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The paper argues that organization of tourism within Protected Areas can become extremely beneficial for Greece, serving a fourfold purpose: a) enhancement of the natural and cultural heritage of the country, b) self-financing of Protected Areas, c) dispersion of tourism activity to all parts of the country (instead of only the islands and coasts), and d) broadening the offered tourism product that is still characterized by seasonality.

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Tourism sector plays an important role in economic development and therefore many countries try to develop various policies on this sector to maximize its impacts on the economy. Empirical researches on this topic provide highly valuable information for the policy makers both in public and private sectors. The aim of this study is, therefore, to empirically investigate the determinants of tourism demand for the most attractive top ten countries (France, United States, China, Spain, Italy, Turkey, Germany, United Kingdom, Russia, Malaysia) for tourists by employing the recently developed tools of panel econometrics for the period of 1995-

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EDITORIAL

The issue comprises ten (10) papers on various aspects of tourism. In the first paper, **Marco Valeri** and **Leslie Fadlon** aim to verify if the organizational model of the *albergo diffuso* satisfies the requirements of sustainability when offered to tourists who are increasingly interested in the history and culture of a territory. The qualitative research method adopted uses a case study approach based on two case studies of *alberghi diffusi*. Subsequently, **Orhan Akova**, **İbrahim Cifci**, **Ozan Atsız**, and **Burcu Gezeroglu** study the dining out motivations in the scope of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. A survey has been conducted with people dining out at restaurants at Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar in Istanbul, Turkey. It has been found that basic motivations explaining dining out phenomenon for both theories are more likely to satisfy psychological needs rather than physical needs. In the third paper, **Marilena Papageorgiou** argues that organization of tourism within Protected Areas can become extremely beneficial for Greece, serving a fourfold purpose: a) enhancement of the natural and cultural heritage of the country, b) self-financing of Protected Areas, c) dispersion of tourism activity to all parts of the country (instead of only the islands and coasts), and d) broadening the offered tourism product that is still characterized by seasonality.

Then, **Athina Papageorgiou** records a variety of aspects concerning personnel selection, employment status and education of the staff of the Greek travel agencies. She finds that the current economic crisis affected personnel selection and management and Greek travel agencies tend to hire younger and more educated staff using correct and just hiring criteria. Agencies offer limited further education and specialization and do not sufficiently motivate their employees to increase their productivity, probably because of recession. She also reveals that when Greek travel agencies dismiss their staff they do it after a fair judgment. In the fifth paper, **Subhajit Bhattacharya** and **Anindya** investigate the multi factor process to create positive Word-of-Mouth communication in connection for improved destination branding. The research was

conducted with 406 Indian tourists sample collected from different parts of India. A structural equation modeling has been introduced to validate the proposed model. The outcome of this research paper should enable destination marketers and tourism brand managers to get a new direction in their thought, the outcome would also be helping further researchers to think in this direction. In what follows, **Hristo Katrandjiev** analyzes the tourism advertising in Bulgarian media. The use of rhetorical figures within tourism and non-tourism advertising is investigated and comparisons are made. On that base, the “rhetorical profile” of Bulgarian tourism advertising is outlined. Another important direction of the research is the analysis of slogan length – the author measured slogan length within 9 product categories and found that tourism slogans are among the longest.

In the seventh paper, **Antonio Kido-Cruz, Andrew F Seidl and Jazmin Avalos-Arias** estimate a vector autoregressive (VAR) model to explore the relationship between Mexico’s GDP and the number of international visitors over time. Their results reveal a Granger causality relationship between GDP and the number of international tourists over the period of the study, which suggests that the promotion of tourism can generate significant support to the economic dynamism of the country. Subsequently, **Srinivasan Palamalai** investigates the causal nexus between tourism expansion, urbanization and economic growth in India using Granger Causality test over the period from 1995 to 2014. The empirical results reveal that tourism expansion and economic growth are independent of each other in the short-run and does not validate either tourism-led growth hypothesis or growth-led tourism hypothesis. Besides, the test results show that one-way Granger causality runs from economic growth to urbanization and urbanization to tourism expansion in India. The study suggests that the urbanization and tourism expansion cannot be sustained if economic growth momentum is not enhanced in effective manner. In the ninth paper, **Akın Aksu, Ömür Uçar and Doğu Kılıçarslan** aim to determine the current profile of sampled golf tourists visiting Belek in Antalya, Turkey in high season and their perceptions of security. Despite some negative developments in

Turkey (such as terrorist attacks), most of golf tourists remain satisfied and motivated to recommend the destination to others. The results of the study can prove of help for tourism professionals, academicians and decision makers especially in developing future marketing strategies for Belek. Finally, **Ceyhun Can Özcan** and **Muhsin Kar** investigate the determinants of tourism demand for the most attractive top ten countries (France, United States, China, Spain, Italy, Turkey, Germany, United Kingdom, Russia, Malaysia) for tourists by employing the recently developed tools of panel econometrics for the period of 1995-2011. Empirical findings show that macroeconomic factors as such income, price level, supply capacity, exchange rate and political stability have statistically significant effects on the demand for tourism in the top ten countries in the world tourism sector.

SUSTAINABILITY IN TOURISM: AN ORIGINALITY AND HOSPITALITY BUSINESS IN ITALY

Marco Valeri

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The aim of the paper is to verify if the organizational model of the albergo diffuso satisfies the requirements of sustainability when offered to tourists who are increasingly interested in the history and culture of a territory. The qualitative research method adopted uses a case study approach based on two case studies of alberghi diffusi (Yin, 2009). These are analysed by focusing on the business and organizational model of the albergo diffuso. The albergo diffuso is a more valid and sustainable hospitality business alternative to traditional Italian hotels. It is not just a different kind of hotel with historical, cultural and artistic associations but a project to promote the history and culture of an area which can have a major impact on competitiveness, economic growth, and local social and environmental development. In future research, the study will focus on a wider sample analysis, with a qualitative examination in different geographical areas.

Keywords: *Entrepreneurship, sustainability, destination management and governance, competitive advantage*



INTRODUCTION

Over recent decades, tourism has played a strategic role in economic growth. In 2014, the contribution of tourism to the Italian economy was 160 billion euro, equivalent to 10.3% of GDP. In the European economy, tourism amounted to 8.7 % of the total, with more than an 8.5% increase in jobs; globally, tourism has resulted in an increase of GDP of 9.5 % and an 8,9% increase in jobs (ONT, 2015). The importance of tourism is not only economic, but also cultural, social and educational; the tourist industry has been growing at an impressive rate since the second half of the twentieth century. The flow of international arrivals were more than 1,184 million in 2015. Some 50 million more tourists (overnight visitors) travelled to international destinations around the world last year as compared to 2014 (UNWTO, 2015). In Europe, international arrivals reached 609 million, 29 million more than in 2014. Central and Eastern Europe (+6%) bounced back from last year's decrease in arrivals. Northern Europe (+6%), southern Mediterranean Europe (+5%) and Western Europe (+4%) also recorded positive results, especially considering the many major destinations they involve (UNWTO, 2015).

Tourists are becoming more sensitive to their leisure time experiences and are more interested in authenticity and having closer relations with the local population (Smith and Robinson, 2005; Valeri *et al.*, 2016). The need to satisfy their very different needs in a sustainable way has led to the development and success of specific business formulas - in particular, the phenomenon of alberghi diffusi.

The albergo diffuso is an original innovative model of Italian hospitality. Although still limited in number, the structures are being widely developed and are becoming appreciated for their originality also at an international level (Confalonieri, 2011). An albergo diffuso is hotel accommodation situated in the centre of a small medieval town or village where there is a lively sense of community; the hotel is not in a single building, but consists of two or more separate nearby lodgings that provide guests with normal hotel services. It has to conform to the following requisites: 1) it is run directly by an individual owner as a private business; 2) hotel services and reception area are provided to all guests staying in the various 'scattered' lodgings; 3) rooms are decorated in a consistently authentic and local style; 4) the hotel is professionally managed in order to offer an authentic experience to the guests, and is part of a genuine community. This type of hospitality business also aims at conserving existing buildings which otherwise might end up abandoned or derelict. The

rooms and reception are located in the center of an existing inhabited community, while food and drink are provided in a separate locale common to all the lodgings.

If we are to understand and control the dynamics emerging in the tourist industry, we need to analyse the problems of governance and management in the tourist destination itself (Hristov, 2015). It is therefore crucial that tourist businesses are aware of and can evaluate the external environment, and provide professional and responsible answers (Baggio *et al.*, 2010; Gopal, 2014). This can be a possible source of creativity for more sustainable development (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Balkytė and Tvaronavičienė, 2010; Hall, 2010; Romagosa, *et. al.*, 2013; Valeri, 2015). Therefore tourism businesses must pay attention to the needs expressed by tourists visiting their competitors' tourist destinations in order to devise consistent strategies (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Efstratios and Kitrinou, 2011).

This paper is divided into three parts: the first will focus on a review of tourism sustainability literature, with particular attention paid to governance issues and the management of tourist destinations, seen as a vehicle for the creation of value and for sustainable development; the second part will present the albergo diffuso organizational model, studying its distinctive features (the number of housing units, the Italian geographical distribution, their historical and cultural character). The third part will consist of the analysis of two important Italian alberghi diffusi: *Al Vecchio Convento* and *Val di Kam*, located respectively in the Emilia Romagna Region and in Sicily, which are particularly dynamic regions from the tourist/cultural point of view.

We have chosen these two regions because 25% of all Italian hotels are to be found in Emilia-Romagna and Sicily has the largest number of tourist districts in the country (10 out of a total of 39): the districts of Catania, Palermo, Taormina and Messina, the urban areas of Agrigento, Ragusa and Siracusa, and the prospective districts of Trapani, Sciacca and the Aeolian Islands.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In a globalized competitive environment, tourist destinations must act in a decidedly more entrepreneurial way than ever before (Crouch and Ritchie, 2000). It is no longer sufficient to manage the relation between the tourism system and the tourists; it has become mandatory to govern the

relations between all stakeholders in the tourism sector, who, in various ways, contribute to tourism (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Scott *et al.*, 2008; Baggio *et al.*, 2010). The competitiveness of a tourist destination, therefore, is dependent on the competitive capacity of each undertaking / tourist organization within it, compared to other competing tourist destinations, both national and international. This necessarily implies that each tourist destination comprises not only the individuals operating within the borders of its the territory. It is above all important to define an authority of governance, whether public or private or mixed, that is able to develop a strategic plan that upgrades not only the business but also the attractions of the area (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Valeri and Baiocco, 2012).

An analysis of national and international literature on the theme of sustainability is very interesting as it allows us to grasp the breadth and depth of the scientific debate on the subject. The basic problem to be solved is to understand if sustainability is more or less accepted as a philosophy based on a responsible interpretation of a complex and highly interdependent system such as the modern tourism enterprise. We need to find a systematic literature review attempting to outline the state of the art and identify certain major areas of research on which scholars have focused their interest.

As part of the international scientific debate, sustainability is a key success factor in the achievement of competitiveness of enterprises over time (Gladwin *et al.*, 1995; Ryan, 2002; Liu, 2003; Dwyer *et al.*, 2009; Ruhanen *et al.*, 2010; Bramwell and Lane, 2011). Sustainable development is defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". This definition of sustainability in the Brundtland Report (1987) can be applied to a wide range of economic and social conditions, whether they are emerging or developing. The definition includes three fundamental aspects of sustainable development: *economic efficiency*, *social efficiency* and *environmental efficiency* (Buckley, 2012). Sustainable tourism development tries to balance the economic returns of tourism with the conservation of the non-renewable resources consumed by the tourist industry (Jovicic, 2011). The impact of tourism on the natural environment in which it takes place is quite considerable in terms of the need for infrastructure and facilities which change the landscape forever, the rival use requirements of available resources, the need for goods and services and unavoidable intercultural encounters. Consequently, when an area decides to develop its tourist sector, the whole local development model is affected and the area has to make choices as to how it assigns resources, what its production goals are,

and the extent to which social and business changes involving the local population are desirable.

Part of the literature on the subject of sustainability investigates the relationship between orientation to sustainability and financial results related to business development dynamics. Specifically, the literature provides conflicting views on the relationship between sustainability and financial performance. Many authors argue for the positive side of the relationship, understood as the company's ability to generate a high economic value; others claim the existence of an ideal level of sustainability, others remain neutral on the subject (Mackey *et al.*, 2007; Mcwilliams *et al.*, 2006; Epstein, 2008; Epstein *et al.*, 2010). As regards the relationship between ethics and business conduct, the literature questions the possibility of an interpretation of business ethics. There are various proposals from several experts of potential models capable of introducing ethics into the activities of enterprises. However, other studies on the role of Institutions argue that they have the responsibility of mediating between local conditions and the behaviour of firms. According to this definition, any tourist phenomenon qualifies as sustainable when it manages to protect the environmental resources in the middle-long term, safeguarding the identity, values and the cultural heritage of the population (Landorf, 2009). This means that the process will not impoverish the territory and compromise the quality of the environment, nor change the social and cultural balance by generating high stranded costs for facilities and infrastructure (De Bruyn, 2003).

In addition, tourism is sustainable, and at the same time also responsible, when it recognizes the host communities' right to be protagonists in their territory's economic and social development (Valeri, *et al.*, 2016). As a multidimensional phenomenon (Jafari, 1987), tourism plays a crucial role in sustainability development (Gössling *et al.*, 2009; Dwyer *et al.*, 2009). The implementation of sustainability is supposed to preserve environmental resources from the uncontrolled development of tourism facilities and infrastructure, by attempting to promote the use of renewable resources, conserving energy conservation and reducing pollution (Pacheco-De-Almeida and Zemsky, 2007).

Innovative and sustainable tourism projects cannot ignore the creation of organizational environments which allow the sharing of new knowledge between enterprises and external environments. Governance and management of tourism firms have a responsibility to create an environment which is conducive to the development of new cost-effective and socially

acceptable tourism services, protecting the local resources (Schianetz *et al.*, 2007).

Therefore, when the competitiveness of tourism enterprises is measured on their ability to give unique experiences to tourists, it is the responsibility of the governance and management of these enterprises to focus on actions that will create value for tourists, with the purpose of:

- a) improving the quality of accommodation and tourism services;
- b) enhancing the quality of tourism based on intangible resources, integrating it with social, economic and environmental aspects of the territory;
- c) promoting and enhancing the local intangible cultural heritage.

This requires sustainable organizational models, indispensable for the creation of innovative tourism services, which will be able to engage and remunerate all the stakeholders. Such processes must be able to enhance and consolidate the system of relationships between the different stakeholders involved. It presupposes cooperation between tourism enterprises and tourism service providers in a co-evolution project that will require innovative processes, some clear and transparent relationships with all the parties involved and a proactive and reactive role played by tourism enterprises alongside the host communities. When a tourism firm aspires to be sustainable it should not stay isolated from its background; it should create instead a wider network with other firms and with all the stakeholders it has (Volgger and Pechlaner, 2015).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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Start each new paragraph with indent like this. Make sure not to change the type of letters/fonts or the formatting of the paper. The work follows the qualitative methodology of the multiple case study research of Robert Yin (2014). This article discusses the results of a comprehensive empirical survey on two alberghi diffusi, located in Emilia Romagna and in Sicily, very dynamic regions, where entrepreneurial success is possible for young companies who care about sustainability. The

survey aims to show how 'scattered' hospitality represents a sustainable model of hospitality which is different from the traditional forms of local hotels. The study was carried out in several distinct stages:

- a) analysis of academic studies, congress papers and other articles, including non-specialist material;
- b) analysis of web sites and institution databases, trade associations and coordination structures;
- c) analysis of interviews with the General Manager of Italian Association Hotels. The questions were posed to help understand the evolutionary dynamics of the needs of tourists;
- d) analysis of interviews with the entrepreneurs of two alberghi diffusi. These are small businesses located in small local territories, and are analysed from a cultural and organizational viewpoint. Because of their special characteristics, these hotels can be considered as micro-territorial contexts within the Italian regions;
- e) analysis of the entrepreneurial and organizational model of the albergo diffuso.

Data collection is based on direct interviews with entrepreneurs of alberghi diffusi, through a semi-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire depends on the character of the person interviewed. The interviewer's attention focuses on both verbal and non-verbal communication. This is because the effectiveness of an answer does not only depend on its literal meaning as it is said but also on the way the message is perceived, caused by the influence of non-verbal communication factors. The semi-structured interviews conducted were based on broad categories that have already been investigated to show the differences between the two alberghi diffusi, relating to the business sphere, the environmental sphere, the organizational sphere and the process sphere. In this research the same determinants are investigated by analysing the following main points: 1) the geographical location, 2) the number of housing units, 3) the historical - cultural identity and architecture of the housing units in each albergo diffuso, 4) the organizational aspects and style of leadership, 5) the initial motivation of the business.

The questionnaire was administered during the month of February 2016. The fact that the questionnaire was analytical has not constrained the interviewer to use a more rigid framework in dialogue with the entrepreneurs. They were free to tell their story and describe their firm's performance, and this enabled the interviewer to propose questions on

specific topics and to further homogenize the data collected. The analytical aspects treated are the result of the continuation of our previous research on the albergo diffuso theme. Therefore, these factors can be observed and revisited in the light of our research question: *does the organizational model of the albergo diffuso meet the sustainability requirements to satisfy a clientele who are increasingly interested in appreciating the history and culture of an entire area?*

DISCUSSION

The albergo diffuso is an original Italian business model. The idea of ‘scattered hospitality’ goes back to the 1976 earthquake in Friuli Venezia Giulia, where whole villages of Carnia were converted into tourist facilities. *Diffuso* means that the enterprise is integrated into the socio-cultural reality of the place. The buildings that house the hotel services and accommodation, as well as their furnishings are all authentic and pre-existing (nothing new is built, only carefully restructured) (Paniccia *et. al.* 2010; Valeri, 2011). In 2015 there were 120 alberghi diffusi in Italy, classified as follows: a) 65 located in historic towns, b) 23 in historic residences, and c) 31 in old farmhouses (Alberghi Diffusi Italian Association, 2016).

The alberghi have an average number of 18 rooms and 30 beds. The highest concentration is located in Central Italy where there are 45 units; 23 units are located in southern Italy, 21 units on Sicily and Sardinia and 30 units located in Northern Italy. It is remarkable that Sardinia, the first to put the idea into practice, has 6 units of which 5 are historic villages transformed into alberghi diffusi.

In terms of space, alberghi diffusi are organised horizontally, since the bedrooms consist of single houses in the medieval town centre, restored and restructured in keeping with local architectural traditions.

Some hotels are spread through a historic small mountain village or hill-town; sometimes the structure of the hotel extends to cover a large part of the village, becoming an example of an authentic experience in which the village and its inhabitants, the farmers and artisans who live there become part of the experience of hospitality together with the guests. Other hotels are set up in a rural or mountain area which, while not constituting a historic village, is, however, a locality rich in local colour; still other hotels also are located in the centre of small or large cities.

From the technical and organizational point of view, a second common feature is that the bedrooms are all located within the pre-existing units. They are of different sizes, independent, and at a distance generally not more than 200/300 meters from the main building, which acts as reception and an information centre.

Unlike in traditional hotels, the restaurant is considered an ancillary service and is usually absent; however, in most of the cases analysed, we found that this activity is given special attention in some alberghi diffusi where there are annexed farms, sometimes of considerable size; the restaurant business then plays an obvious role in the socio-cultural as well as the economic sphere. Similarly, the information service to tourists is often supplied by small libraries, mini-museums, lessons on local cuisine, etc. These services are very different from the more traditional management activities of standard hotels (reception, information, accommodation, catering). During periods of increased tourist influx, some alberghi diffusi offer rented accommodation in houses owned or rented by residents, in addition to the homes owned by the hotel. The different historical, cultural and architectural features of the lodgings that make up the hotels we studied (old houses in a historical village, farms, detached agricultural buildings) and their equally varied dissemination in the area are very important distinctive elements, not only compared to other traditional formulas but also within the hotel segment of the alberghi diffusi business.

In the paper two case studies are examined, selected from within the universe of the alberghi diffusi. They are both small businesses in territories that are different from each other. The hospitality models can be regarded as micro-businesses in territorial tourist destinations in Emilia Romagna and Sicily, both of which have major tourist flows. The alberghi diffusi under study are located in historic villages and can be considered 'young' examples of entrepreneurial success.

The survey was conducted by means of a questionnaire administered to selected alberghi diffusi owners and aimed at analysing the structural and distinctive features of every hotel studied (the geographical location, the number of housing units in each albergo, their historical - cultural identity and architecture; the organizational aspects, style of leadership, and the initial motivation behind the business). Each albergo diffuso description is accompanied by statements made by the owners during the administration of the questionnaire.

The Al Vecchio Convento albergo diffuso

Q: What is an albergo diffuso?

A: It is an original hospitality model of environmental tourism development. Guests are offered a life experience in the historical centre of a town or village while still being provided with all tourist services; guests are accommodated in houses and rooms that are no more than 200 metres from the centre of the hotel, where they will find the reception and other important areas. The albergo diffuso is also a sustainable model of territorial development. In fact, to build these particular hotels it is not necessary to build something new but only restore or restructure existing structures.

The *Al Vecchio Convento* albergo diffuso is an initiative by Italian private entrepreneurs with thirty years' experience in the restaurant industry, who in 2007 decided to convert into a hotel a prestigious building dating to 1940, until then used as a restaurant. The renovation work lasted seven years and involved mainly the residents on-site and local cultural institutions interested in the requalification of the real estate. The hotel structure extends horizontally within the village for an area of 10 hectares or 10% of the total area of the village. The hotel consists of 7 units for a total of 25 rooms, which represent 61% of the total capacity of the village (41 rooms) and 0.2% of the carrying capacity of the Forlì-Cesena tourist destination (18,674 rooms) (Istat 2014). As regards the type of rooms, two consist of the main building and the annex that are owned by the entrepreneur, the other five rooms are rented by the inhabitants residing in the village. This is a good example of cooperation between the entrepreneur and the residents who are attentive to the development of the area. The services offered by the albergo are considered to be an authentic experience, in which the inhabitants and local artisans interact with hotel guests in a series of events organized on site, such as painting classes and ceramics, along with typical local fairs and festivals.

Q: Is the territory able to attract tourists?

A: It is; in fact the area attracts mostly foreign tourists, especially when it manages to blend cultural events with stunning scenery, food and wine. For example 'Chef sotto il Portico' is a festival that attracts hundreds of visitors interested in tasting many dishes from ten world-class chefs.

The hotel's clientele is predominantly international (30 % Italian and 70 % non-Italian) and comes not only from European countries (Netherlands, England, Belgium and Germany), but also from the United

States, Russia, New Zealand and Brazil. In 2014 the number of arrivals registered in the hotel was 650. During the same period, the average stay of tourists was 3 nights. The data show that the Al Vecchio Convento hotel still does not constitute a strong tourist attraction because it is newly established and because it is located near well-known tourist destinations that have high tourist flows.

Q: What more could we do to win over tourists?

A: It would be useful to train operators in a practical way. It would be helpful to make a better use of the excellence of Emilio Romagna, as is the case with Parmigiano cheese and Ferrari cars. It would be useful to focus on product quality and hospitality. The rich cultural heritage and food and wine of a territory become innovations when it's possible to find a modern way to return to the traditions of the past

The Val di Kam albergo diffuso

Q: What is an albergo diffuso?

A: Every albergo diffuso has its story and this is inevitable, because we are revitalising something that already exists. These business initiatives can help reduce the depopulation of villages, and allow them to take on a new identity.

Q: What is the thinking behind the establishment of an albergo diffuso compared to other Italian tourism formulas?

A: The guests in an albergo diffuso are interested in discovering the history, culture and traditions of a small medieval town. The tourists who decide to stay in an albergo diffuso want to experience these historical traditions. If they want a holiday where they are in contact with the natural environment, they will choose an agro-tourism or farm holiday. The two formulas are two distinct forms of tourism business.

The Val di Kam Albergo diffuso was founded in 2002 by an Italian businessman with experience in banking and insurance. The albergo was created to save the village of Sant'Angelo Muxaro in Sicily (AG), which was being slowly abandoned for years. Sant'Angelo Muxaro has an area of 64.55 square kilometres, and is located on a hill at an altitude of 335 meters above sea level. The village has a certain importance as a prehistorical (12th

century BC) archaeological site. The Val di Kam albergo exists in a kind of symbiosis with the territory.

Q: What idea lies behind Italian alberghi diffusi?

A: It comes from a strong desire in small Italian villages to see their culture, traditions, food and wine take their place within a wider historical and cultural heritage.

The hotel structure extends horizontally within the village over an area of 3,700 square meters, or 30% of the total area of the village. This albergo diffuso consists of 4 housing units, 20 rooms and 60 beds, which represent 40% of the capacity of the village (80 rooms) and 0.6% of the carrying capacity of the tourist destination of Agrigento (3,185 rooms) (Istat, 2014). The services are provided by seven hotel workers who are all residents in the borough.

Q: You opened this albergo diffuso eleven years ago – how are things today?

A: It's going fine, especially with foreign tourists who like to live in the small towns of the Apennines, which is an area that is still largely undiscovered. These places often lack beds and we offer visitors empty apartments located in Portico.

The clients of Val di Kam albergo diffuso are Italians (30%) and foreigners (70%) coming from the Netherlands, Spain, France and Germany. In 2014, the number of arrivals registered at the hotel was 660 units. During the same period, the average stay of tourists was 2 nights. As regards the village of Sant'Angelo Muxaro, the Val di Kam albergo is able to attract tourist flows to the history and cultural traditions valued by the local authorities, who are always attentive to the protection of the territory.

RESULTS

This paper aims to answer the following questions: *does the organizational model of the albergo diffuso meet the sustainability requirements to satisfy a clientele who are increasingly interested in appreciating the history and culture of an entire area?*

From the analysis of the interviews conducted with the owners of the alberghi diffusi that we have chosen as case studies, and with the General Manager of the Italian Hotel Association (see below), we learnt that these two hotels were the most typical examples of the model. They have a horizontal structure made up of some existing buildings that are part of the local culture; they base their competitive advantage on a close integration with the territory and on the exploitation of local resources. In addition, they are located in buildings of cultural and historical interest, far from mass tourism destinations, preserving the local identity and the original architecture. They are particularly suited for the emerging needs of the tourism sector: by staying in these two alberghi diffusi tourists can become an active part of the host community. The interviews showed that our case studies can positively meet the requirements of sustainability.

In order to protect and enhance the local setting, historic buildings were restored in the traditional architectural style, using reclaimed building materials (*environmental efficiency*); in these hotels generous use is made of local food and wine, they promote nature, artistic and food trails, allowing tourists to actively participate in the initiatives publicized by tourism associations (*social efficiency*). At the same time, the alberghi diffusi contribute to the development of the villages they are in, boosting their products, history and traditions: after the positive experience of their stay in the villages, tourists will keep buying the typical products they found there during their vacation, bringing competitive advantage to the territorial economy (*economic efficiency*).

Nevertheless, alberghi diffusi have often failed to exploit the potential offered by the local tourist resources and the increasing numbers of socially responsible tourists. The cause of this situation may reside in:

- 1) existing regulations are inadequate to deal with a proper development of local and national tourism;
- 2) the government has a poor record of taking action in favour of efficient and effective management of tourist flows;
- 3) the government lacks the initiative to encourage the development of tourism in outlying areas.

Q: Could the ambiguities inherent in these inadequate regulations have an effect on this form of hospitality business model?

A: *The albergo diffuso is a sustainable model of Italian hospitality, which works when it tries to develop itself in small villages with the aim of improving the lifestyle and promoting the products of these areas. Over the*

years several legislation proposals have been criticized for their alterations to the original albergo diffuso model. For example, in Molise, a bill was blocked because it tried to support the recognition of alberghi diffusi as 'de-centralized' hospices for people who are no longer self-sufficient. In general, our fear is that others will take advantage of the success of this hospitality formula.

(GM - Italian Hotel Association)

Today, national and regional regulations simply consider alberghi diffusi as a special category, and describe their characteristics summarily, specifying minimum requirements and the conditions for issuing the necessary authorizations.

Q: In which regions has legislation been implemented to allow the creation of alberghi diffusi? What kind of problems have emerged?

A: This happened in every Italian region, except Molise, which has a special regulation on the albergo diffuso system. In fact, there have been problems due to the fact that each region has acted independently from the others in the matter. Sometimes regulations appear to be not so perfect and it took 15 years to get 19 regulations passed (GM - Italian Association Hotels).

Therefore, it is the decision makers' responsibility to promote actions aimed at the development the territory. They also have the responsibility to encourage the development of both local and national tourism systems, to increase the competitiveness of Italian tourist destinations. This is not easy to achieve, because it requires huge investments of human and economic resources and the involvement of the public sector, and that would be difficult for small businesses like alberghi diffusi.

CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

This paper aims to contribute to recent studies on the topic of alberghi diffusi, and tries to suggest some ways for tourism entrepreneurs and policy makers to improve their performance. The article addresses a very recent issue, for which there is yet no official quantitative measurement; so the discussion provides an opportunity to indicate how innovation would be

significant in gaining a competitive advantage in the tourism sector, starting with the improvement of the regional regulations.

The alberghi diffusi we analysed can be considered a valid and sustainable hospitality business alternative to traditional Italian hotels. Their originality lies in their structure and means of service delivery, the emphasis on authentic experiences and the involvement of all its participants. In fact, they are not merely 'scattered' hotel accommodation with historical, cultural and artistic add-ons, but a programme aimed at promoting the history and culture of an area that can have a great effect on competitiveness through the development of the local economy, as has been demonstrated by certain examples of excellence. It can also be seen from the study that the albergo diffuso model assumes a) respect for and protection of the environment, especially of the ecosystem and biodiversity - the structures and tourist activities have minimum environmental impact; b) respect for and protection of the traditional culture of the local population; c) the tourist-oriented activities are shared by the local population; d) they also share in the social and economic benefits derived from tourism.

Within historic villages, tourism cannot become a mass phenomenon. However, it can play an important role in propagating local and regional interests in a new context that relies on the small tourist business in its role of a driving force for a healthier and more sustainable development of more territories and more and more local communities (Emanuel, 2012). From the legal point of view, clear and consistent rules in the field of alberghi diffusi are still lacking. In regions with a higher concentration of these, there is no proper regulation. The limitation of the paper is that the analysis included only two alberghi diffusi out of the Italian total. In a future development of the paper it would be interesting to make a comparison between the alberghi diffusi in Italy and similar business models in Europe, in order to identify their specific characteristics and their potential for competitive development.

Future research will further clarify the relationships between the albergo diffuso model and the pursuit of sustainable goals by the businesses involved in developing the project. Another aspect that could be analysed in future would be how the local communities perceive the benefits offered by the alberghi diffusi; in other words, it would be interesting to find out if the local people feel themselves part of this project for improving the value of their territory. Finally, it would also be interesting to assess the actual value created by the alberghi diffusi, for themselves and for the territory, and propose empirical models for establishing lasting partnerships between the actors of both the tourism industry and the community.

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UNDERSTANDING THE MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS OF DINING OUT: A STUDY AT FATİH KADINLAR BAZAAR IN ISTANBUL

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The purpose of this study is to determine the dining out motivations in the scope of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. In addition, it has been aimed to identify whether there is a link between the motivation factors to dining out and demographic factors, the distance to the residential location. A survey has been conducted with people dining out at restaurants at Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar in Istanbul. In total, 304 valid responds have been collected. As a result, in the scope of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, the motivation factors for the people who dine out at local restaurants in Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar for both theories are socializing, status and self-actualization. It has been found that basic motivations explaining dining out phenomenon for both theories are more likely to satisfy psychological needs rather than physical needs.

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Keywords: *Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, Dining out and Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar*

INTRODUCTION

After the industrial revolution, food and beverage service enterprises emerged as a consequence of urbanization and migration from villages to cities, people started to cater their needs for nutrition through dining out in return for a set price. Today, globalization had brought rapid changes in lifestyle and this also had an impact on the behaviors of individuals towards their diet. People prefer to dine out for various reasons such as time limit or unwillingness to cook at home, spending time for leisure activities, socializing with other people while dining out, the need to get together with friends and family, tasting different flavors, self-realization, status, fashion, celebration and so on.

In a city like Istanbul, which keeps receiving migration from rural areas on an ongoing basis, certain locations have emerged where typical food businesses reflecting Anatolian regional cuisine can be found. This food businesses often reflect culinary richness of the region's they belong, instead of standard type of fast-food serving facilities. Because of this feature, these local speciality restaurants keep attracting the attention of foreign and domestic tourists seeking new experiences. Such places emerge in various districts of Istanbul, where visitors can taste local products and buy for home consumption if they want. Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar located in Fatih district of Istanbul is one of them. Adjacent to the historic Valens Aqueduct, Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar consists of restaurants specialized on Eastern and Southeastern Anatolian cuisines and customers have the opportunity to taste local dishes such as “Büryan”and “Kitel”. Hence products from the city of Siirt are usually sold in Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar, it is also called as “Little Siirt”, too (Akbaba, 2005). İtfaiye Street, where the Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar is located, has been featured among Europe's most popular 12 streets in an article published in the New York Times recently and the market’s offering delicious different flavors such as Mumbar and Büryan Kebab have been emphasized (Fowler, 2015).

As it has seen recently in other big cities, dining out and related leisure activities are attracting interest of both domestic and foreign tourists incrementally. In addition, motivations for dining out began to attract more attention in literature. Dining out motivations of both local communities and foreign tourists can be affected by various factors. Conducting research about basic dining out motivations, demographic factors and the physical distance of places where people eat out have a significant importance in terms of investors and restaurant managers. The results can lead to better managerial decisions on choosing the right location, staffing, menu layout, buying and decorating.

According to the accepted theory in psychology, needs are main motivational elements affecting human behavior (Özdaşlı and Akman, 2012, pp. 74-75). When some recognized motivation theories in this field are taken into account, it has been stated that motivation concept entitles in two terms: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Whereas intrinsic motivation is defined as individual's desire to take action in line with personal factors such as internal goals, intentions, biological and psychological needs, self-reliance, risk-taking, coping with anxiety and curiosity, external motivation denotes individual's desire to take action in line with external factors such as a reinforcement or re-compensation from external environment (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

In Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, human needs are discussed as "Physiological, security, social needs, esteem and self-actualization" in the form of pyramid levels (Maslow, 1970). According to this theory, physical and security needs found at the pyramid's bottom are usually described as external factors caused by individual's external environment, while socialization, esteem and self-actualization needs found at the mid and top levels of the pyramid are categorized as intrinsic factors. Based on this theory, individual pursues the next higher need in the hierarchy until her or his currently recognized need was substantially or completely satisfied (Solomon, 2004, p.122). Herzberg's Two Factor Theory is another motivation theory, which discusses factors categories employees to work under two headings referred to as motivators (intrinsic) and hygiene (external) factors; While self-development, acceptance, responsibility and success are described as motivators; Salary, company regulations, relationships with other employees and work environment concepts are identified as hygiene factors (Robbins, 2005, p.173). While the absence of hygiene factors leads to dissatisfaction, their presence alone is not enough for satisfaction (McKenra, 1987). Even though Herzberg's Two Factor Theory examines employees' satisfaction in work environment, it is also used in some studies in the field of tourism (Crompton, 2003; Jansen, 2004; Chang and Hsieh, 2006). In touristic enterprises, guest satisfaction shows characteristics parallel to employees' work motivation and while the absence of hygiene factors causes dissatisfaction, motivators lead to satisfaction (Chan and Baum, 2008). It has been also asserted that in comparison to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory is more effective in terms of understanding guest motivations (Balmer and Baum, 1993).

The aim of this study is to determine the dining out motivations in the scope of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor

Theory at FatihWomen Baazar located in Fatih district of Istanbul. In this study motivation factors are associated with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. Further to motivation theories mentioned above, this study analyses dining out motivations, in which motivation factors are discussed in three dimensions named as physiological and security (external), socialization, status and self-actualization (intrinsic) referring to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, while motivators (intrinsic-pleasure, happiness, joy etc.) and hygiene (external-distance, variety, cheapness etc.) factors are reviewed in two dimensions referring to Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. Additionally, it has been aimed to identify the relationship between the motivation factors to dining out and demographic factors, the distance to the residential location and motivations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Dining out habit became one of the most important elements indicating the sophistication of societies. Especially in today's societies, it began to have a meaning beyond eating for one's physical needs. Dining out behavior is an important part of the culture and therefore it has significant impact on the development of food and beverage enterprises. In general terms, dining out is described as individual's food consumption occurring outside of his/her residence. Relatively, an apple eaten on the street can also be included into this concept, however in modern terms dining out should occur at a business such as restaurant or cafe while creating an economic value (Warde and Martens, 2000, p.4). The concept of dining out has been also subject to various disciplines including sociology, marketing, anthropology, economics, nutrition, food and beverage management, home economics and agricultural economics (Özdemir, 2010). From the anthropology perspective, present literature states that in Western history, only travelers and expeditionary people used to eat out previously and first restaurants emerged in France including as a result of the industrial revolution in 19th century (Fox, n.d). Until the late 1800s western style restaurants were featured mainly in luxury international hotels and after 1990s dining out became increasingly popular (Camillo and Pietro, 2014).

