	This study categorized the constituents of wellness spa tourism performances into five factors, namely (1) treatment quality, (2) variety of service options (augmented service quality), (3) price, (4) therapist and service staff, and (5) facilities. The treatment quality factor was identified to be the strongest performances dimension
Elias-Almeida et al. (2016)	Hotel spa (Portugal)	Customer delight represents a higher level of customer commitment than the quality of being just satisfied. Loyalty was assumed to be a critical factor for the hotel spa's success. The results indicated that satisfaction directly affected customer delight and, consequently, influenced customer delight's effect
Choi et al. (2015)	Spa tourism (South Korea)	Based on the measurement model, four aspects of quality attributes (spa facility, spa program, staff, and uniqueness) were identified. There are two aspects of perceived value in spa tourism: functional and wellness values, and both play an important mediating role in visitors' spa tourism experience. Regarding the consequences of perceived value, both values are significantly related to satisfaction and behavioral intention. However, wellness value is a more powerful predictor on visitors' satisfaction

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

References	Spa context	Main findings and conclusion
Lo et al. (2015)	Resort and Hotel Spa (China)	The results demonstrate the importance of spa service quality in enhancing the attainment of positive emotions by spa customers. Four service quality dimensions, tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, and empathy, were identified as having a significant impact on spa consumers' positive emotions, and responsiveness was found to be the most important determinant factor
Blesic et al. (2014)	Spa hotels (Serbia)	Seven dimensions of the service quality were identified: assurance, food and benefits, empathy, entertainment, recreation facilities and wellness, responsiveness, and reliability. When the perception of service quality in spa hotels is considered, there is a significant difference in guests' attitudes within all seven factors. As a rule, female tourists ranked attributes lower than male respondents
Lo and Wu (2014)	Hotel and Resort Spa (China)	The results indicated the mediating influence of positive emotion on connecting service quality and creating the perceived value of consumers and behavioral intention in the hotel and resort spa context
Loureiro et al. (2013)	Hotel thermal spas (Portugal)	The results revealed that atmospheric cues and involvement are important antecedents of relaxation and pleasure. The feeling of relaxation is more important to lead to satisfaction than pleasure. Pleasure does not impact directly and significantly on word-of-mouth. Thus, relaxation is the core emotion

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

References	Spa context	Main findings and conclusion
Blesic et al. (2011)	Spa hotel (Serbia)	The quality of spa hotel services is a basic prerequisite for successful business and survival in the market. Service quality is paramount for keeping the guests and a critical indicator of future economic activity. The research results have shown that guests, in general, are not satisfied with spa hotel services. Their expectations have been higher than the experienced quality of services

Source Authors' elaboration.

Self-care; and (7) Nature and Disconnect. Based on motivations for booking in a wellness hotel, Kim and Yang (2021) identify two distinct groups: the "seeking healing" and the "explorers of local history". The first group seeks specific treatments in a more health-related dimension, and the second group seeks the territory's culture in a dimension of escape and leisure. Kessler et al. (2020) analyze the motivations for wellness tourism by generation groups. The Baby boomers' motivations showed an interest in the items "to look and feel better" and "to experience activities outdoors". In contrast, Generation X had high scores with "to escape the demands of everyday life" and "to experience activities outdoors". For Millennials, the highest-scoring motivations include "to escape the demands of everyday life", "to return to everyday life feeling rejuvenated", and "to feel grounded in nature". Regarding the motivations for selecting a wellness destination, Aleksijevits (2019) concludes that wellness consumers/tourists, for example, purchase their wellness trips through travel agencies. The author also found that these tourists do complete research about the destination's valences and visit various review sites such as "Trip Advisor" before booking. This study still reveals that wellness tourists assign importance to these online recommendations more than a recommendation from word of mouth. Mak et al. (2009) factor analysis revealed that "relaxation and relief", "escape", "self-reward and indulgence", and "health and beauty" are important factors that motivate travelers to visit spas. In this line, Cohen et al. (2017) consider that retreat experiences can substantially improve multiple dimensions of health and well-being. In a touristic interpretation of the experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), Chang (2018) attributes to the entertainment dimension the desire to enjoy, to the educational dimension the desire to learn and acquire knowledge, to the escapist dimension the desire to travel and develop activities, and to the aesthetic dimension the desire to be in a certain place, different from the usual. Specifically, about the overall experience of wellness tourism, Luo et al. (2018) identified three highly correlated components: educational, esthetic, and escapist.

Consumption experiences in Spa

"Society is currently transitioning to the experience economy 3.0, in which meaningful consumption experiences with the potential for positive intrapersonal change are valuable to a consumer" (Kirillova et al., 2017, p. 23). This seems to align with the literature that presents evidence on how spa experiences can be meaningful and enhance positive intrapersonal changes. Kim and Yang (2021) identify a four-stage transformative process of wellness experience: realization, involvement, transformation, and appreciation. But, these experiments can have very different results. Poluzzi and Esposito (2019) identify the experience as a subjective, personal, and psychological activity. According to Loureiro et al. (2013), when a consumer is deeply involved in an activity, such as a spa experience, that person will be more engaged in the experience and intrinsically better prepared to enjoy the experience, feeling pleasure, and relaxation. In other words, these authors indicate that consumers, when deeply involved and interested in spa experiences, respond more positively and satisfyingly, particularly on an emotional level. Huang et al. (2019) mention that perceived autonomy is the core prerequisite of the tourism experience that positively and significantly enhances well-being. According to Panchal (2012), spa treatments generally provide positive experiences for tourists. Tang et al. (2020) prove this positive pattern concerning thermal baths, identifying 748 positive experiences and 187 negative experiences. At the same time, Nilsen (2013) considers that spa experiences are valuable enough to be repeated. Panchal (2012) divided positive experiences into three dimensions: (1) physical, which refers to any feelings felt toward the body; (2) psychological, which refers to feelings, moods, and other sensations that the physical body does not directly or necessarily feel; and (3) social/environmental, which refers to other products that are part of the therapy.

Choi et al. (2015) understand that while functional value represents visitors' utilitarian aspects in perceiving the value of spa experiences, wellness value reflects the benefits of spa experiences to enhance physical, mental, and spiritual health. These authors also consider that visitors' health status and health consciousness may play an important role in evaluating spa experiences. According to Ahani et al. (2019), the hedonic value may play a crucial role within the spa experience and can be interpreted as having a pleasurable/joyful/special experience. Hedonic consumption is several times referred to when the subject is an experience evaluation. Liu et al., (2019a,b) identify as hedonic products, hospitality products, culinary experiences, holiday vacations, and tourist destination products since consumers often approach the consumption experiences of such products with expectations of excitement or pleasure. This is seen in statements such as "the scope of the experience is more general than specific, the nature of the benefit is experiential hedonic/symbolic rather than functional/utilitarian, and the psychological representation is affective rather than cognitive/attitudinal" (Wu et al., 2018, p. 202). The same authors indicate that experiential quality refers to the psychological outcome that results from the tourist's participation and involvement in activities in tourism. This means that experiential quality is a cognitive evaluation, a positive perception of the quality of the experience.

Users' assessment and important aspects of a spa experience

According to Clemes et al. (2020), customer satisfaction has two important descriptors (1) service quality and (2) perceived value, while Cham et al. (2015) relate "patient satisfaction" with "brand Image", "perceived service quality", and "behavioral intention". A. Lo et al. (2015) identified four dimensions of service quality that have a significant impact on spa consumers' positive emotions: (1) tangible aspects, (2) reliability, (3) responsiveness, and (4) empathy. The authors also state that a well-designed service process, standardized service procedures, as well as training of service staff and therapists can help generate positive emotions and create a better spa experience for users. From another perspective, Lin and Mattila (2018) identify five important spa product and service factors that contribute to an authentic spa experience: (1) the natural surroundings of the spa or its location, (2) the Servicescape, (3) service encounters, (4) spa treatments: culture and rituals, and (5) spa's role of educating and transforming individuals toward maintaining or improving health and well-being.

In this sense, Ahani et al. (2019) understand that spa tourists may evaluate their spa experiences according to their value criteria, so their judgment will depend on their sensitivity. These authors also refer that consumers' perceived value positively affects positive behavioral intentions, generally categorized into two aspects: favorable and unfavorable. There are recent studies that analyze the spa users' point of view regarding their spa experience, such as the assessment of particular elements, on the performance of spa, regarding facilities, professionals, and other aspects (Rodrigues et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2020). As mentioned by Rodrigues et al. (2020), it is important to be aware of the positive aspects and the negative ones to have a complete perspective. This includes infrastructures (e.g., buildings, exterior and interior design, ambience), employee attitude and behavior, or other details like information provision, orientation, and basic cleanliness (Smith et al., 2020). Beyond these, Bodeker and Cohen (2010) refer to safety, comfort, communication, customer service, and technical ability. Langviniene and Sekliuckiene (2008, p. 8) conclude that the quality of spa services should be evaluated on two basic quality dimensions:

> *(1) quality parameters as physical (change of look, functional enlargement of the body), mental (intellectual) change of a client and his or her relaxation; (2) elements that warranty a quality for service provided that could be: direct impact (technical competence relative competence) or indirect (equipment and premises of SPA center, training and education of instructors, staff, empowerment, climate inside and outside the SPA center, partnership with other partners outside the center, leadership and motivation of personnel to provide qualitative service).*

Choi et al. (2015) consider that spa managers should keep in mind that not only a tangible spa environment but also an intangible spa environment is crucial to increasing customer satisfaction and loyalty. As indicated by Lo et al. (2015), although tangible aspects, such as facilities, equipment, surroundings, atmosphere, and employees' appearance, are found to be the least significant factor in influencing customers' positive emotions, they should not be neglected since these aspects are seen by customers and are very important in a first impression. Langviniene and

Sekliuckiene (2008), regarding tangibles aspects, refer to modern, secure equipment, appropriate staff clothing, and visual information as important things. Buxton and Michopoulou (2021) provide a good reflection of which factors can contribute to the co-creation and co-destruction of value in a spa context and allow understanding that value co-destruction can occur. For example, if the information is absent for a consumer to understand the spa facilities or there is a lack of signage for a consumer to navigate the environment, such as finding the changing rooms. The same idea is shared by Nilsen (2013), who states that spa users feel uncomfortable when they feel there is a lack of adequate information about how to behave. But not only the interior spaces are important. As Buxton and Michopoulou (2021) recognize, the outdoor area of the spa, its environment, and landscape can bring added value to the experience since through the use of the outdoor space, and users can also enjoy the territory appealing to their senses. For Ahani et al. (2019), the appearance of staff, staff uniform, physical facilities, music and sound used, lighting, ventilation, and fragrance should match the spa's theme. Also, the cleanliness, safety, privacy, and the quality of the products used are the basis by which customers judge a spa's trustworthiness. Therefore, spa operators should ensure that these are fulfilled, as they are directly related to the spa's image and reputation (Lo et al., 2015).

According to Strack and Raffay-Danyi (2020), the four most important factors for users choosing spas in the Hungarian market are price, cleanliness of the facilities, types of pools, and the recommendation of family and friends. In addition, these authors mention the quality of the product received and staff performance. Tang et al. (2020) confirmed that comfort, system, and environment dimensions are important attributes in the quality thermal bath experience. Similar evidence is presented by Liberato et al. (2021), saying that exclusive facilities for adults, quality of treatments, location and access, hygiene and safety, quality of equipment, infrastructures, and assortment of activities are the most valued aspects in the selection of the thermal establishment. In another perspective, positive reviews often related to core attributes such as the beauty of the buildings or the pools can be overshadowed by important details such as the provision of information and guidance and the cleanliness and attitudes of employees (Smith et al., 2020). Especially, during the COVID'19 pandemic, Tang et al. (2020) refer that hygiene and cleanliness highly influence dissatisfaction with the thermal bath experience. While A. Lo et al. (2015) understands that a well-designed service process, standardized service procedures, and training can help to enhance spa service quality, generate positive emotions, and ultimately create a better spa experience for customers.

The qualification of spa workers and preparation of all staff are also very important to explain the spa rituals, the types of treatments available, as well as the process and benefits of the treatments that they are going to experience to minimize possible feelings of shyness and embarrassment (Lo et al., 2015). To learn more about workers in this sector, see Anderssen (2016). Also, Langviniene and Sekliuckiene (2008) refer certificates, licences of trainers, consultants, and their experience to influence the provision of services and the excellent image of the spa unit. But, the recruitment of therapists with appropriate skills is also relevant for providing personalized services and treatments suitable for different types of clients (Lo et al., 2015). Accordingly, Bodeker and Cohen (2010) refer that user wellness assessments can help establish a close relationship between the therapist and the user, allowing a highly personalized and individualized experience. From another perspective, Nilsen (2013) found that although users consider the relationship with the therapist important, ideally, they do not like too close contact. However, sharing the spa experience with friends or family is seen as very important. However, the experience evaluation is not only about the establishment and its professionals but also about the consumer characteristics. Koskinen (2019) demonstrates how the variety of aspects related to aging and retirement is reflected in consumers' experiences, motives, and expectations of spa vacations. Accordingly, Blesic et al. (2014) found that regarding choosing a spa hotel, women considered the tangibility factor more important than men, who give higher grades on all determinants of service quality compared to women (Blesic et al., 2011). Brandão et al. (2021) also concluded that the sociodemographic profile influences the motivations of thermal tourists and the choice of services made available, the determination of operations, the creation of new spa services, marketing, and strategy. Ahani et al. (2019) consider that online reviews provide a rich source of information about travelers' preferences and experiences precisely because people share the good and the bad of their experience, to testify and advise others with their opinion and assessment, often to the reach of millions of people.

4 Discussion

This analysis pointed out that the number of studies on this topic has significantly increased in the last decade (2011–2021). Only in the year 2011 began to appear publications, according to a search carried out on the Web of Science. This translates the recent interest in these issues from a scientific point of view, giving some contemporaneity to the theme. Globally, the forty-two keywords found through content analysis revealed similar research topics, mostly related to satisfaction and service quality. The top five keywords were satisfaction, service quality, tourism, model, and behavioral intentions. With the exception of the word "model", which is rather generic, the other four words identified have an obvious correlation, which can be understood as service quality, in its different dimensions and conceptions, which is directly related to consumer satisfaction and consequently to their behavioral intentions toward the different spa establishments. Most of these topics and evidence resulted from content analysis and systematic literature review, as a combined approach, as presented in Table 6.

