Tourism Innovation
Technology, Sustainability and Creativity

INNOVATION AND TECHNOLOGY HORIZONS

Edited by Vanessa Ratten, Vitor Braga,
José Álvarez-García and Maria de la Cruz del Rio-Rama

ROUTLEDGE

"This intelligently written book elaborates the technological, sustainability and creativity aspects of tourism innovations. It successfully balances the theoretical discussions with relevant practical examples from rural, coastal and heritage tourism, golf courses, historic gardens, sporting events and others. Alongside the enlightening empirical studies, the book incorporates thought-provoking conceptual chapters that deal with broader philosophical issues of tourism innovations. The variety of topics and accessible language make the book suitable for both researchers and practitioners."

—*Stanislav Ivanov, Professor and Vice Rector (Research),*
Varna University of Management, Bulgaria

"From fuelling innovation in tourism to future trends impacting the sector, this publication provides a rich vein of interesting exemplars and unique approaches to the study of the discipline. It is a very useful guide to unpacking the impact and opportunity of technology, sustainability and creativity based on recent cases in tourism."

—*John Bustard, Lecturer in Digital Transformation,*
Ulster University, Northern Ireland

"*Tourism Innovation: Technology, Sustainability and Creativity* brings together eleven commentaries, contributing both individually and collectively to bridge a gap between our understanding of the creative process and its purposeful application (innovation). As the editors Vanessa Ratten, Vitor Braga, José Álvarez-García and Maria de la Cruz del Rio-Rama highlight, this combined body of work is both preparatory and illuminating for the tourism industry and for tourism studies scholars. It is preparatory for what Ratten et al. describe as the new imperative for profiting from creative ideas; it is illuminating because the influence of the

dual aspects of technology and sustainability on innovative practice requires greater understanding. As contribution to analysis and understanding of the interrelation of technology, sustainability and creativity for tourism this a timely collection of work."

—*Dr Martin Robertson (FHEA), Associate Professor (International Festival and Event Management), The Business School, Edinburgh Napier University, Edinburgh, UK*

"This well-written book is innovative as it links tourism innovation and sustainability by offering many interesting and up-to-date case studies. Sound empirical studies help researchers and students to better understand the mechanisms of innovation."

—*Mike Peters, University of Innsbruck / Department of Strategic Management, Marketing and Tourism, Austria*

TOURISM INNOVATION

Tourism can take many different forms and types but increasingly it is viewed as one of the most innovative industries. This book showcases the innovations in tourism through a creativity, sustainability and technology perspective.

Tourism Innovation: Technology, Sustainability and Creativity addresses the growing use and importance of tourism innovation in society. Readers of this book will gain a global perspective on how the tourism industry is changing and taking advantage of emerging technologies, which will help them to foresee potential changes in the industry and plan for the future. Tourism innovation is defined as innovating in a cost-efficient manner by taking into account the available resources. Most of the focus on tourism innovation has been on developing countries but it is also used by companies in other locations. This book explores the way in which tourism innovation differs from other types of innovation and offers a creative solution to issues about sustainability and the circular economy. In this vein, it includes chapters addressing issues related (but not limited) to the following subjects: co-creation in innovation, social issues in innovation, leadership and innovation, forms of innovation, government innovation and innovation research.

This book is suitable for tourism industry professionals, researchers and policy experts who are interested in how innovation is embedded in the tourism industry.

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Innovation and Technology Horizons
Series Editor: Vanessa Ratten, *La Trobe University, Australia*

As the business landscape constantly shifts in today's digital age, this timely series looks at how business and society can harness technological innovation to succeed and drive progress. The books in this series identify new innovation capabilities and emerging technologies and investigate the managerial implications of such technologies. As business processes become increasingly complex, the series also explores how businesses can transform themselves with new digital technologies while aligning themselves with today's societal goals. This series provides direction through research on innovation and technology management and will be of benefit to anyone who is keen to thrive in an evolving business environment.

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Tourism Innovation
Technology, Sustainability and Creativity
*Edited by Vanessa Ratten, Vitor Braga, José Álvarez-García
and Maria de la Cruz del Rio-Rama*

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TOURISM INNOVATION

The role of technology, sustainability and creativity

Vanessa Ratten, Vitor Braga, José Álvarez-García and Maria de la Cruz del Rio-Rama

Introduction

Tourism is an economic and social phenomenon due to its ability to stimulate regional development (Franzidis, 2018). There has been increasing recognition of the way tourism can be innovative, particularly through creative means. This is evident in new services developed that integrate technology and sustainability initiatives. Despite the evident practical nature of tourism, there has been a slow recognition of its capability for innovation in the marketplace. This is due to the relatively recent developments of the industry in the global business environment. Barbe, Triay and Haufele (2016:167) state 'tourism is a relatively new industry that has grown rapidly becoming one of the world's largest providers of employment and contributing 9.1 per cent of the world gross domestic product'. This large growth is due to tourism products needing to be consumed at the destination and involve an experience. A challenge for tourism firms has been to manage this innovation process in order to derive the best results. In a tourism firm, it is expected that managers will need to successfully exploit new ideas through the use of innovation and creativity.

The subject of interest for many years, the role of innovation in tourism is growing in significance. There are two main reasons for the dramatic growth. Firstly, the tourism industry has been the launchpad for new technological innovations that have created new markets and products. Secondly, the tourism industry has a large number of small-sized enterprises making it competitive and thus requiring constant innovation. These enterprises include tourism providers such as hotels, travel agencies, government tourism authorities and educational providers. In conjunction with these tourism providers service quality in tourism is being changed with the advent of real time technology tools. Thus, there is a more proactive approach to tourism innovation by incorporating service quality technology devices.

Recent research by Vizcaino-Suarez and Diaz-Carrion (2018:1) states 'tourism and development are transversal processes constructed out of asymmetric power relations between countries, organizations and groups of people with different positions in society'. These power relations have meant that the tourism sector is constantly changing due to its ability to be creative and use novel ideas. This is most prominent with sustainability and technology initiatives. Sustainability in tourism most often refers to environmental initiatives but also involves the management of resources in an efficient manner. Technology initiatives normally involve the use of new media and internet applications such as social media and artificial intelligence.

To understand tourism innovation, we need to understand the meaning of 'tourism'. Defining the term 'tourism' is not as easy as it seems because it incorporates a number of different functions, from hotels to sightseeing. In addition, tourism can be further categorized into subtopics such as rural, surf and sport. To make the process of understanding the definition of tourism we use three main ways to define tourism – behavioural, functional and ecological. The behavioural definition involves the actions of individuals or entities that consider themselves part of the tourism industry. Certain practices are associated with tourism, such as travelling to see or experience a new place. The value placed on tourism has changed as people have more disposable income and leisure time. In addition, the cost of travelling has decreased in recent years. This has made it easier for people to travel and has also increased the number of people considered transnationals as they travel and live between countries. The functional definition involves the 'doing' part of tourism, for example, flying, driving or hiking in an area. There are different activities associated with tourism but most fall into the sun, sea, sex, adventure or culture categories. The ecological definition involves focusing on the environment in which the tourism takes place. Nature or ecotourism is a growing segment and a further distinct subcategory of tourism.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of some of the main issues regarding tourism innovation. The chapter is structured into a number of main sections, which provide a discussion about recent research trends in tourism innovation. The next section will state the rationale for the book, which highlights the linkage tourism innovation has with sustainability and technology research.

Rationale for book

The research on creativity in tourism is still at an embryonic stage with more attention needed on this interesting research area. The relatively recent emphasis on tourism creativity means there is a general lack of substantiated theories and frameworks on this topic. The chapters in this book are a response for a more diverse and innovative sub-field of tourism innovation that focuses on technology, sustainability and creativity. The chapters in this book will pave the way for future growth on the contribution of technology, sustainability and creativity to tourism innovation. This will enable more knowledge to be developed about the interconnections between tourism innovation, technology and creativity to evolve. Scholars

working in tourism innovation will benefit from the research in this book, which provides a fundamental contribution to tourism studies.

This book confirms the importance of tourism innovation to society. We add to the discussion by emphasizing the role of technology, sustainability and creativity. More studies are needed to expand the definition of tourism innovation to provide different levels of analysis in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the research field. Tourism innovation research has tended to be done by tourism scholars in tourism departments but there is a lack of research coming from scholars in entrepreneurship departments. This opens up opportunities for scholars to instead use an entrepreneurship theoretical framework in tourism to bring a more interdisciplinary perspective. As tourism innovation can be studied at the individual, firm or regional level, we can learn from entrepreneurship theories.