From the economic point of view, a positive relationship exists between the rising demand for dining out and increased income levels in urban areas (Cullen, 1994; Ma et al., 2006). The number of food and beverage businesses have escalated due to employees dining out on workdays, increased number of woman in workforce and a relative rise in

household's income and shifted demand to food and beverage businesses in order to save time in fast paced daily life (Scanlon, 1993).

Finkelstein (1989) states that people's needs which are aimed to be satisfied by dining out is related to people's criteria for choosing the restaurant. Present literature contains studies discussing dining out motivations, though from the customer behavior and satisfaction perspectives mainly. Park (2004) claims that people dine out not just for satisfying their physical needs but also for other benefits of dining out such as relaxation, fun, taste or interacting with others. Therefore, dining out became a behavior pattern differing from person to person. In other words, each person benefits from dining out in a different way depending on the motivation. In his study, Özdemir (2010) developed a holistic and conceptual model for dining out phenomenon and discussed about three main consumer decisions referring to dining out listed as deciding to eat out, deciding what to eat and where to eat. Thus, he suggested that consumers' reasons for dining out highly influences their decisions for the food and the restaurant. Reynolds and Hwang (2006) found that particularly the age group of (31-40) consumers, dining out often with their families and caring about the value for their money spent. Therefore, consumers with children prefer restaurants with a wide choice of children's menus. Kwun et al., (2014) discussing effects of hedonistic and utilitarian consumer values on dining out concept and regular restaurant patrons reveals the existence of numerous dining out motivations and these have various impacts on customers patronage levels, especially for people seeking out for large or limited variety in their food.

Yuksel and Yuksel (2002) found out that factors influencing service are service quality, product quality, menu diversity, hygiene, convenience and location, noise, service speed, price and value, facilities and atmosphere. And also, they included that service quality had the most significant effect on dining satisfaction. In their study on Chinese' attributes affecting the evaluation of travel dining experience by Chang et al. (2011) concluded that tourists' own food culture, the contextual factor of the dining experience, variety and diversity of food, perception of the destination, service encounter and tour guide's performance have a effect on dinning experience. Ozdemir (2010) implied that a restaurant environment, and restaurant's internal design, product, social meeting, accompany, service, atmosphere, payment, and management control system can be considered as the major components of eating out. Sun (2008) on her study related with Influences of dining-in or dining-out on choice among an elderly population found that convenience, seeking variety, unwillingness to cook, get together

with friends, get together with family and celebration are the most important factors motivating dinning out.

Considering the relation between dining out concept and leisure motivations, some motivation theories stand out. For instance, Satter (2007) developed the Hierarchy of Food Needs Theory inspired by Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and sorted food needs in the same context, in a pyramid form. From the apex down to bottom, these food needs are indicated as instrumental food, novel food, good-tasting food, reliable, ongoing access to food, acceptable food and enough food. Just like Maslow's theory, needs at each level must be satisfied before the need at next level can be addressed and experienced. Correspondingly, Ismail (2010) assessed customers' satisfaction levels dining out in Malay restaurants in Malaysia and associated satisfaction obtained from dining out behavior to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. Accordingly, the lowest level of satisfaction emerges when dining out only satisfies basic needs of customers and do not target higher level needs, whereas the highest level of satisfaction occurs when merits derived from dining out extends beyond customers' initial expectations.

Existing literature shows that motivations for dining out can also be explained by Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. Chand and Hsieh (2006) regarding dining out behavior in Taiwan's traditional night markets and related leisure motivations points out that dining out has a meaning more than just overcoming hunger. Moreover, in regards to Maslow and Herzberg' motivation theories the study reveals that the main leisure motivation for dining out in Taiwanese night markets is self-identity, whereas the absence of hygiene factors such as cheap prices and variety in food results in dissatisfaction. Similarly, Hua and Sun, (2008) research shows that restaurant patrons above 65 and living alone in Taiwan who have higher levels of education, life quality, income and better health are mainly motivated to eat out in a certain restaurant because of its easiness and food variety. These factors might be considered as external (hygiene) factors in regards to Herzsberg's Two Factor Theory.

It can be said also that new experiences, dining healthy, having pleasure and social factors stand out among dining out motivations. Ali and Natsh (2013) regarding Indian restaurant sector and customers' motivations for dining out justify that the majority have social motivations for dining out such as celebrating s special occasion and spending time with friends and family members. Similarly, Jaksa (1997) claims that motivations including hunger, fun, easiness, social situations, meeting with friends, job requirements, spending time with family, new experiences and celebrating

special occasions influence dining out behavior. Beverly and Stefanie (2003) also mention the impact of motivations like practicality, social causes, experiencing new things and health on dining out behavior. Some researchers discuss the relationship between health concerns and dining out. For example, Susheela (1998) states that there is a growing interest for authentic cuisines that are attributed as natural and healthy. In addition, Ariker's (2012) study on customers' criteria for choosing the restaurant and its relation to demographics reveals that in comparison to men, woman prefer restaurants offering healthy foods more.

METHODOLOGY

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the dining out motivations within the scope of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. Additionally, identifying whether demographic factors and the distance to the residential location affect dining out motivations is another objective of the study. By the end of 2014, food and beverage sector including fast food restaurants in Turkey have reached to a volume of 40 billion dollars and Istanbul obtained the biggest share (TURYID, 2014). The research conducted on 92 thousand 743 houses consumption point by ETUDER has concluded: that % 65 of the people go to places which are related with food and beverage with their friends in Turkey. It is also stated that nearly half of home consumption has been consumed at restaurants and fast foods chains. So it is important for restaurant managers to know why people dine out and what motivates them to satisfy their needs in order to survive in this competitive sector. Especially in developing countries, it is also important for restaurant managers to better understand the needs of restaurant customers as the food and beverage sector is not as large as of developed countries (ETUDER, 2014).

Total field under survey and sampling

Total population of the study consists of individuals dining out at Fatih Kadınlar Baazar located in Fatih district of Istanbul. Hence total number of visitors dining out at Fatih Kadınlar Baazar is indefinite, convenience sampling method is used. Within the scope of the study, 400 questionnaires were distributed to respondents while they are dining out at restaurants at Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar between 15.01.2015 / 15.02.2015 and yielded 304

valid questionnaires from 308 respondents. Prior to the distribution of the questionnaire, a pilot study has been conducted with 40 individuals in order to determine possible errors in the questionnaire and the questionnaire has been put in final form after some correction suggested in the pilot study.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed through discussion with scholars and an assessment of previous studies by Chang and Hsieh (2006) and Batra (2008) so as to meet the criteria of face validity and exclusivity. The questionnaire includes 44 questions. In the first part, there are demographic and socio-economic questions; second part includes 5 questions about participants' distance between Fatih Kadınlar Baazar and participants' place of residence. The second part was also composed of 20 statements and third and fourth section contains 33 statements that were linked to a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly agree to 5=strongly disagree) to identify what kind of leisure motives dining out at Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar reflects. Factor analysis results are interpreted as socialization, status and self-actualization, physical and security needs in three dimensions within the context of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, while motivator (joy, happiness, pleasure etc.) and hygiene (distance, variety, cheapness etc.) factors are viewed from the perspective of Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. In order to determine a meaningful relation between participants' demographic characteristic and their motivations for dining out at Fatih Kadınlar Baazar, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is applied on demographic data firstly. Test resulted in $P < 0,05$ and since the data is not representing a normal distribution, Kruskal Wallis-H and Mann Whitney U tests are used in this study.

FINDINGS

Figure 1 shows that respondents are mainly male (56,6 %) though gender distribution ratios are quite close. The characteristics of respondents are as follows: Age of respondents range mostly between 26-34 (25 %) and 35-49 (29,9 %); marital status predominately married (55,9 %); education level mainly high school and monthly income level is average (56,5%) in general.

Figure1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic Characteristics	Groups	F	%
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Gender	Woman	132	43,4
	Men	172	56,6
Age	18-25	13,8	13,8
	26-34	25,0	25,0
	35-49	29,9	29,9
	50-65	21,1	21,1
	65 and over	10,2	10,2
Marital Status	Married	170	55,9
	Single	134	44,1
Education Level	Elementary	74	24,4
	Highschool	109	35,8
	Undergraduate	81	26,6
	Graduate	40	13,2
Monthly Income	Low	68	22,4
	Average	172	56,5
	High	64	21,1
* N=304			

In order to test the availability of study data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient and Barlett-Sphericity Test are executed and KMO coefficient is determined as 0,829, which is considered as an excellent ratio (Durmuş, Yurtkoru, and Çinko, 2013, p.80). Barlett-Sphericity Test value is defined as ($P_{sig} = ,000$; $P < 0,05$). Cronbach Alpha coefficient is identified as 0.880. Likewise, reliability tests applied on factor dimensions yielded suitable values for execution of factor analysis (Nunnally, 1967, p.248). Factor dimensions regarding study data are shown in **Figure 2**.

Figure 2: Factor Dimensions

Intrinsic Factor Dimensions Regarding Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory	Factor Load	Mean	Standard Deviation	Reliability (α)
Socialization		3,6204	,76970	,757
Getting social and spending leisure time	,711			
I feel happy here	,670			
My friends come here, too.	,708			
One-to-one communication and meeting with new people	,614			
Spending time with family and friends	,739			
For looking after my culture	,728			

Status and Self-actualization		3,3716	,77772	,792
Being in a different cultural atmosphere	,534			
I is a popular place	,757			
Elite people come here, too.	,761			
Novelty search	,548			
Prestige	,603			
Cultural identity and discovering new cultures	,681			
Self-actualization	,427			
External Factor Dimensions Regarding Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory	Factor Load	Average	Standard Deviation	Reliability (α)
Physiological and safety needs		2,7826	1,0046	,681
On account of business	,871			
Need to eat, hunger	,744			
Business lunch	,704			
Hygiene Factor Dimensions regarding Herzberg's Two Factor Theory		3,3852	,57033	,605
Relatively, it is closer than other dining out locations	,507			
Variety of foods	,799			
Cheap prices	,653			
Delicious foods	,476			
Healthy foods	,463			
Hygienic foods	,461			
Health	,781			
Motivator Factor Dimensions regarding Herzberg's Two Factor Theory		3,5291	,71019	,736
Joy	,656			
Happiness	,739			
Improved emotional state (I feel better)	,717			
Pleasure	,661			
Opportunity for tasting local foods	,722			
Total Variance Explained= 65,078				
Approx. Chisquare = 4665,784				
Sig (p) = ,000				

As it is presented in Figure 2, it is observed that in regards to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, motivation factors are accumulated under socialization (Mean: 3,3716), status and self-actualization (3,3716) headings as intrinsic factors; physiological and safety needs (2,7826) as extrinsic factors. Also, variables are grouped hygiene factors (3,3852) and motivator factors (3,5291) referring to Herzberg's Two Factor Theory.

Figure3: Kruskal Wallis-H Test for the Age Variable

Factor Dimensions	Age	N	Mean Rank	Chi-square	Level of significance
Socialization	18-25	42	136,02	9,948	,041
	26-34	76	135,52		
	35-49	91	157,52		
	50-65	64	177,57		
	65 and over	21	149,00		
Status and Self-actualization	18-25	42	191,79	16,782	,002
	26-34	76	156,66		
	35-49	91	147,26		
	50-65	64	150,59		
	65 and over	21	108,37		
Physiological and Safety Needs	18-25	42	128,04	16,426	,002
	26-34	76	154,99		
	35-49	91	172,19		
	50-65	64	159,24		
	65 and over	21	107,84		
Hygiene Factor Dimensions	18-25	42	143,36	8,974	,062
	26-34	76	152,57		
	35-49	91	160,75		
	50-65	64	165,73		
	65 and over	21	113,16		
Motivator Factor Dimensions	18-25	42	149,20	15,578	,003
	26-34	76	157,72		
	35-49	91	161,37		
	50-65	64	163,72		

	65 and over	21	94,95
* N=304			

Figure 3 represents relations between age and motivation factors. Kruskal Wallis H test for age variable concluded relations between all factor dimensions except hygiene factors. Age groups main dining out motivations are given as follows: 50-65 age group mostly for socialization, 18-25 age group mainly for status and self-actualization; 35-49 age group for physiological and safety needs by a majority.

Figure 4: *Kruska Wallis-H Test for the Income Variable*

Factor Dimensions	Income Level	N	Mean Rank	Chi-square	Level of Significance
Socialization	Low	68	186,49	15,141	,001
	Average	172	138,53		
	High	64	144,72		
Status and Self-actualization	Low	68	81,93	63,565	,000
	Average	172	159,81		
	High	64	199,56		
Physiological and Safety Needs	Low	68	157,36	10,049	,007
	Average	172	138,15		
	High	64	177,80		
Hygiene Factor Dimensions	Low	68	146,39	1,747	,417
	Average	172	147,48		
	High	64	163,53		
Motivator Factor Dimensions	Low	68	149,48	11,101	,004
	Average	172	139,57		
	High	64	182,43		
* N=304					

Kruskal Wallis H test for monthly income level variable revealed relations between all factor dimensions except hygiene factors (**Figure 4**). Socialization is found out to be low income level groups' main motivation for dining out, while high income level group mainly eat out for motivator factors and status and self-actualization needs.

Figure 5: Kruska Wallis-H Test for Education Level Variable

Factor Dimensions	Education Level	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Level of Significance
Socialization	Elementary	74	182,10	19,064	,000
	High school	109	158,81		
	Undergraduate	81	122,65		
	Graduate	40	141,00		
Status and Self-actualization	Elementary	74	100,57	44,301	,000
	High school	109	150,37		
	Undergraduate	81	182,17		
	Graduate	40	194,29		
Physiological and Safety Needs	Elementary	74	145,20	5,015	,171
	High school	109	154,16		
	Undergraduate	81	143,86		
	Graduate	40	178,99		
Hygiene Factor Dimensions	Elementary	74	162,17	2,282	,516
	High school	109	153,83		
	Undergraduate	81	141,20		
	Graduate	40	153,88		
Motivator Factor Dimensions	Elementary	74	136,63	5,833	,120
	High school	109	150,41		
	Undergraduate	81	157,93		
	Graduate	40	176,58		

* N=304

As shown in **Table 5**, Kruskal Wallis H test for education level variable identified relations between socialization, status and self-actualization factor dimensions. Main motivation of high school and undergraduate groups is status and self-actualization, whereas elementary group dine out to satisfy socialization needs.

Figure 6: Mann Whitney U Test for Gender Variable

Factor Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean Rank	MWU	Level of Significance
Socialization	Female	132	122,05	7333,000	,000
	Men	172	175,87		
Status and Self-actualization	Female	132	164,29	9796,000	,040
	Men	172	143,45		

Physiological and Safety Needs	Female	132	119,46	6991,000	,000
	Men	172	177,85		
Hygiene Factor Dimensions	Female	132	134,41	8964,500	,002
	Men	172	166,38		
Motivator Factor Dimensions	Female	132	136,02	9572,000	,019
	Men	172	162,85		

* N=304

Mann White U Test for gender variable determined meaningful differences among all dining out motivations (**Figure 6**). Accordingly, men mostly have dining out motivations such as socialization, physiological and safety needs, hygiene and motivator factors, however woman usually eat out for satisfying status and self-actualization needs.

Figure 7: Mann Whitney U Test for Marital Status Variable

Factor Dimensions	Marital Status	N	Mean Rank	MWU	Level of Significance
Socialization	Married	170	152,36	9203,000	,125
	Single	134	137,06		
Status and Self-actualization	Married	170	134,73	8369,000	,007
	Single	134	161,83		
Physiological and Safety Needs	Married	170	142,19	9637,500	,358
	Single	134	151,35		
Hygiene Factor Dimensions	Married	170	149,75	9647,500	,366
	Single	134	140,73		
Motivator Factor Dimensions	Married	170	141,31	9487,500	,258
	Single	134	152,59		

* N=304

Mann White U Test results proved a relation between marital status variable and status and self-actualization motivation. Correspondingly, singles mainly eat out for status and self-actualization needs as against married respondents.

Correlation and Regression

The relationship of respondents' dining out frequency and the distance between their place of residence and Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar is revealed by correlation analysis. As it is shown in correlation table (**Figure 8**), the significance is in the medium level and the relationship is negative between frequency of visiting to "Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar" and physical proximity to the destination from permanent residences of participants.

Figure 8: Correlation between Frequency of Visiting to "Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar" and Physical Proximity to the Destination

Factors	Correlation	How frequent do you visit FatihKadınlar Bazaar?	Is your place of residence close to FatihKadınlar Bazaar?
How frequent do you visit FatihKadınlar Bazaar	Kor. Katsayısı	1,000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	
	N	304	
Is your place of residence close to FatihKadınlar Bazaar?	Kor. Katsayısı	-,650**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.
	N	304	304
**. Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Regression analysis done for the linkage between the frequency of dining out at Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar and the distance of respondents' place of residence to it concludes a F value of 250,862, sig., corrected as R^2 : 0,452 (**Figure 9**). Results show that the distance of respondents' place of residence to Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar explains dining out phenomenon by 45 %.

Figure 9: Regression between Frequency of Visiting to "Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar" and Physical Proximity to the Destination

Independent Variable		Standardized Beta Coefficient	t Value	Level of Significance
(Constant)			36,225	,000
Is your place of residence close to Woman's Market ?		-,674	-15,839	,000

	Corrected R ² : 0,452 , F: 250,862Sig. (At 0.05 significance level): 0.00, Dependent Variable: How frequent do you visit Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar?
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DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this study is to determine the dining out motivations in the scope of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. Local restaurants located in Istanbul Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar were explored as a case. According to Maslow's theory, people have a strong desire to reach self-actualization which is at the top of the Maslow Hierarchy (Stephens, 2000). Nutrition is a physical need, consequently, food is at the bottom level of Maslow Hierarchy theory. First, food or nutrition needs to be satisfied before belonging, status and self-actualization (Stephens, 2000). According to the results of this study within the scope of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, the motivational factors the people who dine out at local restaurants in Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar for both theories are socializing, status and self-actualization. These results show that people dine not only to satisfy physiologic needs but also higher order needs. This corroborates with similar studies in the literature (Chang and Hsieh, 2006; Yuksel and Yuksel, 2002; Ozdemir, 2010). Moreover, the basic motivations of the patrons who are between 35-49 in active business life are physiologic and safety. This might be explained by the fact that these people chose to dine in Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar since their work places are close there. The patrons age between 50-65, choose to dine out for socializing and cultural needs. This finding is also supported by studies done by Park (2004), Sun (2008), Jaksa (1997), Ali and Nath (2013). In similar studies, social interaction was found as the main motivation to dine out for individuals above 60, (Cho and Han, 2005). Hence, dining out is not only for nutrition purpose but also socializing opportunities for above middle aged consumers. This situation has a positive psychological affect on the individuals (Hua and Sun, 2008, p.233).

Based on the results of this study, no significant relationship was found between demographic variables and external motivational variables according to the Herzberg's Two Factor Theory. However, intrinsic motivational factors have positive affects in choosing Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar for dining out. According to findings, there is a negative correlation between residence place and the distance to the Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar

which might be considered a negative external factor. Although deficiency in hygienic factors decrease satisfaction (Crompton, 2003), individuals prefer to dine out in Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar because of intrinsic motivational factors. This means that motivational factors, which can be referred as psychological factors, are more important than hygiene factors.

As a result of this study, women prefer to dine out because of status and self-actualization. Traditionally, women cook at home. Therefore, dining out means for women to be in the social life and gain status (Warde and Martens, 2000, p.11). Food is considered as a cultural value by people (Barthes, 1973). Learning and accepting other cultures, which is at the top level of Maslow Needs Hierarchy, might be considered as an expected result of this study.

Briefly, individuals prefer to dine out in Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar because of motivational/psychological reasons more than Hygiene/physiological needs. One of the limitations of this study is that this research only includes the restaurants which are located in Fatih Kadınlar Bazaar. Future studies focusing on different locations and a wider range of restaurants would be helpful in validating the findings of this study.

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TOURISM AND SPATIAL PLANNING OF PROTECTED AREAS: PROBLEMS AND PERSPECTIVES IN GREECE

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In Greece, the State's interest in preserving areas of biological importance began in the 1930s, resulting in an extended network of Protected Areas (with varying degrees of restriction), that so far covers more than 25% of the country. However, despite the exceptional natural and cultural heritage of these sites, management and planning of Protected Areas is suffering from obsolescence and under-funding. Management Plans are often outdated, whilst Management Agencies are struggling to survive due to the current fiscal crisis. Given this framework, nature-based tourism is inadequately organized, representing so far only a small proportion of the Greek tourism industry.

The paper argues that organization of tourism within Protected Areas can become extremely beneficial for Greece, serving a fourfold purpose: a) enhancement of the natural and cultural heritage of the country, b) self-financing of Protected Areas, c) dispersion of tourism activity to all parts of the country (instead of only the islands and coasts), and d) broadening the offered tourism product that is still characterized by seasonality.

Keywords: *Protected Areas; tourism; spatial planning; conservation planning; Greece*

INTRODUCTION: THE TOURISM FACTOR IN PROTECTED AREAS

Protected Areas constitute worldwide key spaces for conserving biodiversity and for providing a range of ecosystem and other services, such as watershed protection, wildlife protection, carbon storage, recreation, spiritual fulfilment, etc. (DeFries *et al.*, 2007; Manning and Anderson, 2012).

Although initially Protected Areas were considered as spaces including vital natural resources, lately more and more countries have complemented their content so as to include cultural values and resources as well (Eagles, McCool and Haynes, 2002).



Given these attributes and the fact that they constitute important natural and cultural heritage sites, Protected Areas are the most attractive settings for nature-based tourism and eco-tourism (Eagles, McCool and Haynes, 2002). And as tourism keeps rising world-wide so too will tourism in Protected Areas (Buckley, 2000; Shultis and Way, 2006). Indeed, as many academics claim (Eagles *et al.*, 2002; Newsome *et al.*, 2002), nature-based tourism accounts for a large segment of the world tourism industry (worth at least US\$250 billion a year [Buckley, 2003]), which is constantly increasing in proportion, since nature-based tourism continues to grow faster than the tourism sector in general (Newsome *et al.*, 2002; Watson and Borrie, 2003).

Given this growing demand for nature-based tourism and eco-tourism, many Protected Areas are most likely to face increasing pressures - both at local and global scales - as a result of the impacts of tourism. After all, as Eagles and McCool (2002) argue, tourism may potentially carry the seeds of its own demise. However, regardless of the threats of tourism in Protected Areas, recent arguments and studies (Eagles, McCool and Haynes, 2002) keep underlining that tourism may become a way of financing conservation activities, as well as a more favourable alternative to other forms of land use.

Given this context, it becomes evident that in the future Protected Areas management must face a two-fold challenge: a) how to maintain ecological function and sustainability without suppressing tourism and other vital land-uses and human activities (vital to the local economy and employment) (DeFries *et al.*, 2007), and b) how to financially support conservation and preservation of a Protected Area (Dharmaratne, Sang and Walling, 2000).

In this framework, the present paper deals with tourism planning and management in Protected Areas of Greece, a country rich in natural (and cultural) heritage sites and quite a long tradition of tourism. The paper begins by presenting the new trends and approaches regarding the management and planning of Protected Areas, and then makes special reference to tourism and the way the activity in question can be better integrated in conservation management of Protected Areas. Regarding the Greek case, the paper initially presents the evolution of the national Protected Areas system as well as the management objectives and regulations set by the Greek Authorities within them. The paper also presents tourism implementations in the Greek Protected Areas and ends with a discussion and conclusions on the problems, perspectives, and future

of tourism development in Protected Areas of Greece, as a way to broaden the Greek tourism product.

PROTECTED AREAS MANAGEMENT AND TOURISM

About Protected Areas: key information and definitions

According to the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), Protected Areas are defined as “areas of land and/or sea, especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity and of natural and associated cultural resources, and managed through legal or other effective means” (IUCN, 1994).

Although Protected Areas existed even in ancient times (serving spiritual and sacred needs, or even hunting objectives) (Berkes, 1999), the earliest registry in the existing World Database of Protected Areas (WDPA) is the Yellowstone National Park in the USA, which was established in 1872 and is considered to be the first National Park world-wide (Shultis and Way, 2006). Since then, Protected Areas have spread all over the world, accounting for some 44,000 sites (by 2002), covering almost 10% of the land surface of the planet (Eagles, McCool and Haynes, 2002). Marine Protected Areas on the other hand, having been established in more recent years (mid 1970s), in 2014 accounted for over 2,000 sites, covering an area of 3.41% of the oceans world-wide (UNEP-WCMC). Nowadays, however, establishing fewer but larger Protected Areas seems to be the trend.

Given their size and fragile nature, as well as their attractiveness for nature-based tourism, Protected Areas demand wise and systematic management and planning if sustainability is to be maintained. The following sections present management approaches and trends for Protected Areas, and especially for tourism and recreation, which as activities with special features and impacts, need special and proper planning.

Management approaches and trends in Protected Areas

From their establishment in the late 19th century, Protected Areas were destined not only to serve conservation objectives, but tourism and recreation as well (Boyd, 2000; Buckley, 2000; Eagles and McCool, 2002; Shultis and Way, 2006). Indeed, as Eagles, McCool and Haynes (2002) argue, one of the common features among the first National Parks was public access, imposing in this way, visitation and tourism as central pillars in the management of Protected Areas.

By the 1960s, (i.e. at a time when the science of ecology was born), the initial concept of Protected Areas being large areas that were “set aside” for protection and recreation reasons was broadly complemented so as to include more systematic approaches regarding management and planning (Eagles, McCool and Haynes, 2002). These approaches are widely reflected in the IUCN Protected Areas system that was launched in the 1960s, and after several amendments was finalized in the 1990s (IUCN, 1994). The IUCN system included the following Protected Area categories/types:

- I:** Strict Nature Reserve/Wilderness Area: Protected area managed mainly for science or wilderness protection
- Ia:** Strict Nature Reserve: Protected area managed mainly for science
- Ib:** Wilderness Area: Protected area managed mainly for wilderness protection
- II:** National Park: Protected area managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation
- III:** Natural Monument: Protected area managed mainly for conservation of specific natural features
- IV:** Habitat/Species Management Area: Protected area managed mainly for conservation through management intervention.
- V:** Protected Landscape/Seascape: Protected area managed mainly for landscape/seascape conservation and recreation
- VI:** Managed Resource Protected Area: Protected area managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystems

Table 1. Management objectives in IUCN Protected Areas categories

Management objective	Ia	Ib	II	III	IV	V	VI
Scientific research	1	3	2	2	2	2	3
Wilderness protection	2	1	2	3	3	-	2
Preservation of species and genetic diversity	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
Maintenance of environmental services	2	1	1	-	1	2	1
Protection of specific natural/cultural features	-	-	2	1	3	1	3
Tourism and recreation	-	2	1	1	3	1	3
Education	-	-	2	2	2	2	3
Sustainable use of resources from natural ecosystems	-	3	3	-	2	2	1
Maintenance of cultural/traditional attributes	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
1 = Primary objective 2 = Secondary objective 3 = Potentially applicable objective; – = not applicable							

Source: adapted from (Eagles, McCool and Haynes, 2002 and IUCN, 1994

Regarding the management objectives set by IUCN for each of the 6 categories of Protected Areas (see Table 1), it becomes evident that: a) tourism and recreation constitutes a management objective for all Protected Areas categories (with the exception of Category Ia, regarding strict nature reserves) and b) biodiversity conservation is only one out of nine total objectives set for the management of Protected Areas world-wide.

Given this context, the following sections present management and planning trends in view of combining and encountering this wide range of objectives in Protected Areas, giving special emphasis to tourism and recreation.

Spatial planning in Protected Areas

As Protected Areas are not geographically isolated spaces, nor are they areas set up in unusable and infertile lands (as was mostly the case in the past) (Eagles and McCool, 2002; Brockington, Rosaleen and Igoe, 2008), the issue of planning and management has considerably grown in complexity over the years. As a result: a) production of a Management Plan (which is a tool to indicate how a Protected Area is effectively protected and managed, developed and used), and b) establishment of a Management Agency, became a compulsory procedure in many countries (required by laws, policy directives, etc.) (Eagles, McCool and Haynes, 2002). In these Management Plans (often referred to as Master Plans), land-use planning regulations, as well as regulation of the tourism activity, is an important segment.

Regarding the land-use planning and management of a Protected Area, zoning is widely considered to be the most effective way to achieve sustainability in the use of biological and natural resources (DeFries *et al.*, 2012). Indeed, organizing land-uses in zones and keeping certain activities (such as tourism) away from environmentally sensitive areas, apart from preventing conflicts, ensures optimal protection of the ecosystem and resources in question (Manning and Anderson, 2012). Beyond its spatial dimension, zoning can also have a temporal sense (if certain regulations or restrictions are seasonal).

However, since Protected Areas are not immune to outside influences, arguments keep growing that ecosystem management should become cross boundary and embed within larger ecosystems and management units (Shultis and Way, 2006; DeFries *et al.*, 2012). In this case a buffer zone,

which is a special type of zoning, becomes imperative for organizing human activities, as well as for imposing appropriate building regulations in surrounding spaces affecting the Protected Areas in question (Manning and Anderson, 2012).

If management of Protected Areas takes place within greater ecosystems, balance between human activities and ecosystem function will become more sustainable (DeFries et al., 2012). After all, as environmental concerns keep growing, management in Protected Areas tends to adapt to the Ecosystem Integrity (E.I.) approach, which is a concept in favor of a more process-based conservation (protecting ecological processes themselves), instead of a species-based conservation (Shultis and Way, 2006).

Tourism planning in Protected Areas

Tourism and Protected Areas can be mainly characterized by a “love - hate” relationship. Indeed, tourism is often accused of “loving a park to death” or of “carrying the seeds of its own demise” (Eagles and McCool, 2002).

According to Eagles, McCool and Haynes (2002), tourism development in Protected Areas may have serious impacts on ecosystem services, wildlife habitats and species, soils, vegetation, and water and air quality, due to touristic activities, or the development of lodgings or other facilities within the parks. However, as Pickering and Weaver (2003) argue, environmental impacts are not the only ones to consider. Financial and economic costs, or even socio-cultural alterations, are often among the hazards related to tourism development in many Protected Areas.

Yet, even if tourism is the cause for many threats posed to Protected Areas, it is also a key factor for providing solutions to many of the problems and deficiencies related to management and financing. Indeed, as Karmakar (2011) argues, *ecotourism has been recognized as the backbone of economies of many countries*. At the same time, as Dharmaratne, Sang and Walling (2000) pinpoint, *“nature-based tourism and ecotourism in all parts of the world is a major, if not the only, means of self-financing of protected areas”*. In this case however, attention must be drawn to the pricing of the entrance fee, so as to be optimally and wisely defined, following cost-benefit - and other types of - analysis (Alpizar, 2006; Brida, et.al., 2013).

Considering the above, overall principles regarding spatial and tourism planning in Protected Areas are the following (Buckley, 2002):

- *Parks are for conservation first.*
- *Parks are for recreation second.*
- *Only low-impact recreation should be in parks.*
- *Tourism has no special right to parks.*
- *Planning for parks and tourism needs a regional ecosystem approach.*
- *Partnerships need consent not coercion.*
- *Any user fees should reflect management costs, including conservation impacts.*
- *Tourism facilities in parks should provide a net benefit for conservation.*
- *Commercial tour operators should meet all the costs they impose on parks.*
- *Commercial tour operators should pay a resource rent.*
- *Marketing should match park plans.*
- *Parks agencies need a range of staff skills.*

To conclude, it becomes evident that tourism in Protected Areas must be wisely planned and managed, having always in mind as a key parameter the carrying capacity of the fragile ecosystems and how not to exceed the limits of acceptable change in the Protected Area in question (Eagles and McCool, 2002).

MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING OF PROTECTED AREAS IN GREECE

The Protected Areas System

Greece is a country with a relatively long tradition in conservation planning and designation of Protected Areas, compared to other European countries and the rest of the world. Indeed, the first time a Protected Area was introduced was back in 1929, when “Protective Forests” were launched, whilst a few years later, Law 856 launched another category also related to the protection of forests. “Forest Parks” were introduced in 1937, resulting in - within a year later - the designation of Mount Olympus (known as home of the twelve Gods of Greek mythology) as the first Forest Park of Greece.

As Table 2 shows, since the endorsement of “Protective Forests” in 1929, Protected Areas in Greece kept growing in number and types, including a wide range of natural ecosystems that according to the Greek

State needed protection and special treatment. Among them, the “Landscapes of Outstanding Natural Beauty” (a type of Protected Area designated so as to protect mixed sites of natural and cultural heritage), the Wetlands and Deltas (where fragile fauna and flora are hosted), wilderness areas (for wildlife breeding) and so on. However, despite the variation of Protected Areas, most categories introduced before the 1980s mainly regarded forests, as well as other arboreal vegetation lands such as the Aesthetic Forests, etc.

Table 2. The spectrum of Protected Areas in Greece (in chronological order)

Year	Category of Protected Area	Legislation
1929	Protective Forests	L.4173
1937	(Oak) Forest Parks	L.856
1950	Landscapes of Outstanding Natural Beauty	L.1465
1971	Aesthetic Forests	L.996
1971	Protected Natural Monuments	L.996
1975	Hunting Areas	L.177
1975	Wildlife Refuges	L.177, L.2637/98
1975	Wildlife Breeding Areas	L. 177
1983	Zones for Building Control (ZOE) Areas of Special Protection (ΠΕΠ)	L.1337/83 L.2508/97
1985	Special Protection Areas (SPA) (79/409 E.E.U. Directive)	Joint Min. Decision 414985
1986	Strict Nature Reserves	L.1650
1986	Nature Reserves	L.1650
1986	National Parks (including Forest Parks)	L.1650
1986	Protected Geological Formations, Protected Landscapes/ Seascapes, Protected Elements of Landscapes	L.1650
1986	Eco-development Areas	L.1650

1998	Special Areas of Conservation (SAC) (92/43 E.U. Directive)	Joint Min. Decision 33318/3028
2011	Regional Parks	L.3937

Source: adapted from Beriatis, 2003

Growing concerns on the state of the environment and sustainable development expressed after the World Summit of 1972, in Stockholm, signalized a new era in environmental management and planning. In Greece, these concerns resulted in the establishment of a competent Ministry for the Environment in 1980 (Min. of Spatial Planning, Housing and the Environment), and a few years later (1986), in the adoption of the first Institutional Law for the Environment (L.1650). It was with this law that Greece managed to acquire an integrated system of Protected Areas that, after the amendments of 2011 (L.3937), includes the types and categories presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The national System of Protected Areas in Greece

Category 1: Strict Nature Reserves

Category 2: Nature Reserves

Category 3: Natural Parks

3.1 National Parks (Special types: National Marine Park, National Geological Park, National Oak Forests, etc.)

3.2 Regional Parks (Regional Marine Parks, Regional Oak Forests, Regional Geological Parks, etc.)

3.2.1 Quiet areas in open country (according to the 2002/49 Directive)

3.2.2 Eco-development regions (in rural and country space)

Category 4: Habitat / species management areas

4.1 Special Areas of Conservation (SAC)

4.2 Special Protection Areas (SPA)

4.3 Wildlife Refuges

Category 5: Protected Landscapes/Seascapes and Protected Natural Formations

5.1. Protected Landscapes/ Seascapes (Special types: Aesthetic Forest, Wild nature Landscapes, Geological Parks, Urban Landscapes, Rural Landscapes)

5.1.1. Protected elements of Landscapes

5.1.2 Landscapes of Outstanding Natural Beauty

5.2 Protected Natural Formations

5.2.1 Protected Natural Monuments

Source: adapted from Law 3937 of 2011

Current categories of the Greek Protected Areas system are very much in line with the international system proposed by IUCN, including a wide range of categories with varying management objectives and protection needs. Within these objectives and needs, tourism is definitely the most challenging one, demanding special planning and management efforts. Given this fact, the following sections, in addition to the Greek Protected Area spectrum, present aspects of spatial and tourism management and planning, as well as the national experience and practice.

