

Special Issue on
Special Interest Tourism

Guest Editor

Associate Professor Anestis K. Fotiadis,

I-Shou University

and

Professor, Tzung-Cheng Huan,

National Chiayi University, Taiwan



TOURISMOS is an international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (peer-reviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of tourism, including travel, hospitality and leisure. The journal is published twice per year by the Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning, Policy & Management of the University of the Aegean, 54 Michail Livanou Street, GR-82100, Chios, Greece. Phone: +30-22710-35322, Fax: +30-22710-35399, E-mail: mstath@aegean.gr, website: <http://www.chios.aegean.gr/tourism>

Full-text articles of *TOURISMOS* can be downloaded freely from the journal website, at <http://www.chios.aegean.gr/tourism/journal.htm>

© University of the Aegean. Printed in Greece. Some rights reserved.

This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution - Noncommercial - No Derivatives Works 3.0 Licence Unported. You are free to copy, distribute, display and perform the work as long as you give the original author(s) credit, do not use this work for commercial purposes, and do not alter, transform, or build upon this work. For any reuse or distribution, you must make clear to others the license terms of this work. Any of these conditions can be waived if you get permission from the copyright holders. Nothing in this license impairs or restricts the authors' rights. You can download the Legal Code for this Licence at: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/legalcode> or send a letter to Creative Commons, 171 Second Street, Suite 300, San Francisco, California, 94105, USA.

Volume 11, Number 5, Special Issue 2016

Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

INDEXING, ABSTRACTING, RANKING & CITATION COVERAGE:

ARC-ERA (Australian Research Council – Excellence in Research for Australia Initiative), <http://www.arc.gov.au/era/default.htm>

CIRET (Centre International de Recherches et d'Etudes Touristiques)

CAB Abstracts (CABI), <http://www.cabi.org>

CitEc (Citations in Economics), <http://citec.repec.org>

DBH (Norwegian Database for Statistics on Higher Education), <http://dbh.nsd.uib.no>

DOAJ (Directory of Open Access Journals), www.doaj.org

EBSCO Publishing, <http://www.ebscohost.com>

EconBiz, <http://www.econbiz.de>

ECONIS, <http://www.econis.eu>

EconPapers, <http://econpapers.repec.org>

Economists Online, <http://www.economistsonline.org>

EZB (Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek), <http://rzblx1.uni-regensburg.de/ezeit>

IDEAS (Internet Documents in Economics Access Service), <http://ideas.repec.org>

ICI (Index Copernicus International), <http://www.indexcopernicus.com>

INOMICS, <http://www.inomics.com>

ISSI (Intute Social Sciences Index), <http://www.intute.ac.uk/socialsciences>

Leisure, Recreation & Tourism Abstracts, <http://www.cabi.org>

Murdoch University Australian Tourism Research Database, <http://www.lib.murdoch.edu.au/guides/arts/internet/tourism.html#journals>

National Library of Australia, <http://catalogue.nla.gov.au>

NEP (New Economics Papers), <http://nep.repec.org>

NewJour (Electronic Journals & Newsletters), <http://library.georgetown.edu/newjour>

NSD (Norwegian Social Science Data Services), <http://www.nsd.uib.no>

Open J-Gate, <http://www.openj-gate.org>

RePEc (Research Papers in Economics) <http://www.repec.org>

Rural Development Abstracts, <http://www.cabi.org>

SJR (SCImago Journal & Country Rank), <http://www.scimagojr.com>

SCOPUS (Elsevier Bibliographic Databases), www.info.scopus.com

SocioNet, <http://socionet.ru/>

SRC (Scientific Reference Cosmos), <http://www.srcosmos.gr/srcosmos>

ZBW (German National Library of Economics), <http://www.zbw.eu>

TOURISMOS

An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

EDITOR- IN-CHIEF

Paris Tsartas, Harokopio University of Athens, Greece

EDITORS

Evangelos Christou, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece

Andreas Papatheodorou, University of the Aegean, Greece

CO-EDITORS

Haris Coccois, University of Thessaly, Greece

Gerasimos Zacharatos, University of Patras, Greece

ASSISTANT EDITOR

Theodoros Stavrinoudis, University of the Aegean, Greece

BOOK REVIEWS & CONFERENCE REPORTS EDITOR

Marianna Sigala, University of South Australia, Australia

EDITORIAL ASSISTANT

Konstantina Tsiakali, University of the Aegean, Greece

SCIENTIFIC BOARD:

Bill Bramwell, Sheffield Hallam University, United Kingdom

Richard Butler, University of Surrey, United Kingdom

Chris Cooper, University of Queensland, Australia

Jafar Jafari, University of Wisconsin-Stout, U.S.A.

David Harrison, London Metropolitan University, United Kingdom

Chris Ryan, University of Waikato, New Zealand

John Swarbrooke, Sheffield Hallam University, United Kingdom

John Tribe, University of Surrey, United Kingdom

Francois Vellas, University of Toulouse, France

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

Amal Aboufayad, Lebanese University, Lebanon

George Agiomyrgianakis, Hellenic Open University, Greece

Volkan Altinas, University of Bonn, Germany

George Anastasopoulos, University of Patras, Greece

Konstantinos Andriotis, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus *Vassilis*

Angelis, University of the Aegean, Greece

David Airey, University of Surrey, United Kingdom

Teoman Alemdar, Bilkent University, Turkey

Sofia Avgerinou-Kolonia, National Technical University of Athens, Greece

Thomas Baum, University of Strathclyde, United Kingdom

Eleni Briasouli, University of the Aegean, Greece

Dimitrios Buhalis, Bournemouth University, United Kingdom

Nevenka Čavlek, University of Zagreb, Croatia

Konstandinos Chatzimichalis, Harokopion University, Greece

Kaye Chon, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong SAR China

Lorant Denes David, Károly Róbert Főiskola, Hungary

Alex Deffner, University of Thessaly, Greece

Vasiliki Galani-Moutafi, University of the Aegean, Greece

Hugo Goetch, Free University of Bozen-Bolzano, Italy

Antti Haahhti, University of Lapland, Finland

Michael Hall, University of Otago, New Zealand

Atsuko Hashimoto, Brock University, Ontario, Canada

Svetlana Hristova, University Neofit Rilski, Bulgaria

Olga Iakovidou, Aristotelian University of Thessaloniki, Greece

Elizabeth Ineson, Manchester Metropolitan University, United Kingdom

Stanislav Ivanov, International University College, Bulgaria

Zoran Ivanovic, University of Rijeka, Croatia

Peter Jones, University of Surrey, United Kingdom

Jay Kandampully, Ohio State University, USA

Ioannis Karamanidis, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece

Panagiotis Kassianidis, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece

Hanan Kattara, Alexandria University, Egypt

Saad Al-Deen Kharfan, Tishreen University, Syria

Fotis Kilipiris, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece

Maria Kousi, University of Crete, Greece

Metin Kozak, University of Mugla, Turkey

Dimitrios Lagos, University of the Aegean, Greece

Maria Lekakou, University of the Aegean, Greece

Pericles Lytras, T.E.I. of Athens, Greece

Leonidas Maroudas, University of the Aegean, Greece

Cynthia Mayo, Delaware State University, USA

Audrey Mc Cool, University of Nevada - Las Vegas, USA

Alex Paraskevas, Oxford Brookes University, United Kingdom

Harald Pechlaner, Katholische Universität Eichstätt-Ingolstadt, Germany

Mukesh Ranga, CSJM University, Kanpur, India

Gordana Reckoska, University of Bitola, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

Chris Roberts, University of Massachusetts, USA

Ana-Isabel Rodrigues, Polytechnic Institute of Beja, Portugal

Odysseas Sakellaridis, University of the Aegean, Greece

Alexis Saveriades, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus

Ian Senior, Emirates Academy, United Arab Emirates

Konstandina Skanavi, University of the Aegean, Greece

Pantelis Skagiannis, University of Thessaly, Greece

Marios Soteriades, T.E.I. of Crete, Greece

Ioannis Spilanis, University of the Aegean, Greece

Snezana Stetic, University of Novi Sad, Serbia & Montenegro

Marianthi Stogiannidou, University of the Aegean, Greece

Theano Terkenli, University of the Aegean, Greece

Rodoula Tsiotsou, University of Macedonia, Greece

Adriana Mirela Tomescu, University of Oradea, Romania

Stelios Varvaressos, T.E.I. of Athens, Greece

Cleopatra Veloutsou, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom

Maria Vodenska, University of Sofia, Bulgaria

Sandra Watson, Napier University, United Kingdom

Craig Webster, College of Tourism and Hotel Management, Cyprus

Hannes Werthner, University of Innsbruck, Austria

Atila Yüksel, Adnan Menderes University, Turkey

Elfrida Zefi, University Fan Noli of Korca, Albania

TOURISMOS

An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

Volume 11, Number 5, 2016

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL xii

RESEARCH PAPERS:

EVENTS SPONSORSHIP AS A BUSINESS PARTNERSHIP:
SUGGESTING THE CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

Marios D. Soteriades 1

Sponsorship is now a commonly used component of the integrated marketing communications of many organisations. Despite the importance of sponsorship in the events marketing, this topic has not been investigated sufficiently. The aim of this paper is to explore and identify the critical success factors (CSFs) that determine sponsorship as a business partnership between an event organisation and its sponsor/s. This study proposes a framework of CSFs for events sponsorship as partnership, based on the model suggested by Tuten and Urban (2001). This framework provides (i) a foundation from which sponsorships could be evaluated in a more systematic and strategic manner; and (ii) a guidance for partners' programs and plans in undertaking sponsorship ventures. It then empirically investigates this issue by a qualitative research method, a case study on Comrades Marathon, South Africa, in order to test and validate the suggested framework by means of practitioners' perceptions and opinions.

PROFILING RESIDENTS BASED ON THEIR PERCEPTIONS AND
ATTITUDE TOWARD SPORT EVENT: INSIGHTS FROM THE FIA
WORLD RALLY CHAMPIONSHIP

Giacomo Del Chiappa - Angelo Presenza - Murat Yücelen 26

This study aims at profiling residents based on their perceptions and attitude toward a motor sport event, namely the FIA World Rally Championship. A structured questionnaire was developed and responses from a convenience sample of 759 residents were collected face-to-face in Olbia (Sardinia, Italy), the main municipality involved in the event. A two-step cluster analysis was applied to the seven factors identified by running exploratory factor analysis on a list of 46 statements used to investigate residents' perceptions and attitudes. Results show that residents perceptions and attitudes are not homogeneous and that four clusters can be identified with significant differences based on their socio-demographic characteristics. "Supporters" is the biggest one, followed in decreasing order of size, by: "Neutrals", "Enthusiasts but culturally and environmentally concerned" and "Critics". Contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

THE INFLUENCE OF MEDIA IMPLEMENTED INTO THE EVENT-TOURIST CAREER MODEL: TRIYAS TRIATHLON, ABU DHABI

Nataša Slak Valek, & Al Anood Al Buainain, Research Assistant

52

Using the athletes' career trajectory model, this study implements the influence of media into the trajectory of active sport event participants' decision-making process. It examined athletes' motivation, media influence, travel style and behaviours, and event selection among participants of TriYas triathlon organized in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Data were collected in February 2016 with an online survey sent to all participating athletes and descriptive statistic was used for data analyses. Results indicate that international media are followed by the majority of athletes included in our sample with no statistically significant differences between first-timers and returning participants ($p=0.176$). More promotion is expected in media, but on the other hand athletes do not choose sport events and destinations based on media coverage. In order to get more participants and visitors, which leads to more sponsors and media coverage our results cannot remain disregarded by sport events organizers.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF THE “ELITE” LEISURE SPORTS AND SPORT TOURISM IN HUNGARY

Kiss, Róbert - Marton, Gergel - Prisztóka, Gyöngyvér - Raffay, Zoltán 77

The goal of the study is to observe the consumption of four elite-called leisure time sport activities (sailing, golf, skiing and tennis) in Hungary, during travels and staying at home, within the recreational zone. Authors compared these leisure activities following the four sport tourism dimensions: geographic environment, participation of the consumers, type of sport activity and motivations of tourists, and many more minor variables related to these dimensions. Based on these variables some of the sport activities found typical as generating foreign travels among Hungarians, such as ski and partly golf, but others, like sailing, and golf meant mostly domestic travels towards the lakes of the country. Meanwhile, tennis was taken rather recreational leisure activity among these sports. Authors also made comparison between the cost of these amateur level done sport activities and their popularity, so they observed the number of their followers as well as on the length of their season, just to name a few. They also weighted the socio-economic sensitiveness, and ranked them by their cost of the initial investment of the equipment, and annual costs of activities and finally their total costs.

DESTINATION BRANDING AND VISITOR BRAND LOYALTY: EVIDENCE FROM MATURE TOURISM DESTINATIONS IN GREECE

Chryssoula Chatzigeorgiou & Evangelos Christou 102

Destination brands provide the link between visitors and destination management organisations; tourists may or may not develop a degree

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

of loyalty to destinations as brands. This study suggests that trust in a destination brand has high influence in developing loyalty towards the destination. Based on hypotheses developed, trust in a destination as a brand is influenced by brand characteristics, destination characteristics and visitor characteristics. The survey took place in Greece and examined attitudes of past visitors of mature destinations. Survey results demonstrate that destination brand characteristics appear more important in their impact on a visitor's trust in a brand. It was also found that trust in a destination brand is positively influencing brand loyalty and repeat visitation intentions.

THE ROLE OF EMOTIONS IN A SPORT EVENT EXPERIENCE

Giacomo Del Chiappa & Marcello Atzeni

124

This study investigates whether emotions can be considered a suitable variable to segment spectators at a sports event, as well as to test their affinity with social identification, perceived authenticity, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. A structured questionnaire was developed and responses from a convenience sample of 258 spectators were collected on-site at the 2013 FIA World Rally Championship, Sardinia (Italy). A series of descriptive analyses, dual process cluster analyses (hierarchical and non-hierarchical), factor analyses, independent t-tests and chi-square tests were performed. Findings identified two segments; the cluster with the higher levels of positive emotions reported expressing higher levels of social identification, food-based and culture-based event authenticity (as measured by factors and/or composing items), satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Significant differences were reported between the two segments based on gender and prior experience with the event. Contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

REFUGEE ROUTES AND COMMON RESOURCE POOLS IN TOURISM AREAS: THE CASE OF LESVOS ISLAND, GREECE

Ioanna Simeli - Apostolos Tsagaris - Athanasios Manitsaris

153

Lesvos is a Greek island that during 2015 experienced the largest refugee crisis the country has ever witnessed. Refugees arriving to the island in groups totalling over 1.000.000 passed through the island. The current project using a UAV sought to identify the routes of refugees passing through tourism areas of the island and the possible impact these routes had on the development of these areas. Furthermore, the preservation of the common pool resources of these areas is a vital issue for the well being of local communities and the enhancement of their spirit of welcoming the refugees. An automated system used to inform local authorities about areas polluted by the mass movement of people is presented in this paper.

JOURNAL AIMS AND SCOPE 164

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS 170

EDITORIAL

This special issue concentrates on hospitality and tourism marketing & management. The goal of the special issue is to thoroughly examine contemporary issues on leisure & sport event marketing and management, stimulate dialogue, and develop new perspectives in the field of hospitality and tourism within the globalized environment. As leisure & sport event industry and environment have to deal with new issues like the financial crisis there is a need for conceptual, empirical and practical tools that are important for new theoretical discussion and affective implications in on leisure & sport event marketing & management concepts and practices.

Publications from Marketing and Management fields, connected with leisure & sport events were invited. The special issue was also opened to participants who attended the International Conference on Contemporary Marketing Issues (ICCM) 2015. The purpose of the conference was to offer a friendly environment and a developmental platform for both early career and established researchers to collaborate and develop new perspectives on contemporary marketing issues within the global business context. ICCM2015 was jointly organized by the Alexander Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece, and Kingston Business School, Kingston University London. After a call for papers interesting papers from the conference were selected, blind reviewed and included in this special issue together with papers submitted from authors who were not able to attend the Conference. All papers included in the special issue proposed new insights and perspectives in the wider knowledge area of leisure& sport event industry. We believe that this special issue enriches the tourism destination marketing and management literature by exploring existing and new research issues from the perspective of the rapidly changing global economy.

At next we present briefly the papers included in this issue.

First paper is authored by Marios Sotiriadis entitled “Events sponsorship as a business partnership: suggesting the critical success factors” examines the critical success factors (CSFs) that determine

sponsorship as a business partnership between an event organization and its sponsor/s. This study proposes a framework of CSFs for events sponsorship as partnership, based on the model suggested by Tuten and Urban (2001). This framework provides (i) a foundation from which sponsorships could be evaluated in a more systematic and strategic manner; and (ii) a guidance for partners' programs and plans in undertaking sponsorship ventures. It then empirically investigates this issue by a qualitative research method, a case study on Comrades Marathon, South Africa, in order to test and validate the suggested framework by means of practitioners' perceptions and opinions.

Second paper is entitled "Profiling residents based on their perceptions and attitude toward sport event: insights from the FIA World Rally Championship" and is authored by Giacomo Del Chiappa, Angelo Presenza and Murat Yücelen. In their paper they aim on profiling residents based on their perceptions and attitude toward a motor sport event, namely the FIA World Rally Championship. A structured questionnaire was developed and responses from a convenience sample of 759 residents were collected face-to-face in Olbia (Sardinia, Italy), the main municipality involved in the event. Results show that residents perceptions and attitudes are not homogeneous and that four clusters can be identified with significant differences based on their socio-demographic characteristics. "Supporters" is the biggest one, followed in decreasing order of size, by: "Neutrals", "Enthusiasts but culturally and environmentally concerned" and "Critics". Contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

Third paper deals with "The influence of media implemented into the Event-tourist career model: TriYas triathlon, Abu Dhabi", authored by Nataša Slak Valek and Al Anood Al Buainain. This study using the athletes' career trajectory model, implements the influence of media into the trajectory of active sport event participants' decision-making process. It examines athletes' motivation, media influence, travel style and behaviors, and event selection among participants of TriYas triathlon organized in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Results indicate that international media are followed by the majority of athletes included in the sample with no statistically significant differences between first-timers and returning

participants. More promotion is expected in media, but on the other hand athletes do not choose sport events and destinations based on media coverage.

Forth paper title is “Socio-economic aspects of the “elite” leisure sports and sport tourism in Hungary” and is authored by Kiss, Róbert, Marton, Gergely, Prisztóka, Gyöngyvér and Raffay, Zoltán. This research paper examines the consumption of four elite-called leisure time sport activities (sailing, golf, skiing and tennis) in Hungary, during travels and staying at home, within the recreational zone. Authors compared these leisure activities following the four sport tourism dimensions: geographic environment, participation of the consumers, type of sport activity and motivations of tourists, and many more minor variables related to these dimensions. Based on these variables some of the sport activities found typical as generating foreign travels among Hungarians, such as ski and partly golf, but others, like sailing, and golf meant mostly domestic travels towards the lakes of the country. Meanwhile, tennis was taken rather recreational leisure activity among these sports. The paper finally states that these leisure sport activities should be taken as luxury ones for average Hungarian households, no matter, if quite a few costumers travel with any of these activities as a purpose, such as active or passive sport tourists.

Fifth paper is titled “Destination branding and visitor brand loyalty: Evidence from mature tourism destinations in Greece” and it is authored by Chryssoula Chatzigeorgiou and Evangelos Christou. This paper explores how destination brands provide the link between visitors and destination management organizations; tourists may or may not develop a degree of loyalty to destinations as brands. The study suggests that trust in a destination brand has high influence in developing loyalty towards the destination. Based on hypotheses developed, the authors conclude that trust in a destination as a brand is influenced by brand characteristics, destination characteristics and visitor characteristics. The survey took place in Greece and examined attitudes of past visitors of mature destinations. Last, survey results demonstrate that destination brand characteristics appear more important in their impact on a visitor’s trust in a brand; it was also found

that trust in a destination brand is positively influencing brand loyalty and repeat visitation intentions.

Sixth paper of this special issue is entitled “The role of emotions in a sport event experience” and it is authored by Giacomo Del Chiappa and Marcello Atzeni. This paper investigates whether emotions can be considered a suitable variable to segment spectators at a sports event, as well as to test their affinity with social identification, perceived authenticity, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. A structured questionnaire was developed and responses from a convenience sample of 258 spectators were collected on-site at the 2013 FIA World Rally Championship, Sardinia (Italy). A series of descriptive analyses, dual process cluster analyses (hierarchical and non-hierarchical), factor analyses, independent t-tests and chi-square tests were performed. Findings identified two segments; the cluster with the higher levels of positive emotions reported expressing higher levels of social identification, food-based and culture-based event authenticity (as measured by factors and/or composing items), satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Significant differences were reported between the two segments based on gender and prior experience with the event. Contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

The last paper of this special issue is titled “Refugee routes and common resource pools in tourism areas: the case of Lesbos island” and it is authored by Ioanna Simeli, Apostolos Tsagaris and Athanasios Manitsaris, and sought to identify the routes of refugees passing through tourism areas of the Lesbos island and the possible impact these routes had on the development of these areas by using an UAV (Unmanned Airborne Vehicle). Lesbos is a Greek island that during 2015 experienced the largest refugee crisis the country has ever witnessed. Refugees arriving to the island in groups totaling over 1.000.000 passed through the island. The preservation of the common pool resources of these areas is a vital issue for the well-being of local communities and the enhancement of their spirit of welcoming the refugees. An automated system used to inform local authorities about areas polluted by the mass movement of people is presented in this paper.

Closing this editorial, we want to mention that without the interesting papers and the hospitality of the TOURISMOS: An International Multidisciplinary Refereed Journal of Tourism Editorial Board it was too difficult or else impossible to prepare and create this special issue, therefore we want to thank all the authors for their good job and coordination and we want specially thank the members of the journal for their important contribution. Our thanks also to all the reviewers, for their valuable recommendations and their critical academic work.

Guest Editors

Associate Professor Anestis K. Fotiadis, I-Shou University, Taiwan

and

Professor, Tzung-Cheng Huan, National Chiayi University, Taiwa

EVENTS SPONSORSHIP AS A BUSINESS PARTNERSHIP: SUGGESTING THE CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

Marios D. Soteriadis
University of South Africa

Sponsorship is now a commonly used component of the integrated marketing communications of many organisations. Despite the importance of sponsorship in the events marketing, this topic has not been investigated sufficiently. The aim of this paper is to explore and identify the critical success factors (CSFs) that determine sponsorship as a business partnership between an event organisation and its sponsor/s. This study proposes a framework of CSFs for events sponsorship as partnership, based on the model suggested by Tuten and Urban (2001). This framework provides (i) a foundation from which sponsorships could be evaluated in a more systematic and strategic manner; and (ii) a guidance for partners' programs and plans in undertaking sponsorship ventures. It then empirically investigates this issue by a qualitative research method, a case study on Comrades Marathon, South Africa, in order to test and validate the suggested framework by means of practitioners' perceptions and opinions.

Keywords: *Events marketing, business partnership, sponsorship, critical success factors, Comrades Marathon*

INTRODUCTION

The events industry is rapidly developing and makes a significant contribution to business and leisure related tourism. Events are seen both animators of destination attractiveness but more fundamentally as key marketing propositions in the promotion of places given the increasingly global competition to attract visitors (Getz & Page, 2016). Corporate involvement in events has increased considerably, in terms of both companies mounting events for their

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

own purposes, and companies investing in events through sponsorship and partnering (Bowdin et al., 2011). Within this business environment, the event organisations must adopt and implement the suitable tools and methods to address the related challenges.

Furthermore, partnerships and collaboration have become very popular in tourism in the past twenty years. Collaboration was defined as “a very positive form of working in association with others for some form of mutual benefit” (Huxham, 1996: 7). Business partnerships are very popular in tourism and fit well with an industry that is so diverse. One reason is because tourism is such a fertile field for collaborations of all types. Additionally, tourism-related businesses are increasingly recognizing the positive synergies that result from working together rather than separately (Morrison, 2013; Gursoy et al., 2015).

Events need support in two crucial fields - financial and marketing -, since they are lacking in financial resources and in marketing expertise and know-how. Most event organisations have limited resources; especially financial, and partnering and teaming up with others is a good way to make events successful and sustainable. Most of the events have to work hard to acquire necessary resources and manage them efficiently (Getz, 2005). Literature suggests that partnering is no longer optional for events, and they can enjoy profound benefits from sponsorship and other types of partnership (Getz, 2005; Sotiriadis, 2013).

Hence, sponsors are one of the main partners of events. The corporate sector is a major player in events using them regularly as a significant element of the integrated marketing communications (Nella & Christou, 2016). Companies sponsor events in order to demonstrate product attributes, build brand awareness and reach target markets effectively. Recent decades have seen enormous increases in sponsorship and a corresponding change in how events are perceived by sponsors (Bowdin, et al., 2011). Sponsors are necessary to enable events to increase attendance and raise their domestic and international profile. This business relationship is mutually beneficial if it is well designed and efficiently managed (Sotiriadis, 2013).

During the last decades there is an increasing academic research on events, mainly focusing on events evaluation, impacts

and planning. However, the conceptual and empirical investigations on events sponsorship are very rare. The present paper is attempting to address this gap by exploring the issue of events sponsorship from a practitioner perspective. It reports on a qualitative research – using the method of case study and in-depth interviews – to explore the CSFs in the events sponsorship as a business partnership. This article proceeds as follows. First, a review of literature on business partnerships and events marketing is performed to identify the main elements and key factors. The study then suggests a framework of CSFs in events sponsorship as a business partnership between event and sponsor/s. In order to validate the factors associated with sponsorship success, an empirical study was conducted within the setting of a sporting event. The main components and findings of this case study are presented in the fourth section. The paper closes with study's main points, the marketing implications, the limitations and avenues for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Three are the main issues examined by this study, namely: (i) partnerships and alliances between businesses; (ii) sponsorship within the context of events marketing; and (iii) previous studies on events and events sponsorship.

Business partnerships and alliances

Partnership is an arrangement in which parties agree to cooperate to advance their mutual interests (UberStudent, 2011). The most common definition of partnership refers to a partnership that is formed between one or more businesses in which partners (owners) cooperate to achieve common business aims. Partnerships exist within, and across, industries and fields; all types of organizations may partner together to increase the likelihood of each achieving their goals and to amplify their reach.

Other terms and concepts associated with partnership are collaboration, alliance, cooperation and teamwork. The outcome is synergy, a synergistic relationship. The concept is best characterized as “the whole is greater than the sum of the parts” (Morrison, 2013: 191). This means that when collaborating, organizations can do

things that they could not do on their own. A synergistic relationship, therefore, is a deliberate cooperative arrangement that produce benefits for partners that would not be achieved without working together. This is the result from the pooling of resources and effort.

Literature suggests that the main benefits resulting from business partnerships include: increasing financial resources, sharing information, increasing pool of expertise, increasing market appeal, better serving customer needs, accessing new markets, enhancing customers' perceptions, image, and positioning, and expanding social responsibility. These benefits are substantial enough to prove the great power in business partnerships (Kanter, 1994; Morrison, 2013; Gursoy et al., 2015).

Scholars contend that there are some basic ingredients needed to make sure that a partnership is successful (see, for instance, Hansen & Nohria, 2004). In her seminar article, Kanter (1994) identified the 'Eight Is of partnership development' that she argued were the basic ingredients of successful partnerships as follows. Individual excellence: The partners are strong and have something to contribute to the collaboration. Importance: The partnership fits with the goals and strategies of the partners. Interdependence: The partners need each other and they have complementary resources, skills and experiences. Investment: The partners invest in each other. Information: The partners share information and communications are open. Integration: The partners create linkages and shared ways of doing things. Institutionalization: The partnership is given a formal status, e.g. with contract or Memorandum of Understanding (MOU). Integrity: Mutual trust is increased because partners behave in an honourable way toward each other.

The formation of inter-organizational collaboration, its development, management, success and failures are areas of continuous interest of academic research (Aas et al., 2005; Child & Faulkner, 1998; Dev et al., 1996; Holmberg & Cummings, 2009). Previous studies on business partnerships and collaboration focused on the following issues and aspects: the characteristics of partnership, the internal and external factors influencing the effectiveness of collaboration forms, stakeholders' perceptions and attitudes, governance and partners' relationships, the nature of the

collaborative environment, stakeholder collaboration features and outcomes (Yaghmour & Scott, 2011).

Nowadays, it is recognized that partnerships and collaboration can make a valuable contribution to all fields and functions of business arena. An event or event organisation cannot be successful and sustainable without the assistance of sponsors and partners. Partnering with others is essential for events in today's business climate where budgets are shrinking but competition is growing (Telfer, 2000; Getz, 2008). The previous studies on collaboration in events have taken specific perspective, i.e. tourism destination level (e.g. Telfer, 2000) and approach, i.e. exploring the issue within a context, such as development, planning, collaborative approaches for development of specific form of tourism and events (e.g. Aas et al., 2005; Saxena, 2005; Soteriades & Dimou, 2011). There are no studies on the business-to-business collaboration, at micro level. This gap is addressed by the present study.

Event marketing and sponsorship

Event marketing and sponsorship is one of the main areas of event strategy. Event marketing is a structured and coherent way of thinking about managing an event to achieve objectives related to market/stakeholder awareness, event attendance, satisfaction and either profits or benefits (Bowdin et al., 2011). The core of event marketing is the focus on existing and potential event consumers (i.e. attendees). Kotler et al. (2010) contend that the marketing mix consists of both experiential (i.e. product, place, programming, people) and facilitating components (i.e. partnerships, communications, packaging/distribution, price). Two of the key elements of event marketing are (i) partnerships, stakeholders such as sponsors and media; and (ii) integrated marketing communication, i.e. media and messages employed to build relationships with the event markets (Getz, 2005).

Sponsorship is defined as “any commercial agreement by which a sponsor, for the mutual benefits of the sponsor and sponsored party, contractually provides financing or other support in order to establish an association between the sponsor's image, brands or products and a sponsorship property in return for rights to promote this association and/or for the granting of certain agreed direct or

indirect benefits.” (International Chamber of Commerce International Code on Sponsorship, ICC, 2003: 2). In general, sponsorship holds a unique position in the marketing mix because it is effective in building brand awareness, providing differentiated marketing platforms, facilitating direct business benefits and providing valuable networking and opportunities (Valeri, 2016). The main purpose of sponsorship is to generate awareness and acceptance of an organisation, its brand and its products or services (Kim, 2010).

The significance of sponsorship to the events industry is well documented (e.g. Bowdin et al. 2011). The sponsorship has the potential of creating benefits from reciprocal partnerships between events and sponsors. A crucial point is to develop event sponsorship strategies to manage event–sponsor relationships and achieve positive and enduring relationships with sponsors. The benefits that event organisations and their sponsors seek are highlighted by Crompton’s exchange relationship in event sponsorship (Crompton, 1994). Sponsorships are fast becoming business partnerships that offer resources beyond money. To succeed in attracting and keeping the sponsorship stakes, event organisers must thoughtfully develop policies and strategies, providing a clear framework for both events and sponsors to decide on the value and suitability of potential partnerships (Sotiriadis, 2013). All these elements imply that event sponsorships should be seen and approached as a business partnership.

Leveraging sponsorships is also an important issue. Leveraging has been defined by Weeks, Cornwell and Drennan (2008) as "the act of using collateral marketing communications to exploit the commercial potential of the association between a sponsor and sponsee". The need for efficient management of events sponsorships has been indicated by scholars. For instance, Sotiriadis (2013) highlighted that event sponsorship is one of the most challenging topics to be addressed by event managers, and he suggested a framework for efficient event sponsorship management. The same study also formulated a series of recommendations in rendering the interrelationship between events and sponsors a mutually beneficial partnership.

Previous studies on events and events sponsorship

The field of events and events marketing has attracted the interest of academic research in recent years. The main topics investigated by scholars are consumer behaviour, destination perspective (Küçükaltan & Pinar, 2016) and the effects of events sponsorship, as outlined below.

Consumer behaviour perspective: studies investigated the antecedents to events, with two research streams, namely (a) the event attendees: researchers explored their motivations, involvement, and meanings as experiences (e.g. Ihamaki, 2012; Fullagar & Pavlidis, 2012; Wicker & Hallmann, 2013; Sneath et al., 2005); and (b) event volunteers: their motivations, involvement and commitment in various events (e.g. Fermani et al., 2013; Nassar & Talaat, 2009, Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, & Soteriades, 2016; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, & Yeh, 2016; Fotiadis, Xie, Li, & Huan, 2016).

Destination perspective on events with two research streams: (a) planning, managing and marketing event tourism: studies examined the organizations involved, stakeholder networks, policy making, goals and strategies, as well as the event stakeholder management and collaboration (e.g. Getz & Fairley, 2004; Ziakas, 2010; Soteriades & Dimou, 2011). (b) Events' impacts: economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts of events on hosting communities / destinations (e.g. Esu et al., 2011; Saayman & Saayman, 2012; Jamieson, 2014, Fu & Kapiki, 2016).