This book proposes that current approaches to tourism innovation need to incorporate more emphasis on technology, sustainability and creativity. New solutions to tourism problems can come from changing our assumptions about the role of tourism in society. The challenge for tourism researchers is to find new ways to build knowledge about innovation. The findings from each chapter in this book will serve to guide future research. Innovation is a common occurrence in the tourism industry and occurs both through new services and via changes in existing businesses. The propensity of a hotel or accommodation provider to be innovative varies but increasingly it involves the use of technology or sustainability initiatives. Ecotourism has become more popular as individuals want tourism to link with environmental and natural surroundings. Whilst most technology refers to information and communications providers it also relates to emerging topics such as biometrics and cybersecurity. Tourism providers are closely involved in facilitating technology innovation in both the design and development of services.

Innovation

Moscardo (2008:4) states 'innovation can come in many forms but all of these share three common elements- creativity, a problem-solving approach and a new way of thinking'. The main positive benefits of innovation are an improvement in profits, customer satisfaction and branding. Most innovation requires the support of staff, customers and stakeholders in the tourism sector. This is due to the complex way tourism services are provided and their role in communities. The main types of innovation are product, process, service, marketing and technological. There is a wide range of activities in the tourism industry from hotel accommodation to bed and breakfasts and resort living. Most tourism services share the same traits of intangibility and interactivity. As a consequence, some tourism services do not happen in a vacuum but are rather the result of interactions in the economy.

Adams, Bessant and Phelps (2006:22) states 'the term "innovation" is notoriously ambiguous and lacks either a single definition or measure'. A broad definition of innovation is 'the implementation of a new or significantly improved product (good or service), or process, or new marketing method, or a new organizational

method in business practices, workplace organization or external relations' (OECD, 2005:46). Albernathy and Clark (1985) suggested that there are four main types of innovation, which influence economic systems: architectural, market niche, regular and revolutionary. Architectural innovation involves changing existing tourism systems by integrating new market linkages. This includes the use of new technology concepts that change the way innovation is viewed (Medina-Munoz, Medina-Munoz and Collazos Zuniga, 2013). Market niche innovation involves new market opportunities that focus on distinct product or service categories. This means focusing on established market systems by finding gaps that lead to new opportunities. Regular innovation involves normal improvements that result in change. Technology services are the subject of regular innovation in tourism firms due to the need to upgrade system requirements. Revolutionary innovation involves doing something out of the ordinary to bring about a major change. Revolutionary innovation will lead to some established practices becoming obsolete.

The different types of innovation are incorporated within innovation systems, which are defined as 'the complex interactions between firms, people and institutions, which influence knowledge transfer and innovation policies' (Weidenfeld, 2013:192). The aim of innovation systems is to generate and diffuse knowledge that can have flow on effects in the environment. These effects are called knowledge spillovers and occur when information is inadvertently shared amongst educators, government, business and citizens. The level of knowledge spillovers will influence how much knowledge is transferred and how it is exploited in the economy. Entities that cooperate can facilitate the application of knowledge to new contexts. In addition, the nature of linkages between firms will determine their ability to develop knowledge bases. A degree of proximity to other firms can help facilitate information exchange. Fundamental to understanding whether there is innovation is the acceptance of new ideas and the capacity to make ideas into realities.

Tourism innovation systems are referred to as 'the parts and aspects of the economic structure and institutional set-up affecting learning and innovation in tourism firms' (Sundbo, Orfila-Sintes and Sorensen, 2007:93). Having synergetic relationships between tourism stakeholders can lead to better forms of tourism innovation. This is supported by having the right kind of macro environment in terms of politics, technology and social conditions (Weidenfeld, 2013). The path of an innovation tends to start from the originator then diffuse out into the environment (Raco, 1999). The filtering of an innovation will be impacted by contact either face-to-face or electronically with others in the innovation ecosystem. The level of innovation in a system will be determined by the resilience of tourism providers to change and be creative. Biggs, Hall and Stoeckl (2012:646) define resilience as 'the ability of a system to maintain and adapt its essential structure and function in the face of disturbance while maintaining its identity'. This concept of resilience is part of a tourism provider's innovation capability.

There are three main stages in the development of a radical product innovation capability: discovery, incubation and acceleration (O'Connor and DeMartino, 2006). The discovery stage involves finding new ideas and then elaborating on

them to find appropriate paths to take. This involves identifying ideas that are evaluated to likely have market potential. The quality of an idea is important and requires a process of ideation. Incubation involves testing and refining the idea in order to implement it into the marketplace. Implementing innovation is defined as 'the process of gaining targeted organizational members appropriate and committed use of an innovation' (Klein and Sorra, 1996:1055). Implementation is crucial in making sure creative ideas survive the incubation process.

Part of this process is growing the idea by shaping it into the right mould. This stage is critical in refining the idea to ascertain potential partnerships. The accelerator stage means moving the idea past the discovery and incubation stage to push it into the market. Slater, Mohr and Sengupta (2014:552) states that a radical product innovation capability involves 'a dynamic capability, one that enables the organization to maintain alignment with rapidly evolving customer needs in high-velocity environments'. By accelerating the idea it means that the idea enters the market and takes on its own path through a process of tourism innovation.

Tourism innovation

Tourism innovation is a new imperative for profiting from creative ideas. Weidenfeld (2013:195) states 'tourism innovations are rarely major breakthroughs for the entire industry but more often constitute smaller changes or improvements'. The organizational cultures of tourism providers need to focus on innovation. Knowledge flows in the tourism sector lead to the acceleration of innovation. Whilst the concept of tourism innovation has proliferated in the literature, there is some criticism at the lack of a distinctive definition of tourism innovation. There has been a tendency to join the tourism and innovation literatures without taking into account the unique topic of tourism. Innovation in tourism tends to be in the form of product or marketing differentiation that is based on creativity (Brackenburg, 2006). This includes product line extensions or variations to existing product offerings. As there are a number of intermediaries such as tour operators embedded in the tourism sector, innovations can occur through vertical or horizontal collaboration in the value chain (Hall and Williams, 2008). Vertical collaboration through suppliers can facilitate innovation in services and payment systems. Horizontal collaboration can result in new alliances or partnerships that encourage innovation.

Dinis (2006:13) states 'the success of any innovation (and consequently the competitiveness of firms/regions) depends on its marketing orientation, that is, on its ability to adjust or (still better) anticipate market tendencies'. Tourism innovation can be categorized on a continuum from incremental to radical impacts. Incremental forms of tourism innovation will have little impact on market practices as they are considered minor changes. Radical forms of tourism innovation have more impact on firms and individuals as they revolutionize and substantially change market practices. To understand the effect of tourism innovation there needs to be an assessment of how attractive the innovation is to the market. This will lead to a better understanding about the likely responsiveness of the market to the

tourism innovation. Institutional innovations in tourism refer to 'new or embracing collaborative/organizational structure and legal framework which redirects or enhances the business in fields of tourism' (Mei, Arcodia and Ruhanen, 2015:1173). Some tourism innovation needs to be communicated in a way that institutions, individuals and businesses understand its necessity. This involves sharing information about the likely potential of the tourism innovation and how quickly it will be adopted in the market; by assessing its likely acceptance and ease of use tourism can be innovated in the appropriate manner. The disadvantages associated with tourism innovation are the lack of resources or expertise to use the innovation or a resistance to change. This can create problems in fulfilling market objectives for tourism firms and their overall competitiveness.

Tejada and Moreno (2013:750) states 'the diffusion of innovation among tourism enterprises presents a low propensity for the development of new products and processes'. In order for tourism innovation to occur there needs to be external resources and leadership. Managerial or organizational innovation in tourism are defined as 'new or significantly improved ways of organizing internal collaboration related to a firm's business practices, workplace organization or external relations' (Mei, Arcodia and Ruhanen, 2015:1173). We see resolving the inconsistencies between tourism innovation and entrepreneurship research as being one of the most critical paths for future research endeavours and for managers working in the tourism industry.

There is debate in the literature as to whether the size of an organization impacts the level and type of innovation. This is reflected in some research suggesting that larger organizations have more resources to spend on developing ideas (Siegel and Renko, 2012). Larger tourism firms are viewed as being able to rely on their name and reputation to fund new ideas. However, smaller firms are viewed by some researchers as being more innovative due to their ability to move forward quickly with ideas. This is reflected in small firms being more dynamic and flexible with their approach to innovation (Eggers, Hansen and Davis, 2012). Both small and large tourism firms need to collaborate in order to share knowledge that leads to innovation. Cooperative agreements can be formal or informal depending on the type of tourism firms involved. Large tourism firms tend to have more formal agreements with other firms in order to protect their reputation but also to manage intellectual property issues. However, with the advent of social media and user innovation, more tourism firms are relying on a co-creation process. In addition, new tourism start-ups such as Airbnb have dramatically changed the competitive landscape. Tourism firms compete with each other in the same location as well as other destinations in terms of prices and quotas. Large tourism firms may be able to experiment with innovations depending on feedback and success in the market. However, smaller family owned tourism firms may not want to innovate but be happy with their current customer base.