The Network of Protected Areas

Since the 1930s and the first designations of Forest Parks, Protected Areas in Greece have considerably increased both in size and in number, ranging among all the categories included in the national Protected Areas system (see Table 3). To date, according to a study elaborated in 2010 (Papageorgiou, Giannoula, Telianidou), Protected Areas of Greece cover more than 2,000,000 Ha, which correspond to more than 25% of the total surface area of the continental country. Among these areas, the most important and fragile ones are also part of the world's natural heritage network, having international designations. Key information on the Protected Areas of Greece (of both national and international importance) is presented in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4. Protected Areas of national importance in Greece

Protected Area Categories	Total No	Surface Area (Ha)
National Parks	17	667,644.82
Aesthetic Forests	19	32,021.6
Protected Natural Monuments	52	15,970.5
Wildlife Refuges	607	1,067,756.7
Hunting Areas	7	111,513.8
Wildlife Breeding Areas	21	30,352.59
Nature Reserves	5	13,368.4
Strict Nature Reserves	3	3,391.7
Protective Forests	3	41,742.2

Protected Geological Formations and Landscapes/Seascapes	4	4,581.2
Eco-development Areas	3	172,155.0

Source: Papageorgiou et.al, 2010 (data retrieved from Greek Biotope/Wetland Centre, 2010)

Table 5. Protected Areas of international importance in Greece

Protected Area Categories	Total No	Surface Area (Ha)
Wetlands of international importance according to the Ramsar Convention	10	167,301
World Natural Heritage Monuments	2	34,087
Biosphere Reserves (UNESCO, Man and Biosphere)	2	8,838
Specially Protected Areas (according to the Barcelona Convention)	9	214,790
Biogenetic Reserves	16	22,261
Eurodiploma Sites	1	4,850

Source: Papageorgiou et.al, 2010 (data retrieved from Greek Biotope/Wetland Centre, 2010)

Among the spectrum of Protected Areas in Greece, “National Natural Parks” is the most complex category, often including other types of Protected Areas (e.g. Strict Nature Reserves, etc.) and the most dispersed one, found both in the continental as well as in the marine and insular parts of the country. Including important natural and cultural heritage sites, National Natural Parks constitute an enormously attractive type of Protected Area, and the most favorable for eco-tourism development and recreational tourism.

Management and planning of the Greek Protected Areas

In Greece, integrated environmental and conservation planning of Protected Areas (terrestrial and marine) requires the elaboration of a special study: the Special Environmental Study. According to the existing legislation, Special Environmental Studies are meant to provide a full record of the condition and the threats in a Protected Area and suggest the optimal measures and spatial organization according to the objectives set. Special Environmental Studies are compulsory for all Protected Areas, since they

are a prerequisite step for the formation of Management Plans (to be implemented by the competent Management Agencies). However, despite being compulsory, such studies rarely accompany Greek Protected Areas, either due to financial deficiencies or even due to incomplete efforts (some Studies that were elaborated never reached full consensus among stakeholders and Authorities, therefore they were never officially adopted) (Beriatos, 2003; Beriatos, 2012).

As regards spatial organization and planning, existing Management Plans of Protected Areas in Greece are mainly based on a zoning system, within which regulations serve multiple management objectives, according to the vulnerability of each ecosystem (Papageorgiou, 2012). At the same time, apart from taking into consideration the special needs in management and protection of each ecosystem, restrictions and spatial regulations within each Protected Area (and/or zone) have also to comply with a minimum set of standards that are defined by the Greek environmental legislation (recently amended by Law 3937, etc.).

According to the existing legislation, among the various types of Protected Areas, the ones with the highest restrictions are the “Strict Nature Reserves” and the “Nature Reserves” (Categories 1 and 2 respectively). Within these Zones, no activity is allowed, except for research studies and special actions taken for the protection and restoration of the ecosystems. “Strict Nature Reserves” as well as “Nature Reserves” are also used as sub-zones within large-scale Protected Areas. All the remaining types of Protected Areas have fewer and less strict regulations, leaving room for the development of certain types of facilities, human activities, or even other installations, according to the management objectives and the vulnerability of the ecosystems in question.

Among the facilities and human uses allowed within the less strict types of Protected Areas, and especially within Natural (National and Regional) Parks, are included: tourism activities or even Resorts, Renewable Energy Resources installations (such as wind farms, etc.), mining installations, agriculture, etc. However, as defined by Law 3937 of 2011 (that amended the Institutional Environmental Law of 1986), these types of uses mainly take place in buffer zones and never in zones that include fragile ecosystems and species (e.g. Sites of Community Importance [S.C.I. of the E.U.], etc.). Indeed, buffer zones are rather critical in Greek conservation planning, since most of the Protected Areas are surrounded by (or even located in) living/inhabited and fertile lands; therefore, management has to correspond to the needs of populations as well as to the conservation objectives¹. After all, as many Greek scholars argue (Trakolis,

2001; Christopoulou and Tsachalidis, 2004; Dimtrakopoulos *et.al*, 2010), participation procedures are of high importance when defining the management objectives in the Protected Areas of the country.

To conclude, despite the fact that the Greek Protected Areas system is rather complete and integrated, serving multiple protection and management objectives (including tourism as well), Management Plans are often outdated or unable to tackle current management and conservation needs (related to the climate change effects too), whilst Management Agencies (that are the competent bodies to implement Management Plans) are struggling to survive due to the current economic conditions.

The tourism factor in the Greek Protected Areas

Among the spectrum of Protected Areas in Greece, National Natural Parks constitute the largest (in scale) and the most complex ones, both in biological as well as in cultural and natural diversity. Therefore, they also constitute the most attractive and favorable areas, with great potentials in developing nature-based tourism and eco-tourism.

Having this in mind, most of the existing Management Plans of National Natural Parks (especially the newer ones), include special zones within which tourism activities and facilities are permitted. Also, in 2009, the competent Ministry for spatial planning launched a Sectoral Spatial Plan for tourism development at a national scale². Among the wide range of special, new and alternative forms of tourism, the Sectoral Plan in question suggested eco-tourism as one of the niche tourism markets that Greece had to turn to, in order to further develop its tourism industry. Other forms of tourism suggested by the Sectoral Spatial Plan were: congress tourism, urban tourism, marine tourism (yachting, cruise tourism, etc.), cultural tourism, pilgrimage tourism, sports tourism (e.g. golf clubs, ski centers, scuba diving, mountainous sports, etc.) and geological tourism.

According to the National Spatial Plan, eco-tourism and nature-based tourism are ideally developed and organized in mountainous areas as well as in Protected Areas. In fact, among the spectrum of Protected Areas, the National Spatial Plan for tourism indicated National and Regional Natural Parks (marine and terrestrial) as the most suitable and attractive for the development of eco-tourism. Other types of Protected Areas that were also indicated as suitable for nature-based tourism were the Wetlands and Deltas, the “Landscapes of Outstanding Natural Beauty”, as well as those Protected Areas that benefit from the existence of a Management Agency.

Indeed, the Sectoral Spatial Plan for tourism puts special emphasis on the role of Management Agencies. Acknowledging their importance in the wise management and protection of Protected Areas, the Spatial Plan considers as a sine-qua-non their financial support, as well as the imposition of fees to visitors, in order to ensure revenues for the optimal protection and management of the Greek Protected Areas.

Regarding the spatial regulations, according to the Sectoral Spatial Plan, development of tourism in Protected Areas should only regard soft interventions for the enhancement of the natural and cultural heritage, the enhancement of the built heritage and the place identity, and the sustainability of the local resources. At the same time, tourism facilities and infrastructure should be of small-scale and mainly regard: walking paths, mountain bike trails, nature observatories, mountain refuges, educational centers, etc. In general, according to the Sectoral Spatial Plan, development of tourism should respect the tradition of the local (and mostly agricultural) economy and take advantage of the existing rural settlements for developing hosting facilities (instead of creating new tourism resorts in the rural space)³.

Yet, despite the provision of special zones for tourism development within Protected Areas and the provision of eco-tourism and nature-based tourism as pivotal forms of tourism to be developed in Greece, very little has been done in practice. So far, eco-tourism is hardly developed, therefore it represents a rather small proportion of the Greek tourism industry. In fact, missed chances and deficiencies related to the Management Plans and the Management Agencies have not only deprived many Protected Areas from soft tourism facilities so far, but have also resulted in a significant and durable reluctance on behalf of the tourism investors as regards their preference to the Protected Areas of the country. For the time being, nature-based tourism within Protected Areas is mainly the concern of the Management Agencies; therefore it is limited to very few facilities and services offered, mainly regarding sports activities and the sales of souvenir products.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS: THE FIGURE OF TOURISM IN PROTECTED AREAS OF GREECE

Protected Areas constitute key spaces for the conservation of natural and cultural diversity. At the same time they constitute the most attractive spaces for nature-based tourism, which is an activity constantly gaining ground world-wide. Having to fulfil this dual – though often contradictory –

mission, it is only natural that Protected Areas must be subjected to wise management and planning, if flow of the ecosystem – and other services - is to be maintained for future generations. In fact, among the objectives to be met in the management and planning of Protected Areas, tourism development is the most challenging one. Indeed, as it is often accused of being self-destructive, and of putting pressure on the fragile ecosystems of Protected Areas, it is imperative that tourism development is carefully organized, so as not to exceed the limits of acceptable change (carrying capacity), whilst at the same time contributing to the financing of the necessary conservation activities.

In Greece, being a high priority of the State at a very early stage, Protected Areas enjoy and benefit from an adequate legislative framework, having now resulted in the designation of an extensive network of conservation sites, covering more the 25% of the country. However, despite this extensive network, which includes exceptional natural and cultural heritage sites (two of which are also part of UNESCO's world heritage), management and planning of Protected Areas are suffering from obsolescence and under-funding. Management Plans are often outdated or unable to tackle current management and conservation needs, whilst Management Agencies are struggling to financially survive, due to the current economic conditions.

As a result, Protected Areas of Greece, despite being attractive, are deprived of facilities and services related to nature-based tourism. In fact, eco-tourism and nature-based tourism represent only a small proportion of the Greek tourism industry. Nevertheless, it goes without saying that development of tourism in Protected Areas of Greece can become extremely beneficial, serving a fourfold purpose:

- a) disperse tourism activity from the coastal zone to inland areas too
- b) ensure important revenue for the financing of both conservation activities as well as other management needs within Protected Areas
- c) enhance the natural heritage of the country
- d) broaden the offered tourism product that is largely - if not uniquely - related to the “3 S” model and characterized by great seasonality

There is no doubt that nature-based tourism can become a rather promising activity and form of tourism, providing solutions to a series of deficiencies and threats faced in Protected Areas of Greece. At the same time, development of tourism in Protected Areas of Greece can contribute to the upgrade of the Greek tourism product too. Having this perspective in mind, it is of prime importance that Greece takes advantage of the existing

network of Protected Areas as well as its integrated environmental and spatial legislative framework. At the same time Greece has to get rid of its deficiencies and advance its efforts, especially in relation to: a) the Management Agencies, and how they can be functional and financially autonomous, and b) the Management Plans, and how they can provide reliable regulations and rules for tourism, therefore making Protected Areas attractive to tourism investors. It is only in this way that Greece will manage to take full advantage of its natural and cultural heritage, both to the benefit of the ecosystem and the national economy.

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ENDNOTES

1. Expansion of buffer zones in such fertile and usable lands, in many cases resulted in the delay - or even the non- adoption - of Management Plans, due to the reaction of private property owners.
2. The National Spatial Plan for tourism, amended in 2013, introduced few changes in the spatial organization and zoning of tourism activities. However, this new version was rejected in 2015 by the Council of the State. This means that until a new decision is reached, tourism activity and development is defined by the initial Sectoral Spatial Plan of 2009.
3. Two years after the adoption of the Sectoral Spatial Plan for tourism development, Law 3937 of 2011 (that amended the Institutional Law 1650 for the Environment) amended spatial regulations so as to permit the creation of large-scale tourism resorts (the so called Areas of Organized Tourism Development – Π.Ο.Τ.Α.), within Protected Areas (with the exception of “National Natural Parks”, “Strict Nature Reserves” and “Nature Reserves”).

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE CURRENT GREEK TRAVEL AGENCIES POLICY ON RECRUITMENT, DUTIES, ONGOING TRAINING AND EMPLOYEE ADVANCEMENT

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Our aim was to record a variety of aspects concerning personnel selection, employment status and education of the staff of the Greek travel agencies. We found that the current economic crisis affected personnel selection and management and Greek travel agencies tend to hire younger and more educated staff using correct and just hiring criteria. Agencies offer limited further education and specialization and do not sufficiently motivate their employees to increase their productivity, probably as a result of recession. We also found that when Greek travel agencies dismiss their staff they do it after a fair judgment. As responders did not refer to business developmental strategy and how it could affect personnel hiring, education, duties and employee's advancement, further studies are needed to clarify these subjects.

Key words: *Greek travel agencies, recruitment, training, economic crisis*

INTRODUCTION

Human resources are the cornerstone of every travel agency, as they are entitled to provide quality service to customers in a highly competitive environment. In countries like Greece with significant inbound tourism, education and vocational training in tourism professions is essential, as research has shown during the last decade (Asonitou and Vitouladiti, 2015, Vitouladiti, 2013). It is therefore necessary for travel agencies to recruit highly skilled, qualified and experienced employees and also create an attractive work environment to increase both job satisfaction and employee performance (Vitouladiti and Dedousopoulos, 2015, Buse, 2009; Raub and Streit, 2006, Dwyer, 2007).



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As there is no data of the current intra-crisis status of the employees of the Greek travel agencies on hiring, continuous education, qualifications, specific duties, effectiveness, specialization and other details of their work within the company, the aim of this study was to record a variety of aspects concerning personnel selection, employment status and education of the staff of the Greek travel agencies.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

To meet the objectives of this study a targeted questionnaire was used, distributed to 62 Greek travel agencies. From the 55 agencies that responded (88.7%), 34 (61.8%) were located in the major Athens area. Each agency manager or owner appointed a member of the staff to complete it; overall 55 questionnaires were available for analysis.

RESULTS

Of the people selected by the travel agency to answer the questionnaire, 54.8% were women. In the first part of the questionnaire we recorded responders' age and the distribution and the results of question one are shown in Table 1. This table however cannot give an estimation of the mean age of all the employees, as responders were selected by the travel agency managers to give the best possible data concerning the agency. Furthermore 77.4% of responders seem to have a limited work experience up to 10 years (48.4% under 5 years and 29% between 5 and 10 years, question two, Table 2) while 64.5% of them stated that they have been constantly working in travel agencies during the last ten years (question three).

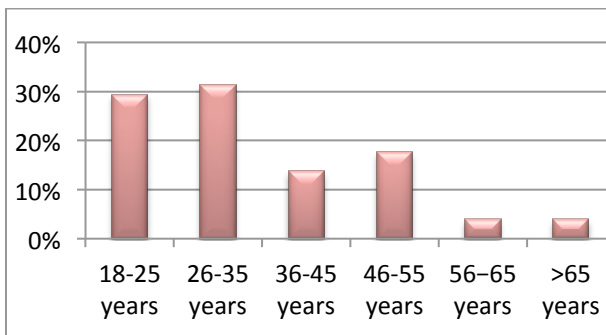
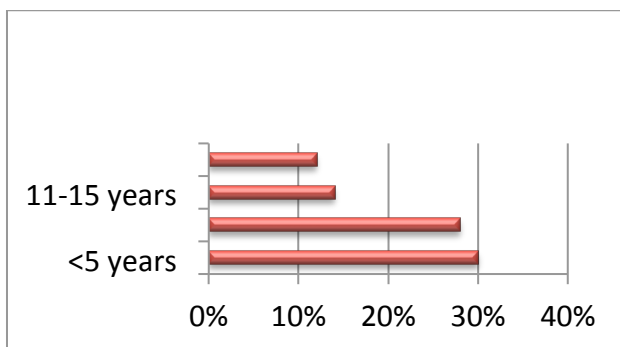
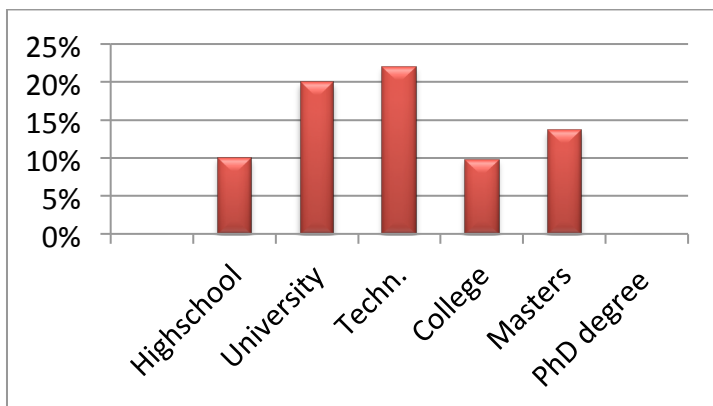


Table 2. Years of work experience



Responders' education level (question four) is shown in Table 3. Most employees have a higher education (54.9%), while 13.7% also have a master's degree. None however had a PhD degree. Furthermore (question five, a multiple answer) 96.1% of them speak English fluently, 41% French, 13.7% German, 11.8% Spanish, 11.8% other languages and only 5.9% speak Russian, despite current tourism trend. It is also very interesting that only 58% of all employees have some kind of tourism education (question six).

Table 3. Education status



The next two tables show the responders' position inside the company (question seven) and their job specialization (question eight). One fifth of responders (19.6%) are business executives while nearly 35% work in customer's service and sales (21.6% and 11.8% respectively) with only 13.7% working in the marketing and public relations departments (9.8% and 3.9% respectively, Table 4). They also specialize mostly in tourism packages sales (41.2%), accommodation (37.3%) and air transportation (23.5%, Table 5).

Table 4. Job specification

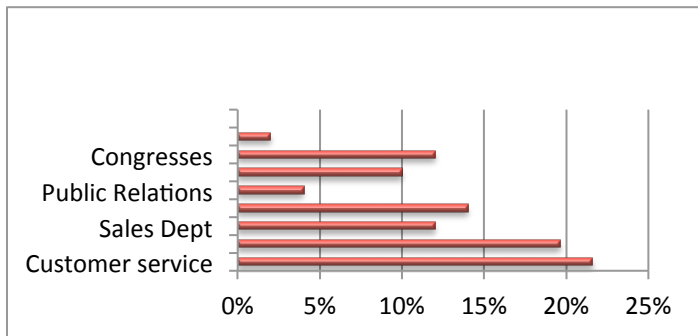
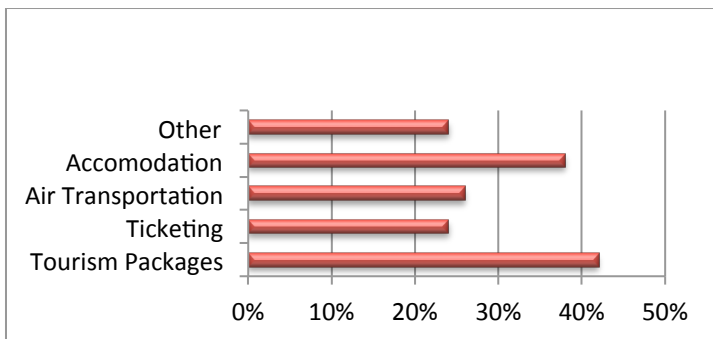


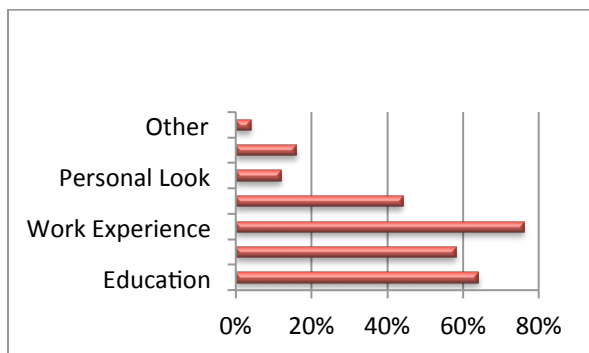
Table 5. Job specialization



In the second part of the questionnaire we examined the employment criteria of the Greek travel agencies. On answering if the current economic

crisis affects personnel selection and management (question nine), 89.7% of responders gave a positive answer. Accordingly, when answering question ten (multiple answer question, Table 6) on selection criteria, work experience was the primary criterion (76.5%) followed by tourism education (62.7%) and foreign language knowledge (56.9%), while the employee's character (as identified during the interview) appears to be important in 43.1% of cases. Salary and personal look do not seem to be important selection criteria (15.7% and 11.8% respectively), although on answering a further question (question eleven) on the importance of salary on employees' productivity, 90.3% of the responders gave a positive answer.

Table 6. Selection criteria



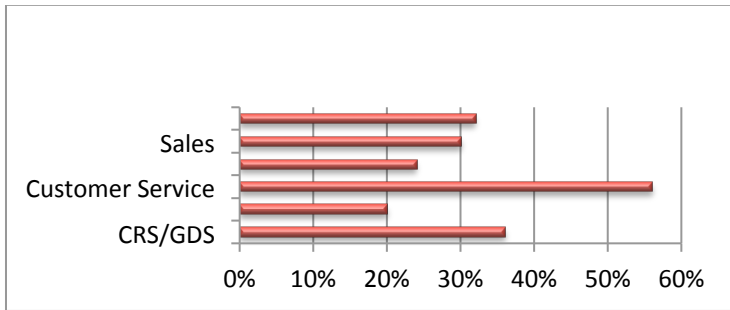
Responders were further asked (question twelve) as for the employment status (full or part time) of their agency staff: it seems that 15.34% of employees (range 10 to 25%) were hired using a flexible form of employment, a reflection of measures taken under the current economic crisis; a six months work with minimum salary in travel agencies or hotels is also a requirement for tourism students in order to complete their study.

The following open answer question (question thirteen), was on the responder's personal view on personnel hiring criteria. Most answers (14/55, 25.45%) revealed a preference on job interview, followed by the use of certain tests or a test period in the office, while employee's experience and zeal seems also important. These answers are very important, as they come from employees and not the managers of the travel agencies.

Next question (question fourteen) was on employees' further education and specification offered by the agency. It seems that 62% of travel agencies do

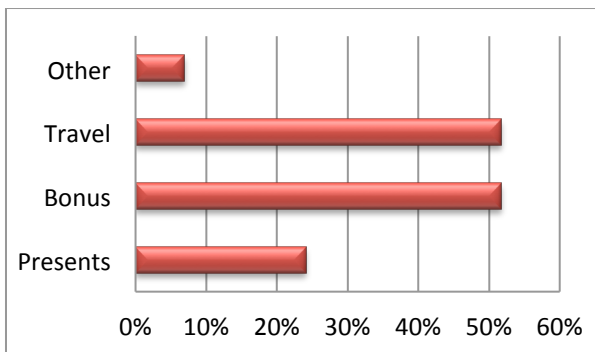
offer targeted specialization on their subjects of interest, as continuous education is very important in keeping up with the tourism market developments. On clarifying the subject (question fifteen, a multiple answer question, Table 7), 54.9% of employees undergo further training on customer's service, 37.3% on CRS/GDS, 29.4% on sales and 23.5% on crisis management.

Table 7. Continuous Education



The next two questions (questions sixteen and seventeen) referred to productivity motivations. It seems that 54.8% of travel agencies do offer productivity motives, merely bonuses and travel opportunities (51,7% for each one) and presents (24,1%), while only 6.9% of travel agencies chose some other kind of motivation (Table 8).

Table 8. Motivation



The next question (question eighteen) was on the factors influencing employee advancement. It was a multiple answer question and the recorded factors were employee efficiency (18 positive answers), productivity (13), hard working (13), loyalty, zeal and passion (7), versatile and skills (6), achieving goals and increasing revenues (3), good behavior (3 answers), while consistency, customer satisfaction, trust, flexibility, thoroughness, responsibility and honesty all had one positive answer. This huge variety means that promotion is highly personalized.

On answering what leads to dismissal from work (question nineteen, again a multiple answer question), the main factors were negligence (17 positive answers), inappropriate behavior (12), inactivity (8), poor performance (4), lack of cooperation (3), inconsistency (3), deceit (2), carelessness (2 answers), while grizzling, rudeness, lack of trust, failure to meet duties, misperception, irresponsibility, foolishness or alleged smartness, ignorance, repeated errors, lack of discipline and stagnation all had one positive answer. Again, it seems that dismissal is highly personalized.

In the final open question (question twenty) we asked if responders were happy from the level of organization and operation of their agency and what their suggestions are to further improve its performance. Over 80% of responders stated that they are happy, while their suggestions were mainly on organization and employment issues. Clear determination of business objectives, better cooperation between employees and management, higher quality in work, further use of modern technology and minimization of competition among employees were the proposed organization measures, while the employment of younger people with innovative ideas and eager to work, the attraction of people with higher training and industry experience and further education of the staff through seminars and other educational programs were the proposed measures for improving staff level.

DISCUSSION

Employees of the travel industry should be carefully selected according to certain established criteria, as they are directly related to customer satisfaction (Vitouladiti, 2015): these criteria include professionalism, knowledge, education, experience, interpersonal skills, positive self image, high tolerance level, ability to satisfy customer's needs, creativity, communication skills and also trust, loyalty, respect and commitment to the travel agency (Asonitou and Vitouladiti, 2015). It is therefore mandatory for a travel agency to select the most suitable candidates and establish a well-designed training program (Kurtz and

Boone, 2011, Treven, 2006, Whetstone et al., 2006, Raub and Streit, 2006) while some authors think that a degree in tourism and travel should be mandatory in travel agencies' recruitment (Buse, 2009, Henkens et al., 2005). Moreover, as the quality of service provided by a travel agency is directly connected to staff quality, recruited employees must ensure effective, efficient and profitable service delivery (Vitouladiti, 2015); recruitment is therefore an important function and successful recruiting managers should rely on the candidate's resume, interview and respond to thorough tests, by which the candidates' behavioural, organizational and technical competencies can be assessed (Vucetic, 2012, Raub and Streit, 2006, Lee, 2007).

Skilled employees become part of the value-adding activities of the travel agency, as they contribute to better consumer satisfaction (Asonitou and Vitouladiti, 2015, Vitouladiti, 2013, Chanda et al., 2010, Stewart and Brown, 2011). The motivation therefore of these skilled persons is absolutely necessary, as it contributes to employee's satisfaction and increases their productivity; motivation today is based on the culture of diversity and thorough training (Kurtz and Boone, 2011, DeCenzo and Robbins, 2010).

In our study the age distribution of the staff (Table 1) probably reflects the flexible forms of employment implemented in Greece during the current economic crisis; we recorded a 15.34% of flexible work forms in our study and we think that the short work experience of the employees shown in Table 2 is an expected result. The same is true for the education status (Table 3), as more qualified people enter the travel industry and most travel agencies (54%) employ staff with a tourism degree. Agencies also seem to have a balanced staff when job specification is concerned (Table 4): job specialization however (Table 5) does not meet international standards, as the Greek travel agencies necessarily deal with a variety of aspects (packages, air-ticketing, sea-men tickets, accommodation, bus tourism, short excursions) in order to survive (Asoniti and Vitouladiti, 2015).

As for the employment criteria used by the Greek travel agencies (Table 6), they are in consistency with other findings of this study (Tables 2-4) as people with work experience, tourism studies and foreign languages knowledge are easily hired, a finding in consistency with previous studies (Asoniti and Vitouladiti, 2015, Vitouladiti and Despotopoulos, 2015, Vitouladiti, 2015). Responders also showed a preference to job interview and in-office testing period, reflecting their view on proving their ability in practice rather than being judged by their resume. We think that this finding should be thoroughly considered by the travel agencies' management.

Many travel agencies (54.8%) offer their personnel a targeted specialization on subjects of interest in their effort to keep up with tourism market developments. Customer service, reservation systems, sales and (surprisingly) crisis management are the main subjects (Table 7). No encouragement, however, of the staff without tourism studies to undertake a relevant course has been recorder.

As stated earlier, motivation is considered to be the method of choice in productivity raise and some Greek travel agencies, despite current crisis, do offer certain motives (see Table 8) to increase staff productivity: their percentage however appears to be quite low. Agencies also appear to apply objective criteria for personnel advancement in the agency's hierarchy (Table 9), although from the given answers it seems that promotion is highly personalized. At this point one should also take into account that, after the onset of the current economic crisis, the mobility of the executives of the Greek travel industry is very limited.

The criteria for dismissal from work have also not been affected by current crisis. As reflected in the responders' answers, these criteria appear to be just although, again, dismissal is highly personalized. Surprisingly, reduced turnover was not included among those criteria, as responders possibly targeted on personal and performance related causes.

The findings from the final question of our questionnaire were also interesting. Firstly, the very high positive respond on the agencies' organization status possibly reflects the responder's low position in the hierarchy, as the Greek travel agencies are not profitable organizations nowadays; secondly, all suggestions had nothing to do with developmental strategy and expansion to new markets or areas of interest, such as e-commerce and internet marketing (Vitouladiti, 2015, Su et al, 2011), thus reflecting limited perception of the current crisis situation. This is probably the main disadvantage of our study: if the owner or the executive manager of the travel agency, acting as a stakeholder, had answered our questionnaire, it is possible that our results could be more conclusive (Papageorgiou and Lytras, 2015).

In conclusion, Greek travel agencies hire younger and more educated staff using correct and just hiring criteria, offer limited further education and specialization, do not sufficiently motivate their employees to increase their productivity but dismiss them after fair judgment. As responders did not refer to business developmental strategy and how it could affect personnel hiring, education, duties and advancement, we think that it would be extremely helpful if these fields were the objectives of a future study.

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AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE FACTORS AFFECTING WOM COMMUNICATION FOR BRANDING A TOURIST DESTINATION

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This research was conducted to investigate the multi factor process to create positive Word-of-Mouth communication in connection for improved destination branding. Destination brand personality and tourism services have a significant role in the domain of destination marketing. Although the concept of brand personality has been brought from the domain of tangible product marketing but it has an equally important role in tourism marketing as well. In the present study the author has proposed a structural framework that depicts the interrelationship among brand personality and tourism services the resultant overall satisfaction from destination brand experience; which in turn leads generate WOM communication- the most effective tool for tourism. The research was conducted with 406 Indian tourists sample collected from different parts of India. A structural equation modeling has been done to validate the proposed model. The outcome of this research paper should enable destination marketers and tourism brand managers to get a new direction in their thought, the outcome would also be helping further researchers to think in this direction.

Keywords: *Destination branding, Destination personality, Brand experience & satisfaction, Tourism services, Word-of-Mouth communication*

INTRODUCTION

Travel and tourism is one of the world's leading industries, or economic sectors, representing a major source of GDP, employment,

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exports and taxes (WTTC, 2014). UNWTO-Highlights (2015) has publicized that International tourist arrivals increased by 4.4% in 2015 and contributing 9% of world GDP. Pike (2009) detected that 70% of worldwide travellers visit only 10 countries and the remaining countries are struggling to attract the outstanding 30% of total international arrivals (Morgan *et al.*, 2003). This has led destination marketers to attempt to differentiate their destinations from the competition through branding. When a prospective tourist plans for destination he or she considers many factors which are part of overall Service Expectations (Briggs *et al.*, 2007; Dedeoğlu *et al.*, 2015), Service Quality (Murphy *et al.*, 2007), Logistic and Communication (WTO, 2007; Musa and Adamu, 2011), uniqueness of the destination (Xia *et al.*, 2009), destination cultural background (Clarke, 2013; Dolzhikova-Polishchuk, 2014), quality of food & beverages (Mak *et al.*, 2012) and hospitality and accommodations (Ip *et al.*, 2011) etc. That is why the destination personality (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Murphy *et al.*, 2007) has become an important construct of tourism marketing. Destination image related studies (Pike, 2002; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006;) have demonstrated that positive destination images and attributes have the pull capacity (Prayag *et al.*, 2011; Kassean, 2013; Morrison, 2013) to attract the potential tourists. This research has used empirical data to propose an original and innovative framework within which three parameters, namely destination brand personality, tourism services and destination brand experience, together influence Word-of-Mouth (WOM) communication. Subsequently, the study investigates the process to create positive WOM communication in connection with destination branding in Indian context.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONSTRUCT OF THE HYPOTHESIS

In the current research, we have collected a set of destination personality dimensions from previous research work that seemed to be relevant to the potential characters of Indian tourist destinations, such dimensions have been chosen from previous international research work on brand personality (Phau and Lau, 2000; Sung and Tinkham, 2005) image attributes (Hosany *et al.*, 2006; Stylidis *et al.*, 2014). The factor representing in each dimension were selected to be applicable to a tourism destination of India, including uniqueness and adventure association with the place (different, new, rugged, tough, strong, innovative), natural beauty (amiable, friendly, pleasant), attractiveness of the place (elegant, glamorous, sophisticated), local artefact (reliable, dependable, well-made), lively (daring, spirited, lively) and cultural element along with local

people's attitude (authentic, genuine, real) and pleasant weather (serene, tranquil, calm).

Destination attributes and tourists' satisfaction

Successful destinations have some important attributes such as Natural Attractions (e.g. mountains, lakes, beaches) (Reynisdottir *et al.*, 2008; Weidenfeld *et al.*, 2010), destination cultural background (Clarke, 2013; Dolzhikova-Polishchuk, 2014;), ancillary services complementary to primary tourism service (e.g. health care, post and telecommunication) (Ekinci *et al.*, 2006; Dedeoğlu *et al.*, 2015), attractiveness (Prayag *et al.* 2011), uniqueness of the destination (Xia *et al.*, 2009) information about the destination and its image & uniqueness (Hosany *et al.*, 2006; Styliadis *et al.*, 2014). Activities and play (e.g. hiking, swimming, and skiing) and passive ones (e.g. sun bathing, wellness), logistic support (WTO, 2007; Musa and Adamu, 2011), Safety (Moutinho, 2000; Harper, 2006), quality of food & beverages (Mak *et al.*, 2012) and hospitality and accommodations (Ip *et al.*, 2011). Brand experience and satisfaction for tourism has been explained in different literature in different ways. But some points are very important, those are: exploring new things, pleasure and fun (Williams, 2006; Weaver, 2011), involving with Nature oriented activities (McIntosh and Siggs, 2005), fulfilment of expectation (Xia *et al.*, 2009), value addition (McIntosh and Siggs, 2005), peace and relaxation (Mahika, 2011), experimentation and activities (Richards, G., Wilson, J., 2003). Previous studies have been able to establish a significant and positive association in between tourism relation satisfaction and destination image (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Maria, 2014; Xia *et al.*, 2009). Satisfaction is recognized as one of the key judgments that tourists use to measure tourism services. Future tourism service buying intentions are very closely connected with destination brand experience and satisfaction (Maria, 2014; Yang *et al.*, 2015). The Destination Brand Experience will result into brand recall and advocacy (Abdelhamied, 2013; Kouthouris and Alexandris, 2005).

Word-of mouth (WOM) communication at tourism marketing domain

Consumer purchase decision is very much influenced by information sourced from WOM and the importance of WOM is increasing in leaps and bounds in the tourism sector too. According to the Keller Fay Group (2006),

3.4 billion conversations about brands take place every day. These conversations have a fabulous impact on behaviour of the buyers. Researchers have established that the impact of WOM communications is huge in the consumer community, nearly 70% of all purchase decisions (Balter, 2008) is supported with WOM communications, and this has become one of the primary driving force in two-thirds of all global businesses (Dye, 2000). Word-of-mouth (WOM) communication in the age of digitalized environment is the combination of traditional WOM and internet based social networking and communication through online communities. Electronic Word-of-Mouth (e-WOM) and online reviews have also become the significant part of brand communication and that is becoming so popular in the field of marketing (Goldsmith, 2006; Hasegawa, 2014).

No search of a tourist destination starts from the blue; it is always presided by information from a friend, family or the like. Studies on WOM are plenty, but how to increase the positive force of this WOM in tourism is indeed very scarce. The present study is an effort to fulfil this gap.

Although the aforesaid studies tried to investigate the different perspectives and dimensions of destination branding, destination image (Hosany *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Kotler & Gertner, 2004) destination brand selection behaviour (Abdelhamied, 2013; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Brakus *et al.*, 2009) and destination brand personality (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Murphy *et al.*, 2007) but there is less emphasis on intergraded framework.

In existing studies there are fewer evidences relating to the impact of WOM on destination brand selection behaviour (Ye *et al.*, 2011; Jalilvand *et al.*, 2012). Few recent studies (Pike, 2005; Ekinci *et al.*, 2006; Hosany *et al.*, 2006; Zhu *et al.*, 2009; Goyette *et al.*, 2010; Saraniemi, 2010; Gartner *et al.*, 2011; Qu *et al.*, 2011; García *et al.*, 2012; Sotiriadis *et al.*, 2013; Pike *et al.*, 2014; Gómez *et al.*, 2015) have tried to explore the various dimensions relating to tourism destination branding, destination personality and the effect of WOM in tourism destination brand selection behaviour in an unintegrated manner. But evidences in the tourism marketing literature regarding, what actually leads to generate the voluntary positive WOM communication in the context of destination branding is remains scarce. This study wishes to explore the process of stimulating voluntary WOM communication for branding a tourist destination in the Indian context.

This gap has inspired us to develop the objective of the research: The present paper wishes to propose a comprehensive model by finding the inter-related connection among Destination Brand Personality, Destination

Brand Experience, Tourism service; and their sum-total combined effect on generating Word-of-Mouth communication. This paper also wishes to give the overall perspective of how to generate a positive WOM for better tourist destination branding.