The spa experience can start with the planning and consequently with the expectations that the consumer intuitively generates. The consumption experience can be disappointing if the perceived quality is lower than the consumer's initial expectations. It can match expectations if the perceived quality is as expected, neither better nor worse. The experience can also be exceeded when the perceived quality is higher/better than the consumer's expectations. As Blesic et al. (2011) verified, expectations can be higher than the quality experienced. When this happens, the

Table 6 Results between content analysis and systematic review

Top ten keywords by content analysis	Results from systematic literature review	References
Satisfaction	Satisfaction, has always been understood as a positive and essential feeling that has a great impact on the spa experience. A positive spa experience is dependent on consumer satisfaction. Consumers want to achieve it, and spa establishments want to provide it through the services offered	Loureiro et al. (2013), Choi et al. (2015), Elias-Almeida et al. (2016), Virabhakul and Huang (2018), Nilashi et al. (2019), Loke (2020), Anaya-Aguilar et al. (2021a)
Service quality	Service quality directly influences the spa experience. It generates emotions in the consumer and increases the perceived value of their experience. It also impacts the rating and reputation of the spa establishment. It relates to various aspects of the service, both tangible and intangible. It is the responsibility of the spa team to ensure the quality of the offer	Blesic et al., (2011); A. S. Lo and Wu, (2014); Blesic et al., (2014); A. Lo et al., (2015); Han et al., (2018); Liu, Fu, Chao and et al., (2019a, 2019b)
Tourism Wellness tourism	Many of these studies make a clear association between spa facilities and tourism, considering spa consumers as tourist demand (medical tourists and wellness tourists). On the other hand, spas also constitute themselves as tourist enterprises and destinations (Spa hotel, Hotel thermal spas, Hotel and Resort Spa, Spa tourism, Wellness spa tourism destination, Hot-spring resorts)	Blesic et al., (2014); Choi et al., (2015); Han et al., (2018); Liu, Fu, and Li, (2019a, 2019b); Loke (2020); Anaya-Aguilar et al., (2021a)

(continued)

experience becomes unsatisfactory, generating fewer positive emotions. Perceived quality is subjective. It differs among consumers according to their characteristics, motivations, purposes, internal and external influences. As mentioned in Ahani et al., (2019, p. 69) “the idea of the spa can be perceived differently by different consumers”. But more important than expectations are the service’s real consumption, referred as “on-site experience”. According to Liu et al. (2019a,b), one of the main stages of the overall experience refers to experience on the spot, which is a narrow definition of experience. Similarly, Liu et al. (2019a,b) report that this stage plays a key role

Table 6 (continued)

Top ten keywords by content analysis	Results from systematic literature review	References
Behavioral intentions	Behavioral intentions are understood as the (future) actions the spa experience leads consumers to take. These intentions could be advantageous or disadvantageous, in favor or against spa establishments, that can materialize in repetition and recommendation, depending on the consumer's perception and satisfaction regarding the experience	Lo and Wu (2014), Choi et al. (2015), Virabhakul and Huang (2018)
Perceived value	Perceived value has always been understood as a determining aspect of the spa experience. A positive spa experience depends on the value perceived by the consumer. This depends on the sensitivity of each consumer, and it is significantly related to satisfaction and behavioral intention. This value is related to different aspects that can be perceived in different ways, such as functional and wellness values	Lo and Wu (2014), Choi et al. (2015), Virabhakul and Huang (2018)
Emotions	Experience seems to be an important element in the emotional responses of spa consumers. The feelings aroused during the spa experience can be expressed in terms of emotions, for example, excitement, pleasure, and relaxation. The consumer's perception of different activities can cause a change in their emotional state. These emotions may result in behaviors or intentions	Loureiro et al. (2013), Lo and Wu (2014), Lo et al. (2015), Virabhakul and Huang (2018)

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

Top ten keywords by content analysis	Results from systematic literature review	References
Consumer perceptions	A spa experience is evaluated according to the perception of consumption. In the same way that perceived value depends on the sensibility of each consumer, the perception of consumers also depends on their individuality and perspective because the importance that the consumer attaches to service aspects and attributes can be very relative. This can lead to different behavioral intentions	Blesic et al. (2014), Elias-Almeida et al. (2016)
Model Health	As these keywords were very specific and had little impact on the systematic literature review carried out, they were not considered for this analysis	

Source Authors' elaboration.

in achieving customer loyalty in a spa context. Many aspects that impact the on-site experience are listed in Table 7.

In fact, the above aspects have been the most identified in the literature and empirical studies applied in different countries. Although these aspects are identified here from the point of view of satisfaction, any one of these aspects can also influence dissatisfaction with the service and the overall spa experience. However, it is important to say that the vast majority of these aspects have been identified in this paper as impacting consumer satisfaction.

Moving on to the last stage of the experience—consequences, Zeng et al. (2021) report that health and wellness tourists' satisfaction had a direct positive effect on their post-trip behavioral intentions, and in turn, behavioral intentions after the trip had a direct and positive effect on competitiveness. Thus, it is understood that satisfaction has an indirect positive effect on competitiveness in this industry. According to T. H. Cham et al. (2015), consumer loyalty is required for survival and sustainability, especially for service-oriented companies such as healthcare providers. Equally, Blesic et al. (2011) state that service quality is paramount to retaining consumers and is a critical indicator of future economic activity. Alén et al. (2014) consider that thermal establishments are aware that their competitiveness depends on many aspects that can generate competitive advantages by providing a wide range of products, services, and activities of exceptional quality that can be decisive in attracting consumers. In agreement, Loke (2020) understands that good-quality services are an advantage in the face of competition and should be considered an effective marketing tool. Lo

Table 7 Most important aspects that affect the spa experience

Aspects	References
Staff/employee/therapists	Rodrigues et al. (2020), Strack and Raffay-Danyi (2020), Smith et al. (2020), Lo et al. (2015), Lo and Wu (2014), Nilsen (2013), Langviniene and Sekliuckiene (2008)
Cleanliness/hygiene	Liberato et al. (2021), Smith et al. (2020), Strack and Raffay-Danyi (2020), Tang et al. (2020), Lo et al., (2015)
Visual information	Smith et al. (2020), Buxton and Michopoulou (2021), Nilsen (2013), Langviniene and Sekliuckiene (2008)
Location	Liberato et al. (2021), Buxton and Michopoulou (2021), Rodrigues et al. (2020), Lin and Mattila (2018)
Technical ability/competence	Bodeker and Cohen (2010), Langviniene and Sekliuckiene (2008)
Pools	Smith et al. (2020), Strack and Raffay-Danyi (2020), Rodrigues et al. (2020)
Safety	Liberato et al. (2021), Lo et al. (2015), Bodeker and Cohen (2010)
Treatments	Liberato et al. (2021), Lin and Mattila (2018), Panchal (2012)
Price	Anaya-Aguilar et al. (2021a), Strack and Raffay-Danyi (2020), Rodrigues et al. (2020)

Source Authors' elaboration.

et al. (2015) also consider it very important to provide quality services to stimulate the consumer to repeat the same experience in the future. In other words, providing a quality experience encourages customers to return since the customer's appreciation of a particular service reflects through the frequency of consumption (Langviniene & Sekliuckiene, 2008). The same idea is shared by Loureiro et al. (2013), saying that a positive and satisfying experience is crucial for those who experience a spa service to want to praise it, recommend it, and encourage family and friends to visit the spa. In addition, understanding the needs and desires of these consumers will ultimately help these establishments to develop strategies to attract new customers and retain existing ones (Kucukusta & Denizci Guillet, 2016). In this line, for Lin and Mattila (2018), spa operators should continually update, monitor, and control their offer to be distinctive, attractive, and difficult for others to reproduce. Tung and Ritchie (2011, p. 1369) define tourist experience as "an individual subjective (affective, cognitive, and behavioral) evaluation of events related to tourist activity that begins before (planning and preparation), during (at the destination), and after the trip (the recollection)". The logic of defining the moments of the experience is also applied by Chen and Petrick (2013) to present aspects that influence vacation outcomes in three moments: before, during, and after. Following these perspectives, Fig. 2 shows the three stages of the spa experience and their implications, organized into 1. Expectations, 2. Consumption, and 3. Consequences.

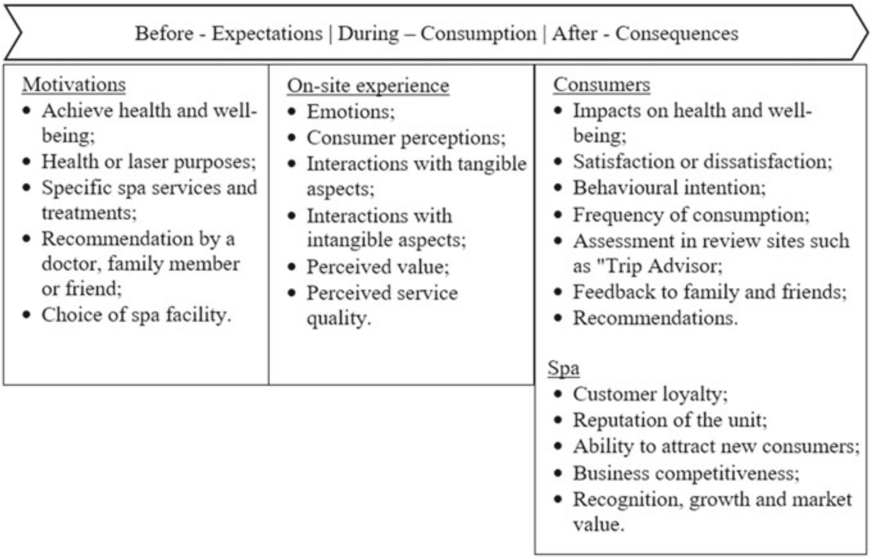


Fig. 2 Summary of the three stages of the spa experience. *Source* Authors' elaboration

5 Conclusion

This article was developed based on content analysis and literature review, systematic and narrative, and is considered to have effectively responded to the outlined objective—to understand, from several points of view, the consumption of experience in different spa establishments and the most critical aspects for its success. With the increased perception and desire to achieve health and wellness and, holistically, have a quality of life, these places have become very desirable and popular all over the world. Also, for these reasons, spas have excellent prospects for continued growth in the future. There are several establishments dedicated to this goal, namely the different types of spas, many of them identified in this study. Whatever the type of establishment, it provides a better quality of life and a complete state of well-being, physically and psychologically. From the literature presented, it is understood that the impact of the experience is tremendous in these establishments. The spa experience, in general, always provides a positive experience, good emotions, such as excitement, pleasure, and relaxation, regardless of the consumers' profile. Whenever the consumer gets these good results, this leads to satisfaction, good behavioral intention, high frequency of consumption, positive assessment in review sites, feedback to family and friends, and recommendations. These indicators translate the results of a positive experience. In this context, having a deep understanding of what determines service quality, its tangible and intangible aspects, is extremely important, especially for the managers of these establishments to achieve their objectives, such as customer loyalty, reputation; attract new consumers; business competitiveness;

and market value. Primarily empirical evidence was analyzed relating to service quality, behavioral intentions, perceived value, factors affecting consumer satisfaction, and other issues that bring knowledge to the study of the overall experience in a health and wellness context. The main results highlight the most important aspects affecting satisfaction and identify three key moments that can systematize the spa experience—expectations, consumption, and consequences.

Acknowledgements This article is a result of the project "GreenHealth – Digital strategies in biological assets to improve well-being and promote green health" (Norte-01-0145-FEDER-000042), supported by North Portugal Regional Operational Programme (NORTE 2020), under the PORTUGAL 2020 Partnership Agreement, through the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF). The authors are grateful to the FCT Portugal for financial support by national funds FCT/MCTES to UNIAG, under Project no. UIDB/04752/2020.

References

Ahani, A., Nilashi, M., Ibrahim, O., Sanzogni, L., & Weaven, S. (2019). Market segmentation and travel choice prediction in Spa hotels through TripAdvisor's online reviews. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 80*, 52–77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.01.003

Aleksijevits, K. (2019). Consumer motivation and behaviour when selecting a wellness holiday destination. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 2*(2), 78–97. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2020.1771017

Alén, E., De Carlos, P., & Domínguez, T. (2014). An analysis of differentiation strategies for Galician thermal centres. *Current Issues in Tourism, 17*(6), 499–517. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2012.733357

Anaya-Aguilar, R., Gemar, G., & Anaya-Aguilar, C. (2021a). Validation of a satisfaction questionnaire on Spa tourism. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(9), 4507. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18094507

Anaya-Aguilar, R., Gemar, G., & Anaya-Aguilar, C. (2021b). Challenges of Spa tourism in Andalusia: Experts' proposed solutions. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*, 1829. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18041829

Anderssen, J. (2016). What is a health worker? How spa therapists in a Norwegian health hotel understand their work. *Anthropology & Medicine, 23*(1), 30–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/13648470.2015.1077198

Batbaatar, E., Dorjdagva, J., Luvsannyam, A., & Amenta, P. (2015). Conceptualisation of patient satisfaction: A systematic narrative literature review. *Perspectives in Public Health, 135*(5), 243–250. https://doi.org/10.1177/1757913915594196

Birader, T.G., Öztüren, A. (2019). Motivators and perceptions of island residents towards medical tourism in mainland. *Journal of Tourism and Services*, 10(19): 164–176. https://doi.org/10.29036/jots.v10i19.99.

Blesic, I., Popov-Raljic, J., Uravic, L., Stankov, U., Deri, L., Pantelic, M., & Armenski, T. (2014). An importance-performance analysis of service quality in spa hotels. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istrazivanja, 27*(1), 483–495. https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2014.967537

Blesic, I., Tesanovic, D., & Psodorov, D. (2011). Consumer satisfaction and quality management in the hospitality industry in South-East Europe. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*(4), 1388–1396.

Bodeker, G., & Cohen, M. (2010). *Understanding the Global Spa Industry*. Routledge.

Brandão, F., Liberato, D., Teixeira, A. S., & Liberato, P. (2021). Motivations to the practice of thermal tourism: The case of north and centre of Portugal. *Sustainability*. https://doi.org/10.20944/preprints202107.0001.v1

Buxton, L., & Michopoulou, E. (2021). value co-creation and co-destruction: considerations of spa servicescapes. *Tourism Planning & Development, 18*(2), 210–225. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2021.1873837

Cacciapuoti, S., Luciano, M., Megna, M., Annunziata, M., Napolitano, M., Patruno, C., Scala, E., Colicchio, R., Pagliuca, C., Salvatore, P., & Fabbrocini, G. (2020). The Role of Thermal Water in Chronic Skin Diseases Management: A Review of the Literature. Journal of clinical medicine, 9. https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm9093047

de Cavalcante, W. Q., & F., Coelho, A., & Bairrada, C. M. (2021). Sustainability and tourism marketing: A bibliometric analysis of publications between 1997 and 2020 using VOSviewer software. *Sustainability, 13*(9), 4987. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13094987

Cham, T. H., Lim, Y., & Aik, N.-C. (2015). A study of brand image, perceived service quality, patient satisfaction and behavioral intention among the medical tourists. Global Journal of Business and Social Science Review, 2, 14–26. https://doi.org/10.35609/gjbssr.2014.2.2(4).

Chang, S. (2018). Experience economy in hospitality and tourism: Gain and loss values for service and experience. *Tourism Management, 64*, 55–63. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.08.004

Chen, C.-C., & Petrick, J. F. (2013). Health and wellness benefits of travel experiences: A literature review. *Journal of Travel Research, 52*(6), 709–719. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513496477

Choi, Y., Kim, J., Lee, C.-K., & Hickerson, B. (2015). The role of functional and wellness values in visitors' evaluation of spa experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 20*(3), 263–279. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2013.877044

Chrobak, A., Ugolini, F., Pearlmutter, D., & Raschi, A. (2020). Thermal tourism and geoheritage: Examining visitor motivations and perceptions. *Resources, 9*(5), 58. https://doi.org/10.3390/resources9050058

Clark-Kennedy, J., Kennedy, G., Cohen, M., & Conduit, R. (2021). Mental health outcomes of balneotherapy: A systematic review. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 4*(1), 69–92. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2021.1913368

Clemes, M. D., Dean, D. L., & Thitiya, T. (2020). Modelling the behavioural intentions of day spa customers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 32*(8), 1699–1716. https://doi.org/10.1108/APJML-04-2019-0258

Cohen, M., Elliott, F., Oates, L., Schembri, A., & Mantri, N. (2017). Do wellness tourists get well? An observational study of multiple dimensions of health and well-being after a week-long retreat. *Journal of alternative and complementary medicine* (New York, N.Y.), 23. https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2016.0268

Correa, A. de la H., Muñoz-Leiva, F., & Bakucz, M. (2018). Past themes and future trends in medical tourism research: A co-word analysis. *Tourism Management*, 65, 200–211. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.10.001

Dimitrovski, D., & Todorović, A. (2015). Clustering wellness tourists in spa environment. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 16*, 259–265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2015.09.004

Dryglas, D., & Różycki, P. (2017). Profile of tourists visiting European spa resorts: A case study of Poland. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events, 9*(3), 298–317. https://doi.org/10.1080/19407963.2017.1297311

Elias-Almeida, A., Miranda, F., & Almeida, P. (2016). Customer delight: Perception of hotel spa consumers. *European Journal of Tourism Hospitality and Recreation, 7*(1), 13–20. https://doi.org/10.1515/ejthr-2016-0002

Faust, O. (2018). Documenting and predicting topic changes in computers in biology and medicine: A bibliometric keyword analysis from 1990 to 2017. *Informatics in Medicine Unlocked, 11*, 15–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.imu.2018.03.002

Feng, S., & Law, N. (2021). Mapping Artificial Intelligence in Education Research: A Network-based Keyword Analysis. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education, 31*(2), 277–303. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40593-021-00244-4

Flores-Romero, M. B., Pérez-Romero, M. E., Álvarez-García, J., & del Río-Rama, M. de la C. (2021). Bibliometric Mapping of Research on Magic Towns of Mexico. *Land*, 10(8), 852. https://doi.org/10.3390/land10080852.

Global Wellness Institute. (2022). Spa Industry. Global Wellness Institute. Retrieved December 12, 2021, from https://globalwellnessinstitute.org/what-is-wellness/spa-industry/.