Creativity

Creativity is an emerging word being used in business circles as a way to think outside the box. The term 'creativity' means different things to people depending

on the context as well as personal beliefs. A general meaning of creativity involves novelty and in tourism this can range from the location of hotels to the type of furniture used. Creativity involves generating new ideas that are different to current practices. This includes developing a new solution to solve a vexing problem. Often people brainstorm to come up with a variety of new ideas that may apply in a tourism context. These ideas may seem crazy or out of place as they have not been previously considered. Some ideas may seem whimsical or absurd due to the current market conditions or not previously thinking about integrating these ideas into society. Thus, with creativity there needs to be a belief that the idea will work and a degree of determination to follow through on one's actions. The degree of creativity in tourism will depend on the willingness of an individual or organization to accept change. Some ideas might be more useful than others, thereby being able to be implemented in a quicker manner. The process of creativity involves suggesting novel ideas for products that can lead to subsequent development. Our book contributes to the literature by confirming the need for creativity to foster an innovative environment. The generation and implementation of an idea should utilize creative thinking.

Tourism providers need to think creatively in order to solve the challenges they face as a result of a competitive global economy. Brouder (2012:385) states 'all people and places can have creative potential but the operationalisation of such potential is a constant struggle'. In order to be creative it helps to interact with others who can give feedback and suggestions. This process of interaction enables greater exposure that leads to more ideas. Whilst not all feedback is positive it is generally accepted that discussing new ideas generates further creativity. New thoughts about how ideas can progress or be altered are part of this process. By recombining ideas there can be a feedback loop that is continually adjusted.

Digitalization is emerging as a technology innovation that has rapidly changed the tourism industry and provides creative solutions. The use of online records about consumers has meant tourism providers can tailor services in a way that previously was not possible. This has meant more individualization of services but also a recognition of diverse needs. The digital revolution has been evident in the way tourism providers are marketing their services and in retention of existing customers. There are more online communities catering for a variety of consumer tastes and preferences. This has enabled more online word of mouth advertising that has benefitted niche tourism operators. Peer to peer communication about tourism providers has led to the growth of online review companies. Moreover, real time communication has led to more interactivity amongst tourists about services. Smart devices have been part of this revolution as most individuals now have a portable mobile communication device, leading to increased usage of apps that help tourists find the services they are looking for. Apps are an industry in themselves but have become a springboard for inventors to parlay their talents into other areas of the economy. Smart devices are used not only by tourists but also tourism providers as a way to schedule demand and also see the changes in demand. Website traffic is another way online tourism providers have been able to track what geographic location consumers are coming from and how they are responding to demand. In

the past, overall data was collected about website clicks, but the technology now enables more detail about users to be available. This has opened up new possibilities about tailoring tourism services in a way that increases profitability. More online payment platforms have emerged such as PayPal, which have changed the way financial transactions are conducted. There is now talk about purely online currency such as bitcoin being used to fund travel that further changes the customer-client relationship.

There are new horizons for online payments but at the same time there is an awareness about privacy and security issues. This is seen in the European Union's introducing legislation about the way data is collected, stored and used. However, in the increasingly interconnected world, the way data is managed particularly for tourism services, has become an issue. This is due to some travel preferences being private and subjecting the tourists to unwanted attention. Cloud technology has enabled more information to be stored so it can be accessed from any location but this also gives rise to potentially unlawful use of information.

Technology

In the knowledge economy, technology plays an important role for tourism firms in supporting investment in new communications systems. This is epitomized by the use of customer relationship management systems that enable real time information to be fed to tourism firms. The reliance on technology has meant tourism firms are susceptible to cyber threats and must spend money on continuously improving their online systems. Tourism firms differ in terms of ownership structure, history and culture, which affect their propensity to be innovative. Regardless of the differences in terms of size and conditions, all tourism firms are affected in one way or another by innovation. In addition, global economic crises and the increased interest in sustainability have changed the way tourism firms operate in the environment.

Changes in technology are continuously evolving in terms of food, transport and infrastructure. There has been a rise in tourism businesses using digital platforms such as Uber. In the future, there will be more connectivity amongst tourists and service providers. This is evident in the internet of things with multiple technology devices being connected. More people are using voice recognition and other computer programs to translate languages to enable better information sharing. In addition, there are interesting new technologies emerging with regard to virtual reality. Some predict that virtual reality programs will be used instead of actual tourist experiences in the future. Thus, much of the future technology changes in tourism are still uncertain.

The speed of change in technology regarding its usage in the hotel industry is hard to keep up with. Whilst technological innovation has resulted in increased efficiencies, it has disadvantages of being costly and time consuming to implement. This complexity means that despite technology being needed, it is hard to manage. New destinations are emerging in the tourism market that were previously not

considered tourist destinations. Places like Dubai and other cities in the Middle East have benefitted from airlines such as Emirates becoming more popular. There has been a trend towards healthy lifestyles that have meant more interest in sustainability. As sustainability refers to economic, social and environmental concerns it is important that these elements be integrated into the tourism market. To do this requires more interaction among stakeholders such as business, government and citizens to ensure proper tourism management.

Sustainability

Sustainability is an interdisciplinary topic that traditionally has meant environmental management. However, it sometimes is not easy to be sustainable in tourism due to cost and time factors. This means new practices regarding sustainability need to be implemented that take resource constraints into account. Frugal innovation is a concept that has a sustainability component but has not been researched much in a tourism context. Therefore, new research avenues regarding the use of frugal innovation in tourism are needed. Most large tourism providers are able to implement sustainability practices, but smaller ones may be more constrained. This means innovation is needed in sustainability practices that, whilst it has short term risk, will enable long term gain. Innovation with a sustainable meaning takes time but needs to be conducted. To expedite innovative practices in tourism there needs to be more research devoted to the subject. Researchers need to be thoughtful and respect the research regarding sustainability and tourism innovation. Some researchers can be too conservative and not take into account future trends. This leads to a predilection for safe research that is publishable, but not conducting thought-provoking research. Experienced researchers may see the benefit of trying a new idea about sustainability, but this needs to be encouraged by the research community.

Sustainability has been a hot topic in tourism for a while, but when combined with innovation it brings more depth. There are more metrics and tools used to measure sustainability, which impacts the degree of attention tourism providers devote to the issue. Stock exchanges have sustainability indexes, which include some tourism companies. In addition, consumers are more actively engaging with sustainability issues in the community. There are certification programs around sustainability that accommodation providers are advertising. Thus, smart tourism companies who innovate in a different way by implementing sustainability initiatives can gain a market advantage. Examples of ways tourism can be sustainable but also innovative are in the use of building materials and interaction with the environment. Some tourism centres like Cooper Pedy have in a way been innovative due to necessity. This is due to the use of underground hotels that have lower temperatures than above ground. Increasingly consumers will want more innovation and the introduction of new technology in hotel services. This will mean less human interaction but more use of self-service technology.

Interestingly, Lane (2018:161) points out that sustainable tourism 'was not a child of the tourism industry, or of government policy makers but of academics

and other commentators'. In contrast to this view is the use of tourism innovation, which is more driven by the tourism industry. Tourism innovation research still lacks connection to the sustainability and creativity literatures. This is due to tourism innovation being seen in a silo without incorporating new knowledge from other disciplines. In addition, much of the literature on tourism innovation is published in tourism journals that require a certain style of writing and referencing. This has limited the diversity of tourism innovation but the advantage is in that future research can help plug these research holes. In the future, tourism innovation will continue to be a popular topic but it needed its own journal to further strengthen the field; this occurred with the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* becoming one of the top tourism journals because of its niche market appeal (Lane, 2018). There needs to be radical developments with the research about tourism innovation. This can occur through incorporating more studies that use new methodologies or theoretical frameworks.