Effects of events sponsorship: A range of psychological and communications theories have been used to explain how sponsorship works to impact consumer audiences. Cornwell et al. (2005) have published an extensive review of the theories used to explain commercial sponsorship effects. One of the most pervasive findings in sponsorship is that the best effects are achieved where there is a logical match between the sponsor and sponsored, such as a sports brand sponsoring a sports event. The effects of events sponsorship can be divided into two research streams (Kim, 2010), namely: (a) The consumer psychological approach to sponsorship has focused on consumers' cognitive and affective response, i.e. consumers' awareness, recognition, image enhancement and behavioural intentions. Awareness of sports sponsorship and brand name, and image fit between events and sponsor are good example of research steam in perspective of consumer psychology and

behaviour (Harvey et al. 2006; Rowley and Williams 2008; Roy and Cornwell, 2004; Sneath et al., 2005). (ii) The financial evaluation approach focuses on grasping the potential contribution of sports sponsorship to positive or negative changes in stock price. The effect of sponsorship on firm value in the stock market can be investigated in financial perspective (Kim, 2010).

A very recent article by Getz and Page (2016) provides a comprehensive 'state of the art' examination of critical, conceptual and theoretical academic debates within event studies in general. This article argues that there are few articles that have focused on specific aspects and issues associated with events management and marketing (Getz & Page, 2016)

From the above review of literature, it can be seen that there is a growing body of knowledge in the field of event planning, management and marketing. However, academic research hasn't explored sufficiently events marketing and there is limited coverage of the events sponsorship. The extant literature in the events marketing and sponsorship remains limited, particularly within the context of inter-organisational collaboration. This paper attempts to fill this significant research gap. The aim of this paper is, therefore, to offer useful insights on this event marketing strategy as a business partnership.

SUGGESTING A FRAMEWORK OF CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN EVENTS SPONSORSHIP

It is believed that the inter-organisational collaboration and business partnership provide a sound theoretical foundation to explore the issue of factors influencing the success in event sponsorship. The success of any alliance significantly depends on how effective the capabilities of the involved partners are matched and whether the full commitment of each partner to the alliance is achieved (Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Tuten & Urban, 2001). There is no partnership without trade-offs, but the benefits of it must prevail the disadvantages, because alliances are made to fill gaps in each organisation's resources, capabilities and capacities. Poor alignment of objectives, unclear performance metrics, and a clash of corporate cultures can weaken and constrain the effectiveness of the partnership.

A research stream had explored and suggested a series of key factors that have to be considered to be able to manage a successful partnership (Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Todeva & Knoke, 2005; Lunnan & Haugland, 2008; Holmberg & Cummings, 2009; Yagmour and Scott, 2009). Very interesting is the suggestion by Tuten and Urban (2001). This study developed an expanded model of partnership formation and success that builds upon a previous model constructed by Mohr and Spekman (1994). The former study confirmed the existence of various characteristics of partnership success and identified factors serving as antecedents to the formation of a partnership.

Our study uses this model as a foundation to the suggested framework of CSFs. It is believed that the issue of collaboration/business partnership should be considered as a process as suggested by various definitions and suggestions. This study implies a two-step approach as follows. First, literature review allowed us to identify the factors that contribute to the successful formation and implementation of a partnership in general. These determining factors are shown in Table 1. Second, it then moves on suggesting a model of specific CSFs for sponsorship partnership, drawn upon the identified general factors.

Table 1: Factors and ingredients contributing to partnership success into three stages

Stage 1: Initial formation of collaboration: Motivators for the occurrence of collaboration and its prerequisites

Factors / Ingredients	Content / explanation
Partners' characteristics and selection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partner compatibility: the selection process and finding the 'right' partners is a critical step in to identifying partners and building partnerships that produce synergies. • Level of commitment and strategic approach (long term) • Alignment, share a common interest in marketing or development terms. • Expertise: complementary expertise is pooled for greater effectiveness • Willingness to partner: Willing to make an investment in each other and share information freely. • Ability to meet performance expectations
Understanding	Partnering organisations must have a clear understanding of the potential partner's resources and interests. This understanding should be the base of set the partnership goals
Negotiations	<p>During negotiations time pressure must not have an influence on the outcome of the process.</p> <p>Need to develop a time plan, set milestones, and design communication channels</p>
Clarity of goals	<p>Mutually beneficial goals are established throughout negotiations.</p> <p>Clear goals (determining expectations of partnership benefits)</p>

Stage 2: Implementation of partnership: efficient operation and management of the partnership

Attributes of the partnership (having an impact on collaboration outcomes)	Attributes include commitment, coordination, interdependence and trust. When these attributes exist in a partnership, the partners recognize their interdependence and are committed to work towards a beneficial relationship. Suitable governance structures, mutual acceptance, stakeholder allegiance, and leadership
Planning and Managing sponsorship	Detailed partnership planning / Realistic time frames. Sponsorship must be effectively managed in order to ensure that the benefits that were promised are delivered.
Communication behaviour	It includes the quality of communication (i.e. accuracy and credibility of shared information), Information sharing (refers to the extent to which critical information is exchanged). Good and sufficient communications get to know each other better, each other's interests.
Creation of trust and goodwill	The best basis for a successful partnership is the creation of trust and goodwill, because it increases openness of communication and makes the common work easier. Further it leads to equal and satisfied partners.
Conflict resolution techniques used	The most successful partnerships will rely primarily on constructive resolution techniques such as joint problem-solving and persuasion
Stage 3: Assessment of results: Assess the partnership outcomes; attainment of goals and objectives	
Evaluating performance	A shared responsibility of the event and its sponsor is the measurement of the overall impact of the partnership.
Control mechanisms	Monitoring, measuring and reporting
Determining performance indicators	The partners should evaluate partnership's performance; expected vs. actual benefits.

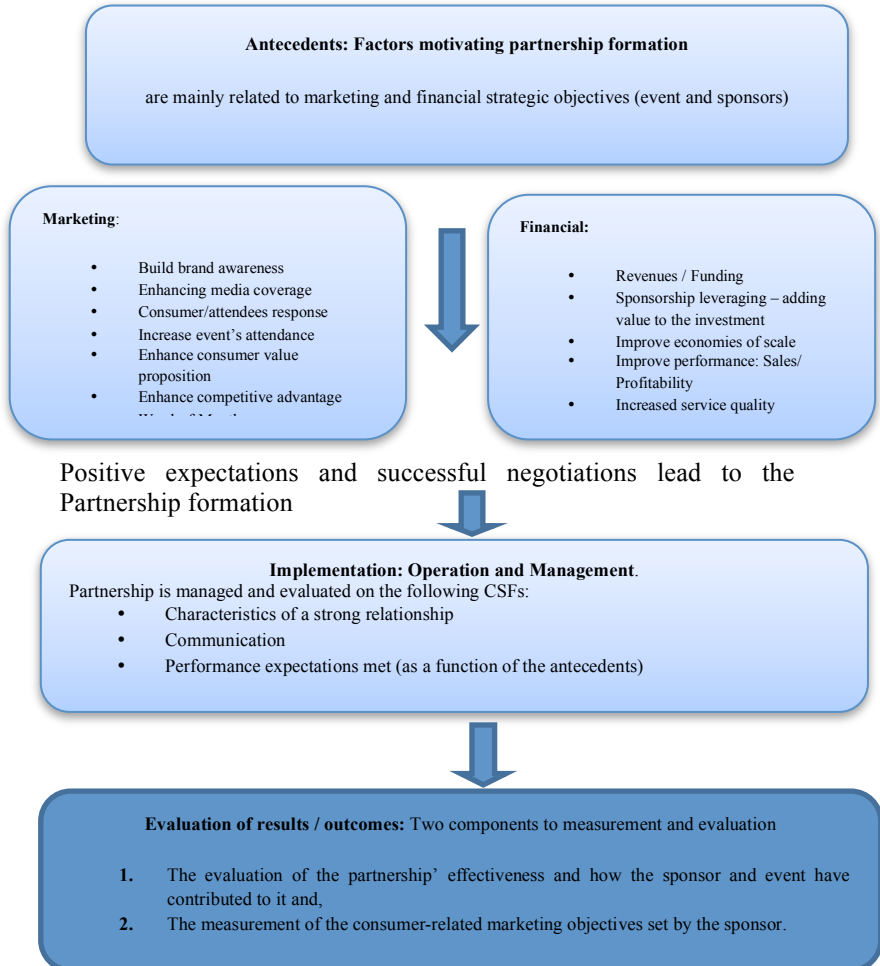
Source: Retrieved from various studies

Literature suggests that all abovementioned factors make an important contribution towards enhancing partnership success. Therefore, all events and sponsors should seriously consider the factors affecting the formation and management of this business venture.

SUGGESTING A SET OF CSFs FOR EVENT SPONSORSHIP PARTNERSHIP

The specific activities the two or more sponsorship partners must perform efficiently and the factors that act as criteria / measures of success can be called its CSFs (Tuten & Urban, 2001). The above outlined approach involves that the CSFs of business partnership should be examined in three stages of sponsorship partnership formation and management. These factors are related to (i) the initial stage / pre-formation; (ii) implementation (operation and management); and (iii) evaluation of results of partnership, as presented in Table 1. The CSFs should be appropriate to the specific scope of an event and should be customized. Thus, this study suggests a framework of CSFs, depicted in Figure 1, drawn upon the factors previously identified and presented in Table 1.

Figure 1: A framework of CSFs for sponsorship business partnership formation and success



Source: adapted from Tuten and Urban, 2001: 160

If the positive expectations are met, then the sponsorship partnership is successful and continues. This study argues that the factors motivating the business partnership determine both the

formation of the business partnership directly, and they ultimately lead into the evaluation of sponsorship success. The latter should be assessed based on the agreed outcomes of collaboration, the efficiency of pooling together their assets and resources, the partnering business outcomes in financial and marketing terms derived from the successful implementation of events (Getz & Fairley, 2004; Sotiriadis, 2013).

In order to test and validate the factors associated with sponsorship success, an empirical study was conducted within the setting of established event. The suggested framework was investigated within the context of a long established sporting event, the Comrades Marathon, South Africa. The main components and findings of this case study are presented below.

CASE STUDY: COMRADES MARATHON

The event

The Comrades Marathon is an ultramarathon of approximately 89 km, which is run annually in May/June in South Africa between the cities of Durban and Pietermaritzburg. It is the world's largest and oldest ultramarathon race. The direction of the race alternates each year between the 'up' run (87 km) starting from Durban and the 'down' run (89 km) starting from Pietermaritzburg (Comrades, 2015). Runners over the age of 20 qualify when they are able to complete an officially recognised marathon (42.2 km) in less than five hours. During the event an athlete must also reach five cut-off points in specified times to complete the race. The spirit of the Comrades Marathon is said to be embodied by attributes of camaraderie, selflessness, dedication, and perseverance. Athletes currently have 12 hours to complete the course; medals are awarded to all runners completing the course in less than 12 hours (Comrades, 2015).

The Comrades was run for the first time on 24 May 1921 with 34 participants, and with the exception of a break during World War II, has been run every year since. In 1970 had over 1,000 starters for the first time and in 1990s 12,000 to 14,000 runners. Its 75th anniversary in 2000 was the largest ever staged, with a massive field of 23,961. On its 85th anniversary, the race gained a place in the Guinness World Records as the ultramarathon with most

runners. 14,343 athletes, the largest field since the turn of the millennium. The 2015 event was the 90th race with over 15,000 athletes (Comrades, 2015).

It is generally considered to be one of the most successful sporting events. Four were the Major Sponsors of the edition 2015. The names of these sponsors are not given for obvious reasons.

Table 2: Major Sponsors (all based in South Africa)

Organization	Industry	Slogan / Moto
A	Insurance and healthcare services	Supporting your life; Your healthcare looked after by a medical scheme that has been in business for more than 30 years
B	Banking and financial services	Based on innovative partnerships and recognition of strong social dimension to sponsorship
C	Food industry	In a world where our everyday lives are dominated by the demands, Ruth with us.
D	Insurance and financial services	Leading financial solutions, backed by 168 years of wisdom to meet all your saving and investment needs

Source: Comrades (2015) and sponsors' official websites

METHODOLOGY

This research employed a qualitative research method using the technique of in-depth interviews (Minichiello et al., 1995; Yin, 2003) to examine and test the suggested framework of CSFs. The primary data collection method used in this study was a series of in-depth interviews with marketing managers. In-depth interviewing is a time-consuming; however, it offered a chance to gather information with open-ended responses to questions about CSFs. Qualitative data was obtained from five face-to-face semi-structured interviews with managers. Open questions were asked of respondents with follow-up questions used to probe for opinions regarding sponsorship venture and responses on factors of the business partnership in all three stages.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The data set coming from the five interviews were analysed and the main opinions and key points expressed by interviewees are presented below. Interviewees expressed their full or simple agreement that the suggested framework constitutes a rational approach to sponsorship as a business partnership. They believe that it encompasses the key factors determining the success and sustainability of such a venture.

General opinions about sponsorship as a marketing communications tool. A marketing manager (Sponsor B) indicated: “We seek to partner with organizations and events throughout sports, arts, entertainment, and causes for mutual benefit. We always look for exchange of ideas and the fuelling of innovation to render this business partnership successful”. Another marketing manager (Sponsor C): “Sponsorship is for our organisation one strategy of engaging clients and potential customers. Therefore, we have to make the right decisions and go for efficient options to attain return on investment.” “Our industry is one of the most competitive industries in terms of marketing,” said another manager (Sponsor D), continuing, “for our brand the focus has now shifted on find dynamic partnerships that allow engagement with consumers on an ongoing basis and that become part of the fabric of the events and

companies that we sponsor rather than simply using them as a means to an end.”

Event marketing manager pointed out: “Marketers rely on precision marketing, i.e. right message, right timing, right location. Work focuses on understanding the consumer experience and building relevant connection points to fuel consumers passion points and fostering brand relationships. Partnerships have to enhance the consumer or attendee experience.” One of his counterpart highlighted the importance of event–sponsor fit: “the fit between the event and sponsor is one of the key determinants of sponsorship effectiveness. It is essential for companies to assess their brand value and sponsorship fit in selecting most appropriate sports event.” The same opinion is shared by another interviewee: “Before sponsoring an activity, the sponsor must feel sure that the event will be successful; has a proven track record and generally be aligned with the sponsor's brand and business objectives.” Event marketing manager: “Events are experience oriented and attendees voluntarily participate in such events; a potential advantage of sponsoring such experience-oriented events is that firms can gain wide exposure for their brands among large audiences.”

It is clear that sponsorship entails two activities: an exchange with the event or venue and then communication of the association where the sponsor leverages that association with other marketing initiatives. In this regards, a marketing manager argued that “... the organisation receiving the sponsorship stands to benefit enormously from both financial support and other forms of backing from an established partner, provided that both parties have agreed a set of common objectives to underpin the sponsorship.” Event marketing links a company's brand to an activity for the purpose of creating experiences for attendees and promoting a product or service. The synergies between sponsorships and event marketing encourage their joint application.

All managers agreed that “marketers have to replace instinctive event marketing methods with quantifiable, scientific approaches to effective event marketing and sponsorship.” Therefore, they have to analyse the determinants of effective event sponsorship.

All interviewees shared the opinion that the **initial stage (antecedents) of formation of sponsorship** as a business partnership is the cornerstone, the most critical to its success. An

interviewee argued as follows: “Sponsorship is the material support of an event. It is a good way of increasing brand awareness, which helps to generate consumer preference and to foster brand loyalty. A company can reinforce awareness among its target market by sponsoring an event that attracts a similar target market.” The same manager added: ‘These expectations must be fully precise in terms of performance indicators.’

Another manager indicated that ‘Sponsorship is not an act of charity - it must show some form of positive return on investment (ROI). Since sponsorship is a business arrangement, standard evaluative criteria should be used to establish the suitability of a proposed event in relation to the sponsor, image and products.’

One other interviewee commented: “Managers rank the promotion of corporate and brand image as their most important sponsorship goals. A sponsor can enjoy a wide range of benefits from a carefully selected sponsorship... I do agree, these benefits must be translated into objectives and targets. It is the only way to monitor, measure and assess the partnership outputs.” Finally, a manager added: “Sponsorships capture a significant proportion of marketing budgets. In firm evaluations of the effectiveness of sponsorship engagements, image improvements represent the most important company objective.”

In sum, the perceptions and opinions of the interviewees about the CSFs for a successful partnership seem to be validating the suggested framework. Nevertheless, this framework is not without drawbacks. Key findings of the empirical study are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Merits and drawbacks of suggested framework

Merits	Drawbacks / insufficiencies
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Marketing managerial tool• Contributes to determine policies and strategies in the field of sponsorship (from sponsors and sponsored)• Rational approach• Comprehensive approach in temporal terms (stages)• Influencing factors are clearly determined• Sponsorship selection criteria• Facilitates monitoring, measurement and evaluation of performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lack of operationalisation, i.e. it does not provide applicable actions• Expectations must be translated in clear and precise objectives• Objectives should be targets as indicators to evaluate the partnership performance• Lack of responsibility attribution

CONCLUSION, MARKETING IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Business partnerships are strategies of marketing management approach. Effective partnership formation, operation and management are required in meeting partners' expectations. It is believed that partners must fully consider all key factors determining and the attainment of more successful sponsorship ventures. This article argues that sponsorship partnership is a process and involves identifying a shared set of objectives, and also determining all factors that influence its success and sustainability.

First, this study performed a review of the academic literature on business partnerships, seeking to identify CSFs for efficient partnerships in event sponsorship. Various resources were used to develop a framework for outlining the factors influencing the success of sponsorship venture. Second, the suggested framework was tested by means of a qualitative research method, in-depth interviews with marketing managers of sponsors and the sponsored

sporting event. Testing the framework by taking the practitioners' perceptions and opinions allowed us to identify the merits and drawbacks of the proposed framework. The main point that this study is making is that event sponsorship must be seen as business partnership within the context of integrated marketing communications in order to fully take advantage of its potential. This approach is necessary to make sponsorships successful ventures and a winning formula mutually beneficial to events and sponsors.

The tested framework provides managers with further insight into how they should approach and analyse the sponsorship ventures. It is believed that this study contributed to gain a deeper understanding of the topic of sponsorship. Therefore, this study generates some useful theoretical and practical implications.

Identifying and understanding the key factors influencing the success of sponsorship is a fundamental step toward the development of a comprehensive framework of sponsorship effectiveness, drivers, targets and measures. This study highlights the importance of managerial marketing approach to the success of event sponsorships. It also clarifies how this issue should be approached and considered into three phases. All stages are important; however, this study suggests that the most significant is the first one because it contributes to set the collaborative framework and to determine partners' targets.

Obviously the event sponsorship must be effectively managed in order to ensure that expectations are met, and positive and enduring relations are developed between partners. Relationships between events and sponsors should ideally be on a long-term partnership basis. Event managers must cultivate mutually beneficial relationships, provide accountability for resources received, and help sponsors get the most value for their investment, a higher leverage. Therefore, there is a need for monitoring, reporting and accountability. The suggested framework also indicates that events sponsorship agreements must be properly managed so that commitments made to sponsors are met and there is a need to assess outcomes. Hence, one of the critical tasks of management (of all partners involved) is the assessment of achieved outcomes. This involves evaluating the partnership's effectiveness and the mutual and separate contribution of sponsor and event organisation. All

these elements must be integral components of an adequate event sponsorship management plan.

Overall, this study contributes to a comprehensive appreciation of sponsorship as a business partnership. Although several issues remain, the findings provide an assessment of factors that influence successful sponsorships. This study also advances the quest for a sound understanding of sponsorship effectiveness.

The events sponsorship is an important topic in tourism and leisure fields, and merits further research and management consideration. Further research is clearly required to validate the representative nature and reliability of these findings. However, the practical implications from this study seem to suggest the need to develop a more rational and marketing management approach.

Given the lack of research into collaboration and partnerships in event sponsorship, scholars are encouraged to expand efforts in this area. For instance, researchers could investigate how partners could determine quantifiable targets, based on CSFs. Another question is to explore the sponsorship in other types of events, not only in an individual event, as was done here. A potential extension of the suggested framework is to develop strategies to effectively leverage derived benefits to sponsors and event marketers. More detailed analysis is required to assess sponsorship effectiveness. A very interesting research avenue is to develop and test precise measures of evaluating the effectiveness, taking into account the new marketing channels and media, i.e. the Internet, social media, and other online platforms.

REFERENCES

- Aas, C., Ladkin, A. & Fletcher, J. (2005). Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp.28–48.
- Bowdin, G., Allen, J., O'Toole, W., Harris R. & McDonnell, I. (2011). *Events Management*. 3rd edn. Oxford, Elsevier.
- Child, J. & Faulkner, D. (1998). *Strategies of Co-operation, Managing Alliances, Networks, and Joint Ventures*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Comrades (2015) Official site (<http://www.comrades.com/>). Accessed the 10th of November 2015.

- Cornwell, T. B., Weeks, C. S., & Roy, D. P. (2005). Sponsorship-linked marketing: Opening the blackbox. *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 34, pp.21-42.
- Crompton, J. (1994). Benefits and risks associated with sponsorship of major events. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 65-74.
- Dev, C.S., Klein, S. & Fisher, R.A. (1996). A market-based approach for partner selection in marketing alliances. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 35, No. 1, pp.11-17.
- Esu, B.B., Mbaze-Ebock Arrey, V., Basil, G., a& Eyo, E.E. (2011). Analysis of the economic impacts of cultural festivals: The case of Calabar Carnival in Nigeria. *Tourismos Journal*, Vol. 6, No. 2, pp.155-174.
- Fermani, A., Sehdev, M. & Motuzenko, O. (2013). The Pro Loco Italian volunteers involved in the promotion of tourist events. *Tourismos Journal*, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp.215-232.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. & Soteriades, M. D. (2016a) The preferences of participants in small-scale sport events: A conjoint analysis case study from Taiwan. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, Vol. 64, No 2, pp: 175 - 187.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. & Yeh, S. (2016b) Participant's preferences for small-scale sporting events: a comparative analysis of a Greek and a Taiwanese cycling event. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, Vol. 11, No 2, pp:232 - 247.
- Fotiadis, A., Xie, L., Li, Y. & Huan, T.-C. T. C. (2016c) Attracting athletes to small-scale sports events using motivational decision-making factors. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69, No. 11, pp:5467-5472.
- Fu, J., & Kapiki, S. (2016). Reengineering knowledge for e-tourism and hospitality Curricula. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 23-32. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376345
- Fullagar, S., & Pavlidis, A. (2012). "It's all about the journey": women and cycling events. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, Vol. 3, No. 2, pp.149-170.
- Getz, D. (2005). *Event Management and Event Tourism*. 2nd edn. New York, Cognizant Communications Corporation.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 29, No.3, pp.403-428.
- Getz, D., & Fairley, S. (2004). Media management at sport events for destination promotion. *Event Management*, Vol. 8, No.3, pp.127-139.
- Getz, D. & Page, S.J. (2016). Progress and prospects for event tourism research. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 52, pp.593-631.
- Gursoy, D., Saayman, M. and Sotiriadis, M. (2015). Introduction. In D. Gursoy, M. Saayman, and M. Sotiriadis (Eds.) *Collaboration in*

- Tourism Businesses and Destinations: A Handbook* (pp. xv - xxvi). Bingley, UK: Emerald.
- Hansen, M.T. & Nohria, N. (2004). How to build collaborative advantage. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 46, No.1, pp.22-30.
- Harvey, B., Gray, S. & Despain, G. (2006). Measuring the effectiveness of true sponsorship. *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 46, No.4, pp.398-409.
- Holmberg, S.R. & Cummings, J.L. (2009). Building successful strategic alliances: Strategic process and analytical tool for selecting partner industries and firms. *Long Range Planning*, Vol. 42, pp.164-193.
- Huxham, C. (1996). Collaboration and competitive advantage. In C. Huxham (Ed.) *Creating Collaborative Advantage* (pp. 1–18), London: Sage.
- Ihamaki, P. (2012). Fare tale orienteering: Developing art word by letterboxing event. *Tourismos Journal*, Vol. 7, No.1, pp.253-268.
- International Chamber of Commerce [ICC] (2003). *International code on sponsorship*. (Internet) Commission on Marketing and Advertising. Paris: ICC. Available at: <http://www.iccwbo.org/id926/index.html> . Accessed the 20th of October 2011.
- Jamieson, N. (2014). Sport tourism events as community builders - how social capital helps the “locals” cope. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*, Vol. 15, No.1, pp.57-68.
- Kanter, R.M. (1994). Collaborative advantage: The art of alliances. *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 72, No.4, pp.96-108.
- Kim, J.-W. (2010). The worth of sport event sponsorship: an event study. *Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, Vol. 5, No.1, pp.1-14.
- Kotler, P., Bowen, J. & Makens, J. (2010). *Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism*. 5th edn. Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson Education Inc.
- Küçükaltan, E., & Pirnar, I. (2016). Competitiveness factors of a tourism destination and impact on residents' quality of life: The Case of Cittaslow-Seferihisar. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 22-29. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376332
- Lunnan, R. & Haugland, S.A. (2008). Predicting and measuring alliance performance: A multidimensional analysis. *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 29, No.5, pp.545-556.
- Minichiello, V., Aroni, R., Timewell, E., & Alexander, L. (1995). *In-depth Interviewing: Principles, Techniques, Analysis*, 2nd edn. Melbourne, Longman Cheshire.
- Mohr, J., and Spekman, R.E. (1994). Characteristics of partnership success: Partnership attributes, communication behavior, and conflict resolution techniques. *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 15, No., 2, pp.135-152.

- Morrison, A.M. (2013). *Marketing and Managing Tourism Destinations*. Oxon, UK, Routledge.
- Nassar, N.O. & Talaat, N.M. (2009). Motivations of young volunteers in special events. *Tourismos Journal*, Vol. 4, No.1, pp.145-152.
- Nella, A., & Christou, E. (2016). Extending tourism marketing: Implications for targeting the senior tourists' segment. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp.36-42. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376336
- Rowley, J. & Williams, C. (2008). The impact of brand sponsorship of music festivals. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 26, No.7, pp.781-792.
- Roy, D. & Cornwell, T.B. (2004). The effects of consumer knowledge on responses to event sponsorships. *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 21, No.3, pp.185-207.
- Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2012). The economic impact of the Comrades marathon. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, Vol. 3, No.3, pp.220-235.
- Saxena, G. (2005). Relationships, networks and the learning regions: Case evidence from the Peak District National Park. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 26, No.2, pp.277-289.
- Sneath, J.Z., Finney, Z.R. & Grace Close, A. (2005). An IMC approach to event marketing: The effects of sponsorship and experience on customer attitudes. *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 45, No. 4, pp.373-381.
- Sotiriadis, M. (2013). Events sponsorship: A framework for efficient management. *WULFENIA Journal*, Vol. 20, No.10, pp.226-241.
- Soteriades, D.M. & Dimou, I. (2011). Special events: A framework for efficient management. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, Vol. 20, No.3-4, pp.329-346.
- Telfer, D. (2000). Tastes of Niagara: Building strategic alliances between tourism and agriculture. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, Vol. 1, No.1, pp.71-88.
- Todeva, E. & Knoke, D. (2005). Strategic alliances and models of collaboration. *Management Decision*, Vol. 43, No.1, pp.123-148.
- Tuten, T., & Urban, D. (2001). An expanded model of business-to-business partnership formation and success. *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 30, No.2, pp.149-164.
- UberStudent, 2011. Become a Partner or Sponsor. 2011-04-30. Available at: <http://www.uberstudent.org/mod/resource/view.php?id=27>. Accessed the 30th of June 2012.
- Valeri, M. (2016). Networking and cooperation practices in the Italian tourism business. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 30-35. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376333

- Wicker, P., & Hallmann, K. (2013). Estimating consumer's willingness-to-pay for participation in and traveling to Marathon events. *Event Management*, Vol. 17, No.3, pp.271-282.
- Weeks, C.S., Cornwell, T.B. & Drennan, J.C. (2008). Leveraging sponsorships on the internet: Activation, congruence, and articulation. *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 25, pp.637-654.
- Yaghmour, S., and Scott, N. (2011). Inter-organizational collaboration characteristics and outcomes: a case study of the Jeddah Festival. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, Vol. 1, No.2, pp.115-130.
- Yin, R. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.
- Ziakas, V. (2010). Understanding an event portfolio: The uncovering of interrelationships, synergies and leveraging opportunities. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, Vol. 2, No.2, pp.144-164.

SUBMITTED: April 2016

REVISION SUBMITTED: June 2016

ACCEPTED: August 2016

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Marios Sotiriadis is a Professor at University of South Africa, South Africa. Formerly he was Professor of Tourism Business Management Department, TEI of Crete, and Tutor of the Hellenic Open University, Greece. He has undertaken a variety of research and consultancy projects for both public and private organisations of the tourism industry. His research and writing interests include tourism destination and businesses marketing and management.

PROFILING RESIDENTS BASED ON THEIR PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDE TOWARD SPORT EVENT: INSIGHTS FROM THE FIA WORLD RALLY CHAMPIONSHIP

Giacomo Del Chiappa

University of Sassari

Angelo Presenza

University of Molise

Murat Yücelen

Yeditepe University

This study aims at profiling residents based on their perceptions and attitude toward a motor sport event, namely the FIA World Rally Championship. A structured questionnaire was developed and responses from a convenience sample of 759 residents were collected face-to-face in Olbia (Sardinia, Italy), the main municipality involved in the event. A two-step cluster analysis was applied to the seven factors identified by running exploratory factor analysis on a list of 46 statements used to investigate residents' perceptions and attitudes. Results show that residents perceptions and attitudes are not homogeneous and that four clusters can be identified with significant differences based on their socio-demographic characteristics. "Supporters" is the biggest one, followed in decreasing order of size, by: "Neutrals", "Enthusiasts but culturally and environmentally concerned" and "Critics". Contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

Keywords: *Perceptions, impacts, motor sport event, socio-demographic characteristics, cluster analysis, Italy.*

INTRODUCTION

Events are an important motivator of tourism (Getz, 2008) and play a highly relevant role for any hosting destination (Hall, 1992), particularly for rural and peripheral destinations (Lee, Kyle and Scott, 2012). Researchers concur that sport events are an important vehicle for economic development, a way to develop destination brand awareness and image (e.g. Brown, Chalip, Jago and Mules, 2004), a stimulator for tourism demand and/or an expander of tourism seasonality, a lever to enhance the community pride and their spirit of hospitality (e.g. Getz, 2008; Ritchie, Shipway and Cleeve, 2010). This contributes to explain why destination marketers and policymakers have widely recognized sport events as integral tools in their destination marketing operations. Sport events, like any other type of events, provide long-term impacts on the hosting destination before, during and after the event is finished (e.g. Roche, 1994). Sometimes, residents might tend to glorify the positive impacts while ignoring or underestimating the negative ones, or vice versa (e.g. Kim, Gursoy and Lee, 2006).

Underestimating the power of public debate and support may result in time-consuming, often bitter battling over costs which is likely to be fueled by media criticism (Gursoy and Kendall, 2006). Hence, assessing the residents' perception and attitudes toward the positive and negative impacts of sport events, and integrating community interests into decision making are pivotal to develop local support (e.g. Kim and Walker, 2012; Konstantaki & Wickens, 2010; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo and Alders, 2013; Ritchie et al., 2009; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Soteriades, 2016; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Yeh, 2016; Fotiadis, Xie, Li, and Huan, 2016; Fu & Kapiki, 2016; Küçükaltan & Pirnar, 2016;) and to cope with the

principles of sustainability. The need to attain community support when organizing a sport event is essential, given that existing studies highlighted that the success of special events depend more on the enthusiasm of the local community and event organizers than on the unique nature of home-made attractions (Getz, 1993). Further, “research on residents attitudes and perceptions toward tourism is an essential point of departure for tourism planning, aimed at the provision of an enjoyable tourism product for both tourists and residents” (Presenza, Del Chiappa and Sheehan, 2013: 22).

Despite this, in the last few years there has been a lack of research aimed at adequately capturing residents’ perceived benefits and costs of hosting sport events (Kim, Jun, Walker and Drane, 2015). Further, it is also evident that the impacts may be evident when considering certain types of sport events. Hence, it could be argued that it is quite difficult to identify any generalizable patterns and knowledge that help to understand why certain impacts are more or less apparent at different events (Ohmann, Jones and Wilkes, 2006). That said, it could be argued that there is a need for carrying out impact studies in a variety of locations and considering different type of sport events (Ohmann et al, 2006; Nella & Christou, 2016; Slak Valek, 2015). Further, no published paper has precisely examined residents’ perceptions and attitudes in the context of a motor sport event. This study was therefore carried out with the aim of contributing to this relatively under-investigated tourism research area. Specifically, this paper aims at profiling a sample of 759 residents based on their perceptions and attitude toward the positive and negative externalities that the FIA World Rally Championship, a motor sport event hosted in Sardinia since 2004, generate over their city (Olbia). Further, it aims at verifying whether any significant differences exist among the clusters based on socio-demographic characteristics of respondents.