Groshev, I., & Krasnoslobodtsev, A. A. (2017). World Market of Medical Tourism. *World Economy and International Relations*, 61(10), 87–95. https://doi.org/10.20542/0131-2227-2017-61-10-87-95

Habibi, A., Mousavi, M., Jamali, S. M., & Ale Ebrahim, N. (2021). A bibliometric study of medical tourism. *Anatolia,* 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2021.1954042

Han, H., Kiatkawsin, K., Jung, H., & Kim, W. (2018). The role of wellness spa tourism performance in building destination loyalty: The case of Thailand. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 35*(5), 595–610. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2017.1376031

Henry, B. M., Skinningsrud, B., Vikse, J., Pękala, P. A., Walocha, J. A., Loukas, M., Tubbs, R. S., & Tomaszewski, K. A. (2018). Systematic reviews versus narrative reviews in clinical anatomy: Methodological approaches in the era of evidence-based anatomy. *Clinical Anatomy, 31*(3), 364–367. https://doi.org/10.1002/ca.23042

Huang, Y.-C., Chen, C.-C.B., & Gao, M. J. (2019). Customer experience, well-being, and loyalty in the spa hotel context: Integrating the top-down & bottom-up theories of well-being. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 36*(5), 595–611. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2019.1604293

ISPA FOUNDATION. (2021). The International Spa Association|A World of Inspiration. Retrieved February 14, 2022, from https://experienceispa.com/about/ispa-foundation.

Karimi Takalo, S., Sayyadi Tooranloo, H., & Shahabaldini parizi, Z. (2021). Green innovation: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 279, 122474. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.122474.

Kessler, D., Lee, J.-H., & Whittingham, N. (2020). The wellness tourist motivation scale: A new statistical tool for measuring wellness tourist motivation. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 3*(1), 24–39. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2020.1849930

Kim, B., & Yang, X. (2021). "I'm here for recovery": The eudaimonic wellness experiences at the Le Monastère des Augustines Wellness hotel. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 0(0), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2021.1921093.

Kirillova, K., Lehto, X. Y., & Cai, L. (2017). Existential authenticity and anxiety as outcomes: The tourist in the experience economy. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 19*(1), 13–26. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2080

Koskinen, V. (2019). Spa tourism as a part of ageing well. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 2*(1), 18–34. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2019.1668673

Kucukusta, D., & Denizci Guillet, B. (2016). Lifestyle segmentation of spa users: A study of inbound travelers to Hong Kong. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 21*(3), 239–258. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2015.1025087

Kutlu, D., & Ayyıldız, H. (2021). The Role of the Destination Image in Creating Memorable Tourism Experience. *Journal of Tourism and Services*, 23(12), 199–216. https://doi.org/10.29036/jots.v12i23.303.

Landrum, N. E., & Ohsowski, B. (2018). Identifying worldviews on corporate sustainability: A content analysis of corporate sustainability reports. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 27*(1), 128–151. https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.1989

Langviniene, N., & Sekliuckiene, J. (2008). Assessment of spa services quality in Lithuania: Customer's viewpoint. *Amfiteatru Economic, 10*, 230–241.

Laurence, B. (2011). *L'Analyse de Contenu* (1.a ed.). 70.

Liberato, D., Brandão, F., Teixeira, A. S., & Liberato, P. (2021). Satisfaction and loyalty evaluation towards health and wellness destination. *Revista Turismo & Desenvolvimento*, 36(2), 9–24. https://doi.org/10.34624/rtd.v2i36.24679.

Lin, I. Y., & Mattila, A. S. (2018). A conceptual model of co-creating an authentic luxury spa experience. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 1*(1), 39–54. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2018.1438537

Liu, X., Fu, Y., Chao, R., & Li, J. (2019a). A formative measurement approach for exploring how to form service quality in hot spring resorts. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 19*(1), 27–39. https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358416683767

Liu, X., Fu, Y., & Li, J. (2019b). The effect of on-site experience and place attachment on loyalty: Evidence from Chinese tourists in a hot-spring resort. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration, 20*(1), 75–100. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2017.1359730

Lo, A. S., & Wu, C. (2014). Effect of consumption emotion on hotel and resort spa experience. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 31*(8), 958–984. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2014.895692

Lo, A., Wu, C., & Tsai, H. (2015). The impact of service quality on positive consumption emotions in resort and hotel spa experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 24*(2), 155–179. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2014.885872

Loke, Z. (2020). Investigation of medical- and wellness tourists of a Hungarian spa to explore, relationships between service quality, customer satisfaction, and loyalty. *Deturope*, 12(1), 102–118.

Loureiro, S. M. C., Almeida, M., & Rita, P. (2013). The effect of atmospheric cues and involvement on pleasure and relaxation: The spa hotel context. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 35*, 35–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.04.011

Luo, Y., Lanlung (Luke), C., Kim, E., Tang, L. R., & Song, S. M. (2018). Towards quality of life: The effects of the wellness tourism experience. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(4), 410–424. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2017.1358236.

Mak, A. H. N., Wong, K. K. F., & Chang, R. C. Y. (2009). Health or self-indulgence? The motivations and characteristics of spa-goers. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 11*(2), 185–199. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.703

Masiero, S., Litwocenko, S., Agostini, F., & On behalf section of Rehabilitation in Environmental Thermal for Italian Society of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation. (2020). Rehabilitation in an Italian thermal setting: A new therapeutic strategy for patients with musculoskeletal disability—the results of an Italian survey. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 64(6), 951–954. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00484-019-01765-3.

McAllister, J. T., Lennertz, L., & Atencio Mojica, Z. (2021). Mapping a discipline: A guide to using VOSviewer for bibliometric and visual analysis. *Science & Technology Libraries,* 1–30. https://doi.org/10.1080/0194262X.2021.1991547

McFadden, A., & Williams, K. E. (2020). Teachers as evaluators: Results from a systematic literature review. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 64*, 100830. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2019.100830

Nilashi, M., Mardani, A., Liao, H., Ahmadi, H., Manaf, A., & Almukadi, W. (2019). A hybrid method with TOPSIS and machine learning techniques for sustainable development of green hotels considering online reviews. *Sustainability*, 11(21). https://doi.org/10.3390/su11216013

Nilsen, B. T. (2013). The role of the body and body ideals in the production and consumption of spa experiences. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 13*(3), 139–152. https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2013.837288

Panchal. (2012). The Asian spa: A study of tourist motivations, «flow» and the benefits of spa experiences [PHD Thesis, James Cook University]. https://researchonline.jcu.edu.au/26967/1/26967_Panchal_2012_thesis.pdf

Paul, J., & Criado, A. R. (2020). The art of writing literature review: What do we know and what do we need to know? *International Business Review, 29*(4), 101717. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2020.101717

Pereira, A., Fonseca, C., Coutinho, P., Cruz, A., & Araújo, A. R. T. S. (2017). Thermal spa treatments and benefits perceived by users of Cró and Carvalhal spa for dermatological purpose. *Tourism and Hospitality International Journal, 9*(2), 151–162.

Pessot, E., Spoladore, D., Zangiacomi, A., & Sacco, M. (2021). Natural resources in health tourism: a systematic literature review. *Sustainability, 13*(5), 2661. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13052661

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The Experience Economy*: *Work is Theatre & Every Business a Stage*. Harvard Business School Press; 1st edition (April 1, 1999). ISBN-10: 0875848192.

Pinos Navarrete, A., Sanchez Escolano, L. M., & Maroto Martos, J. C. (2021). Spa tourism in Western Europe: Reconceptualization and new space functions in a comparative perspective. Boletin De La Asociacion De Geografos Espanoles, 88. https://doi.org/10.21138/bage.3061.

Poluzzi, I., & Esposito, S. (2019). Implications of rituals and authenticity within the spa industry. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 2*(2), 98–106. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2020.1770984

Pranckutė, R. (2021). Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus: The titans of bibliographic information in Today's Academic World. *Publications, 9*(1), 12. https://doi.org/10.3390/publications9010012

Rama, D., Maldonado-Erazo, C., & Álvarez García, J. (2018). State of the art of research in the sector of thermalism, thalassotherapy and spa: A bibliometric analysis. *European Journal of Tourism Research, 19*, 56–70.

Rodrigues, C., Ferreira, F., Costa, V., Alves, M. J., Fernandes, P. O., Vaz, M., & Nunes, A. (2022). User's profile of thermal establishments: A literature review. International Conference on Tourism Research, 15(1), https://doi.org/10.34190/ictr.15.1.129

Rodrigues, H., Brochado, A., & Troilo, M. (2020). Listening to the murmur of water: Essential satisfaction and dissatisfaction attributes of thermal and mineral spas. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 37*(5), 649–661. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2019.1633986

Smith, M. K., Jancsik, A., & Puczkó, L. (2020). Customer satisfaction in post-socialist Spas: A case study of Budapest, City of Spas. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 3*(2–3), 165–186. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2020.1866330

Snyder, H. (2019). Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *Journal of Business Research, 104*, 333–339. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.07.039

Štefko, R., Jenčová, S., & Vašaničová, P. (2020). The Slovak spa industry and spa companies: Financial and economic situation. Journal of Tourism and Services, 20(11), 28–43. https://doi.org/10.29036/jots.v11i20.137

Strack, F., & Raffay-Danyi, A. (2020). Well-being and healing and characteristics of demand for spas in Hungary. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 3*(2–3), 145–164. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2021.1875614

Tang, I. L. F., Chan, E., Chew-Tan, T., & Wong Leung, R. (2020). Asian Millennials' views on thermal baths – from medical to wellness service experiences. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 3*(2–3), 82–99. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2021.1881353

Thomas, J., Thirlaway, K., Bowes, N., & Meyers, R. (2020). Effects of combining physical activity with psychotherapy on mental health and well-being: A systematic review. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 265*, 475–485. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2020.01.070

Tu, Y., Xu, J., & Shen, H.-W. (2021). KeywordMap: Attention-based Visual Exploration for Keyword Analysis. In: 2021 IEEE 14th Pacific Visualization Symposium (PacificVis), 206–215. https://doi.org/10.1109/PacificVis52677.2021.00034.

Tung, V. W. S., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*(4), 1367–1386. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.03.009

Upadhyai, R., Jain, A. K., Roy, H., & Pant, V. (2019). A review of healthcare service quality dimensions and their measurement. *Journal of Health Management, 21*(1), 102–127. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972063418822583

Vespestad, M. K., & Clancy, A. (2021). Exploring the use of content analysis methodology in consumer research. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 59*, 102427. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2020.102427

Virabhakul, V., & Huang, C. (2018). Effects of service experience on behavioral intentions: serial multiple mediation model. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 27*(8), 997–1016. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2018.1482251

Wang, L., Togtokhbuyan, L., & Yadmaa, Z. (2021). Visual analysis of the international wellness tourism WOS literature from 1992 to 2019. *International Journal of Spa and Wellness, 4*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/24721735.2020.1830527

Wu, H.-C., Cheng, C.-C., & Ai, C.-H. (2018). A study of experiential quality, experiential value, trust, corporate reputation, experiential satisfaction and behavioral intentions for cruise tourists: The case of Hong Kong. *Tourism Management, 66*, 200–220. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.12.011

Xiao, Y., & Watson, M. (2019). Guidance on conducting a systematic literature review. *Journal of Planning Education and Research, 39*(1), 93–112. https://doi.org/10.1177/0739456X17723971

Young, J., Maxwell, H., & Peel, N. (2021). Leisure meets health: Important intersections and alternative discourses. *Annals of Leisure Research, 24*(3), 275–282. https://doi.org/10.1080/11745398.2020.1836666

Yu, Y., Li, Y., Zhang, Z., Gu, Z., Zhong, H., Zha, Q., Yang, L., Zhu, C., & Chen, E. (2020). A bibliometric analysis using VOSviewer of publications on COVID-19. *Annals of Translational Medicine*, 8(13), 816. https://doi.org/10.21037/atm-20-4235

Zeng, L., Li, R., & Huang, X. (2021). Sustainable mountain-based health and wellness tourist destinations: the interrelationships between tourists' satisfaction, behavioral intentions, and competitiveness. *Sustainability*, *13*(23). https://doi.org/10.3390/su132313314.

Zhong, L., Deng, B., Morrison, A. M., Coca-Stefaniak, J. A., & Yang, L. (2021). Medical, health and wellness tourism research—A review of the literature (1970–2020) and research agenda. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(20), 10875. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182010875

To Read or not to Read? Dilemmas of Potential Tourism Visitors: Quantitative Study of Online Review Management from Slovakia

Kristína Pompurová, Ivana Šimočková, and Ľubica Šebová

Abstract Electronic word of mouth has received intensive attention in the literature for several years. As interpersonal interaction is more pronounced in tourism than in other sectors, the impact of eWOM is intensified. The purpose of the paper therefore is to examine the extent to which the inhabitants of Slovakia as potential tourism visitors read online reviews and to analyze the reasons for reading reviews. The research sample included 2,407 respondents addressed online. Based on research results, age plays a decisive role when dealing with the number of review readers (decreasing moderately with increasing age). Slovak inhabitants prefer Booking platform and social networks to websites designed primarily to evaluate tourism products and services. The accommodation facilities reviews are being read to avoid disappointment from insufficient quality of services and to ensure the favorable ratio of quality and price. The results of the survey confirmed the importance of reviews in the consumer decision-making process and underline the fact that tourism businesses should pay greater attention to electronic word of mouth if they want to be successful.

Keywords Online · Platform · Reviews · Visitors in tourism
JEL Classification Z33

1 Introduction

In recent years, the Internet has deeply transformed the business scenario by becoming a significant platform where people become the 'media' for cooperation and information sharing (Li & Wang, 2011). When communicating to others, Internet users share a variety of information and experiences and create electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM) in the form of positive or negative estimations. Thus, eWOM has become an effective tool for knowledge sharing and decision-making (Nilashi et al., 2022). Electronic word of mouth is considered to be more credible

K. Pompurová (✉) · I. Šimočková · Ľ. Šebová
Department of Tourism, Faculty of Economics, Matej Bel University, Tajovského 10, Banská Bystrica 975 90, Slovakia
e-mail: kristina.pompurova@umb.sk

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_40

and reliable than marketing communication run by businesses, as it reflects opinions and attitudes derived from the experience of consumption (Abd-Elaziz et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2016; Litvin et al., 2008; Pang, 2021). As interpersonal interaction is more pronounced in tourism than in other sectors, the impact of eWOM is more accentuated (Abd-Elaziz et al., 2015). The purpose of the paper is also to confirm the importance of eWOM in tourism, based on the example of inhabitants of Central European countries.

2 Literature Review

Old-style offline word of mouth played an important role in customers' buying decisions. However, the emergence of Internet-based technologies and platforms has extended consumers' options to gather objective information from other consumers and, at the same time, has provided the opportunity for people to offer their own consumption-related recommendation by engaging in electronic word of mouth (eWOM). Given the different characteristics of Internet communication embracing multiple individuals, available to other consumers for an indefinite period of time, and anonymous, eWOM deserves intensified attention (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004a,b).

Information sharing through word of mouth appears on a much wider scale and is not limited by the physical distance between individuals. Reviews spread rapidly and may have a significant effect on the purchasing intentions of the forthcoming buyers. Not only have practitioners realized the importance of eWOM, but researchers have also tried to explore this issue further (Donthu et al., 2021).

Scholars mainly deal with the impact of reviews on the consumer decision-making process (e.g., Lim, 2016; Krishnapillai & Ying, 2017; Zainal et al., 2017; Ariyanto & Prihandono, 2018; Chang & Wang, 2019; Nurhidayati, 2020), provision respectively writing of reviews (e.g., Yoo & Gretzel, 2008; Geetha et al., 2017; Hu & Kim, 2018; Cheng & Jin, 2019; Nam et al., 2020; Xu, 2020; Liu et al., 2021) and with both activities, i.e., receiving and providing eWOM (e.g., López & Sicilia, 2014; Hernández-Méndez et al., 2015; Kanje, 2020).