Overview of chapters

The chapters in this book all relate to the topic of tourism innovation in terms of technology, sustainability and creativity. The first chapter, titled 'Tourism innovation: the role of technology, sustainability and creativity' by Vanessa Ratten, Vitor Braga, José Álvarez-García and Maria de la Cruz del Rio-Rama, provides an overview of the state-of-the-art research in tourism innovation and the reason for this book. The second chapter, titled 'Pro-environmental culture and behavior to promote sustainable golf courses: the case of "La Galiana"' by Gema Albort-Morant and Antonio Luis Leal-Rodriguez, discusses the role of sustainable tourism in sport. This is an important emerging trend as sport tourism is a popular topic of interest and sports like golf are requiring more thought of how environmental innovations can be implemented. The third chapter, titled 'Challenges and dilemmas of tourist studies for the 21st century: is tourism in bias of disappearance?' by Seraphin Hugues and Maximiliano E. Korstanje, focuses on emerging issues in tourism innovation research. The chapter discusses the dilemmas faced by tourism researchers in light of new technology and sustainability concerns. The fourth chapter, titled 'Understand the role of heritage tourist experience: a netnographic research in Italy' by Massimiliano Matteo Pellegrini, Giacomo Marzi, Lamberto Zollo and Vanessa Ratten, focuses on cultural tourism innovation. The chapter provides an example of how online social media and technological innovation is shaping the tourism industry. The fifth chapter, titled 'Management of tourism innovation, music and nightlife: case study' by José Ramón Cardona, María del Carmen Azpelicueta-Criado, María Abril-Sellarés and María Dolores Sánchez-Fernández, examines the entertainment motivations behind tourism innovation. The chapter analyzes the role music plays in changing tourism experiences. The sixth chapter, titled 'Employees social capital, self-efficacy and turnover intention: a study in the context of tourism and hospitality' by Dung Hoang, Masoud Karami and Sam Spector, focuses on employment innovation in the tourism industry. This enables

a new perspective about the role self-efficacy and social capital plays in tourism innovation. The seventh chapter titled 'Sustainability and tourism: cluster analysis on the effectiveness of the Porter hypothesis in the European aeronautical sector' by *Esteban Pérez-Calderón*, María Pache-Durán and Alicia Galindo-Manrique, analyzes the role of competitiveness in tourism. This is an important topic as the tourism industry affects a number of other industries in terms of knowledge spillovers. The eighth chapter, titled 'Tourism in low density areas: a review of coastal and rural development practices' by Dina Ramos, Carlos Costa and Filipe Teles, examines innovations in less developed regions. As much of the research tends to be on cities and well-known tourism destinations, this chapter provides a novel perspective about other geographic areas. The ninth chapter, titled 'Visiting gardens in Portugal: profiling the historic gardens visit and visitors' by Susana Silva and Paulo Carvalho, focuses on the role of sustainability in gardens. Many tourists visit gardens because of their love of nature, so studying how these gardens can be sustainable through innovation is important. The tenth chapter, titled 'Residents' perception of the impact of and support for three small and medium-scale sporting events as the basis for a tourism strategy' by David Parra Camacho, Juan M. Núñez-Pomar, Ferrán Calabuig and Paloma Escamilla-Fajardo, examines sport tourism innovation. In the chapter the authors discuss how residents concerns about tourism can be implemented through innovation practices. The eleventh chapter, titled 'Future trends in tourism innovation' by Vanessa Ratten, Vitor Braga, José Álvarez-García and Maria de la Cruz del Rio-Rama, focuses on future research issues regarding tourism innovation in terms of creativity, sustainability and technology.

Concluding remarks

The innovation thrust of this book reflects the complementary relationships that tourism has with sustainability and technology. This book heeds the call for more research that can articulate the interdependence between tourism and innovation and argues that a technology, sustainability and creativity perspective is useful for studying the impacts of innovation on tourism. There are a number of interrelated reasons for this, which are necessitated by the role tourism has on other sectors of the economy.

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2

PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL CULTURE AND BEHAVIOR TO PROMOTE SUSTAINABLE GOLF COURSES

The case study of "La Galiana[1]"

Gema Albort-Morant and Antonio Luis Leal-Rodriguez

Introduction

The practice of golf constitutes a phenomenon that transcends ordinary sport activity and entails several touristic implications of great relevance (Riquel Ligero and Vargas Sánchez, 2013), leading to a boost in the tourism industry around this leisure activity. Spain, given its privileged climate conditions, has turned into a leader in the reception of tourists who visit with the purpose of playing golf. This tendency can be observed by the proliferation of golf courses around all the different Spanish regions (see Figure 2.1). The importance of golf within the Spanish tourism sector is significant: according to a study developed by Golf Business Partners (2016), the practice of this sport generates around €2,000 million per year both in direct and indirect impacts. Furthermore, this study reveals that up to 1,088,000 foreign tourists visit Spain every year with the purpose of playing golf, highlighting the predominance of British tourists at 38%, followed by German at 16%, and Swedish tourists at 10%. Hence, it seems clear that recently golf has attained great importance within the national tourism industry, standing as one of the key elements of a destination's promotion. Golf's strategic touristic importance is also buoyed by this sport's capture of that tourist profile characterized by having a high purchasing power. Hence, golf contributes to attracting and generating high-quality tourism while it reduces seasonality, helping in turn to solve one of the main weaknesses of the Spanish touristic model (Miranda, Sánchez-Ollero and García-Pozo, 2014).

Additionally, increased consumer environmental awareness and concern for protecting the environment during the past decades, together with the great support and promotion offered by relevant political initiatives at the international level, has led to the investment of resources in the development of an environmental culture. This profound change of values, behaviors and practices has not been spontaneous and haphazard, but is rooted in consumers' and societal demands and trends
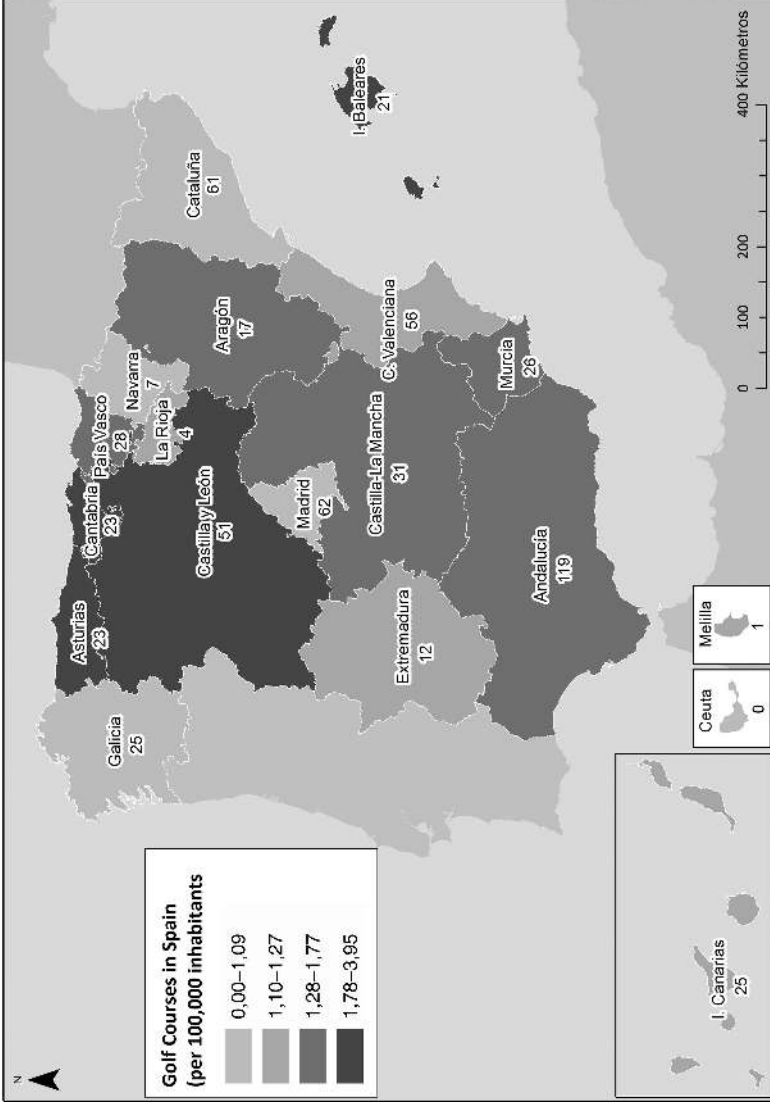
FIGURE 2.1 Geographical display of golf courses in Spain

Source: Authors' own elaboration.

(Riquel Ligero and Vargas Sánchez, 2013). Organizations' adoption and commitment towards sustainability depends both on institutional and contextual factors inherent to the environment in which they operate. Once sustainability is accepted as something valuable within the firm, the distinct organizational actors begin to interact and this concept gradually spreads (Shrivastava, 1995). Therefore, any business activity is conditioned by the integration of the environmental variable into its productive processes or services, even more so when this activity is linked to the tourist sector. The tourism-environment pairing becomes strengthened at the moment the natural environment becomes a distinctive competitive advantage upon which some destinations differ from each other (Riquel-Ligero and Vargas-Sánchez, 2012).