RESIDENTS PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDE TOWARD SPORT EVENTS

During the last few decades, researchers have been concurring that understanding host communities' perceptions and attitude toward any type of tourism development is pivotal. Hence, such an approach is needed even in the field of event-based sport tourism (e.g. Waitt, 2003) where a clear assessment about the level of residents' support/opposition toward the event, and a deep understanding of the main antecedents that shape it, are certainly crucial (Hernandez, Cohen and Garcia, 1996) to the success of the event. The local community represents one of the main stakeholders, as it is the one most closely affected by the economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts of sport tourism. A deep understanding of residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development generated by organizing sport events is pivotal to obtain their further support (e.g. Ap, 1992). To ensure that the economic, socio-cultural and environmental benefits of tourism development outweigh the related costs, a collaborative policy making approach (Gray, 1989; Vernon, Essex, Pinder and Curry, 2005) and a democratic and participatory event planning (Jafari, 1990) among local authorities, government agencies, businesses and host communities is needed. This circumstance is also needed to ensure that the different types of stakeholders effectively interact among themselves, thus resolving conflicts, advancing a shared vision (Gursoy and Kendall, 2006; Jamal and Getz, 1995), jointly meeting visitor needs, and producing the experience that event spectators and residents consume alike.

That said, it is evident that in an attempt to acquire community support, destination marketers, policy makers and event planners should effectively assess residents' perceptions of the economic, socio-cultural and environmental externalities generated by the event, in order to ascertain that the positive ones outweigh the negative ones (e.g. Kim and Walker, 2012; Prayag et al, 2013). According to the social exchange theory (Ap, 1992) and its application in the context of event-based sport tourism (e.g. Waitt,

2003), residents will be more willing to support the event if they perceive that the positive impacts outweigh the negative ones.

The positive economic impacts of sport events include tax revenues, employment and source of income, increased publicity, potential investment in new infrastructure, urban regeneration, and the creation of new facilities that can be enjoyed by both visitors and residents (e.g. Kang & Perdue, 1994; Konstantaki and Wickens, 2010; Ritchie et al, 2009). Positive social impacts could include community pride, improved quality of life, strengthened local traditions and identity, and increased level of sports participation in sport activities (e.g. Ritchie et al, 2009). Positive environmental impacts could be related to the preservation of the physical environment and local heritage (e.g. Deccio and Baloglu, 2002).

As well as producing positive impacts and benefits to residents, it is evident that hosting sport events can also produce negative economic, social and environmental impacts. Negative economic impacts could be related to an increase in the prices of goods, services and property, thus generating an economic and social burden on the local community (e.g. Deccio and Baloglu, 2002); further, the perception of increased costs could make the destination less attractive for prospective visitors (e.g. Ritchie, 1984). Negative social impacts could be related to security issues over access to recreation facilities, traffic congestion, increase in petty crimes and noise pollution (e.g. Fredline, 2004; Kim et al, 2015; Kostantaki and Wickens, 2010; Ritchie et al, 2009). Finally residents are seriously concerned about environmental pollution, deterioration of air quality, increased soil and ground water contamination and destruction of existing ecosystems (e.g. Konstantaki and Wickens, 2010; Tatoglu and Erdal, 2002).

Prior literature found several factors affecting residents' attitude toward tourism. According to Faulkner and Tideswell (1997), these factors can be categorized as extrinsic and intrinsic. The former are related to the characteristics of the destination itself (e.g. the stage of tourism development and/or the degree of tourism

seasonality), while the latter refers to the characteristics of the host community members (e.g. socio-demographic characteristics, the geographical proximity to the tourist area, etc). Accordingly, in the current tourism literature devoted to the analysis of residents' perceptions and attitudes toward event-based sport tourism, intrinsic factors might be, among others, the socio-demographics characteristics (Kim and Walker, 2012; Konstantaki and Wickens, 2010) such as gender, age (Mason and Cheyne, 2000), social status (Ritchie et al, 2009), education, occupation and income (Waitt, 2003). Further, one could consider also the geographical proximity to the event and/ or tourist area (Fredline, Jago and Deery, 2003; Ritchie and Inkari, 2006), the length of residency, the community attachment (Gursoy and Kendall, 2006), and the degree of residents' involvement in the event planning (Bachleitner and Zins, 1999). For example, in prior studies, residents who lived closer to the venue were less supportive than those residents living further away (Mason and Cheyne, 2000; Ritchie et al, 2009) probably due to traffic congestion and parking issues identified by residents residing closer to the event area. Positive social impacts were perceived more positively by younger residents, living in the area for up to 3 years (Ritchie et al, 2009), thus partially disconfirming prior studies (e.g. Ap, 1992) showing that the further away people live from the tourism activity, the stronger the negative attitudes.

In current literature, it is widely recognized that grouping residents based on their perceptions and attitudes towards tourism might provide useful information to policy makers and tourism developers (e.g. Oviedo-Garcia, Castellanos-Verdugo, Martin-Ruiz, 2008). Despite this accord, few studies have adopted applied cluster analysis in the context of sport events.

METHODOLOGY

This study aims at profiling residents based on the perceptions they have of the impacts generated by the 2013 Federation Internationale de l'Automobile (FIA) World Rally Championship (WRC) (21 - 22 June 2013). WRC was established in 1973 and is widely regarded as the most challenging motorsport championship in the world. Sardinia has hosted Italy's FIA WRC since 2004. Sardinia's rugged island geology, rivers, coastlines, flora, and Mediterranean ecosystem offer a contrasting stage to the carbon-fuelled mechanical muscle of its WRC.

For the purposes of this study, a survey was designed with statements/items sourced from previous published studies aimed at analyzing residents' perceptions and attitudes toward sport events (namely: Konstantaki and Wickens, 2010; Ohmann et al, 2006; Song, Xing and Chathoth, 2015; Ritchie et al, 2009). Specifically, it was composed of two sections. The first asked respondents about their general socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, etc.) and about their general interest in rally as a sport (multiple choice). The second asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement with 46 statements used to investigate residents' perceptions of positive and negative impacts generated by the event and their willingness to support further development of tourism. Their answers were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The questionnaire was pilot tested with a sample of 30 residents to verify the validity of its content and the comprehensibility of the questions and the adopted scale measurement. No concerns were reported in the pilot tests.

Data were collected in Olbia, the main venue of the 2013 WRC edition. In 2013, Olbia (North-East, Sardinia - Italy) had a total of 57.889 inhabitants. The city is not only the main venue of the 2013 WRC, but it is also the gateway for one of the most well-established marine tourism destinations in Italy and in the world, namely the Emerald Coast (Pulina, Meleddu and Del Chiappa, 2014).

Data were collected by means of face to-face interviews conducted by 10 trained interviewers directly supervised by the

authors. Only people aged 16 or above were asked to take part in the survey. Data were collected in the three weeks after the event (23 June – 14 July). A total of 1,200 potential respondents were approached by the interviewees, of which 759 accepted to fill out the survey, thus originating a response rate of 63.25%.

FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. Most of them were reported to be females (58.9%), in the 26-35 (25.1%) or 36-45 (25.8%) age groups; administrative workers (42.3%) or freelance workers (22.3%); they reported to be working in the service sector (78.8%) or in tourism (8.8%), with no economic reliance on the rally event (95%), married/cohabiting (62.9%) and having a high school degree (53.6%). Further, the majority of them have resided in the municipality for more than 30 years (49%), not very close to the tourist areas (65.59% over 6 Km). In addition, 39.04% of respondents interact frequently with tourists in everyday life and are not members of any type of association (e.g. cultural, sport, etc.) (80.76%).

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample

Variable	%	Variable	%
Gender		University	13.3
Female	58.9	Post-Graduate	1.8
Male	41.1	Civil Status	
Age		Single	28.6
16-25	17.9	Married/cohabiting	62.9
26-35	25.1	Divorced/separated/widow	8.5
36-45	25.8	Sector	
46-55	15.3	Agriculture	1.6
56-65	7.4	Industry	10.8
> 65	8.6	Services	78.8
Occupation		Tourism	8.8
Employee	42.3	Annual income (Euro)	
Self-employed	22.3	> 10.000	13.2
Retired	8.8	10.000 - 19.999	15.9
Unemployed	10.5	20.000 - 29.999	7.7
Student	12.8	30.000 - 39.999	10.4
Other	3.3	40.000 - 49.999	2.1
Education		50.000 - 59.999	10.7
None	1.3	60.000 - 69.999	0.3
Primary	5.9	70.000 - 89.999	-
Middle	24	≥ 90.000	0.7

Diploma

53.6

Prefer not to answer

47.00

Out of the total sample, 63.5% of respondents reported not being interested in the rally at all or sporadically watching it on television with family and friends, 20% considered themselves as being highly involved with rally as a sport, whilst the remaining part of the interviewees reported being interested only when the rally event takes place in Sardinia. In addition, a significant percentage of respondents reported to have poor or no interaction with tourists visiting Sardinia for the purpose of attending the Rally event (40%). All that said it could be argued that the local community does not seem to be highly interested in, and directly involved with, the World Rally Championship.

For the purposes of the study, a factor-cluster analysis was adopted. Hence, an exploratory factor analysis, Principal Component Analysis and Varimax rotation were used to reveal the underlying factors in the data. As a result of a series of exploratory factor analyses, five items which destabilized the model by grouping under multiple factors were progressively dropped. Hence, seven factors were identified (57.33% of total variance) based on the remaining 41 items (Table 2).

Table 2. Results of PCA and extracted factor names

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Survey Items*	Positive socio-cultural impacts	Positive economic impacts	Support to local projects and quality of life	Positive environmental	Negative environmental	Negative socio-cultural	Cost-benefit balance

*TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF
TOURISM*

Volume 11, Number 5, pp. 26-51

UDC: 338.48+640(050)

impacts impacts impacts e

A23	.768		
A17	.744		
A22	.707		
A18	.692		
A16	.676		
A24	.644		
A28	.561		
A27	.535		
A19	.534		
A43	.519		
A25	.481		
A29	.416		
A5	.802		
A6	.795		
A7	.723		
A1	.648		
A9	.572		
A46	.453		
A4		.643	
A14		.608	
A12		.588	
A8		.542	

Giacomo del Chiappa, Angelo Presenza & Murat Yücelen

A3			.536				
A13			-.488				
A10			.453				
A2			-.452				
A32				.718			
A31				.690			
A35				.631			
A30				.523			
A38				.521			
A39					.840		
A40					.833		
A41					.765		
A37					.592		
A33						.777	
A34						.715	
A42						.514	
A15						.444	
A44							.716
A45							.659
<hr/>							
Eigenvalues	11.352	4.311	2.261	1.933	1.290	1.244	1.112
% of Variance	27.69	10.52	5.52	4.72	3.15	3.03	2.7
% Cumulative	27.69	38.2	43.73	48.45	51.6	54.63	57.33

Cronbach's Alpha	0.906	0.857	0.802	0.805	0.797	0.714	0.671
---------------------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

*Item numbers correspond with the survey items as presented in Table 3

The KMO-index (Kaiser-Myer-Olkin = 0.924) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (.820) revealed an acceptable level of dataset reliability with significance at the <0.01 level, thus confirming that the obtained results adequately explain the data. Cronbach's alpha was then calculated (0.917) to test the reliability of the extracted factors; all values are around 0.7 or higher, thus suggesting that the factors are reliable (Table 2). Factor 7 was retained despite its alpha coefficient which is slightly below 0.7; this decision can be justified by the fact that the eigenvalue of item 7 can be considered acceptable and because the extracted factor was deemed to be meaningful for the purposes of the study.

The first component was named "Positive socio-cultural impacts" (27.69% of total variance) and comprises items describing the residents' perceptions toward the positive socio-cultural impacts generated by the event. "Positive economic impacts" (10.52% of total variance) includes items related to positive economic impacts that the event produces on the hosting destination in terms of job opportunities and increase in trade for local businesses. "Support to local projects and quality of life" (5.52% of total variance) contains items describing the positive support that hosting the event can generate by providing the host destination with money and opportunities to support local projects and contribute to the quality of life. "Positive environmental impacts" (4.72% of total variance) includes items describing the positive environmental impact that the event produces, such as allowing to preserve the environment, to enhance the landscape and to exploit the cultural heritage. "Negative environmental impacts" (3.15% of total variance) describes the residents' concerns toward the negative environmental impacts that the event can create in terms of pollution, over-production of garbage and noise. "Negative socio-cultural impacts" (3.03% of

total variance) is strictly related to residents' concerns toward the negative socio-cultural impacts that the WRC can create in terms of safety and security standards and in terms of host-guest interaction. Finally, "Cost-benefit balance" (2.7% of total variance) includes items related to the most important aspect of hosting a motor sport event i.e., the ability to generate a positive cost-benefit balance and to assure that the route infrastructure is able to cope with emergency situations

The scores of the five principal components were entered into a cluster analysis. According to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2009), a hierarchical cluster (Ward method – Manhattan distances) was performed, and four groups emerged. Then, a non-hierarchical method (k-means) was applied to factor scores defining four different groups of residents, namely: "Supporters" (cluster 3) "neutrals" (cluster 2), "Enthusiasts but culturally and environmentally concerned" (cluster 4), and "critics" (cluster 1) (Table 3).

**Table 3. Comparative analysis of the level of agreement of different groups of residents
(mean value)**

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Hosting FIA World Rally Championship...	Mean (N=146)	Mean (N=212)	Mean (N=250)	Mean (N=151)
F1: Socio-cultural impacts	-0.45	0.31	0.26	-0.42
F2: Economic impacts	0.07	-0.22	-0.14	0.47
F3: Investments and costs	-0.40	-0.16	0.51	-0.23
F4: Ambiance improvement	-0.48	0.69	-0.26	-0.07
F5: Environmental effects	-1.29	0.30	0.00	0.82
F6: Security	0.07	-0.05	-0.53	0.88
F7: Benefits of tourism development	-0.20	-0.66	0.35	0.54
A1: Increases job opportunities	2.95	3.08	3.47	3.65
A2: Generates a crowding out effect on other relevant projects	3.11	3.77	2.90	4.19
A3: Increases public investments and infrastructures	2.88	2.83	3.27	2.89
A4: Improves infrastructures (roads, water pipes etc.)	2.28	2.58	3.08	2.54
A5: Generates benefits for the economy of my city	3.25	3.33	3.62	3.97
A6: Generates benefits for the economy of my province	3.18	3.33	3.25	3.86
A7: Generates benefits for the economy of my region	2.99	3.39	3.28	3.69
A8: Increases private investments and infrastructures	2.88	3.12	3.18	2.79
A9: Increases trade for local businesses	2.86	3.17	3.35	3.25

Giacomo del Chiappa, Angelo Presenza & Murat Yücelen

A10: Increases the income of local people	2.40	3.02	3.15	2.87
A12: Generates money to support and sustain local projects	2.32	2.83	3.21	2.93
A13: Increase the price to which product and services can be sold	3.49	3.42	2.90	4.16
A14: Enhances the quality of life of residents	2.21	2.82	3.15	2.68
A15: Influences the way I can manage my daily life	3.19	3.65	2.76	4.33
A16: Allows to meet new people and to experience new cultures	2.90	3.32	3.47	3.20
A17: Increases the number of cultural and recreational activities	2.56	3.10	3.36	2.79
A18: Revitalizes local traditions and authenticity	2.55	3.29	3.38	2.85
A19: Enhances the quality of local tourism/commercial infrastructure	2.74	3.36	3.51	3.20
A22: Brings residents and visitors together and facilitate their dialogue	2.79	3.43	3.37	3.19
A23: Enhances social and cultural life for local people	2.62	3.38	3.35	2.82
A24: Builds community pride and identity	2.76	3.59	3.40	2.97
A25: Enhances the quality of public services	2.32	3.29	3.18	2.88
A27: Generates greater participation in sports	2.65	3.53	3.19	2.95
A28: Makes my city a more interesting place in which to live and work	2.38	3.25	3.08	2.63
A29: Spreads the tourism seasonality of our destination	3.16	3.58	3.26	3.42
A30: Enhances the conservation and exploitation of cultural heritage	2.32	3.24	3.02	2.56
A31: Enhances physical and socio-cultural	2.29	3.37	2.90	2.88

settings

A32: Enhances rural setting and landscape	2.16	3.34	2.81	2.72
A33: Increases low-level crimes	3.51	3.16	2.96	4.42
A34: Generates safety/security issues in the city	3.17	2.99	3.07	4.35
A35: Enhances security standards of the city	2.76	3.26	2.95	2.61
A37: Generates traffic congestion and parking problems	2.09	2.98	2.90	3.81
A38: Enhances environmental protection	2.25	2.81	2.88	2.37
A39: Increases environmental pollution	1.86	3.27	2.94	3.74
A40: Leads to an increase in noise levels which will disturb residents	1.84	3.20	2.84	3.84
A41: Increases significantly the waste/garbage	1.94	3.28	2.90	3.83
A42: Encourage the wrong type of people/visitors to the area	3.15	3.68	2.95	4.32
A43: Enhances local residents' spirit of hospitality	3.04	3.28	3.39	3.23
A44: Routes cope with emergency services	2.28	2.48	3.12	3.09
A45: Generates more benefits than costs	2.89	2.88	3.31	3.48
A46: Makes me willing to support further tourism development	3.76	3.38	3.91	4.28

“Supporters” is the largest group (32.9%) mostly made up of females (67.2%) belonging to the 36-50 age group (45.6%), administrative workers (34.4%) or retired with a high school diploma (62.8%). Overall, they reported to have a moderate (42.4%) or very little (34.8%) interaction with tourists; 62.9% of them do not have interaction with tourists visiting Sardinia with the purpose of attending the Rally. On the whole, they believe the rally event is

economically and socio-culturally beneficial and support a further tourism development of the city.

“Neutrals” (27.9%) are mostly females (57.5%) belonging to the 20-35 age groups (38.7%) with a high degree (45.3%), administrative workers (46.2%), with a low level of interaction both with tourists in general (44%) and tourists attending the event especially (52.8%). They express a relatively neutral position regarding both positive and negative impacts, and they appear to be not willing to support a further tourism development.

“Enthusiasts but culturally and environmentally concerned” (19.9%) are mostly males (55.6%), belonging to the 21-40 age groups (58.3%), with a high degree (48.3%) or university degree (22.5%), administrative workers (51%). Further, they reported to have a moderate (27.8%) or high (30.5%) level of interaction both with tourists in general (53.6%) and tourists attending the event especially (53.6%). Overall they seem to be enthusiastic about the positive economic impacts generated by the event. However, they seem to be skeptical about the positive socio-cultural and environmental impacts, and quite concerned about the negative ones that the event creates in the same area. Despite these issues, they demonstrate the highest level of support for further tourism development.

Finally, “Critics” (19.2%) are mostly females (61.6%), aged 18-35 (50.6%), with high degree (55.5%), administrative workers (41.1%), with a low level of interaction with both tourists in general (45.9%) and tourists attending the Rally (66.4%). They score low on almost all the items describing the positive impacts that the event can generate and are particularly concerned about the safety and security issues during the rally.

Finally, a series of chi-square analyses were conducted in order to assess whether significant differences exist among the four clusters based on socio-demographic parameters. Significant differences were found based on gender ($\chi^2=20.895$, $p=0.000$), age ($\chi^2=80.822$, $p=0.000$), civil status ($\chi^2=22.611$, $p=0.031$), education

($\chi^2=38.251$, $p=0.001$), occupation ($\chi^2=45.366$, $p=0.000$), contact with tourists in everyday life ($\chi^2=40.660$, $p=0.002$), and contact with tourists visiting Sardinia with the purpose of attending the Rally event ($\chi^2=18.265$, $p=0.000$).

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this study was to deepen the scientific debate about residents' perceptions and attitudes toward a motor sport event. The cluster analysis applied to the scores of the seven factors identified through the exploratory factor analysis ("positive socio-cultural impacts", "positive economic impacts", support to local projects and quality of life", "positive environmental impacts", "negative environmental impacts", "negative socio-cultural impacts", "cost-benefit balance") showed that residents' perceptions and attitudes are not homogenous. Specifically, four clusters were identified: "supporters", "neutrals", "enthusiasts but culturally and environmentally concerned" and "critics", among which "supporters" was the largest segment. In this sampling universe the majority of the respondents support or are enthusiastic about the event and would be willing to support a further tourism development in the city. Despite this finding, supporters and enthusiasts are nevertheless quite concerned about the social negative externalities and particularly the environmental impacts. This latter point could be explained by referring to the relevant role that natural resources exert in determining the destination image, reputation and competitiveness not only for Olbia but also for Sardinia as a whole (Brida, Del Chiappa, Meleddu and Pulina, 2014).

Findings revealed that significant differences do exist between clusters, based on gender, age, civil status, education, occupation, contact with tourists in everyday life, and contact with tourists visiting Sardinia with the purpose of attending the Rally event. This result is consistent with previous studies which report that socio-demographic variables exert a moderating effect on residents'

perceptions and attitudes. However, our study reveals somewhat contradictory findings. For example, although results confirm that age moderates residents' perceptions (e.g. Mason and Cheyne, 2000), in this study, youngest residents were the most critical with respect to the impacts of the event and not the more supportive as suggested by other studies (e.g. Konstantaki and Wickens, 2010). This result may be in accordance with academic research reporting young people and females expressing a stronger responsibility regarding the environment (e.g. Ballantine and Eagles, 1994). Overall, our results also suggest that when analyzing residents' perceptions toward event-based sport tourism, attention should also be given to personal values of respondents rather than focusing only on their socio-demographic characteristics. Indeed, as suggested by Williams and Lawson (2001), focusing just on the moderating factors of socio-demographic characteristics might render findings of cluster analysis very site-specific, hardly generalizable and linked more to the town in which respondents live, rather than to cluster membership.

These findings are relevant for both researchers and practitioners. On the one hand, they contribute to the current scientific debate about residents' perceptions and attitude toward event-based sport tourism by providing insights into a specific geographical context (Italy, Sardinia) and from a specific type of sport event (i.e. motor sport event) to which very few studies have been devoted. Furthermore, this study, similarly to what is suggested by previous research, calls for further research focusing more on assessing the moderating effect that non-related socio-demographic variables (e.g. community attachment, personal values, ecocentric attitude, etc) exert on residents' perceptions and attitudes.

On the other hand, the presented findings provide destination marketers, policymakers and event organizers with a basis for a focused approach to event planning. Results highlight that the majority of respondents are not highly interested in such a renowned worldwide Rally event that takes place in their community. Hence,

practitioners should make a greater effort to promote and communicate the event to the whole community by emphasizing more the benefits that it brings to the destination. Furthermore, given that respondents seem to be concerned about the negative socio-cultural and environmental externalities of the event (noise, security issues, traffic congestion, etc.) policy makers should devise and implement tangible actions and policies to actually deal with residents' concerns. Finally, findings highlight the relevant role that internal marketing and communication should play in an effort to increase the favourableness of residents' attitudes toward tourism (e.g. Madrigal, 1995). The proactive use of internal marketing operations would allow destination marketers and policy makers to better communicate relevant issues to residents in order to increase the overall support for the event (Ritchie et al, 2009). Based on the results of this study, these messages should be tailored taking into account the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the different segments of residents.

In spite of the theoretical and managerial contributions, this study does have its limitations. First, it is highly site-specific and based on a convenience sample, thus findings cannot be generalized. Further, this study did not assess the moderator effect that non-related socio-demographic variables could exert on residents' perceptions and attitudes. These aspects would merit attention in future research. Beyond the limitations, it is important to assess whether, and the extent to which, residents' perceptions and attitudes toward the event change or remain static over time as a consequence of the internal marketing operations and/or actual policies and strategies adopted by the policy makers and event planners. Hence, it would be interesting to repeat the data collection over time with the aim of developing a longitudinal study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors are grateful to the anonymous reviewers for their valuable help and suggestions in enhancing the quality of the manuscript.

References

- Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 19, No.4, pp. 665-690.
- Bachleitner, R. & Zins, A. (1999). Cultural tourism in rural communities: The residents' perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 44, No.3, pp.199-209.
- Ballantine, J.L., & Eagles P.F. (1994). Defining Canadian ecotourists. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 2, No.4, pp. 210–214.
- Brida, J.G., Del Chiappa, G., Meleddu, M. & Pulina, M. (2014). A comparison of residents' perceptions in two cruise ports in the Mediterranean Sea. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp. 180-190.
- Brown, G., Chalip, L., Jago, L. & Mules, T. (2004). Developing Brand Australia: examining the role of events. In N. Morgan and A. Pritchard (Eds.) *Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition*, Burlington, MA: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Deccio, C. & Baloglu, S. (2002). Non host community resident reactions to the 2002 Winter Olympics: The spillover impacts. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 41, No.1, pp. 46-56.
- Faulkner, B. & Tideswell, C. (1997). A framework for monitoring community impacts of tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 3-28.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. & Soteriades, M. D. (2016a) The preferences of participants in small-scale sport events: A conjoint analysis case study from Taiwan. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, Vol. 64, No 2, pp: 175 - 187.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. & Yeh, S. (2016b) Participant's preferences for small-scale sporting events: a comparative analysis of a Greek and a Taiwanese cycling event. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, Vol. 11, No 2, pp:232 - 247.

- Fotiadis, A., Xie, L., Li, Y. & Huan, T.-C. T. C. (2016c) Attracting athletes to small-scale sports events using motivational decision-making factors. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69, No. 11, pp:5467-5472.
- Fredline, E. (2004). Host community reactions to motorsport events: The perception of impact on quality of life. In B. Ritchie and D. Adair (Eds) *Sport tourism: Interrelationships, impacts and issues*, Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Fredline, E., Jago, L. & Deery, M. (2003). The development of a generic scale to measure the social impacts of events. *Event Management*, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 23-37.
- Fu, J., & Kapiki, S. (2016). Reengineering knowledge for e-tourism and hospitality Curricula. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 23-32. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376345
- Getz, D. (1993). Festival and Special Events. In M.A. Khan, M.D. Olsen and T. Var (Eds) *Encyclopedia of hospitality and tourism*, New York, NY: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 29, No. 1, pp. 403-428.
- Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: finding common ground for multiparty problems*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gursoy, D. & Kendall, K. W. (2006). Hosting mega events e modeling locals support. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 33, No. 3, pp. 603-623.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. & Anderson, R.E.(2009). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ, Prentice Hall.
- Hall, R. (1992). The strategic analysis of intangible resources. *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 13, No. 2, pp. 135-144.
- Hernandez, A., Cohen, J. & Garcia, L.H. (1996). Residents' Attitudes toward an instant resort enclave. *Annals of Tourism research*, Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 755-779.
- Jafari, J. (1990). Research and scholarship: The basis of tourism education. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 33-41.
- Jamal, T.B. & Getz, D. (1995). Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 22, No.1, pp. 186-204.
- Kang, Y.S., & Perdue, R. (1994). Long-term impact of a mega-event on international tourism to the host country: a conceptual model and the

- case of the 1988 Seoul Olympics. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 6, No.(3-4), pp. 205-225.
- Kim, H.J., Gursoy, D. & Lee, S.B. (2006). The impact of the 2002 World Cup on South Korea: comparisons of pre-and post-games. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 27, No.1, pp. 86-96.
- Kim, W. & Walker, M. (2012). Measuring the social impacts associated with Super Bowl XLIII: preliminary development of a psychic income scale. *Sport Management Review*, Vol. 15, No. 1, pp. 91-108.
- Kim, W., Jun, H.M, Walker, M. & Drane, D. (2015). Evaluating the perceived social impacts of hosting large-scale sport tourism events: Scale development and validation. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 48, No. 1, pp. 21-32.
- Konstantaki, M. & Wickens, E. (2010). Residents' perception of environmental and security issues at the 2012 London Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, Vol. 15, No. 4, pp. 337-357.
- Küçükaltan, E., & Pirnar, I. (2016). Competitiveness factors of a tourism destination and impact on residents' quality of life: The Case of Cittaslow-Seferihisar. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 22-29. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376332
- Lee, J., Kyle, G. & Scott, D. (2012). The Mediating Effect of Place Attachment on the Relationship between Festival Satisfaction and Loyalty to the Festival Hosting Destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 51, No.6, pp. 754-767.
- Madrigal, R. (1995). Residents' perceptions and the role of government. *Annals of tourism research*, Vol. 22, No.1, pp. 86-102.
- Mason, P. & Cheyne, C. (2000). Residents' attitude to proposed tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*. Vol. 27, No.2, pp. 391-411.
- Nella, A., & Christou, E. (2016). Extending tourism marketing: Implications for targeting the senior tourists' segment. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 36-42. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376336
- Ohmann, S., Jones, I. & Wilkes, K. (2006). The Perceived Social Impacts of the 2006 Football World Cup on Munich Residents. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, Vol. 11, No.2, pp. 129-152.
- Oviedo-Garcia, M.A., Castellanos-Verdugo, M. & Martin-Ruiz, D. (2008). Gaining residents' support for tourism and planning. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 10, No.2, pp. 95-109.

- Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Nunkoo, R. & Alders, T. (2013). London residents' support for the 2012 Olympic Games: The mediating effect of overall attitude. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 36, No.1, pp. 629-640.
- Prezenza A., Del Chiappa G. & Sheehan L. (2013). Residents' engagement and local tourism governance in maturing beach destinations. Evidence from an Italian case study. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 22-30.
- Pulina, M., Meleddu, M. & Del Chiappa, G. (2013). Residents' choice probability and tourism development. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, Vol. 5, pp. 57-67.
- Ritchie, B. & Inkari, M. (2006). Host community attitudes toward tourism and cultural tourism development: the case of the Lewes District, Southern England. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 8, No.1, pp. 27-44.
- Ritchie, B.W., Shipway, R. & Cleeve, B. (2009). Resident perceptions of mega-sporting events: a non-host city perspective of the 2012 London Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, Vol. 14, No.1, pp. 143-167.
- Ritchie, J.B. (1984). Assessing the impact of hallmark events: conceptual and research issues. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 23, No.1, pp. 2-11.
- Roche, M. (1994). Mega-events and urban policy. *Annals of Tourism research*, Vol. 21, No.1, pp. 1-19.
- Slak Valek, N. (2015). Tourism expenditure according to mode of transportation: A comparative study between 2009 and 2012 *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*. Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 3-9. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376250
- Song, Z., Xing, L. & Chathoth, P.K. (2015). The effects of festival impacts on support intentions based on residents' ratings of festival performance and satisfaction: a new integrative approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 23, No.2, pp. 316-337.
- Tatoglu, E., Erdal, F., Ozgur, H. & Azakli, S. (2002). Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts: The case of Kusadasi in Turkey. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, Vol. 3, No.3, pp. 79-100.
- Vernon, J., Essex, S., Pinder, D. & Curry, K. (2005). Collaborative policymaking. Local sustainable projects. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 32, No.2, pp. 325-345.

Waitt, G. (2003). Social impacts of the Sydney Olympics. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 30, No.1, pp. 194-215.

Williams, J. & Lawson, R. (2001). Community issues and residents opinions of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 28, No.2, pp. 269-290.

SUBMITTED: January 2016

REVISION SUBMITTED: May 2016

ACCEPTED: August 2016

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Giacomo Del Chiappa (PhD) is assistant professor of marketing at the Department of Economics and Business, University of Sassari (Italy), and senior research fellow, School of Tourism and Hospitality, University of Johannesburg, South Africa. His research is related to destination governance and branding, consumer behavior, and digital marketing.

Angelo Presenza (PhD) is an assistant professor of management at the Department of Economics, Management, Institutions and Society and Business, University of Molise (Italy), and Associate Researcher at the Institute for Service Industry Research (IRISS). His research is related to destination governance and management, and innovation management.

Murat Yücelen (PhD) is assistant professor of management, organization and strategy at Yeditepe University (Istanbul, Turkey), Faculty of Commerce, Department of Tourism and Hotel Management. His research interests include knowledge management and organizational learning, business strategy and corporate governance

THE INFLUENCE OF MEDIA IMPLEMENTED INTO THE EVENT-TOURIST CAREER MODEL: TRIYAS TRIATHLON, ABU DHABI

Nataša Slak Valek,
Zayed University

Al Anood Al Buainain, Research Assistant
Zayed University

Using the athletes' career trajectory model, this study implements the influence of media into the trajectory of active sport event participants' decision-making process. It examined athletes' motivation, media influence, travel style and behaviours, and event selection among participants of TriYas triathlon organized in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. Data were collected in February 2016 with an online survey sent to all participating athletes and descriptive statistic was used for data analyses. Results indicate that international media are followed by the majority of athletes included in our sample with no statistically significant differences between first-timers and returning participants ($p=0.176$). More promotion is expected in media, but on the other hand athletes do not choose sport events and destinations based on media coverage. In order to get more participants and visitors, which leads to more sponsors and media coverage our results cannot remain disregarded by sport events organizers.