Previous studies assumed that people use eWOM to obtain information on tourism destinations, hotels, restaurants, and other tourism facilities that they plan to visit or use, and that eWOM significantly influences their choice (Lončarić et al., 2016; Singh & Kathuria, 2019). Consumers believe that by adopting eWOM, the risk of poor service choices may be reduced, and they could plan their travel and stay more efficiently (Singh and Kathuria, 2019). Consumers rely on easy-to-process information when searching for eWOM (Sparks & Browning, 2011), but also on their quality (Filieri & McLeay, 2013). They trust more in posts where the identity of the author is public (Lončarić et al., 2016; Zainal et al., 2017), and they also place more trust in contributions published on websites designed to evaluate tourism products and services, such as Booking or TripAdvisor (Lončarić et al., 2016).

In this paper, we focus on the review readers, so the demand side, and we point at the reasons where and why the reviews are read and how these affect consumer decision-making process.

3 Methodology

The paper therefore aims to examine the extent to which the inhabitants of Slovakia as potential tourism visitors read online reviews and to analyze the reasons for reading reviews.

Data collection in previous tourism studies dealing with eWOM used mostly questionnaires (distributed both personally and online), interviews, and published reviews on online platforms. Online questionnaires tend to be the most frequent and at the same time the most effective way of data collection when examining eWOM. As follows, online questionnaires were used in this study. Due to anti-pandemic measures, the electronic distribution proved to be the only possible option to address the Slovak population (5.4 million inhabitants in total). As a result of the snowball method, 2 407 respondents of all age groups (Fig. 1) joined the study, with a dominant group of young people.

The results of the questionnaire survey were processed in Excel and in the statistical software SPSS, version 28.

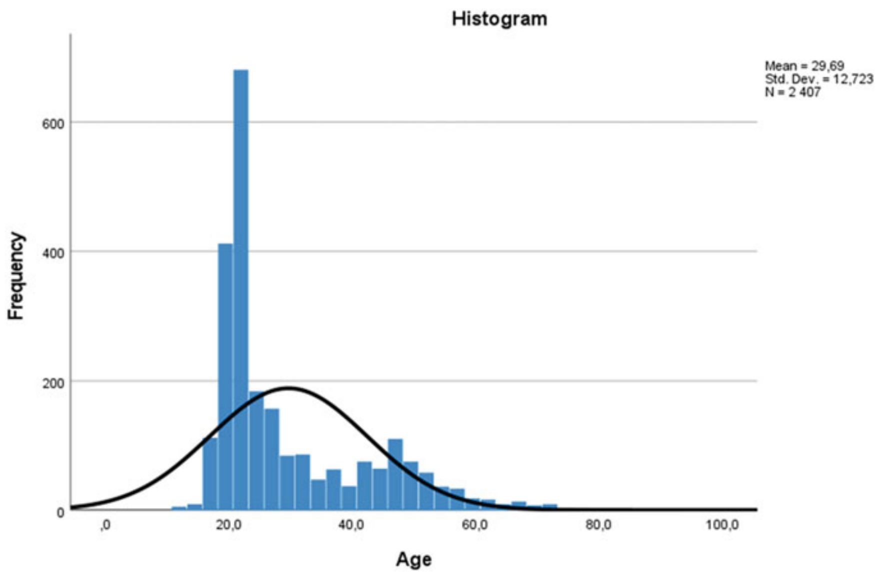


Fig. 1 Age of the respondents

4 Results

As the results of the quantitative study show, 84% of respondents usually read reviews about accommodation or destination before their trip, while the number of review readers decreases moderately with increasing age (Spearman's rho = −0.043; Sig. = 0.036; Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level).

Reviews are not read mainly by individuals with previous personal experience, people who were personally advised of the destination and/or accommodation by someone close to them, or those who did not have time to read reviews.

Those respondents who tend to read reviews before their vacation use predominantly the platforms Booking, Google, TripAdvisor, but also the social networks Facebook and Instagram (Fig. 2). In previous foreign studies, Booking and TripAdvisor dominated (Lončarić et al., 2016).

Respondents read most frequently reviews about accommodation facilities (Fig. 3); they are less often interested in references about destinations, restaurants, and attractions.

When considering accommodation booking, reviews play a key role for most individuals, while low rating of accommodation and negative reviews persuade visitors not to book accommodation.

The reasons for reading reviews are quite heterogeneous. The inhabitants of Slovakia contacted read online reviews primarily in an effort to avoid poor quality and plan their stay more efficiently. These results correspond to the research results of Singh and Kathuria (2019). They also seek to achieve the optimal ratio of quality and price of services, to validate the suitability of the location, and to check up-to-date anti-pandemic measures (Fig. 4).

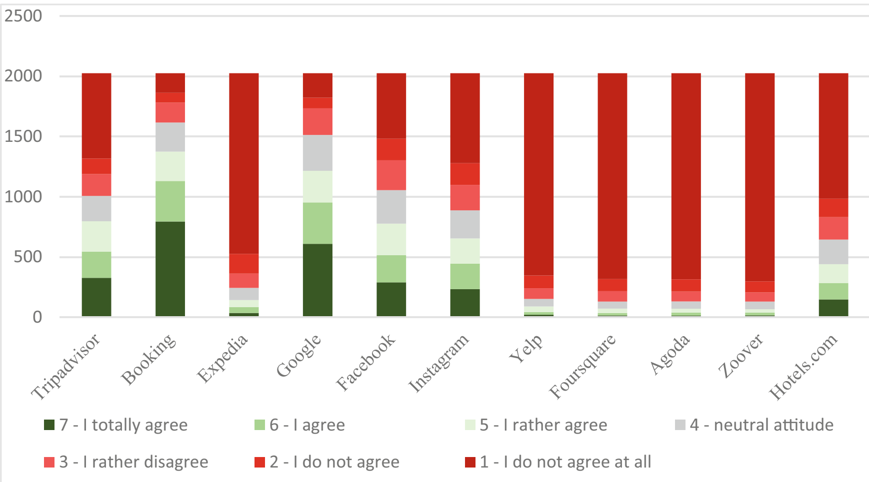


Fig. 2 Platforms where visitors read reviews

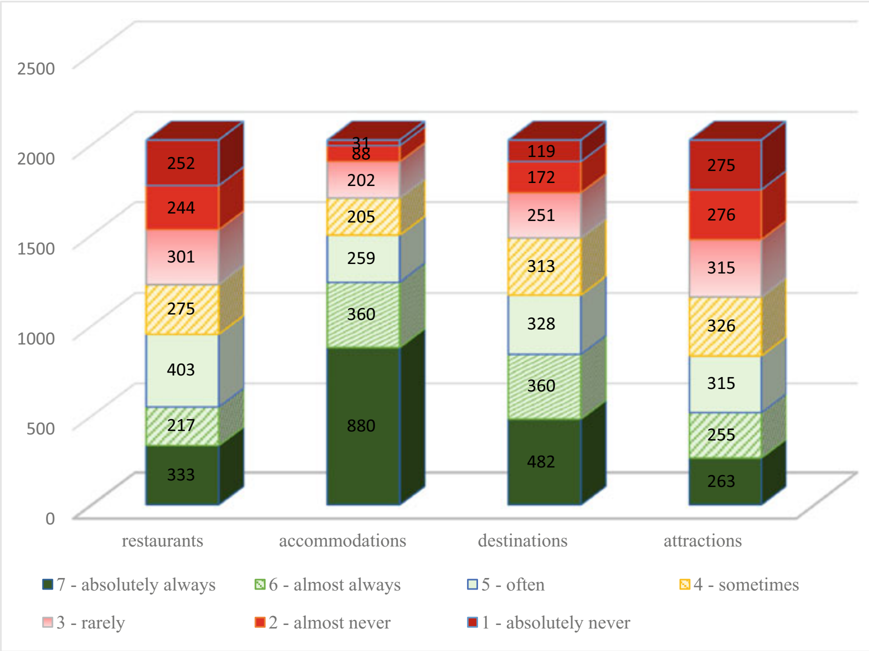


Fig. 3 Frequency of reading reviews

In the context of anti-pandemic measures that have affected the provision of tourism services previously, we examined whether the pandemic represented stimuli of increased interest in reading of the reviews. The research results were ambiguous and not obvious. On one hand, 42.72% of respondents read reviews more often due to the pandemic, on the other hand, 45.09% disagreed and 12.20% of respondents could not decide or had a neutral attitude.

5 Conclusion

With increasing interest in the online environment, the meaning of eWOM communication will also expand. Therefore, it is important to reveal to what extent it changes consumer decisions. The results of the Slovak quantitative survey confirmed the importance of reviews for consumer decision-making in tourism. As the older generation has a less friendly attitude and less trust in information technology, the number of review readers decreases with increasing age. Slovak inhabitants use reviews to obtain information mostly about accommodation facilities, while they prefer Booking platform and social networks over websites principally designed to evaluate tourism products and services. Same as Singh and Kathuria (2019), the present study confirms that individuals believe that by adopting reviews they can reduce the risk of poor

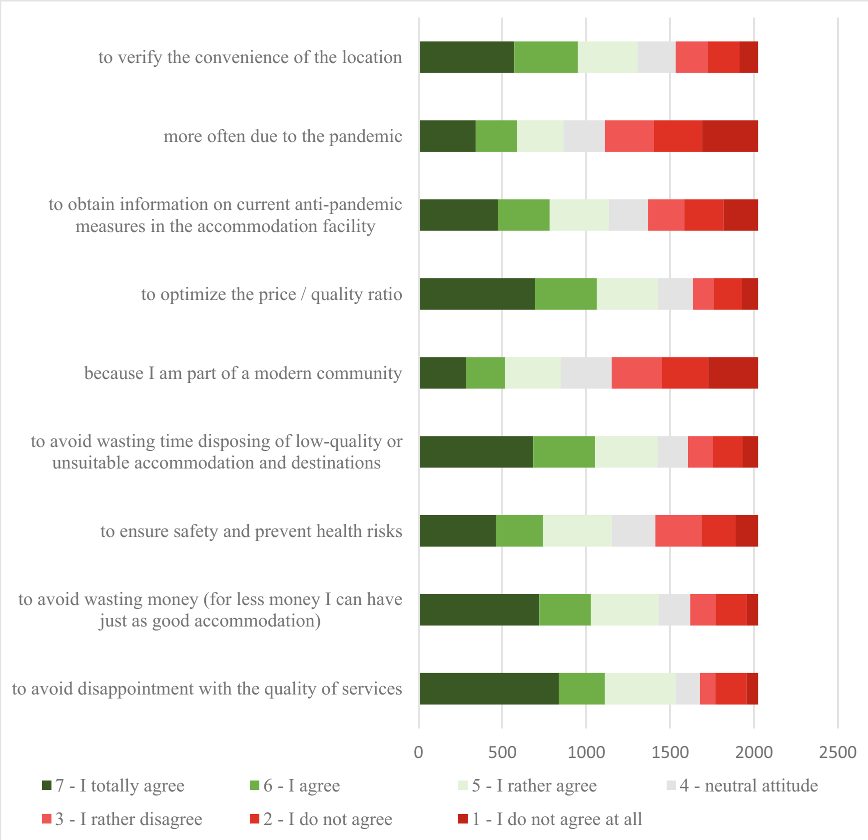


Fig. 4 Reasons for reading reviews

service choices. Tourism organizations should realize that negative business reviews make it difficult to gain new customers. Therefore, the provision of quality services is of primary importance. At the same time, attention should also be paid to managing eWOM, at least politely asking satisfied customers to spread their references. As Liu et al. (2021) found, the vast majority of customers will leave an online review if asked to do so.

Regarding the current study, some limitations should be noted. First, the research addresses the local level with some comparisons with previous studies. Second, the research refers to a particular territorial area, which is a central European country, Slovakia. Third, the research is based on the answers of the respondents and their subjective perception, which may differ from the actual purchasing behavior. Finally, the research does not address the full range of factors that can influence the frequency and reasons for reading reviews.

Despite the mentioned limits, the research presents interesting findings. It advances knowledge on potential visitors to the Slovak tourism industry and opens the door to a deeper investigation of the issue of reviews in the tourism sector. Future research should focus on positively perceived activities of tourism organizations by customers, helping negate the effect of negative reviews.

Acknowledgements The authors thank Andrej Malachovský and Tomáš Makovník (Faculty of Economics, Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica in Slovakia) for providing help in data collection and supervision of a Slovak research group within Erasmus+ project 2020-1-CZ01-KA203-078479 Online reputation management in Tourism (ORM).

This research was funded by the Scientific Grant Agency of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of Slovak Republic and Slovak Academy of Sciences VEGA, grant number "1/0368/20 Sharing economy as an opportunity for the sustainable and competitive development of tourist destinations in Slovakia".

References

Abd-Elaziz, M. E., Aziz, W. M., Khalifa, G. S. A., & Mayouf, M. A. A. (2015). Determinants of Electronic word of mouth (EWOM) influence hotel customers'purchasing decisions. *Journal of Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, 9*(2), 194–223.

Ariyanto, M. Z., & Prihandono, D. (2018). The influence of electronic word-of-mouth and destination image on visit decision through visit intention as intervening variable. *Management Analysis Journal, 7*(3), 318–327.

Chang, J.-H., & Wang, S.-H. (2019). Different levels of destination expectation: The effects of online advertising and electronic word-of-mouth. *Telematics and Informatics, 36*, 27–38. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2018.11.004

Cheng, M., & Jin, X. (2019). What do Airbnb users care about? An analysis of online review comments. *Internation Journal of Hospitality Management, 76*, 58–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.04.004

Donthu, N., Kumar, S., Pandey, N., Pandey, N., & Mishra, A. (2021). Mapping the electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) research: A systematic review and bibliometric analysis. *Journal of Business Research, 135*, 758–773. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.07.015

Filieri, R., & McLeay, F. (2013). E-WOM and accommodation: An analysis of the factors that influence travelers' adoption of information from online reviews. *Journal of Travel Research, 53*(1), 44–57. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0047287513481274

Geetha, M., Singha, P., & Sinha, S. (2017). Relationship between customer sentiment and online customer ratings for hotels – An empirical analysis. *Tourism Management, 61*, 43–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.12.022

Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., Gremler, D. D. (2004a). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the Internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *18*(1), 38–52. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/dir.10073

Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., & Gremler, D. D. (2004b). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the Internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 18*(1), 38–52. https://doi.org/10.1002/dir.10073

Hernández-Méndez, J., Muñoz-Leiva, F., & Sánchez-Fernández, J. (2015). The influence of e-word-of-mouth on travel decision-making: Consumer profiles. *Current Issues in Tourism, 18*(11), 1001–1021. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.802764

Hu, Y., & Kim, H. J. (2018). Positive and negative eWOM motivations and hotel customers' eWOM behavior: Does personality matter? *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 75*, 27–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.03.004

Kanje, P. (2020). Customer engagement and eWOM in tourism. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights, 3*(3), 273–289. https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-04-2019-0074

Kim, W. G., Li, J., & Brymer, R. A. (2016). The impact of social media reviews on restaurant performance: The moderating role of excellence certificate. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 55*, 41–51. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.03.001

Li, X., & Wang, Y. (2011). China in the eyes of western travelers as represented in travel blogs. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 28*(7), 689–719. https://doi.org/doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2011.615245

Lim, L. M. J. (2016). Analyzing the impact of electronic word of mouth on purchase intention and willingness to pay for tourism-related products. *Asia Pacific Business & Economics Perspectives, 4*(1), 22–40. https://doi.org/10.2991/aebmr.k.200131.008

Litvin, S. W., Goldsmith, R. E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management, 29*(3), 458–468. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.05.011

Liu, H., Osburg, V. S., Yoganathan, V., & Cartwright, S. (2021). Social sharing of consumption emotion in electronic word of mouth (eWOM): A cross-media perspective. *Journal of Business Research, 132*, 208–220. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.04.030

López, M., & Sicilia, M. (2014). eWOM as source of influence: the impact of participation in eWOM and perceived source trustworthiness on decision making. *Journal of Interactive Advertising, 14*(2), 86–97. https://doi.org/10.1080/15252019.2014.944288

Nam, K. Baker, J., Ahmad, N., & Goo, J. (2020). Determinants of writing positive and negative electronic word-of-mouth: Empirical evidence of two types of expectation confirmation. *Decision Support Systems, 129*. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2019.113168.