Nonetheless, there currently exists an open social debate concerning golf courses' environmental impact. Frequently, golf courses are presented as extremely costly facilities that consume a large amount of resources, especially water. According to Priestley and Sabí (1993), the main environmental impacts derived from golf courses and their maintenance are: (1) qualitative modification of the local landscape, (2) ecological problems that lead to sudden alterations of ecosystems, (3) potential risks of pollution derived from the need for a massive use of fertilizers and fungicides, and (4) indirect impacts arising from activities related to the field of golf. Although it is common to comment on the negative effects of golf courses, the implementation of golf courses very often involves several favorable consequences that usually remain hidden, such as: (1) the increase and diversification of fauna, (2) the recycle and use of wastewater for irrigating purposes, and (3) the improvement of abandoned landscapes or the recovery of arid zones.

According to Blanquer-Criado (2002), golf courses are subject to direct and harsh environmental and institutional pressures and are urged to develop environmental management systems and a more responsible organization. Although there are many Spanish golf courses currently working to respond to the concerns expressed by the government, environmental groups, academics and the media with regard to their environmental footprint, there is still a certain prejudice against this activity (Marín, 2004), leaving much still to be done in this regard. Only four Spanish golf courses have earned a GEO (Golf Environment Organization) environmental certificate: *Centro Nacional de Golf* (Madrid), *La Galiana Campo de Golf* (Carcaixent, Valencia), *Lumine Golf Club* (La Pineda, Tarragona) and *PGA Catalunya Resort* (Caldes de Malavella, Gerona). These golf courses are considered 100% sustainable and stand out for their great respect and care for the environment.

Therefore, this chapter aims to examine the case study of one of the most sustainable golf courses in Spain, *La Galiana*, located in Valencia. This golf course was awarded the GEO Certificate in 2011 and won the IAGTO (International Association of Golf Tour Operators) Sustainability Award 2016 for the Europe, Middle East and Africa region, due to their exceptional commitment throughout their operations, course design and club management oriented to the three pillars of sustainable golf: nature, resources and people. Specially, we attempt to explain the distinctive key points of this golf course, at the same time that we

intend to answer the following three research questions: (1) How has this recently established golf course placed among the best in the world? (2) Do the proactive strategy and the long-term attitude towards sustainability constitute key drivers of this success? and (3) What are the main challenges in the path of sustainability in the golf industry? Through these interrogations we try to understand and uphold the appearance of sustainable golf courses, at the same time that we refute some of the myths currently associated with golf courses. Therefore, we propose a model that positively links pro-environmental culture, pro-environmental behavior and environmental performance and brings some qualitative data to sustain these research propositions.

After this brief introduction, this chapter proceeds as follows: Section 2 brings the conceptual framework, comprising a concise description of the main concepts embedded within this study. Section 3 presents the successful case study of *La Galiana* golf course, explaining the features and challenges required for the attainment of a GEO environmental certificate, the key pillars that drive its success, and its future strategies. Finally, Section 4 presents some conclusions and implications derived from the study.

Conceptual framework

Sustainability and ecotourism

Sustainability has returned to occupy a pivotal position in the global agenda. Newly focused on climate change, a growing discussion concerning sustainable development has been observed, and both academics and practitioners are addressing environmental issues and challenges with increased intensity. Corporate sustainability seems hence to have turned again into a critical issue, at least on paper.

The academic literature on the fields of environmental management and corporate sustainability has gained significance and rigor since the early developments of what is currently the Academy of Management's "Organizations and the Natural Environment division" (Wüstenhagen, 2008). In contrast with other related scholarly disciplines that account with a decade's trajectory – strategy, operations, quality management, organizational behavior, etc. –, research conducted on corporate sustainability, with its focus on the ties between the natural environment and distinct organizational levels of analyses (individuals, groups, subgroups, organizations, or clusters of organizations) is a relatively new academic topic.

Adopting a realistic approach, sustainable development entails the integrated accomplishment of environmental, social and economic objectives. Thus, corporate sustainability intends to comprise the environmental, social and economic impacts of an organization, in a way that it ends in (1) the organization's sustainable development and (2) the firm's contribution to the sustainable development of society as a whole.

Tourism is a major sector of activity in many countries, and it has also succumbed to sustainability-driven concerns. Ecotourism encompasses a set of core

values that deal with minimizing touristic environmental impact and human footprint, preserving the natural environment, respecting local customs, cultural heritage and traditions, local economy and business support by consuming local products, and reducing the use of non-renewable resources, among others (Barkauskiene and Snieska, 2013). These trends are not unnoticed for tourism entrepreneurs, who are increasingly placing their scope on satisfying tourists with these kinds of preferences and demands. Moreover, several studies reveal that a significant number of tourists have these environmental motivations that include participating and enjoying nature and rural life (Park and Yoon, 2009; Leco, Hernández and Campón, 2012).

Pro-environmental culture and environmental performance

Prior studies on corporate sustainability have principally rooted on the strategic management literature, reasoning that the firms' excellence in protecting the natural environment contributes to generating new business opportunities that might lead to achieving and sustaining competitive advantages through the effective use of organizational resources and capabilities (Porter and van der Linde, 1995; Russo and Fouts, 1997; Aragón-Correa and Sharma, 2003). The main assumption underlying this theory is that if the firms' base of resources and capabilities are used both uniquely and effectively, this might lead to performance enhancement (Sharma and Vredenburg, 1998).

The impacts exerted by a firm's environmental corporate culture and strategy on its competitive advantage represents a topic that has been widely discussed by the literature concerning organizations and the natural environment. Accordingly, the extent to which firms might profit from "greening" their culture stands as a pivotal question in the management and corporate strategy literature, as proven by the substantial sum of empirical studies aimed at examining the links between pro-environmental strategy and business performance (Leal-Rodríguez, Martelo-Landroguez and Aragón-Correa, 2016).

Along this line, Albort-Morant, Leal-Millán and Cepeda-Carrión (2016, p. 4912) posit that

> Whatever are the goals that lead companies to undertake environmental management – complying with environmental laws and regulations, becoming more competitive, gaining legitimacy, etc. – integrating environmental sustainability issues into business strategy and greening the innovation process are becoming a strategic opportunity for companies.

Therefore, sustainability and environmental management practices are widely regarded as strategic drivers of business performance. Hence, we posit the following proposition (see Figure 2.2):

> *P1: There is a positive link between pro-environmental culture and environmental performance.*
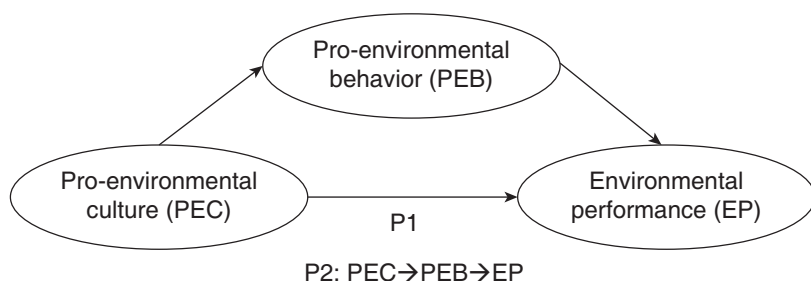
FIGURE 2.2   Conceptual model and propositions

The mediating role of pro-environmental behavior

Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) argue that cultural issues play a critical role in deter-mining individuals' behavior and, consequently, many pro-environmental behaviors may only occur if the necessary contextual basis and infrastructures are provided. Hence, there is a need for the presence of certain institutional factors. The query about what actually shapes personal behavior is an intricate one. Fuhrer et al. (1995) propose that individuals often behave influenced by their micro context, which involves the person's immediate social network – family, neighbors, friends, etc. – and by their macro context – the social-cultural context in which the individual lives jointly with the media and political organizations.

Perhaps fostering a pro-environmental culture is a necessary prior step for firms that aim to enhance their environmental performance. However, there might be a gap between these two concepts. In this line, there are several theoretical backgrounds that develop aiming to clarify the gap existing between possessing environmental knowledge and environmental awareness, and demonstrating pro-environmental behaviors (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002). The central question that emerges in managers' minds is: how can our pro-environmental culture permeate within the organization so that it leads to pro-environmental behaviors and environmental performance enhancement?

These authors posit that the employees' pro-environmental behavior is shaped by a set of very often contradictory and competing internal factors, among which they highlight: (1) motivation, (2) environmental knowledge, (3) personal values, (4) attitudes, (5) environmental awareness, (6) emotional involvement, (7) locus of control, (8) responsibility and priorities, and (9) other factors related with human desires for comfort and convenience, habits and personality traits. Hence, it seems that external factors and organizational culture alone might be not enough to enhance a firm's environmental performance, but a set of internal drivers of pro-environmental behavior must be taken into account. Therefore, we posit the following proposition (see Figure 2.2):

> *P2: Pro-environmental behavior mediates the link between pro-environmental culture and environmental performance.*

The case of "La Galiana" golf course

Overview of La Galiana golf course

La Galiana is a recently established golf course located in Carcaixent, a Spanish town of nearly 21,000 inhabitants in the Comunidad Valenciana region. *La Galiana* is the first public golf club in the province of Valencia, meaning players do not need to be members to play a round and make use of its facilities. Located 50 km south of the city of Valencia and close to the Mediterranean coast, *La Galiana* was opened in 2011. It was designed jointly by the company Moon Master and the supervision of Felipe Rodriguez, aiming to produce a remarkable design as well as an incredible engineering project. The project includes an irrigation system so that the area's rainfall is not a problem and the course is suitable for playing throughout the whole year.