Research Hypotheses

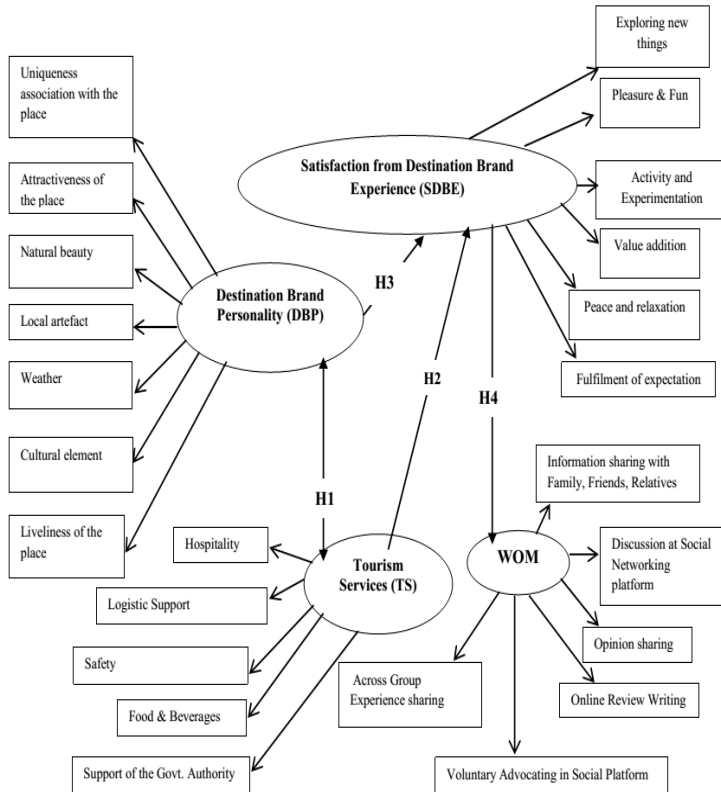
Hypotheses 1: Tourism services and destination brand personality are positively related.

Hypotheses 2: Tourism services will have a positive impact on Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience.

Hypotheses 3: Destination brand personality will have a positive impact on Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience.

Hypotheses 4: Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience will have a positive impact on WOM communication.

Figure 1. Proposed Hypotheses-based Model



METHODS

The present research is based on exhaustive literature review in finding the components directly and indirectly related to the proposed model. The research is based on empirical data, the population of this study is composed of all Indian tourists of age 18 years and above who participate in visiting different destinations for tourism purpose at least once a year. In this present study we have gathered the basic consumer contacts related data from the Indian and the international tour operators who are working in India, which has helped us to create a sizeable database of 4752 Indian tourists. 600

potential tourists were randomly selected from our harvested tourist's database by using the random number table. Sample responses were constructed using effective Web survey design (Dillman *et al.*, 2001; Porter *et al.*, 2003) by using a list-based sampling frame (Dominelli, 2003; Fahmy *et al.*, 2005). A structured online questionnaire (as prescribed by Dillman *et al.*, 2001) has been used as the tools of data collection. The entire data were collected in between May 16th to July 22nd, 2016. The responses were recorded using five-point Likert (1- completely Disagree, 5 – Completely Agree). In this process of data collection 406 valid samples were collected/ received across India covering both the tourists segments, first Indian tourists who visited international destinations along with domestic destinations and second the Indian tourists who visited only the domestic destinations of the tourist segments (The distribution of sample: 185 Indian tourists visited international destinations along with domestic destinations and 221 Indian tourists visited only the domestic destinations, mean age = 34.7 years, female =28.6 percent, average income=38,500 in Indian Rupees, average per-capita-per year tourists spending =26,800 in Indian Rupees , more than 68 percent of the tourist responders were graduate). The results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) have demonstrated the data fit related to the proposed model of the current research (covariance within constructs: e.g. Hair *et al.*, 2008). The sample size of the present research is meeting the basic criteria for CFA (Hair *et al.*, 2008). All factor loadings were having higher value (0.60 and above, Hair *et al.*, 2008) and are significant at the 0.001 level indicating convergent validity (Kline, 2005; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The current research has been very much particular about the test of reliability and validity. The structural equation modeling was done to assess the hypothesized model using IBM SPSS AMOS (version-20.0), one step approaches and the method of estimation was maximum likelihood estimation (Ladhari, 2007) which is expected to be robust.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Structural equation modeling procedures

Structural model comprises of set of dependence associations involving the constructs in the proposed model. The hypothesized model projected the direct combined impacts of *Destination Brand Personality (DBP)* and *Tourism Services (TS)* on *Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE)*, which, in turn effect in generating WOM. Present

researches have tried to validate the proposed model strongly with CFA outcomes; we have considered 24 independent variables or items. Each factor or the dimensions had a minimum of three items and maintained the minimum requirement for structural equation modeling (Hair *et al.*, 2008). The proposed structural equation modeling was tested (with AMOS, version – 20) using covariance matrix of the relevant indicators as input with maximum likelihood estimation method. All item loadings were having higher value (0.50 and above, Hair *et al.*, 2008) and are significant at the 0.001 level indicating convergent validity (Kline, 2005; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The significance of the influences on WOM communication was assessed through *t-test* and *p-values*. The outcomes revealed significant positive impacts parting to the proposed model (Table-3). Statistical outcomes have demonstrated that there is a positive correlation in between *Tourism Services (TS)* and *Destination Brand Personality (DBP)* (Path Coefficient =0.84, $t = 6.769$, $p\text{-value} < 0.05$), *Tourism Services (TS)* is having a positive impact on *Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE)*, (Path Coefficient = 0.35, $t = 2.464$, $p\text{-value} < 0.01$). The result has established that *Destination Brand Personality (DBP)* is positively influencing *Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE)*, (Path Coefficient =0.67, $t = 3.877$, $p\text{-value} < 0.05$). The result has finally demonstrated significant positive impact of *Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE)* on *WOM generation* (Path Coefficient =0.84, $t = 3.40$, $p\text{-value} < 0.05$)

Goodness-of-Fit Indexes for Measurement Model

The model fit indices also provide a reasonable model fit for the structural model. Chi-square statistic is 763.579 (Probability level=.000), $\chi^2 / d. f.$ is 2.207, The Normed Fit Index (NFI), Relative Fit Index (RFI), Comparative Fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) are 0.818, 0.916, 0.953 0.892, 0.857, 0.828 respectively. RMSEA is 0.064 and the PCLOSE is 0.002 Hence it is concluded that the proposed research model fits the data reasonably (Crowley and Fan, 1997; Kline, 2005).

Normality and Reliability analysis

To achieve higher degree of multivariate normality, maximum likelihood estimation (Ladhari, 2007; Hayes, 1999) has been used in the data analysis process which is claimed to be robust (Ladhari, 2007) situations. From *Table-1* it is evident all item loadings were having higher

value (0.50 and above, Hair *et al.*, 2008) and are significant at the 0.001 level indicating convergent validity (Kline, 2005; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). From *Table-1* it is also evident that all Cronbach's α coefficients of the construct met the minimum level of 0.60 (Fornell and Larker, 1981; Hair *et al.*, 2008) which is confirming the reliability of the model dimensions.

Table 1. Measurement Model Fit Indices

Items	Standardised Item Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Attractiveness of the place	0.753	Destination Brand Personality (DBP) 0.749
Weather	0.729	
Cultural element	0.687	
Natural beauty and Pleasant weather	0.689	
Uniqueness & Adventure	0.653	
Local artefact	0.748	
Liveliness of the	0.753	
Pleasure & Fun	0.732	Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE) 0.713
Explore New Things	0.658	
Experimentation	0.742	
Expectation fulfilment	0.767	
Value addition	0.652	
Peace and relaxation	0.753	
Hospitality	0.752	Tourism Services (TS) 0.718
Logistic Support	0.642	
Safety and Hassles free Services	0.722	
Support of the Govt. Authority	0.764	
Food & Beverages	0.685	
Information sharing with Family, Friends, Relatives	0.704	Word-of-Mouth communication (WOM) 0.739
Discussion at Social Networking platform	0.751	

Opinion sharing	0.695
Online Review Writing	0.682
Voluntary Advocating in Social Platform	0.726
Across Group Experience sharing	0.735

Above table shows that out of 24 items, 14 variables indicated factor loadings greater than 0.70 and others are greater than 0.60 as a good rule of thumb (Hair *et al.*, 2008).

Table 2. Measurement Model Fit Construct wise

Construct	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Composite Reliability
Destination Brand Personality (DBP)	0.505	0.859
Tourism Services (TS)	0.510	0.838
Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE)	0.517	0.865
Word-of-Mouth communication (WOM)	0.513	0.863

It is clear from the above table that all composite reliability values are meeting the minimum standard (with values 0.70 and above, Hair *et al.*, 2008; Bagozzi and Yi, 1988) along with the minimum criteria of average variance extracted for the convergent validity (AVE = 0.50, Hair *et al.*, 2008; Fornell and Larker, 1981).

Table 3a. Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	Correlation	t-value	Result
H1: TS <--> DBP	.122*	.841*	6.068	Acceptable

(*: $p < 0.01$; **: $p < 0.05$)

Table 3b. Testing of Hypotheses

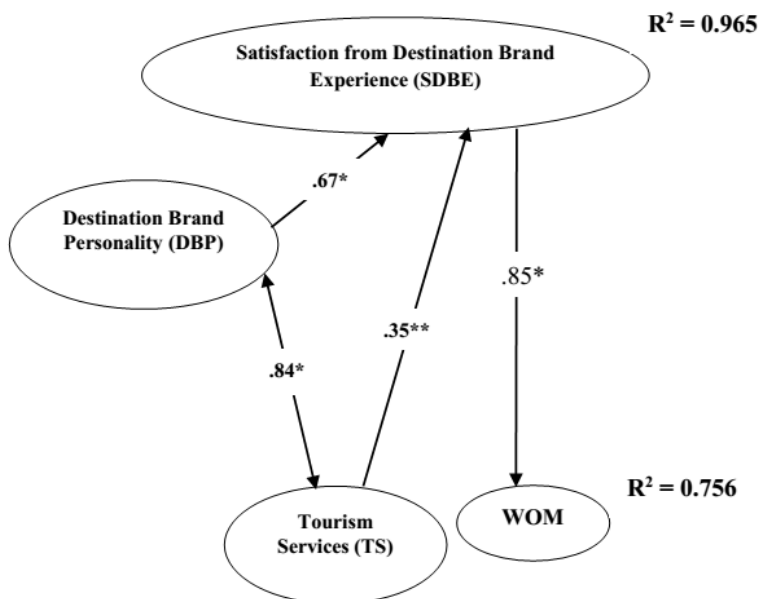
Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	t-value	Result
H2: TS → SDBE	.35**	2.464	Acceptable
H3: DBP → SDBE	.67*	3.877	Acceptable
H4: SDBE → WOM	.85*	3.40	Acceptable

(*: $p < 0.01$; **: $p < 0.05$)

Table 3c: Squared Multiple Correlations (output)

Dependent Variables	R square
Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE)	0.965
Word-of-Mouth communication (WOM)	0.758

Figure 2. Standardized Model with Path Coefficients



Analysis of measurement model

Present study has critically identified the most important items relating to the construction of four major dimensions pertaining to destination branding such as *Destination Brand Personality (DBP)* and *Tourism Services (TS)* on *Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience (SDBE)*, and *Word-of-Mouth communication (WOM)*. The outcome of the present study has on one side demonstrated that (Table-3a, Table-3b, and Table- 3c), there is a strong positive correlation in between *Tourism Services* and *Destination Brand Personality*, on the other side the data analysis results (Table-3b, and Table-3c) have established a significant relation that is *Destination Brand Personality* and *Tourism Services* are jointly having strong positive impacts on *Satisfaction from Destination*

Brand Experience. The present study also aimed to explore the impact on WOM generation from satisfaction drawn from destination brand experience. The outcomes (*Table-3b, and Table- 3c*) of the present study has established the significant positive impact of *Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience* (SDBE) on WOM generation. Thus this paper for the first time has come up with an integrated model that can be used a road map for future destination branding and WOM generation.

CONCLUSION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION

Our model has demonstrated a strong positive correlation between Tourism Services and Destination Brand Personality; it has also depicted that Destination Brand Personality and Tourism Services are jointly having strong positive impacts on Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience, which in turn leads to Word-of-Mouth (WOM) communication- the most effective tool for tourism. In this world of cut throat competition augmentation of service is increasing every minute. Augmentation in all its aspects of a service is often not possible neither it is financially viable. The present model has proved statistically that the overall feel-good factor for the place will be enhanced and hence a more positive Word-of-Mouth shall be generated in the days to come, which is another significant contribution to destination branding and marketing literature as this issue had not been investigated earlier. As we all know that it is only the satisfied customers who promote positive WOM communication, so it has become very important to study the factors that lead to WOM communication. This paper has attempted to figure out in threadbare detail the factors and its influence on WOM communication. Positive feedback from tourists is just not a linear function of a few simplistic factors; it is a complex structure where one road leads to the other. Here this paper has presented a map to show where and how different roads lead to positive WOM. In today's world holidays are few and hence the age old wanderlust among people is going down and as because holidays are few the competition is yet fiercer because in a given year for a tourist it is a choice of either this or that place and surely not both. Hence the brand value of a particular tourist destination has become more important than ever before. The connectivity of the tourist and the destination brand needs to be strong and positive, which is the resultant effect of destination brand personality and tourism services. It is always true for all that a good experience always leads to better Word-of-Mouth communication. But what actually leads to this Word-of-Mouth communication? The tested model in this current study clearly shows that

combined effect of Destination *Brand Personality* and *Tourism Services* together leads to 'feel good factor' or *Satisfaction from Destination Brand Experience* of the tourists. satisfaction of the in turn leads to a positive and strong WOM, which may in turn influence the potential travellers in visiting a specific destination and hence business.

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RHETORICAL ANALYSIS OF TOURISM ADVERTISING SLOGANS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY FROM BULGARIA

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The presented paper is written on the basis of an empirical research project focused on the use of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising slogans. The study aims to analyze the tourism advertising in Bulgarian media. The use of rhetorical figures within tourism and non-tourism advertising is investigated and comparisons are made. On that base the “rhetorical profile” of Bulgarian tourism advertising is outlined. Another important direction of the research is the analysis of slogan length – the author measured slogan length within 9 product categories and found that tourism slogans are among the longest. The paper may help future studies devoted on the relationship rhetorical figures’ usage – advertising effectiveness.

Keywords: *tourism, advertising, slogans, rhetorical figures*

JEL Classification: L83, M37

INTRODUCTION

Some research results show that 90% of all advertising messages are not paid attention to by recipients, which seriously decreases advertising effectiveness. Paradoxically, a tendency of advertising effectiveness to decrease is accompanied by a tendency of advertising budgets to increase (Morgan et al., 2012). This two-sided phenomenon makes the responsibility of planning and executing advertising campaigns much heavier nowadays.

This is particularly valid for the tourism sector. Today’s consumer is



bombarded every day by numerous advertising messages via multiple channels: TV, radio, the Internet, outdoors, magazines, newspapers, product placement in movies, etc. A considerable number of these messages promotes tourism-related products and services. For sure “any organisation involved in the leisure and tourism business [...] will be interested in one form or another” (Morgan and Pritchard 2000, p.3). Tourism products, however, can rarely be tested in advance. That is why advertising is so important for the tourism sector and why the planning of effective advertising campaigns that carry convincing messages is decisive. Advertising specialists should create advertising messages that can get through the clutter and impact the consumer. This task is even more complicated in times of economic crisis (Tonkova, 2011) or considering the influence of macroeconomic variables (Pranic 2012).

The study presented in this paper focuses on the use of rhetorical figures in Bulgarian tourism advertising. It is well known that the appropriate use of rhetorical figures in a text (poems, speeches, etc.) can increase its persuasive effect and add vividness to the sentences. The use of rhetorical figures in advertising could have a positive effect too. Because of the importance of this issue on the one hand and the sizeable share of the tourism sector in Bulgarian gross domestic product (GDP) on the other hand, we argue that this field of research is still unexplored and the interest towards it will rise significantly in the near future. The present paper is just a step in that direction. It investigates the use of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising slogans and reveals the peculiarities of tourism advertising slogans from the perspective of the usage of rhetorical figures. The study does not measure the impact of rhetorical figures on advertising effectiveness, but it lays the groundwork for future analysis of the impact of rhetorical figures on effectiveness of tourism advertising in Bulgaria.

For the sake of the analysis, it is necessary to accept a classification of rhetorical figures and define each figure. We follow a widespread two-type classification of rhetorical figures: *figures of thought* and *figures of speech*. The figures of thought are connected with ideas and perceptions that are created in the mind of the listener/reader/viewer, while figures of speech refer to the manner of verbal expression (Boteva, 2008). The names of these types are closer to the French tradition than to the Anglo-Saxon one. The study is based on the classification of Boteva (2008) and follows it strictly. The most common rhetorical figures of thought are presented in Appendix 1 together with their descriptions and illustrative examples. In addition, Appendix 2 contains a list of the most common figures of speech accompanied by relevant explanations and examples.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The analysis of previous studies in the field of rhetorical figures and their application in advertising can be classified into two major classes (Table 1).

Table 1. Studies of rhetorical figures in advertising

CLASSIFICATION OF PREVIOUS STUDIES OF RHETORICAL FIGURES IN ADVERTISING	THE USE OF RHETORICAL FIGURES	Authors
	THE EFFECT OF RHETORICAL FIGURES	
		Stern (1988); Leigh (1994); McQuarrie and Mick (1992); McQuarrie and Mick (1993); Scott (1994); McQuarrie and Mick (1996); Philips and McQuarrie (2002); Smith (2006); Van Mulken and Kok (2005); Christopher (2009); Jalilifar (2010); Pérez (2011); Labrador et al. (2014).
		Tanaka (1992); Tom and Eves (1999); McQuarrie and Mick (1999); Lagerwerf (2002); Mothersbaugh et al. (2002); McQuarrie and Mick (2003); Ahluwalia and Burnkrant (2004); Van Mulken et al. (2005), Ang and Lim (2006); Stella and Adam (2008); Van Enschoet et al. (2008)

Descriptive studies of the use of rhetorical figures in advertising

This type of research project is descriptive. One might even say that this type of study acts as a foundation for the study of the relationship between rhetorical figures and advertising impact.

One of the early studies in this area investigates the usage of figures of speech in services advertising. The author accentuates the conclusion that “[...] any writer of advertising copy [... uses ...] some methods of poetry” and that the clever usage of figures of speech in advertising texts contributes to the “connotative verbal richness” (Stern 1988, p.2).

In 1992, 1993, and 1996, McQuarrie and Mick conducted three studies directly related to the use of rhetorical figures in advertising. In their first study in 1992, they analysed 1,268 adverts with the content analysis method. The results of the study discovered that a resonance (i.e. interaction between the advert text and the used image) was observed in 15.2% of the

analysed messages. In 1993, McQuarrie and Mick applied the method of content analysis to 154 advertisements published in *People* magazine. The authors argued for the significance of classical rhetoric in the process of advertising research. McQuarrie and Mick (1993) also draw the major lines of future research on the connection between rhetorical figures and advertising messages. Later McQuarrie and Mick (1996) developed a taxonomy of rhetorical figures. The two researchers explained that the foundation of their taxonomy is the parallel between “figurative and nonfigurative text, between two types of figures (schemes and tropes), and among four rhetorical operations that underline individual figures (repetition, reversal, substitution, and destabilization)” (McQuarrie and Mick 1996, p. 424).

In 1994, Leigh analysed the headlines of 2,183 print advertisements searching for figures of speech. He found 41 figures of speech. He stated that the most popular figures of speech in American print adverts were as follows: puns, alliteration, and assonance (Leigh, 1994). In the same year, Scot published a study that contributed to the so-called visual rhetoric and offered a new model for studying advertising pictures (Scott, 1994). The study extensively covers the rhetorical style in American print advertisements and analyses the 1954–1999 period. The reported results show that there is “more layering of multiple figures and less explanation of figures over time” and that the use of irony, puns, and metaphor increased over the years (Phillips and McQuarrie 2002, p. 1).

Van Mulken and Kok (2005) published an upgrade of the typology of rhetorical figures in advertising proposed by McQuarrie and Mick (1996, 1999, 2003). The authors defend the opinion that “the integration of verbo-pictorial figures in the rhetoric framework for print advertising deserves to be considered” (Van Mulken and Kok 2005, p. 59). Smith (2006) tried to answer the question “What happens to rhetorical figures in the translation process?” (Smith 2006, p. 159). She analysed print adverts translated from English to Russian and found that the majority of advertising headlines were translated in a manner that kept the original rhetorical figure or replaced one rhetorical figure with another. In both situations there is a rhetorical figure. One third of the translated advertising headlines did lose at least one rhetorical figure in the translation process (Smith, 2006). Christopher (2009) analysed the development of rhetorical figures in advertising slogans. She traced a long period from the end of the nineteenth century to the beginning of the twenty-first century, finding that the usage of rhetorical figures “has become more complicated and sophisticated over time” (Christopher 2009, p. i). Jalilifar (2010) tried to study the cross-cultural aspect of advertising

and especially the usage of rhetorical figures in English and Persian advertising texts. His findings reveal that the use of rhetorical figures in advertising texts “makes them vivid, conspicuous, impressive, and readable” (Jalilifar 2010, p.25). An interesting study of rhetorical figures translation was conducted by Pérez (2011). She analysed the presence of rhetorical figures in English advertisements as well as their Spanish translations. The research results confirm that a larger part of rhetorical figures are translated.

The depictive studies are oriented mainly to the analysis of the use of rhetorical figures in advertising texts. Generally, these research projects calculate the usage frequency of each rhetorical figure, trace their usage over time, or/and analyse the “survival” of the rhetorical figures when the advertisement is translated to/from a foreign language. This class of scientific studies may serve as a basis for the elevation of the research to the next level: assessing the effectiveness of rhetorical figures in the context of advertising.

Studies of the relationship between rhetorical figures and advertising effectiveness

The studies of this kind are comparatively more complex in terms of their methodology and practical realisation. Definitely this is one of the reasons for their paucity. However, these studies are more valuable for advertisers and advertising agencies.

Tanaka (1992) argues that the use of puns in advertising messages can help advertisers to accomplish their goals and that the use of puns in advertising distinguishes the advertising message. He also argues that advertising messages with puns are more effective compared with advertising messages that are “expressed literally”. An assessment of rhetorical figure effectiveness in advertisements shows that messages with rhetorical figures are more effective compared with messages without rhetorical figures. More precisely said, “advertisements that use rhetorical figures result in superior recall and superior persuasion” (Tom and Eves 1999, p.39). McQuarrie and Mick (1999) reported interesting results about the pictorial rhetorical figures in advertising. They examined some visual figures (metaphor, pun, antithesis, and rhyme) and reached the conclusion that the use of these figures in advertisements results in more elaboration, enhancing favourable attitudes toward the advert. However, effects either decreased or vanished (for pun and metaphor) in the case of respondents “who lacked the cultural competency required to adequately appreciate the

contemporary American ads” (McQuarrie and Mick 1999, p. 37). Lagerwerf (2002) studied the use of puns in advertising slogans. His results confirm that consumers’ appreciation of advertising slogans can be influenced by the use of puns. Mothersbaugh et al. (2002) investigated the influence of tropes and schemes in advertising processing. This study reveals that the combined use of schemes and tropes yields incremental advertising processing, while the usage of multiple tropes does not yield incremental advertising processing. McQuarrie and Mick (2003) re-examined the impact of rhetorical figures (both verbal and visual) on consumers’ responses to advertising. This experiment proved that the use of rhetorical figures in print advertisements leads to higher levels of advert recall and advert liking. The experimental research of Ahluwalia and Burnkrant (2004) reports that the use of rhetorical questions can influence advertising effectiveness. The researchers outline the conditions under which the presence of rhetorical figures in advertising messages can increase consumers’ attention towards adverts as well as the persuasive effect of adverts. Van Mulken et al. (2005) studied the role of puns in the process of advertising slogan assessment. The research results “showed that the presence or absence of puns had a significant impact on the respondents’ appreciation of the slogans” (Van Mulken et al. 2005, p. 707). Ang and Lim (2006) investigated metaphor’s effect on brand attitudes, attitudes toward the advert, and purchase intentions. The results of this study state that metaphorical advertisements “were perceived to be more sophisticated and exciting, but less sincere and competent than those using literal headlines or pictures” (Ang and Lim 2006, p. 39). Stella and Adam (2008) re-inquired about the influence of rhetorical figures in advertising persuasion and argued that “tropes, be they simple or complex, do not have the significant persuasive effects that they are reported to have” (Stella and Adam 2008, p. 163). The effect of verbal and visual rhetorical figures was analysed by Van Enschoot et al. (2008), who reported that advertisements with verbo-visual tropes (as well as advertisements without a rhetorical figure) provoke less favourable attitudes towards an advert compared with adverts with verbo-visual schemes.

Summarising the studies of rhetorical figures’ contribution to advertising effectiveness, we can state that this field of research needs further exploration. Indeed, important research work has been done in this area, but the issue is so important that it requires further investigation. In the process of gathering and analysing previous studies, we did not find any specific research work oriented towards the use of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising. As far as it concerns Bulgarian academic publications, we found no trace of research activity in the context of the application of

rhetorical figures in advertising. With the importance of tourism for the Bulgarian economy in mind, we decided to analyse the use of rhetorical figures in Bulgarian advertising. This is the practical reason for undertaking the present research. In addition, there is a theoretical motivation for the research: the need for thorough analysis of advertising content. This study must be perceived as an inevitable first step towards the (second step) analysis of the role of rhetorical figures in raising advertising effectiveness.

Given that this is the first study of that kind in Bulgaria, we have formulated a broadly defined hypothesis:

H: TOURISM ADVERTISING SLOGANS POSSESS A SPECIFIC RHETORICAL PROFILE

This major (first-level) hypothesis might be broken down into two second-level hypotheses (Table 2). A slogan's length (measured as the number of words) is a very important characteristic that has never been studied in the context of tourism advertising in Bulgaria, which is why it is reasonable to start the analysis from this point by formulating the first second-level hypothesis (H1) together with its corresponding third-level hypotheses (Table 2):

H1: Tourism Advertising Slogans Are Longer Compared To Advertising Slogans In Most Product Categories

In order to prove this hypothesis, a set of eight sub-hypotheses (third-level hypotheses) have to be tested. Each of these sub-hypotheses includes a comparison of the slogan length of tourism advertising and the slogan length of another product category (Foodstuffs; Drinks; Automobiles and petrol stations; Financial services; Chain stores and shopping centres; Technology and communications; Clothing and cosmetics; Other). The first sub-hypothesis is as follows: H1.1 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to the advertising slogans in the category of Foodstuffs. The last (eighth) sub-hypothesis within this group will be the following: H1.8 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to the advertising slogans in the Other product category.

Another meaningful dimension of the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising that is essential and would add substantial value to the analysis is the use of rhetorical figures. Therefore, another second-level hypothesis was formulated:

H2: The use of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising slogans is specific, that is, differs significantly from the use of rhetorical figures in non-tourism advertising slogans.

This second level hypothesis (H2) could be split into two third-level hypotheses. The logic of this split is based on the two types of rhetorical

figures: figures of thought and figures of speech. Thus, the first third-level hypothesis is concerned with the rhetorical figures of thought and sounds:

H2.1: Tourism advertising is characterised by a specific use of **rhetorical figures of thought** which differs significantly from the use of rhetorical figures in non-tourism advertising.

In order to prove or reject hypothesis H2.1, it is necessary to test 21

Table 2. Hierarchy of hypotheses

Level	HYPOTHESES	
I	H: TOURISM ADVERTISING SLOGANS POSSESS A SPECIFIC RHETORICAL PROFILE	
II	H1: Tourism Advertising Slogans Are Longer Compared To Advertising Slogans In Most Product Categories	
III	H1.1 Tourism advertisng slogans are longer compared to slogans in the Foodstuffs category	
	...	
	H1.8 Tourism advertisng slogans are longer compared to the slogans in the category of Other products	
II	H2: The use of rhetorical figures in tourism advertisng slogans is specific, that is, differs significantly from the use of rhetorical figures in non-tourism advertising slogans	
III	H2.1: Tourism advertising is characterised by a specific use of rhetorical figures of thought which differs sifnificantly from the use of rhetorical figures in non-tourism advertising	
IV	<i>H2.1.1 The proportion of slogans with accumulation in tourism advertising differs significantly from the proportion of slogans with accumulation in non-tourism advertising slogans</i>	
	...	
	<i>H2.1.21 The use of hyperbole in tourism advertising slogans differs significantly from the use of hyperbole in non-tourism advertising slogans</i>	
III	H2.2: Tourism advertising is characterised by a specific use of rhetorical figures of speech which differs significantly from non-tourism advertising	
IV	<i>H2.2.1 The proportion of slogans with anaphora in tourism advertising slogans differs significantly from the proportion of slogans with anaphora in non-tourism advertising slogans</i>	

	
	<i>H2.2.14 The proportion of slogans with symploce in tourism advertising slogans differs significantly from the proportion of slogans with symploce in non-tourism advertising slogans</i>

Proving hypotheses H1 and H2 would lead to acceptance of the general (first-level) hypothesis H.

(fourth-level) hypotheses relevant to the 21 figures of thought (see Appendix 1). The first hypothesis in this set is: *H2.1.1 The proportion of slogans with accumulation in tourism advertising differs significantly from the proportion of slogans with accumulation in non-tourism advertising slogans*. The last hypothesis of this kind is: *H2.1.21 The use of hyperbole in tourism advertising slogans differs significantly from the use of hyperbole in non-tourism advertising slogans*.

Logically, the second third-level hypothesis is connected with the use of rhetorical figures of speech and it states the following:

H2.2: Tourism advertising is characterised by a specific use of **rhetorical figures of speech** which differs significantly from non-tourism advertising.

In order to prove or reject H2.2, a set of fourteen fourth-level hypotheses has to be tested (see Appendix 2). The first of the hypotheses in this set is: *H2.2.1 The proportion of slogans with anaphora in tourism advertising slogans differs significantly from the proportion of slogans with anaphora in non-tourism advertising slogans*. The last fourth-level hypothesis within this group states that: *H2.2.14 The proportion of slogans with symploce in tourism advertising slogans differs significantly from the proportion of slogans with symploce in non-tourism advertising slogans*.

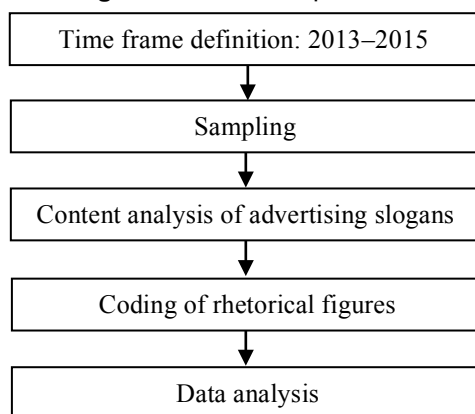
If hypotheses H2.1 and H2.2 are proven, we can confirm the second-level hypothesis H2. In other words, this will mean that the advertising slogans in tourism advertising are characterised by a specific rhetorical profile. This profile will be determined by the specific use of rhetorical figures. If the first general hypothesis H1 proves to be true, then another specific feature (slogan length) of tourism advertising will be indicated.

METHODOLOGY

The research methodology can be described by a five-stage research procedure. The first step of the research procedure (Figure 1) includes definition of time frame of observation. This time frame includes

the period from October 2013 to May 2015. At the second stage of the research process, a sample of 973 unique advertising slogans was launched. The fulfilment of this arduous task was possible due to the help of the students attending the author's Marketing Research class.

Figure 1. Research procedure



Slogans were gathered from adverts published in the following media:

- 1) *Magazines*—a sample of 34 magazines were selected randomly from the deposit list of SS. Cyril and Methodius National Library (Bulgaria). The advertisements in these magazines were analysed and the advertising slogans were picked out.
- 2) *Internet*—the most popular Bulgarian websites were monitored and advertising slogans were collected. Banner advertisements in the top 10 websites in Bulgaria (ranked by GEMIIUS) were monitored. Advertisements were scanned for slogans. Those with advertising slogans were analysed thoroughly and the unique slogans were added to the database. It is necessary to note that every Internet announcement contained a slogan.
- 3) *TV*—three national broadcast stations were monitored during the period: BTV, NOVA, and BNT 1. Advertising blocks within the

prime-time slot were investigated and unique advertising slogans were added to the database.

- 4) *Outdoor media*—billboards, posters, flags, etc., positioned in 27 major regional cities of Bulgaria. Twice a month the highways (A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7), all first-class Bulgarian roads (I-1, I-2, I-3, I-4, I-5, I-6, I-7, I-8, I-9), and some second-class roads (E70, E79, E80, E83, E85, E87) were checked for outdoor advertising messages.

All irrelevant data such as advertising titles, parts of advertising copy in big font sizes, and other non-slogan texts were removed from the database.

In the next step of the research, we performed a **content analysis** of the advertising slogans. Each slogan was analysed carefully for inherent rhetorical figures. The found rhetorical figures were coded as well as the product category of the advertising slogan. The length of each slogan (number of words) was measured. The distribution of advertising slogans by product categories is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Sample structure – number of slogans by product categories

Product category	Slogans (N)	With rhetorical figure (N)	Without rhetorical figure (N)
Foodstuffs	102	96	6
Drinks	154	136	18
Automobiles and petrol stations	150	104	46
Financial services	50	22	28
Chain stores and shopping centres	102	82	20
Technology and communications	54	44	10
Clothing and cosmetics	124	90	34
Tourism	130	106	24
Others	107	78	29
Total	973	758	215

The last step of the research procedure included data analysis. We calculated the average length of the advertising slogans, measured the usage frequency of each rhetorical figure within the sample and within each product category, tested the research hypotheses, and analysed the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising.

RESULTS

Slogan length

One of the main characteristics of the advertising slogan is its length, and one of the main requirements for a slogan is to be concise and to clearly reflect the overall philosophy of the particular brand or company. The advertising slogan should not be too long. Otherwise the audience may not pay attention to it. Excessively long slogans are difficult to remember and could lead to information deformations.

On the basis of the whole sample, we calculated the average length of Bulgarian advertising slogans as 3.7 words. The average length of non-tourism slogans is 3.8, while the average length of tourism slogans is 4.1 words. This difference was proved to be statistically significant with a Mann–Whitney test (P -value = 0.005).

Nearly 35.2% of all analysed slogans ($N = 973$) contain three words. Almost 15.2% of all slogans contain two words, while 25.9% are longer with four words. It is important to point out that the proportion of longer slogans (over six words) is extremely low. An example of a slogan of this kind is that of Hotel Mirena, Plovdiv: “Luxury is a whim, comfort is a necessity!”

We calculated the average slogan length for each product category (Table 4). It is interesting to point out that the slogans in tourism advertising are among the longest.

Table 4. Average slogan length across product categories

Product category	Average slogan length (number of words)
Foodstuffs	3.8
Drinks	3.3
Automobiles and petrol stations	3.7
Financial services	3.4

Chain stores and shopping centres	4
Technology and communications	3.2
Clothing and cosmetics	4.3
Tourism	4.1
Others	3.8

The average length of tourism advertising slogans is 4.1 words. We performed a series of two independent sample Mann–Whitney tests to compare the average length of a tourism slogan to the average slogan length in the rest of the product categories (Table 5). We found significant differences for five pairs of means (slogan lengths). First, the average slogan length in Tourism advertising (4.1 words) compared to the average slogan length in Technology and communications advertising (3.2 words). As can be seen, the Tourism slogans (4.1 words) are considerably longer compared to the Technology and communications slogans. In fact, Tourism slogans contain nearly one word more on average (P -value = 0.000). A similar conclusion can be derived for the comparison of Tourism and Drinks. The Tourism slogans are significantly longer compared to the Drinks slogans (P -value = 0.000). Tourism slogans also proved to be significantly longer compared to the slogans in the following categories: Automobiles and petrol stations—3.7 words (P -value = 0.037); Financial services—3.4 words (P -value = 0.000); and Clothing and cosmetics—4.3 words (P -value = 0.000).

Table 5. Mann–Whitney tests to compare the average slogan length in tourism advertising to the average slogan's length in non-tourism categories

Third-level hypotheses	P -value	Accept /reject
H1.1 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the Foodstuffs category	0.224	reject
H1.2 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the Drinks category	0.000	accept
H1.3 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the category of Automobiles and petrol stations	0.037	accept
H1.4 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the category of	0.000	accept

Technology and communications		
H1.5 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the Financial services category	0.000	accept
H1.6 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the category of Chain stores and shopping centres	0.637	reject
H1.7 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the category of Clothing and cosmetics	0.613	reject
H1.8 Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to slogans in the category of Other products	0.116	accept

For the rest of the comparisons, significant differences were not proven: Tourism compared with Foodstuffs (P -value = 0.224); Tourism compared with Chain stores and shopping centres (P -value = 0.637); Tourism compared with Clothes and cosmetics (P -value = 0.613); Tourism compared with Other products (P -value = 0.116).