Keywords: *sports tourism, events, United Arab Emirates, Abu Dhabi, athletes, motivation*

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

INTRODUCTION

Sports events play a great role in promoting a destination (Funk and Bruun, 2007, Gibson, Qi and Zhang, 2008; Getz and Fairley, 2004) and they can also generate significant revenue (Preuss, 2005; Solberg and Preuss, 2007). Moreover, sports events have become increasingly important component in destination branding (Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules and Ali, 2003; Chalip and Costa, 2005; Xing and Chalip, 2006), which is what Abu Dhabi has tried to implement in the few last years (Ponzini, 2011; Hazime, 2011; Hashim, 2012). Abu Dhabi, the largest among seven Emirates constituting the country of United Arab Emirates has found its potential in tourism in order to reduce its dependence on oil (Sharples, 2002). Before the discovery of oil, Abu Dhabi and the rest of the United Arab Emirates were poor and undeveloped, with an economy based on farming in the inland oases, and on fishing and the pearling industry (Hashim, 2012), but nowadays tourism statistics and the country GDP show tourism to be the second largest industry.

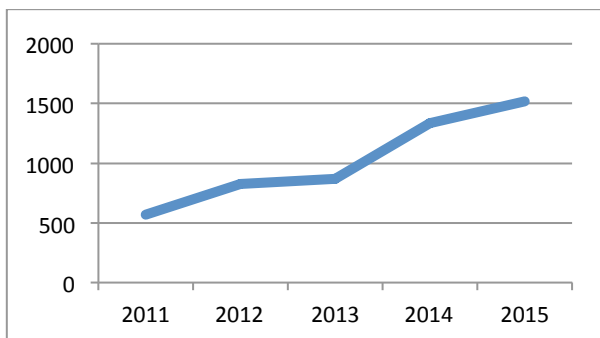
For better understanding of the aim and purpose of this paper role of sports tourism in Abu Dhabi needs to be introduced: Abu Dhabi has been investing heavily in the development of its tourism facilities with many mega projects (Hazime, 2011). To mention just few of them, Saadiyat Island is still in development, but probably the biggest and the richest worldwide future cultural district, and Yas Island with the Ferrari Theme Park and Yas Marina Circuit (YMC) is the major island for sports tourism offered in Abu Dhabi. A feature of sports events, amongst others, is that they can attract a large number of visitors over a relatively short period of time (Higham and Hinch, 2002; Slak Valek, 2015) and this is what Abu Dhabi has been using as a driving key. There are worldwide recognized sports events hosted in Abu Dhabi such as Formula 1 sponsored by Etihad taking place exactly at above mentioned circuit YMC; Mubadala World Tennis Championship; and, HSBC European tour golf Championship. With the participation of the best

sportsmen and women in the world (e.g. McIlroy, Spieth, the top in the world golfers and Djoković, Murrey, the top tennis players) the emirate attracts a significant number of visitors to golf and tennis events. Moreover, F1, apart of bringing people to Abu Dhabi, is a top event covered by major international news and sports media, which significantly contributes to destination promotion. In addition to that, the world recognized that the sailing event Volvo Ocean Race had a stop in a marina in Abu Dhabi in 2014/2015. With all of the events mentioned above and more, the Emirate shows a big interest in developing sports tourism (Slak Valek, 2015) as one of the primary tourism attractions, right after cultural tourism.

On the other hand, it has to be clarified that there is a lack of sports culture among UAE residents, which is the focus of the present paper. In other words, the aim of this paper is to understand the motivation of athletes participating at some of the so-called community sport events. Yas Marina Circuit has been organizing several community sports events for more than 5 years now, such as the Zayed Marathon, TriYas Triathlon, Color Run and many others. The main idea behind these community events is to motivate people to be sports-active, but as found by Fotiadis et al. (2016) sport events organizers have difficulties in attracting participants due to the extremely high number of small-scale events. The country tries to use different methods to attract more people in sports and make them become active. The reason behind is a poor health condition partially due to the lack of sport activities. In fact, World Health Organization (2015) reports the most common male health complaint in UAE is cardiovascular disease, and high levels of obesity for females, which is the reason for developing diabetes and associated illnesses including heart disease, hypertension, stroke and kidney failure. Several authors have also indicated vitamin D deficiency in the Arab region and claimed that obese adults are less likely to engage in outdoor activities, and so their exposure to direct sunlight is low. Sadiya et al. (2015) recorder the time spent outdoor was less than 15 minutes per day by 67% of UAE nationals included

in the sample. Thus, the aim of organizing community sport events in Abu Dhabi is to boost the awareness about sport benefits. Developing a sports culture can generate at least two economically significant dimensions in the country, which are: first, a healthier population (Casanova et al., 2011; Fu & Kapiki, 2016) and second, the development of sports tourism (Gibson, 1998). Daman, a National Health Insurance Company in UAE, has apparently come to the conclusion, that is beneficial to have a healthy population, and has started to sponsor community events at YMC. Between others, the TriYas Triathlon is also a Daman project, which now the official name is 'TriYas by Daman's Activelife'. Taking into consideration all the facts explained above, the present research has been developed to better understand the motivation of participants at the TriYas Triathlon, an annual event for the past 6 years that continues to increase participant numbers (Figure 1), in order to understand athlete's involvement in sports. The results then can be used to attract more participants in the future and in this way first, help the community to become more active and second, contribute to development of sport tourism in Abu Dhabi.

Figure 1: Number of participants at TriYas Triathlon by years



Source: Yas Marina Circuit, 2015

Travel styles and changes were also researched. Due to a lack of sports culture in the Muslim culture, especially among females (Walseth and Strandbu, 2014), it is crucial to understand the segment of people that practice sports and also travel for, and because of sports, which can help organizers and decision makers in developing and organizing sports events that may attract more participants and visitors, focusing also on tourists and contribute to the development of sports tourism in Abu Dhabi. For researching all of that, the career trajectory model introduced by Getz and Andersson (2010) seemed the most appropriate platform, but adjusted for the purpose of our research. We believe that media has a big effect in motivating people to take part in community events in UAE. As claimed by Bulhoon (2015) media effects can include the way people think and behave. Although governments or communities organize sports events for mainly financial and health reasons, they can also contribute in other ways. Such events contribute in building community pride and creating a positive destination image as they draw media attention to the locality for both large-scale and small-scale events (Daniels, 2007; Kim and Petrick, 2005; Schulenkorf and Edwards, 2012; Nella & Christou, 2016). Thus, media effects have been implemented into a career trajectory model and tested in the present research.

CAREER TRAJECTORY MODEL AND EFFECT OF MEDIA

In line with the aims of the study, the literature review addresses the career trajectory model and the effect of media in this decision-making process and athletes motivation. Getz and Andersson (2010) suggested that people with a sport lifestyle develop an event specific career, which follows a trajectory that can be measured in terms of six dimensions. Those six dimensions are as follow: motivation, travel style changes, spatial and temporal patterns, event types and destination choice. The proposed model including motivational factors was used later by a number of authors

and was tested in different situations and sport disciplines. On the other hand, Masters and Ogles (1995) suggested that when studying motivating factors of athletes, it is important that investigators focus on a particular activity. That is because what may be considered as a significant factor in a specific activity may not be as important in another one. Although fitness is considered to be the main motivation of athletes participating in running, studies done by different scholars (Okwumambua, Meyers and Santille, 1987, Masters and Ogles, 1995; Ogles and Masters, 2003; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Soteriades, 2016; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Yeh, 2016; Fotiadis, Xie, Li, and Huan, 2016; Valeri, 2016) showed that most runners justified their choices by psychological reasons. The majority of studies researching athlete's motivation investigate runners (Ogles and Masters, 2003; Koo, Byon, and Baker, 2014; Jordalen and Lemyre, 2014), but little is known about the triathlon athletes' motivation. Gets and McConnell (2014) compared the motivation between bikers and runners also using the event-travel career model, but as pointed out by Wicker, Hallmann, Prinz, and Weimar (2012: 2) 'There is only little knowledge available on the participants in triathlon.' Although triathlons have grown in popularity and therefore it is crucial to know more about their participants in order to understand what pushes them to be involved in such an intensive training, only a few scholars have recently started to research triathlon athletes (e.g. López-Fernández, Merino-Marbán and Fernández-Rodríguez, 2014). Thus, our study focuses on researching participant's motivation in participating at the TriYas Triathlon held in Abu Dhabi in United Arab Emirates, where two main disciplines compete: Sprint (Swim 750m, Cycle 20km, run 5km) and Olympic discipline (Swim 1,500m, Cycle 40km, run 10km). Given the findings from Wicker et al. (2012) that 37% of triathletes expected to increase their spending on triathlon and that triathletes are willing to travel long distances to compete at the events, they are not only of a big interest for managers and events marketers, but also for product manufacturers and travel agencies.

Thus, in the present research not only the motivation for participating in the event is researched, but also the changes in travel style and the reasons for selection of a particular event. Gibson (1998) defined “active sport tourists” as being the ones who are willing to travel in order to take part in a sports activity held in the destination. In this case, what is more important is the “nature of the event” rather than the destination itself (Green and Chalip, 1998; Ryan and Trauer, 2005, Getz and Andersson, 2010). Other than the nature of the sport, Higham (2005: 6) argued that the tangible and intangible elements of the sport experience are important. He referred to the London Marathon as example where participation increased to include “elite athletes competing for prizes and times, domestic and over-seas runners, wheelchair athletes, and corporate teams”. Robinson and Gammon (2004) considered another motive for participating, as some of these sports activities were raising money for charities. Therefore, the athlete will not only compete out of desire to win, but also to improve his/her own personal skills and do charitable work, which may also lead to a media exposure.

In fact, the media has played a crucial role in the society in Arab world over the last few years. One of the benefits of media is that they ‘can be utilized in persuading and mobilizing the public, which was particularly evident in Egyptians protests against the president’ (Bulhoun, 2015: 2). Thus, authors of the present paper believe that media can also be successfully used in attracting more UAE residents to become sport active. Because media cause sport popularity our research tries to contribute by studying media influence on the participants’ motivation. A table (n.2) has been added to the Gets and Andersson (2010) model, focusing especially on media importance. The event’s advertising and news coverage can enhance the destination image (Chalip and Green, 2003) and this is why one of the aims of the present research was to research the contribution of media on athletes’ event choice and decisions. Chalip, Green and Hill (2003) researched the effect of media on the intention to visit a destination and argued that ‘we know too little

about the ways the event media are interpreted' (pg. 229). Hosting a sports event can improve the image of the city or country (Solberg and Preuss, 2007), but if the media is miss-interpreted it can also worsen it (Saleem, 2007). Green, Costa, and Fitzgerald (2003) found that host cities can not assume that the media coverage of an event will actually showcase the attributes of the destination unless strategies are implemented. On the other hand, when trying to understand active participants, media also have a significant impact in their participation-making process. Buning and Gibson (2015) argued that individuals acquire knowledge from media, friends, family, peers, and established members of the sports subculture before initial participation. A model Hudson, Getz and Miller's model (2001) shows the consumer's decision-making process linked to media coverage. They also suggest to investigate more in order to improve media management coupled with the consumer decision-making model. Having explained that, the authors of the present research believed that media also have a big influence on the athletes' career path trajectory.

METHODS

Data for the present research were collected in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates from active participants in the TriYas Triathlon held at Yas Marina Circuit (YMC). The Triathlon was held on 26th February 2016, and an online survey was sent to all 1300 competing athletes on 27th February 2016, with a reminder sent on 5th March. The data of 87 athletes who completed the survey were analysed. Gets and Andersson (2010) career-trajectory model was used as a base, but adjusted taken into consideration the purpose of our research and the culture of people living in UAE.

Questionnaire design and media effects dimension

The questionnaire includes questions about athletes' motivation, the effect of media, travel style changes and sports events choices, partly using Gets and Andersson's (2010) six-dimensional career model. The involvement measurement scale was excluded from our final questionnaire, but instead a new dimension measuring the effect of media on athlete motivation and involvement was included. Gets and Andersson's (2010) model covered media with one simple question in the sixth table focusing on event and destination choice ("the event gets a lot of media coverage"), which was also an inspiration for the present research. Thus, an entire new dimension (table 2) was developed measuring different media effects. The media-effect-dimension was self-administrated, but following Getz and Fairley (2003) recommendations for media management. In light with the fact that expats represents 90% of UAE residents (Federal Competitiveness and Statistics Authority, 2015), not only local media effect was researched, but the importance of international media was also tested. Media coverage to this exact event and how respondents see the importance of media was included in the final questionnaire. Apart of the changes described above on media effects dimension, Gets and Andersson (2010) statements were used to test event and destination choice factors, but several items had to be modified in order to fit to UAE residents and also to shorten the last table. Gets and Andersson (2010), in their paper pointed out a "continuous decline in the number of respondents for each question asked" (p.g. 476). For this same reason tables have been shortened. Finally, four tables constitute the questionnaire used in the present research, focusing on:

- Athlete's motivation to participate in 2016 TriYas (Table 1)
- Influence of media (Table 2)
- Travel and behaviour changes (Table 3)
- Event choice factors (Table 4)

Sample and data analyses

In total 87 respondents participated in our research. An online survey was sent to all the participants, but a low response rate (7%) was achieved despite a reminder sent. The typical respondent of our sample is male, between 30-40 years of age, Christian by religion, residing in UAE, but originally from United Kingdom. The details of the sample are presented in table 1.

Table 1: Sample

	N	%
Gender		
Male	63	79%
Female	17	21%
Age group		
18-29	8	10%
30-40	32	40%
41-50	25	31%
51-60	15	19%
Religion		
Islam	7	9%
Christianity	45	56%
Hinduism	1	1%
Buddhism	0	0%
Other	3	4%

No religion/ don't want to answer this question	24	30%
Country of residence		
United Arab Emirates (UAE)	68	85%
Other	12	15%
Country of origin		
United Kingdom	31	39%
Australia	7	9%
Canada	4	5%
France	4	5%
India	4	5%
Germany	3	4%
Ireland	3	4%
Philippines	3	4%
R. South Africa	3	4%
UAE	2	3%
Netherlands	2	3%
Lebanon	2	3%
Central African Republic, Denmark, Egypt, Spain, Bahrain, Brazil, Italy, Jordan, Malaysia, Poland,	12	15%

USA, Zimbabwe (N=1 each)		
Total	80	100%
Missing	7	

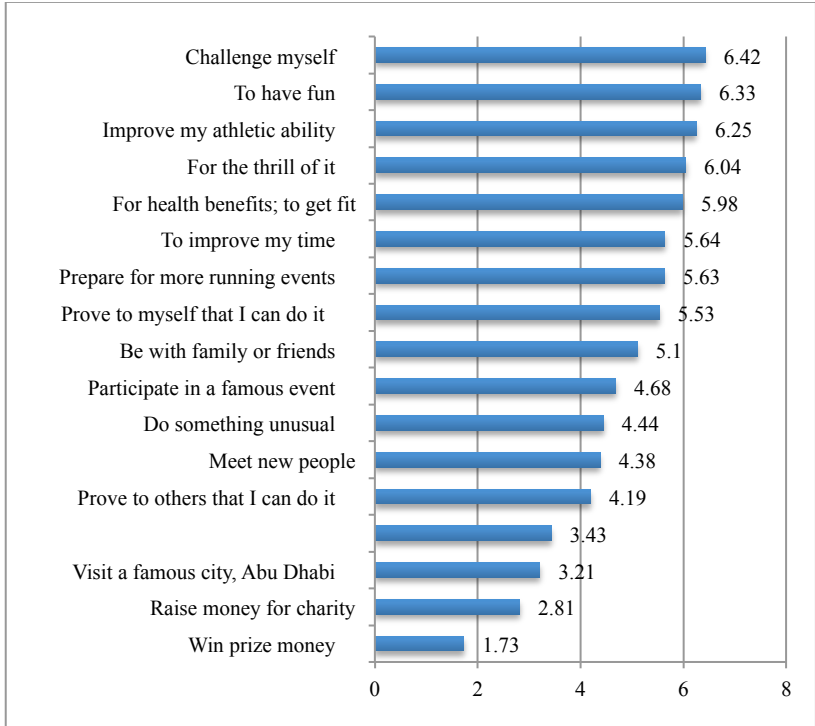
In addition to the explanation above, 51% of our respondents have already participated at the same event, while for 49% this was their first time to participate in the TriYas triathlon. The Sprint discipline was undertaken by 64%, and the Olympic discipline by 36% of our respondents. The majority of respondents consider themselves amateur (87%), but some of them categorised themselves as semi-professionals (7%) and professional athlete (6%).

A descriptive analyses was performed to analyse the data, means and standard deviation were used in all cases. In addition to that, Pearson Chi square with Cramer's V for statements about media was performed for analyzing the differences between first time and returning participants (Table 2).

RESULTS

The results show the participant to be involved in the community event mainly with the self-actualization needs: to challenge myself, to have fun, to improve my athletic ability, for the thrill of it ($M > 6$, $SD = 1.03 - 1.30$).

Figure 2: Mean results for motivation to participate at TriYas 2016 (N=81)



On the other hand, motives to raise money for charity (M=2.81, SD=1.69) and win prize money (M=2.81, SD=1.36) were not identified as strong motivational dimensions among athletes of our sample. Also, destination related motives have not been found as important motivation factors: visit a famous city (M=3.21, SD=1.84) and travel to an interesting place (M=3.43, SD=1.88), to Abu Dhabi in our case.

Descriptive statistics for influence of media is presented in Table 2. Moreover, the differences between the first time

participants and returning athletes were examined in order to understand if media has a different effect on these two groups. Of the 81 respondents, 40 took part in the TriYas triathlon for the first time and 41 were returning participants. The mean results show international media are read or watched by the majority of our respondents, with a mean of 5.9 (SD=1.27) for returning participants and 5.4 (SD=1.60) for the first-timers. There was no statistically significant difference in reading international media between first-timers and returning participants ($p=0.176$). The second strongest mean result for both groups is showing that more media should cover this sports event (M=5.2, SD=1.42 for returning participants and M=5.0, SD=1.48) by the opinion of our sample and also there are no differences in this same opinion between the two groups ($p=0.057$). On the other hand, there were statistically significant differences in the results distribution between the two groups when it comes to the opinion about promotion in media (M=4.88 and 4.90, $p=0.018$) with the strongest strength of association (Cramer's V=0.434) between the two tested groups and more media promotion, which is apparently needed.

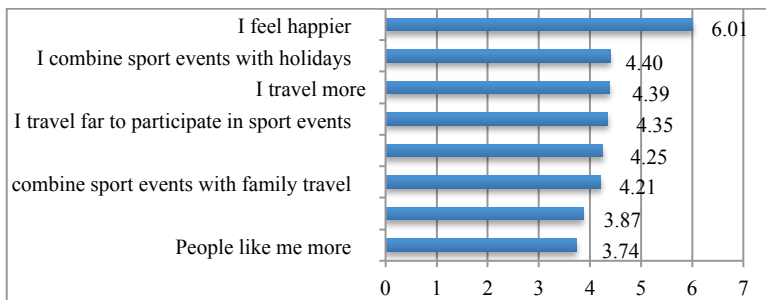
Table 2: Media influence differences between first time and returning participants (N=81)

	Returning p. N=41		First time p. N=40		Pearson Chi-Square	
	M ea n	Std. Dev.	M ea n	Std. Dev.	<i>p</i>	Cram er's V
I read/watch local media every day	4.9 0	1.84	4.5 8	1.93	0.4 09	0.275
I read/watch international media every	5.8	1.27	5.3	1.60	0.1	0.308

day	8		8		76	
I've heard about this event by the media	4.2 9	1.93	3.9 8	2.02	0.2 98	0.299
This event needs more promotion in media	4.8 8	1.60	4.9 0	1.58	0.0 18	0.434
I participate only at prestigious events	2.8 3	1.87	2.3 5	1.70	0.6 00	0.238
I do participate only at the events which are covered by popular media	2.0 5	1.53	2.0 8	1.46	0.7 88	0.146
More media should cover this sport event	5.1 5	1.42	4.9 5	1.48	0.0 57	0.364
I would like to be shown/mentioned in the media	3.7 6	1.96	3.8 0	1.84	0.5 47	0.248
I do sport to be(come) popular	2.1 5	1.56	1.9 3	1.44	0.3 86	0.280

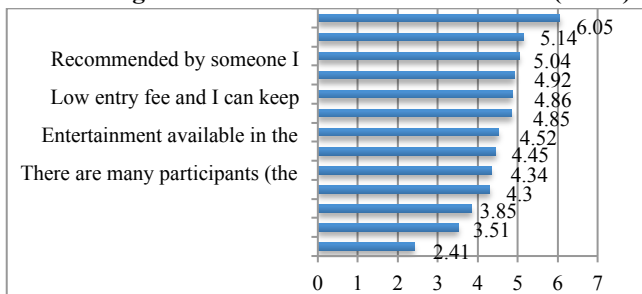
When participants were asked about the changes in their travel style and behaviour since participating at sports events, the feeling of happiness was the strongest result ($M= 6.01$, $SD=1.30$). Next, but much weaker factors that were found to influence the travel style of athletes ($M>4$) is to combine sports events with holidays ($M=4.40$, $SD=1.97$), travel more ($M=4.39$, $SD=1.71$), travel far ($M=4.39$, $SD=1.81$), travel to attractive destinations in order to participate at sports event ($M=4.25$, $SD=1.879$) and combine sports events with family travel ($M=4.21$, $SD=1.92$). Two of eight tested dimensions in the travel style and behaviour changes category did not qualify for being of an effect ($M<4$) and these are “I select my travel destination based on sport possibilities” and “People like me more” since participating at sport events.

Figure 3: Travel style and behaviour changes since participating at sport events (N=80)



The most important factor for the TriYas triathlon participant in the event and destination choice category is the organization of the event itself ($M=6.05$, $SD=1.24$). Another factor of importance when choosing the event and destination is a scenic and interesting route ($M=5.14$, $SD=1.55$), followed by recommendation ($M=5.04$, $SD=1.61$) and the reputation and prestige of the event ($M=4.92$, $SD=1.59$). On the other hand the least important event and destination choice factors are the prize money awarded ($M=2.41$, $SD=1.75$), media coverage ($M=3.51$, $SD=1.60$) and corporate sponsors ($M=3.85$, $SD=1.82$).

Figure 4: Event and destination choice (N=80)



Taking into consideration all 4 tables and all tested statements, it was found that athletes participated at TriYas triathlon 2016

mainly to challenge themselves and have fun, the majority follow international media every day, they feel happier since participating in sports events and the most important factors when deciding to participate at an event is a good organization.

DISCUSSION

There are several implications and themes to be discussed for both theory and practical applications, but first this is unique research on a sample of triathlon athletes in the UAE and it reveals much more about sports involvement of UAE residents than first expected. Looking at the sample it is obvious that females have the possibility to be involved in sports activities in the Muslim country of the UAE. Also, diverse nationalities and religions are noticed, which should be a sign for triathlon athletes from all around the world that it is possible to take part in sports events in Muslim countries. Moreover, more UAE residents (inclusive of expatriates) are noticed in our sample, meaning that triathletes from around the world do not take part in this event. This can be due to several reasons, but it is our thought that Abu Dhabi is not seen as a destination for participating at sports events and second, the event needs more promotion in the international media, which is also supported by our results. Focusing on media, it can be concluded that first-time participants and returners generally have similar opinions about media involvement in this sports event. Future research on other sports events in the UAE is also suggested.

To further explain our, some previous research first needs to be explored. Getz (2008) proposed that amateur athletes can develop an event-travel career and later the travel-career trajectory model was proposed (Getz and Andersson, 2010) testing the model on marathon runners. Later research findings suggest that athletes' motivation should be studied focusing on a particular activity and discipline, because athletes from different sports disciplines do not have the same motivation. In fact, Getz and McConnell (2014)

decided to compare runners and mountain-bikers, where some statistical differences were found. We went further and tested the travel-career model on active amateur triathlon participants, a sport where three sports disciplines are included (run, bike and swim). Findings from our Table 1 (motivation test) confirm Getz and Andersson (2010) results, which say that athletes participate at events for self-actualization needs. Triathlon participants confirmed their self-realization needs, which is also the strongest motivation among all 47 tested statements ($M > 6$). Thus, it can be concluded that athletes are self-focused when deciding to participate at a sports event, since they participate mainly for themselves (“To challenge myself”, “to have fun”). Here we have to look back at the debate on implementing more sports events in the UAE residents’ culture. People can only understand sports and the feeling they have when practising sport, if they take part in sport activities. This was also confirmed in our Figure 3 where “I feel happier” since taking part in sports activities was the highest result ($M = 6$). Findings also confirm that “money” is not what motivates triathlon participants in Abu Dhabi (Table 1), similar to bikers and runners (Getz and McConell, 2014). Here the question about the model tested in different sports disciplines arises since the same findings can be confirmed for bikers, runners and now, triathletes. Running, biking and swimming are sports mostly practised for recreation and by amateurs, but further research on another discipline of athletes is recommended, before making any final conclusions. Nevertheless, Abu Dhabi should find a way to motivate its residents to be more sports active in their every-day life, thus more people could better achieve their self-actualization needs and be more involved in sports activities in the future. Also, travelling to Abu Dhabi and/or visiting famous cities do not motivate athletes in our sample. This may be partly because UAE residents are more involved in the analysed sports event, which again confirms that Abu Dhabi needs more promotion in sports and tourism international media, in order to attract more (sports) tourists. The destination image is significantly related to the

intention to visit a destination (Chalip, Green and Hill, 2003), explaining also athletes' travelling style. Triathletes are willing to travel long distances to triathlon events (Wicker et al., 2012), but they need information about the event itself. It was also found that the route in Abu Dhabi is interesting and scenic (M=5.14) and giving the information that the route is partly organized at the Formula 1 track, would likely attract more athletes to Abu Dhabi. In order to create an effective media strategy based on participant's decision-making process as confirmed by several academics (Hudson, Getz and Miller, 2001, Getz and Fairley, 2003) our results suggest to concentrate on participant's feelings when creating an advert or a PR message. Also, to target returning and first time participants the promotion should be planed in international media more than in domestic UAE media. Both groups also believe that events like this should be more promoted in media, which confirms that also participants of community sport events expect more media exposure. Not the price money and not a personal promotion will attract more triathletes. But a good organization and giving an opportunity for self-affirmation could be the key for more participants in the future. As explained in the introduction of the present paper, the main aim for organizing community events in Abu Dhabi is a healthier population and to create a sport tourism destination. With using presented results, the aim could be accomplished in the future.

This article has introduced the importance of media to the athletes' event-travel career model, which needs to be tested on a bigger scale in order to confirm its relevance, but our results suggest that international media are read by most of triathletes in UAE and that more promotion of TriYas triathlon is necessary.

CONCLUSIONS

In order to examine athletes' trajectory by implementing the

influence of media, the six-dimensional career trajectory model proposed by Getz and Anderson (2010) was used, but adjusted and tested among TriYas triathlon participants. Six dimensions of the event-tourist career were adapted to test the influence of media on athletes' decisions, events and destination choice. Finally, 4 tables with 47 statements in total were tested. It can be concluded that the major motivation for participants of the TriYas triathlon are self-realization needs, and prize money is not what motivates the athletes. International media are what athletes follow every day and more promotion of the sports event is expected, but on the other hand athletes in our sample do not choose sport events and destinations based on media coverage. Participants of the TriYas triathlon feel happier since participating in sports events, but they do not think people like them more. The latest finding should be taken into consideration by the event organizer and used for the promotional purposes in order to accomplish the community event aim. Although the sample in this present research was small, sufficient evidence has been provided to support the conclusion that a well-organized event is what athletes expect as a minimum. In order to get more participants and in consequence, more visitors, which leads to more sponsors and media coverage, organizers should not neglect the findings presented in this paper.

References

- Bulhoon, A. (2015). Power of Media and its influences on Politics and International Relationships of UAE. *Studies in Sociology of Science*, 6(5), 1-7.
- Buning R. and Gibson H. (2015): The Evolution of Active-Sport-Event Travel Careers. *Journal of Sport Management*, 29(5), 555 -569.
- Casanova, C., Celli, B. R., Barria, P., Casas, A., Cote, C., De Torres, J. P., ... & Pinto-Plata, V. (2011). The 6-min walk distance in healthy subjects: reference standards from seven countries. *European Respiratory Journal*, 37(1), 150-156.

- Chalip, L., and Costa, C. A. (2005). Sport event tourism and the destination brand: Towards a general theory. *Sport in Society*, 8(2), 218-237.
- Chalip, L., Green, B.C., and Hill, B. (2003). Effects of sport event media on destination image and intention to visit. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17, 214-234.
- Daniels, M. J. (2007). Central place theory and sport tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 332-347.
- Federal Competitiveness and Statistics Authority (2015): UAE in Figures 2014. Retrieved from <http://fcsa.gov.ae/EnglishHome/tabid/96/Default.aspx#> on April 11, 2016.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. and Soteriades, M. D. (2016a) The preferences of participants in small-scale sport events: A conjoint analysis case study from Taiwan. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, Vol. 64, No 2, pp: 175 - 187.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. and Yeh, S. (2016b) Participant's preferences for small-scale sporting events: a comparative analysis of a Greek and a Taiwanese cycling event. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, Vol. 11, No 2, pp:232 - 247.
- Fotiadis, A., Xie, L., Li, Y. and Huan, T.-C. T. C. (2016c) Attracting athletes to small-scale sports events using motivational decision-making factors. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69, No. 11, pp:5467-5472.
- Fu, J., & Kapiki, S. (2016). Reengineering knowledge for e-tourism and hospitality Curricula. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 23-32. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376345
- Funk, D. C., and Bruun, T. J. (2007). The role of socio-psychological and culture-education motives in marketing international sport tourism: A cross-cultural perspective. *Tourism management*, 28(3), 806-819.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29, 403-428.
- Getz, D. and McConnell, A. (2014). Comparing trail runners and mountain bikers: motivation, involvement, portfolios, and event-tourist careers. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism* 15(1), 69-100.
- Getz, D., & Andersson, T. D. (2010). The Event-Tourist Career Trajectory: A Study of High-Involvement Amateur Distance Runners. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 10(4), 468-491.

- Getz, D., & Fairley, S. (2004). Media management at sport events for destination promotion: Case studies and concepts. *Event Management*, 8(3), 127-139.
- Getz, D., and Fairley, S. (2004). Media management at sport events for destination promotion: Case studies and concepts. *Event Management*, 8(3), 127-139.
- Gibson, H. J. (1998). Active sport tourism: who participates?. *Leisure studies*, 17(2), 155-170.
- Gibson, H. J., Qi, C. X., and Zhang, J. J. (2008). Destination image and intent to visit China and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport Management*, 22(4), 427-450.
- Green, B.C., Costa, C., and Fitzgerald, M., (2003). Marketing the host city: Analyzing exposure generated by a sport event. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 4(4), 335-353.
- Green, C., and Chalip, L. (1998). Sport tourism as the celebration of subculture. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(2), 275-291.
- Hashim, A. R. A. A. B. (2012). Branding the brand new city: Abu Dhabi, travelers welcome. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 8(1), 72-82.
- Hazime, H. (2011). From city branding to e-brands in developing countries: An approach to Qatar and Abu Dhabi. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(12).
- Higham, J. and Hinch, T. (2002). Tourism, sport and seasons: the challenges and potential of overcoming seasonality in the sport and tourism sectors. *Tourism Management*, 23(2), 175-185.
- Higham, J. E. (Ed.). (2005). *Sport tourism destinations: Issues, opportunities and analysis*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann.
- Hudson, S., Getz, D., & Miller, G. A. (2001). The sponsorship of major events by destinations: Evaluating the impact on the decision-making process of the consumer. In H. Spotts, H.
- Meadow, & S. Smith (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Academy of Marketing Science World Marketing Congress on Global Marketing Issues at the Turn of the Millennium (Vol. X)*, Cardiff, Wales
- Nella, A., & Christou, E. (2016). Extending tourism marketing: Implications for targeting the senior tourists' segment. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 36-42. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376336

- Jago, L., Chalip, L., Brown, G., Mules, T., and Ali, S. (2003). Building events into destination branding: Insights from experts. *Event management*, 8(1), 3-14.
- Jordalen, G., and Lemyre, P. N. (2014). The influence of motivation on well-being indices in marathon runners. *Journal of Exercise, Movement, and Sport*, 46(1).
- Kim, S. S., & Petrick, J. F. (2005). Residents' perceptions on impacts of the FIFA 2002 World Cup: the case of Seoul as a host city. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 25-38.
- Koo, S. K., Byon, K. K., and Baker, T. A. (2014). Integrating event image, satisfaction, and behavioral intention: Small-scale marathon event. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 23(3), 127-137.
- López-Fernández, I., Merino-Marbán, R., & Fernández-Rodríguez, E. (2014). Examining the relationship between sex and motivation in triathletes. *Perceptual & Motor Skills*, 119(1), 42-49.
- Masters, K. S., and Ogles, B. M. (1995). An investigation of the different motivations of marathon runners with varying degrees of experience. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 18(1), 69.
- Ogles, B. M., and Masters, K. S. (2003). A typology of marathon runners based on cluster analysis of motivations. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 26(1), 69.
- Okwumabua, T. M., Meyers, A. W., and Santille, L. (1987). A demographic and cognitive profile of master runners. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 10(4), 212.
- Ponzini, D. (2011). Large scale development projects and star architecture in the absence of democratic politics: The case of Abu Dhabi, UAE. *Cities*, 28(3), 251-259.
- Preuss, H. (2005). The economic impact of visitors at major multi-sport-events. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 5, 283-304.
- Ryan, C., and Trauer, B. (2005). Sport tourist behaviour: The example of the Masters games. In J. Higham (Ed.), *Sport tourism destinations: Issues, opportunities and analysis* (pp. 177-187). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Sadiya, A., Ahmed, S. M., Carlsson, M., Tesfa, Y., George, M., Ali, S. H., Siddieg H.H., and Abusnana, S. (2016). Vitamin D 3 supplementation and body composition in persons with obesity and type 2 diabetes in the UAE: a randomized controlled double-blinded clinical trial. *Clinical Nutrition*, 35(1), 77-82.