La Galiana is an 18-hole golf course with a length of 5,890 meters. There are several teeing grounds for each hole, accommodating professionals, gentlemen and ladies. The golf course presents spacious greens flanked by strategically placed sand bunkers and water hazards, which means golfers will need to be accurate with their hits approaching the greens. Moreover, it has an extensive practice area and various greens for chipping and pitching, ideal for golfers looking to fine-tune their skills or warm up before a round of golf.

However, the most striking and differentiating key point of the golf course is its privileged location. It is buried in a valley, in the middle of nature, completely isolated from any urban environment and surrounded by a nice Mediterranean forest containing wide a variety of pine trees and shrubs that make the environment an ideal refuge for a large number of mammals, birds and amphibians. The golf course terrain includes different heights and levels, giving the course the sensation of having been carved out of the mountain rock. *La Galiana* offers golfers the opportunity to play a different type of course while enjoying nature and the area's pleasant weather.

La Galiana is still a young course and some infrastructure is still in progress, which when finished will make it outstanding. Although the current club house is only temporary, it offers changing rooms and showers, a restaurant, shop, short game area, buggies, covered practice area and parking. Table 2.1 summarizes the main features of the golf course.

La Galiana has also been rated by users on different webpages that review golf course conditions, customer service, the greens condition and maintenance, value for price, bunker maintenance, facilities, driving range and fairways conditions. Hence, according to the GOLFBOO webpage, *La Galiana* is ranked first in Valencia and third in Spain. Leadingcourses.com ranks *La Galiana* third in Spain, because golfers believe that this golf course is very funny due to its many differences in height.

Design and construction

The design and construction of a golf course might involve substantial ecological changes due to enormous land movement or lack of adaptation to the natural

TABLE 2.1 Main characteristics of *La Galiana*

Characteristics	
Golf Course	*La Galiana*
Localization	Carcaixent (Valencia)
Country	Spain
Year of opening	2011
Surface/Area	200 Ha
Longitude	6.201 meters
Route	18-hole course
Practice area	15 posts
Aquifer	11 lakes
Designer/Greenkeeper	Felipe Rodríguez Llanos (Moon Masters company)
Manager	Rafael Martínez
Employees	25
Suppliers	25–30
Type	Public golf course

Source: Authors' own elaboration on the basis of the personal interview.

landscape (Salgot and Tapias, 2006). However, it depends largely on the area to transform and the location of each field, which can be very variable depending on orographic and geographical conditions. Hence, the construction of new golf courses must improve the environmental value of the land occupied, modifying its previous function and generating new microsystems that must retain their prior goodness and add more, such as the preservation of the soil or of the local vegetation. The balance of impacts must be positive, which requires ensuring that the design, construction and maintenance of the golf course is set to premises and practices that should be clearly reflected in a rigorous environmental impact study, that the appropriate corrective measures are planned and, above all, the installation of a system of coherent and transparent environmental management (Morell, 2002).

The project of *La Galiana*'s construction relied upon the experience of its promoters: Rafael Martínez, current director of the golf course, along with the investor of the operation, who decided to create a golf course that would be sustainable over time. *La Galiana* was proactively designed with the idea of being a sustainable golf course that must comply with the fundamental principles of sustainability, while at the same time may reduce maintenance costs. The promoters had to certify the availability of sufficient water resources, determining the potential needs of quantity, quality and temporality, to ensure the normal functioning of the field. To this aim, they counted on the aid of the designer, Felipe Rodríguez, who carried out an incredible engineering project.

The design of the course should seek to protect or, at least, not damage the natural environment. Thus, it might ensure the regeneration of native vegetable species, as well as fight against erosion and natural loss. Artificial drainage systems should not alter the groundwater level of the zone, and the design might also include water ponds that can be used for fire extinction.

In addition, the designer of *La Galiana* had to face another problem: the ground. The golf course was built in a valley comprising a former field of orange trees, which was for sale. In Valencia it is very difficult to find large extensions of field, since in this region, the land is usually divided into smallholdings. The change from agricultural land into a golf course terrain has meant that some of the holes run at different heights and levels, giving the course the sensation of having been carved out of the mountain rock. Much of the forest has been included within the design, creating green spaces that in some cases are considered hazards and others, out of bounds.

During the construction phase of a golf course, the environment tends to be heavily affected due to the following facts: (1) water courses are diverted, (2) a lot of dust and noise is generated, (3) wildlife is disturbed and tends to disappear, (4) plants are heavily affected by dust, and (5) soil compaction and runoff occurs (Salgot and Tapias, 2006). In this case, the designer created a golf course adapted to the local landscape, which tried to minimize these construction problems. A great effort was made in order to diminish these effects and damage the local vegetation as little as possible.

Irrigation is a critical topic in the design and construction of golf courses. Most golf courses are flood irrigated, which usually leads to a significant loss of water. However, this field is designed in the form of a spine so that each hole collects the water from irrigation and rain. This water is channeled and stored in the course's 11 lakes. Therefore, the course can feed itself, since it reuses water. This saves on maintenance costs. Moreover, the project includes an irrigation system, meaning that the area's rainfall is not a problem and the course is suitable for playing throughout the whole year.

Therefore, *La Galiana* is respectful of the environment in its design and construction phases, because it used construction techniques that respect the environment and razed just the needed land to conserve the native flora and fauna. Additionally, there were 8,000 newly planted trees, flowers and shrubs that led to an improvement of the landscape and the integration of the course within the environment. The variety of pine trees and shrubs make the environment an ideal refuge for a large number of animals, birds and some types of amphibians, which had been expelled from the area when it was used for agricultural purposes.

Three pillars: economic, social-cultural and environmental

The term "triple bottom line" refers to the economic, social–cultural and environmental viability of sustainable development (Rockloff, 2003). Golf courses interact with the specific area in which they are located, as well as adjacent areas. The extent to which this interaction is enhanced depends on several factors that range from economic to social and environmental issues. These interactions can be defined as the environmental impact of the golf course (Salgot and Tapias, 2006). *La Galiana* is based on those three pillars in order to be a sustainable golf course.

Economic factors

A golf course is a company and, as such, it seeks to maximize its profits. A golf course is usually not profitable until after 10 years. Of course the investment is not returned within 10 years; golf course investors are not thinking of recovering money but of building a course that can last many years and will be their or others' property. However, for the economic model to be operative, it is necessary to combine it with something that generates profitability in the short term. Normally, houses are built around the course, which will allow the owners to recover part of the investment.

In the case of *La Galiana*, the project did not include a residential area around the course, which could have yielded profits, but instead built a hotel that allows for making the course a resort. In this way, the economic model could operate. Nevertheless, the first step involved building the golf course in order to know if the project was sustainable. In the words of Rafael Martínez – the manager of the course – customers come to *La Galiana* because it is a fun course and is very well maintained. Therefore, it becomes a crucial success factor for the course to be well maintained without increasing its costs.

Social-cultural factors

The practice of golf as a sport in general has traditionally received bad press in Spain. In this country, golf is generally seen by many people as synonymous with posh, rich, elitist, old, etc., unlike other countries that simply conceptualize it as a playful activity practiced by people of varied profiles. Another problem lies in the prices of a "green-fee" (right to play) of around 80–100 euros per 18 holes. This price is not feasible for the majority of the Spanish population.

However, *La Galiana* takes into consideration the social reality of the region in which it is located. It offers reasonable prices and deals aimed at attracting new customers. The management team has tried to promote golf among children and youth from nearby schools; however, the directors of the centers refused to promote the practice of this sport within their students' leisure activities. Thus, this golf course has been forced to search for customers out of its region – 90% of its customers are foreigners, coming from all over the world.

La Galiana generates 25 direct jobs – eminently occupied by people from the local area, most of whom had no studies or previous experience in the field of golf courses, since the great majority had previously worked in the agricultural sector – and indirectly employs 25–30 suppliers. Employees are continually renewing their competencies, attending courses to keep updated and complying with changes in legislation. In addition, the management of the course has made great efforts in maintaining a healthy climate and good relationships with their employees, ensuring that the latter feel part of the company. Also, this course maintains narrow relations with its suppliers who are knowledgeable about the course's specificities and certification as a sustainable golf course. Therefore, the products provided by the

suppliers cannot be environmentally harmful, since they would be in breach of one of the main principles –to remain sustainable.