Nilashi, M., Abumalloh, R. A., Alrizq, M., Alghamdi, A., Samad, S., Almulihi, A., Althobaiti, M. M., Ismail, M. Y., & Mohd, S. (2022). What is the impact of eWOM in social network sites on travel decision-making during the COVID-19 outbreak? *A Two-Stage Methodology. Telematics and Informatics, 69*, 101795. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2022.101795

Nurhidayati, A. (2020). The effect of electronic word of mouth and service quality on satisfaction: Destination image as a mediator. *Advances in Economics, Business and Management Research, 124*, 803–818. https://doi.org/10.2991/aebmr.k.200305.147

Pang, H. (2021). Identifying associations between mobile social media users' perceived values, attitude, satisfaction, and eWOM engagement: The moderating role of affective factors. *Telematics and Informatics, 59*, 101561. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2020.101561

Singh, S. K., & Kathuria, L. M. (2019). Factors influencing e-word-of-mouth adoption among consumers availing travel services. *International Journal of Tourism Policy, 9*(2), 155–173. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJTP.2019.10024278

Sparks, B. A., & Browning, V. (2011). The impact of online reviews on hotel booking intentions and perception of trust. *Tourism Management, 32*(6), 1310–1323. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.12.011

Xu, X. (2020). How do consumers in the sharing economy value sharing? Evidence from online reviews. *Decision Support Systems, 128*(1), 113162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2019.113162

Yoo, K. H., & Gretzel, U. (2008). What motivates consumers to write online travel reviews? *Information Technology & Tourism, 10*, 283–295. https://doi.org/10.3727/109830508788403114

Zainal, N. T. A., Harun, A., & Lily, J. (2017). Examining the mediating effect of attitude towards electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) on the relation between the trust in eWOM source and intention to follow eWOM among Malaysian travelers. *Asia Pacific Management Review, 22*(1), 35–44. dpi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmrv.2016.10.004.

Profiling Coastal Tourists to the Democratic Republic of Congo

Nadine Kisema, Elricke Botha, and Nicolene Conradie

Abstract African countries take advantage of the blue economy (BE) to boost their local economies. Consequently, countries with coastlines, such as the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), can develop strategies for coastal tourism. This study aimed to profile coastal tourists of the DRC. A quantitative methodology was applied, using a convenience sample to collect primary data by distributing a self-designed questionnaire at the DRC coast from August to November 2020. A sample of 350 questionnaires was obtained. A profile was created using descriptive statistics and identified demographic and behavioural characteristics. In addition, travel motivations were identified using exploratory factor analysis. Based on the results, recommendations for the public and private tourism sectors were made. This is the first coastal tourism study based on the DRC. The profile of coastal tourists can assist the DRC in effectively communicating and improving the priorities in the development of tourism in the country.

Keywords Coastal tourism · Coastal tourist profile · Travel motivations · Push factors

JEL Classifications Z320 Tourism and Development · O2 Development Planning and Policy

1 Introduction

To rethink the future of Africa, the African Union's (AU) Agenda 2063 was launched. This agenda is a 50-year strategic framework to achieve the continent's sustainable development goals (AU, 2021; Ndizera & Muzee, 2018). Although all countries targeted are African, all are at a different stage of development which is likely to confuse the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the action plan

N. Kisema · E. Botha (✉) · N. Conradie
University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa
e-mail: vlogge@unisa.ac.za

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_41

(De Ghetto et al., 2016; Ndizera & Muzee, 2018). It is thus vital to conduct country-specific studies to determine assets, strengths and challenges specific to each country to account for these differences.

The blue economy (BE) is at the centre of Agenda 2063. This is justified since more than 70% of the Earth is covered by water, and it is considered the starting point for all life (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, [UNECA], 2016). From an African point of view, 38 of the 54 African states are coastal and marine zones under African jurisdiction, making marine resources a significant asset for Africa (AUDA-NEPAD, 2021). The BE is the sustainable use of ocean resources and preserving the health of the oceans' ecosystems (The World Bank, 2017). The BE concept is broad since it covers many sectors like fisheries, aquaculture, transport, energy, shipbuilding, underwater mining and tourism (UNECA, 2016). When tourism occurs in and around the sea and/or ocean, as the BE suggests, it is referred to as 'marine tourism' and 'coastal tourism'. Marine tourism takes place in the deep oceans with supporting facilities and infrastructure exclusively on land, whereas coastal tourism takes place on the offshore coastal waters with supporting facilities and infrastructure also on land (Tegar & Gurning, 2018). This study focuses on coastal tourism.

Referring to the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), the focus of this research, its geographical position along the Atlantic Ocean, as well as its internal assets such as lakes and rivers that link with the ocean, provide an opportunity for coastal tourism (Kisema, 2021).[1] Countries can develop their strategic plans to grow coastal tourism because the recreational use of a coastal site tends to grow in the future (Carvache-Franco et al., 2020). Owing to historical instability in and around DRC, tourism was prevented until 1999 with most of the tourists since then being DRC residents and from non-governmental organisations (Maekawa et al., 2013). Tourism has only been considered an autonomous ministry in DRC since December 2014 (Petit Futé République Démocratique du Congo, 2015). Limited initiatives have taken place in DRC thus far, and to increase the demand for coastal tourism, it is important to determine the profile of coastal tourists to DRC. In attempting to identify the profile, the following questions should be answered: what are the demographic characteristics of coastal tourists to DRC? What are the behavioural characteristics of coastal tourists to DRC? What is motivating coastal tourists to visit the DRC?

2 Literature Review

Tourist purchases, such as a holiday to the coastline of the DRC, are strongly influenced by demographic and behavioural characteristics (Kotler et al., 2022). In a coastal tourism context, understanding demographic and behavioural characteristics will also assist countries to develop a sustainable coastal tourism sector since the

[1] Selected portions of this chapter have appeared in MANSANGA NADINE KISEMA's Masters' thesis (Kisema, 2021).

recreational use of a coastal site tends to grow in future (Carvache-Franco et al., 2020).

2.1 Coastal Tourism

Coastal and marine tourism are closely related. Activities that take place in the deep oceans are called marine tourism with their infrastructure and supporting facilities on land (Tegar & Gurning, 2018). Marine tourism embraces tourism activities in marine areas such as swimming, seabird watching, canoeing, nautical sport, surfing, sport fishing, whale watching, yachting and voyage tourism to name but a few (De Swart et al., 2018; Schoeman, 2016). Coastal tourism is defined as a range of tourism, leisure and recreational activities that occur in and around coastal zones and waters (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2019). Coastal tourism also comprises marine tourism activities and other beach-based recreation activities such as sunbathing, kite competitions and walking on the beach (De Swart et al., 2018; Hjalager & Kwiatkowski, 2019). Coastal destinations have seacoasts as their main attraction (Pereira et al., 2021). Coastal areas are a potentially strong lure for attracting tourists who wish to learn and enjoy coastal-related activities (Laursen et al., 2021). Recognising demographic and behavioural characteristics is the first step to developing appropriate tourism strategies to increase coastal tourism demand.

2.2 Demographic and Behavioural Characteristics of Coastal Tourists

A demographic and behavioural characteristic comprises gender, age, marital status, education, the purpose of travel and accompanying people to name but a few. These characteristics assist tourism suppliers, managers and governments in understanding the consumption of products and services (Dodds & Holmes, 2019).

Several authors have investigated coastal tourists' demographic and behavioural characteristics. These authors have focussed on age (see Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Carvache-Franco et al., 2022; Prayag & Ryan, 2011; Van der Merwe et al. (2011); place of origin (see Awaritefe, 2004; Botero et al., 2013; Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Jeong, 2014; Van der Merwe et al., 2011); education (see Awaritefe, 2004; Carvache-Franco et al., 2020, 2022; Oh et al., 2009; Van der Merwe et al., 2011); length of stay (see Van der Merwe et al., 2011); average travelling group (see Molera & Albaladejo, 2007) and accommodation preferences (see Kozak, 2002).

2.3 Travel Motivations

Travel motivations are the basis of obtaining information on tourists' behaviour (Patterson, 2018) and refer to intrinsic factors that drive individuals to travel (Yousaf et al., 2018). Some of the well-known theories on travel motivation include Gray (1970), Iso-Ahola (1982), Dann (1977, 1981), and Crompton (1979) and are briefly discussed.

Gray (1970) explains that wanderlust tourists desire to travel and are interested in meeting different people and experiencing different cultures, while sunlust tourists are motivated by the desire for rest, relaxation, and sun, sea, and sand (Gray, 1970). Iso-Ahola's (1982) two-dimensional leisure motivation theory encompasses escape and seeking. Tourists want to travel to escape from everyday life and seek psychological rewards (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Dann (1977) builds a distinctive contribution to travel motivation by framing it into two domains, namely the 'push' and 'pull' domains. These two broad domains motivate tourists to travel (push) and are attracted to the desired destination (pull). Although these two domains are important, the focus of this paper is only on push factors as they often precede pull factors (Dann, 1977). Intrinsic motivations (push) are psychological needs causing a person to feel a disequilibrium that can be corrected through a tourism experience (Dann, 1977). According to Crompton (1979), travel motivation has been theorised as an active process of intrinsic psychological factors (needs and wants) that produce disequilibrium within individuals. Crompton's (1979) theory includes nine motivational factors, of which seven are socio-psychological motivational factors, namely escape, prestige, exploration, relaxation, regression, enhancement of kinship and social interaction. Crompton (1979) asserts that push factors are the most discussed socio-psychological motivations and thus the focus of this paper.

2.3.1 Push Factors of Coastal Tourists

"Push motives have been thought useful for explaining the desire to go on a vacation" (Crompton, 1979:410). Coastal tourism suppliers, managers and governments have to investigate tourists' motivations (i.e., push factors) for visiting a coastal destination (Van der Merwe et al., 2011).

Kozak (2002) investigated German and British tourists travelling to Mallorca and Turkey coastal destinations. The author identified culture, pleasure-seeking/fantasy, relaxation, and physical as push factors to visit both destinations. Awaritefe (2004) found relaxation/rest, games, swimming/fishing/canoeing, viewing birds/animals, education value of the environment, peace/tranquil atmosphere, appreciation of natural quality/aesthetics, change of environment, scenery, environment features, uniqueness/fascination, friendship/social interaction of people, welcoming staff/good and prompt services, safety/security/ protection, low cost at accommodation/food and others items, place of comfort/satisfaction, location/accessibility/distance or nearness, purchase of arts/craftwork and recommendation from friends/acquaintances as motivations for Nigerian visitors.

In their research on profiling tourists in south-eastern Spain, Molera and Albaladejo (2007) identified relaxation, independence and flexibility, having a good time with family, relationships with local people, visiting friends and a calm atmosphere as push factors in south-eastern Spain. Van der Merwe et al. (2011) determined the travel motivations of tourists to coastal destinations along the Indian Ocean coast of South Africa. The authors identified escape and relaxation, time utilisation and personal attachment. Botero et al. (2013) examined the preferences of tourists to beaches on the north Caribbean coast of Colombia. Push factors, namely a relaxed and family friendly atmosphere, crowding, to discover a new place, and interest in the destination was identified.

Kassean and Gassita (2013) identified rest and relaxation, nostalgia, escape, novelty, social interaction, self-actualisation and recognition/prestige as motivational factors for tourists to Mauritius. Jeong (2014) examined the push factors of coastal tourists to Seoul, South Korea. The study presented two push factors, namely escape, and novelty. Valls et al. (2017) investigated the push factors of British tourists visiting a Mediterranean coastal destination. The authors discovered enjoying and relaxation as push factors. Carvache-Franco et al. (2020) investigated tourist motivations (i.e., learning and novelty) to visit Salinas, a coastal destination in Ecuador. Carvache-Franco et al. (2022) found two motivational factors for tourists visiting Lima, Peru in the Pacific Ocean, namely novelty and escape, and learning and culture.

3 Methodology

This study made use of a quantitative methodology by collecting primary data through a self-designed questionnaire. The population for this study comprised both local and international tourists visiting the coastal area of DRC from August to November 2020. According to the République Démocratique du Congo (2019), 25 075 tourists visited the seaside in 2019. A non-probability convenience sampling approach was applied as the sample comprised of those tourists who were most conveniently available (Quinlan et al., 2019). Questionnaires were distributed to tourists visiting the coast of the DRC from August to November 2020. A total of 350 (n) completed questionnaires were obtained which was representative of the population ($N = 25{,}075$) (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

Although the research instrument consisted of four sections, only Sections A and B were used for this paper. The questions in Section A related to demographic and travel behaviour characteristics. This section asked questions related to gender, age, place of residence, home language, marital status, the highest level of education, the main purpose to visit the DRC and length of stay in the DRC, to name but a few. Section B required respondents' opinions on push motivations to the coast of DRC and was measured on a Likert scale of importance (1 = not at all important to 5 = extremely important). These questions were based on the following authors' work: Awaritefe (2004), Botero et al. (2013), Carvache-Franco et al. (2020), Crompton (1979), Hung and Petrick (2011), Jeong (2014), Kassean and Gassita (2013), Katsikari et al. (2020), Klenosky (2002), Kozak (2002), Molera and Albaladejo (2007), Phau et al. (2013), Valls et al. (2017), and Van der Merwe et al. (2011). The study received ethics clearance (2020_CEMS_DAM_004) before fieldwork took place.

Descriptive statistics for this study relate to frequencies, percentages and averages for demographic and behavioural characteristics. A factor analysis was performed on the push factors (section B). Factor analysis helps reduce many variables (i.e., latent variables) into a smaller number of variables that assists with better interpretations (Yong & Pearce, 2013). The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (Kaiser, 1974), as well as Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity, were calculated (these should be above 0.6 and $p \leq 0.05$, respectively) to see if a factor analysis could be performed. After that, the Kaiser Normalisation (above 1) advised on the number of factors to retain (Yong & Pearce, 2013). All factors' Cronbach's alpha (greater than 0.6) and inter-item correlation (between 0.2 and 0.4) were calculated (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Yusof et al., 2012). Finally, each factor's average was calculated and interpreted on the Likert scale on which it was measured.

4 Results

4.1 Findings Pertaining to the Demographic and Travel Behavioural Characteristics

This section captures the descriptive statistics of the demographic and travel behaviour characteristics of the respondents who visited the DRC coastline (Table 1).

The descriptive statistics revealed that respondents visiting the coastline of DRC were male with an average age of 43 years. Most of the respondents were domestic tourists, French speakers, and were married. Respondents seem to be well educated and their main purpose for travelling to the DRC was for 'holiday, leisure and recreation'. The average length of stay was 10 days with an average travelling group of four people. On average, the number of people paying for the stay was one person. Respondents mostly stayed in hotels.

The gender results correspond with previous authors like Awaritefe (2004), and Prayag and Ryan (2011), while average age corresponds with Prayag and Ryan (2011). The domestic tourist results correspond with Awaritefe (2004), Botero et al. (2013), Carvache-Franco et al. (2020), Jeong (2014), and Van der Merwe et al. (2011). The marital status results are similar to the results of Paudel, Caffey and Devkota (2011), and Van der Merwe et al. (2011). The education level also relates to previous studies by Awaritefe (2004), Carvache-Franco et al. (2020), Oh et al. (2009), and Van der Merwe et al. (2011).

Table 1 Demographic and travel behaviour characteristics results

Characteristics	Results
Gender	Males (68%), female (32%)
Age	Average of 43 years of age
Residence	In DRC (74%), outside (26%) *Respondents outside DRC mostly reside in Belgium (28%), Angola (25%), and the United States of America (the USA, 12%)
Language	*French (72%), Portuguese (7%), English (4%)
Marital status	*Married (55%), single (29%), living together (8%)
The highest level of education	*Undergraduate diploma/degree (26%), postgraduate diploma/honours (25%), matric/secondary school (20%)
The primary purpose of travel	*Holiday, leisure and recreation (36%), business and professional (24%), education and training (22%)
The secondary purpose of travel	*Holiday, leisure and recreation (59%), visiting friends and relatives (39%), shopping (27%)
Length of stay in Muanda/DRC	Average of 10 days
Travelling group size	Average of 4 people
People paid for	Average of one person
Accommodation	Hotel (41%), guest house or bed and breakfast (20%), self-catering accommodation (13%)

*Only the highest percentages were reported for the category. Percentages do not add up to 100%

4.2 Findings Pertaining to the Travel Motivations

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the push factors to explore the underlying dimensionality of these items.