- Saleem, N. (2007). US media framing of foreign countries image: An analytical perspective. *Canadian Journal of Media Studies*, 2(1), 130-162.
- Schulenkorf, N. and Edwards, D. (2012). Maximizing positive social impacts: Strategies for sustaining and leveraging the benefits of intercommunity sport events in divided societies. *Journal of sport management*, 26(5), 379-390.
- Sharpley, R. (2002). The challenges of economic diversification through tourism: the case of Abu Dhabi. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(3), 221-235.
- Slak Valek, N. (2015). Tourism expenditure according to mode of transportation: A comparative study between 2009 and 2012 *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 3-9. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376250
- Slak Valek, N. (2015). Abu Dhabi Sport Tourism: from zero to hero. In: M. Plevnik et al. (Eds), *Sustainable Development of Sports Tourism* (pp. 11-20). Koper: Annales University Press.
- Solberg, H. A., and Preuss, H. (2007). Major sport events and long-term tourism impacts. *Journal of sport Management*, 21(2), 213.
- Valeri, M. (2016). Networking and cooperation practices in the Italian tourism business. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 30-35. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376333
- Walseth, K., & Strandbu, Å. (2014). Young Norwegian-Pakistani women and sport How does culture and religiosity matter?. *European physical education review*, 20(4), 489- 507
- Wicker, P., Hallmann, K., Prinz, J., and Weimar, D. (2012). Who takes part in triathlon events? A application of lifestyle segmentation to triathlon participants. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 12(1/2), 1-24.
- World Health Organization: World Health Statistics 2015. Accessed http://www.who.int/gho/publications/world_health_statistics/2015/en/ on July 9th, 2016.
- Xing, X. and Chalip, L. (2006). Effects of hosting a sport event on destination brand: A test of co-branding and match-up models. *Sport Management Review*, 9(1), 49-78.

Acknowledgement

The research for this paper was financially supported by the Research Department of Zayed University (United Arab Emirates) RIF grant code R16044. This study was conducted with ethical clearance from the Ethical Committee at this same University. The authors would like to thankful Abu Dhabi Yas Marina Circuit to their generous help in data collections.

SUBMITTED: January 2016

REVISION SUBMITTED: May 2016

ACCEPTED: August 2016

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Dr. Nataša Slak Valek, Ph.D. in Business, specializes in Tourism. She teaches Tourism related courses at Undergraduate and Graduate level at Zayed University in Abu Dhabi, UAE. Her doctorate of Business is from University of Ljubljana, her research focuses on Tourism and Tourism Marketing, and as a former professional athlete she is interested in Sports Tourism research as well.

Al Anood Al Buainain, is a graduate student majoring in Tourism and Cultural Communication at Zayed University and received her Bachelor Degree from UAEU in English Literature in 2012. She worked for Noon Sport Media, which covered women sport news all over the world. Currently she works as a Research Assistant at Zayed University in Abu Dhabi.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF THE “ELITE” LEISURE SPORTS AND SPORT TOURISM IN HUNGARY

Kiss, Róbert
I-Shou University

Marton, Gergely
University of Pécs

Prisztóka, Gyöngyvér
University of Pécs

Raffay, Zoltán
University of Pécs

The goal of the study is to observe the consumption of four elite-called leisure time sport activities (sailing, golf, skiing and tennis) in Hungary, during travels and staying at home, within the recreational zone. Authors compared these leisure activities following the four sport tourism dimensions: geographic environment, participation of the consumers, type of sport activity and motivations of tourists, and many more minor variables related to these dimensions. Based on these variables some of the sport activities found typical as generating foreign travels among Hungarians, such as ski and partly golf, but others, like sailing, and golf meant mostly domestic travels towards the lakes of the country. Meanwhile, tennis was taken rather recreational leisure activity among these sports. Authors also made comparison between the cost of these amateur level done sport activities and their popularity, so they observed the number of their followers as well as on the length of their season, just to name a few. They also weighted the socio-economic sensitiveness, and ranked them by their cost of the initial investment of the equipment, and annual costs of activities and finally their total costs.

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

The paper finally states that these leisure sport activities should be taken as luxury ones for average Hungarian households, no matter, if quite a few costumers travel with any of these activities as a purpose, such as active or passive sport tourists.

Key words: *leisure, sport, tourism, recreation, socio-economic aspects*

INTRODUCTION

Breaking free from urban existence has long been one of the most important motivations of tourism, so physical activity itself or sport is the potential gain, the reward of the individual, as the fulfilment of the desire for a healthy way of life, temporarily getting rid of the stress-laden ordinary days. By the 1990s thus a considerable attention was paid to this field by sport and tourism studies, on the one hand and academics, on the other hand, which made some governments work out sport tourism strategies (Gibson, 2006) and organise mega-events in sports (Bhatia, 1991; Chalip and Costa, 2006). As a result of this rapid process, according to WTO (1994), sport tourism was the fastest growing sector within tourism until the late 20th century, with some 8-10% annual growth occasionally.

The start of the existence of sport tourism is dated back to the first ancient Olympic Games by most researchers (Finley and Pleket, 1976; Zauhar, 2004; Weed and Bull, 2009; Hudson and Hudson, 2010), when sportsmen or spectators visited the former Greek polis with the motivation to participate or to simply watch the games. Already at that time this referred to a sport-oriented primary motivation and the use of related touristic services, i.e. the use of a complex tourism product (Zauhar, 2004). The sport events that were not organised for centuries, due to the storms of history and have been regularly held again since the late 19th century have become by now events moving tens of millions of people all over the world, but surveys focusing on the impacts of sport competitions on tourism have a relatively little history, as opposed to the researches on traditional 3S tourism (Mitchell, 1983; Hinch and Higham, 2001; Hall and Page, 2002; Gibson, 2006).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The definition of sport tourism in literature, similarly to other disciplines, is problematic, sometimes contradictory (Pigeaussou, Bui-Xuan, and Gleyse, 2003), because some focus on performance-orientation and comparability (Hinch and Higham, 2001; Hudson, 2003; Robinson and Gammon, 2004), but there is a general consensus by the academics that sport tourism can be divided into an active and a passive part (Hall, 1992; Standeven and DeKnop, 1999; Hinch and Higham, 2001; Weed and Bull, 2009). A third feature enlisted by Redmond, (1990, 1991) is nostalgia, on the basis of which Gibson (2006:2) defines sport tourism as follows: “Leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities (Active Sport Tourism), to watch physical activities (Event Sport Tourism), or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities (Nostalgia Sport Tourism)”. In the view of Gibson (2003, 2006) we should not exclude those tourists, either, who visit a destination with competitive motivations, but still for the pursuing of an active pastime – such as rafting, skiing or diving –, leaving their place of permanent residence, or who may visit museums of sport heritages. Standeven and DeKnop (1999) too consider all active and passive forms pursued far from home as sport tourism, whereas Weed and Bull, (2009) interpret sport tourism more as individual interactions among activities, people and the place. Still others (Nogawa, Yamaguchi, and Hagi, 1996) vision transferability in the case of certain conditions – e.g. existence of cultural sights – between sport tourists and city sightseers, presuming the expanding interest of the former. By the use of the demand model of applied tourism he came to the conclusion that sights of interest in the proximity of the tourism destinations visited play a key role in making sport tourists return. Hudson and Hudson, (2010) drew similar conclusions from the summary of the theoretical works of the researchers mentioned above, but they define sport tourism in a more sophisticated way than Gibson (2006) does, also taking recreation into consideration: sport activities done far from home or with competitive motivation, the visiting of an amateur or professional sport event (Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Soteriades, 2016; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Yeh,

2016; Fotiadis, Xie, Li, and Huan, 2016) and attendance or other sport attractions like the Hall of Fame or a water park. This definition too omits the specification of the duration of stay.

The examination of the participants in sport tourism can be approached in four dimensions, depending on whether the research focus is the motivation, behaviour and needs of the consumers or the composition of the supply (Puczkó and Rátz, 2002). Accordingly, we can research the geographical environment (touristic–recreational activity), the type of the sport activity (competition sport – mass sport), the participation of the consumers (active–passive) and the motivations of the tourists (primary–secondary), depending on whether in the travels generated by the respective sport activities the attractions are capable in themselves of pulling the tourists to the given destination (primary motivation) or not. The latter are the secondary motivations that are not enough in themselves to make tourists leave their place of residence, but make a significant contribution to the expansion of the touristic supply. The interest of the passive sport tourists in mostly professional sports can be induced in the opinion of Smith and Stewart, (2007) by the affection to a sportsman or a team, and also national belonging (national team); or this long-term relationship can even lead to the appearance of nostalgia for a club or a company as a strong emotional tie (Fairley and Gammon, 2006).

Higham, (2006) draws attention to the favourable impact of sport tourism on the touristic season, as the championships of the most popular and most watched team sports have a significant contribution to the decrease of seasonality, but climatic and other geographic factors also impact the penetration of open-air activities in space and time.

The economic development of the recent decades had a great impact on sport tourism as well, as considerable amounts of investments were made in sports in this period, and the interrelationship of sport and socio-economic resources appeared at local (municipal), national and international level (Kozma, Teperics, and Radics, 2014). An excellent example for collaboration at national level is the organisation of so-called mega sport events (e.g. summer Olympic Games), but also in tourism marketing and regional destination management there are several examples for the introduction of the country and the region, in addition to the location

of the sport events (Harrison-Hill and Chalip, 2006). The chance to create a brand linked to destination image and sport event(s) has awoken the interests of some governments as well (Chalip and Costa, 2006; Weed, 2006; Deery and Jago, 2006; Küçükaltan & Pirnar, 2016), and so the development of sport tourism can take place in existing significant touristic centres but also in areas outside the tourism sector for the time being – industrial or agricultural areas (Silk and Amis, 2006).

So far we have discussed sport activities related to travel, but we also have to mention recreational activities within our everyday spatial tracks that do not require the booking of accommodation. The issue has been studied by some, especially its complexity: a total of active and passive functions (Slak Valek, Jurak, and Bednarik, 2011; Kiss, 2013; Slak Valek, Bednarik, Kolar, and Leskosek, 2015; Valeri, 2016). The correlations of the trio of leisure, tourism and recreation have been examined, among others, by Hall and Page, (2002) (Figure 1), who found in their model that in addition to work, rest (both active and passive) is a necessary central activity. One segment of this, coinciding with travel, is tourism, the other segment void of travel is recreation, and the third, small common section is travel with recreational purposes. The model contains novelty inasmuch as it demonstrates travels related to work and recreation, their types, and also the relations of tourism, recreation and leisure to each other. Freysinger, and Kelly, (2004) emphasised, but did not define the way and duration of leisure time, while Kimmelman, (1974) saw travel as the most intensive way of passing leisure time.

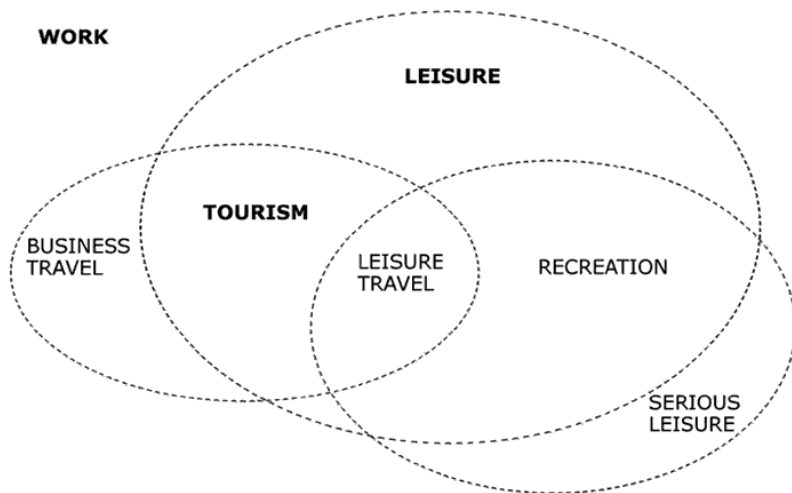


Figure 1 Correlation among rest, recreation and tourism
Source: Hall, and Page, 2002

International literature on recreation, however, uses a much broader interpretation, but a definition not unequivocal by far, because it may cover any – already mentioned – physical, sport, intellectual, spiritual activity that serves the inspiration and recreation of the individual and increases his/her wellbeing, irrespective of the distance from the place of residence and the use of accommodation (Hinch, Jackson, Hudson, and Walker, 2006).

Although this paper does not deal with all leisure time activities, it indicates that the sports analysed here are only a small part of the former. Leisure time sports in the categorisation of Torkildsen, (2005) and Long, (2007) include physical activities that require active effort of the body; they are activities pursued in leisure time, voluntarily and without constraint, done in non-competitive situations, with the aim of the achievement of freshness of the body, mind and spirit, and they become part of the healthy way of life.

In the definition of leisure time activities, valuable achievements were made in the fields of social correlations (Jarvie and Maguire, 1994), economic examinations (Gratton and Taylor,

2000; Wilson and Joyce, 2008) or the management of these activities (Robinson, 2003).

The goal of this paper is the demonstration of the impact of four leisure time sport activities considered as elite sports in Hungary (sailing, golf, skiing and tennis) on tourism and recreation. The authors examine whether there is a significant difference among the respective sports from the aspect that some of them can be seen as the consequence of primary travel motivation (sport tourism), while others as regular, short – often intra-municipal – movements with recreational purposes. They also seek the answer to the question, whether there is a correlation between the investment costs and the popularity of the respective sports. Finally, the paper briefly examines the exclusivity of the sport activities by ranking them by the investment costs for their regular pursuit at amateur level, the costs of the equipment, the annual costs of the activity and the depreciation of the equipment.

METHODOLOGY

As the secondary methodology basis of the paper, international definitions of the concepts serving as the theoretical framework of the study were compared (sport tourism, leisure time sport, recreation etc.), as it is important to have compatible terminologies (professionals living from sports not part of this paper). The data collection of the qualitative research was done in the form of structured in-depth interviews – with the same open ended questions - about the four sport activities with professionals. During the survey the authors made sure that they asked the respondents structured questions required by the theory (John and Lee-Ross, 1998). Representatives who had expertise and experience were asked, including several club leaders, owners, rental services and sport associations, who all have an insight into the trends of sport activities and the changes of the demand. Besides them, the research was assisted by representatives and owners of the mediating sector (tour operator, travel agency). In most cases the experts asked were actually fans of the sport, having an insight to the topic as users as well, like e.g. the owner of the only Hungarian golf tour operator, who does not believe and use statistics. In addition, one of the authors had made a quantitative survey on the sport activities of the

Hungarian population done at home and when travelling – the findings of this research were also used. That survey used SPSS ANOVA variance, factor and Pearson Chi-square analysis were carried out regarding the golfers' behaviour (Beerli and Martín, 2004; Nella & Christou, 2016).

The selected 4 leisure time sports (sailing, golf, skiing and tennis) are activities treated as elite sports in Hungary. The survey did not set as a goal to analyse all sports available in Hungary, it only focused on individual elite sports whose judgement is often debated: the cultural and social acceptance of the respective sports varies. It is evident that the comparison of sports different from each other is a hard task, even with hard methodological restrictions, as is the measurability of their achievements (e.g. fan base, facilities, length of season). The research, besides defining the touristic or recreational significance of the respective sports, focused on the socio-economic roles, the impacts and also the financial costs of the respective sports, i.e. the initial investment costs. In addition, it also evaluated how expensive it is to pursue the respective sport, including e.g. the costs of training necessary for the acquisition of the sport and the personal development of the sportsperson, occasional club memberships and licences, costs of depreciation, costs of travel to and back from the place of the activity (average cost per kilometre calculated with the Hungarian fuel prices), and all other expenses specific for the respective sports (e.g. insurance, ski ticket, fee for the rent/use of the track, green fee etc.).

One of the most serious limitations of the research is that there is no data supply and collection obligation in any of these sports, in addition, there is practically no information on services used privately. Accordingly, most data the authors used are based on calculations or are partial data.

On the whole, it became clear that there is a need for national level surveys including the service providers of the respective sports, both as regards the development of the sports and the services. This should be done by the coordination of the sport associations of the respective sports. All these are worded as recommendations: there is a need for the complete survey of the supply side, on the one hand, and for extended examination of the demand, on the other hand.

RESULTS

According to a survey of Eurobarometer (2015), sport-related activities are primary motivations in only 8% of travels by Hungarians, which is only two-thirds of the EU 28 average (12%). This means that in an international comparison the Hungarians are less active in the field of sports and physical pursuits than the average. As the survey of the Hungarian Tourism Inc. about the travels of the Hungarians do not contain specifically sport- and physical activity related data, they only appear in aggregate statistics (in the categories called holidays, cultural and sport events), we had to rely on other surveys when examining the four sport activities in our focus.

Following the theory of the four dimensions of sport tourism (Puczko and Rätz, 2002) we have to place them in the geographical space first. According to Kiss, (2013:71) Hungarians typically pursue “activities in the weekdays that do not require substantial investment, which are primarily physical activities promoting recreation, refreshment and the preservation of health” (Figure 2).

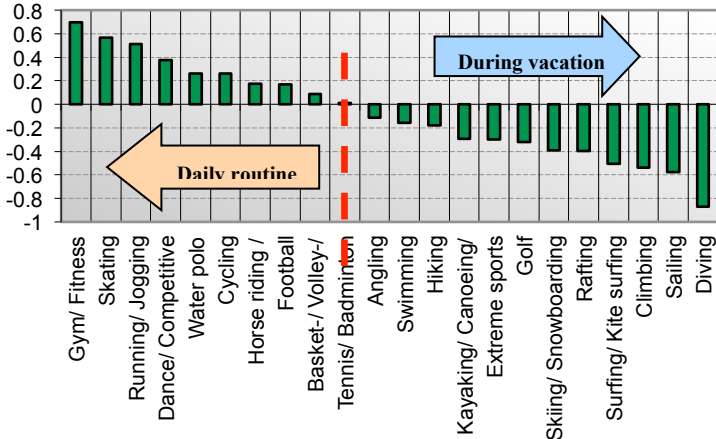


Figure 2: The physical leisure activities of Hungarian people at home (daily routine) and during their holidays

Source: Kiss, 2013:75

In the case of Hungarians, it has been proven that golf and ski are primarily physical activities linked to travels, which is in part due to the quality supply and climatic conditions available abroad, and also to the small number of golf courses and ski slopes in Hungary. Although, the golf courses are sufficient to satisfy the current demand, they cannot ensure variety, and cannot make up for the experience provided by new courses. In addition, playing golf is a seasonal opportunity and the sport belongs to activities that motivate travelling, due to being totally inaccessible or hardly accessible in the home country. Such activities include: skiing and sea sailing (Figure 2). Sailing is mostly targeted at domestic lakes and domestic travels, especially Lake Balaton. This can mostly be explained with geographical factors. Hungary has no coastal resort areas with a pleasant climate and clean waters, or high, snow-sure mountains. Golf as a daily, routine physical activity is negligible in the sample, and the proportion of golfers to the entire population also falls short. On the other side of the picture, tennis is a neutral sport activity, which is as popular during vacation as for people doing it at home, mostly on regular recreational basis (Kiss, 2013).

It is evidently the volume of skiers travelling abroad that is the largest among all leisure time travels examined. Only to Austria, 599,245 Hungarians travelled in 2012 and spent a total of 1,016,034 guest nights there (HSF¹). Other popular countries include Slovakia, Italy and France, the latter two representing premium category. Significantly less people travel abroad to play golf, mostly before or after the season. Figure 3 indicates which destinations are the most popular for Hungarian golfers. It is striking how popular the developing golf centres in the south and the neighbouring countries are, and how few people visit traditional – mature – golf destinations (British Isles). There is no connection between the golf supply and the golfing community of the countries visited (population per golf course). The influencing factors are rather the price/value ratio and the pleasant climate (Kiss, 2013). Quite a lot of group tours are organised by golf Pros (and or by tour operator in packages), taking their students with themselves to the Southern coasts. As regards sailing, very few travel abroad with this purpose, with the Adriatic Sea being the most popular destination, where many have their own sailing boats. Sailing generates much more domestic travels whose index is impossible to estimate, as most people involved in this

activity sleep on their own boats or holiday homes and so, do not appear in official tourism statistics. There are no sportsmen in Hungary who travel abroad with tennis as the main motivation, apart for amateur players in tournaments.

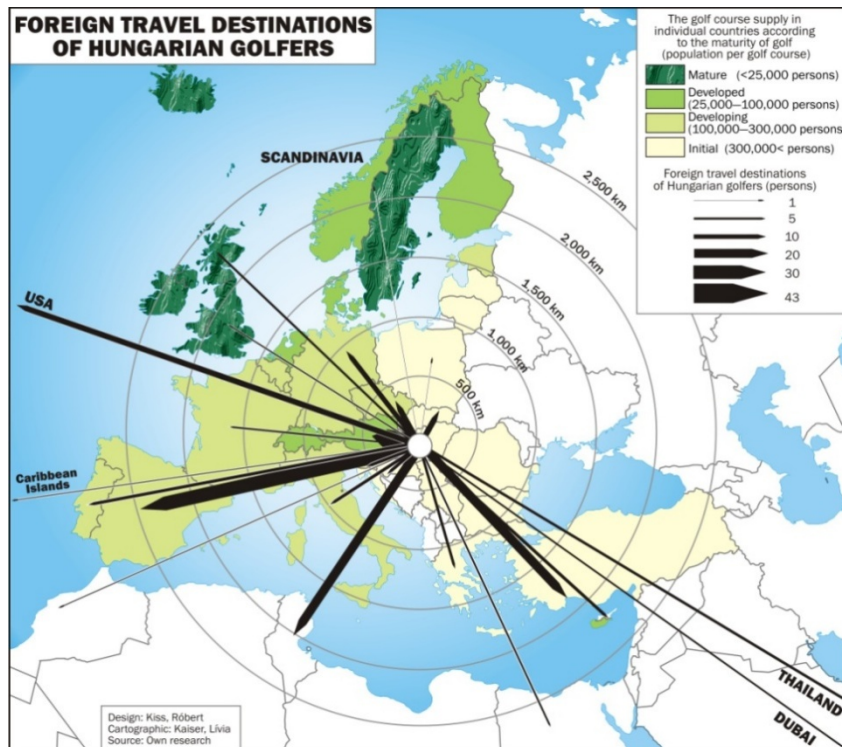


Figure 3 Foreign travel destinations of Hungarian golfers
Source: KPMG 2010, own research 2013

It is difficult to demonstrate the number of people arriving at Hungary with sporting motivations, as Hungary is not an international destination in any of these sports. Apart from amateur competitions, not one of the four sports attracts significant numbers of inbound tourists, and the associations of the respective sports do not have data about it, either. The data provided by the Hungarian

Golf Federation (HGF) is only an indication: the players coming for the several-day competitions organised by the Federation spent a total of 1,039 guest nights in Hungary, while the members of the junior national team spent 880 guest nights at 19 destinations abroad (2015, HGF).

In the case of golf, the little time available for the regular pursuit of the activity does not allow the departure from the place of residence, which in many cases results in movements within the boundary of the municipality. At the same time, in skiing or sailing the regular pursuit of the activity in the settlement of the sportsman is hardly possible in Hungary, the only exception may be the owners of the ships who live on the shore of the lake where the ship is berthed. The most typical recreational activity is tennis; it is the most easily available often within the same municipality, several times a week.

The endowments of the geographical environment strongly influence the location, popularity and availability of the leisure time sport activities. Golf has a season exceeding six months, and the season of lake sailing also reaches half a year. The length of the season and the frequency of the pursuit of sport reflect the interest in, and popularity of the respective sport. The data of *Table 1* do not prove that activities with longer seasons also have largest fanbases, maybe golfers are exception from this, just because of the need for significant infrastructure. The shortest of the seasons is that of skiing, due to the Hungarian physical geographical endowment, and even this short three-month period is more typically used in potential nearby destinations than in Hungarian ones, despite their considerable progress in the recent years. Skiing certainly means a travel abroad, due to the lack of ski slopes at adequate height and with ample infrastructure and accommodations in Hungary. Within Hungary skiing can be seen as excursion and not as tourism. Tennis, on the other hand, is a sport available all year round, due to the indoor facilities.

Table 1: Seasonality of elite sports in Hungary

Sports	Geographical environment, demand	Number of (elite) sportsmen (persons)	Length of season	Frequency of pursuit of sport (times)
sailing	water, shore	8,000-100,000	5-6 months	10-15 times a year
golf	need for water	1,500	6-7 months	20-30 times a year
skiing	high mountains	cc. 500,000	3 months	2 weeks a year
tennis	consumer market	cc. 200,000-300,000	all year	2-3 times a week

Source: by the authors, using the data provided by sport federations, 2016

Note: the number of those doing sailing is hard to estimate; 8,000 people have sailing certificate, but many more are sailing occasionally

The same applies for golf, however, in this statistics only the registered ones' appearing

As regards geographical location, we have to remark that there are activities which require all-year regular commuting to the sport field within the same settlement (e.g. tennis), and there are also ones that can only be pursued with certainty abroad, due to climatic (and orographic) factors (like skiing, sea sailing and golf).

When examining the frequency of the activity, one has to take into consideration, if the time demand the respective sport exceeds that of other sports. In Hungary there are leisure time sports definitely built on urban environment, like tennis clubs and executive golf courses, on the other hand there are sports whose venues are located far from the places of origin – e.g. Budapest –: for sailors it is Lake Balaton, for skiers the Alpine mountains, for golfers the 18-hole courses. The data of *Table 2* reveal that the least frequently pursued sport is the most expensive one (sailing), explained, in addition to distance, by financial reasons. This is followed by golf that also requires travels to non-local venues. Skiing is an activity done even more rarely, but more intensively. Despite its season that only lasts for a few weeks, the largest number of people participate in this

activity, despite the distance. Tennis is played 2-3 times a week, making it the most regularly pursued leisure time sport activity (done without travel) among the sports in the survey.

Lack of time may also make a sport seem expensive, as in certain cases doing the sport requires several hours. In the case of sailing e.g. the time needed for the activity cannot be forecasted, as it depends on wind; also, playing the total an 18-hole golf course may take 5-6 hours on the average. The daily or weekly ticket of skiers means an all-day activity in the respective few days or weeks. On the other hand, a tennis ticket only allows specific hours for the sport. Adding the time of travel to the doing the sport we can calculate with half-day or all-day activities, relaxations, which in many respects is a luxury in the lives of several families, especially, if the activity as a hobby is done regularly. Those families that can afford regular elite or premium sports often adjust their lifestyle to the sport activity: daily routines, paid holidays are dependant on the seasons of the sport.

Table 2: Number of sportsmen and frequency of the activity pursued in Hungary

Sport	Equipment + costs for 1 year (in €)	Number of (hobby) sportsmen (persons)	Duration of one game	Frequency of pursuit of sport (times)
sailing	14,200	8,000-100,000	wind dependant (few hours – all day)	10-15 times a year
golf	2,400	1,500	5-6 hours*	20-30 times a year
skiing	2,050	cc. 500,000	all day daily/weekly ticket	2 weeks a year
tennis	1,700	cc. 200,000-300,000	monthly ticket	2-3 times a week

Source: by the authors, using the data provided by sport federations, 2016

Note: the number of those doing sailing is hard to estimate; 8,000 people have sailing certificate, but many more are sailing occasionally

The same applies for golf, however, in this statistics only the registered ones' appearing

The annual net income of a 2 adults, 2 children Hungarian family is €1,000 (HCSO, 2015)

* In case of an 18-hole course

Following the dimensions of sport tourism, it was worth looking at other related research questions, like how much the leisure time sport activities are mass sports and how large a fanbase the respective sports have. It should also be examined how long the season of the respective activities is in Hungary, and how frequently the sports can be pursued; what factors influence the pursuit and popularity of the sports; if expensiveness holds people back, i.e. the more expensive a sport, the less people pursue it and vice versa, or there is no cause and effect relationship and so popularity of the activities is determined by something else. In the possession of all this information we can judge how the respective leisure time activities are expensive, inaccessible and unaffordable, whether they are actually as luxurious as seen by the decreasing society.

The data provided by the associations of the respective sports show an extreme breakdown of the pursuers of the sports (*Table 2*). *Table 2* points on that making generalisation have to do carefully, thanks to the size difference (333 times!) of the population of each sport, which is a massive bias. There are, registered sportsmen can use the fairways and greens, the ship and the water in golf and sailing, to some certain extent skiers can also use the given slopes, but there is no such limit in tennis. That activity does not need any certificate. In case of sailing it is enough to have one person on board with sailing certificate, all others are passive participants in sailing (HSF²), but in golf a good knowledge is required for using the course. It is a fact, that the number of registered golfers has not increased in Hungary in the recent years (HGF, 2015).

As regards the second dimension of sport tourism one has to make it clear that the survey only included amateur sportsmen who pursue the sport in their leisure time, more or less regularly,

they sometimes compete at amateur level, but do not live from sports, as opposed to professional players.

A closely related issue to the ones above is the *third dimension of sport tourism*, where the travellers with sport motivations are either active participants or passive spectators (sportsmen or supporters), depending on the physical participation. So one can distinguish domestic or outbound ski, golf and sailing tourism, where physical participation matters. Of course there is a smaller volume of passive ski and golf tourists, who are spectators of competitions.

As regards the passive tourism of the 4 sports examined, in each case there are sport friends with this motivation, watching a sport event or visiting a sport facility. On the whole, it is true, though, that it is only tennis courts, which – coming from their size – can be surrounded by spectators and so the sight is an exclusive experience for the sport fan, the passive sport tourist.

The fourth *dimension of sport tourism*, i.e. the fact that sport travel can be a primary or secondary motivation, is closely related to the previous ones. Hungary is not considered as a skiing destination at all and the country is also negligible on the international market as a golf destination; it is only a known destination for Europeans in lake sailing tourism. Accordingly, the pursuit of the examined activities is not a primary motivation for inbound leisure sportsmen.

In the case of outbound tourism, on the other hand, the attendance of ski and golf destinations by masses or significant numbers of Hungarian travellers is a proof for the existence of primary motivation.

As regards the annual costs of the respective sports, the following statements can be made. We had to look at the initial investment costs of equipment for the respective leisure time sport activities (*Table 2 and 3*), as they are a necessity for the pursuit of the activities. On this ground sailing is by far the most expensive, it requires the largest investment.

Experts say that the price of a new 24 feet ship (type Balaton 24), most typical on Lake Balaton is € 6,000, which exceeds by far the cost of any other sport equipment, and due to its absolute value the maintenance costs are also high, although, much less than the costs of the initial investment. The expenditure of € 12,000 can be further increased by the type of equipment. Starting golf costs

approximately € 900 (golf set, bag, clothing, shoes and accessories), followed in the rank – of equipment costs – by skiing, as skiers need to invest € 600 in their favourite activity, by and large the same amount as those who want to do the ‘white sport’, tennis (equipment: clothing, shoes, racket, accessories).

The purchase of the sport equipment is only one of the indices, which can be evaluated from many aspects, but should also be compared to the annual costs of pursuing the selected activity (*Table 3*). While the differences among the costs of the initial investments may be twentyfold, the annual maintenance costs can only be double. The items include travel costs calculated with depreciation and fuel costs, which are extra expenses incurred in all of these activities, making a significant part of the annual costs.

It is an important issue what expense the depreciation of a “sport set” purchased is for the sportsperson. When the purchase of the equipment was a significant cost, and so is the maintenance, the regular pursuit of the respective sport – knowing the Hungarian socio-economic factors – is something that definitely few can afford in Hungary. A good example for this is sailing, where it is especially maintenance of the ship, the costs of embarking and disembarking and the expenses of storage that are continuous and significant investments (€ 2,200). In the second most important touristic region of Hungary, the Lake Balaton, sailing tourism is a touristic product of outstanding significance. Balaton saw huge infrastructure investments in the last decade, with enlargement of yacht ports and reception capacity. Municipalities and the port owners want to satisfy not only domestic, but also international demand. The international competitiveness of Lake Balaton is significant, while Hungarian owners seek Hungarian lakes, including Lake Velence, Tisza Lake and Pécs Lake, with pure travel motivations (Csapó and Remenyik, 2011).