Environmental factors

Golf is a disputed sport that involves great interaction with the environment; there is not another sport that occupies and manages such vast and spacious green areas. It is important, hence, to understand the environmental responsibilities tied to golf course management (Ligero and Sánchez, 2012).

The environmental impact of human beings has turned into a growing and global concern for citizens, organizations and policy-makers. This change of values and business habits has not been something spontaneous, but is rooted in the demands and pressures exerted by consumers and society in general (Leal-Rodríguez, Leal-Millán and Ariza-Montes, 2016). In this case study, *La Galiana* joined a promoter and manager with more than 25 years of experience as a golfer and a broad expertise in management. Consequently, *La Galiana* was proactively designed following environmental principles, ecological good practices and sustainability-driven policies. This is a golf course that, if correctly managed, is efficient from an environmental perspective – preserving and minimizing environmental harm – and from an economic point of view – reducing its maintenance costs.

The measures carried out by *La Galiana* to protect the environment deal with: (1) preserving the local landscape, vegetation and wildlife diversity, (2) conserving hybrid resources, (3) controlling pollution, (4) saving energy, (5) diminishing waste, and (6) providing environmental education. *La Galiana* assures the proper habitat conditions for the local flora and fauna to remain alive, contributing hence to the conservation of biodiversity. The golf course design respected the shape of the natural terrain, in this case a valley, and uses its own resources to irrigate the field, for instance rain water and a spring. Thus, these water self-provisions significantly contribute to reduce maintenance costs. Another factor to highlight is the safe and appropriate use, storage and disposal of fertilizers and pesticides. These products must always comply with the requirements established by GEO norms. Finally, *La Galiana* encourages learning among its employees, who must have a high standard of awareness and understanding of the principles underlying environmental management.

Long-term strategy

The design and construction of a golf course might undoubtedly represent significant ecological changes. However, it depends to a great extent on the area to be transformed, namely the land's location. In the majority of cases, environmental impact has not been a direct consequence of the golf course, but of the impact generated around it. In this respect, it is worth noting that golf courses are usually conceived as nuclear items that serve as real estate business coverage (García-Lorca, 2007). There are different alternatives for this: (1) private households and residential

facilities, (2) hotel or rental residential infrastructures, and (3) a mixture of hotels and private residential infrastructures. However, according to (García-Lorca, 2007), the highest sustainability levels would be achieved through the hotel option.

In the case of *La Galiana*, the promoters of this golf course opted to build a hotel. This hotel was included in the design of the golf course and facilities, but it was decided not to be built until a few years after the golf course opening, after observing its sustainability and social acceptance.

The hotel will be built shortly, following the same path as the golf course. It will be qualified as a sustainable hotel that will comply with all the necessary requirements and its design scarcely affects the environment. The new hotel will offer 50–60 comfortable rooms in a wonderful environment that will allow having 100–120 players hosted. In addition, it will include two football fields, a swimming pool and several paths for hiking. This way *La Galiana* is determined to create an important resort that will attract people aiming to play golf or enjoy nature. This way, the economic model will be able to operate sustainably while generating superior performance.

Golf Environmental Organization (GEO)

An overview of GEO and its strategic importance

The Golf Environment Organization (GEO) is an international nonprofit organization dedicated entirely to providing a credible and accessible system of sustainability standards, support programs, recognition and capacity building for the golf industry. This company was founded in 2006 with the purpose of fostering sustainability through golf, and to demonstrate the sport's leadership in environmental improvement and social responsibility. This organization enjoys the support of the majority of international golf organizations, such as Royal & Ancient, BIGGA, European Tour, Ryder Cup, FEGGA, EIGCA EGCOA and EGA, as well as different companies within the sector.

The economic difficulties that many golf courses have to face might push them to neglect their environmental approaches. For this reason, GEO promotes, supports and rewards significant initiatives within two fundamental areas: (1) the development of new facilities – GEO Legacy –, and (2) the already existing golf courses certification – GEO Certified. The GEO Certificate is a very exclusive distinction that allows golf courses to prove that the activities performed in their facilities are developed with the intention of helping the environment, improving the natural landscape and not constraining its future development.

Moreover, the agreement reached by GEO with the International Association of Golf Tour Operators (IAGTO) is very important, since it jointly promotes sustainable golf tourism. Golf tourists are increasingly looking for differentiating features that help them to decide between the wide range of possible destinations. With this respect, the availability of quality labels or certifications can tilt the balance in favor of those courses that care about and foster environmentally responsible

policies. The GEO certification complies with all the requirements that must meet an ecological trust mark: physical inspection by an independent third party, public reporting and transparency of processes and results, a holistic approach with the participation of different professionals for the definition of criteria; and a process of renewal based on continuous improvement processes. In addition, it is compatible with other seals of quality such as ISO 14001 or EMAS.

Recently, and for various reasons, several Spanish clubs and golf resorts have been interested in attaining the GEO certificate seal awarded to those courses that convincingly demonstrate their commitment towards the environment and sustainability. Currently, the 22 Spanish golf courses that are on course to obtain the GEO Certificate are: *Arabella Golf Son Muntaner* (Palma de Mallorca), *Club de Golf La Peñaza* (Zaragoza), *Club Golf D'Aro Mas Nou* (Platja d'Aro); *Club de Golf Alcanada* (Puerto de Alcudia), *Club de Golf Valderrama* (San Roque), *Club Zaudin Golf Sevilla* (Sevilla), *Denia Marriott La Sella Golf* (Denia), *Golf de Andratx* (Camp de Mar); *El Plantío Golf Resort* (Alicante), *Golf Las Américas* (Tenerife); *Golf Maioris* (Palma de Mallorca); *Golf del Sur* (Santacruz de Tenerife); *Iberostar Golf Novo Sancti Petri* (Chiclana de la Frontera); *La Manga Club Golf Resort* (Cartagena); *La Rosaleda* (Puerto de la Cruz); *Oliva Nova* (Oliva); *La Serena Golf* (Murcia); *Real Club de Golf El Prat* (Terrassa); *Tecina Golf* (San Sebastián de La Gomera); *Son Gual Golf S.L.* (Palma de Mallorca); *Panoramica Club de Golf* (San Jordi); and *Lo Romero Golf Course* (Pilar de la Horadada).

However, there are only four Spanish golf courses that are provided with the GEO certificate: *Centro Nacional de Golf* (Madrid; GEO Certificated 10/2011); *La Galiana* (Carcaixent, Valencia; GEO Certificated 10/2013); *Lumine Golf Club* (La Pineda, Tarragona; GEO Certificated 11/2013); and *PGA Catañunya Resort* (Caldes de Malavella, Gerona; GEO Certificated 11/2013).

Requirements

The first stage that a golf course must accomplish in order to attain GEO certification is the "GEO OnCourse" program (free online software that allows the storing of the data with regard to the great work the course does in terms of sustainability). The second stage involves the visit of an Accredited Checker to the golf course facilities, with the aim of developing its audit and, in a positive case, confirming the course's achievement of the GEO certificate.

To successfully pass the GEO verification audit, the course's facilities must comply with a series of mandatory requirements. Concretely, each golf course must comply with 30 required points and another 24 recommendations. For instance: demonstrating a solid understanding of the ecological values; maintaining a record of employees that includes the roles and responsibility of all staff; maintaining a record of the historical, cultural or archaeological areas of the location; having a sustainable and ethical procurement policy; demonstrating legal compliance in waste management; identifying the sources of water used; or purchasing more efficient vehicles, among many others.

These standards were designed to lead courses to positive short, medium and long-term impacts. Additionally, several tools and mentoring programs are provided

to raise the course managers' understanding of the certification process and facilitate immediate and ongoing tangible progress in sustainability across the industry. Focusing on people and natural resources, these requirements reflect the current best practices for the golf industry, based on the wider current understanding of sustainability. Qualified individuals – trained on the GEO Standards – evaluate the impacts through a verification process, adding credibility to the quantitative and qualitative data collected and reported. Verification also ensures that the effectiveness of the standards is monitored and can be reviewed on a frequent basis, and evaluated at appropriate intervals.

Advantages for La Galiana *golf course*

The main advantages that golf courses may achieve by obtaining this certificate can be grouped in two categories:

a) Saving time and money

The GEO certificate allows saving time and money because it improves the course's efficiency (introduction of energy-saving policies, waste reduction, maintenance of equipment, water consumption minimization, etc.), reduces and prevents unnecessary costs (environmental protocols and health and safety regulations), and protects the real estate fixed values. It also allows obtaining grants for environmental improvements that will finance the planting of trees and restoration of living beings.