Presence and absence of rhetorical figures in advertising slogans

Based on the total number of slogans ($N = 973$), we calculated how many of them contain at least one rhetorical figure and how many of them do not contain any rhetorical figure. No rhetorical figures were detected in 22.1% of all slogans. The rest of the slogans in the sample (77.9%) contained at least one rhetorical figure (Table 6). Obviously, rhetorical figures are used quite frequently in Bulgarian advertising. Moreover, a considerable number of slogans contain more than one rhetorical figure; their proportion within the total number of slogans with a rhetorical figure ($N = 758$) is 20.1%.

Table 6. Presence of rhetorical figures in advertising slogans – major characteristics

Sample size	$N = 973$ advertising slogans
Number of slogans containing a rhetorical figure	758 (77.9%)

Number of slogans without a rhetorical figure	215 (22.1%)
Number of slogans containing more than one rhetorical figure	159 (20.1% within slogans containing at least one rhetorical figure, N = 758)
Ratio “with rhetorical figure:without rhetorical figure”	77.9%:22.1% (2.9), all slogans, N = 973
Ratio “with rhetorical figure:without rhetorical figure” for tourism advertising	81.5%:18.5% (4.4), tourism slogans, N = 130
Ratio “with rhetorical figure:without rhetorical figure” for non-tourism advertising	77.4%:22.7% (3.4), non-tourism slogans, N = 843

It is interesting that the proportion of tourism slogans with a rhetorical figure (81.5%, N = 130) exceeds the proportion of non-tourism slogans with a rhetorical figure (77.4%, N = 843) ($P < 0.0001$). The ratio “*number of slogans with rhetorical figure:number of slogans without rhetorical figure*” for tourism advertising is 4.4. For the non-tourism advertising slogans, this ratio is 3.4. Thus, two conclusions could be formulated: *first*, the number of advertising slogans with rhetorical figures is greater compared to the number of advertising slogans without rhetorical figures for all product categories; *second*, a relatively more frequent use of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising slogans (compared to non-tourism ones) is observed.

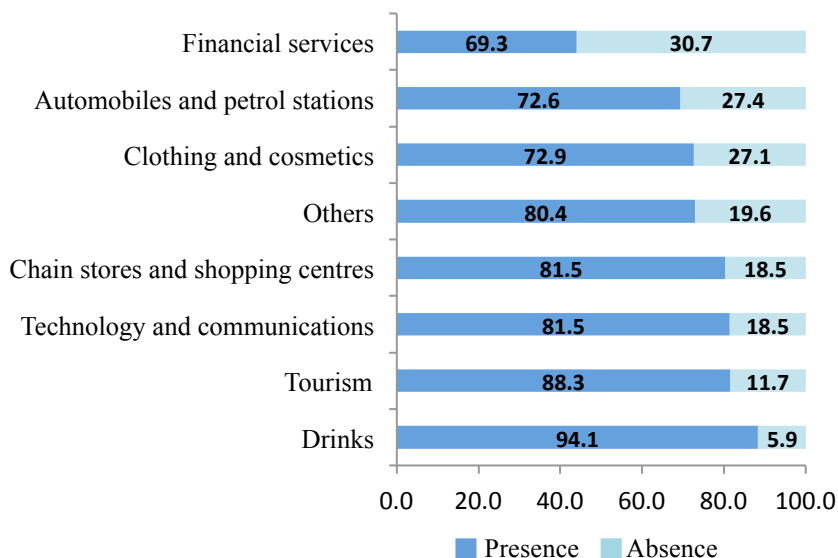
Table 7. Figures of thought and figures of speech: proportions

Rhetorical figures	All		Tourism		Non-tourism	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Figures of thought	616	62.7	87	62.6	529	62.8
Figures of speech	366	37.3	52	37.4	314	37.2
Total	982	100	139	100	843	100

It is interesting to point out that rhetorical figures of thought are considerably more often used in Bulgarian advertising compared to rhetorical figures of speech; the ratio “figures of thought:figures of speech” within the sample is 616:366 (1.68). Respectively the proportion of figures of thought is 62.7% and the proportion of figures of speech is 37.3% (Table

7). As one may notice, these proportions do not vary between the tourism sector (figures of thought—62.7%; figures of speech—37.3%) and the non-tourism sector (figures of thought—62.8%; figures of speech—37.2%). High levels of rhetorical figure usage are observed in the following product categories: Foods, Drinks, Technology and communications, and Tourism (Figure 2). The lowest level of use of rhetorical figures was measured in the category of Financial services. The explanation for this rhetorical scarcity probably lies in the fact that the communications in the financial area require a greater degree of seriousness and precision.

Figure 2. Presence and absence of rhetorical figures across product categories (%)

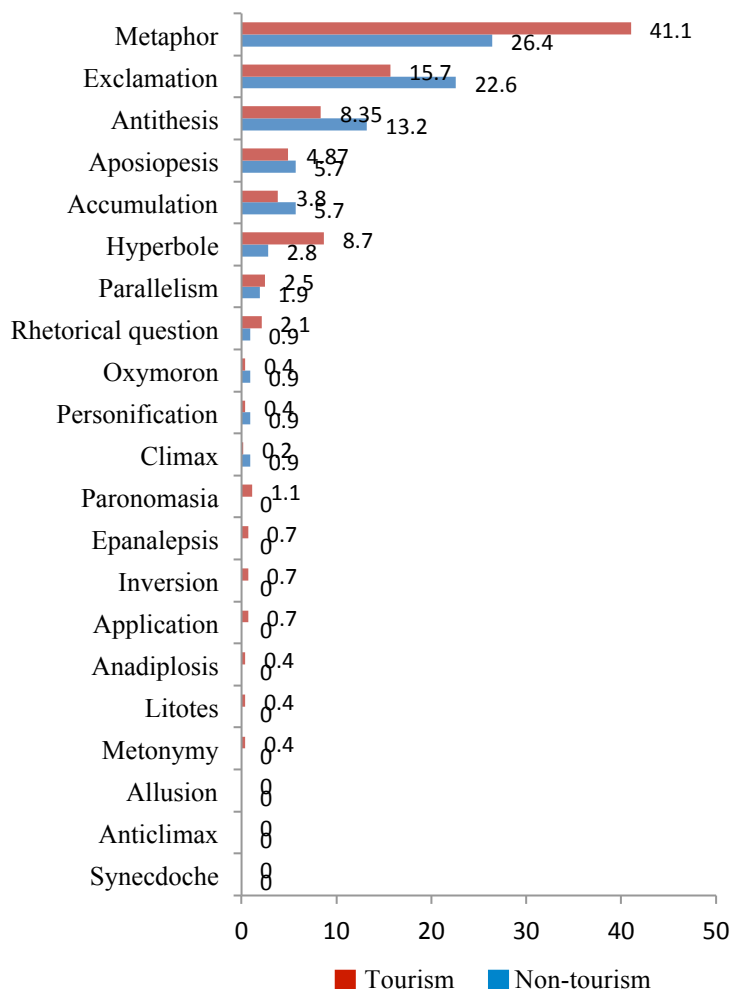


Rhetorical figures of thought in tourism and non-tourism advertising

In order to analyse the specific features of tourism advertising slogans, we compared the proportion of each rhetorical figure in tourism advertising against its proportion in non-tourism advertising. By non-tourism advertising in the present paper we mean advertising slogans in categories

such as Foodstuffs, Drinks, Clothing and cosmetics, Technology and communications, and all other categories except Tourism. As can be seen in Figure 3, the use of metaphors in tourism advertising slogans (26.4%) is considerably lower than the use of metaphors in non-tourism advertising slogans (41.1%). On the other hand, the use of exclamation is much greater in tourism advertising (22.6%) compared to non-tourism advertising (15.7%). The same is relevant for the use of antithesis, hyperbole, aposiopesis, accumulation, etc. In order to analyse the **“rhetorical profile”** of tourism advertising, we tested the statistical significance of proportions of use of each rhetorical figure of thought. In fact, we tested the statistical difference between the proportions of each specific figure respectively for tourism advertising and for non-tourism advertising.

Figure 3. Use of rhetorical figures of thought in tourism and non-tourism advertising (%)



A z-test for comparing two independent proportions was applied. For example, in the case of testing the statistical difference of metaphor usage, we passed the following steps: *first*, definition of the null hypothesis (H_0) and the alternative hypothesis (H_1 : $P_{mta} - P_{mnta} = 0$; H_a : $P_{eta} - P_{enta} \neq 0$), where P_{mta} denotes the proportion of metaphor slogans in tourism advertising and P_{mnta} denotes the proportion of metaphor slogans in non-

tourism advertising; *second*, determining the probability of making a type one error or the so-called level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$ (two-tailed); *third*, calculation of the test statistic:

$$Z = \frac{P_{mta} - P_{mnta}}{\sqrt{\frac{P_{mta}(1-P_{mta})}{n_1} + \frac{P_{mnta}(1-P_{mnta})}{n_2}}};$$

fourth, determination of the *P*-value; and *fifth*, a decision in favour of one of the two hypotheses, H_0 or H_a . In this specific (metaphor) case we calculated $z = 283,9$, which means that the *P*-value < 0.00001 . As this is less than 0.05, the alternative hypothesis H_a was accepted. Thus, we derived the conclusion that the difference between the usage of metaphor in tourism advertising (26.4%) and the usage of metaphor in non-tourism advertising (41.1%) is statistically significant. In fact, we proved the fourth-level hypothesis H2.1.13: *The proportion of slogans with metaphor in tourism advertising differs significantly from the proportion of slogans with metaphor in non-tourism advertising*. Applying the same procedure and following the sequence of rhetorical figures of thought shown in Appendix 1, we tested the rest of the hypotheses: H2.1.1 (*accumulation*), H2.1.2 (*allusion*), H2.1.3 (*anadiplosis*), H2.1.4 (*anticlimax*), H2.1.5 (*antithesis*), H2.1.6 (*application*), H2.1.7 (*aposiopesis*), H2.1.8 (*exclamation*), H2.1.9 (*epanalepsis*), H2.1.10 (*inversion*), H2.1.11 (*climax*), H2.1.12 (*litotes*), H2.1.14 (*metonymy*), H2.1.15 (*oxymoron*), H2.1.16 (*parallelism*), H2.1.17 (*paronomasia*), H2.1.18 (*personification*), H2.1.19 (*rhetorical question*), H2.1.20 (*synecdoche*), and H2.1.21 (*hyperbole*). Use of allusion, synecdoche, and anticlimax was not detected in tourism advertising slogans or in non-tourism advertising slogans. So, hypotheses H2.1.2 (*allusion*), H2.1.4 (*anticlimax*), and H2.1.20 (*synecdoche*) could not be proved. Several hypotheses were proved, but because of the very small proportions of use (Figure 3) were omitted from further analysis: H2.1.8 (*exclamation*), H2.1.9 (*epanalepsis*), H2.1.10 (*inversion*), H2.1.11 (*climax*), H2.1.12 (*litotes*), H2.1.14 (*metonymy*), H2.1.15 (*oxymoron*), H2.1.17 (*paronomasia*), and H2.1.18 (*personification*). Thus, the statistically proven hypotheses ($P < 0.00001$) that can add real value to the analysis of the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising are the following: H2.1.1 (*accumulation*), H2.1.5 (*antithesis*), H2.1.7 (*aposiopesis*), H2.1.13 (*metaphor*), H2.1.16 (*parallelism*), H2.1.19 (*rhetorical question*), and H2.1.21 (*hyperbole*).

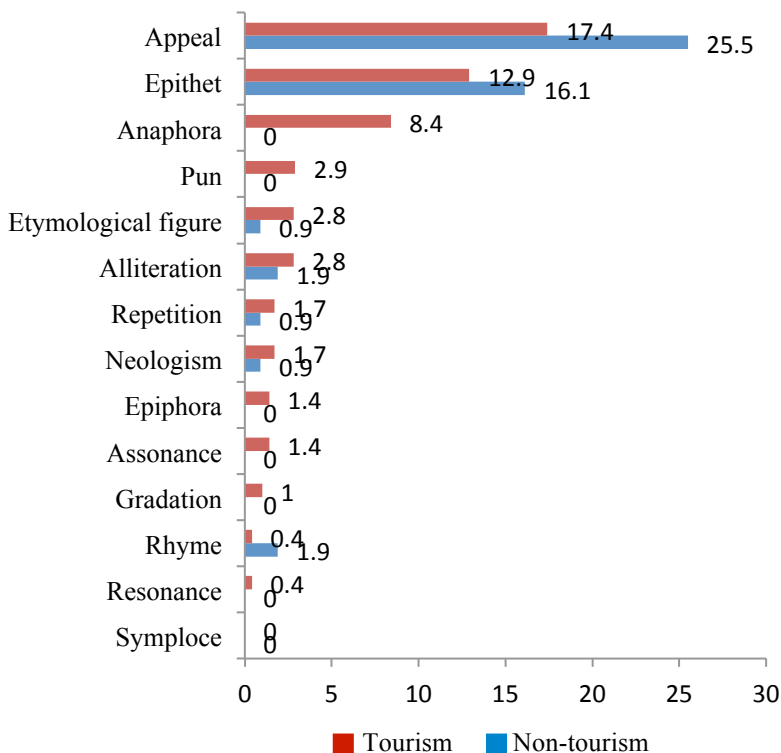
Figures of speech in tourism and non-tourism advertising slogans

Figure 6 shows the frequency of use of the figures of speech. The dominant figures in this case are the appeal (25.5% in tourism advertising/17.4% in non-tourism advertising) and the epithet (16.1% in tourism advertising/12.9% in non-tourism advertising). The main purpose of these rhetorical figures is their emotional and psychological impact on the consumer as well as provoking a strong reaction or attitude. The use of epithets enhances the expressiveness and strengthens the perception of a specific idea. The appeal helps to attract attention and creating favourable attitudes towards the advertised brand. We believe these arguments stand behind the frequent use of appeal and epithet in advertising slogans.

The use of anaphora and puns should also be mentioned; the frequency of use of anaphora is 8.4% in non-tourism advertising and 0% in tourism advertising, while the use of puns is 0% in tourism advertising slogans and 2.9% in non-tourism ones. The usage frequency of alliteration is 8.4% in non-tourism advertising and 0% in tourism advertising. As can be seen in Figure 4, the usage of five rhetorical figures is slightly above 1% for non-tourism advertising and below 1% for tourism advertising: repetition, neologism, epiphora, assonance, and gradation. Rhyme was detected in 0.4% of non-tourism slogans and in 1.9% of tourism slogans. Symploce was detected neither in tourism, nor in non-tourism advertising slogans. The use of resonance is also extremely low at 0.4% for non-tourism advertising and 0% for tourism advertising. The usage frequency of etymological figures is 2.8% in non-tourism advertising and 1.9% in tourism advertising.

Applying the above-mentioned *z*-test, we tested the 14 sub-hypotheses (fourth-level hypotheses) in order to reject or accept hypothesis H2.2: *Tourism advertising is characterised by a specific use of rhetorical figures of speech which differs significantly from non-tourism advertising*. This set of 14 sub-hypotheses includes: H2.2.1 (*alliteration*), H2.2.2 (*anaphora*), H2.2.3 (*appeal*), H2.2.4 (*assonance*), H2.2.5 (*epiphora*), H2.2.6 (*epithet*), H2.2.7 (*etymological figure*), H2.2.8 (*gradation*), H2.2.9 (*neologism*), H2.2.10 (*pun*), H2.2.11 (*repetition*), H2.2.12 (*resonance*), H2.2.13 (*rhyme*), H2.2.14 (*symploce*).

Figure 4. Use of rhetorical figures of speech in tourism and non-tourism advertising (%)



The research results show that a specific feature of the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising is the relatively high level of usage of appeals (H2.2.3) and epithets (H2.2.6). As shown in Figure 4, the proportion of appeals within tourism advertising slogans (25.5%) is higher compared to the proportion of appeals within non-tourism advertising slogans (17.4%). The difference was proved to be statistically significant by applying two independent sample *z*-test ($P < 0.00001$). Using the same statistical method, we analysed the statistical significance of the differences for the rest of the proportions. With reference to the epithet usage, it is important to point out that the proportion of epithets within tourism advertising slogans (16.1%) is

considerably higher than the proportion of epithets within non-tourism advertising (12.9%). This difference between the two proportions proved to be statistically significant ($P < 0.00001$). Inspecting the usage of anaphora (H2.2.2), we concluded that this rhetorical figure could be found in non-tourism advertising slogans (8.4%) but not in tourism ones (0%) ($P < 0.00001$). Statistical differences were found also for: H2.2.1—alliteration (2.8% non-tourism advertising/1.9% tourism advertising); H2.2.4—assonance (1.4% non-tourism advertising/0% tourism advertising); H2.2.5—epiphora (1.4% non-tourism advertising/0% tourism advertising); H2.2.7—etymological figure (2.8% non-tourism advertising/1.9% tourism advertising); H2.2.8—gradation (1% non-tourism advertising/0% tourism advertising); H2.2.9—neologism (1.7% non-tourism advertising/0.9% tourism advertising); H2.2.10—pun (2.9% non-tourism advertising/0% tourism advertising); H2.2.11—repetition (1.7% non-tourism advertising/0.9% tourism advertising); and H2.2.13—rhyme (0.4% non-tourism advertising/1.9% tourism advertising). No statistical differences were found for resonance (H2.2.12) or symplece (H2.2.14).

DISCUSSION

The analysis of slogan length revealed that tourism slogans are among the longest. They are significantly longer than the slogans in the categories of Drinks (H1.2), Automobiles and petrol stations (H1.3), Technology and communications (H1.4), Financial services (H1.5), and Other product categories (H1.8). Hypotheses H1.1, H1.6, and H1.7 were rejected, which means that significant differences were not found between tourism slogan length and slogan length in the categories of Foodstuffs (H1.1), Chain stores and shopping centres (H1.6), and Clothing and cosmetics (H1.7). Moreover, a statistically significant difference between average tourism slogan length (4.1 words) and average non-tourism slogan length (3.8 words) was proved ($P < 0.0001$). Proving the above-mentioned hypotheses allows logical path (1) to be completed and the acceptance of hypothesis **H1: Tourism advertising slogans are longer compared to advertising slogans in most product categories** (Figure 5).

Summarising the results concerning the usage of rhetorical figures of thought, and especially proving sub-hypotheses H2.1.1, H2.1.3, H2.1.5, H2.1.6, H2.1.7, H2.1.8, H2.1.9, H2.1.10, H2.1.11, H2.1.12, H2.1.13, H2.1.14, H2.1.15, H2.1.16, H2.1.17, H2.1.18, H2.1.19, and H2.1.21, we can derive the conclusion that we can accept hypothesis H2.1 *Tourism advertising is characterised by a specific usage of rhetorical figures of*

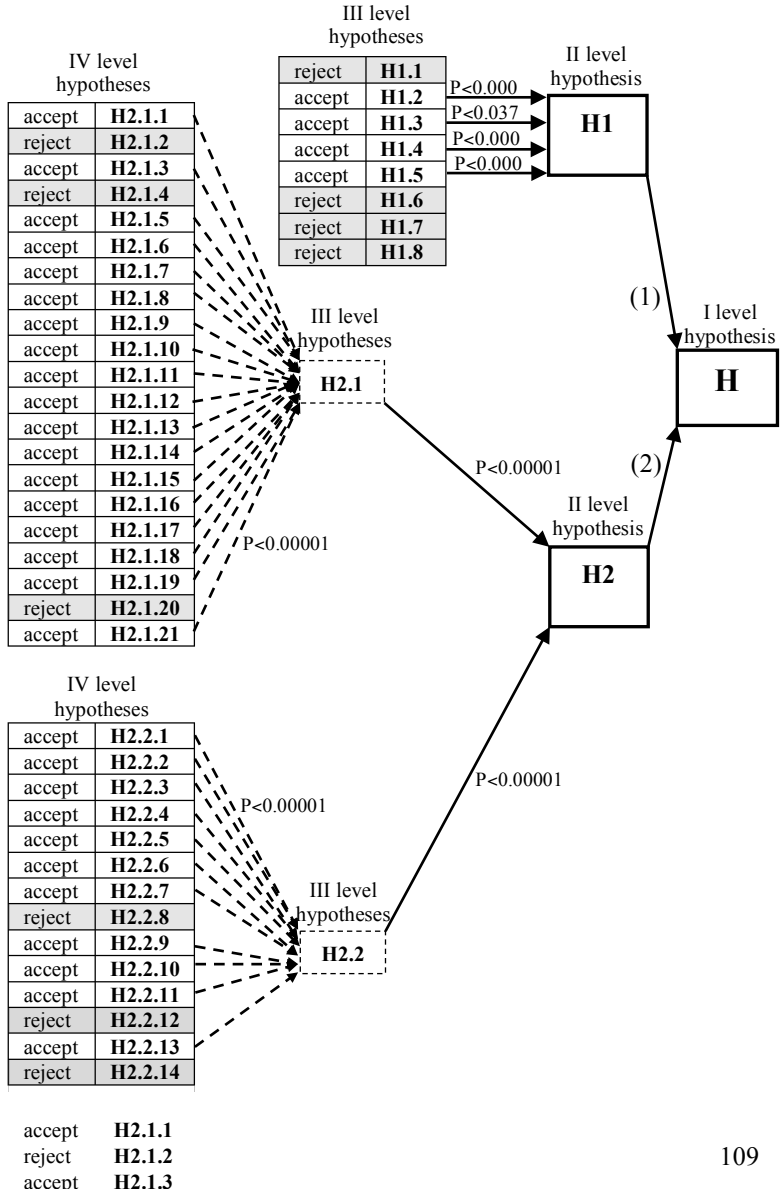
thought which differs significantly from the usage of rhetorical figures in non-tourism advertising. In other words, we have followed the logical stream of our hypothesis chain up to hypothesis H2.1 (Figure 5).

In the same way, we can accept hypothesis H2.2 *Tourism advertising is characterised by a specific usage of rhetorical figures of speech which differs significantly from the usage of rhetorical figures in non-tourism advertising*. This hypothesis is acceptable because 12 sub-hypotheses (fourth-level hypotheses) were proven (H2.2.1, H2.2.2, H2.2.3, H2.2.4, H2.2.5, H2.2.6, H2.2.7, H2.2.8, H2.2.9, H2.2.10, H2.2.11, and H2.2.13) and only two sub-hypotheses (fourth-level) were rejected (H2.2.12 and H2.2.14). Following the logical chain of path (2) in the hypothesis hierarchy (Figure 5), one could see how this leads to the proof of the higher-order hypothesis **H2: The use of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising slogans is specific, that is, differs significantly from the usage of rhetorical figures in non-tourism advertising slogans.**

The logical chain of hypotheses demonstrated in Figure 5 traces graphically the paths by which the hypotheses are proved. It is clear that the proving of hypotheses H1 and H2 allows us to accept the major hypothesis **H: TOURISM ADVERTISING SLOGANS POSSESS A SPECIFIC RHETORICAL PROFILE**. This profile is presented concisely in Table 8.

The results of the hypotheses tests reveal a specific profile of tourism advertising from the perspective of the use of rhetorical figures. The proportion of exclamation within tourism advertising is considerably higher compared to non-tourism advertising. The same can be said about aposiopesis, accumulation, personification, and climax. On the other hand, the proportions of metaphor, antithesis, hyperbole, parallelism, rhetorical questions, oxymoron, paronomasia, epanalepsis, inversion, application, anadiplosis, litotes, and metonymy are smaller within tourism advertising compared to non-tourism advertising. However, we cannot directly derive the conclusion that these peculiarities outline the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising in Bulgaria. Looking at the numbers (Figure 3), one surely will notice that some proportions are so small that their consideration is worthless, in spite of the fact that hypotheses tests confirm statistical differences. For example, the use of paronomasia equals 1% within non-tourism advertising slogans and 0% within tourism advertising slogans. Similar (low) levels of use are also observed for metonymy, litotes, anadiplosis, application, inversion, epanalepsis, oxymoron, and even parallelism and rhetorical questions. That is why a subjective decision was made to omit these rhetorical figures of thought

Figure 5. Logical chains of hypotheses



and continue analysing the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising on the basis of *metaphor*, *exclamation*, *antithesis*, *hyperbole*, and *accumulation*. In fact, these rhetorical figures delineate the figures of thought dimension of tourism advertising. **The special features of this rhetorical profile are comparatively high levels of use (proportions) of exclamation, antithesis, and accumulation and comparatively low levels of use of metaphor and hyperbole** (Table 8).

Table 8. Rhetorical profile of tourism advertising slogans: specific features

	Relatively high (+)	Relatively low (-)
Figures of thought	1. Exclamation 2. Antithesis 3. Aposiopesis 4. Accumulation	1. Metaphor 2. Hyperbole 3. Rhetorical question
Figures of speech	1. Appeal 2. Epithet	1. Anaphora 2. Pun

The careful analysis of the use of figures of speech in tourism and non-tourism advertising reveals that some proportions are so small that they could be ignored when outlining the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising (albeit the *z*-test statistically confirms significant differences). Hence, the use of etymological figures, alliteration, repetition, neologism, epiphora, assonance, gradation, rhyme, and resonance will not be discussed further. From the point of view of rhetorical figures of speech, we argue that tourism advertising is characterised by: (1) relatively (compared to non-tourism advertising) high levels of use of appeal and epithet; (2) relatively low usage of anaphora and puns.

CONCLUSION

The presented study is directed towards the usage of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising slogans. The main research results might be classified into two groups. The first group encompasses general conclusions about the use of rhetorical figures. The second group incorporates research results concerning the rhetorical profile of tourism advertising.

The general research results (belonging to the first group) could be summarised as follows: (1) the average length of Bulgarian advertising

slogans is 3.7 words; (2) about three-quarters (77.4%) of advertising slogans contain at least one rhetorical figure; (3) Over 20% of all advertising slogans contain more than one rhetorical figure (calculated on the basis of a slogan with a rhetorical figure); (4) the usage frequency of *figures of thought* is considerably higher than the usage frequency of *figures of speech*—the ratio is 616:366 (1.68); (5) the most popular rhetorical figures of thought in Bulgarian advertising include metaphor, exclamation, and antithesis, while the rarest ones are anadiplosis, litotes, metonymy, climax, oxymoron, personification, epanalepsis, inversion, paronomasia, and application; (6) appeal, epithet, and anaphora are figures of speech used quite often in Bulgarian advertising;

The second group of research findings is connected with the **rhetorical profile** of tourism advertising:

(1) Compared to slogans in the rest of the product categories, tourism advertising slogans proved to be **among the longest** ones. The tourism advertising slogans are significantly longer compared to the slogans in the categories of Drinks, Automobiles and petrol stations, Technology and communications, Financial services, and Other product categories. The average slogan length in tourism advertising is 4.1 words.

(2) Tourism advertising slogans are **more saturated** with rhetorical figures than non-tourism ones: the ratio “with rhetorical figure:without rhetorical figure” equals 4.4 for tourism advertising and 3.4 for non-tourism advertising.

(3) In the research process it was found that the usage frequency of certain rhetorical figures in tourism advertising is **relatively higher** (+) than their usage frequency in the rest of the categories. These rhetorical figures include:

- Within figures of thought (+) – exclamation, antithesis, aposiopesis, and accumulation.
- Within figures of speech (+) – appeal and epithet.

(4) The usage frequency of other rhetorical figures proved to be **relatively lower** (–) in tourism advertising compared to their usage frequency in the rest of the categories:

- Within figures of thought (–) – metaphor, hyperbole, and rhetorical question.
- Within figures of speech (–) – anaphora and pun.

(5) Finally, we analysed the usage of rhetorical figures across product categories. From the perspective of the usage of *figures of thought*, we discovered a significant diversity. In the advertising slogans of Financial services, we found relatively less diversity of rhetorical figures of thought

(accumulation, exclamation, and metaphor). A great variety of figures of thought was revealed in the advertising slogans emanating from the following categories: Chain stores and shopping centres, Tourism, and Clothing and cosmetics. Therefore, Tourism is among the first three categories from the point of view of diversity of figures of thought. Regarding the usage of *figures of speech* across product categories, we should mention that the smallest diversity of figures of speech was detected in the advertising slogans of Financial services. On the opposite side is the category of Automobiles and petrol stations, where the greatest diversity of figures of speech was found. Considerable diversity of figures of speech was also observed in the categories of Chain stores and shopping centres, Tourism, Foodstuffs, and Drinks. In fact, the tourism advertising slogans are characterised by a **large rhetorical diversity**.

This study may serve as a starting point for follow-up studies in the subject area. A very important direction for future research concerns rhetoric's influence on advertising effectiveness. Research data about the effectiveness of each rhetorical figure will be extremely useful for advertising practitioners. The future research of rhetorical figures in tourism advertising must also delve into other advertising elements (not just slogans), such as headlines, sub-headlines, and visual components. An emphasis must be put on visual rhetorical figures. Another important field for future exploration is the use of rhetorical figures in different product categories (not only Tourism). Researchers should answer the following questions: What is the contribution of each rhetorical figure to advertising effectiveness? Does this contribution vary across product categories? Does this contribution vary across target groups (from demographic, educational, economic, and cultural perspectives)? Does this contribution vary across media channels? What is the effect of combining two or more rhetorical figures in an advertising message?

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APPENDIX 1. FIGURES OF THOUGHT

(1) Accumulation is a figure of thought by which the evidence is accumulated. It is provided by successive use of notions, phrases, or terms that have the same function in speech. In this way, a characterisation of the specific object or event is obtained. Example: “Charming, Captivating, and Relaxing”.

(2) Allusion is a rhetorical figure that influences by the suggestion or hint of a fictional character, historical event, geographical location, or titles of books, movies, music ideas, sayings, proverbs, etc. already known to the reader. Through allusion something is expressed in an implicit way. Example: “Rhodopes – the Land of Orpheus”.

(3) Anadiplosis is a figure of thought in which at the beginning of the next sentence/clause a single word or a part from the previous one is repeated. It has a strong argumentative role. Example: “We do not give advice, we give credit”.

(4) Antiaclimax is a figure of thought in which the rhetorical effect is achieved by arranging similar concepts, signs, or objects in descending semantic order. It has the opposite effect compared to climax. It gradually reduces the strength of the emotional or logical impact.

(5) Antithesis is a figure of thought, which arises as a result of opposition in

thinking. It consists in juxtaposing of contrasting words or ideas and thus achieves greater expressiveness. US President John F. Kennedy used antithesis in his opening speech: "Ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country." This figure of speech can be illustrated with the advertising slogan of the hotel Azzuro: "Our care is your carelessness!" Here the contrast exists not only in nouns such as "care" and "careless" but also in the possessive pronouns of the first and second person, the plural form, for example "our" and "your".

(6) **Application** is the use of proverbs, sayings, quotations, aphorisms, and poems in the argumentation that are used literally or in a modified form. Application is characterised by wit, expressiveness, and imagery that provoke the thinking of the recipient. Use of this figure demonstrates a clear position. Example: "East or West – 'Dori' is the Best".

(7) **Aposiopesis** means silence. Breaking off the phrase in the middle or end of the sentence and thus creating a feeling of incompleteness leaving the recipient to be the one who can finish the missed thought. In written language it is usually marked by ellipsis, which is called "meaningful silence". Aposiopesis refers to means of persuasion or suggestion which are outside the boundaries of logic. A typical example of this figure of thought is the advertising slogan "And your house began to live ..."

(8) **Exclamation** is a figure of thought that has an emotive function. It can express enthusiasm or any other feeling. The advertising slogan "Enigmatic Destination!" can be mentioned as an example.

(9) **Epanalepsis** is a figure of thought that contains a repetition of a word or phrase at the beginning and the end of a phrase, sentence, or line. It has a strong expressive effect and makes the argumentation more convincing, more logical, and at the same time more emotional. A typical example of epanalepsis is the slogan "Relaxation—That's What We Offer—Relaxation".

(10) **Inversion** is a displacement of the elements in the syntactic structure. It is used in order to focus on something. Its functions include informational, suggestive, or persuasive elements. This rhetorical figure helps the speaker to attract the audience's attention. Example: "Impossible is Nothing".

(11) **Climax** is a persuasive statement in which each preceding part is the basis for the next, which in turn adds expressiveness to the slogan. It occurs as a gradation of the characteristics of a particular object in ascending order. This figure is the opposite of anticlimax. A typical example of climax is the advertising slogan "Lasts Longer, Much Longer".

(12) **Litotes** is a deliberate understatement of an object's characteristics or dimensions. Sometimes it is used as ridicule or mockery. It is the opposite of hyperbole. This figure is not used frequently in the advertising slogans that are part of this study. Example: "Wow, That Vacation Was Not Too Bad! Not Too Bad At All."

(13) **Metaphor** is a rhetorical figure which transfers the characteristics of one object or phenomenon to another object or phenomenon (based on similarity). Metaphorical

images are those that contribute to the development of new ideas and to reforming traditional ones. Using them is a reflection of originality in thinking. In addition, they expand the visual possibilities of the language as a whole. They may be associated with the expression of tragedy, humour, criticism, and so on. Examples of the application of this rhetorical figure in advertising slogans in Bulgaria are numerous. Examples: "Visit the Pearl of Bansko", "Tenerife – The Island of Eternal Spring".

(14) Metonymy is a figure of speech in which a thing or concept is called not by its own name but rather by the name of something associated in meaning with that thing or concept. It can be defined as a figure that replaces (based on similarity) the sign for one object with the sign for another one. A very clear example of metonymy is the use of nicknames (when we call a car a "ladybug" instead of its brand name, for example, we mean that it is small, agile, and probably red). Metonymy enables demonstration of originality, focusing the attention on new aspects of traditional human thinking where the interpretation depends on the context. An example of metonymy could be the advertising slogan "The Leisure of the South", assuming that the phrase "Black Sea Coast" was absolutely meant to be replaced by the word "South".

(15) Oxymoron is a figure that contains words with opposite meanings. This combination of words gives a new meaning and insight and enhances expressiveness. Examples: guest host, loud whisper, terribly good.

(16) Parallelism is the repletion of semantic or syntactic similarities that creates emphasis. Depending on whether you are comparing images, episodes, or syntactic structures, we can distinguish several types of parallelism: figurative, narrative, and syntactic parallelism. The most common type of parallelism discovered by our analysis is the use of phrases with similar or the same syntactic structure. Example: "Pleasant trip, pleasant food".

(17) Paronomasia is achieved through the use of words that are homonyms or paronyms and thus contributes to the proof of a specific statement in an unusual way—through imagination, sense of humour, or suggestion. Example: "Reliable reservation, relaxing vacation".

(18) Personification is a figure of thought in which human qualities and actions are attributed to an inanimate object or a creature that has no consciousness. This is one of the oldest argumentative methods, especially in terms of religious beliefs and mythology. This figure can be achieved through the use of metaphor, metonymy, or synecdoche. Example: "The Black Sea Is Calling You".

(19) Rhetorical questions are questions that do not require a response, but that stimulate the recipient to focus on the speaker's viewpoint. In fact, the listener is provoked to consider a particular problem and to seek a new solution. The usage of rhetorical questions reinforces the emotional impact and the focus on the main idea. Example: "What About a 5-Star Sunset?"

(20) Synecdoche is a type of metonymy. Due to its widespread use, some authors differentiate it as a separate figure. Its application is related to giving a wider or narrower meaning of the term compared to its normal use. The most frequently used

type of synecdoche is the replacement of the name of the whole with the name of a part of it or, vice versa, the part instead of the whole. There could be many different cases of substitution: denote the subject through its typical part, quality replaces its carrier, the author's name is used to indicate their work, the name of an object is replaced with the material, which it is made from, etc. An example of synecdoche is the slogan "Vacation on Wheels", where the word "wheels" obviously replaces the word "automobiles".

(21) **Hyperbole** is an excessive, deliberate overstatement/understatement of the size, features, or characteristics of an object, person, or action. It is often used to express irony or sarcasm. Examples of hyperbole: "The party never ends", "The city never sleeps".

APPENDIX 2. FIGURES OF SPEECH

(1) **Alliteration** is the repetition of one or more similar consonants in adjacent words. Example: "Sun, Sea, and Sand Holiday" (alliteration of "s").

(2) **Anaphora** is a stylistic figure and this is the repetition of the same characters, the same parts of words, whole words, or phrases at the beginning of sentences. It can be created through syntheses—combinations of several words. It is used to affect the listener emotionally and psychologically, to provoke a stronger reaction or their attitude. Moreover, the repetition of the same element is used for amplification of symmetry in the rhythmic plan. Examples of the use of this figure of speech are the advertising slogans "Always Here, Always with You", "Always Fresh, Always Exciting", etc.

(3) **Appeal** is a figure of speech that is used as a call and to attract attention. It is used to create a favourable attitude towards the adoption of a particular idea, and to neutralise negative attitudes towards it. A typical example is the manifestation of this figure in the advertising slogan "Enjoy the Comfort!"