Table 3: Investment costs of the equipment of the respective sports in Hungary (in €)

Sport	Equipment	Maintenance costs, annual	Total costs	When it is pursued
sailing	12,000	2,200	14,200	when travelling
golf	900	1,500	2,400	when travelling
skiing	600	1,450	2,050	when travelling
tennis	600	1,100	1,700	when at home

Source: by the authors, using the data provided by sport federations, 2016

The annual net income of a 2 adults, 2 children Hungarian family is €1,000 (HCSO, 2015)

Golf and skiing – with a similar amount of annual expenditure, € 1,500 – is in the category, where the pursuit of the sport is one and a half times more expensive than the cost of the equipment. These activities are made expensive, on the one hand, by membership fees, licences and greenfees (one occasion per month costs € 40-50), on the other hand, and by the travel costs of approaching – especially foreign – destinations, induced by the large distance and the short season in Hungary. It is evident, though, that in the case of golf the practice in a nearby driving range is also a significant cost. In golf the pursuit of the activity takes place in the place of residence or in its direct vicinity, and means regular sport without booking accommodation – although, because of the large demand for territory of the golf courses it may as well possible that sportsmen regularly cross administrative boundaries (Kiss, 2013). Golf that costs slightly more than one-third of sailing and the somewhat cheaper skiing are also exclusive sport activities, as regards the costs incurred. Regular pursuit of these two sports at hobby level induces more or less the same costs, which is surprising among other things, because the former is definitely seen by the Hungarian public as an “elite” sport, with a very low number of

registered members (1,498 persons, HGF), while the latter is practiced by masses on the snow-sure ski slopes of neighbouring (or more remote) countries. If skiing – just because it is a mass phenomenon, approximately 5% of the population do this – is not a luxury sport, then golf, with by and large the same costs, cannot be seen as luxury, either! In this contradiction we can see the already mentioned social prejudice in the judgement of the two sports that does not take into consideration the different lengths of the seasons.

Golf is made expensive evidently by the membership fee and the travel to the courses, while tennis is expensive, because of the annual rental costs of the courts. The season of the latter is extended by the construction of indoor tennis courts. Construction of sailing ports is significant investment as well, as is the sustainability of ski slopes or golf courses in the global warming. Tennis centres are cheaper to operate.

The image of tennis formerly known as “noblemen’s” sport has changed, decades ago it was known as the sport of the elite, but now – also due to the sport achievements of Hungarian professional tennis players – it is a more popular sport. Tennis centres usable all year round have been built, with major clubs that have improved the quality of the education of the young, talent management and education of the future tennis players.

CONCLUSION

By the comparison of the examined leisure time activities and sports on the basis of the dimensions affecting the consumers of sport tourism (Puczko and Rätz, 2002, Slak Valek, 2015), it was found that the social embeddedness of the sports, formerly seen as the sports of the elite classes, is varied. Some have become mass sports (skiing and tennis), there is an elite but accepted sport (sailing), and one that is less accepted culturally – golf (Kiss, 2006). Some have a significant role by participation in the recreational space (tennis), and some are more popular during travels: these are skiing, sailing and golf. It was also found that the situation is just the other way round, if we examine these sports from the side of passive participation: it is tennis that attracts the largest numbers of spectators to the tournaments.

The paper strengthens that the popularity of leisure time sport tourism depends on the following factors: it is geographical environment (orography and climate), the constructed infrastructure, the socio-economic background, the costs of purchasing and maintaining the equipment – but leisure time available, discretionary income and motivation also play a significant role. The survey included persons with a thorough knowledge of the respective sport activities, and it was found that the judgement of skiing, which has become a mass sport by now in Hungary, is still positive, despite its Alpine character. It is a sport made exclusive by the strong climatic limitations, the geographical conditions and the small number of ski slopes in Hungary, as well as the short length of season at home. Conditions for regular skiing are far better abroad than in Hungary, which explains why this sport has half a million pursuers in Hungary. The popularity of ski is also increased by the fact that, similarly to tennis, more and more schools organise tours for this purpose in the ski holidays reserved for this aim.

There are other factors that make some sports seem expensive. These are clubs, ports and sport facilities not open to the public, which may strengthen the feeling of exclusion for non-sportsmen, who consider these sports and luxurious, inaccessible and unaffordable and so lose their interest in them (particularly sailing and golf). Consumability is also influenced, in addition to the information available, by the quality of services linked to the sport activities, which determines demand and solvency for the respective sports.

On the whole we can say that in the Hungarian economic environment the costs of the examined sports, reaching hundreds of Euros, are a significant challenge for most Hungarian families from whose average budget (€ 1,000, HCSO 2015), it is hard to economise the expenses of one sportsperson or two.

Finally, we have to emphasise a serious limit of the research: data collection was problematic in some cases, there were indices that were hardly available or unavailable. It means that further researches require the focus on mapping the demand side – with the coordination of the respective sport associations.

References

- Beerli, A. and Martín, J.D. (2004). *Factors Influencing Destination Image*, Annals of Tourism Research 31(3):657-681.
- Bhatia, A. K. (1991). *International Tourism: Fundamentals and Practises*. New Delhi: Sterling Press
- Chalip, L. and Costa, C. (2006). *Building Sport Event Tourism into the Destination Brand: Foundations for the General Theory*. In Gibson, H. Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories. Routledge, New York
- Csapó, J. and Remenyik, B. (2011). Active tourism In: Michalkó Gábor (Ed.) *Design and development of touristic products*. Pécs. University of Pécs. pp. 1-20.
- Deery, M. and Jago, L. (2006). *The Management of Sport Tourism*. In Gibson, H. Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories. Routledge, New York, pp. 246-258.
- Eurobarometer (2015). *Preferences of European Towards Tourism*. Report.
- Fairley, S. and Gammon, S. (2006). *Something Lived, Something Learned: Nostalgia's Expanding Role in Sport Tourism*. In: Gibson, H. Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories. Routledge, New York, pp. 50-65
- Finley, M. I. and Pleket, H. W. (1976). *The Olympic Games*. Edinburgh. R and R Clark.
- Freysinger, V.J. and Kelly, J. R. (2004). *21st century leisure: Current issues*. State College, PA: Venture Publishing
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. and Soteriades, M. D. (2016a) The preferences of participants in small-scale sport events: A conjoint analysis case study from Taiwan. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, Vol. 64, No 2, pp: 175 - 187.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. and Yeh, S. (2016b) Participant's preferences for small-scale sporting events: a comparative analysis of a Greek and a Taiwanese cycling event. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, Vol. 11, No 2, pp:232 - 247.
- Fotiadis, A., Xie, L., Li, Y. and Huan, T.-C. T. C. (2016c) Attracting athletes to small-scale sports events using motivational decision-making factors. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69, No. 11, pp:5467-5472.
- Gibson, H. (2006). *Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories*. Routledge, New York, 274p.
- Gibson, H. (2004). *Moving beyond the „what is and who” of sport tourism to understanding „why”*. Journal of Sport and Tourism, Vol.9. No.3. pp. 247-265.
- Gibson, H. (2003). *Sport Tourism: An Introduction to the Special Issue*. Journal of Sport Management Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 205-213

- Gratton, C. and Taylor, P. (2000). *Economics of Sport and Recreation*. – Spon Press, London - New York, 243 p.
- Harrison-Hill, T. and Chalip, (2006). *Business Studies: Concepts and Paradigms Marketing Sport Tourism: Creating Synergy between Sport and Destination*. In Gibson, H. Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories. Routledge, New York, pp. 170-188.
- Higham, J. (2006). *Sport Tourism as an Attraction for Managing Seasonality*. In: Gibson, H. Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories. Routledge, New York, pp. 106-130.
- Hall, C. M. and Page, S. J. (2002). *The Geography of tourism and recreation*. – Routledge, London, New York, 399p.
- Hall, C. M. (1992). *Adventure, Sport and Health Tourism*. In. Weiler, B. and Hall, C.M. (eds.) Special Interest Tourism. Bellhaven Press, London, pp. 141-158.
- Hinch, T., Jackson, E. J., Hudson, S. and Walker, G. (2006). *Understanding Sport Tourism: Socio-cultural Perspectives Leisure Constraint Theory and Sport Tourism*. In Gibson, H. *Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories*. Routledge, New York, pp. 10-31.
- Hinch, T. and Higham, J. (2001). *Sport Tourism: A Framework for Research*. The International Journal of Tourism Research, Vol. 3. No. 1, pp. 45-58.
- Hudson, S. and Hudson, L. (2010). *Golf Tourism*. Goodfellow Publishing Ltd., Oxford, 286p.
- International Analysis. CAB International, Wallingford, pp.107-120.
- Hudson, S. (2003). *Sport and Adventure Tourism*. Haworth Hospitality Press Inc. Binghampton, NY., 327p.
- Jarvie, G. and Maguire, J. (1994). *Sport and leisure in social thought*. – Routledge, New York, 283 p.
- John, N. and Lee-Ross, D. (1998). *Research Methods in Service Industry Management*. Cassell, London, 196p.
- Kimmelman, B., (1974). *Studies in Environment: Outdoor Recreation and the Environment*. Washington: Environmental Protection Agency
- Kiss, R. (2013). *The System of Golf Tourism, the Trends and Regional Distribution of International and Domestic Supply and Demand. Unpublished PhD Thesis*. Pécs, Hungary: University of Pécs.
- Kiss, R. (2006). *Do we have golf culture in Hungary?* In Rátz, T. – Sárdi, Cs. (eds.): *(Inter)cultural Aspects of Tourism Development*, Kodolányi János Főiskola, Székesfehérvár, 185-198.
- Kozma, G., Teperics, K. and Radics, Zs. (2014). *The changing of sports in urban development: A case study of Debrecen (Hungary)*. International Journal of the History of Sport. Vol. 31, No. 9, pp 1118-1132.

- Küçükaltan, E., & Pirnar, I. (2016). Competitiveness factors of a tourism destination and impact on residents' quality of life: The Case of Cittaslow-Seferihisar. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No. 1, pp. 22-29. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376332
- Long, J. (2007). *Researching Leisure, Sport and Tourism*. – SAGE Publications, London, 249 p.
- Mitchell, R. G. (1983). *Mountain Experience: The Psychology and Sociology of Adventure*. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press.
- Nella, A., & Christou, E. (2016). Extending tourism marketing: Implications for targeting the senior tourists' segment. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 36-42. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376336
- Nogawa, H., Yamaguchi, Y. and Hagi, Y. (1996). *An empirical research study on Japanese sport tourism sport for all events: Case studies of a single-night event and a multiple-night event*. Journal of Travel Research. Vol.35. pp.46-54.
- Pigeaussou, C., Bui-Xuan G., and Gleyse, J. (2003). *Epistemological Issues on Sport Tourism: Challenge for a New Scientific Field*. Journal of Sport Tourism, Vol. 8, No.1, pp. 27-34.
- Puczkó, L. and Rátz, T. (2002). *The Impacts of Tourism; An Introduction*. Hameenlinna: Hame Polytechnic, 408 p
- Redmond, G. (1991). *Changing styles of Sports Tourism: Industry/Consumer Interaction in Canada, the USA and Europe*. In Sinclair, M. and Stabler, M. (eds.), *The Tourism Industry: An Industry in Transition*. London: Routledge, 158-167.
- Redmond, G. (1990). *Point of increasing contact: sport and tourism in the modern world*. In: A. Thomlinson (ed.), *Sport in Society: Policy, Politics and Culture*. Eastbourne: Leisure Studies Association, pp.158-167.
- Robinson, T. and Gammon, S. (2004). *Sports Tourism: An Introduction*. London Thompson Learning
- Robinson, L. (2003). *Managing Public Sport and Leisure Services*. – Routledge, New York, 175 p.
- Silk, M. and Amis, J. (2006). *Sport Tourism, Cityscapes and Cultural Politics*. In Gibson, H. *Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories*. Routledge, New York
- Slak Valek, N. (2015). Tourism expenditure according to mode of transportation: A comparative study between 2009 and 2012 *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 3-9. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376250
- Slak Valek, N., Bednarik, J., Kolar, E. and Leskosek, B. (2015). *Sport Activities in Every-day Free Time vs. Sport as a Motivator for Travelling*. Kinesiology Slovenica. Vol. 21, No.3, pp.43-58.

- Slak Valek, N., Jurak, G. and Bednarik, J. (2011). *Statistical differences between Slovenian sport-active tourists and Slovenian tourists with other motives of travelling*. Acta Turistica, Vol. 23. No.1, pp.73-95.
- Smith, A. and Stewart, B. (2007). *The Travelling Fan: Understanding the Mechanism of Sport Fan Consumption in a Sport Tourism Setting*. Journal of Sport and Tourism Vol. 12, No. 3-4, pp. 155-181.
- Sandeven, J. and DeKnop, P. (1999). *Sport Tourism*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics
- Torkildsen, G. (2005). *Leisure and Recreation Management*. – Routledge, New York, 643 p.
- Valeri, M. (2016). Networking and cooperation practices in the Italian tourism business. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 30-35. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376333
- Weed, M. E and Bull, C. J. (2009). *Sports Tourism – Participant, policy and providers* (2nd ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford. UK, 351p.
- Weed, M. E. (2006.) *A Grounded Theory of the Policy Process for Sport and Tourism*. In Gibson, H. Sport Tourism: Concepts and Theories. Routledge, New York, pp. 224-245.
- Wilson, R. and Joyce, J. (2008). *Finance for Sport and Leisure Managers*. – Routledge, New York, 175 p.
- WTO and UNSTAT 1994: *Recommendation on Tourism Statistics*. WTO, Madrid; and United Nations, New York.
- Zauhar, J. (2004). *Historical Perspectives of Sports Tourism*. Journal of Sport Tourism, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 5-101.
- HCSO – Hungarian Central Statistical Office – Report 2015 www.ksh.hu
- HGF 2015 - Hungarian Golf Federation www.hungolf.hu
- HTF 2015 - Hungarian Tennis Federation www.huntennis.hu
- HSF¹ 2015 - Hungarian Ski Federation www.hunski.hu
- HSF² 2015 - Hungarian Sailing Federation www.hunsail.hu

SUBMITTED: January 2016

REVISION SUBMITTED: May 2016

ACCEPTED: August 2016

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Róbert Kiss, PhD (robertkiss@isu.edu.tw) graduated in the University of Debrecen and Pécs as a History, Geography and Tourism teacher, later got his MBA and MEd in Glion Institute of Higher Education. He obtained his PhD in the field of Tourism Geography and he joined I-Shou University in Taiwan, as an Assistant Professor. His research areas are leisure industry, recreation, sport tourism and consumer behaviour.

Marton, Gergely PhD, (martongergely@gamma.ttk.pte.hu) graduated at the University of Pécs in Geography and Environmental studies teacher with tourism and regional labour market planner specialisation. He obtained his doctorate from tourism development. He works for Department of Sports Theory and Management as an Assistant Professor. His research areas are regional and product based tourism development, and the social and economic aspects of sport.

Prisztóka, Gyöngyvér PhD, (gyongy@gamma.ttk.pte.hu) graduated as a Physical Education and Russian language teacher at Janus Pannonius University in Pécs. Later she continued her career and achieved the Candidate of Sport Pedagogy (CSc) level. She is currently the Head of the Department of Sports Theory and Management. Her main research areas are sport education, sport pedagogy and inclusion in the physical education and sport.

Raffay, Zoltán, PhD (raffayz@ktk.pte.hu) graduated at Janus Pannonius University as a Geography-English teacher. He worked for the South Transdanubian Region Hungarian Academy of Science as a researcher and obtained his PhD from regional development in the Faculty of Business and Economics. He started his educational career at Dunaújváros College and continued at University of Pécs. His major research areas are ecotourism, and the correlation of tourism and regional development.

DESTINATION BRANDING AND VISITOR BRAND LOYALTY: EVIDENCE FROM MATURE TOURISM DESTINATIONS IN GREECE

Chryssoula Chatzigeorgiou

Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki

Evangelos Christou

Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki

Destination brands provide the link between visitors and destination management organisations; tourists may or may not develop a degree of loyalty to destinations as brands. This study suggests that trust in a destination brand has high influence in developing loyalty towards the destination. Based on hypotheses developed, trust in a destination as a brand is influenced by brand characteristics, destination characteristics and visitor characteristics. The survey took place in Greece and examined attitudes of past visitors of mature destinations. Survey results demonstrate that destination brand characteristics appear more important in their impact on a visitor's trust in a brand. It was also found that trust in a destination brand is positively influencing brand loyalty and repeat visitation intentions.

Keywords: *Destination branding, visitor loyalty, mature destination, Greece*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

INTRODUCTION

Tourism destination marketers have long been interested in the concept of brand loyalty because brand loyalty is a measure of the attachment that a customer has to a brand (Aaker, 1991; Aaker, 1996). Brand loyalty brings the tourism destinations many benefits (Pike et al, 2010), including repeat visits and recommendations of the destination brand to friends and relatives. Early research on brand loyalty focused on behaviour. Brand loyalty was construed to be a subset of repeat purchase (or visitation, in the case of tourism destinations) behaviour Cunningham, 1956; Echtner, & Ritchie, 1993; Alford 1998) and intention to repurchase (or to revisit the destination in our case). Later, researchers like Jacoby (1971) and Keller (1993) argued that brand loyalty has two components: brand loyal behaviour and brand loyal attitudes.

The attitude behind the purchase or destination visit is important because it drives behaviour. While brand loyal behaviour is partly determined by situational factors such as availability (Qu et al, 2011; de Almeida Ramos & Fernandes, 2016), attitudes are more enduring. Unfortunately, despite its importance, brand attitudes have not attracted a corresponding degree of research interest. A compilation of definitions and studies on destination brand loyalty by Hankinson (2009) revealed that research on brand loyal behaviour outnumbered studies on brand attitudes three to one.

Konecnik and Gartner (2007) suggested that underlying loyalty is always trust, a willingness to act without calculating immediate costs and benefits. Hence, loyalty to a tourism destination brand involves trusting it. In tourism marketing, the concept of trust is developed on a limited basis, though much effort has been spent in finding ways to build and maintain it. In that context, trust is built on person-to-person relationships. Trust in a destination brand differs from interpersonal trust because a brand is a symbol (Marzano & Scot, 2009). Unlike a salesperson, this symbol is unable to respond to the visitor-consumer.

To win loyalty in today's competitive tourism markets, destination marketers have to embrace what is becoming second nature to business marketers (Buhalis, 2000) and focus on building and maintaining trust in the visitor-brand relationship (Christou, 2003; Martins, 2016). Unfortunately, the concept of trust in destination marketing is largely unexplored. The focus of this study is to examine some factors affecting the development of trust in tourism destination brands, and to explore how that trust relates to brand loyalty. By applying current interpretations of trust to destination brand loyalty, this study seeks to approach brand loyalty differently and to provide insights into visitors' motivation for loyalty to destination brands.

TOURISM DESTINATION LOYALTY & TRUST

Brand loyalty is repeated purchases prompted by strong internal dispositions, or in the case of destinations, repeat visitations. Pike (2005) viewed tourism destination brand loyalty as a multidimensional construct involving attitudinal components and as a subset of repeat purchasing. Opperman (2000) conceptualise destination loyalty as the strength of the relationship between the relative attitude towards a brand and patronage behaviour. Trust is the expectation of the parties in a transaction and the risks associated with assuming and acting on such expectations (Kim et al, 2009; Christou, 2011). Trust is the willingness to rely on another in the face of risk; this stems from an understanding of the other party. Trust is an expectation set within particular parameters and constraints; it involves confident positive expectation about another's motives with respect to oneself in risky situations and Aschauer, (2010) established that this is also valid in the case of tourism destinations.

In recent years, destination marketing organisations face greater pressures as more potential visitors become deal-loyal or

incentive-prone (Blain et al, 2015; Engl, 2011; Gartner, 2015; Költringer & Dickinger, 2015). To win back loyalty tourism marketers began to embrace the idea of building relationships with visitors and winning their trust (Christou and Kassianidis, 2002; Govers et al, 2007; Chatzigeorgiou et al, 2009; Balakrishnan, 2009). However, conceptualisations of trust in the tourism marketing literature have generally been lacking. In the travel and tourism market, there are too many anonymous visitors, making it unlikely that the destination as a whole could develop personal relationships with each visitor. Thus, tourism destination marketers may have to rely more and more on a powerful symbol (the brand) to build the relationship.

Conceptual model and formulation of hypotheses

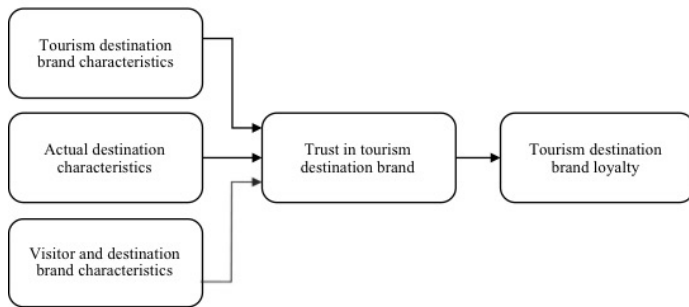
It is proposed in this paper that three sets of factors affect trust in tourism destination brands. These three sets of factors correspond with the three entities involved in the brand-visitor relationship: the destination brand itself, the actual tourism destination behind the brand, and the visitor interacting with the brand. It is also proposed that trust in a destination brand will lead to brand loyalty. Based on this approach, a conceptual model (Figure 1) is developed bellow. The destination brand's characteristics play a vital role in determining whether a visitor decides to trust it. Drawing from previous research, it is concluded that individuals, destinations or organisations are trusted based on their reputation (Back & Parks, 2003; Christou, 2013), predictability (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), and competence (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Samy, 2016).

Destination brand reputation can be developed through marketing communication; it is also influenced by visitor

interaction with the destination characteristics, quality and performance. Reputation of a destination can lead visitors to positive expectations, which leads to development of reciprocity between them (Ekinici et al, 2013). If a visitor perceives that other people think that a destination brand is good, he may trust the brand enough to visit it. Hence, it is hypothesised that: *A visitor's perception that a tourism destination brand has a good reputation is positively related to the visitor's trust in that brand (Hypothesis 1).*

Predictability is about a party's ability to forecast another party's behaviour (Singh & Jeet, 2013). A predictable destination brand allows its visitor to anticipate how it will perform at each visitation occasion. Brand predictability enhances confidence; the tourist knows that nothing unexpected may happen when he is visiting the destination (Kastenholz et al, 2013). As such, predictability enhances trust in a brand as predictability builds positive expectations. Hence is hypothesised that: *A visitor's perception that a tourism destination brand is predictable is positively related to the visitor's trust in that brand (Hypothesis 2).*

Figure 1. The conceptual model



Competent destination brands have the ability to solve visitors' problems and to meet their needs. Bosnjak (2010) considered ability as an essential element influencing trust; a person may find out about a brand's competence through direct usage or word-of-mouth communication – similar is the case of tourism destination visitors. Once convinced that a brand can solve his or her problem, a person may be willing to rely to that brand (Sartori et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015). Therefore, it can be hypothesised that: *A visitor's perception that a tourism destination brand is competent is positively related to the visitor's trust in that brand (Hypothesis 3).*

The characteristics of the actual tourism destination behind a brand can also influence the extent to which the brand is trusted (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Christou & Kassianidis, 2008; Valeri, 2016). Destination characteristics that affect a visitor's trust in a brand are the trust in the destination, its reputation and the perceived destination motives and integrity (Gomez et al, 2015). Hence it is hypothesised that: *A visitor's trust in an actual tourism destination is positively related to the visitor's trust in that destination's brand (Hypothesis 4).*

If a visitor perceives that other people think that the tourism destination behind a brand is known to be fair, just and safe, that person may feel secure in visiting the branded destination (Yeoman & McMahon-Beatie, 2011; Christou & Nella, 2014); this leads to

greater trust in that brand. Gertner (2011) in the marketing channel context support this argument; it is thus hypothesised that: *A visitor's perception that a tourism destination has a reputation for fairness and safety is positively related to the visitor's trust in that destination's brand (Hypothesis 5).*

The extent to which a leader's behaviour is relevant to the followers' needs influences confidence and trust in the leader (Johnson et al, 2006); benevolence of motives is an important factor in a relationship. In the context of a tourism destination brand, when a visitor perceives the destination behind it to be benevolent, the visitor will trust that brand (Quintal et al, 2014). Therefore, it is hypothesised that: *A visitor's perception that a tourism destination has benevolent motives is positively related to the visitor's trust in that destination's brand (Hypothesis 6).*

The degree to which a tourism destination is judged to have integrity depends on the consistency of its past actions, credible communications about it from others, belief that it has a strong sense of fairness, and the extent to which its actions are congruent with its words; integrity is an antecedent to trust (Chi & Qu, 2008; Pike, 2009). Hence, it is hypothesised that: *A visitor's perception that a tourism destination has integrity is positively related to the visitor's trust in that destination's brand (Hypothesis 7).*

Similar characteristics between two parties may lead to trust; as trust begets trust, common characteristics initiate a positive, reinforcing process of interaction (Boo et al, 2009; Hernández et al., 2016). By conforming to a visitor's opinions, values and standards a tourism destination can earn this person's trust (Gnoth, 2002). It is thus hypothesised that: *Similarity between a visitor's self-concept and a tourism destination brand personality is positively related to the visitor's trust in that brand (Hypothesis 8).*

Based on Sameer, Ekinçi and Uysal (2006), to initiate a relationship, a party must be liked by the other. To form a relationship with a tourism destination brand, a visitor must like it first (Sirgi et al, 2008; Nella & Christou, 2014). Therefore: *A*

visitor's liking for a tourism destination brand is positively related to the visitor's trust in that brand (Hypothesis 9).

Brand experience is about a person's past encounters with the brand. In the development of process-based trust, reciprocity (developed through recurring exchanges) is the key (McAlexander, Schouten & Keonig, 2002; Küçükaltan & Pinar, 2016). Experience is likely to increase trust in the partner; as a visitor gains more experience with a tourism destination brand, he/she understands it better and grows to trust it more (Tasci et al, 2007). This experience is not restricted to positive encounters during the visitation; any experience improves the visitor's ability to predict the destination brand performance. Hence, it is hypothesised that: *A visitor's experience with a tourism destination brand is positively related to the visitor's trust in that brand (Hypothesis 10).*

Brand satisfaction in the tourism sector is the outcome of the subjective evaluation that the chosen alternative brand meets or exceeds expectations (Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal, 2006; Zafiroopoulos et al., 2015). In a continuing relationship, satisfaction with past outcomes indicates equity in the exchange; this increases the perception of the exchange partner's benevolence and credibility (Hankinson, 2009). Therefore, it is hypothesised that: *A visitor's satisfaction with a tourism destination brand is positively related to the visitor's trust in the brand (Hypothesis 11).*

An important determinant of an individual's behaviour is other individuals' influence (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005); social influence is an important determinant of consumer behaviour in tourism. This is reflected in models of consumer decision-making that incorporate social norms (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) and interpersonal considerations (Cialdini, Kallgren & Reno, 1991) as antecedents of behavioural intentions. People may purchase products to conform with peer groups, in response to concerns of what others think of them or because others have provided credible information about a product (Schroeder, 1996). Thus it is

hypothesised that: *Peer support for a tourism destination brand is positively related to a visitor's trust in that brand (Hypothesis 12).*

In this study, destination brand loyalty is conceptualised as behavioural intention to adopt a brand of a tourism destination and to encourage others to adopt that brand. When a visitor trust a destination brand and is willing to rely on it, that person may form a positive visiting intention towards the brand. Hence, it is hypothesised that: *A visitor's trust in a tourism destination brand is positively related to the visitor's loyalty to that brand (Hypothesis 13).*

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The target population for the study was Greek tourists who have made a visitation decision for any one of the following mature tourism destinations in Greece during the last 5 years: Rhodes, Crete, Corfu and Chalkidiki. Quotas on gender and age, corresponding to the distribution of Greek residents, were used to ensure a representative distribution of participants in the sample. A shopping-mall intercept survey was used; the method has merits in speed, economy, and control of respondent type. Two shopping malls were selected in Athens and two in Thessaloniki in Greece. Two interviewers and 30 questionnaires were assigned to each mall – a total of 120 questionnaires. The interviewers were briefed on the quota sampling method and given instructions on the respondent interviewing process. Respondents were asked to identify a tourism destination brand among Rhodes, Crete, Corfu and Chalkidiki, for which they had often made a visitation decision during the last five years. They were then requested to think about that tourism destination as they completed the entire questionnaire.

The measures of each construct were from a variety of sources; some were established measures while others were modified or developed for this study. A new scale was developed to measure

perceived *destination brand reputation*; it was measured by tapping the respondent's perception of how the tourism destination brand is known to be and what other individuals have said about the destination. *Brand predictability* involved items measuring the destination brand's consistency in quality and the extent the respondent perceived the destination visitation experience to perform as expected (Remple *et al.*, 1985). *Brand competence* involved items to measure the destination brand's perceived *relative* competence. *Trust in the tourism destination* was measured by tapping the respondent's faith in the destination's offering (Larzelere and Huston, 1992). *Destination reputation* was measured by asking respondents to rate the destination in terms of its reputation for fairness, safety and honesty (Anderson and Weitz, 1996; Nella & Christou, 2016). *Perceived motives of the destination* were operationalised by creating a new scale. The perceived *integrity of the destination* was operationalised by tapping perceptions of the destination's values in areas such as ethics, honesty, and consistency of its tourism offerings with its promises.

For measuring the extent of *similarity between the visitor's self-concept and the brand's personality*, respondents rated themselves and the tourism destination brand along two identical scales adopted from Malhotra (1991). The difference in scores for each item in the scale indicates the difference between the respondent's self-concept and destination brand's perceived personality. *Brand liking* involved measuring visitor's preference for the destination over others, and by asking directly if he/she liked the destination. *Brand experience* examined respondents' visitation of the destination, from the first time they recalled visiting it. *Brand satisfaction* involved adapting Westbrook and Oliver's (1996) relevant twelve-item scale. *Peer support* was measured by asking the respondent if friends supported/recommended the destination visit. *Trust in the brand* involved asking respondents if the destination is doing what it is supposed to do and if they are willing

to rely on it – scales were adapted from Remple *et al.*'s (1985) study. All constructs' items were ordered randomly. 7-point Likert scales were used where possible; the remaining questions were either open-ended or required the ticking of relevant boxes. The questionnaire was administered to 27 individuals for pre-testing.

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

There were 117 usable questionnaires, and the general profile of the respondents was comparable to the distribution of gender, age, race, income and education of Greek residents. There were an almost equal proportion of male (49%) and female (51%) respondents, and they were aged 18 to 67 years. The gross household median monthly income was €1,400-1,800. Examination of Pearson's correlation matrix for all the items revealed no problems with convergent and discriminant validity. Scale items belonging to the same construct had higher correlations (coefficients ranged from 0.52 to 0.94), while those relating to different constructs had lower correlations (coefficients ranged from 0.34 to 0.47). Construct validity of the measures was examined through factor analysis; a factor loading of at least 0.3 was used to identify whether a variable is part of a factor (Nunnally, 1978). Items meant to measure the same construct clustered together, suggesting that they measured the same conceptual space. Factor loadings for the variables ranged from 0.409 to 0.781, satisfying Nunnally's (1978) 0.3 threshold. Cronbach coefficient alpha was calculated in order to examine internal consistency and the reliability of the scales; a Cronbach alpha of 0.70 or higher is sufficient (Nunnally, 1978). All scales used exceeded the reliability threshold of 0.70 Cronbach alpha.

Pearson's correlation coefficients for the corresponding variables specified in the hypotheses are presented in Table 1. The results support all the hypotheses, *Hypothesis 1* to *Hypothesis 13*.

Hence, it has been established that all the proposed brand, destination, and visitor-brand characteristics influence trust in tourism destination brand. It was also established that trust in destination brand lead to brand loyalty. The correlation coefficient between the two variables is 0.88 and the percentage of variation shared by the two variables or the coefficient of determination is 0.791.

Table 1. Hypothesis testing results

No.	Hypothesised relationship	Outcome	Pearson correlation
H1	Brand reputation and trust in a tourism destination brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:80^*$
H2	Brand predictability and trust in a tourism destination brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:86^*$
H3	Destination brand competence and trust in a brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:84^*$
H4	Trust in an actual destination and trust in tourism destination brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:84^*$
H5	Destination reputation and trust in a tourism destination brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:83^*$
H6	Destination benevolent motives and trust in brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:72^*$
H7	Tourism destination integrity and trust in a destination brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:77^*$
H8	Similarity between visitors' self concept and destination brand personality and trust in destination brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:79^*$
H9	Tourism destination brand liking and trust in a brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:84^*$
H10	Tourism destination brand experience and trust in a brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0:87^*$

H11	Satisfaction with a destination brand and trust in a brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0.91^*$
H12	Peer support for a destination brand and trust in a brand	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0.82^*$
H13	Trust in a tourism destination brand and brand loyalty	<i>supported</i>	$r = 0.88^*$

* , $p < 0.01$, $n = 117$

To examine the significance of the model formed by the hypotheses (Figure 1), regression analysis was performed; trust in a tourism destination brand was the dependent variable while the destination brand, the actual destination and visitor-brand factors were independent variables. The model was significant at $p < 0.01$ level and the adjusted R^2 was 0.917. In addition, the independent variables were checked for multicollinearity (where two or more independent variables used in the regression are correlated). All correlations among the independent variables did not exceed the threshold of 0.90 which is indication of collinearity (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Also, pairwise and multiple variable collinearity was assessed by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF), which tells the degree to which each independent variable is explained by the others; large VIF values (over the threshold of 10) denote high multicollinearity (Hair *et al.*, 1995). All VIF values found were below 10 hence, did not exceed the acceptable threshold. Five constructs were significant (at $p < 0.05$ level) in explaining trust in a tourism destination brand. These constructs, found to be important (as their respective beta coefficients indicated), are destination brand predictability, destination brand liking, destination brand competence, destination brand reputation and trust in a destination.