Section B contained 25 items. Owing to low communality, nine variables were excluded. A factor analysis was then performed on the remaining 16 variables. The results of Bartlett's test of sphericity were significant ($p \leq 0.001$) and the KMO was 0.755. Only eigenvalues above 1 were used, which resulted in six factors and accounted for 52% variance. All the factor loadings were equal to or higher than 0.30. The factors were labelled according to similar characteristics among variables. Factor 1 was labelled *relaxation and enjoyment;* factor 2 = *escape*; factor 3 = *novelty;* factor 4 = *interest;* factor 5 = *miscellaneous*; and factor 6, only had one variable (i.e., to seek adventure) and was thus labelled *adventure*. All the factors, except for factor 5 (i.e., *miscellaneous*), had a Cronbach's alpha above 0.6, however, the inter-item correlation for factor 5 indicates an acceptable result (0.4) (Table 2).

Interest (3.45), *relaxation and enjoyment* (3.43), *escape* (2.90), *miscellaneous* (2.89) and *novelty* (2.88) as important motivational factors to visit the coast of DRC. The literature indicates that factors such as *relaxation and enjoyment* correspond to the work of Klenosky (2002), Kozak (2002), and Van der Merwe et al. (2011); *escape* corresponds to the work of Jeong (2014), Kassean and Gassita (2013), Klenosky

Table 2 Factor analysis results for push factors

	Factor 1: Relaxation and enjoyment	Factor 2: Escape	Factor 3: Novelty	Factor 4: Interest	Factor 5: Miscellaneous	Factor 6: Adventure
To relax	0.800	–	–	–	–	–
To have fun	0.681	–	–	–	–	–
To be active	0.566	–	–	–	–	–
To get close to nature	0.515	–	–	–	–	–
Recharge one's batteries	–	0.717	–	–	–	–
The desire to take a break	–	0.688	–	–	–	–
To have independence and flexibility	–	0.517	–	–	–	–
To escape from my everyday life	–	0.513	–	–	–	–
To discover a new place	–	–	0.792	–	–	–
To explore a new destination	–	–	0.750	–	–	–
I have an interest in the destination	–	–	–	0.710	–	–
Due to the beach's reputation	–	–	–	0.551	–	–
To experience a different culture	–	–	–	–	0.692	–
To enjoy good weather	–	–	–	–	0.583	–
To seek adventure	–	–	–	–	–	0.653
Cronbach's alpha	0.75	0.73	0.78	0.62	0.58	–
Inter-item correlation	0.44	0.41	0.65	0.45	0.40	–
Mean	3.43	2.90	2.88	3.45	2.89	2.03

(2002), and Van der Merwe et al. (2011); and *novelty* with the work of Carvache-Franco et al.'s (2020), Jeong (2014), Kassean and Gassita (2013), and Klenosky (2002). Push factors such as *interest*, *adventure* and *miscellaneous* were identified as new motivations to travel to a coastline such as DRC.

5 Implications

Public and private sectors must keep demographic and behavioural characteristics in mind to develop or customise coastal tourism product offerings. Although the results indicate a high proportion of male visitors, it will be worthwhile to focus on attracting female visitors to the DRC in the near future. Women worldwide have high involvement in tourism, are travel influencers, gain more importance in consumption decisions, have a higher level of concern for the environment and make more ethical consumer choices (Jucan & Jucan, 2013).

The results indicate that most of the tourists were domestic tourists. While this could be due to the pandemic (i.e., COVID-19), attracting international tourists brings in foreign exchange earnings, leads to tourism employment opportunities and boasts the development of the tourism industry.

The results indicate that both 'holiday, leisure and recreation' and 'business and professional' were the primary reasons for visiting the coast of DRC. This is the first coastal tourism study that has explored primary reasons to travel as limited to no evidence could be found in previous research. According to Leiper et al. (2008), the holiday (i.e., leisure) and business travellers differ in terms of their experiences, the needs underlying their motivations, interests being served and decision processes. Further investigation is required on these primary reasons as they may represent two lucrative target markets. Clear market segmentation in these two markets is proposed to aptly customise products and marketing campaigns.

The marital status, average age and travelling group size results seem to be indicative of family travellers. According to Schänzel and Yeoman (2015), experiential family holidays are one of the trends where families are increasingly seeking adventure and having more authentic experiences. This trend also fits well with the 'novelty' and 'adventure' motivation results of this study.

Marketing can specifically focus on the most important travel motivations to design appropriate products or experiences to attract tourists. These motivations include *interest*, *relaxation and enjoyment*, *escape*, *miscellaneous* and *novelty*. This will require the destination to conduct a situational analysis to identify the current coastal tourism attributes and determine which attributes may require amendment or development to satisfy these motivational needs.

6 Conclusion

This paper explored the profile of coastal tourists to the DRC. Considering that the tourism industry of the DRC is relatively new, the demographic and behavioural characteristics, as well as the travel motivations, provide important information to the public and private sectors. These results may assist them to develop and/or adapt offerings to grow the coastal tourism sector in the country. In this way, the DRC can contribute to the continent's sustainable development goals through the BE.

Even though COVID-19 did pose some limitations to the study, the results of this study can be used as a baseline for future research and coastal tourism strategies. Determining a change in coastal tourist profiles and motivations can provide important information on an increase in visitation and/or a change in tourist profile that may require product adaptations. Future research could investigate experiences and perceptions or conduct a dedicated market segmentation study to target the market more accurately. It will also be worthwhile to investigate pull factors (i.e., attributes) and constraints to travel to the DRC as the aspects can impact the success of the coastal tourism industry.

References

African Union (AU). (2021). Agenda 2063: The Africa we want [online]. Retrieved August 11, 2021, from https://au.int/agenda2063/overview.

African Union Development Agency (AUDA-NEPAD). (2021). Blue Economy: Africa's Untapped Potential for Economic Growth [online]. Retrieved August 3, 2021, from https://www.nepad.org/news/blue-economy-africas-untapped-potential-economic-growth.

Awaritefe, O. D. (2004). Tourists values, activities and motivation for travel to third world destinations: Case study of Nigeria. *Tourism Review, 59*(1), 34–43.

Bartlett, M. S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi-square approximation. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, 16*(2), 296–298.

Botero, C., Anfuso, G., Williams, A. T., Zielinski, S., Silva, C. P., Cervantes, O., Silva, L., & Cabrera, J. A. (2013). Reasons for beach choice: European and Caribbean perspectives. *Journal of Coastal Research, 65*(10065), 880–885.

Briggs, S. R., & Cheek, J. M. (1986). The role of factor analysis in the development and education of personality scales. *Journal of Personality, 54*(1), 106–148.

Carvache-Franco, M., Alvarez-Risco, A., Carvache-Franco, W., Carvache-Franco, O., & Del-Aguila- Arcentales, S. (2022). Post-COVID-19 motivation and segmentation in coastal cities: A study in Lima, Peru. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 1–13.

Carvache-Franco, W., Carvache-Franco, M., Carvache-Franco, O., & Hernández-Lara, A. B. (2020). Motivation and segmentation of the demand for coastal and marine destination. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 34*(4), 1–10.

Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(4), 408–424.

Dann, G. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 4*(4), 184–194.

Dann, G. (1981). Tourist motivation: An appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research, 8*(2), 187–219.

De Swart, L., Van der Haar, A., Ecorys, Skousen, B., & Zonta, D. (2018). Sector Fiche: Coastal and Maritime Tourism. In Technical Study: MSP as a Tool to Support Blue Growth. Final Version:

16.02.2018 [online]. Retrieved March 1, 2022, from https://maritime-spatial-planning.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/sector/pdf/mspforbluegrowth_sectorfiche_tourism.pdf.

De Ghetto, R., Gray, J. R., & Kiggundu, M. N. (2016). The African Union's Agenda 2063: Aspirations, challenges, and opportunities for management research. *Africa Journal of Management, 2*(1), 93–116.

Dodds, R., & Holmes, M. R. (2019). Beach tourists: What factors satisfy them and drive them to return. *Ocean & Coastal Management, 168*, 158–166.

Gray, H. P. (1970). *International travel: International trade. Lexington.* Health Lexington Books.

Hjalager, A. M., & Kwiatkowski, G. (2019). Relational environmentalism in coastal recreation and tourism. *Sustainability, 11*(6011), 1–17.

Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2011). Testing the effects of congruity, travel constraints, and self-efficacy on travel intentions: An alternative decision-making model. *Tourism Management, 33*(4), 855–867.

Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychology theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research, 9*(2), 256–262.

Jeong, C. (2014). Marine tourist motivations comparing push and pull factors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 15*(3), 294–309.

Jucan, M. S., & Jucan, C. N. 2013. Gender trends in tourism destinations. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences, 92*(2013), 437–444.

Kaiser, H. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika, 39*(1), 31–36.

Kassean, H., & Gassita, R. (2013). Exploring tourists' push and pull motivation to visit Mauritius as a tourist destination. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure, 2*(3), 1–13.

Katsikari, C., Hatzithomas, L., Fotiades, T., & Folinas, D. (2020). Push and pull travel motivation: Segmentation of the Greek market for social media marketing in tourism. *Sustainability, 12*(11), 1–18.

Kisema, M. N. (2021). *Determinants of coastal tourism: The case of Muanda Territory in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Unpublished Masters dissertation.* University of South Africa.

Klenosky, D. B. (2002). The "pull" of tourism destination: A means-end investigation. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(4), 396–403.

Kotler, P., Bowen, J. T., & Baloglu, S. (2022). *Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism. 8th edition* (Global). Pearson Education Limited.

Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management, 23*(3), 221–232.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30*(3), 607–610.

Laursen, K., Kaae, B. C., Bladt, J., Petersen, H. S., Clausen, P., Olafsson, A. S., Draux, H., & Bregnballe, T. (2021). Countrywide screening of spatiotemporal overlap between coastal and marine recreation waterbirds in Denmark. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism, 35*(September), 1–9.

Leiper, N., Witsel, M., & Hobson, J. S. (2008). Leisure travel and business travel: A comparative analysis. *Asian Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research, 2*(1), 1–10.

Maekawa, M., Lanjouw, A., Rutagarama, E., & Sharp, D. (2013). Mountain gorilla tourism generating wealth and peace in post-conflict Rwanda. *Natural Resources Forum, 37*(2), 127–137.

Molera, L., & Albaladejo, I. P. (2007). Profiling segments of tourists in rural areas of South-Eastern Spain. *Tourism Management, 28*(3), 757–767.

Ndizera, V., & Muzee, H. (2018). A critical Review of Agenda 2063: Business as Usual? *Africa Journal of Political Science and International Relations, 12*(8), 142–154.

Oh, C. O., Draper, J., & Dixon, A. W. (2009). Assessing tourists' multi-attribute preferences for public beach access. *Coastal Management, 37*(2), 119–135.

Patterson, I. R. (2018). Tourism and Leisure Behaviour in an Ageing World. Wallingford, Oxfordshire; Boston, MA: CABI.

Paudel, K. P., Caffey, R. X., & Devkota, N. (2011). An evaluation of factors affecting the choice of coastal recreation activities. Louisiana. Journal of Agricultural and Applied Economics, 43(2), 167–179.

Pereira, M. L., Anjos, F. A., Añaña, E. S., & Weismayer, C. (2021). Modelling the overall image of coastal tourism destinations through personal values of tourists: A robust regression approach. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism, 35*(September), 1–13.

Petit Futé République Démocratique du Congo. (2015). Guide complète. DRC: Ministère duTourisme.

Phau, I., Lee, S., & Quintal, V. (2013). An investigation of push and pull motivations of visitors to private parks: The case of Araluen Botanic Park. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 19*(3), 269–284.

Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2011). The relationship between the 'push' and 'pull' factors of a tourist destination: The role of nationality – An analytical qualitative research approach. *Current Issues in Tourism, 14*(2), 121–143.

Quinlan, C., Babin, B., Carr, J., Griffin, M., & Zikmund, W. (2019). *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). Cengage Learning.

République Démocratique du Congo. (2019). Rapport annuel. Administration du Territoire de Muanda.

Rogerson, C. M., & Rogerson, J. M. (2019). Emergent planning for South Africa's blue economy: Evidence from coastal and marine tourism. *Urbani Izziv, 30*, 24–36.

Schänzel, H. A., & Yeoman, I. (2015). Trends in family tourism. *Journal of Tourism Futures, 1*(2), 141–147.

Schoeman. K. (2016). Developing a perceived value model for the cruise experience. Potchefstroom North-West University. (Thesis – PhD.)

Tegar, D., & Gurning, R. O. (2018). Development of marine and coastal tourism based on blue economy. *International Journal of Marine Engineering Innovation and Research, 2*(2), 128–132.

The World Bank. (2017). The potential of the blue economy: Increasing long-term benefits of the sustainable use of marine resources for small island developing states and coastal least developed countries [online]. Retrieved January 11, 2022, from https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/26843/115545.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.

United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). (2016). Africa's blue economy: A policy handbook [online]. Retrieved July 8, 2022, from https://www.uneca.org/publications.

Valls, A., Gilbert, K., Orellana, A., & Clavé, S. (2017). Using ontology-based clustering to understand the push and pull factors for British tourists visiting a Mediterranean coastal destination. *Information & Management, 55*(2), 145–159.

Van der Merwe, P., Slabbert, E., & Saayman, M. (2011). Travel motivation of tourists to selected marine destinations. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 13*(5), 457–467.

Yong, A. G., & Pearce, S. (2013). A beginner's guide to factor analysis: Focusing on exploratory factor analysis. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology, 9*(2), 79–94.

Yousaf, A., Amin, I., & Santos, J. A. (2018). Tourist's motivations to travel: A theoretical perspective on the existing literature. *Tourism and Hospitality Management, 24*(1), 197–211.

Yusof, J. M., Musa, R., & Rahman, S. A. (2012). The effects of green images of retailers on shopping value and store loyalty. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences, 50*, 710–721.

Profiling Visitors of Four Selected Urban Green Spaces in the City of Tshwane

Anna Maria Magdalena Erasmus, Nicolene Conradie, and Ciné van Zyl

Abstract Urban green spaces are important to improve the quality of life of its inhabitants. This exploratory research intends to provide a profile of visitors to four selected urban green spaces (i.e. botanical garden, zoo, nature reserve, and bird park) in the City of Tshwane (South Africa). *Visitor motivation, environmental awareness subjective well-being,* and *revisit intention* were investigated. Purposive sampling was used to collect primary data by distributing questionnaires at these spaces during January to February 2020. A sample of 392 questionnaires was obtained. Using descriptive statistics, a visitor profile for the selected urban green spaces was created. Results indicated that the majority of visitors are female and in different age categories. Visitors are mostly higher educated and reside in Gauteng province. Results revealed that *rest and relaxation/escape* and *pleasure seeking/activities* ranked the highest for visitor motivation. For environmental awareness, *learning/action* and *commitment* ranked high. More attention on *environmental awareness is* imperative for sustainable urban green spaces. The visitors agreed that their *quality of life* and *general well-being* improved after a visit. All visitors agreed to revisit these spaces. Tourism managers may use the information to promote the benefits experienced by visiting urban green spaces.

Keywords Urban green spaces · Visitor motivation · Environmental awareness · Subjective well-being · Revisit intention

JEL Classifications L83—Sports · Gambling · Restaurants · Recreation · Tourism

1 Introduction

Urban tourism is an important form of tourism (Ashworth & Page, 2011; Visser, 2016) that contributes to economic and sustainable growth of various urban tourism destinations (Damos, Zhu, Li, Hassan & Khalifa, 2021). The stimulation of growth in

A. M. M. Erasmus · N. Conradie (✉) · C. van Zyl
UNISA, Pretoria, South Africa
e-mail: conran@unisa.ac.za

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Tourism, Travel, and Hospitality in a Smart and Sustainable World*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-29426-6_42

the economy and job creation have been identified as key priorities for urban policy makers in South Africa (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2014). A significant part of urban tourism relates to urban green spaces, and its importance has been reported in several research studies (Damos et al., 2021; Milliken, 2015).

Urban green spaces are diverse, ranging from city parks to rooftop gardens, from urban forests to allotment gardens and any vegetation found in an urban environment (Cvejic et al. 2015). These spaces play a crucial role by providing numerous benefits including environmental, social, mental, educational, health, and personal well-being for both locals and visitors (Milliken, 2015; Uysal et al., 2016).