(4) **Assonance** is the repetition of vowel sounds, preceded and followed by different consonants, mostly in stressed syllables of adjacent words. Assonance of the sound "e" is clearly audible in the advertising "The Best Rest for Our Guests".

(5) **Epiphora** (epistrophe, antistrophe) is the repetition of the same word or group of words at the end of phrases or sentences. It increases the expressiveness of the speech and its rhythm. It gives the impression of certainty and attitude towards the specific problem. Repetition facilitates the recipient adopting the idea and provokes an emotional and psychological attitude of the audience towards it. When epistrophe is used together with anaphora a symplece is formed. An example of epistrophe is the advertising slogan "Come to Nature! Feel the Nature!"

(6) **Epithet** is the artistic definition of the object, indicating some quality. It is used when we are looking for security and evidence during the presentation of a specific idea or value. Concepts that are accompanied by epithets stand out due to their emotional impact as well as their greater imagery and expressiveness. Epithets can be autonomous figures, but they can also be linked with others and form a gradation, repetition, and antithesis. A typical example of the use of the epithet is the advertising slogan "Conquering Desire".

(7) **Etymological figure** is another rhetorical technique which is a structure in which words that have the same root are connected in an expression. Etymological figures are used in the advertising slogan of a grand hotel “The Only One”.

(8) **Gradation** is a sequence of several syntactically equivalent, uniform words or phrases by which a particular idea, image, or feeling is presented in order of progressive ascent or descent, that is, amplifying or weakening of the emotion. There are two types of gradation: descending and ascending. An example for ascending gradation is the advertising slogan “Only You, Your Dreams, and Your Journey”.

(9) **Neologism** creates a new word from two or more existing words or fragments of words. Examples: “Incredible India”, “Enjoyneering”, “Unique Charomat”.

(10) **Pun** is based on superficial or accidental resemblance—two words that sound similar in composition but different in meaning (paronyms) or a word that has two or more different meanings (homonyms). A pun is consciously created and deliberate so as to reinforce ambiguity, to make the choices between the meanings impossible, and to make the listener or reader hesitate. The use of a pun flatters the intellectual abilities of the audience that it is intended for, as they show that they have the appropriate knowledge to solve the mystery set in the message (Mulken et al., 2005). An interesting example of wordplay is the advertising slogan “I feel SLOVEnia”.

(11) **Repetition** is deliberately repeating terms, paragraphs, or phrases in order to convey a particular idea. It has an expressive effect and enhances the impression of certain concepts. An example of this figure of speech is the repetition of the epithet in the advertising slogan of a high class hotel: “Special Moments for Special People”.

(12) **Resonance** is a literary device that is often used by professionals in advertising that combines a pun and a relevant image, that is, a phrase acquires significance by its juxtaposition with a particular picture. An example of resonance comes from a magazine advert with text reading “It’s Haute as Hell in Aspen” combined with a picture showing boots in snow (McQuarrie and Mick 1992, p.182).

(13) **Rhyme** is the use of one, two, or more words/phrases that correspond in sound. Examples: “Austria—Arrive and Revive” and “Feel the Breeze, Surf with Ease”.

(14) **Symploce** is a repetition of a phrase or word both at the beginning and at the end of successive clauses. This rhetorical figure is a combination of anaphora and epiphora. Example: “Find the rainbow. Taste the rainbow.”

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ECONOMIC GROWTH AND INTERNATIONAL VISITORS TO MEXICO: A VAR MODEL

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Mexico's momentum in economic growth recently has been lost, reporting 1.8% and 2.1% annual increases in total real gross domestic product (GDP) in 2013 and 2014, respectively. Policy reforms, particularly energy policy, intended to stimulate greater growth will need time to take hold. Increasingly, the tourism industry is viewed a potential growth driver of Mexico's economy. We estimate a vector autoregressive (VAR) model to explore the relationship between Mexico's GDP and the number of international visitors over time. Our results reveal a Granger causality relationship between GDP and the number of international tourists over the period of the study, which suggests that the promotion of tourism can generate significant support to the economic dynamism of the country.

Keywords: GDP, International tourism, VAR Model

INTRODUCTION

The review by Romero and Molina (2013) found that from a total of 87 studies, 55 demonstrated an unambiguous relationship linking tourism to economic growth, 16 of them identified an ambiguous causal relationship, and 9 of them found that the connection was flowing from the economic growth to tourism, while the rest (7) found no statistical relationship between the variables.



This body of research examines the various ways in which a flow of benefits from international tourism to national economies might be observed. Among others, we can deduce that tourism: i) increases (export) income from foreign exchange that could be used to finance imports; ii) encourages investment and creates incentives for local enterprises to improve quality and/or increase efficiency due to increased competition; iii) reduces unemployment, since tourism activities typically require relatively high levels of labor in the input mix; and, iv) generates economies of scale due to decreases in production costs for local enterprises.

Among the studies that found an unambiguous relationship, Lanza et al.(2003) and Seqyeruia and Nunes (2008) found that the size of a country is not important for verifying the tourism led growth hypothesis (TLGH). Adamou and Clorides (2010) and Holzner (2011) also argue in favor of the TLGH, but additionally emphasize that the level of tourism specialization in the national economy does matter.

Although empirical evidence suggests that tourism activities generate economic growth are abundant, the relevant literature can also point to a different conclusion; the most plausible being that economic growth positively affects tourism (reversing the hypothesized causality). For example, Payne and Mervar (2010) conclude the economic development of a country is dependent on a set of well-designed economic policies, government structure and investments in physical and human capital. In turn, these elements create a socioeconomic climate that encourages tourism activities.

Narayan (2004) employs a autogressive distributed lag framework with cointegration and error modelling techniques and finds that an increase in per capita income among Fijians resulted in greater international tourism visits to the island nation from 1970 to 2000. Results showed that a 1% increase of the GDP in Australia, New Zealand and the USA implied an increase in tourist arrivals to Fiji of 3.6%; 3.1% and 4.3% respectively. Using a bivariate autoregressive vector on quarterly data from 1975 to 2001, Oh (2005) found that the economic expansion of South Korea had a positive effect on the number of international visitors. Similarly, using a Toda-Yamamoto causality test, Payne and Mervar (2010) found a positive effect of GDP on international tourism activity in Croatia from 2000-08. The authors followed the Toda-Yamamoto causality test.

In some cases statistically relevant correlation is found between international tourism and economy wide growth, but the direction of causality is not clear. Chen and Chiou (2009) use an EGARCH model, Riderstaat et al. (2013) employ cointegration and Granger causality

analysis, and Apergis and Payne (2010) with a panel correction model, among others, all found evidence of bidirectional causality between tourism and economic growth, implying that the government should attend to general and sectoral stimulous policies simultaneously.

Finally, some studies conclude there is insufficient support of the hypothesis that general economic growth and growth of international tourism are connected. Although Figini and Vici (2009) find that a one standard deviation increase in the tourism specialization index would induce a 0.58% increase in national growth rates for the 1980-2005 period, they also argue that these results are problematic since endogeneity and lack of control variable may be important. Finals results, when using controls like investment or a tourism specialization coefficient, become relatively unconvincing or insignificant.

Here, the hypothesis is tested for the Mexican case using a vector autoregressive, or VAR, model. Our principal finding is evidence of the existence of Granger Causality from international tourism activity to national economic growth. This result is the most important because it demonstrates that public or private investments or policies to encourage the sectoral growth will influence the national growth trajectory.

METHODOLOGY

The VAR Model is a tool of multivariate time series, originally proposed by Sims (1980) for macroeconomic analysis. For a system with two variables, the causality can be analyzed in three ways: X causes Y; Y causes X; or X causes Y at the same time that Y causes X. Finally, analysis of the data may reveal no causal link between the focal variables; they are statistically independent. According to Lutkepohl (2005, 2011) and Enders (2004), the object of interest in the VAR Model (p), represented as:

$$y_t = v + A_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + u_t, t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots,$$

Where $y_t = (y_{1t}, \dots, y_{kt})'$ is a random vector ($K \times 1$), A_i is represented by a matrix of the size ($k \times k$) and the coefficient vector is specified as $v = (v_1, \dots, v_k)'$, that represents a vector of the size ($k \times 1$). Finally, $u_t = (u_{1t}, \dots, u_{kt})'$, is a k -dimensional matrix, of white noise or innovation process, that is the same to $E(u_t) = 0$, $E(u_t u_t') = \Sigma u$ and $E(u_t u_s') = 0$ for $s \neq t$.

The covariance matrix Σ_u is assumed to be nonsingular. The first step for modeling a time series through a VAR model requires a stable A_i matrix that can be inverted. To test these properties, it is convenient to represent a VAR model with only one lag as:

$$y_t = v + A_1 y_{t-1} + u_t.$$

Assuming that the dynamic process starts at $t=1$, then we have:

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= v + A_1 y_0 + u_{t1}, \\ y_2 &= v + A_1 y_1 + u_2 = v + A_1(v + A_1 y_0 + u_1) + u_2 \\ &\quad (I_K + A_1)v + A_1^2 y_0 + A_1 u_1 + u_2, \\ y_t &= (I_K + A_1 + \dots + A_1^{t-1})v + A_1^t y_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} A_1^i u_{t-i} \end{aligned}$$

and, the vectors $y_1 \dots y_t$ are only determined by $u_0, u_1, \dots, u_t$. Also, the union of the distribution of $y_1 \dots y_t$ is determined by the union of the distribution of y_0, u_1, u_t .

Although the process began at a specific time, it is convenient to assume that it began in the infinite past. To find a process consistent with this assumption, we have to consider the VAR (1) process again, with the following representation:

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= v + A_1 y_{t-1} + u_t. \\ &= (I_K + A_1 + \dots + A_1^j)v + A_1^{j+1} y_{t-j-1} + \sum_{i=0}^j A_1^i u_{t-i} \end{aligned}$$

If all the eigenvalues of A_1 have a modulus of less than 1, the sequence

$$A_1^i, i = 0, 1, \dots,$$

In absolute terms, the sum of the elements is infinite and it can be represented as:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_1^i u_{t-i}$$

However, considering the next expression:

$$(I_K + A_1 + \dots + A_1^j)v \xrightarrow{j \rightarrow \infty} (I_K - A_1)^{-1} v$$

Where, A_{l+j+l} converge from zero quickly as $j \rightarrow \infty$, and the term $A_{l+j+l}y_{t-j-l}$ is represented at the limit. Thus, all the values of A_1 have the modula of less than 1, and if y_t is a VAR (1) process, then y_t is well defined like a stochastic process:

$$y_t = \mu + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A_1^i u_{t-i}, \quad t = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots,$$

Where: $\mu := (I_K - A_1)^{-1}v$

The distributions and united distributions of y_t 's are only determined because of the distribution of processes u_t . If these processes are satisfied, then we are in position to guarantee the stability of the VAR process and we can continue with its representation, its bounding and its estimation. To ascertain the bounding, the estimation and the identification properties, is necessary to identify the optimal lag length according to the following criteria:

- i) Akaike Criterion (AIC) establishes an optimal lag at the minimum value of:

$$\text{Det} \ln |\hat{\Sigma}(p)| + K^2 p \frac{2}{T}$$

Where $\hat{\Sigma}$ represents the covariance matrix obtained by applying OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) to the VAR model; P is the number of lags, K represents the number of variables and T is the sample size.

- ii) Hannan and Orwin Criterion (HQC) estimates the minimum value of:

$$\text{Det} \ln |\hat{\Sigma}(p)| + K^2 p \frac{2 \ln(\ln T)}{T}$$

- iii) Schwarz / Bayes Criterion (SBIC) establishes the minimum determinant corresponding to:

$$\text{Det ln}|\hat{\Sigma}(p)| + K^2 p - \frac{\ln T}{T}$$

Where $\hat{\Sigma}$ is the covariance matrix in obtained by Ordinary Least Squares (OLS). Then, the length of the lag has to be chosen according to the minimum value of these criteria.

When these techniques do not generate a consensus choice of the optimal lag, we can resort to a Likelihood Ratio (LR) test, to find the appropriate criterion to choose the number of optimal lags. This test consists of comparing the result of a VAR (0) model with the result of a VAR (1) model, and with the result of a VAR (2) model and so on. The LR Criterion is obtained from estimating the determinant in the next equation:

$$(T - P_2 K^2) \text{Det ln}|\hat{\Sigma}(P_1)| - \ln|\hat{\Sigma}(P_2)|$$

Where, $P_1 = 1$ is the restricted model lag, and, $P_2 = 2$ is the unrestricted model lag. In a restricted VAR a value and/or a defined structure is included (like in Granger Causality). A general VAR does not present this kind of restriction, so it is known as an *unrestricted VAR*. Then, the results of the LR Criterion of the VAR (0) restricted with the VAR (1) unrestricted (more generally) will be compared and the one with the higher value of $p \leq 0.05$ is chosen.

GRANGER CAUSALITY

Granger Causality is a concept exclusive to VAR with no counterpart in the Theory of Univariate Series. It represents a standard method of determining when a variable predicts another and, also, it provides a means to reach a decision of when a VAR model is appropriate.

Granger Causality is defined when a random scalar variable $\{X_t\}$. It is said that does not demonstrate causality –in Granger sense – when the variable $\{y_t\}$ is:

$$E[y_t x_{t-1}; y_{t-1}; x_{t-2}; \dots] = E[y_t y_{t-1}; y_{t-2}; \dots]$$

This means that the variation of the value of y_t only depends on the values of that same variable y_t at the time $t-1$, $t-2$, etc.... and does not

depend on the values of x_t . This formulation is appropriate to evaluate Granger Causality at the mean.

Lütkepohl (2005) indicates that the definition can be explained as a definition at the mean in the variance or in the distribution of probabilities. However, Enders (2004) explains that the definition at the mean variance is easier to understand because it uses scalar vectors that are easier to compare among them, than the variance of distributions. For this reason, we have adopted Enders' Criterion as follows.

Generalizing Granger Causality, we have that for a VAR (p) k-dimensional:

$$y_t = \phi_0 + \phi_1 y_{t-1} + \phi_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_k y_{t-p} + \epsilon_t$$

or

$$y_t = VA_1 y_{t-1} + A_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + A_p y_{t-p} + \epsilon_t$$

if:

$$\phi_{ij,1} = \phi_{ij,2} = \phi_{ij,3}, \dots, \phi_{ij,p} = 0$$

Thus, the quotient or verisimilitude test can be calculated as:

$$(T - (PK^2 - K)) (\ln|\widehat{\Sigma}_r| - \ln|\widehat{\Sigma}_u|)$$

Where, $\widehat{\Sigma}_r$: the estimated residual covariance of the restricted VAR y
 $\widehat{\Sigma}_u$: the estimated residual covariance of the unrestricted VAR. This expression is similar to the verisimilitude test (Likelihood Ratio) for optimal lags, but with the following differences: a) It no longer depends on P (number of lags) and, b) The covariance of the restricted VAR model and the unrestricted VAR model ($\widehat{\Sigma}$) can be extracted from this new residual model.

Estimation of the VAR Model by OLS (Ordinary Least Squares)

Now, to describe the process of the technique of the Ordinary Least Squares in a VAR model, we proceed to find the estimator on the next expressions:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= (y_1, \dots, y_T)(K * T) \\
 B_1 &= (V, A_1, \dots, A_p)[K * (Kpt)] \\
 z_i &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ yt \\ y - p - t \end{bmatrix} [(K_{p+1}) * T] \\
 Z &= [Z_0, \dots, Z_{T-1}] [(Kp + 1) * T] \\
 u_i &= (u_i \dots u_T)(K * T)
 \end{aligned}$$

We assume that we have $y_1, \dots, y_T$, time series of a sample of the size T for each one of the K variables. Now, considering P lags, we can rewrite the VAR (p) as:

$$y_t = VA_1y_{t-1} + A_2y_{t-2} + \dots + A_p y_{t-p} + Ut$$

Using these expressions, we can show the VAR as: $Y = BZ + U$. To find the size of the matrix B , we have to re-express the VAR model in matrix terms, as:

$$Y = BZ + U$$

Now, to estimate the value of B , we take the expression $Y_t = BZ_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1 + Ut$ and we multiply it by Z_{t-1} , to obtain:

$$Y_t = BZ_{t-1}Z_{t-1}^1 + U_tZ_{t-1}^1$$

Where Z_{t-1}^1 is the transposed matrix of Z_{t-1} . Once the multiplication is complete, we obtain the expected value of each member of the equation:

$$E(y_t Z_{t-1}^1) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=r}^T y_t Z_{t-1}^1$$

The main interest in obtaining the expected values is to convert a vector expression in a scalar expression. Thus, the expectation of B is equal to:

$$E(BZ_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1) = BE(Z_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1)$$

Assuming that B is a constant value matrix:

$$= B \frac{1}{T} \sum_t^T Z_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1$$

Then, obtaining the expected value of:

$$E(BZ_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=r}^T Z_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1$$

This expression represents the expected value of only one product. Finally, we obtain the expected value of Shock $U_{Zt,1}$, where, $E(U + Z_{t-1}) = 0$ y $Z_{t,1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ y_t \end{pmatrix}$

Therefore, we have:

$$E(Y + Z_{t-1}) = E(BZ_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1) \\ \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=r}^T Z_{t,1} = B \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=r}^T Z_{t-1} Z_{t-1}^1$$

This expression can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{1}{T} YZ^1 = \frac{1}{T} B Z Z^1$$

Since $\frac{1}{T}$ represents a scalar number, the expression can be reduced, which yields:

$$YZ = B Z Z^1$$

As with the other matrix expressions, the problem reduces in only the inverse matrix of $Z Z^1$, to finally get the B value:

$$(Y Z^1) (Z Z^1)^{-1} = B (Z Z^1) (Z Z^1)^{-1}$$

This multiplication gives us a result, the identity matrix:

$$(Y Z^1)(Z Z^1) = B * I = B$$

To finally get to:

$$(YZ^1)(ZZ^1) = B$$

RESULTS

The analysis presents the unit root test for the time series of the variables that were used in the model using Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF), Phillis-Perron (PP) Kwiatowski-Phillips-Smicht-Shin (KPSS) tests. The ADF and PP Tests are based on the fact that the null hypothesis establishes that the respective time series are stationary in difference while the unit root test of KPSS is based on the fact that the null hypothesis establishes that the time series are stationary in tendency.

Table 1. Unit Root Test

Variable	ADF (C)	ADF (C+T)	PP (C)	PP (C+T)	KPSS (C)	KPSS (C+T)
GPIB	-0-10	-2.55	-0.37	-2.46	0.65	0.12
ΔPIB	-5.87	-5.92	-5.94	-6.05	0.09	0.06
Int						
Tourists	-0.59	-2.19	-0.56	-2.41	0.89	0.11*
Δ Int						
Tourists	-5.57	-5.48	-5.58	-5.50	0.09	0.08

Notes: Critical values for the ADF(C) and PP(C) unit root tests which include only a constant: a(1%) -3.66, b(5%) -2.96, and c(10%) -2.61. Critical value for the KPSS(C) unit root test which includes only a constant: a(1%) 0.739, b(5%) 0.463, and c(10%) 0.347. Critical values for the ADF(C + T) and PP(C + T) unit root tests which include both a constant and trend: a(1%) -3.66, b(5%) -2.96, and c(10%) -2.61. Critical values for the KPSS(C + T) unit root test which includes both a constant and trend: a(1%) 0.21, b(5%) 0.14, and c(10%) 0.11.

The evidence shows that the time series are stationary again when it has generated the first differences and that is why we can suspect that the order of integration is equal to one (1). If the long-run relationships remains stable during the time period's sample, it is possible to assure that a structural change does not exist, and the outcomes will be more robust. The structural change test, suggested by Bai and Perron (2003) was implemented for the log series individually. No breaks were found using the minimum parameter value of the Schwartz information criterion.

Empirically, we follow the proposal used by Toda & Yamamoto (1995) to apply the asymptotic distribution theory. Basically, the proposal uses a VAR model ($p+d$) to generate the Granger Causality Test, if the variables are integrated (p presents the order of lags of the VAR and d the order of integration of the incorporated variables).

Table 2 shows the Akaike (AIC); Hanna (HQ); Schwarz (SC) and Final Predictor (FPE) criteria to estimate the optimal lag of the series.

Table 2. Optimal lags of the VAR model series				
Lag	AIC	HQ	SC	FPE
1	0.0724	0.07257	0.0727	0.0003071
2	0.0719	0.07207	0.0722	0.0001748
3	0.0718	0.07201	0.0729	0.0001575
4	0.07173	0.07196	0.0723	0.0001429
5	0.07170	0.07198	0.0724	0.0001390*
6	0.07174	0.07206	0.0725	0.0001442
7	0.07176	0.07213	0.0726	0.0001483
8	0.07182	0.07223	0.0728	0.0001573
9	0.07183	0.07230	0.0722	0.0001608
10	0.07173	0.07225	0.0730	0.0001468

* indicates lag order selected by the criterion

AIC: Akaike information criterion; HQ: Hanna-Quartz information criterion; SC: Schwarz information criterion; FPE: Final prediction error

In the table we can see that under the AIC and FPE criteria the optimal number lags is five. However, using the HQ criterion, the optimal number

of lags is four and two based on the SC. As a result, the number of lags terms to use is inconclusive. We used the Portmanteau test on the three models under consideration (five, four and two lags) to test the null hypothesis that the residuals of these models are not correlated with obtaining the results.

Table 3. Serial Correlation Test		
Model	Chi-square	p-value
Two Lags	82.7751	0.01153
Four Lags	57.9368	0.1542
Five Lags	53.0608	0.1644

Clearly, the models with four and five lags stop being seriously correlated. Following the Toda & Yamamoto (1995) criterion, we choose the five lag model, due to its superior p-value.

According to the Toda & Yamamoto (1995) process, a VAR model (p+d) should be considered. Therefore, with five lags in total and taking into account that the order of the co-integration is one, the VAR model to be estimated becomes part of a bi-dimensional model with six optimal lags.

Using a statistical series for GDP and international tourists from the World Bank, we can estimate a VAR model that is both a stable system and is invertible, as we can see in Table 4 of the roots of the characteristic polynomial. Table 4 illustrates that all numbers are greater unity, implying that time series of the VAR model does not diverge.

Table 4. Stability of the models test		
Model	GDP	International visitors
Root of the characteristic polynomial with two lags	1.2300	1.2300
Root of the characteristic polynomial with two lags	1.1646	1.1818
Root of the characteristic polynomial with two lags	1.065	1.1990

Finally, the Wald test establishes that there is only one causal relationship, and this goes from the tourism to the GDP, with $p < 0.033$ in the first panel of the next table

Table 5. Wald Test

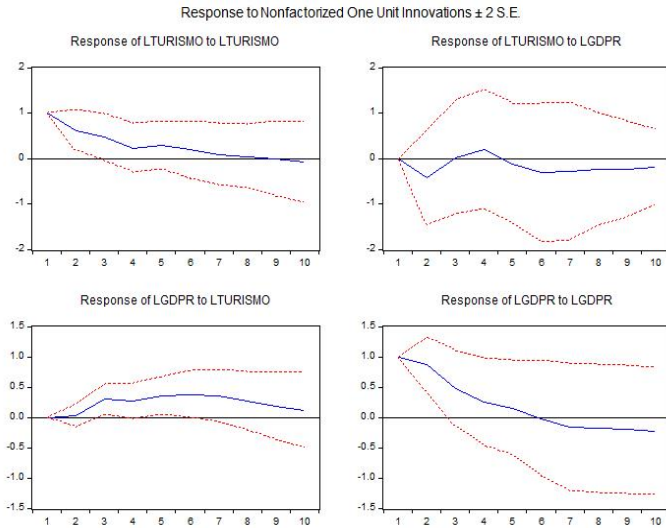
Dependent Variable: Logarithm of GDP			
	Chi-square	Grades of freedom	P-value
L international visitors	12.2	5	0.033
Could not be rejected ($X^2=8.6$; $p=0.2$)			
Dependent Variable: L international visitors			
	Chi-square	Grades of freedom	P-value
LPIB	6.3	5	0.28
Could be rejected at 10% ($X^2=12.3$; $p=0.056$)			

The Wald Test results we obtained establish that there is only one causal relationship in the long term between the tourist expenditure and GDP variables and that the causality goes from tourist expenditure to GDP. With all former test results it is possible to have an empirical convergence vector estimation of the time series, as highlighted in Table 6. Our results indicate a 10% increase in international tourists arrivals to Mexico results in an almost 2% increase in GDP per capita using one period lag of the explanatory variable.

Table 6. Convergence vector estimation			
Variable	Coefficient	Standard deviation	T-stat
LGDP (-1)	0.165324	0.023	7.18
LTURISMO (-1)	0.0189	0.0093	2.03

In order to look at the dynamic path of a tourist shock per capita GDP in Mexico an impulse response analysis was undertaken (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Impulse response of GDP to Tourism shocks.



Focusing on the response of LGDPR to LTURISMO, we show that a positive shock to the tourism sector results in a positive response to GDP after the second term and this effect remains positive over the next five terms (second graph to the bottom left).

Despite the knowledge that Mexico is a developing country with a relatively low level of tourist specialization and considering that the variable representing tourism was used in an unstructured VAR model, this study shows that there is solid empirical evidence that tourism activity has a positive impact on per capita income in Mexico over the study period. Exploring the vulnerability or sensitivity of tourist activities to additional variables potentially correlated with GDP levels or growth rates, such as lower crime rates, good transport network, good tourism infrastructure, low levels of poverty, public health events, etc., should be viewed as potentially useful future directions to research expansion in this area of inquiry.

Our conclusions support the results obtained by Brida (2008); Gallegos (2010); Nonthapot and Ueasin (2014) and Zeren (2015) in the direction of causality of the variables, but not in the magnitudes of the effects. Potentially, a different time series and different tourism variable specification may be responsible for these differences. Therefore, we find that supporting economic growth through increased investment in the

tourism sector is a good idea, especially since the effects of recent energy policy reform will take some years to consolidate.

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Tourism Expansion, Urbanization and Economic Growth in India: An Empirical Analysis

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The present study empirically investigate the causal nexus between tourism expansion, urbanization and economic growth in India using Granger Causality test over the period from 1995 to 2014. The empirical results revealed that tourism expansion and economic growth are independent of each other in the short-run and does not validate either tourism-led growth hypothesis or growth-led tourism hypothesis. Besides, the test results showed that one-way Granger causality runs from economic growth to urbanization and urbanization to tourism expansion in India. The study suggests that the urbanization and tourism expansion cannot be sustained if economic growth momentum is not enhanced in effective manner. By implementing vigorous economic growth strategies in India, the scope for urbanization and tourism will further widen.

Keywords: *Tourism, Urbanization, Economic Growth, Granger Causality, India*

JEL Classifications: C32, L83, O40, O18

INTRODUCTION

Over the decades, tourism has experienced continuous growth and deepening diversification to become one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world. Tourism has become an important sector that has an impact on development of national economy. It has been asserted that foreign tourism has a positive effect on the increase of long-run economic growth through different channels. First, tourism is a significant foreign exchange earner which allows for payment of imported capital goods or the basic



inputs used in the production process. Second, tourism plays an important role in stimulating investment in new infrastructure and competition between local firms and firms in other tourist countries. Third, tourism encourages other economic industries by direct, indirect and induced effects. Fourth, tourism contributes to generating employment and increasing income. Fifth, tourism can cause positive exploitation of economies of scale in national firms (Andriotis, 2002; Fagance, 1999; Lin and Liu, 2000; Schubert et al., 2011). Finally, tourism is an important factor in the diffusion of technical knowledge, stimulation of research and development and the accumulation of human capital.

In the emerging economies, tourism has become a very important element in all policies related to urban development, it is not just a strategy to provide a competitive product to meet visitors' expectations but a way to develop the city itself and provide more and better infrastructures and bring conditions to residents. Tourism needs the diverse and flexible products the urbanization can offer and urbanization need tourism to achieve their social and economic objectives.

Tourism has become a focal point for emerging Asia-Pacific nations like India. Tourism is also one of the major sectors of the economy, contributing to a large proportion of the National Income and generating huge employment opportunities. It has become the fastest growing service industry in the country with great potentials for its further expansion and diversification. India has been one of the most dynamic tourism markets over the past two decade and has become the world's top most important country in terms of international tourist arrivals. Table 1 presents the trends in international tourism arrivals and economic growth in India.

Table 1: International Tourism Arrivals and Gross Domestic Product in India

Year	GDP (Constant 2005 Billion US\$)	International Tourism (Number of Arrivals)	International Tourism Receipts as a percent of GDP*
1995	448.72	2,124,000	0.70
1996	482.60	2,288,000	0.71
1997	502.14	2,374,000	0.68
1998	533.20	2,359,000	0.69

1999	580.36	2,482,000	0.64
2000	602.65	2,649,000	0.75
2001	631.73	2,537,000	0.68
2002	655.76	2,384,000	0.63
2003	707.30	2,726,000	0.74
2004	763.34	3,457,000	0.87
2005	834.22	3,919,000	0.92
2006	911.50	4,447,000	0.94
2007	1000.84	5,082,000	0.91
2008	1039.78	5,283,000	1.02
2009	1127.95	5,168,000	0.82
2010	1243.68	5,776,000	0.85
2011	1326.24	6,309,000	0.96
2012	1393.63	6,578,000	1.00
2013	1489.78	6,968,000	1.02
2014	1600.27	7,168,000	NA

Source: World Development Indicator, World Bank.

Note: NA-denotes Not-Available. International Tourism as a percent of GDP is computed using International tourism, receipts (current US\$) and GDP at market prices (current US\$) database collected from World Development Indicator, World Bank.

The table reveals that the number of tourist arrivals in India have consistently increased from 2.1 million during 1995 and reached to 7.1 million in 2014. India complements Asia's newest prospects for economic superpower status with the proud heritage and culture. As a result, India's tourism industries experiencing a strong period of growth, driven by the burgeoning middle class (for domestic and outbound travel) and growth in high-spending foreign tourists. The tourism industry in India is substantial and vibrant, and the nation is fast becoming a major global destination as well as an outbound visitor generating market. However, the contribution of international tourism receipts towards GDP is found to be meager and it is ranges between 0.70 and 1.02 percent throughout the study period. Table 2

presents the trend of international tourism arrivals and urbanization in India. Urbanization, represented by total urban population, and tourists arrivals in the Indian economy have been steadily growing. The total urban population have rose to 419.23 million during 2014 from 255.66 percent in 1995. Simultaneously, the number of foreign arrivals visiting India has been consistently increasing.

Table 2: International Tourism Arrivals and Urbanization in India

Year	Tourism Arrivals (Millions in Nos.)	Urbanization (Million in Nos.)
1995	2.12	255.66
1996	2.29	262.62
1997	2.37	269.69
1998	2.36	276.87
1999	2.48	284.13
2000	2.65	291.47
2001	2.54	299.25
2002	2.38	307.91
2003	2.73	316.68
2004	3.46	325.57
2005	3.92	334.54
2006	4.45	343.62
2007	5.08	352.80
2008	5.28	362.07
2009	5.17	371.38
2010	5.78	380.74
2011	6.31	390.15
2012	6.58	399.69
2013	6.97	409.36
2014	7.20	419.23

Source: World Development Indicator, World Bank.

Note: Urbanization is represented by Total Urban Population in India.

India's changing urban landscape has become the engine of attracting foreign tourist arrivals and economic growth for the Indian economy. According to the Ministry of Urban Development, and the National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA), more than 50 per cent of India's population will be living in urban areas by 2039. With this rapid urbanization, India is embracing the push to create smart cities. Simultaneously, Indian cities are aggressively looking to improve their infrastructure, as well as the quality of life for their inhabitants. In view of growing urbanization, the Central and State Government implemented several other significant schemes with the Smart Cities Mission such as Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT), Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM), National Heritage City Development and Augmentation Yojana (HRIDAY), Digital India, Skill development, Housing for All, construction of Museums funded by the Culture Department and other programs connected to social infrastructure such as Health, Education and Culture. These initiatives with well managed Smart City would be able to attract tourists and businesses for its enhanced sustainability and quality of life to the people of the city, and in turn promotes economic activity.

Broadly speaking, the trend of growing tourism, in both absolute and relative terms, soaring urbanization and economic activity in the Indian economy raise an empirical question whether tourism growth actually causes the economic activity and urbanization which is known as the Tourism-led Growth hypothesis/Tourism-led Urbanization hypothesis in the economic literature or, alternatively, did economic growth strongly contribute to tourism growth and urbanization?, supporting Growth-led Tourism hypothesis/Growth-led Urbanization hypothesis or, did urbanization growth contribute to tourism and economic growth which is known as the Urbanization-led Tourism hypothesis/Urbanization-led Growth hypothesis/Tourism-led Urbanization hypothesis. Sometimes, did tourism, urbanization and economic growth are independent, validating the neutrality hypothesis which states that there is no causality between tourism, economic growth and urbanization. Considerable volume of research has been conducted on the subject, but still there exist conflicting evidences in the literature regarding the Tourism-Growth relationship. Insufficient literature on the Tourism-Urbanization nexus has contributed to the lack of understanding of tourism and its effects on the development of cities i.e. urbanization, and vice versa. Hence, the need to examine the causality between the tourism and urbanization has become much more relevant in the recent decades for the developing nations like India. Moreover, from the

related literature, it is clear that most of the studies have indeed been dealing with samples of developed countries belongs to the European Union, the Middle East, Africa and Americas. Despite the increasing importance of tourism for developing economies, a very few studies have been found to rigorously assess the Tourism-Urbanization-Growth nexus in the context of Indian economy.

Our paper attempts to investigate the causal nexus between tourism expansion, urbanization and economic growth in India using pair-wise Granger Causality approach. Throwing light on this subject will have important implications for the development of different tourism marketing and policy decisions in the context of urban transformation and economic activity. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section-II provides the related literature. Section-III describes the methodology and data used for empirical analysis. Section-IV offers empirical results and discussion of the study. Concluding remarks are presented in section-V

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Keeping in view the positive impact of tourism on economic growth many researchers have investigated the relationship between tourism sector development and economic growth. Gani (1998) for South Pacific economies, Kim et al. (2006) for Taiwan, Louca (2006) for the case of Cyprus, Noriko and Mototsugu (2007) for the Amami Islands in Japan concluded that significant relationship exists between tourism expenditure and economic growth. For Spain and Mauritius, Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002) and Durberry (2004) supported the tourism-led growth hypothesis, respectively. Eugenio-Martin and Morales (2004) confirmed the validity of the tourism-led growth hypothesis for low and middle income countries in Latin America while they assert that the situation is different for high income countries. Skerritt and Huybers (2005) analyzed the effect of international tourism on GDP per capita of 37 developing countries and the results supported the tourism-led growth hypothesis. Wickremasinghe and Ihalanayake (2006) investigated the tourism and growth nexus for Sri Lanka using annual data from 1960 to 2000 and they suggested a significant causal relationship from tourism receipts to the GDP of Sri Lanka. Khalil et al (2007) examined the role of tourism in the short-run economic development for Pakistan through error correction model and indicated that there is strong relationship among tourism receipts and economic expansion. Fayissa et al (2007) using a panel data of 42 African countries, showed that

receipts from tourism industry significantly contribute to economic growth for the Sub-Saharan African countries.

In addition, Fayissa et al (2009), using a panel data of 17 Latin American countries for the years that span from 1995 to 2004, showed that revenues from the tourism industry positively contribute to the economic growth of Latin American Countries. Brida et al. (2009) supported the tourism-led growth hypothesis for Colombia. Kreishan (2011) examined the causality relations between tourism earnings and economic growth for Jordan using annual data covering the period 1970-2009. The empirical results showed a positive relationship between tourism development and economic development in the long-run. Moreover, the Granger causality test results revealed the presence of unidirectional causality from tourism earnings to economic growth. Besides, Kasimati (2011) reports unidirectional causal links from tourism arrivals to GDP in Greece. Moreover, Srinivasan et al. (2012) examined the impact of tourism on economic growth in Sri Lanka and showed that the tourism has a positive impact on economic growth in Sri Lanka both in the short-run and long-run. Similarly, Trang et al. (2014) found the evidence of tourism-led growth hypothesis for Vietnam. Recently, Tang and Tan (2015) verified the validity of the tourism-led growth hypothesis in Malaysia using a multivariate model using annual data from 1975 to 2011. They found that tourism Granger-causes economic growth.

On the other hand, Oh (2005) found one-way causal relationship from economic growth to tourism in the case of Korean economy. Besides, Dristakis (2004) for Greece empirically proved the existence of a bidirectional relationship between the two variables. For Turkey, while Gunduz and Hatemi-J (2005) found unidirectional causality from tourism to economic growth using leveraged bootstrap causality tests for the period 1963–2002, Ongan and Demiroz (2005) suggested bidirectional causality between international tourism and economic growth in Turkey for the period of 1980Q1–2004Q2 using Granger causality test results. Lee and Chien (2008) reported bi-directional causality in Taiwan. Chen and Chiou-Wei (2009) showed that the tourism-led economic growth hypothesis was supported for Taiwan with a reciprocal causal relationship found for South Korea. Lee and Chang (2008) investigated the casual relation between tourism development and economic growth for OECD and non-OECD countries (including those in Asia, Latin America and Sub-Sahara Africa) over the 1990–2002 period. The empirical results showed unidirectional relationship from tourism to growth for OECD countries whereas a bidirectional causality relationship exists for non-OECD countries.