Further discussion and managerial implications

Through this study it has been established that a tourism destination brand contributes to behavioural intention of brand loyalty. Hence, it is worthwhile for destination marketing organisations to build visitor trust in their destination brand. Destination brand characteristics, particularly brand predictability, brand competence and brand reputation, are relatively more important in establishing and maintaining visitor' trust in a destination brand. Destination brand liking and trust in the actual destination were also important factors.

The achievement of tourism destination brand predictability requires consistency; this asks for ensuring the consistent quality of every tourism product and service offered at the tourism destination. It also requires stringent operating and quality control procedures among tourism firms at the destination. To achieve brand predictability, destination marketers should try not to make too many drastic changes to the destination's offerings and attractions too frequently; if major changes are necessary, destination marketers should communicate to visitors carefully regarding the changes, so that they know what to expect from the modified offerings. Brand predictability can also come from repeated interactions between the visitor and the destination brand. Destination marketing organisations should try to provide as many opportunities for visitors to interact with the destination brand as possible. In addition, brand predictability can be developed through consistent communications with visitors; destination marketers should ensure that they are saying similar things about the destination to visitors through all different marketing communication channels used. Marketers should also be careful about making promises regarding their destination brand because if these promises are broken then visitors may perceive the destination brand as being unpredictable.

Trust in destination brand competence is usually perceived as domain-specific (Christou, 2013); hence, destination marketing organisations should try to establish their competence in a few key areas, and manage their brands within these. Marketers should carry

out research to find out visitors' needs and concerns related to each key area, so they can develop competence which is relevant to them. In addition, destination marketers should make judicious use of key opinion leaders, who are viewed as authorities in specific areas, to speak on behalf of the destination's brand. For developing and maintaining a good reputation for a destination brand, it is essential that the brand please its visitors; this calls for genuine quality of offerings and attractions at the tourism destination and delivering on its promises. Other efforts include all marketing communications and promotion, and visitors should be encouraged to spread positive word-of-mouth. Complaint handling is also important, to avoid negative word-of-mouth. There should be a publicised channel through which feedback can be easily directed, so unhappy visitors can easily contact the destination marketing organisation or the competent destination authorities.

The aesthetic and functional aspects of the destination brand cannot be overlooked. Tourism marketers should make sure that the destination infrastructure do not just focus on its technical aspects alone, but should also consider its appearance and aesthetic aspects as well. Marketers can also develop brand liking by associating the destination brand with situations in which visitors have positive feelings.

CONCLUSIONS

The research results reported in this paper show that trust in a tourism destination brand and trust in the actual destination behind the brand are two issues strongly interconnected; one cannot be achieved without the other. Destination marketing organizations can develop trust in the destination by using marketing communications to strengthen the destination's image. The link between the destination and the brand can also be strengthened since the two can reinforce each other. The performance of various tourism

attractions, offerings and product brands within the tourism destination can affect trust in the destination, and thus, trust in another brand belonging to the destination. Therefore, destination marketing organisations should adopt an integrated approach regarding the management of different tourism-related brands offered at the same destination.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, D. (1996). *Building Strong Brands*. New York: The Free Press.
- Aaker, A.A. (1996). Measuring brand equity across products and markets. *California Management Review*, Vol.38, No.3, pp.102-120.
- Alford, P. (1998). Positioning the destination product: Can regional tourist boards learn from private sector practice? *Journal of Tourism & Travel Marketing*, Vol.7, No.2, pp.53-68.
- Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Anderson, E. & Weitz, B. (1996). The use of pledges to build and sustain commitment in distribution channels. *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol.33, No.1, pp.18-34.
- Aschauer, W. (2010). Perceptions of tourists at risky destinations: A model of psychological influence factors. *Tourism Review*, Vol.65, No.2, pp.4-20.
- Back, K.J. & Parks, S.C. (2003). A brand loyalty model involving cognitive, affective, and conative brand loyalty and customer satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, Vol.27, No.4, pp.419-435.
- Balakrishnan, M.S. (2009). Strategic branding of destinations. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol.43, Nos.5/6, pp.611-629.
- Blain, C., Levy, S.E. & Ritchie, J.B.R. (2005). Destination branding: Insights and practices from Destination Management Organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*. Vol.43, No.4, pp.328 – 338.
- Boo, S., Busser, J. & Baloglu, S. (2009). A model of customer-based brand equity and its application to multiple destinations. *Tourism Management*, Vol.30 No.2, pp.219-231.

- Bosnjak, M. (2010). Negative symbolic aspects in destination branding: exploring the role of the “undesired self” on web-based vacation information search intentions among potential first-time visitors. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol.16, No.4, pp.323-330.
- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management*, Vol.21, No.1, pp.97–116.
- Chatzigeorgiou, C., Christou, E., Kassianidis, P. & Sigala, M. (2009). Examining the relationship between emotions, customer satisfaction and future behavioural intentions in agrotourism. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, Vol.4, No.4, pp.145-161.
- Chi, C.G. & Qu, H. (2008). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: an integrated approach. *Tourism Management*, Vol.29, No.3, pp.624-636.
- Christou, E. (2003). Guest loyalty likelihood in relation to hotels’ corporate image and reputation: A study of three countries in Europe. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, Vol. 10, No.1, pp.88-99.
- Christou, E. (2011). Exploring the impact of visitor satisfaction on loyalty towards a specific destination. *Acta Turistica*, Vol.23, No.1, pp.1-25.
- Christou, E. (2013). Exploring brand confusion through hotel adverts. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, Vol.8, No.3, pp.151-163.
- Christou, E. & Kassianidis, P. (2008). Brand confusion through advertising: The case of airlines and hotels. *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Management*, Vol.14, No.2., pp.97-121.
- Christou, E. & Nella, A. (2014). Linking Service Quality at the Cellar Door with Brand Equity Building. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, Vol.23, No.7, pp.1-23.
- Cialdini, R.B., Kallgren, C.A. & Reno, R.R. (1991). A focus theory of normative conduct: A theoretical refinement and reevaluation of the role of norms in human behavior. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol.24, No.2, pp.201-234.
- Cunningham, R.M. (1956). Brand loyalty: What, where, how much? *Harvard Business Review*, Vol.34, No.1, pp.116-28.
- de Almeida Ramos, G.M. & Fernandes, J.J.L. (2016). Tourism territories in low density areas: The case of Naturtejo geopark in Portugal. *Journal of*

- Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No.1, pp.14–21,
<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376330>
- Echtner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.31, No.4, pp.3–13.
- Ekinci, Y., Sirakaya-Turk, E. & Preciado, S. (2013). Symbolic consumption of tourism destination brands. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol.66, No.6, pp.711-718.
- Engl, C. (2011). Successful destination branding: Experiences from an innovator. In R. Conrady & M. Buck(Eds.). *Trends and issues in Global Tourism* (pp. 143-148).Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg.
- Jacoby, J. (1971). A Model of brand loyalty. *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol.11, No.3, pp.25-31.
- Gartner, W. (2014). Brand equity in a tourism destination. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, Vol.10, No.2, pp.108-116.
- Gertner, D. (2011). Unfolding and configuring two decades of research and publications on place marketing and place branding. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, Vol.7, pp.91-106.
- Gnoth, J. (2002). Leveraging export brands through a tourism destination brand. *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol.9, No.4, pp.262-280.
- Gomez, M., Lopez, C. & Molina, A. (2015). A model of tourism destination brand equity: The case of wine tourism destinations in Spain. *Tourism Management*, Vol.51, No.4, pp.210-222.
- Govers, F.K., Go, F.M. & Kumar, K. (2007). Promoting tourism destination image. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.46, No.1, pp.15-23.
- Hair, J., Anderson, R., Tatham, L. & Black, W. (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis: With Readings*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Hankinson, G. (2009). Managing destination brands: establishing a theoretical foundation. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol.25 Nos.1/2, pp.86-97.
- Hernández, M.R., Talavera, A.S. & Parra López, A. (2016). Effects of co-creation in a tourism destination brand image through twitter. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No.2, pp.3–10,
<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376341>
- Hosany, S., Ekinci, Y. & Uysal, M. (2006). Destination image and destination personality, an application of branding theories to tourism places. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol.59, No.4, pp.638-642.

- Johnson, M.D., Herrmann, A. & Huber, F. (2006). The evolution of loyalty intentions. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol.70, No.2, pp.122-132.
- Kastenholz E., Eusébio C. & Carneiro M.J. (2013). Studying factors influencing repeat visitation of cultural tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol.19, No.4, pp.343–358.
- Keller, K.L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol.57, No.2, pp.1–22.
- Kim, S., Han, H., Holland, S. & Byon, K. (2009). Structural relationships among involvement, destination brand equity, satisfaction and destination visit intentions: the case of Japanese outbound travelers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol.15, No.4, pp.349-365.
- Költringer, C. & Dickinger, A. (2015). Analyzing destination branding and image from online sources: A web content mining approach. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol.68, No.9, pp.1836-1843.
- Konecnik, M. & Gartner, W.C. (2007). Customer-based brand equity for a destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.34, No.2, pp.400-421.
- Küçükaltan, Ebru Günlü & Pirnar, Ige (2016) Competitiveness factors of a tourism destination and impact on residents' quality of life: The case of Cittaslow-Seferihisar. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No.1, pp.22–29,
<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376332>
- Kuenzel, S. & Halliday, S.V. (2008). Investigating antecedents and consequences of brand identification. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol.17, No.5, pp.293-304.
- Larzelere, R. & Huston, T. (1992). The dyadic trust scale: Toward understanding interpersonal trust in close relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, Vol.7, No.4, pp.595-604.
- Liu, H.C.R., Jing, P.H.A. & Chiu, Y.Y.J. (2015). Investigating wedding quality characteristics: Evidence from Kaohsiung. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.1, No.1, pp.10–15,
<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376325>
- Malhotra, N. (1991). A scale to measure self-concepts, person concepts, and product concepts. *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol.22, No.3, pp.456-464.

- Martins, M. (2016). Gastronomic tourism and the creative economy. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No.2, pp.33–37, <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376346>
- Marzano, G. & Scott, N. (2009). Power is destination branding. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.36, No.2, pp.247-267.
- McAlexander, J.H., Schouten, J.W. & Keonig, H.F. (2002). Building brand community. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol.66, No.3, pp.38–54.
- Nella, A. & Christou, E. (2014). Segmenting wine tourists on the basis of involvement with wine. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, Vol.31, No.7, pp.783-798.
- Nella, A. & Christou, A. (2016). Extending tourism marketing: Implications for targeting the senior tourists' segment. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No.2, pp.36–42, <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376336>
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oppermann, M. (2000). Tourism destination loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.39, No.3, pp.78-84.
- Pike, S. (2009). Destination brand positions of a competitive set of near-home destinations. *Tourism Management*, Vol.30, No.2, pp.857-66.
- Pike, S. (2005). Tourism destination branding complexity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol.14, No.4, pp.258 – 259.
- Pike, S., Bianchi, C., Kerr, G. & Patti, C. (2010). Consumer-based brand equity for Australia as a long-haul tourism destination in an emerging market. *International Marketing Review*, Vol.27, No.4, pp.434–449.
- Qu, H., Kim, L.H. & Im, H.H. (2011). A model of destination branding: Integrating the concepts of the branding and destination image. *Tourism Management*, Vol.32, No.3, pp.465-476.
- Quintal, V., Phau, I. & Polczynski, A. (2014). Destination brand image of Western Australia's South-West region: perceptions of local versus international tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol.20, No.1, pp. 41–54.
- Remple, J.K., Holmes, J. & Zanna, M. (1985). Trust in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.49, No.1, pp.95-112.
- Samy, H. (2016). Exploring Factors that Influence Domestic Tourists' Satisfaction with Budget Hotel Services in Egypt. *Journal of Tourism*,

- Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No.2, pp.17–22,
<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376344>
- Sartori, A., Mottironi, C. & Corigliano, M.A. (2012). Tourist destination brand equity and internal stakeholders. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol.18, No.4, pp.327-340
- Schroeder, J.E. (1996). An analysis of the consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence scale. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, Vol. 11, No.3, pp.585-594.
- Singh, P.M. & Jeet, D. (2013). Quality management practices and tourism destination branding: Inter-relationship and preferential study of the components. *Journal of Services Research*, Vol.13, No.1, pp.75-93.
- Sirakaya, E. & Woodside, A. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travelers. *Tourism Management*, Vol.26, No.2, pp.815-832.
- Sirgy, M.J., Dong-Jin, L., Johar, J.S. & Tidwell, J. (2008). The effect of self-congruity with sponsorship on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol.61, No.10, pp.1091-1097.
- Tasci, A.D.A., Gartner, W.C. & Cavusgil, S.T. (2007). Measurement of destination brand bias using a quasi-experimental design. *Tourism Management*, Vol.28, No.6, pp.1529–1540.
- Valeri, M. (2016). Networking and cooperation practices in the Italian tourism business. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.2, No.1, pp.30–35, <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376333>
- Westbrook, R. & Oliver, R. (1996). Developing better measures of consumer satisfaction. In *Advances in Consumer Research*. B. Monroe (ed.), Ann Arbor: Michigan.
- Yeoman I. & McMahon-Beattie, U. (2011). Destination brand challenges: the future challenge. In: Wang Y, Pizam A (eds), *Destination Marketing and Management, Theories and Applications*. Oxfordshire: CAB International.
- Zafiroopoulos, K., Vrana, V. & Antoniadis, K. (2015). Use of twitter and Facebook by top European museums. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol.1, No.1, pp.16–24,
<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.376326>

Chryssoula Chatzigeorgiou (chrxtatz@farm.teithe.gr) is Lecturer of Tourism at the MSc Program in Tourism Management at Alexander

Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Department of Agricultural Development & Agribusiness Management, P.O. Box 141, Thessaloniki 57400, Greece).

Evangelos Christou (e.christou@tour.teithe.gr) is Professor of Tourism Marketing at Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Department of Business Administration, P.O. Box 141, Thessaloniki 57400, Greece).

THE ROLE OF EMOTIONS IN A SPORT EVENT EXPERIENCE

Giacomo Del Chiappa
University of Sassari

Marcello Atzeni,
University of Cagliari

This study investigates whether emotions can be considered a suitable variable to segment spectators at a sports event, as well as to test their affinity with social identification, perceived authenticity, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. A structured questionnaire was developed and responses from a convenience sample of 258 spectators were collected on-site at the 2013 FIA World Rally Championship, Sardinia (Italy). A series of descriptive analyses, dual process cluster analyses (hierarchical and non-hierarchical), factor analyses, independent t-tests and chi-square tests were performed. Findings identified two segments; the cluster with the higher levels of positive emotions reported expressing higher levels of social identification, food-based and culture-based event authenticity (as measured by factors and/or composing items), satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Significant differences were reported between the two segments based on gender and prior experience with the event. Contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

Keywords: *Emotions, segmentation, satisfaction, behavioural intentions, event experience, sports events.*

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

INTRODUCTION

Sports events generate various economic impacts (direct, indirect, and induced) (e.g. Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris and McDonnel, 2006) as well as social, environmental and marketing benefits for the hosting destinations; among them, we can consider the economic expenditure of spectators, the increase in the number of visitors, the enhancement in the destination brand awareness and image (Brown, Chalip, Jago and Mules, 2004), and the broadening of tourism seasonality (Bowdin et al., 2006).

Given the various types of benefits that sports events can generate, any tourism destination nowadays is facing fierce competition in earnest for a share in this desirable market. This explains why policy makers, destination marketers and event managers are becoming increasingly market-oriented and interested in gaining a better understanding of the wishes and needs of sport spectators and the experience that they are in search of. Hence, it is clear why in the last two decades, academic research has been devoted to deepening the knowledge about what motivates individuals to attend a sports event (Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Soteriades, 2016; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Yeh, 2016; Fotiadis, Xie, Li, and Huan, 2016; Slak Valek, 2015; Nella & Christou, 2016), what they expect when taking part in it, and what makes them satisfied with their experience and willing to come back and/or to recommend it to others (e.g. Grappi and Montanari, 2011).

Emotions have been recognised to be important components of tourism experiences (e.g. Tung and Ritchie, 2011). Within the research devoted to consumer satisfaction, emotions have been considered key drivers of a holistic understanding of post-consumption behaviour (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Specifically, similarly to what happens in other settings (e.g. Bigné and Andreu, 2004), Grappi and Montanari (2011) showed that event spectators who feel positive emotions express a higher level of social identification and are more satisfied with the event. Furthermore, prior studies showed that the higher the level of emotional affect, the

more consumers perceive their consumption experience as being fascinating and authentic (e.g. Del Chiappa, Andreu and Gallarza, 2014), and the more they identify themselves with others consumers (e.g. Grappi and Montanari, 2011).

The aforementioned considerations explain why recent research strongly suggests that environmental features and cues of the event (i.e. cognitive dimensions) and emotions (i.e. affective dimensions) should be simultaneously considered when evaluating the spectators' experience and their satisfaction (e.g. Grappi and Montanari, 2011). Furthermore, they also explain why the emotions have been considered as a useful segmentation variable (Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Bigné et al., 2008a; Del Chiappa, Andreu and Gallarza, 2014).

Despite this, there is still little research aimed at specifically investigating the ability of using emotions as a segmentation tool for a better understanding of spectator satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Hence, further theoretical and empirical studies are needed to demonstrate the use of emotions as a segmentation variable, and to test their affinity with social identification, perceived authenticity, satisfaction (Liljander and Strandvik, 1997) and behavioural intentions in the specific context of events. This study was carried out to contribute to filling this gap, specifically with regard to sports events. Purposely, after having presented and discussed the main literature devoted to analysing the role of emotions in tourist consumer behaviour, an empirical analysis of a convenience sample of 250 spectators attending the 2013 Federation Internationale de l'Automobile (FIA) WRC in Sardinia (Italy) is presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The call for research on emotions and consumer experiences is certainly not new (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982). Marketing literature, after a long period in which consumer behaviour was assumed to be largely rational, has started to study emotions evoked by marketing stimuli, products, services and brands in the last two decades (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982). In the specific context of events, such stimuli eliciting emotion are mainly represented by the eventscape that includes elements such as: content, staff, information, program content, facilities, souvenirs and food (e.g. Grappi and Montari, 2011; Lee, Lee, Lee & Babin, 2008; Mason and Paggiaro, 2012; Fu & Kapiki, 2016)

Traditionally, tourism decision models proposed in tourism-related literature have focused on tourist rationality with few affective elements of consumption (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999). During the last few years, some comprehensive works devoted to understanding the emotions associated with tourism have been provided (e.g. Bigné, Mattila and Andreu, 2008b; Hosany, 2011; Prayag, Hosany, Muskat and Del Chiappa, 2015; Küçükaltan & Pirnar, 2016), and rationality is no longer the paradigm that dominates tourism studies.

Nowadays, researchers devoted to tourism studies acknowledge that multiple perspectives can be used to understand the nature and scope of the tourist experience (Laing, Wheeler, Reeves and Frost 2014). Among them, and in contrast with the information-processing paradigm (where consumer behaviour is considered as being objective and rational), the experiential approach presents consumer behaviour as pursuing the more subjective, emotional and symbolic aspects of consumption (e.g. Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982), thus underlying the intrinsically personal relativity of consumption behaviour. Specifically, it could be argued that consumers are in search of experiences that are able

to satisfy different needs simultaneously, with most of them often being affective-based (e.g. Bigné et al., 2008b; Laing et al., 2014).

Emotions are important predictors of consumers' evaluations and behaviours and they mediate relationships between cognitions (e.g., the perceived performance of a product or service) and key outcomes, such as satisfaction, complaint behaviour, behavioural intentions and loyalty (Babin, Griffin and Boles, 2004; Lee et al., 2008; Oliver and Westbrook, 1993). The valence of emotions in influencing the consumption experience has been studied, distinguishing the main dimensions, namely: positive and negative (e.g. Lee et al., 2008).

Furthermore, when applied to tourism and hospitality settings, experiential approaches highlight the importance of authenticity (Sharpley, 1994) – “in shaping interpretation to, and satisfaction with, the tourism experience” (Ritchie, Tung and Ritchie, 2011, p. 434). Previous studies showed that the higher the level of emotional affect, the more consumers perceive their consumption experience as being fascinating and authentic (Del Chiappa et al., 2014), with the provision of a perceived authentic experience being able to increase tourist satisfaction with an event experience (Robinson and Clifford, 2012).

According to Grappi and Montanari (2011), the event experience is essentially social and shared with other visiting spectators; hence, “the degree of emotional gratification that attendees obtain from the environment affects their social identification” (Grappi and Montanari, 2011, p. 1138). In other words, the more positive emotions spectators feel participating in an event, the more strongly connected they feel with other visitors and the more they are willing to re-patronise the event (Grappi and Montanari, 2011).

The aforementioned considerations explain why several researchers have investigated the use of emotions as a segmentation variable (Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Bigné et al., 2008a; Del Chiappa et al., 2014) by using a specific measurement instrument. Previous

literature used three principal approaches to measure emotions. The first approach suggests that emotional states exist in bipolar categories (Russell, 1980) and considers three dimensions of emotions, namely: pleasure–displeasure, arousal–non-arousal, and dominance–submissiveness (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). The second approach considers emotions as being originated from a relatively small number of basic emotions, namely: interest, joy, anger, contempt, disgust, shame, guilt, sadness, fear and surprise. Based on Izard’s (1977) study, the third approach – which is the one retained for this investigation – takes into consideration the idea that separate positive and negative affect dimensions are useful in understanding consumer reactions (e.g. Babin and Attaway, 2000).

When applying segmentation using emotions, previous studies used a discrete approach (Oliver and Westbrook, 1993; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Bigné and Andreu (2004) measured emotions based on Russell’s bi-dimensional approach (Russell, 1980), which reflects the degree to which different individuals incorporate subjective experiences of pleasure and arousal into their emotional experiences (Barrett, 1998). Despite this, it can be argued that the variety and richness of the nature of emotions means that further empirical studies are needed to demonstrate their use as a segmentation variable for event spectators, and to further test their affinity with satisfaction (Liljander and Strandvik, 1997), social identification and perceived authenticity in the specific context of events. This study was therefore carried out with the specific aim of answering the following research questions:

RQ1. Is the level of overall satisfaction different based on the level of emotional feeling experienced at the event?

RQ2: Are spectators’ behavioural intentions different based on the level of emotional feeling experienced at the event?

RQ3. Does the perceived authenticity differ between groups of event spectators according to their higher or lower levels of emotional feeling?

RQ4: Do spectator express a different level of social identification according to their higher or lower levels of emotional feeling?

RQ5. Do customers with different demographics (i.e. gender, age, level of education, employment status, marital status, country of residence) and event-related characteristics (i.e. prior experience at the event) have a similar emotional attitude towards the event experience? Additionally, are these emotions dependent on objective variables (such as age, gender and level of education), or do they belong to an uppermost level of abstraction, where the objective traits of the consumer make no difference?

METHODOLOGY

In order to capture consumers' emotional outcomes in a tourism setting, the majority of existing studies usually ask respondents to rate their emotions on a set of affective items, thus applying the so-called self-report method (e.g. Mauss and Robinson, 2009). In accordance with this line of studies, we decided to use a questionnaire as a suitable method to gather consumption emotion information (Solomon, Bamossy and Askegaard, 1999). The survey instrument was developed based on existing literature and was divided into five sections.

The first section asked respondents to provide general socio-demographic information (gender, age, level of education, employment status, marital status, country of residence) and event-related characteristics (i.e. prior experience at the event). The second section asked spectators to assess the extent to which they were feeling eight different specific emotions during the event; four of them were positive (happy, pleased, energetic, excited) and four were negative (disappointed, bored, angry, annoyed). The emotions were sourced from Grappi and Montanari (2011) and were measured using a seven-point Likert scale (1= *not at all*, 7=*very much*). The third section asked subjects to assess their level of agreement with a list of items used to measure their social identification; the items

were sourced from Grappi and Montanari (2011) and answers were captured using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = *I strongly disagree*, 7 = *I strongly agree*). In the fourth part, spectators were provided a list of nine items used to measure their perceived authenticity of the event; the items were sourced from Brida, Disegna and Osti (2013) and Robinson and Clifford (2012) and were slightly adapted to suite the specific event-related setting of this study; answers were measured using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = *I strongly disagree*, 7 = *I strongly agree*). Finally, in the fifth section, information was gathered to measure the overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Satisfaction was measured using three items sourced from Babin and Griffin (1998) and Lee et al. (2008), while behavioural intentions were measured using four items sourced from Lee et al. (2008) and Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996); in both cases, the answers were captured using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = *I strongly disagree*, 7 = *I strongly agree*).

Data were collected on-site during the days of the 2013 FIA WRC – Sardinia Rally (21–22 June 2013), with questionnaires administered face-to-face by four interviewers who were instructed to collect data at the place of the special stages from spectators aged more than 16 years. During the event, a total of 600 potential respondents were approached by the interviewees (convenience sample), of which 258 agreed to fill out the survey, thus originating a response rate of 43%. Sport tourist survey data were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), and a series of descriptive analyses, cluster analyses, factor analyses, independent t-tests and chi-square tests were performed according to the purposes of the study.

FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic profile of the sample. Respondents are mostly males (63.3%), under 35 years old (55.8%), with a secondary school education (50.0%), employees (29.7%) or self-employed (19.8%), married (31.6%) or singles (29.6%). The majority of respondents were regional residents (54.0%) or national tourists (26.6%) who have already attended the event at least once in the past (66.9%). As far as the type of accommodation is concerned, respondents were reported having stayed mainly in a hotel (36.7%) or B&B (24.8%) or were visiting friends and relatives (17.2%).

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics

	<i>Group 1</i>	<i>Group 2</i>	<i>Total</i>
	<i>(N= 49)</i>	<i>(N=209)</i>	<i>(N=258)</i>
Variables			
Gender			
Male	45.8%	67.3%	63.3%
Female	54.2%	32.7%	36.7%
Age			
16–25	29.8%	28.2%	28.5%
26–35	25.5%	27.7%	27.3%
36–45	27.7%	21.4%	22.5%
46–55	12.8%	15.0%	14.6%

55–65	4.3%	4.9%	4.7%
-------	------	------	------

>65	0.0%	2.9%	2.4%
-----	------	------	------

Education

None	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
------	------	------	------

Primary school	2.1%	1.0%	1.2%
----------------	------	------	------

High school	29.2%	24.2%	25.2%
-------------	-------	-------	-------

Secondary school	39.6%	52.5%	50.0%
------------------	-------	-------	-------

University degree	27.1%	21.7%	22.8%
-------------------	-------	-------	-------

Master's degree/PhD	2.1%	0.5%	0.8%
---------------------	------	------	------

Occupation

Employee	15.6%	33.2%	29.7%
----------	-------	-------	-------

Executive manager	11.1%	4.8%	6.0%
-------------------	-------	------	------

Self-employed	17.8%	20.3%	19.8%
---------------	-------	-------	-------

Retired	2.2%	2.1%	2.2%
---------	------	------	------

Occasional worker	11.1%	13.9%	13.4%
-------------------	-------	-------	-------

Unemployed	20.0%	12.8%	14.2%
------------	-------	-------	-------

Student	22.2%	12.8%	14.7%
---------	-------	-------	-------

Other	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
-------	------	------	------

Civil Status

Single	29.2%	29.7%	29.6%
--------	-------	-------	-------

Engaged	27.1%	24.8%	25.2%
---------	-------	-------	-------

De facto	6.3%	11.4%	10.4%
Married	35.4%	30.7%	31.6%
Divorced	2.1%	3.5%	3.2%
Widow	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Have you previously taken part in Rally Italia-Sardegna?

Yes	31.3%	75.5%	66.9%
No	68.8%	24.5%	33.1%

Country of residence

Sardinia	47.9%	55.4%	54.00%
Italy	31.3%	25.5%	26.6%
Abroad	20.8%	19.1%	19.4%

Type of Accommodation

Hotel	30.0%	38.3%	36.7%
B&B	20.0%	26.1%	24.8%
Rented apartment	6.7%	9.6%	9.0%
Hostel	0.0%	0.9%	0.7%
Friends or relatives	30.0%	13.9%	17.2%
Camper	3.3%	5.2%	4.8%
Tent/Camping	10.0%	6.1%	6.9%
Other	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

For the purposes of this study, eight emotions were considered in a dual process cluster analysis. According to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2009), a hierarchical cluster (Ward method – Manhattan distances) was performed, and two groups emerged. The second step uses non-hierarchical techniques (e.g. k-means algorithm) to adjust the results from the hierarchical procedures. Using the initial seed points from the results in the hierarchical cluster, the k-means cluster defined two groups. The relevant information to be used to interpret and profile stages is provided in Table 2, which shows the final cluster centres and provides the mean value (centroid) of each of the eight emotional variables for each cluster.

Looking at the final cluster centres, Cluster 1 displays lower levels of positive emotions and higher levels of negative emotions in comparison to Cluster 2. To validate the cluster structure, a series of t-tests were run; the results show that significant differences exist among the clusters in terms of positive/negative emotional status. These findings suggest that segmenting consumers according to emotional experiences is feasible, thus confirming previous studies carried out in non-event related settings (Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Bigné et al., 2008a; Del Chiappa et al., 2014).

Table 2. Cluster analysis

	<i>Group 1</i>	<i>Group 2</i>	<i>T-test</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
	<i>(N= 49)</i>	<i>(N=209)</i>		
Excited	3.43	6.45	-21.159	0.000
Energetic	3.63	6.48	-17.876	0.000
Happy	4.08	6.52	-17.666	0.000

Pleased	3.00	5.99	-13.341	0.000
Disappointed	2.49	1.47	6.162	0.000
Angry	1.76	1.30	3.230	0.001
Bored	2.53	1.28	8.014	0.000
Annoyed	1.90	1.28	4.121	0.000

Cluster 1 (N= 49) includes a higher proportion of females (54.2%), aged under 35 years old (55.3%), married (35.4%) or single (29.2%), with a secondary school degree (39.6%), students (20%) or unemployed (22.2%). The majority of respondents belonging to this cluster (47.9%) are regional residents; 31.3% are national visitors and 20.8% are international visitors. Respondents not living in the event location mostly enjoyed their stay in a hotel (30.0%) or visiting relatives and friends (30.0%) and had not previously taken part in the rally (68.8%). Cluster 2 (N= 209 people) includes mostly males (67.3%), aged under 35 years old (55.9%), residing in Sardinia (55.4%) and single (29.7%) or married (30.7%), with a secondary school degree (52.5%). Respondents are mostly employees (33.2%) or self-employed (20.3%) with prior experiences attending the event (75.5%); when not residing in the event location, they enjoyed their stay in a hotel (38.3%) or B&B (26.1%).

With the purpose of answering the research questions, a factor analysis was performed on 20 items related to the consumption experience of spectators. A principal component factor analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was undertaken. This procedure allowed us to identify four factors explaining 82.045% of the total variance (Table 3). The KMO-index (KMO = 0.892) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity (chi-square = 5979.869, p-value <0.0001) confirm that the factor analysis is appropriate to explain the data (Hair et al., 2009). Cronbach's alpha was then calculated to

test the reliability of the extracted factors; all values are 0.8 or higher, thus suggesting that the factors are reliable (Nunnally, 1978). The four factors have been labelled as follows: “F1 – Satisfaction and behavioural intentions”, “F2 – Food-based authenticity”, “F3 – Social identification” and “F4 – Culture-based authenticity”.

Factor 1 explains 46.518% of the total variance and is strongly related to items measuring the level of overall satisfaction and the intention to recommend the event to others and/or to return to attend it. Factor 2 explains 20.70% of the total variance and includes items measuring the level of perceived authenticity of local food and beverages that respondents could appreciate thanks to how the event was organised.