In the current decade, it is of concern that people are constantly working and are at a high risk of burnout as they remain psychologically and physiologically attached to the work environment (Knight, 2015). Furthermore, the COVID-19 pandemic influenced the well-being of overworked people (Ugolini et al., 2020). Urbanization, busy time schedules, and the lack of natural surroundings have impaired environmental and social processes of citizens, which in turn are associated with decreased psychological well-being (Kasser 2002; Kim et al., 2015a,b; Kuhn 2001). Several studies have argued that reconnecting people with nature is not only useful for improving people's well-being and happiness but also contribute to the preservation and sustainability of the natural environment (Kim et al., 2015a).

The need for further research on well-being and environmental awareness in the context of urban green spaces is acknowledged (Uysal et al., 2016). Furthermore, understanding the motivations of visitors to urban green spaces is important considerations for local government officials, reserve wardens, and managers to identify new tourism development opportunities and improve the sustainability of these spaces (Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Mugizi et al., 2017). Since limited research is reported on urban green spaces from a South African perspective, more so in South African cities (Milliken, 2015) and especially on the City of Tshwane, this study aimed to address this research gap.

The aim of this paper is to profile visitors of four selected urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane. To address this aim primary data was collected by distributing questionnaires at four urban green spaces. From the various types of urban green spaces, an urban nature reserves, a botanical garden, a zoological garden, and a bird sanctuary were selected for the purpose of this study. To create a profile, the biographic characteristics of visitors to urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane were determined. In addition, visitor motivation, environmental awareness, subjective well-being, and revisit intention of visitors to the selected urban green spaces were investigated.

A literature review on urban green spaces, visitor motivation, environmental awareness, subjective well-being, and revisit intention is presented. The empirical design and method applied are discussed, followed by the results. The paper ends with a conclusion and recommendations for urban tourism managers, government and the management of urban green spaces.

2 Literature Review

In this review of literature, urban green spaces (Sect. 2.1) are introduced followed by the conceptualization of the constructs investigated in this paper, namely visitor motivation (Sect. 2.2), environmental awareness (Sect. 2.3), subjective well-being (Sect. 2.4), and revisit intention (Sect. 2.5) in the context of urban green spaces.

2.1 Urban Green Spaces

Urban green spaces form an essential part of urban tourism attractions (Ivanovic et al., 2017) and are areas that can be used for "nature travel and nature conservation in a city environment" (Wu et al., 2009:739). Urban green spaces can be defined in two ways: firstly, as urban green spaces that include all types of vegetations in a given urban area, such as parks, forests, street trees, farmlands and gardens in gated communities; and secondly, as urban green spaces that provide public recreational and leisure services (Wu & Kim, 2021). Furthermore, urban green spaces are considered places of social interaction, education, cultural identity and tourist destinations (Byrne & Wolch, 2009; Milliken, 2015).

Preserving and maintaining green spaces in urban environments are a critical aspect to fulfilling environmental quality goals and achieving a liveable city that is socially, economically and environmentally sustainable (Rotenberg, 2008; Ward, Parker & Shackleton, 2010).

2.2 Visitor Motivation

Motivation is described as an intrinsic state that guides human behaviour to achieve goals and can be defined as a state or need that drives an individual to satisfy this need (Li & Cai, 2012; Li, Zhang & Cai, 2016 Patterson & Balderas, 2018). *Visitor motivation* can be defined as the reason why people visit a destination or attraction (Chen et al., 2016). The motivation to visit an attraction has many dimensions arising from the visitors' socio-cultural and environmental factors, personal traits, psychological factors (Dileep, 2019).

Some of the well-known theories on travel (visitor) motivations include, for example, Dann (1977) who developed a distinctive input to travel motivation by framing it into two domains: the 'push' and 'pull' domains. These two broad domains motivate to visit (push) and to be attracted to the desired attraction or in this case the urban green space (pull). Crompton's (1979:416) theory explained "nine motivational factors, namely exploration, escape, evaluation of self, prestige, relaxation, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, social interaction, novelty, and education".

Understanding the motivation of visitors in urban green spaces may contribute to better insights that may be useful in local decision-making regarding the different facets of tourist motivation in general (Lianouridis, 2010; Madureira et al., 2018). Literature on the motivation to visit urban green spaces includes urban parks (Donaldson et al., 2016; Lianouridis, 2010), zoological and botanical gardens (Ballantyne et al., 2008, 2007; Botha et al., 2021) and nature reserves (Iversen et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2015a).

Secondary research indicated that visitors to urban green spaces are motivated by various factors, including, for example social interaction, novelty, relaxation, status, learning and discovery, escape and pleasure seeking (Ballantyne et al., 2007; Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Donaldson et al., 2016, Iversen et al., 2016; Jönsson & Devonish, 2008; Kim et al., 2015a, Lianouridis, 2010, Milliken, 2015, Murphy, Benckendorff & Moscardo, 2007; Sickler & Fraser, 2009; Ward et al., 2010; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2012). The literature assisted in selecting items to measure visitor motivations to urban green spaces as applied in this study.

An important variable of visitors to urban green spaces is to understand visitors' perception of the environment and its conservation thereof. Environmental awareness (visitors' knowledge about the environment) of visitors to urban green spaces is discussed next.

2.3 *Environmental Awareness of Visitors to Urban Green Spaces*

Environmental awareness is the process of understanding the fragility of the natural environment and the importance of its protection (Bulatovic & Rajovic, 2018). Environmental awareness refers to the opinions, values, ideas and knowledge about the environment as a place in a man's development and life (Bulatovic & Rajovic, 2018; Wielewska & Zuzek, 2015). Promoting environmental awareness is a way to promote environmental stewardship and participation in crafting a positive future for coming generations (Bulatovic & Rajovic, 2018).

Various studies have reported findings related to environmental awareness in general (Bulatovic & Rajovic, 2018) as well as in the tourism field, including nature reserves (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Goyal & Grewal, 2017) and botanical gardens (Ballantyne et al., 2007). Ten variables relating to environmental awareness were derived from literature and grouped into two themes, namely 'Learning/Actions' and 'Commitment' (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Ballantyne et al., 2007; Bulatovic & Rajovic, 2018; Goyal & Grewal, 2017). The *Learning/Actions* theme includes items such as purchasing environmentally friendly products, seeking information about the environment, and having an interest in learning about environmental issues. Items in the *Commitment* theme are to donate money to nature or conservation organisations, recycle household waste, and conserving natural resources.

Literature indicates that natural settings such as urban green spaces can promote a visitor's well-being by reducing stress, facilitating the renewal of cognitive resources and encouraging positive emotions (Carrus et al., 2015; Hartig et al., 2003). The subjective well-being of visitors to urban green spaces is introduced next.

2.4 Subjective Well-being of Visitors to Urban Green Spaces

Subjective well-being is defined as "the individual's judgement regarding his or her feelings of happiness and their culminating emotional status following their trip" (Kim et al., 2015a:77) as well as the feeling individuals have about their lives or individuals' perceptions of achieving what they want in life (Diener, 1984; Kim et al, 2015a). "Human happiness is so important; it transcends all other worldly consideration" (Aristoteles as cited by Craig, 2019). Different disciplines define subjective well-being in terms such as happiness, life satisfaction, and quality of life (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Kim et al., 2015a). It is also recognized in the field of tourism management as literature indicates that tourism contributes to the subjective well-being of tourists and visitors (Kim et al., 2015a).

The 20 variables relating to subjective well-being were derived from literature and were grouped into two themes, namely "Quality of Life" and "General well-being" (Carrus et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2015a; Lafortezza et al., 2009; Lončarić et al. 2018; Reitsamer & Brunner-Sperdin, 2017; Saayman et al., 2018; Seligman, 2011; Uysal et al., 2016). Theme 1: Overall quality of life includes items such as "my satisfaction with life in general increased with this trip and overall", and "I feel happy after my trip". Theme 2: General well-being includes items such as "helps me to relax", "satisfaction with life and although I have ups and downs", and "in general I feel good about life".

Ensuring the presence of green space in urban systems is vital to enhance the well-being of urban dwellers (Carrus et al., 2015). Literature further indicates that visitors' well-being positively influences their intention to return to the specific attraction and that urban dwellers often return to their favourite urban green space (Reitsamer & Brunner-Sperdin, 2017). As such revisit intention of visitors to urban green spaces is discussed next.

2.5 Revisit Intention

Revisit intention is defined as the behavioural intention to revisit a destination or attraction (Kim et al., 2015a) or repeating a tourist activity (Viet et al., 2020). Repeat visitors participate more intensively in activities, are more satisfied, and spread positive word-of-mouth advertising of the spaces visited (Lehto, O'Leary & Morrison, 2004; Li, Wen & Ying, 2018; Viet et al., 2020).

Various researchers (Kim et al., 2015a; Kim, Woo & Uysal, 2015b; Murphy et al., 2007; Reitsamer & Brunner-Sperdin, 2017) have explored the revisit concept in tourism. The variables used to measure revisit intention to urban green spaces derived from this literature and include items such as "I would like to visit this urban green space more often" and "I have the intention to revisit this urban green space".

3 Methodology

In this exploratory study, a quantitative method was used to collect primary data by means of self-administered questionnaires. The *target population* for this study comprised visitors, 18 years and older, to urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane (Gauteng, South Africa).

Four urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane (sample unit) were purposively selected, namely the Rietvlei Nature Reserve, Pretoria National Botanical Garden, the National Zoological Garden (Pretoria Zoo) and Austin Roberts Bird Sanctuary. Questionnaires were distributed close to the exit to requesting all departing visitors at the four selected urban green spaces during January and February 2020. The rationale was that visitors should have already visited the urban green space, since return intention was also measured. All research ethics principles and protocol were followed (2017_CEMS_ESTTL_020). The data from a total of $n = 392$ valid questionnaires was used for statistical analysis. The actual sample size (392) was larger than the recommended sample size (384) (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

The research instrument (questionnaire) was developed from previous research and the literature review (see Sect. 2). A pilot test was done prior to the actual data collection. Section A comprised questions regarding revisit intention to urban green spaces (Kim et al, 2015a; Kim, Woo & Uysal, 2015b; Murphy et al., 2007; Reitsamer & Brunner-Sperdin, 2017). Section B comprised questions on visitor motivation to urban green spaces (Beh & Bruyere, 2007; Donaldson et al., 2016; Jönsson & Devonish, 2008; Lianouridis, 2010; Milliken, 2015; Ward et al., 2010), while Section D detailed questions on the level of environmental awareness of visitors to urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Ballantyne et al., 2007; Bulatovic & Rajovic, 2018; Goyal & Grewal, 2017). The subjective well-being of visitors to urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane was questioned in Section E (Carrus et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2015a; Kim et al., 2015b; Lončarić et al. 2018; Reitsamer & Brunner-Sperdin, 2017; Saayman et al., 2018; Seligman, 2011; Uysal et al., 2016). Section F determined the biographic information of visitors to urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane, including the respondents' gender, age, ethnicity, highest level of qualification, marital status and province of residence (Donaldson et al., 2016; Jönsson & Devonish, 2008; Milliken, 2015; Ward et al., 2010). A Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree) was used in sections A, B, D, and E in the questionnaire. Section C of the questionnaire is not reported in this paper.

Descriptive statistics such as a frequency, percentages, and averages were used to create a visitor profile to selected urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane.

4 Results: A Profile of Visitors to Urban Green Spaces in the City of Tshwane

Descriptive statistics are presented to describe the respondents' biographic profile (Sect. 4.1), visitor motivation (Sect. 4.2), environmental awareness (Sect. 4.3), subjective well-being (Sect. 4.4), and revisit intention (Sect. 4.5).

4.1 Biographic Profile of Visitors to Urban Green Spaces

Typical biographic information such as gender, age, ethnicity, level of qualification, marital status, and origin of visitors was obtained to characterize and profile the visitors at the four urban green spaces (Table 1).

Table 1 indicates relatively even gender ratio as only a slightly larger proportion of female respondents was observed in visiting urban green spaces. This result corroborates the findings of the study by Murphy et al. (2007) where the female sample distribution was also slightly higher at the Whitsunday Islands in Queensland, Australia. Contrary results were found in Kim et al. (2015a) where the female (60,4%) sample distribution was significantly more than male (39.5%) at a nature trail in South Korea. Conversely, the gender distribution in a study by Yousefi and Marzuki (2012) showed that male visitors (59.2%) were more than female visitors (40.8%) in Penang, Malaysia, which is an urban area.

Most of the visitors participating in the study were aged between 35 and 44 years old (27.5%) and 26 to 34 years (26.5%), while only the 8.7% of visitors were 25

Table 1 Biographic information of visitors to urban green spaces

Biographic profile	Results
Gender	males (46.5%); females (53.5%)
Age	Up to 25 (8.7%); 26–34 (26.5%); 35–44 (27.5%); 45–54 (17.2%); 55–63 (11.1%); 64 and older (9.0%)
Ethnicity	African (23.7%); White (63.3%); Other (13.0%)
Level of qualification	Matric/Grade 12 (15.5%); National diploma (37.3%); Undergraduate degree (35.8%); Postgraduate degree (11.4%)
Marital status	Single (21.2%); Married/living together (69.8%); Divorced/widowed/separated (9.0%)
Origin of visitors	Gauteng (87.0%); Other provinces (6.1%); Outside RSA borders (6.9%)

years and younger and 9.0% were aged 64 and older. Saayman et al. (2018) correspond with the age category results. Most of the respondents were White (63.3%) followed by African (23.7%) and other race groups (13.0%). In terms of qualifications, most visitors held a National Diploma (37.3%) or an undergraduate degree (35.8%). Consistent with Iversen et al. (2016), Yousefi and Marzuki (2012) and Saayman et al. (2018) most of the visitors to urban green spaces were well educated and obtained a qualification.

Regarding the respondents' marital status, a significant majority were either married or living together (69.8%), followed by those who were single (21.2%) and a small percentage (9.0%) falling under the category divorced, widowed, or separated. Conversely, Yousefi and Marzuki's (2012) study found that many visitors were single (71.8%) as opposed to married (28.2%). The majority of the visitors resides in or come from the Gauteng province (87.2%).

4.2 Results: Motivation of Visitors to Urban Green Spaces

For visitor motivations, the descriptive statistics (items mean) indicates that, in terms of motivation, visitors were more in agreement with the following individual items:

- Getting out in the fresh air (4.47)
- To experience the outdoors (4.41)
- To escape from daily stress (4.39)
- To spend time with my family and/or friends (4.10)
- To photograph animals, birds and/or plants (3.70)
- To view wildlife (3.69).

The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) applied to the 33 items in the questionnaire revealed that five factors explained the motivation of visitors to urban green spaces, namely (1) Active and physical in nature, (2) Learning, knowledge, and education, (3) Rest, relaxation, and escape, (4) Social interaction and (5) Pleasure seeking and activities (Erasmus, 2022).

Results revealed that respondents were mostly motivated by "Rest and relaxation and escape" (3.97) and "Pleasure seeking and activities" (3.30). Respondents were least motivated to be 'Social interaction' (2.98).

These findings correspond with previous studies, for example Sickler and Fraser (2009) which indicated that visitors attended green spaces for the social experience and spending time with their children and families, being entertained through shows and demonstrations, cognitive stimulation, enjoyed the peace and tranquillity of the outdoor setting, as well as seeing the wildlife.

4.3 Results: Environmental Awareness of Visitors to Urban Green Spaces

Regarding environmental awareness, ten variables were derived from literature and were grouped into two themes, namely (1) Learning/Actions and (2) Commitment (see Sect. 3). Both themes (Learning/Actions, 0.733; Commitment, 0.677) demonstrated acceptable internal consistency as illustrated by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of above or close to 0.7 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986 in Pallant, 2011).

A higher mean score indicates a stronger agreement with the theme. Most visitors agreed to the themes 'Learning/Action' (3.90) and 'Commitment' (3.88).

In theme 1, **"**Learning/Actions", the respondents were more in agreement with the following items:

- I am interested in learning about environmental issues (4.29)
- I often think about whether my actions harm the natural world (4.26)
- I often think about the fragility of the environment (4.22).

While in theme 2, "Commitment", the respondents were more in agreement with:

- I want to ensure a brighter future for my children (4.26)
- I encourage family and friends to be more conscious about conservation (4.18)
- I have a strong view on conservation issues (4.12).