For America, Latin America, Caribbean and World countries, Caglayan et al. (2012) showed that there is a unidirectional causality from GDP to tourism revenue. Moreover, for the cases of East Asia, South Asia and Oceania the reverse direction of causality was found from tourism revenue to GDP. The study failed to trace any causal relationship for the cases of Asia, Middle East and North Africa, Central Asia and Sub Saharan Africa. Chou (2013) studied the causal relationships between tourism spending and economic growth in 10 transition countries for the period 1988–2011. The empirical findings supported the neutrality hypothesis for 3 of these 10 transition countries (i.e. Bulgaria, Romania and Slovenia). The tourism-led growth hypothesis holds for Cyprus, Latvia and Slovakia while reverse relationships were found for the Czech Republic and Poland. The feedback hypothesis also holds for Estonia and Hungary. Deng et al. (2014) found that tourism influences economic growth, but the relationship was not statically significant for the 30 provinces of China. Recently, Antonakakis et al. (2015) detected that the causal relationship between tourism and economic growth is not stable over time for the 10 European countries.

METHODOLOGY

Data

In the present study, we have taken annual time-series data over the period from 1995 to 2014. The variables in this study include Tourism Expansion (TOUR), expressed in terms of number of foreign tourist arrivals in India and Indian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) measured in constant 2005 US dollars. The total tourist arrivals are utilized as a proxy of tourism expansion, consistent with previous studies (Wang and Godbey, 1994, Kim et al. 2006 and Seetanah et al. 2011). Urbanization (URBAN) is measured by the total population living in urban areas as defined by Central Statistical Office (CSO), India. The data are obtained from World Development Indicators (WDI) database, World Bank, Washington. Ultimately, all series are transformed into natural logarithm form to obtain stationarity in the variance-covariance matrix (Chang et al., 2001 and Fatai et al., 2004).

Model

Unit root test

Granger and Newbold (1974) illustrated that if Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) methods are applied to non-stationary data, one is highly likely to obtain very misleading estimates of the parameters of interest. This situation is known as spurious regression, where the OLS results show a

strong link between variables even though there may be no relationship between them. In order to examine the stationarity properties of the time-series, the unit root test is used. A series is said to be (weakly or covariantly) stationary if the mean and autocovariances of the series do not depend on time. Any series that is not stationary is said to be non-stationary, and includes a unit root such that the number of differences (d) it takes for us to render the data stationary defines the level of stationarity, denoted I(d). Typically, for a time-series to be rendered stationary, we must first-difference the observations, rendering the series an I(1) process.

A common example of a non-stationary series is the random walk denoted as:

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

where y_t is the target variable in current and y_{t-1} is one time lag of the same variable. ε_t is a stationary random disturbance term. The series y has a constant forecast value, conditional on time t , while the variance increases over time. The random walk is an I(1) stationary series, since the first difference of y is stationary as follows:

$$Y_t - Y_{t-1} = (I - L) Y_t = \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

A first-difference stationary series is said to be integrated and is denoted as I(d), where d is the order of integration. The order of integration is the number of unit roots contained in the series, or the number of differencing operations it takes to make the series stationary.

Standard inference procedures do not apply to regressions, which contain an integrated dependent variable or integrated regressors. Therefore, it is important to check whether a series is stationary before using it in a regression. The formal method to test the stationarity of a time-series is the unit root test: the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test or the Phillips-Perron (PP) test. The Augmented Dickey-Fuller - ADF test consists on the estimation of the following equation using the Method of Least Square (MLS):

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha + \beta t + \gamma Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \delta_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \quad (3)$$

where, ΔY_t is the first difference operator ($Y_t - Y_{t-1}$), α is the intercept, βt is the model tendency component, γ is the coefficient that allows the stationary test (if $\gamma = 0$, Y has a unitary root), p is the number of lag terms to be included in the model and ε_t is the random error term or the stochastic disturbance.

The Phillips and Perron (PP) test was also commonly used to verify the presence or not of unitary root. The difference between both tests is that the Phillips-Perron test gives us the guarantee that the disturbances are not correlated and have constant variance. Opposed to the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test, the Phillips and Perron test does not include the lag difference terms, but may include the tendency and the intercept terms.

The KPSS (Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt & Shin) test¹ was developed as a form to complement the analysis of the traditional unitary root tests, such as the ADF and PP tests. On the contrary of the ADF and PP tests, the KPSS test considers as the null hypothesis that the series is stationary, or stationary around a deterministic tendency, against the existence of a random path as an alternative hypothesis. The present study uses the KPSS test to examine the stationarity condition of the variables.

Granger Causality Test

The Granger causality test is used to examine the causal nexus between tourism expansion, urbanization and economic growth in India. The Granger (1969) approach to the question of whether an independent variable (x) causes variation in the dependent variable (y) is to see how much of the current value of y can be explained by its past values. We should then move to examine whether adding lagged values of the independent x can improve the explanatory power of the model. The dependent variable y is said to be Granger caused by x if x helps in the prediction of y, or equivalently if the coefficients on the lagged x values are statistically significant. It should be noted that a two-way causation is frequently found such that x Granger causes y and y Granger causes x. It is important to address that the statement “x Granger causes y” does not imply that y is the effect or the result of x. Granger causality measures precedence and information contents but does not by itself indicate causality in the more common use of the term.

A primary step to follow when selecting the Granger causality view is to define the number of lags to be used in the test regressions, since the theory is bedded in terms of the relevance of all past information. A lag length should be chosen that corresponds to reasonable beliefs about the time over which one of the variables could help predict the other. The optimal lag length is selected with the smallest values of Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) and Schwartz Information Criteria (SIC).

We ran bivariate regressions of the form:

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(y_{t-1}) + \beta(x_1) + \beta_1(x_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t \quad (4)$$

$$x_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(x_{t-1}) + \beta(y_1) + \beta_1(y_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t \quad (5)$$

For all possible pairs of an (x, y) series in the group, the reported F-statistics are the Wald statistics for the joint hypothesis, and the null and alternative hypotheses, respectively, are reported as follows:

$$H_0: \alpha_1 = 0; \beta_1 = 0; \beta_2 = 0$$

$$H_1: \alpha_1 \neq 0; \beta_1 \neq 0; \beta_2 \neq 0$$

For each equation, the null hypothesis is that x does not Granger cause y in the first regression and that y does not Granger cause x in the second regression.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

To check the stationarity of our data we use the KPSS (Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt & Shin) test and the results are reported in Table 3. The unit root test results reveal that the null hypothesis of stationarity against the alternative of non-stationarity cannot be rejected in levels of variables, hence the time-series data of TOUR, URBAN and GDP are stationary at levels and are integrated of the order, I(0).

Table 3: KPSS Unit Root Test

Variables	Intercept	Intercept & trend
Level		
TOUR	0.586	0.111
URBAN	0.614	0.142
GDP	0.611	0.156
Notes: Optimal lag length is determined by the Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC).		

Since the time-series data of tourism expansion, urbanization and economic growth are stationary of order I(0), a Granger Causality test can be constructed in terms of the levels of the data (Engle and Granger, 1987). Therefore, we proceed with a short-run causal nexus between the study variables using the Granger Causality approach.

Table 4: VAR Lag Order Selection Criteria

Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	66.09	--	7.54e-08	-7.887	-7.742	-7.879
1	170.6	156.7	5.08e-13	-19.82	-19.24	-19.79
2	192.4	24.58	1.19e-13	-21.43	-20.42	-21.38

3	201.1	6.514	1.96e-13	-21.39	-19.94	-21.32
4	281.7	30.22*	9.18e-17*	-30.34*	-28.46*	-30.24*

Notes: * indicates lag order selected by the criterion. LR: sequential modified LR test statistic. FPE: Final prediction error AIC: Akaike information criterion SC: Schwarz information criterion HQ: Hannan-Quinn information criterion.

The Granger Causality test is sensitive to the selection of optimal lag length and the necessary lag length of TOUR, URBAN and GDP series is determined by the Akaike information Criterion (AIC) and Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC). The results are presented in Table 4 and it reveals appropriate optimal lag length of four.

Table 5: Pair-wise Granger Causality Test

Lags	1		2		3		4		Inference
Null Hypotheses	F-Stat	Prob	F-Stat	Prob.	F-Stat	Prob.	F-Stat	Prob.	
TOUR does not Granger cause GDP	0.015	0.903	0.101	0.904	1.177	0.397	1.177	0.397	INDEPENDENT
GDP does not Granger cause TOUR	2.522	0.131	7.329	0.007	1.802	0.232	1.802	0.232	
URBAN does not Granger cause TOUR	3.755	0.070	6.455	0.011	6.322	0.011	3.252	0.082	URBAN → TOUR
TOUR does not Granger cause URBAN	14.19	0.001	1.901	0.188	1.828	0.205	0.809	0.556	
URBAN does not Granger cause GDP	4.636	0.046	0.101	0.904	2.474	0.121	2.928	0.102	GDP → URBAN
GDP does not Granger cause URBAN	45.16	0.000	7.329	0.007	2.800	0.094	4.426	0.042	

Results of Granger causality test for India as presented in the Table 5 show that the neither null hypothesis of ‘TOUR does not cause GDP imports’ nor ‘GDP does not cause TOUR’ cannot be for all lags except lag of two. At two-lag period, the null hypothesis of ‘GDP does not cause TOUR’ has been rejected at one percent level, implying the presence of unidirectional causation from economic growth to tourism expansion in India. Except for lag two situation, the other lag periods under the Granger Causality test strongly reveals that tourism expansion and economic growth are independent of each other, supporting the neutrality hypothesis.

Moreover, the test results at one-lag period show that null hypothesis for ‘URBAN does not cause TOUR’ as well as null hypothesis for ‘TOUR does not cause URBAN’ are rejected at one and five percent level of significance, respectively. This leads to the conclusion that there exist bidirectional causality between tourism expansion and urbanization. However, the evidence from other lags indicate that null hypothesis ‘URBAN does not cause TOUR’ are rejected at five and ten percent levels, on the other hand the null hypothesis of ‘TOUR does not cause URBAN’

are accepted, which indicates the unidirectional causality running from urbanization to tourism expansion, supporting urbanization-led tourism strategy.

Furthermore, the Granger Causality test results at one-lag period show that null hypothesis for 'URBAN do not cause GDP' and null hypothesis for 'GDP does not cause URBAN' are rejected at five and one five percent level of significance, respectively. This shows that there exist bidirectional causality between urbanization and economic growth. However, the evidence from other lags indicate that null hypothesis 'URBAN does not cause GDP' are accepted, and the null hypothesis of 'GDP does not cause URBAN' are rejected, which indicates the unidirectional causality running from economic growth to urbanization, supporting growth-led urbanization strategy.

From the empirical evidences of optimal lag four, suggested by lag-length selection criteria such as AIC and SIC, and taking into consideration the predominance findings observed from other lag-period as well, it can be concluded that tourism expansion and economic growth are independent of each other, whereas economic growth causes urbanization which in turn leads to tourism expansion in India.

Our empirical findings have major policy implications. We detected that tourism expansion and economic growth are independent of each other, suggesting that the Central Government of India should give much emphasis on its economic policies to promote economic growth more than paying attention towards promoting inbound tourism in the region. Second, our results show a one-way Granger causality from economic growth to urbanization and urbanization to tourism expansion in India, the implication is that urbanization and tourism expansion cannot be sustained if economic growth momentum is not enhanced in effective manner. By implementing effective economic growth strategies in India, the scope for urbanization and tourism will further widen.

CONCLUSION

The present study empirically investigate the causal nexus between tourism expansion, urbanization and economic growth in India using Granger Causality test over the period from 1995 to 2014. The empirical results revealed that tourism expansion and economic growth are independent of each other in the short-run and does not validate either tourism-led growth hypothesis or growth-led tourism hypothesis. Besides, the test results showed that one-way Granger causality runs from economic

growth to urbanization and urbanization to tourism expansion in India. The study suggests that the urbanization and tourism expansion cannot be sustained if economic growth momentum is not enhanced in effective manner. By implementing vigorous economic growth strategies in India, the scope for urbanization and tourism will further widen.

End Note

¹ See Kwiatkowski *et al.* (1992).

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Golf Tourism: A Research Profile and Security Perceptions in Belek, Antalya, Turkey

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There were two main purposes of this study; first, it was to determine the current profile of sampled golf tourists visiting Belek, Antalya in high season and their perceptions of security. Questionnaires used to survey golf tourists in the sample were evaluated separately. SPSS 20.0 was used for the statistical evaluations. Chi-square testing and descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Despite some negative developments in Turkey (such as terrorist attacks), the majority of golf tourists still remain satisfied and motivated to recommend the destination to others. The results of the study would be of help for tourism professionals, academicians and decision makers especially in developing future marketing strategies for Belek. The sample consisted of a survey profile of 280 golf tourists and their responses regarding security perceptions for Belek, Antalya.

Key words: *Golf Tourism, Golf tourists, security perceptions, Turkey, Antalya, Belek*

1.Development of Golf Tourism in the World and in Turkey

According to WTTC (The World Travel & Tourism Council) there has been an ever increasing growth in the tourism industry that in 2015 was (2.8 %) better than the global economy as a whole and greater than both the manufacturing and retail industries. In 2015, the tourism industry reached to US\$ 7.2 trillion and was responsible for 284 million jobs. A continuing increase is expected for 2016 (WTTC, 2016:1).



Golf tourism, as one of the components of sport tourism has also received high attention parallel to the development of general tourism movements in the world. In *Golf Tourism*, the main motivation is to play golf while on holiday. According to IAGTO (International Association of Golfing Tour Operators <http://www.iagto.com/>) the golf market already exceeds \$ 17 billion in size. Total number of golf players is 56 million people and geographically distributed as; 26.7 million in USA, 5 million in Canada, 5.5 million in continental Europe, 14 million in Japan and 3.8 million in the United Kingdom (www.onecaribbean.org/content/files/Golf.pdf; accessdate:12.08.2016).

IAGTO has currently 2450 members (accredited golf tour operators, golf resorts, hotels etc.) and controls approximately 87 per cent of golf holiday packages sold in the world. IAGTO announced a 10.7 per cent increase in golf package sales in 2015 and expects a continuous increase in 2016 (www.iagto.com/; accessdate:12.08.2016).

Golf Tourism, as one of the value-added markets, is favored by many destinations because of the golf tourists' high level of expenditures (Moital *et al.*,2013:40). It has a 6-7 per cent annual increase in the world, in other words this type of tourism has nearly doubled overall movements in world tourism (www.turizmyatirimdergisi.com.tr/haber-detay-10-golf-turizminde-arz-talepten-az.html; accessdate:12.08.2016). According to IAGTO, the top three countries in *Golf Tourism* are; Spain, Portugal and Ireland respectively. The top 10 most popular countries are given in Table 1 (www.iagto.com/pressrelease/details/95233643-e1d3-4214-b0d6-18118252Ofaa; accessdate:12.08.2016).

Table 1: Top 10 Most Popular Countries for *Golf Tourism*

Rank	Country
1	Spain
2	Portugal
3	Ireland
4	Scotland
5	Turkey
6	USA
7	Thailand
8	France
9	Morocco
10	Italy

Source: www.iagto.com/pressrelease/details/95233643-e1d3-4214-b0d6-18118252Ofaa: accessdate:12.08.2016

Beside Europe, growing golf markets such as Asia, the Middle East and Mexico will naturally support the growth of *Golf Tourism* in the world. Taiwan, Malaysia, China and Thailand can be considered as emerging markets and USA, Ireland, United Kingdom, Japan, Australia and Scandinavia can be evaluated as the main competing destinations in *Golf Tourism*. The typical aspects of *Golf Tourism* according to different countries are
(www.onecaribbean.org/content/files/Golf.pdf:accessdate:12.08.2016):

*USA: 65 per cent are over 40 years old and 80 per cent male, earn over \$ 50.000 annually.

*UK: 78 per cent male and 62 per cent aged between 35-60.

*Canada: Average age 48 years and well educated.

*France: 65 per cent male and 70 per cent of their travel is accompanied.

Turkey located in Europe, is the 6th most popular tourist destination in the world, attracting over 30 million tourists annually (except crises) and set annual targets of 50 million tourist arrivals and US\$ 50 billion tourism

revenues by 2023 (www.invest.gov.tr/en-US/sectors/Pages/WellnessAndTourism.aspx?accessdate:12.08.2016). The direct contribution of the tourism industry to GDP was TRY 98.5 bn (5 per cent of total GDP) in 2015 and is forecast to rise by 0.2 per cent in 2016. In the 2015 figures, the tourism industry directly supported 600.000 jobs (2.3 per cent of total employment) and is expected to fall by 0.2 per cent in 2016 (WTTC, 2016: 1). According to the last 10 years of tourism development, Turkey, except for crises, has always experienced continuous growth. As a tourist receiving country, Turkey is benefiting from the tourism industry at a high level. In terms of economic contribution, Turkey's tourism industry provides important input to nearly 54 subsectors of the nation.

The total share of sport tourism in Turkey is around 1.5 per cent. The two main components of sport tourism are golf and soccer (www.milliyet.com.tr/550-bin-in-uzerinde-turist-1-milyar/ekonomi/detay/2006675/default.htm?accessdate:12.08.2016). In terms of tourism movements, Antalya can be evaluated as the tourist capital of Turkey. In other words, Antalya is the most preferred tourist city in Turkey and according to 2014 figures, 34 per cent of foreign tourists have visited Antalya including the surrounding towns of Belek, Kemer and Kaş (www.invest.gov.tr/en-US/sectors/Pages/WellnessAndTourism.aspx?accessdate:12.08.2016). With a 640 km seacoast from Kalkan to Gazipaşa and 300 sunny days a year, naturally there is a huge tourist demand directed to Antalya. Top three attractions of Antalya are; natural beauty, historical and cultural enrichments and specially created attractions. Currently, *Golf Tourism* is a developing market for the Turkish tourism industry. Most golf courses use Bermuda grass in order to attract more golfers seeking to play in a Mediterranean climate (www.invest.gov.tr/enUS/sectors/Pages/WellnessAndTourism.aspx?accessdate:12.08.2016).

Most of the existing golf courses in Turkey are in Antalya, Muğla and İstanbul. Only in the town of Belek, Antalya there are currently 15 golf courses. Belek with a 50.000 bed capacity and 2 million visitors annually was awarded "The Best Golf Destination in Europe" in 2008 by IAGTO (www.ktbyatirimisletmeler.gov.tr/TR,10161/golf-turizmi.html?accessdate:12.08.2016). In addition to this, Belek also hosted the "International Golf Travel Market" in 2011, the "World Amateur Golf Tournament" in 2012 and "Turkish Airlines Ladies Open" in 2013 (www.betuyab.com.tr/tr/hotels/golf?accessdate:12.08.2016). The 2015 G20

Summit held in Antalya, focused international attention on Belek's Kaya Palazzo Hotel guest golf tourist Barrack Obama.

2.Literature Review

According to written literature as Barros *et al.*, (2010) mentioned lots of research on golf players focusing on different components such as; marketing, competition among destinations, satisfaction, length of stay, profile and segmentation (Barros *et al.*, 2010: 15). Even the threat of terrorism can be added to the research. As O' Connor *et al.* (2008) mentioned; Enders and Sandler (1991) carried out a research of Spain regarding the effects of terrorism. The study of Enders *et al.*, (1992) showing the adverse effect of terrorist incidents on tourism revenues in Europe can also be added to this category (O'Connor *et al.*, 2008: 353). Barros *et al.*, (2010) analysed different studies such as (Barros *et al.*, 2008; Gokovali *et al.*, 2007; Hong and Jang, 2005; Kaniovski, Penedor and Smeral, 2008; Martinez-Garcia and Raya, 2008; Menezes *et al.*, 2008 mentioned length of stay of golf players within survival models.

Regarding satisfaction of golf players Moital *et al.*, (2013) underlined the studies of Petrick *et al.*, (1999) (On determinants of golf course satisfaction), Krohn (2008); Hutchinson *et al.*, (2010) (On golf attributes), Hutchinson *et al.*, (2010) (On feelings), Hennessay *et al.*, (2008); Hutchinson *et al.*, (2009); Moital and Dias (2012) (On service quality and value). For the studies focusing on the relationship between destination choice and sociodemographic aspects, Valle *et al.*, (2008) summarized certain research such as Um and Crompton (1990) (On how people's image of a destination may be affected by the sociodemographic of visitors); Goodall and Ashworth (1988); Woodside and Lysonski (1989); Weaver *et al.*, (1994); Zimmer *et al.*, (1995) (How age, occupation and income effects the golf tourists' image and perceptions of their holiday experience).

As Batra (2008) mentioned, safety and security topics in the tourism industry play a vital role in the success or failure of tourist destinations (Batra, 2008: 90). Tourists choose tourist destinations according to their needs, expectations and feelings. In this regard, tourist destinations that match these needs and provide the most benefits with minimal risk will suit them best. Seabra, *et al.*, (2013) underlined that unsafe/more risky destinations will have problems in achieving the benefits mentioned in the studies of Beirman, 2003; George, 2003; Prideaux, 1996; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998).

Currently all tourist destinations promote themselves as a paradise oasis in the world to attract visitors. If a destination has a negative image, then this situation can cause a decrease in terms of tourist numbers and revenues. For example, Boakye (2012) benefiting from Allen's (1999) study, states that Egypt lost approximately US\$ 1 billion in 1999 because of bad publicity after terrorist attacks and additional negative reactions to the Florida and Yugoslavia incidents (Boakye, 2012: 328). The 9/11 World Trade Center attack in New York and the Pentagon in Washington DC are extreme examples of the detrimental effects of terrorism to the tourism industry (Chang, 2010: 20).

Regarding the possible effects of demographic aspects for tourists in their perception of security, Batra (2008) benefited from different studies such as (Batra, 2008: 91); Demos' (1992) study (Previous visits and demographic profile influence perceptions), Pinhey and Iverson's (1994) research (Japanese visitors to Guam concerns about safety, younger and more affluent Japanese tourists felt less safe). Referencing Carr's (2001) study, Chang (2010) underlined the difference in motivations of young people in terms of their perceptions. Carr's study showed that youth visitor's perceptions are influenced both from socio-cultural norms, values and their desired travel experiences (Chang, 2010: 20). Feeling unsafe at a tourist destination will decrease tourism movements and limit behaviours of tourists e.g. potential tourists will choose a safer destination, the current ones in that destination are not willing to take part in any kind of activities, the current visitors will start a negative word of mouth campaign regarding the destination, will not come again and not recommend to others (George, 2003: 577).

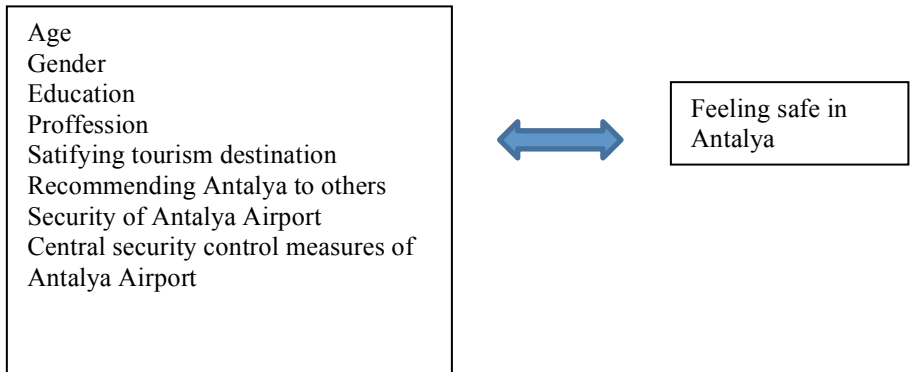
This study is focused on profile and security perceptions of golf tourists who visited Belek, Antalya in 2016.

3.Methodology of the Research

Within the scope of this study the data were collected from golf tourists visiting the Antalya Golf Centre in Belek. In order to determine the security perceptions of golf tourists, face to face, questionnaires were distributed during May 2016. Since it was not possible to collect data for all golf tourists at the Antalya Golf Centre, a simple random sampling was used. A total of 280 golf tourists replied to the questionnaires. SPSS 20.0 was used to evaluate the data. Descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentage scores were generated to evaluate the sampled golf tourists'

profile. Chi-square tests and graphical statistics were used to analyse the data.

The research model is shown in Figure 1. In this study, the hypotheses, which have significant relationships between demographic parameters, satisfying tourism destination, recommending Antalya to others, security of Antalya Airport and Central Security Control Measures and the feeling of safety in Antalya were tested.



H₁: There is a significant relationship between considering Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination and feeling safe in Antalya.

H₂: There is a significant relationship between thinking of recommending Antalya to others and feeling safe in Antalya.

H₃: There is a significant relationship between gender and feeling safe in Antalya

H₄: There is a significant relationship between education level and feeling safe in Antalya

H₅: There is a significant relationship between profession and feeling safe in Antalya

H₆: There is a significant relationship between age and feeling safe in Antalya.

H₇: There is a significant relationship between security and feeling safe in Antalya

H₈: There is a significant relationship between approving of central security control measures and feeling safe in Antalya.

4. Findings and Discussion

Table 2 shows the percentages of different socio-demographic variables of the golf tourists who were taking a rest after their game in Antalya Golf Club's Pub. Regarding golf tourist's distribution by gender, the majority of participants were male (87.5%), while only 12.5% of participants were female. When we look at the distribution of age groups, the majority of participants (83.3%) were 45 years old and older, while only small part of respondents (16.7%) were 44 years old or younger. Most of the respondents (41.8%) had a secondary school diploma, and 31.1% of them had a university degree.

Table 2: Sociodemographic Profiles of Golf Tourists

Variables	Gender	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	35	12.5
	Male	245	87.5
	Total	280	100.0
Age	15-24	3	1.1
	25-34	14	5.0
	35-44	24	8.6
	45-54	85	30.4
	55-64	82	29.3
	65+	66	23.6
	Total	274	97.9
	Missing	6	2.1
	Total	280	100.0
Education	Primary School	7	2.5
	Secondary School	117	41.8
	Degree	87	31.1
	Postgraduate	30	10.7
	Other	22	7.9
	Total	263	93.9
	Missing	17	6.1
	Total	280	100.0
Profession	Official	35	12.5
	Employee	99	35.4

Self-employed	36	12.9
Student	3	1.1
Retiree	80	28.6
Unemployed	4	1.4
Other	16	5.7
Total	273	97.5
Missing	7	2.5
Total	280	100.0

Looking at the respondents' profession, 35.4% of them were working as an employee, 28.6 of them retired, and 12.9% of them self-employed. These results show us that most of the golfers who came to Antalya were male (87.5%), over 44-year-old (83.3%). We can say that for women or for those under 45-years of age *Golf Tourism* is not a priority tourism attraction. This should be taken into account on future marketing strategies. In other words, this kind of research can be considered as potential data for future decision-making regarding *Golf Tourism* in Belek, Antalya.

Table 3. Satisfaction and Security

		Frequency	Percent
	1	2	0.7
	2	3	1.1
	3	4	1.4
Consider Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination	4	10	3.6
	5	35	12.5
	6	66	23.6
	7	138	49.3
	Total	258	92.1
Missing	System	22	7.9
Total		280	100.0
	Yes	247	88.2
Consider Recommending Antalya to others	Not Sure	15	5.4
	No	1	0.4
	Total	263	93.9
Missing	System	17	6.1
Total		280	100.0
	Yes	201	71.8
Feeling safe in Antalya	Not Sure	23	8.2

	No	6	2.1
	Total	230	82.1
Missing	System	50	17.9
Total		280	100.0
Security at Antalya Airport	2	2	0.7
	3	3	1.1
	4	17	6.1
	5	42	15.0
	6	120	42.9
	7	60	21.4
	Total	244	87.1
Missing	System	36	12.9
Total		280	100.0
Approval of Central Security Control Measures in Antalya?	2	2	0.7
	3	3	1.1
	4	9	3.2
	5	45	16.1
	6	115	41.1
	7	68	24.3
	Total	242	86.4
Missing	System	38	13.6
Total		280	100.0

We asked our respondents if they considered Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination, we used a seven point Likert scale to determine to what extent (from very satisfying “7” to not satisfying “1”) they saw Antalya as a satisfying tourism destination, the results are shown in table 2. As we can see from Table 3, only 3.6% of participants consider Antalya as average in their ‘satisfying tourism destination’ response, 3.2% of them consider Antalya not to be a satisfying tourism destination, while 85.4% of them consider Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination. We also asked our respondents if they are thinking of recommending Antalya to others, and they answered in three different ways “yes”, “not sure”, and “no”. We used frequency analysis, and the results are shown in table 2. As we can see from table 2, the great majority of respondents (88.2%) are thinking of recommending Antalya to others.

Another question we asked our respondents was if they feel safe in Antalya, and there were three types of answer again “yes”, “not sure”, and “no”. We used frequency analysis, and the results are shown in table 2. As we can see from the results, the majority of respondents (71.8%) feel safe in Antalya. These responses are unexpectedly good because when we did this

survey, there had been four terrorist attacks in Turkey in last six months (two of them in Ankara, one in Istanbul and one in Diyarbakır).

We wondered that how satisfying Antalya's security system appeared to our participants, and we asked for their satisfaction level with regards to the central security control measures in Antalya. We used a seven point Likert scale to determine to what extent (from very satisfying "7" to not satisfying "1") they approved of the central security control measures in Antalya. Their responses are shown in table 2. As seen in table 2, only 1.8% of the participants rated the central security control measures in Antalya as unsatisfactory, and 3.2% of participants saw those measures as middling satisfactory, while the preponderance of participants, 87.1%, saw the central security control measures in Antalya as satisfactory.

Another question about security we asked our participants was how satisfying was their experience with Antalya's airport security. Again, we used a seven point Likert scale to compare the participants' satisfaction levels of Antalya's airport security. We did a frequency analysis as shown in table 2. Table 2 indicates only 1.8% of participants see Antalya's airport security as unsatisfactory, 6.1% of participants saw it as middling satisfactory, while 79,3% were satisfied with Antalya's airport security. To sum up, as was previously stated most of respondents (85.4%) consider Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination. This could be a reason why they came to Antalya in spite of all the terrorist attacks. When they came to Antalya they saw all the settings and environment of Antalya, they did not see anything disturbing, and they felt safe (71.8%). Therefore, it can be assumed that the great majority of respondents (88.2%) would consider recommending Antalya to others.

H₁: There is a significant relationship between considering Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination and feeling safe in Antalya.

It was found that P was smaller than 0.05, therefore H₁ was accepted. It can be said that there was a significant relationship between considering Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination and feeling safe in Antalya. The respondents (91.5%), who entirely agree that Antalya is a satisfying tourism destination, feel safe in Antalya (Table 4).

Table 4. Relationship Between Feeling Safe and Satisfaction

Considering Antalya to be a satisfying tourism destination	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Pearson Chi-Square	SD	P-value	Accept(ed)
	Yes	I am Not Sure	No					

Strongly disagree	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
Disagree	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
Somewhat disagree	66.7%	0.0%	33.3%	100.0%				
Neither agree or disagree	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%	21.634 ^a	12	0.042	Accepted
Somewhat agree	72.4%	20.7%	6.9%	100.0%				
Agree	90.0%	6.7%	3.3%	100.0%				
Strongly agree	91.5%	7.7%	0.9%	100.0%				
Total	88.0%	9.2%	2.8%	100.0%				

H₂: There is a significant relationship between thinking of recommending Antalya to Others and feeling safe in Antalya.

It was found that P was smaller than 0.05, therefore H2 was accepted. It can be said that there was a significant relationship between thinking of recommending Antalya to Others and feeling safe in Antalya. The respondents (88%), thinking of recommending Antalya to others, feel safe in Antalya (Table 5).

Table 5. Relationship Between Feeling Safe and Recommending to Others

Recommending Antalya to others	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Pearson Chi-Square	SD	P-value	Accept(ed)
	Yes	Not Sure	No					
Yes	88.0%	9.6%	2.4%	100.0%	11.076 ^a	4	0.026	Accepted
Not Sure	80.0%	10.0%	10.0%	100.0%				
No	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
Total	87.2%	10.0%	2.7%	100.0%				

H₃: There is a significant relationship between gender and feeling safe in Antalya

It was found that P was greater than 0.05 and therefore, H3 was rejected. According to respondents, 80% of females and 88.5% of males feel safe in Antalya (Table 6).

Table 6. Relationship Between Gender and Feeling Safe

Gender	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)	Accept(ed)
	Yes	Not Sure	No					
Female	80.0%	16.7%	3.3%	100.0%	1.818 ^a	2	0 4 0 3	Rejected
Male	88.5%	9.0%	2.5%	100.0%				
Total	87.4%	10.0%	2.6%	100.0%				

H₄: There is a significant relationship between education level and feeling safe in Antalya

It was found that P was greater than 0.05 and therefore, H₄ was rejected. There was not a significant relationship between education level and feeling safe in Antalya. While 91.7% of post graduate respondents felt safe in Antalya, this ratio was a mere 50% for primary school graduate responses (Table 7).

Table 7. Relationship Between Education Level and Feeling Safe

Education	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Accept(ed)
	Yes	Not Sure	No					
Primary School	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	100.0%				
Secondary School	89.8%	7.1%	3.1%	100.0%				
Degree	85.1%	12.2%	2.7%	100.0%	13.569 ^a	8	0.094	Rejected
Postgraduate	91.7%	8.3%	0.0%	100.0%				
Other	78.9%	21.1%	0.0%	100.0%				
Total	86.8%	10.5%	2.7%	100.0%				

H₅: There is a significant relationship between profession and feeling safe in Antalya

It was found that P was greater than 0.05 and therefore, H₅ was rejected. There wasn't a significant relationship between profession and feeling safe in Antalya. All students and unemployed people felt safe in Antalya (Table 8).

Table 8. Relationship Between Profession and Feeling Safe

Profession	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Accept(ed)
	Yes	Not Sure	No					
Official	92.6%	0.0%	7.4%	100.0%				
Employee	90.7%	7.0%	2.3%	100.0%				
Freelance	92.0%	8.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
Student	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
Retire	81.8%	16.7%	1.5%	100.0%	17.979 ^a	12	0.116	Rejected
Unemployed	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
Other	69.2%	30.8%	0.0%	100.0%				
Total	87.5%	10.3%	2.2%	100.0%				

H₆: There is a significant relationship between approving of Central Security Control measures and feeling safe in Antalya Airport.

It was found out that P was smaller than 0.05, therefore H₆ was accepted. It can be said that there was a significant relationship between approving of

Central Security Control measures and feeling safe in Antalya. In total, 88% of the respondents felt safe in Antalya (Table 9).

Table 9. Relationship Between Approving of Central Security Control and Feeling Safe

Approving of Central Security Control Measures in Antalya Airport?	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Pearson Chi-Square	SD	P-value	Accept(ed)
	Yes	Not Sure	No					
2	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	18.578 ^a	10	0.046	Accepted
3	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
4	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
5	83.8%	5.4%	10.8%	100.0%				
6	91.5%	6.6%	1.9%	100.0%				
7	82.3%	17.7%	0.0%	100.0%				
Total	87.9%	9.3%	2.8%	100.0%				

H₇: There is a significant relationship between security and feeling safe in Antalya

It was found that P was greater than 0.05 and therefore, H₇ was rejected. It was concluded that security had no impact on and feeling safe in Antalya. In total, 88% of the respondents felt safe in Antalya (Table 10).

Table 10. Relationship Between Security and Feeling Safe

Security of Antalya Airport	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Pearson Chi-Square	SD	P-value	Accept(ed)
	Yes	Not Sure	No					
2	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	14.053 ^a	10	0.171	Rejected
3	66.7%	33.3%	0.0%	100.0%				
4	71.4%	14.3%	14.3%	100.0%				
5	82.4%	11.8%	5.9%	100.0%				
6	90.8%	7.3%	1.8%	100.0%				
7	87.0%	13.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
Total	87.0%	10.2%	2.8%	100.0%				

H₈: There is a significant relationship between age and feeling safe in Antalya.

It was found out that P was smaller than 0.05, therefore H₈ was accepted. It can be said that there was a significant relationship between age and feeling safe in Antalya. While all of the 15-24 age groups felt safe in Antalya, the positive response for those over 65 was 82% (Table 11).