Table 3. Factor analysis

	Loadings	M.	S.D	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	% Cumulated	Alpha
Factor 1: Satisfaction & Behavioural Intentions				9.304	46.518	46.518	0.954
A1. I'm satisfied with my visit to this event	0.882	6.11	1.346				
A2. I feel very good about this event	0.901	6.07	1.298				
A3. I feel good about my decision to attend this event	0.875	6.17	1.210				
A4. I will recommend this event to friends/relatives	0.884	6.17	1.161				
A5. I will say positive things about this event to other	0.829	6.2	1.11				

people		1	6				
A6. I will attend this event next year	0.789	5.8	1.61				
		5	7				
A7. I will encourage friends/relatives to attend this event next time	0.844	6.0	1.26				
		8	6				
Factor 2: Perceived Food-based Authenticity		4.141	20.704	67.222	0.927		
A8. During the event, I had the chance to enjoy the authenticity of local food	0.893	5.3	1.85				
		7	1				
A9. During the event, I had the chance to enjoy the authenticity of local beverages	0.856	5.4	1.78				
		1	9				
A10. During the event, I had the chance to enjoy the local food in authentic restaurants that allowed me to be in touch with the Sardinian identity	0.891	5.3	1.99				
		1	0				
A11. During the event, I had the chance to enjoy typical food and wine with a good value for the cost	0.752	4.9	1.91				
		8	6				
Factor 3: Social Identification		1.704	8.518	75.740	0.984		
A12. My identity/personality is similar with that of the usual spectator of this event	0.851	4.8	2.08				
		2	3				
A13. I feel myself as being close to the usual spectator of this event	0.869	4.8	2.09				
		2	9				

A14. I feel a sense of belonging to the “tribe” of rally spectators 0.892 4.7 2.15
6 4

A15. I feel a strong attachment to the group of other spectators 0.885 4.7 2.17
4 0

Factor 4: Perceived Culture-based Authenticity 1.261 6.305 82.045 0.888

A16. This event represents the local culture 0.824 4.5 2.15
2 2

A17. This event represents a local historical tradition 0.864 4.4 2.13
2 3

A18. This event is able to represent the image of Sardinia as a sport tourism destination 0.711 5.5 1.70
5 4

A19. This event provides opportunities to be in touch with the local community 0.599 5.0 1.96
9 1

A20. This event provides possibilities to learn about local costumes and traditions 0.665 4.5 2.15
8 3

Factor 3 explains 8.52% of the total variance and is related to items that measure how people feel that they are connected with the event and with other people attending the event. Factor 4 explains 1.26% of the total variance and includes items measuring the extent to which respondents were able to appreciate the local culture and traditions thanks to how the event was organised.

To test the affinity of emotions with social identification, food-based and culture-based perceived authenticity, satisfaction and behavioural intentions, a series of statistical tests (t-test) was

performed both on factor scores and on each item included in each factor (Table 4); this was done using the group pattern that resulted when profiling respondents based on emotions elicited by the event (Table 2).

Table 4. T-test on factor scores and items

	<i>Mean Group 1 (N= 49)</i>	<i>Mean Group 2 (N=209)</i>	<i>t-test</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Factor 1: Satisfaction & Behavioural Intentions	1.216764 6	0.290604 3	-10.99 9	0.00 0
A1.	4.38	6.51	-11.61 1	0.00 0
A2.	4.29	6.49	-12.97 8	0.00 0
A3.	4.63	6.55	-11.96 6	0.00 0
A4.	4.73	6.51	-11.29 4	0.00 0
A5.	5.02	6.49	-9.125	0.00 0
A6.	3.92	6.36	-11.56 9	0.00 0
A7.	4.52	6.47	-11.52	0.00 0

Factor 2: Perceived Food-based Authenticity	-	0.107758			
	0.333357	9		-2.671	0.008
A8.	4.42	5.66		-4.297	0.000
A9.	4.42	5.76		-4.957	0.000
A10.	4.73	5.54		-2.593	0.010
A11.	4.21	5.22		-3.309	0.001
Factor 3: Social Identification	-	0.203370			
	0.497942	6		-4.582	0.000
A12.	2.74	5.49		-9.638	0.000
A13.	2.77	5.51		-9.642	0.000
A14.	2.98	5.39		-7.873	0.000
A15.	3.00	5.38		-7.706	0.000
Factor 4: Perceived Culture-based Authenticity	-	-			
	0.119373	0.037846		-0.490	0.625
A16.	3.75	4.67		-2.656	0.008
A17.	3.35	4.63		-3.749	0.000
A18.	4.94	5.63		-2.469	0.010

A19.	4.00	5.24	-3.935	0.00 0
A20.	3.94	4.69	-2.182	0.03 0

The findings revealed that significant differences exist among clusters for Factor 1, “Satisfaction & Behavioural Intentions” ($t = -10.999$; $p < 0.01$), thus suggesting that spectators with lower levels of positive emotions and higher levels of negative emotions (Cluster 1) are less satisfied and less willing to return to the event and/or to recommend it when compared to their counterparts (Cluster 2). For example, respondents belonging to Cluster 2 were more satisfied with the event ($M = 6.51$) when compared to people in Cluster 1 ($M = 4.38$) ($t = -11.611$; $p < 0.01$). Similarly, spectators in Cluster 2 ($M = 6.36$) were reported to be more willing to return to the event when compared to spectators in Cluster 1 ($M = 3.92$). Results confirm prior studies reporting that positive emotions are able to influence satisfaction and loyalty (e.g. Grappi and Montanari, 2011; Lee et al., 2008).

Significant differences among the clusters were also found for Factor 2, “Perceived Food-based Authenticity” ($t = -2.671$; $p < 0.01$); people with a higher level of positive emotions were reported to have an increased possibility of appreciating authentic food and drinks at the event compared to their counterparts (e.g. “During the event, I had the chance to enjoy the authenticity of local food”: Cluster 1 ($M = 4.42$), Cluster 2 ($M = 5.66$), ($t = -4.297$; $p < 0.01$).

The findings also revealed significant differences for Factor 3, “Social Identification”, showing that individuals who elicited higher levels of positive emotions during the event identified themselves more strongly as fitting in with the other spectators compared to their counterparts ($t = -4.582$; $p < 0.01$). For example, individuals in

Cluster 1 felt a lower sense of belonging to the tribe of event spectators ($M=2.98$) when compared to those in Cluster 2 ($M=5.39$) ($t = -7.873$; $p < 0.01$); similarly, they felt a lower level of attachment to the group of other spectators ($M = 3$) than did people of Cluster 2 ($M = 5.38$) ($t = -7.706$; $p < 0.01$). The results seem to confirm previous academic research, highlighting that a positive relationship exists between positive emotions and social identification (Grappi and Montanari, 2011).

Finally, no significant differences were found among clusters for Factor 4, “Perceived Culture-based Authenticity” ($t = -0.49$; $p = 0.625$); despite this, some significant differences were found among clusters when items belonging to this factor were individually considered (e.g. “The event represents a local historical tradition”: Cluster 1 ($M = 3.35$), Cluster 2 ($M = 4.63$), ($t = -3.749$; $p < 0.01$), or “This event provides possibilities to be in touch with the local community”: Cluster 1 ($M = 4.00$), Cluster 2 ($M = 5.24$), ($t = -3.935$; $p < 0.01$).

Finally, a series of chi-squared tests were run to ascertain whether consumers with different demographic (i.e. gender, age, level of education, employment status, marital status, country of residence) and trip-related characteristics (i.e. prior experience at the event) had a similar emotional attitude towards the event experience. Findings showed that significant differences existed between the two clusters based on gender ($X^2 = 7.740$, $p < 0.01$) and prior participation in the event ($X^2 = 32.247$, $p < 0.01$) (Table 5).

Table 5. Chi-square test

Variables	Chi-square	sig.
Gender	7.740	0.005
Age	2.308	0.805
Level of education	3.703	0.448
Employment status	9.984	0.125
Marital status	1.576	0.813
Prior experience with the event	34.247	0.000
Country of residence	0.946	0.623
Type of accommodation	14.162	0.117

No differences were found based on age ($X_2 = 2.308$, $p = 0.805$), level of education ($X_2 = 3.703$, $p = 0.448$), employment status ($X_2 = 9.984$, $p = 0.125$), marital status ($X_2 = 1.576$, $p = 0.813$), country of residence ($X_2 = 0.946$, $p = 0.623$), or type of accommodation ($X_2 = 14.162$, $p = 0.117$) (Table 5).

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study aimed to analyse the usefulness of emotions as segmentation variables with regard to sports events and the relationship between emotions, satisfaction, loyalty, social identification and authenticity. Furthermore, this study explored the

influence of socio-demographic- and trip-related variables on emotional status.

In the specific context of a sports event – where, to the best of our knowledge, an emotion-based segmentation approach has not previously been applied in the literature – our findings confirm that emotions are adequate for consumer segmentation. Specifically, two different segments were identified based on the level of emotions that spectators experienced during the event.

Specifically, the cluster with the higher level of positive feelings and emotions (Cluster 2) was found to be more satisfied with the event, and more willing to return and to recommend it to others, perceiving a higher level of food/culture-based authenticity and expressing a higher level of social identification with the event and its spectators. In line with prior studies devoted to festivals and cultural events, our findings confirm that emotions can also be a determinant of satisfaction in the specific context of sports events. Furthermore, the fact that clusters differed just based on gender, but not based all other demographics, seems to partially confirm prior studies (e.g. Del Chiappa et al., 2014), suggesting that emotions more than “objectivism,” accounts for shaping satisfaction, with emotions belonging to an uppermost level of abstraction, whereby the objective traits of the consumer make little difference. The fact that significant differences were found among clusters based on gender, with Cluster 2 (the one with higher levels of positive emotions) made up mostly of males, could be explained by arguing that the rally events are more likely to elicit positive emotions in men; in other words, the rally could be considered as mainly being a “man-based event”.

Furthermore, the fact that individuals in Cluster 2, who are also more likely to have prior experience with the event, expressed higher levels of positive emotions when compare to those in Cluster 1 (with no prior experience with the event) could be explained by arguing that spectators in Cluster 2 are a type of fan of the event.

Overall, our results seem to suggest, in line with the existing literature, that variables traditionally considered for segmentation are no longer useful for identifying differentiated groups of customers (Story and Hess, 2006). Furthermore, they add to a body of knowledge suggesting that cognitive and emotional aspects should be considered simultaneously when developing models to measure spectator satisfaction and behavioural intentions (e.g. Grappi and Montanari, 2011). Finally, individuals with higher levels of positive emotions expressed higher levels of social identification, as well as food-based and culture-based authenticity, thus somehow confirming, also in the context of sports events, that emotional status is also able to influence consumer consumption outcomes.

Aside from the contribution to the body of knowledge that arose from the aforementioned conclusions, the findings of this study have a number of practical implications for policy makers, destination marketers and event organisers. First, they suggest that managers need to re-emphasise how customers feel about their experience of service delivery by giving greater attention to what could be done to elicit their positive emotions during the event. Despite the obvious relevance of the emotions spectators feel during the event experience, usually event organisers (as it happens for other service providers: Barsky and Nash, 2002) do not generally ask them for feedback on their emotions and feelings. Nevertheless, a deeper understanding of how consumers experience emotions during the event experience, as well as the different ways in which these influence and contribute to social identification, satisfaction, behavioural intentions and perceived authenticity, would give rise to relevant information that could be used to better design and deliver the event experience itself. For example, given that prior studies found that food quality is able to influence positive emotions and patron satisfaction, event managers and food vendors should be monitored for quality and variety in an effort to enhance the overall event experience (e.g. Lee et al., 2008). Broadly, the findings

suggest that event managers should pay attention to improving the overall eventscape rather than just relying on “hard” variables of the event (such as facilities); all event details have the potential to provide pleasure and positive feelings to visitors (e.g. food, entertainment, music and sound, etc.). Attention to these details is needed to heighten participants’ emotional experience (Mason and Paggiaro, 2012).

Finally, the findings suggest that segmenting spectators on the basis of emotional feelings and tracking their emotions over time in the post-consumption phase would constitute a relevant measure to assess visitors’ experiences and satisfaction.

Despite the theoretical and managerial implications, this study has a number of limitations. First, we have introduced a study of a concrete case and a specific type of event (i.e. rally) based on a convenience sample. The application of the study to other events would allow for wider generalisations of the obtained findings. Second, the study did not investigate the direction and the intensity of the relationships between emotions and the other constructs (i.e. satisfaction, behavioural intentions, perceived authenticity and social identification); future research could replicate the study in other types of sports events with the aim of collecting a representative and stratified sample to be used for more sophisticated statistical analyses (e.g. structural equation modelling). Finally, this study applied the self-report method to capture consumers’ emotional feeling and thus it may have involved cognitive bias and/or have elicited the tendency to provide socially acceptable answers (Wiles and Cornwell, 1991). Hence, future research could consider the possibility of using psychophysiological measures (e.g. heartbeat, facial expressions and muscle movements) (Wang and Minor, 2008) or electro-dermal analyses (e.g. skin response, galvanic skin response) (e.g. Jacobs, Fehres and Campbell, 2012).

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors are grateful to the anonymous reviewers for their valuable help and suggestions in enhancing the quality of the manuscript.

References

- Babin, B.J. & Attaway, J.S. (2000). Atmospheric affect as a tool for creating value and gaining share of customer. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 49, No. 2, pp. 91–99.
- Babin, B.J. & Griffin, M. (1998). The nature of satisfaction: an updated examination and analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 41, No. 2, pp. 127–136.
- Babin, B.J., Griffin, M. & Boles, J.S. (2004). Buyer reactions to ethical beliefs in the retail environment. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 57, No. 10, pp. 1155–1163.
- Barrett, L.F. (1998). Discrete emotions or dimensions? The role of valence focus and arousal focus. *Cognition and Emotion*, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp. 579–599.
- Barsky, J. & Nash, L. (2002). Evoking emotion: affective keys to hotel loyalty. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 43, No. 1, pp. 39–46.
- Bigné, J.E. & Andreu, L. (2004). Emotions in segmentation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 31, No. 3, pp. 682–696.
- Bigné, J.E., Gnoth, J. & Andreu, L. (2008a). Advanced topics in tourism segmentation, in A.G. Woodside D. Martin (Eds.), *Tourism Management: Analysis, Behavior and Strategy*, Cambridge: Cabi Publishing.
- Bigné, J.E., Mattila, A.S. & Andreu, L. (2008b). The impact of experiential consumption cognitions and emotions on behavioral intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 22, No. 4, pp. 303–315.
- Bowdin, G., Allen, J., O’Toole, W., Harris, R. & McDonnel, I. (2006). *Events Management* (2nd ed.), Elsevier: Oxford.

- Brida, J.G., Disegna, M. & Osti, L. (2013). The effect of authenticity on visitors' expenditure at cultural events. *Current Issues in Tourism*, Vol. 16, No. 3, pp. 266–285.
- Brown, G., Chalip, L., Jago, L. & Mules, T. (2004). Developing Brand Australia: examining the role of events. In N. Morgan and A. Pritchard (Eds.) *Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition*, Burlington, Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann: MA.
- Del Chiappa, G., Andreu, L. & Gallarza, M. (2014). Emotions and visitors' satisfaction at a museum. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol. 8, No. 4, pp. 420–431.
- Donovan, R.J. & Rossiter, J.R. (1982). Store atmosphere: An environmental psychology approach. *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 58, No. 1, pp. 34–57.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. & Soteriades, M. D. (2016a) The preferences of participants in small-scale sport events: A conjoint analysis case study from Taiwan. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, Vol. 64, No 2, pp: 175 - 187.
- Fotiadis, A., Vassiliadis, C. & Yeh, S. (2016b) Participant's preferences for small-scale sporting events: a comparative analysis of a Greek and a Taiwanese cycling event. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, Vol. 11, No 2, pp:232 - 247.
- Fotiadis, A., Xie, L., Li, Y. & Huan, T.-C. T. C. (2016c) Attracting athletes to small-scale sports events using motivational decision-making factors. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69, No. 11, pp:5467-5472.
- Fu, J., & Kapiki, S. (2016). Reengineering knowledge for e-tourism and hospitality Curricula. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 23-32. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376345
- Grappi, S., & Montanari, F. (2011). The role of social identification and hedonism in affecting tourist re-patronizing behaviours: The case of an Italian festival. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 32, No. 5, pp. 1128–1140.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. & Anderson, R.E. (2009). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.), Prentice Hall: Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Hirschman, E.C. & Holbrook, M.B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: emerging concepts, methods, and propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 46, No. 3, pp. 92–101.
- Hosany, S. (2011). Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 51, No. 3, pp. 303–314.

- Izard, C.E. (1977). *Human Emotions*, Plenum Press: New York, NY.
- Jacobs, M.H., Fehres, P. & Campbell, M. (2012). Measuring emotions toward wildlife: a review of generic methods and instruments. *Human Dimension of Wildlife*, Vol. 17, No. 4, pp. 233–247.
- Küçükaltan, E., & Pirnar, I. (2016). Competitiveness factors of a tourism destination and impact on residents' quality of life: The Case of Cittaslow-Seferihisar. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 22-29. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376332
- Laing, J., Wheeler, F., Reeves, K. & Frost, W. (2014), Assessing the experiential value of heritage assets: a case study of a Chinese heritage precinct, Bendigo, Australia. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 40, pp. 180–192.
- Lee, Y.K., Lee, C.K., Lee, S.K. & Babin, B.J. (2008). Festivalscapes and patrons' emotions, satisfaction, and loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 61 No. 1, pp. 56–64.
- Liljander, V. & Strandvik, T. (1997). Emotions in service satisfaction. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 148–169.
- Mason, M.C. & Paggiaro, A. (2012). Investigating the role of festivalscape in culinary tourism: The case of food and wine events. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 33 No. 6, pp. 1329–1336.
- Mauss, I.B. & Robison, M.D. (2009). Measure of emotion: a review, *Cognition and Emotion*, Vol. 23 No. 2, pp. 209–237.
- Nella, A., & Christou, E. (2016). Extending tourism marketing: Implications for targeting the senior tourists' segment. *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 36-42. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376336
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric Methods*, McGraw-Hill: NY
- Oliver, R. and Westbrook, R. (1993). Profiles of consumer emotions and satisfaction in ownership and usage. *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 12–27.
- Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B. & Del Chiappa, G. (2015). Understanding the relationships between tourists' emotional experiences, perceived overall Image, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, doi: 0047287515620567.
- Ritchie, J.R.B., Tung, V.W.S. & Ritchie, R.J.B. (2011). Tourism experience management research: emergence, evolution and future directions.

- International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 419–438.
- Robinson, R.N. & Clifford, C. (2012). Authenticity and festival foodservice experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 39 No. 2, pp. 571–600.
- Russell, J. (1980). A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 39, No. 6, pp. 1161–1178.
- Sharpley, R. (1994). *Tourism, Tourists & Society*, ELM: Huntingdon.
- Slak Valek, N. (2015). Tourism expenditure according to mode of transportation: A comparative study between 2009 and 2012 *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 3-9. doi:10.5281/zenodo.376250
- Solomon, M., Bamossy, G. & Askegaard, S. (1999). *Consumer Behavior: A European Perspective*, Prentice Hall: NJ.
- Story, J. & Hess, J. (2006). Segmenting customer-brand relations: beyond the personal relationship metaphor. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 23, No. 7, pp. 406–413.
- Swarbrooke, J. & Horner, S. (1999). *Consumer Behaviour in Tourism*, Butterworth Heinemann: Oxford.
- Tung, V.W.S & Ritchie, J.B.R. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 38 No. 4, pp. 1367–1386.
- Wang, Y.J. & Minor, M.S. (2008). Validity, reliability, and applicability of psychophysiological techniques in marketing research. *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 197–232.
- Westbrook, R. & Oliver, R. (1991). The dimensionality of consumption emotion patterns and consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. 88–91.
- Wiles, J.A. & Cornwell, T.B. (1991). A review of methods utilized in measuring affect, feeling, and emotion in advertising. *Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, Vol. 13, No. (1–2), pp. 241–275.
- Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L. & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioural consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 60, No. 2, pp. 31–46.

SUBMITTED: March 2016

REVISION SUBMITTED: July 2016

ACCEPTED: August 2016

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Giacomo Del Chiappa, PhD (gdelchiappa@uniss.it) is Associate Professor of marketing at the Department of Economics and Business, University of Sassari (Italy), and senior research fellow, School of Tourism and Hospitality, University of Johannesburg, South Africa. His research is related to destination governance and branding, consumer behavior, and digital marketing.

Marcello Atzeni, PhD (marcelloatzeni@icloud.com) achieved his PhD in Marketing at University of Cagliari in 2016, discussing his doctoral research on authenticity in tourism destinations. His research interests include tourism marketing, cultural tourism, sport tourism and authenticity in tourism.

REFUGEE ROUTES AND COMMON RESOURCE POOLS IN TOURISM AREAS: THE CASE OF LESVOS ISLAND, GREECE

Ioanna Simeli

University of Macedonia

Apostolos Tsagaris,

University of Macedonia

Athanasios Manitsaris

University of Macedonia

Lesvos is a Greek island that during 2015 experienced the largest refugee crisis the country has ever witnessed. Refugees arriving to the island in groups totalling over 1.000.000 passed through the island. The current project using a UAV sought to identify the routes of refugees passing through tourism areas of the island and the possible impact these routes had on the development of these areas. Furthermore, the preservation of the common pool resources of these areas is a vital issue for the well being of local communities and the enchancement of their spirit of welcoming the refugees. An automated system used to inform local authorities about areas polluted by the mass movement of people is presented in this paper.

Keywords: UAV, CPR, Tourism, Refugee Crisis, Sustainable Tourism

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under
<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/>

INTRODUCTION

“To be rooted is perhaps the most important and least recognized need of the human soul.” (Weil, 2001) Ever since the beginning of mankind, populations moved around the globe either intentionally or under violence (Malkki, 1992) whose (violence) cause does not vary extensively but is rather limited to war zones and military regimes (Loescher, 1993). These populations while on the move need all the resources a person might need to survive and cover Maslow's basic needs.

Water resources, air resources, flora and fauna as well as irrigation systems consist the conventional types of Common Pool Resources (CPRs) used both by locals, tourists (Briassoulis, 2002) and nowadays refugees. CPRs, within the framework of sustainable development, need to be used with caution in order to preserve availability for future generations (Bromley, 1991).

The human pressure as defined by Helbing et al., (2007) involving factors like spatial location, time, estimated density and motion can be critical regarding the over exploitation of CPRs and automated systems need to be employed to alert local authorities and prompt them to take actions to prevent further surcharge.

The need to investigate whether the recent refugee crisis in Greece and particularly Lesvos, which was the main gate for refugees in European Union, burden island' s CPRs, led to the design of an automated system. This system, once given UAV data, proceeds with counting objects (people in particular), follows their route and identifies environmental and human pressure on the areas in the route.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Refugee Crisis

Greece is highly linked with refugees ever since the 19th century as the country was an attractive destination for them. However, 2015 was the peak year for the refugee crisis, since the war in the former Yugoslavia, as over 1.000.000 refugees and migrants wishing to survive war, passed by sea to Europe, mainly Greece and Italy. More than 3000 people were drowned, whereas in October 2015 alone (Fig. 1), more than 135.000 people reached Lesvos (Gkionakis, 2016; Clayton et al., 2015).

Refugees fleeing from Syria negatively affected the country in politics, economy and environment. Soil degradation, liquid pollution and litter are some of the main consequences an area faces when dealing with a refugee crisis (Francis, 2015; Clayton et al. 2015; Gomez, 2010).

Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAV)

Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAV) have been used within the last decade in a plethora of applications thus making them cutting edge equipment for several sciences. Some of their advantages include covering areas with limited access, covering larger areas, identifying objects in areas where access is impossible (i.e., bottom of a river) etc. Lately, they have been used for agricultural purposes, gathering meteorological data or monitoring natural disasters, post - disaster assessment, environmental management (Oluibukun et al., 2017; Ezequiel et al., 2014).

Lesvos Island

Lesvos island is a destination that never managed to create a branding despite the fact that it is suitable for the development of Special Interest Tourism (SIT) (Chatzigeorgiou et al., 2009). The large numbers of refugees created several environmental consequences. Just the number of life jackets made from non

recycling material reached a volume of 16.000 m³ in April 2016. Refugees are accommodated either in camps or hotels and there are no longer water supplies available at the area (Chtouris, 2017).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Focus Area

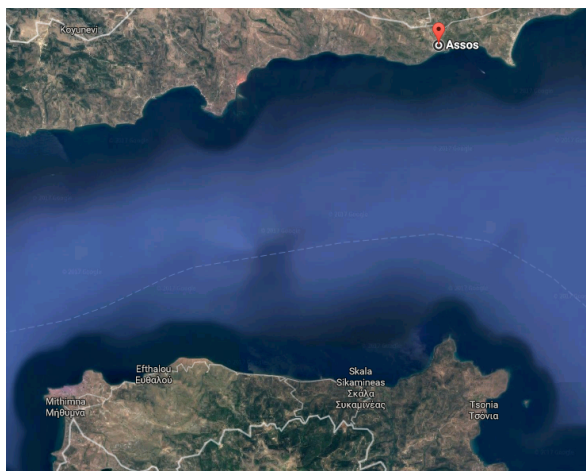
Research focus area included Mythimna, Eftalou, Skala Sikamineas, well-known tourism areas of Lesbos island. The specific spots were used as the main gates to Europe due to their proximity to Turkey. They are across Assos area of Turkey, the main gathering point of the biggest percentage of refugees (see Figure 1). A UAV was used to cover this area and images were collected from beaches where large numbers of refugees would arrive daily with boats. A second set of flights took place from Skala Sikamineas towards the port of Mytilene. The UAV covered several parts of the route capturing images divided every 7 to 10 kilometers.

Covering these areas produced the routes the refugees followed to arrive from the point the boat left them to the port of Mytilene.

The imagery gathered was used to identify boats on the beaches, groups of people moving from point A to point B and potential impact on CPRs of the area or environmental pollution.

At the end stage of data delivery, image downloaded were used to train a machine where the imagery was uploaded to identify potential arrival of refugees or overexploitation of CPRs to inform the local authorities and urge them to take action so as to prevent further negative consequence on the areas studied.

Figure 1. Focus Area



Aerial imaging workflow requires the following stages (Ezequiel et al.)

Flight Planning and Data Acquisition

To digitally map the focus area, an ultra lightweight (1.28kg) Unmanned Aerial Vehicle was used, powered by four brushless motors, with arm span of 0.5m, equipped with 12 megapixel, length of f/2.8 mm and 4K camera, GPS/GLONASS (see Table 1, Figure 2).

A flight plan was initially designed in order to automate the route the UAV would follow and calculate the required flight time as well as the total number of aerial images taken. Open source code was used (Mission Planner) to implement the flight plan.

Targets with known coordinates were used as monitor points for the quality control of the delivered data.

Table 1. UAV Characteristics

Aircraft	Specs
Weight (Battery & Propellers Included)	1280 g
Diagonal Size (Propellers Excluded)	350 mm
Max Ascent Speed	5 m/s
Max Descent Speed	3 m/s
Max Speed	16 m/s (ATTI mode)
Max Tilt Angle	35°
Max Angular Speed	150°/s
Max Service Ceiling Above Sea Level	19685 feet (6000 m)
Max Flight Time	Approx. 23 minutes
Operating Temperature Range	32° to 104°F (0° to 40°C)
Satellite Positioning Systems	GPS/GLONASS
Hover Accuracy Range	Vertical: ±0.1 m (with Vision Positioning) ±0.5 m (with GPS Positioning) Horizontal: ±0.3 m (with Vision Positioning) ±1.5 m (with GPS Positioning)
Camera	

Lens	FOV 94° 20 mm (35 mm format equivalent) f/2.8 focus at ∞
Image Size	4000×3000
Photo	JPEG, DNG (RAW)
Video	MP4, MOV (MPEG-4 AVC/H.264)

Source: <http://www.dji.com/phantom-3-pro>

Figure 2. UAV - Phantom 3



Data post Processing and Data Delivery

Aerial imagery was collected upon landing and downloaded on GCS. Imagery processing involves definition of image scale, image

cropping, image conversion to 8-bit grayscale, filter application, background removal and conversion from pixels to SI scale. An optimised algorithm Random Decision Forest (RDF) was used to identify life vests, boats and people (Park, et al., 2016).

The process to identify vests and boats included the following stages: To begin with, UAV data were acquired and preprocessed to identify the objects on the imagery downloaded from the camera. The second stage was devoted to feature selection followed by the classification of the imagery and finally the assessment of the accuracy.

Samples taken from the imagery were used to train the Random Forest algorithm and use it to classify the objects. Breiman (2001) proposed Random Forest as an efficient learning method comprising of different classification and regression (CART) classifiers.

A percentage of 2/3 of the total training sample will be designed according to Bootstrap strategy with replacement aiming at reducing the generalization error. Out-of-bag (OOB) data is the remaining 1/3 of the sample used to cross validate and evaluate the RDF. The classes chosen for the classification were life vests, boats, sand, water, vegetation and human.

According to classification results, RDF's performance reached an accuracy percentage of 89.6%.

RDF Technique was also used to identify the boats on the beach, people moving in groups from one point to another and spots of pollution.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAV) are intensively used to acquire aerial imagery aiming at monitoring, protecting, managing or assessing a vast range of issues. In this present study images acquired were used to identify both people and objects and in particular life vests and spots of pollution on refugee routes on Lesbos island.

Imagery acquired where then used to train a machine and assess the data uploaded so as to inform the local authorities for a potential arrival of refugees on the spot or over exploitation of Common Resource Pools or even the creation of pollution and urge them to take action and prevent further damage.

The AGS technique used to identify the boats, the vests and the people in combination with RDF algorithm provided valuable and reliable products useful for risk assessment and management particularly in areas with tourism development where the environment is of crucial importance for the destination and the local communities.

REFERENCES

- Briassoulis, H. (2002). Sustainable tourism and the question of the commons. *Annals of Tourism Research*. Vol.29, No.4, pp.1065-1082.
- Bromley, D. (1991). *Environment and Economy*. Cambridge, Blackwell Publishers.
- Chatzigeorgiou, C., Christou, E., Kassianidis, P. & Sigala, M. (2009). Examining the relationship between emotions, customer satisfaction and future behavioural intentions in agrotourism. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, Vol.4, No.4, pp.145-161.
- Chtouris, S., Miller, D.S. (2017). Refugee flows and volunteers in the current humanitarian crisis in Greece. *Journal of Applied Security Research*. Vol 12, No 1, pp 61-77.

- Clayton, J., Holland, H. (2015). Over one million sea arrivals reach Europe in 2015.
<http://www.unhcr.org/news/latest/2015/12/5683d0b56/million-sea-arrivals-reach-europe-2015.html>. Accessed the 15th of May 2016 at 15.45.
- Ezequiel, C. A. F., Cua, M., Libatique, N. C., Tangonan, G. L., Alampay, R., Labuguen, R. T., ... & Loreto, A. B. (2014). UAV aerial imaging applications for post-disaster assessment, environmental management and infrastructure development. In *Unmanned Aircraft Systems (ICUAS), 2014 International Conference on* (pp. 274-283). IEEE.
- Francis, A., (2015). Jordan's refugee crisis. <http://carnegiendowment.org>. Accessed the 20th of May 2016 at 20.46.
- Gkionakis, N. (2016). The refugee crisis in Greece: training border security, police, volunteers and aid workers in psychological first aid. *Intervention*. Vol. 14, No. 1 pp73-39.
- Gomez and Christensen, M. (2010). The Impacts of Refugees on Neighboring Countries: A Development Challenge. <http://web.worldbank.org>. Accessed the 30 th March, 2016 at 10.26
- Helbing, D., Johansson A. and Al-Abideen, H.Z. (2007). Dynamics of crowd disasters: An empirical study. *Physical Review E*, Vol.75, No4, pp:046109.
- Loescher, G. (1996). *Beyond Charity. International Cooperation and the Global Refugee Crisis*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Malkki, L. (1992). The rooting of peoples and the territorialization of national identity among scholars and refugees. *Cultural Anthropology*. Vol.7, No.1, pp.24-44.
- Oluibukun G. A., Akporode A. Sa., Alu F. A. & Mukwedeh G. O. (2017): Generation of accurate digital elevation models from UAV acquired low percentage overlapping images, *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, DOI:10.1080/01431161.2017.1285085
- Park, J.W., Jeong, H.H., Kim, J.S., Choi, C.U (2016). Development of Open source-based automatic shooting and processing UAV imagery for orthoimage using smart camera UAV. *The international Archives of the Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Sciences*, Volume XLI-B7, pp 941-944.

- Spilanis, I., Vayanni, H. (2003). Sustainable tourism: Utopia or necessity? The role of new forms of tourism in the Aegean islands
- Turner, D., Lucieer, A., Watson, C. (2012). An automated technique for generating georectified mosaics from ultra - high resolution Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) imagery, based on structure from motion (SfM) point clouds. *Remote Sensing*, Vol. 4, pp 1392-1410.
- Weil, S. (2001). *The Need for Routs: Prelude to a Declaration of Duties Towards Mankind*. London, Routledge.

Ioanna Simeli (ioanna.simeli@uom.edu.gr) is a PhD candidate at University of Macedonia, Department of of Applied Informatics, 156 Egnatia Street, GR-546 36 Thessaloniki, Greece.

Apostolos Tsagaris (tsagaris @ uom.edu.gr) is a PostDoctoral Student. at University of Macedonia, Department of of Applied Informatics, 156 Egnatia Street, GR-546 36 Thessaloniki, Greece.

Athanasios Manitsaris (amanitsaris@uom.edu.gr) is a Professor. at University of Macedonia, Department of of Applied Informatics, 156 Egnatia Street, GR-546 36 Thessaloniki, Greece

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

An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

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.