Contrary to a study by Ballantyne et al. (2007), their visitors indicated that they have a low level of interest and commitment to conservation. The results of this paper concur with previous studies such as Bulatovic and Rajovic (2018) and Han, Yu and Kim (2018) where the visitors had a high environmental awareness and that the green image as well as environmental awareness of a tourist destination or green space was critical triggers of the visitors' attitude towards the environment (e.g. reducing waste).

4.4 Results: Subjective Well-being of Visitors to Urban Green Spaces

The 20 variables relating to subjective well-being were derived from literature (see Sect. 3) and were grouped into two themes, namely, 'Quality of Life' and 'General well-being'. Quality of Life (0.766) and General well-being (0.827) demonstrated acceptable internal consistency as illustrated by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients being above or close to 0.7 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986 in Pallant, 2011).

The visitors agreed that their 'Quality of life' and 'General well-being' improved after visiting the urban green space. A higher mean score indicates a stronger agreement with the theme. The respondents agreed to both the 'Quality of Life' (3.95) and the 'General well-being' (3.90) themes.

In theme 1, “Quality of life”, the respondents were more inclined and agreed with the following items:

- Visiting the urban green space inspires me (4.36)
- Although I have ups and downs, in general, I feel good about life after visiting the urban green space (4.11)
- I feel that I lead a meaningful and fulfilling life (4.08).

Regarding the items in theme 2, ‘General well-being’, the respondents indicated a stronger agreement with:

- I feel better about myself after visiting the urban green space (4.05)
- I have memorable experiences at the urban green space (4.03)
- Visiting the urban green space, clears my head (3.97).

These results correlate with a previous study by Kim et al. (2015a) where most visitors indicated that they felt positive after visiting the urban green space and that the visit and experience in the green space increased their satisfaction with life.

4.5 Results: Revisit Intention to Urban Green Spaces

Results indicate that on a scale of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agreed, most visitors strongly intended to revisit urban green spaces (4.63) in the City of Tshwane. This finding corresponds with the Kim et al. (2015a) study where most visitors indicated that they intended to return to the urban green space.

In summary, a visual diagram of the profiling results is displayed in Fig. 1.

5 Recommendations for Tourism Managers and the Management of Urban Green Spaces

For effective future planning and management, an understanding of the visitors to urban green spaces is needed by various tourism role players. Understanding the visitors’ profile, motivations and needs may assist managers to provide tailor-made product offerings for an enjoyable experience at urban green spaces. The following recommendations are made:

- Since ‘Rest and relaxation/escape’ and ‘Pleasure seeking/activities’ were strong motivational factors to visit urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane, it is recommended that the municipality and attraction management focus on these motivations in their planning and marketing strategies of the nature attraction.
- Since the visitors indicated a strong environmental awareness, the municipality and attraction management should pay special attention to aspects such as waste

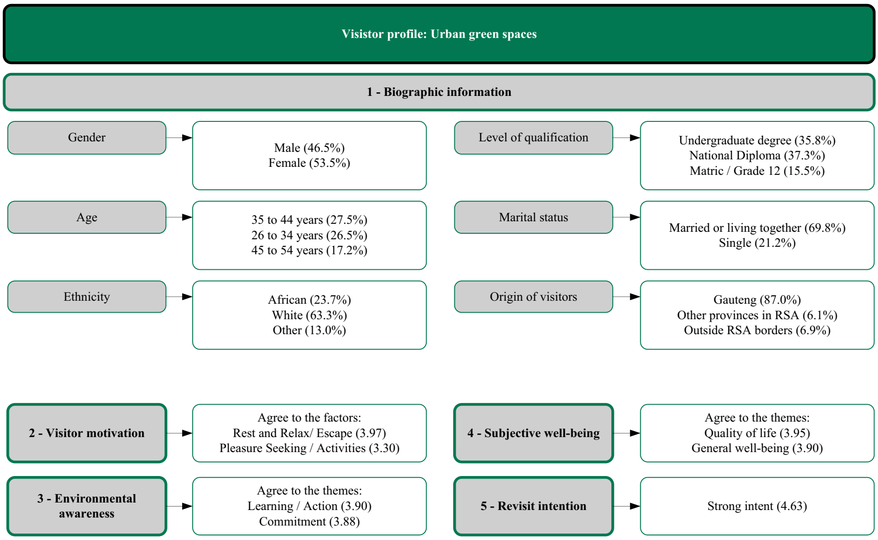


Fig. 1 Visitor profile of selected urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane

management, water conservation, eradication of alien and invasive plants, erosion control and animal health.

- Since a participating visitor indicated that their 'Quality of life' and 'General well-being' improved after visiting the urban green space, the City of Tshwane's managers must realize that providing well-cared and well-maintained urban green spaces are an important asset for the city and all the city dwellers and visitors.
- The intention to revisit a particular urban green space is highly likely if it was a positive experience. As most visitors indicated that they would revisit the urban green spaces, management should continue to provide enjoyable and informative visitor experiences to ensure repeat visitation.

6 Conclusion

Urban green spaces are important visitor attractions for city dwellers who temporarily want to escape from their everyday stressful live or work pressure in order to relax and recuperate in a natural environment or urban green space. A visitor profile regarding visitor motivation, environmental awareness, and subjective well-being in the context of urban green spaces are relatively unreported in modern day literature (Carrus et al., 2015; Saayman et al., 2018; Uysal et al., 2016; Ward et al., 2010).

Urban dwellers not having the opportunity to experience urban green spaces lead to a decreased physiological well-being. Urban green spaces are being recognized as an integral part of urban tourism and have a high potential to stimulate social and environmental benefits to the urban dwellers and visitors. The aim of this paper is to shed light on the selected profile of visitors to urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane to promote the benefits experienced by respondents in visiting urban green spaces.

Based on the data collected at these four urban green spaces in the city of Tshwane, the main findings include:

- Visitor motivations to the urban green spaces include rest, relaxation, escape, pleasure seeking, and activities.
- Visitors mostly agreed to environmental awareness themes of learning/action and commitment.
- Visitors agreed with the themes relating to quality of life and general well-being.
- Most respondents at the four urban green spaces indicated that they intended to revisit the urban green spaces.

Stakeholders and marketers involved in urban green spaces at the City of Tshwane could benefit from the results of this study, which could possibly be used in other cities throughout South Africa where limited research on tourism and urban green spaces are reported. These findings may also assist city management to gain insight into strategies for future marketing and communication of their city. As urban nature fulfils a prominent role in most inhabitants' well-being, it can be concluded that urban nature is a key ingredient for city dwellers and must be protected for future generations.

References

Ashworth, G., & Page, S. J. (2011). Urban tourism research: Recent progress and current paradoxes. *Tourism management, 32*(10), 1–15.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Hughes, K. (2008). Environmental awareness, interests and motives of botanic gardens visitors: Implications for interpretive practice. *Tourism management, 29*(3), 439–444.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., Hughes, K., & Dierking, L. (2007). Conservation learning in wildlife tourism settings: Lessons from research in zoos and aquariums. *Environmental Education Research, 13*(3), 367–383.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Falk, J. (2011). Visitors' learning for environmental sustainability: Testing short-and long-term impacts of wildlife tourism experiences using structural equation modelling. *Tourism management, 32*(6), 1243–1252.

Beh, A., & Bruyere, B. L. (2007). Segmentation by visitor motivation in three Kenyan national reserves. *Tourism management, 28*(6), 1464–1471.

Botha, E., Kruger, M., & Viljoen, A. (2021). Enhancing the interpretation at the National Zoological Gardens in South Africa. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism, 33*, 100362.

Bulatovic, J., & Rajovic, G. (2018). Environmental awareness of the Population: The Case of the Municipality of Vozdovac (Belgrade). *European Journal of Economic Studies, 7*(1), 3–15.

Byrne, J., & Wolch, J. (2009). Nature, race, and parks: Past research and future directions for geographic research. *Progress of Human Geography, 33*(6), 743–765.

Carrus, G., Scopelliti, M., Lafortezza, R., Colangelo, G., Ferrini, F., Salbitano, F., Agrimi, M., Portoghesi, L., Semenzato, P., & Sanesi, G. (2015). Go greener, feel better? The positive effects of biodiversity on the well-being of individuals visiting urban and peri-urban areas. *Landscape and Urban Planning Journal, 134*, 221–228.

Chen, J.S., Wang, W. & Prebensen, N.K. (2016). Travel companions and activity preferences of nature-based tourists. *Tourism Review*.

Craig, H. (2019). The Philosophy of Happiness in Life (+ Aristotle's View). PositivePsychology.com. [Online] Retrieved February 1, 2022, from https://positivepsychology.com/philosophy-of-happiness/.

Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacations. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(4), 408–424.

Cvejic, R., Eler, K., Pintar, M., Železnikar, Š, Haase, D., Kabish, N., & Strohbach, M. (2015). A typology of urban green spaces, eco-system provisioning services, and demands. *Green surge, 10*, 68.

Damos, M.A, Zhu, J., Li, W., Hassan, A. & Khalifa, E. (2021). A novel urban tourism path planning approach based on a multiobjective genetic algorithm. ISPRS Int., Geo-Inf 2021, 10.530 https//doi.org/https://doi.org/10.3390/ijgi10080530.

Dann, G. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 4*(4), 184–194.

Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin, 95*, 542–575. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.95.3.542

Dileep, M. R. (2019). *Tourism.* Transport and Travel Management. Routledge.

Donaldson, R., Ferreira, S., Didier, S., Rodary, E., & Swanepoel, J. (2016). Access to the urban national park in Cape Town: Where urban and natural environment meet. *Habitat International, 57*, 132–142.

Erasmus, A.M.M. (2022). Profiling visitors of four selected urban green spaces in the City of Tshwane**.** Pretoria: UNISA. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holidaytaking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of tourism research, 31*(1), 103–121.

Goyal, J., & Grewal, H. S. (2017). Impact of environmental awareness on environmental attitudes a comparative study of males and females in Uttarakhand, India. *Indian Journal of Health and Wellbeing, 8*(12), 1468–1471.

Han, H., Yu, J., & Kim, W. (2018). Youth travelers and waste reduction behaviors while traveling to tourist destinations. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 35*(9), 1119–1131.

Hartig, T., Evans, G. W., Jamner, L. D., Davis, D. S., & Garling, T. (2003). Tracking restoration in natural and urban field settings. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 23*(2), 109–123.

Ivanovic, I., Khunou, P.S., Reynish, N., Pawson, R., Tseane, L. & Wassung, N. (2017). Tourism development 1. Fresh perspectives. South Africa: Pearson.

Iversen, N. M., Hem, L. E., & Mehmetoglu, M. (2016). Lifestyle segmentation of tourists seeking nature-based experiences: The role of cultural values and travel motives. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 33*(sup1), 38–66.

Jönsson, C., & Devonish, D. (2008). Does nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivation? A case of visitors to the Caribbean Island of Barbados. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 25*(3–4), 398–408.

Kasser, T. (2002). *The high price of materialisation.* MIT Press.

Kim, H., Lee, S., Uysal, M., Kim, J., & Ahn, K. (2015). Nature-based tourism: Motivation and subjective well-being. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 32*(sup1), 76–96.

Kim, H., Woo, E., & Uysal, M. (2015). Tourism experience and quality of life among elderly tourists. *Tourism management, 46*, 465–476.

Knight, R. (2015). How to overcome burnout and stay motivated. Harvard Business Review.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement, 30*(3), 607–610.

Kuhn, J. L. (2001). Toward ecologically humanistic psychology. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 41*, 9–24. https://doi.org/10.1177022167801412003.

Lafortezza, R., Carrus, G., Sanesi, G., & Davies, C. (2009). Benefits and well-being perceived by people visiting green spaces in periods of heat stress. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening, 8*(2), 97–108.

Lehto, X.Y., O'Leary, J.T., & Morrison, A.M. (2004). The effects of prior experience on vacation behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(4), 801–818. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.02.006.

Li, F., Wen, J., & Ying, T. (2018). The influence of crisis on tourists' perceived destination image and revisit intention: An exploratory study of Chinese tourists to North Korea. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 9*, 104–111. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.11.006

Li, M., & Cai, L. A. (2012). The effects of personal values on travel motivation and behavioral intention. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(4), 473–487.

Li, M., Zhang, H., & Cai, L. A. (2016). A subcultural analysis of tourism motivations. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 40*(1), 85–113.

Lianouridis, A. (2010). The Green Tour: Tourist Motivations for Visiting Urban Parks – Exploring the Vondelpark in Amsterdam. Thesis report master sociospatial analysis, Wageningen University, and Research Centre. Wageningen.

Lončarić, D., Dlačić, J., & Kos Kavran, A. (2018). Improving quality of life through co-creating tourist experience–what does experience marketing have to do with it? *Ekonomska misao i praksa, 1*, 103–121.

Madureira, H., Nunes, F., Oliveira, J. V., & Madureira, T. (2018). Preferences for urban green space characteristics: A comparative study in three Portuguese cities. *Environments, 5*(2), 23.

Milliken, J. (2015). Accessing Green space in Cape Town. A case study of public perceptions of green space and barriers of access in eight nature reserves and conservation areas within Cape Town. Cape Town: UCT. (Thesis – M.Phil).

Mugizi, F., Ayorekire, J., & Obua, J. (2017). Factors that influence local community participation in tourism in Murchison falls conservation area. *Journal of Environmental Science and Engineering A, 6*(4), 209–223.

Murphy, L., Benckendorff, P., & Moscardo, G. (2007). Linking travel motivation, tourist self-image and destination brand personality. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing, 22*(2), 45–59.

Pallant, J. (2011). Survival manual. A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS, 4.

Patterson, I. & Balderas, A. (2018). Continuing and emerging trends of senior tourism: A review of the literature. *Journal of Population Ageing*, 1–15.

Reitsamer, B.F., & Brunner-Sperdin, A. (2017). Tourist destination perception and well-being: What makes a destination attractive? *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 23*(1), 55–72. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766715615914.

Rogerson, C. M., & Rogerson, J. M. (2014). Urban tourism destinations in South Africa: Divergent trajectories 2001–2012. *Urbani izziv, 25*, 189–203.

Rotenberg, R. (2008). The European City and Green Space: London, Stockholm, Helsinki and St. Petersburg, 1850–2000–Edited by Peter Clark.

Saayman, M., Li, G., Uysal, M., & Song, H. (2018). Tourist satisfaction and subjective well-being: An index approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 20*, 388–399.

Seligman, M. (2011). *Flourish.* Free Press.

Sickler, J., & Fraser, J. (2009). *Enjoyment in zoos. Leisure studies, 28*(3), 313–331.

Ugolini, F., Massetti, L., Calaza-Martínez, P., Cariñanos, P., Dobbs, C., Ostoić, S. K., Marin, A. M., Pearlmutter, D., Saaroni, H., Šaulienė, I., & Simoneti, M. (2020). Effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the use and perceptions of urban green space: An international exploratory study. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening, 56*, 126888.

Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. L. (2016). Quality of Life (QOL) and well-being research in tourism. *Journal of Tourism Management, 53*, 244–261.

Viet, B. N., Dang, H. P., & Nguyen, H. H. (2020). Revisit intention and satisfaction: The role of destination image, perceived risk, and cultural contact. *Cogent Business & Management, 7*(1), 1796249. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2020.1796249.

Visser, G. (2016). Urban leisure and tourism-led redevelopment frontiers in central Cape Town since the 1990s. *Tourism, 64*(4), 397–408.

Ward, C. M., Parker, C. M., & Shackleton, C. M. (2010). The use and appreciation of Botanical Gardens as urban green spaces in South Africa. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening, 9*, 49–55.

Wielewska, I. & Zuzek, D.K. (2015). Environmental Awareness of Rural Population in the light of Authors' Research. Zeszyty Naukowe SGGW w Warszawie. *Problemy Rolnictwa Swiatowego, 15* (4), 215-222.

Wu, L., & Kim, S. K. (2021). Exploring the equality of accessing urban green spaces: A comparative study of 341 Chinese cities. *Ecological Indicators, 121*, 107080.

Wu, Y., Wong, H., & Ho, Y. (2009). Urban Ecotourism: Defining and assessing dimensions using fuzzy number construction. *Tourism Management Journal, 31*(6), 739–743.

Yousefi, M., & Marzuki, A. (2012). Travel motivations and the influential factors: The case of Penang. *Malaysia. Anatolia, 23*(2), 169–176.