Table 11. Relationship Between Age and Feeling Safe

Age	Feeling safe in Antalya			Total	Pearson Chi-Square	SD	P-value	Accept(ed)
	Yes	Not Sure	No					

15-24	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
25-34	63.6%	18.2%	18.2%	100.0%				
35-44	95.0%	5.0%	0.0%	100.0%				
45-54	90.9%	7.6%	1.5%	100.0%	18.934*	10	0.041	Accepted
55-64	90.0%	8.6%	1.4%	100.0%				
65+	81.8%	16.4%	1.8%	100.0%				
Total	87.6%	10.2%	2.2%	100.0%				

5.Conclusions and Suggestions

*From the results it should be noted that Belek, Antalya is very attractive destination for male golf tourists who are over 44 years of age. Additionally, security precautions may be important for this age group and according to the results, most of the people (81.5 per cent) considered central security control measures in Antalya as satisfying.

*Among the 8 hypotheses, half of them were accepted. This study confirmed that when participants feel safe in Antalya, there are significant relationships between considering Antalya to be a) satisfying tourism destination, b) thinking of recommending Antalya to others, c) their age level and d) approval of the central security control measures.

*Despite some negative developments in Turkey, e.g. terrorist attacks, the majority of golf tourists remain satisfied and would likely recommend the destination to others. This category of golf tourists can be thought of as potential loyal customers. Their levels of loyalty can be enhanced by providing better quality and personalised golf packages by following their preferences within a CRM (customer relations management) environment.

*The findings of the study are important both for theoretical and practical reasons. Regarding the theoretical perspective, the study shows that it is possible to establish relationships between the variables of a tourist's profile and other variables. From a practical perspective, the results of the study would be of help for tourism professionals, academicians and decision makers. The study shows important insights into the role played by a golf tourist's profile in security perceptions of *Golf Tourism* in Antalya.

*This study can be evaluated as confirming the findings of previous studies regarding tourist profile research. The results reinforce the image of Belek, Antalya as a market leader in the *Golf Tourism* industry.

*In order to increase the valuable inputs of the study, periodic assessments of Belek's golf tourist profile should be made by active tourism professionals. Replicating similar studies would also be useful.

*In particular, the results reaffirmed that the happier golf tourists are with their golfing experience, the more likely they are to recommend the destination to others.

6.Limitations

As in other studies, this study has some limitations. First, all data was obtained from a single golf club. This means the results cannot be generalized (The sample consisted of a total of 280 golf tourists). The second limitation was related to the tourist season. This study was carried out in May of 2016. In other words, the study results reflect the high season of *Golf Tourism* in Belek. In order to make a full comparison, the same study would have to be performed during the low season in Belek as well. The third limitation was the language barrier. All questions were prepared in the English language. Some answers may not entirely correspond to what was asked, depending on the participants' level of their understanding of the questions.

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AN ECONOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF DEMAND FOR TOURISM IN THE SELECTED COUNTRIES

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Tourism sector plays an important role in economic development and therefore many countries try to develop various policies on this sector to maximize its impacts on the economy. Empirical researches on this topic provide highly valuable information for the policy makers both in public and private sectors. The aim of this study is, therefore, to empirically investigate the determinants of tourism demand for the most attractive top ten countries (France, United States, China, Spain, Italy, Turkey, Germany, United Kingdom, Russia, Malaysia) for tourists by employing the recently developed tools of panel econometrics for the period of 1995-2011. Empirical findings show that macroeconomic factors as such income, price level, supply capacity, exchange rate and political stability have statistically significant effects on the demand for tourism in the top ten countries in the world tourism sector.

Keywords: *Demand for Tourism, Tourism Sector, Panel Data, Cointegration, Determinants of Tourism*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a multi-dimensional issue and has impacts on economic, social, cultural and political aspects of every society. In order to assess the effects of these dimensions of tourism, researchers carried out empirical investigation for local community, firms, employee, destinations, terrorism and country. However, economic aspect of tourism sector dominates the existing literature, due to its direct relation with both improving individual living standards and overall prosperity. In particular, as one of the largest sector in the world, tourism contributes to an economy by increasing private and public investment, obtaining foreign currency, easing the balance of payment issues, creating new employment opportunities and alleviating the regional inequalities.



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In addition to interrelated nature of tourism with several subsectors, these factors make tourism sector vital for each country which tries to maximizes the gains from it by all means.

The aim of this paper is, therefore, to empirically investigate the determinants of tourism demand for the top ten countries that attract most tourist in the world by employing modern econometric techniques and by utilizing annual data for the period 1995-2011. Econometric results obtained from panel cointegration analysis show that macroeconomic factors as such income, prices, supply capacity, exchange rate and political stability have statistically and significantly impacts on demand for tourism for the sample countries.

INCREASING ROLE OF TOURISM IN THE WORLD

Importance of tourism has been increasing over the years in the world economy. Table 1 presents the development in the world tourism sector and shows that number of tourist arrivals rapidly increased from 25.3 million in 1950 to 1.035 billion in 2012. Similarly, tourism income went up to \$1.075 trillion in 2012 from \$2.1 billion in 1950. However, a detailed investigation of Table 2 also shows that number of tourist arrivals and receipts from tourism started to fluctuate after 2000s, due to the terrorist attack of September 11 in the USA, Iraq war, health epidemic (SARS) and global economic stagnation.

Table 1. International Tourism Arrivals and Tourism Receipt

Year	Tourist Arrivals(Million People)	Change (%)	Receipt (Billion \$)	Change (%)
1950	25.3	-	2.1	-
1960	69.3	173,9	6.8	223,8
1970	165.8	139,2	17.9	163,2
1980	286.5	73	105.4	588,8
1990	455.9	159,1	264.1	250,5
1991	461.1	1,1	277.9	5,2
1992	502.2	8,9	317.1	14,1
1993	515.3	2,6	322.9	1,8
1994	535.8	4	356	10,2
1995	550.4	2,7	404.6	13,6

1996	580.2	5,4	438.8	8,4
1997	601.5	3,7	442.9	0,9
1998	621.4	3,3	445.2	0,5
1999	643.3	3,5	455	2,2
2000	687.3	6,8	473.4	4
2001	684.1	-0,5	459.5	-2,9
2002	702.6	2,7	474.2	3,2
2003	691	-1,5	525	10,7
2004	763	10,7	622	18,4
2005	802	5.1	680	9.3
2006	847	5.6	745	9.5
2007	901	6.4	858	15.1
2008	919	2.0	941	10.1
2009	892	-2.9	852	-9.4
2010	949	6.4	930	8.7
2011	995	4.8	1.042	12
2012	1.035	4	1.075	3.1

Source: UNWTO (2013)

Distribution of tourists shows that each geographic region does not evenly benefit from tourism sector (Table 2). It can be seen that shares of Europe, Asia and Pacific, Americas, Middle East and Africa are %52, %23, %17, %3 and %3 respectively in 2012. Additionally, while number of tourist arrivals between 1990 and 2012 increased from 252 million to 540 million in Europe, from 59 million to 236 million in Asia and Pacific, from 8 million to about 32 million in the Middle East and from about 10 million to 30 million in Africa, growth rate is higher in developing countries and in particular Asia and Pacific has a highest share in this growing sector in terms of tourist arrivals.

Table 2. Regional Share of International Tourism in the World (2012)

	International Tourist Arrivals by region of Market origin (Million)									Change Share(%) (%)		Average annual (million)
	1990	1995	2000	2005	2009	2010	2011	2012	2011	11/10	12/11	
World	436	529	677	807	892	949	995	1.035	100	4,8	4,0	3,6
Europe	251.9	303.4	388.8	449.7	477.6	497.1	520.5	539.8	52,1	4,7	3,7	2,6

Asia and Pacific	58.7	86.4	114.2	153.2	181.0	206.4	222.5	236.4	22,8	7,8	6,3	6,4
Americas	99.3	108.5	130.8	136.5	147.3	156.3	164.2	171.5	16,6	5,1	4,4	3,3
Middle East	8.2	9.3	14.1	22.9	32.2	34.5	33.8	31.7	3,1	-2,1	-6,2	4,8
Africa	9.8	11.5	14.9	19.3	25.6	28.1	29.8	30.8	3,0	6,1	3,3	6,9
Origin not specified	7.9	10.3	14.0	25.4	28.2	26.5	24.1	25.0	2,4			
Same Region	350.3	423.4	532.4	630.7	688.0	728.3	769.3	799.8	77,3	5,6	4,0	3,5
Other Regions	77.6	95.7	130.3	151.0	175.6	194.2	201.6	210.4	20,3	3,8	4,4	4,9

Source: UNWTO (2013)

Furthermore, World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2011) reports that share of developing countries will further increase in the future and especially Asia and Pacific will get the highest share in its 2030 projections. Table 3 presents the tourist arrivals for the most ten attractive countries in the world.

Table 3. International Tourist Arrivals (2012)

		Million 2011	2012*	Change (%) 11/10	12*/11
1	France	81.6	83.0	5,0	1,8
2	USA	62.7	67.0	4,9	6,8
3	China	57.6	57.7	3,4	0,3
4	Spain	56.2	57.7	6,6	2,7
5	Italy	46.1	46.4	5,7	0,5
6	Turkey	34.7	35.7	10,5	3,0
7	Germany	28.4	30.4	5,5	7,3
8	UK	29.3	29.3	3,6	-0,1
9	Russia	22.7	25.7	11,9	13,4
10	Malaysia	24.7	25.0	0,6	1,3

Source: UNWTO (2013)

EXISTING LITERATURE AND EMPIRICAL MODEL

Determinants of demand for tourism have been a research question for various researches. Table 4 classifies the existing empirical literature by the author(s), sample, period, variables, model and methodology. As far as the summary of this literature (Table 4) is concerned, the econometric models, methodology, variables and samples show differences from study to study and these makes difficult to reach a consensus in the empirical findings. It

can be easily said that the findings of these studies show that determinants of tourism demand is an empirical issue for each group of country.

Following the theoretical and empirical literature, this paper proposes the below implicit model to empirically investigate demand for tourism:

$$TA = f(CPI, GDP, RER, BN, PSI) \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

Where TA, CPI, GDP, RER, BN, PSI denote tourism demand (tourist arrivals), consumer price index, gross domestic product, real exchange rate, bed numbers and political stability index.

Table 4. A Literature Survey on the Demand for International Tourism

<i>Authors</i>	<i>Samples</i>	<i>Period</i>	<i>Independent variables</i>	<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Research techniques and methods</i>
Eilat and Einav (2004)	All countries, High GNP Destinations, Low GNP Destinations	1985-1998	Trade, Distance, gross national product, land, political stability, common border and same lang.	destination cost/origin cost	Multinomial Logit Estimation
Martin, Morales and Scarpa (2004)	21 Latin American country	1985-1998	Growth of tourists per capita, gross domestic investment (percentage of GDP), public expenditure on education (percentage of GDP), political stability	Per capita GDP	Dynamic panel data analysis
Campos and Sequeira (2005)	509 observations	1980-1999	Tourist arrivals and tourism receipt, secondary male enrollment, investment-output ratio, government consumption-output ratio, openness, black market premium, tourist arrivals as	PGDP Ratio	Static panel Data Analysis

			population proportion, tourism receipts in % of Exports, Tourism receipts in % of GDP		
Lee and Chang (2008)	23 OECD countries and 32 non- OECD countries	1990- 2002	Tourist arrivals, real effective exchange rate , per capita tourist arrivals, per capita real tourism receipts	GDP	Panel unit root and co- integra tion analysi s
Kareem (2009)	20 countries	1995- 2003	Real world income, CPI, crime rate, political instability and fixed and mobile telecommunication services	Total tourist arrivals	Panel GMM
Allen and Yap (2009)	7 Australian states	1999 -2007	Domestic household income, tourism prices, transportation costs , the price of overseas holidays and seasonality	Demand for domestic tourism	Static panel Data Analys is
Korkmaz et. al. (2009)	10 countries that have most tourism expenditur es in the world	1995- 2007	Unemployment Rate, GDP, Gross Domestic saving Rate, inflation rate	Tourism expenditur e	panel data regress ions
Görmüş and Göçer, (2010)	32 countries	2000 -2006	Real income, relative prices and competitive prices, distance, accommodation capacity and marketing expenditure, real exchange rate, population	Tourist arrivals	Panel OLS and SUR
Saray and Karagöz (2010)	48 countries	1992- 2007	Model I: GDP, population, distance Model II: PGDP, population, distance	Total tourist arrivals	Panel Gravit y

					Model
Dritsakis (2012)	7 Mediterranean countries	1980 – 2007	Per capita tourism receipt, per capita tourist arrivals, real exchange rate	Real PGDP	Panel FMOLS
Gallego et al. (2011)	OECD countries	1980–2006	Total trade, export and import	Model I: Tourist arrivals, Model II: Tourist departures	Panel FMOLS, DOLS, PMG, MG
Massidda and Etzo (2012)	20 destination in Italy	2004–2007	Previous year tourist arrivals, population density , population density at destination, public expenditure for culture activities, distance, PGDP, CPI, index of endowment of touristic places, number of kilometers of highways, crime rate, air pollution	Tourist Arrivals	Panel GMM
Chou (2013)	10 Transition economy	1988–2011	Inbound tourism expenditure	RPGDP	Panel causality analysis
Che (2013)	14 Countries	1998 – 2011	CPI	Tourist arrivals	Panel threshold model
Škuflić and Štoković (2013)	4 tourism destination in Croatia	1998–2008	price per night in hotels, sending country per capita GDP, per capita GDP , hostels quality, number of internet booking	Number of nights spent in accommodations	Panel GLS
Gholipour et. al (2014)	80 countries	1999–2011	disposable income, exchange rate, index of air travel prices and cost, personnel freedoms	Number of outbound travelers	Panel GMM

Source: Authors

ECONOMETRIC ANALYSIS

Logarithmic form of the Equation 1 can explicitly be rewritten in Equation 2 as follows:

$$\ln TA_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln CPI_{it} + \alpha_2 \ln GDP_{it} + \alpha_3 \ln RDK_{it} + \alpha_4 \ln BN_{it} + \alpha_5 PST_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

where $i = 1, \dots, N$ and $t = 1, \dots, T$ represents the dimension time.

The expected signs of independent variables in the Equation 2 can be expressed as follows:

- $\alpha_1 > 0$: The increase at general price level is expected to reduce tourism demand (TA) (Eita et al., 2011; Proenca and Soukiazis, 2005; Ibrahim, 2011; Surugiu Leitão, 2011).
- $\alpha_2 > 0$: An increase occurring in income (GDP) has a positive effect of tourism demand (TA) (Garin-munoz and Montero-martin, 2007; Aslan, Kaplan and Kula, 2008; Walle, 2010; Jackman and Lorde, 2012; Petrevska, 2013).
- $\alpha_3 > 0$: The increase in real exchange rate (RER) will reduce tourism demand. Since tourism demand expresses that national currency gains value compared to foreign currencies, it is expected that it negatively affects tourism demand (Maloney and Rojas, 2013; Webb and Chotithamwattana, 2013).
- $\alpha_4 > 0$: It is expected that an increase in bed number (supply of touristic goods and services) lead the amount of goods and service presented to increase, thus, product diversity to increase, and totally, tourism demand to rise. The sign of coefficient is expected to be positive directional (Proenca and Soukiazis, 2005; Aslan, Kaplan and Kula, 2008).
- $\alpha_5 > 0$: The rise in political stability index (PSI) is expected to increase tourism demand i.e. to reveal a positive effect (Naude and Saayman, 2005; Webb and Chotithamwattana, 2013).

In the empirical analysis, annual data for the period 1995-2011 are used from the top ten most attractive tourist destination countries (France, United States, China, Spain, Italy, Turkey, Germany, United Kingdom, Russia, Malaysia respectively) the world. Measurement of the variables and their sources can be find in Table 5.

Table 5. Data, Measurement and Sources

Variables	Explain of Variables	Source	Period
TA	Tourism Demand (Tourist Arrivals)	World Development Indicators (WDI) and United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)	1995–2011
CPI	Consumer Price Index	World Development Indicators (WDI)	1995–2011
GDP	Gross Domestic Product per capita	World Development Indicators (WDI)	1995–2011
RER	Real Exchange Rate	World Development Indicators (WDI)	1995–2011
BN	Bed Numbers	United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)	1995–2011
PSI	Political Instability Index	World Development Indicators (WDI)	1995–2011

Results of Panel Unit Root Tests

The first step of panel cointegration analysis is to investigate the stationarity properties and to determine the order of integration of the variables. Estimations are carried out by using the econometrical and statistical software E-views 8.0 and Gauss 10.0. To this end, we utilize three panel unit root tests developed by Levin et al. (2002, henceforth LLC), Im et al. (2003, henceforth IPS), and Breitung (2000). The former two are widely used panel unit root analysis in the literature on panel cointegration. The null hypothesis of the tests is a unit root in the panel. However, while LLC (2002) and Breitung (2000) argue that the cross-sectional units share a common unit root process, IPS (2003) assumes that the cross-sectional units have individual unit root process.

Unit root tests present important information in terms of decomposing and determining the factors determining tourism demand. Hence, before beginning cointegration analysis, the findings to be able to be obtained from stationarity analysis and their policy applications were dealt with. Results for the panel unit root tests are illustrated in Table 6. At first glance, it is not clear that the panel variables are stationary at a 99% confidence level (Erdem et al, 2010: 539).

Table 6. Panel Unit Root

		Level		Constant +Trend		First Difference		Constant +Trend	
		Statistic	P-value	Statistic	P-value	Statistic	P-value	Statistic	P-value
lnBN	LLC	-1.58	0.056	-1.10	0.133	-6.41	0.000	-7.78	0.000

	IPS	1.11	0.866	-0.81	0.207	-5.25	0.000	-6.26	0.000
	Hadri	7.32	0.000	6.49	0.000	1.20	0.113	0.69	0.243
	CADF	-2.13		-2.45**		-2.45**		-2.65**	
lnCPI	LLC	0.15	0.561	-1.16	0.122	-11.84	0.000	-8.75	0.000
	IPS	-1.12	0.130	-1.02	0.153	-9.93	0.000	-7.10	0.000
	Hadri	3.05	0.001	9.26	0.000	0.83	0.200	-0.17	0.958
	CADF	-2.02		-2.59		-		-	
						3.30***		3.44***	
lnGDP	LLC	-0.92	0.179	-0.22	0.410	-3.88	0.000	-4.67	0.000
	IPS	0.49	0.69	2.93	0.998	-3.12	0.000	-3.42	0.000
	Hadri	6.88	0.000	5.89	0.000	1.95	0.025	1.34	0.090
	CADF	-		-2.33		-1.57		-	
		2.67***						.436***	
lnPSI	LLC	-0.84	0.198	-1.30	0.096	-7.34	0.000	-9.08	0.000
	IPS	-1.05	0.146	-3.16	0.000	-8.67	0.000	-7.78	0.000
	Hadri	3.34	0.000	6.88	0.000	-0.12	0.547	0.720	0.235
	CADF	-1.261		-1.40		-		-	
						2.71***		3.135**	
lnRER	LLC	-2.11	0.017	-2.69	0.003	-8.21	0.000	-8.49	0.000
	IPS	-1.18	0.117	-0.62	0.266	-6.29	0.000	-5.59	0.000
	Hadri	4.04	0.000	4.51	0.000	1.17	0.120	0.15	0.440
	CADF	-		-3.74***		-		-	
		.584***				3.38***		.572***	
lnTA	LLC	-2.58	0.004	-5.30	0.000	-8.61	0.000	-6.96	0.000
	IPS	-0.03	0.485	-2.67	0.003	-7.43	0.000	-5.42	0.000
	Hadri	7.49	0.000	4.06	0.000	0.62	0.267	0.78	0.216
	CADF	-2.12		-1.646		-2.25*		-2.29*	

Note: The critical values of CADF statistical values were accepted as -2,66 for constant, -3,24 for constant and trend at 1%; -2,37 for constant, -2,93 for constant and trend at 5%; and -2,22 for constant, -2,76 for constant and trend at 10 %

In order to investigate the stationary properties of the variables in concern, unit root tests of LLC (Levin, Lin and Chu 2002), IPS (Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003), Hadri (2000) and Pesaran (2007) CADF (Cross-Sectional Augmented Dickey-Fuller) are carried out (Table 8). The results show that the variables are not stationary at the level and include a unit root. However, their first differences are stationary. In other words, the variables are I(1) that is a precondition for cointegration tests of Pedroni (1999) and Westerlund and Edgerton (2007) applied here.

Results of Panel Cointegration Test

Cointegration procedure of Pedroni (1999) are carried out to empirically investigate the long-run relationship between variables in Equation 2 (Table 7). These results do not take into consideration the dependency between horizontal cross-sections. The test of horizontal cross-sectional dependency test (CD test), developed by Pesaran (2004) shows that there is no horizontal cross-sectional dependency in the first ten

countries attracting the most number of tourist (See, Table 8). Table 7 also provides estimations from the cointegration procedure of Westerlund and Edgerton (2007) which takes into consideration horizontal cross-sectional dependency, the probability values, obtained from “bootstrap” distribution

Table 7. Panel Cointegration Test

		Constant		Constant trend	
		Statistic	P-value	Statistic	P-value
<i>Pedroni (1999)</i>	Panel-v	-0.48141	0.6849	-1.239184	
	Panel-rho	1.60589	0.9459	2.991036	0.9986
	Panel-pp	-3.90888	0.0000***	-2.455883	0.0070***
	Panel-adf	-3.83997	0.0001***	-2.707001	0.0034***
	Group-rho	3.35910	0.9996	4.485265	1.0000
	Group-pp	-4.97337	0.0000***	-10.08239	0.0000***
<i>Westerlund and Edgerton (2007)</i>	Group - adf	-4.67352	0.8924	-3.167950	0.0008***
	LM ⁺ _N	31.009	0.375 ^b	50.678	0.620 ^b

In Pedroni (1999) test , lagging number 2, probability values reported for Westerlund and Edgerton (2007) tests were obtained from 1000 repeated bootstrap distribution.

h: expresses the values of “bootstrap distribution probability”.

While the null hypothesis is set up as “there is no cointegration” in Pedroni (1999), that is proposed as “there is a cointegration” in Westerlund and Edgerton (2007). However estimation results obtained from both procedures developed by Pedroni (1999) and Westerlund and Edgerton (2007) show that there is a cointegration and this implies that there is a long-run relationship among the variables in the model. The prediction of the model from the three different (DOLS, FMOLS and two-step) estimation procedure is given in Table 8.

Prediction Methods of Panel-Cointegration Relationship

Table 8. Prediction of Panel-Cointegration Relationship

	DOLS		FMOLS		2- Step	
	Coefficien t	t-stat.	Coefficien t	t-stat.	Coefficien t	t-stat.
lnCPI	0.004506	0.236440	-0.017996	2.072315**	-0.131	5.038***
lnGDP	1.112844	7.975482**	1.098859	12.58285**	0.189	1.537

		*		*		
lnRER	-0.122660	-0.874944	-0.173469	-	-0.359	-
		4.714895**		2.258314**		2.805***
lnBN	0.514515	*	0.524336	*	1.177	10.060**
				6.024861**		*
lnPSI	0.064701	1.679663*	0.066706	2.672991**	0.083	1.361
CD				*		
Test						
Statistic	-0.855					
P-value	0.392					

In DOLS prediction, processor and lagging numbers were determined according to Schwarz information criteria and, in FMOLS and 2-staged predictions, lagging number was taken as 2.

****, **, * represents the statistical significance at the levels of 1%, 5%, and 10%*

According to the three (DOLS, FMOLS and 2-step) estimators, the results are generally consistent and support each other. As far as the signs and significance of the variables are concerned, it can be said that there estimator gives similar results and supports each other.

While consumer price index (price level) (CPI) is insignificant in DOLS predictors, but it is significant at 1 percent significance level in FMOLS and two-step estimators. It is negatively related to tourism demand and this is consistent with the theoretical expectations. FMOLS and two stage estimators show that one percentage increase in CPI decreases tourism demand about 0.07 percent and 0.13 percent respectively.

Gross domestic product (GDP) is statistically significant at 1 percent significance level and positively affects tourism demand in both DOLS and FMOLS estimators which indicate that one percentage increase in per capita GDP increases tourism demand about 1.11 percent and 1.09 percent respectively.

The effect of the real exchange rate (RER) on demand for tourism is statistically significant at 5 percent significance level in FMOLS and at 1 percent significance level in two step estimators indicate that one percentage increase in real exchange rate reduces demand for tourism about 0.17 percent and 0.35 percent respectively.

Capacity of bed (bed number, BN) is statistically significant at 1 percent significance level and has a positive impact on tourism demand in the three estimators which show that one percentage increase in bed number increases demand for tourism about 0.51, 0.52 and 1.17 percent respectively.

Finally, political stability index (PSI) is significant at 10 percent level in determining tourism demand in DOLS and FMOLS estimators and

positively affects tourism demand. The results from both estimators show that one percentage increase in political stability index increases tourism demand about 0.06 percent.

As far as the magnitude of the explanatory variables is concerned, gross domestic product (lnGDP) and bed capacity (lnBN) are higher than the others and this implies that gross domestic product and bed capacity have strong explanatory capabilities in explaining tourism demand for the selected countries. In other words, income and bed number are main determinants of tourism demand.

CONCLUSION

This paper tries to empirically investigate the determinants of demand for tourism for the top ten most attractive destinations (countries) for tourist for the period 1995-2011 by using the panel cointegration procedures. Before applying cointegration analysis, stationary properties of the variables are investigated by utilizing panel unit root tests. The results of these tests show that the series are I(1). In order to determine a long-run relation among variables in the model, Pedroni (1999) and Westerlund Edgerton (2007) cointegration procedure are applied and the results show that there is a cointegration.

Empirical findings obtained by three different (DOLS, FMOLS and two-step) estimators supports to theoretical expectation. In particular, gross domestic product, bed capacity and political stability are statistically significant and positively affect tourism demand and, on the other hand, price level and real exchange rate are statistically significant and negatively affect tourism demand in the sample countries.

It is possible to develop the various policy recommendations based the findings obtained from the empirical part of the study. Firstly, economic and financial stability is very important for the stability of tourism demand. Elimination of shocks plays an important role in this process. Secondly, supply capacity (in terms of bed number) is also very important to attract more tourists and tourism policies should simultaneously consider these supply conditions and infrastructure investments as well. Thirdly, income plays a vital role in determining tourism demand. Elimination of shocks and cycles in the income level is very important. Economic crisis and stagnation or depression negatively affect the tourism demand. Considering the globalization and interconnectedness of the economies, global growth rate should kept stable to have a stable tourism demand.

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TOURISMOS

An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

AIMS & SCOPE

TOURISMOS is an international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (peerreviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of tourism, including travel, hospitality and leisure. The journal is published by the University of the Aegean (in Greece), and is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with different tourism sectors, both at macro and at micro level, as well as professionals in the industry. TOURISMOS provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries.

TOURISMOS aims at:

- Disseminating and promoting research, good practice and innovation in all aspects of tourism to its prime audience including educators, researchers, post-graduate students, policy makers, and industry practitioners.
- Encouraging international scientific cooperation and understanding, and enhancing multi-disciplinary research across all tourism sectors.

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by other anonymous international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers, post-graduate students, policymakers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within different sectors of tourism, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure in the future. TOURISMOS also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-related but cover a 236 topic that is of interest to researchers, educators, policy-makers and practitioners in various fields of tourism. The material published in TOURISMOS covers all scientific, conceptual and applied disciplines related to tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure,

including: economics, management, planning and development, marketing, human resources, sociology, psychology, geography, information and communication technologies, transportation, service quality, finance, food and beverage, and education. Manuscripts published in TOURISMOS should not have been published previously in any copyright form (print or electronic/online). The general criteria for the acceptance of articles are:

- Contribution to the promotion of scientific knowledge in the greater multi-disciplinary field of tourism.
- Adequate and relevant literature review.
- Scientifically valid and reliable methodology.
- Clarity of writing.
- Acceptable quality of English language.

TOURISMOS is published twice per year (in Spring and in Autumn). Each issue includes the following sections: editorial, research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.

JOURNAL SECTIONS

Editorial

The Editorial addresses issues of contemporary interest and provides a detailed introduction and commentary to the articles in the current issue. The editorial may be written by the Editor, or by any other member(s) of the Editorial Board. When appropriate, a “Guest Editorial” may be presented. However, TOURISMOS does not accept unsolicited editorials.

Research Papers

For the Research Papers section, TOURISMOS invites full-length manuscripts (not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000 words) from a variety of disciplines; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to strict blind peer review (by at least three anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. The manuscripts submitted should provide original and/or innovative ideas or approaches or findings that eventually push the frontiers of knowledge. Purely descriptive accounts are not considered suitable for this section. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims

and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

Case Studies

Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500; these articles should be focusing on the detailed and critical presentation/review of real-life cases from the greater tourism sector, and must include - where appropriate - relevant references and bibliography. Case Studies should aim at disseminating information and/or good practices, combined with critical analysis of real examples. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of TOURISMOS. Each article should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the case to be examined and the aims and objectives of the article), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the presentation of the case study, the critical review of the case and relevant discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, and suggestions for further study), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices. All Case Studies are subject to blind peer review (by at least one anonymous referee). The decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editor.

Research Notes

Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to blind peer review (by at least two anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. The manuscripts submitted may present research-in-progress or my focus on the conceptual development of models and approaches that have not been proven yet through primary research. In all cases, the papers should provide original ideas, approaches or preliminary findings that are open to discussion. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of TOURISMOS. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an

overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

Book Reviews

Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing books from the greater field of tourism. Most reviews should focus on new publications, but older books are also welcome for presentation. Book Reviews are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Book Reviews Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Books to be reviewed may be assigned to potential authors by the Book Reviews Editor, though TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited suggestions for book reviews from interested parties.

Conference Reports

Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing conferences from the greater field of tourism. Most reports should focus on recent conferences (i.e., conferences that took place not before than three months from the date of manuscript submission), but older conferences are also welcome for presentation if appropriate. Conference Reports are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Conference Reports Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Conference reports may be assigned to potential authors by the Conference Reports Editor, though 239 TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited suggestions for reports from interested parties.

Industry Viewpoints

Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500; these articles may have a “commentary” form, and aim at presenting and discussing ideas, views and suggestions by practitioners (industry professionals, tourism planners, policy makers, other tourism stakeholders, etc.). Through these articles, TOURISMOS provides a

platform for the exchange of ideas and for developing closer links between academics and practitioners. Most viewpoints should focus on contemporary issues, but other issues are also welcome for presentation if appropriate. Industry Viewpoints are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. These articles may be assigned to potential authors by the editor, though TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited contributions from interested parties.

Forthcoming Events

Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words; these articles may have the form of a “call of papers”, related to a forthcoming conference or a special issue of a journal. Alternatively, forthcoming events may have the form of a press release informing readers of TOURISMOS about an event (conference or other) related to the tourism, travel, hospitality or leisure sectors. These articles should not aim at promoting sales of any products or services. The decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken by the Editor.

TOURISMOS

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Manuscript Submission Procedure

Manuscripts should be written as understandably and concisely as possible with clarity and meaningfulness. Submission of a manuscript to TOURISMOS represents a certification on the part of the author(s) that it is an original work and has not been copyrighted elsewhere; manuscripts that are eventually published may not be reproduced in any other publication (print or electronic), as their copyright has been transferred to TOURISMOS. Submissions are accepted only in electronic form; authors are requested to submit one copy of each manuscript by email attachment. All manuscripts should be emailed to the Editor-in-Chief (Prof. Paris Tsartas, at ptsar@aegean.gr) and to the Editors (Prof. Evangelos Christou, at e.christou@tour.teithe.gr and Prof. Andreas Papatheodorou, at a.papatheodorou@aegean.gr), and depending on the nature of the manuscript submissions should also be emailed as follows:

- Conference reports should be emailed directly to the Conference Reports Editor (Dr. Vasiliki Galani-Moutafi), at v.moutafi@sa.aegean.gr.
- Book reviews should be emailed directly to the Book Reviews Editor (Prof. Marianna Sigala), at marianna.sigala@unisa.edu.au.
- Full papers and all other types of manuscripts should be emailed directly to the Editors (Prof. Evangelos Christou and Prof. Andreas Papatheodorou), at e.christou@tour.teithe.gr and a.papatheodorou@aegean.gr.

Feedback regarding the submission of a manuscript (including the reviewers' comments) will be provided to the author(s) within six weeks of the receipt of the manuscript. Submission of a manuscript will be held to imply that it contains original unpublished work not being considered for publication elsewhere at the same time. Each author of a manuscript accepted for publication will receive three complimentary copies of the issue, and will also have to sign a "transfer of copyright" form. If appropriate, author(s) can correct first proofs. Manuscripts submitted to TOURISMOS, accepted for publication or not, cannot be returned to the author(s).

Manuscript Length

Research Papers should be not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000. Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500. Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000. Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500. Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words. Manuscripts that do not fully conform to the above word limits (according to the type of the article) will be automatically rejected and should not be entered into the reviewing process.

Manuscript Style & Preparation

- All submissions (research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events) must have a title of no more than 12 words.
- Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least 2,5 cm (one-inch) margin on all four sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively.
- The use of footnotes within the text is discouraged – use endnotes instead. Endnotes should be kept to a minimum, be used to provide additional comments and discussion, and should be numbered consecutively in the text and typed on a separate page at the end of the article.
- Quotations must be taken accurately from the original source. Alterations to the quotations must be noted. Quotation marks (“ ”) are to be used to denote direct quotes. Inverted commas (‘ ’) should denote a quote within a quotation. If the quotation is less than 3 lines, then it should be included in the main text enclosed in quotation marks. If the quotation is more than 3 lines, then it should be separated from the main text and indented.
- The name(s) of any sponsor(s) of the research contained in the manuscript, or any other acknowledgements, should appear at the very end of the manuscript.

- Tables, figures and illustrations are to be included in the text and to be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers). Each table, figure or illustration must have a title.
- The text should be organized under appropriate section headings, which, ideally, should not be more than 500-700 words apart. • The main body of the text should be written in Times New Roman letters, font size 12.
- Section headings should be written in Arial letters, font size 12, and should be marked as follows: primary headings should be centred and typed in bold capitals and underlined; secondary headings should be typed with italic bold capital letters; other headings should be typed in capital letters. Authors are urged to write as concisely as possible, but not at the expense of clarity.
- The preferred software for submission is Microsoft Word.
- Authors submitting papers for publication should specify which section of the journal they wish their paper to be considered for: research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.
- Author(s) are responsible for preparing manuscripts which are clearly written in acceptable, scholarly English, and which contain no errors of spelling, grammar, or punctuation. Neither the Editorial Board nor the Publisher is responsible for correcting errors of spelling or grammar.
- Where acronyms are used, their full expression should be given initially.
- Authors are asked to ensure that there are no libellous implications in their work.

Manuscript Presentation

For submission, manuscripts of research papers, research notes and case studies should be arranged in the following order of presentation:

- First page: title, subtitle (if required), author's name and surname, affiliation, full postal address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address. Respective names, affiliations and addresses of co-author(s) should be clearly indicated. Also, include an abstract of not more than

150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Also include a short biography of the author (about 50 words); in the case of co-author(s), the same details should also be included. All correspondence will be sent to the first named author, unless otherwise indicated.

- Second page: title, an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Do not include the author(s) details, affiliation(s), and biographies in this page.
- Subsequent pages: the paper should begin on the third page and should not subsequently reveal the title or authors. In these pages should be included the main body of text (including tables, figures and illustrations); list of references; appendixes; and endnotes (numbered consecutively).
- The author(s) should ensure that their names cannot be identified anywhere in the text.

Referencing Style

In the text, references should be cited with parentheses using the “author, date” style - for example for single citations (Ford, 2004), or for multiple citations (Isaac, 1998; Jackson, 2003). Page numbers for specific points or direct quotations must be given (i.e., Ford, 2004: 312-313). The Reference list, placed at the end of the manuscript, must be typed in alphabetical order of authors. The specific format is:

- For journal papers: Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.29, No.2, pp.338-357.
- For books and monographs: Teare, R. & Ingram, H. (1993). *Strategic Management: A Resource-Based Approach for the Hospitality and Tourism Industries*. London, Cassell.
- For chapters in edited books: Sigala, M. and Christou, E. (2002). Use of Internet for enhancing tourism and hospitality education: lessons from Europe. In K.W. Wober, A.J. Frew and M. Hitz (Eds.) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, Wien: Springer-Verlag.

- For papers presented in conferences: Ford, B. (2004). Adoption of innovations on hospitality. Paper presented at the 22nd EuroCHRIE Conference. Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey: 3-7 November 2004.
- For unpublished works: Gregoriades, M. (2004). The impact of trust in brand loyalty, Unpublished PhD Tourismos. Chios, Greece: University of the Aegean.
- For Internet sources (if you know the author): Johns, D. (2003) The power of branding in tourism. [Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456](http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456). Accessed the 12th of January 2005, at 14:55. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).
- For Internet sources (if you do not know the author): Tourism supply and demand. [Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papersauthors/id3456](http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papersauthors/id3456). Accessed the 30th of January 2004, at 12:35. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).

For reports: Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994). Meetings and Conventions. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.