It should be noted that *La Galiana* golf course has a procedures manual that is used to record and transmit information between the distinct areas that integrate the golf course. This manual contains in a tidy and systematic way all the corporate information, instructions and procedures that the organization considers to be necessary for the better implementation of environmental practices (i.e., the manual will enable employees to know what activity they must perform firstly and for how long, allowing the reduction of working hours or its best distribution). This leads to maintenance costs reduction and the increase in the course's profitability.

b) Getting noticed

The GEO certificate may constitute an interesting tool for the course's marketing, positioning and differentiation, since it symbolizes the recognition of good environmental and managerial practices. In 2016, *La Galiana Campo de Golf*, GEO Certified, won the IAGTO Sustainability Award 2016 for the Europe, Middle East and Africa region, due to their exceptional commitment throughout their operations and course and club management to the three pillars of sustainable golf: nature, resources and people.

The GEO certificate, jointly with this award, places this course among the best ones in Spain, recognizing all the efforts that have been carried out from the design stage and might serve as a marketing tool that should increase the international notoriety of the course. However, few customers know about these awards. Only

when the customers arrive at the field and observe the award, they are aware and satisfied to be playing in one of the more sustainable courses in Europe.

Discussion and conclusions

Organizations as well as living organisms are continually required to adapt or die. Neither of the two options seems to be very pleasant. There is no doubt about the organizational need for continuous adaptation to the environment as a mechanism of survival and source of competitive advantage. However, adaptation frequently demands the management of significant changes, which will find in the firm's corporate culture a natural barrier or resistance factor. *La Galiana* constitutes a clear example of adaptation to customers' needs and preferences, as well as to governmental and environmental pressures.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine whether the environmental performance and success of an organization (i.e., a golf course) is derived from its strategic proactive cultural alignment – pro-environmental culture – and continued pro-environmental behavior. To this aim, we present the case study of the Spanish golf course *La Galiana*, internationally awarded and recognized as one of the most sustainable golf courses in Spain. Therefore, we posit a research model that proposes positive relationships between pro-environmental culture, pro-environmental behavior and environmental performance, and bring some qualitative data to sustain these research propositions.

La Galiana golf course, despite its recent construction, has positioned itself among the best and most sustainable courses in the world. This has uniquely been possible since the first minute it was proactively planned and designed to comprise all the sustainable features that a golf course is required to have in order to it be a global destination. Hence, the proactive strategic alignment sustained by the owners, manager and designer of the golf course, namely its pro-environmental culture, has supposed.

Although encouraging a pro-environmental culture generally constitutes a prerequisite for those firms aiming to boost their environmental performance, there might be a gap between the proactive generation and storing of environmental knowledge and awareness and demonstrating pro-environmental behaviors. The employees' recognition for their work and their increased sense of pride for belonging to a sustainable organization acts as an intrinsic motivation factor that drives them to work harder to maximize the course's sustainability and quality levels. Thus, our case-study analysis sheds light onto the research propositions posited in this study. First, the case suggests that promoting a pro-environmental culture is a prerequisite for attaining environmental performance (P1), and second, developing and fostering pro-environmental behaviors amongst the distinct members of the firm – owners, managers, employees, etc. – and users becomes a critical driver of environmental performance that might act as a mediating variable in the pro-environmental culture-environmental performance link.

The implications of this case study are clear. Fostering a pro-environmental culture is important. However, this should not leave aside the efforts for continuous

improvement and maintenance of the course. It is not enough for *La Galiana* to proactively support sustainability, but it must keep working in the medium and long term to endorse pro-environmental behaviors that might lead to the positioning of this golf course among the most profitable and sustainable in the world. Additionally, if the course seeks to maintain the GEO certificate during its three years of validity and to ensure the re-certification it must implement certain managerial and maintenance amendments. Thus, sustainability must be considered a way instead of a goal.

In conclusion, *La Galiana* could serve as an example of a sustainable golf course to other courses that are interested in being differentiated by proactively embracing sustainability and being committed to environmental protection, as well as for future promoters who decide to build a new golf course. This golf course's strategic environmental endeavor from its very beginning, together with their members' pro-environmental behaviors and efforts, might serve to consider it a benchmark to follow.

However, this chapter is not without certain limitations. Focusing at the organizational level brings some difficulties regarding obtaining primary data. Hence, the development of this case study has an eminently exploratory character. In this vein, it would be certainly interesting to carry out further research aimed at turning our propositions into research hypotheses. To this aim, we are currently preparing a questionnaire to be responded to by managers and employees belonging to all the golf courses in Spain and Portugal, which could lead us to empirically test and validate these hypotheses.

Note

1 www.lagalianagolf.com

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3

CHALLENGES AND DILEMMAS OF TOURISM STUDIES FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

Is tourism in bias of disappearance?

Seraphin Hugues and Maximiliano E. Korstanje

Introduction

Since 2001, tourism went through different and difficult contexts, which spanned from the attacks on the World Trade Center to the outbreak of lethal viruses such as Ebola. Some specialists claimed the need of adopting new conceptual models to understand these new risks while moving resources to mitigate them (Mawby, 2000; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006; Larsen, Brun and Øgaard, 2009; Tarlow, 2014). The risk perception theory not only played a leading role in the multiplication of new emergent research just after the turn of the century but also notably resonated in fields of tourism management. Per these specialists, the tourism industry faces cyclical crises which should be anticipated and mitigated (Blake and Sinclair, 2003; Seraphin, Butcher & Korstanje, 2016; Seraphin et al., 2018a, 2018b). It was unfortunate that the efforts of the Obama administration to deter terrorist activities were short-run and finally failed. Terrorism, as well as other unseen risks, targeted new European cities and tourist destinations, placing the industry between the wall and the deep blue sea. K. Hannam (2009) vaticinated, in this context, the *end of tourism* while J. Urry signals to the change of paradigms for a sociology beyond society (Sheller and Urry, 2006; Urry, 2012).

To some extent, the failure of risk perception theory and the precautionary doctrine paved the way for the rise of a new model that commoditizes the affected site once the disaster takes a hit. Some experts emphasized new morbid forms of tourism which helped communities in the post-recovery facet (Korstanje, 2016; Séraphin et al., 2018c). The classic product of sun and beach set the pace to darker tendencies which ranged from dark tourism to slum tourism. Those visitors motivated to travel to these sites are interested to interpret their own lives through the Others' death or pain (Seaton, 1996; Stone and Sharpley, 2008). No less true is that the tourism industry not only seems to be resilient to risky situations but also commoditizes catastrophes and disasters as dark forms of modern spectacles

(Korstanje, 2016; Tzanelli, 2016). In this respect, the present chapter interrogates the radical morbid metamorphosis of tourism, which far from disappearing, re-elaborates new discourses revolving around the sense of place. As stated, John Urry anticipated to this situation arguing that tourism is ripe for the disappearance. As an invention of industrial logic, tourism rapidly connected far away zones, cities and cultures which otherwise would keep separated for centuries. Tourism and technology are inextricably intertwined. Today, the same technology that fostered tourism worldwide is mining it from the inside out. Hundreds – if not thousands – of cyber-tourists consume dark landscapes, which are characterized by cities devastated by war or sites of mass death from a PC station, while others enter places that otherwise would remain inexpugnable for them. The sense of physical movement has changed forever. To put this in slightly other terms, dark tourism isolates and replaces the tourists in the virtuality of cyber-space. This begs a more than interesting point: we live in a world where tourists do not travel anymore. This happens because the experience has certainly replaced the physical movement as the key element that molds tourism (Kaelber, 2007). This and other interesting connotations are placed under critical scrutiny in the present chapter. The importance these types of new tourism have received in the Academy is directly proportional to the changes the industry is facing. Still further, the question of whether doom-tourism consists in moving to sites or destinations which are in the bias of disappearance, suggests two important assumptions. On one hand, this industrial world Urry mentioned has been changed by a decentralized and chaotic form of production and accumulation. On another hand, the process of deindustrialization, adjoined to the rise of individualism, is creating a form of consumptions that are unique, special, and cannot be repeated in any way. This is consistent to what Yves Michaud dubbed as "new luxury", which means the replication of patterns that, far from being communicated to others – as the classic travel stories – are tended to reinforce pleasure-maximization and egocentrism (Michaud, 2013).

Preliminary discussion (Urry's legacy)

It is almost impossible to synthesize Urry's legacy (and of course his proficient research and prolificacy) in a couple of sections. Doubtless, Urry not only illuminated the paths for many young researchers but introduced the conception of gaze within tourism debates. He coins the term *Tourist Gaze* to denote a sort of engagement between the self and its landscape. Per his viewpoint, the classic patterns of industrialism set the pace to new cultural consumptions which are systematically tailored to the agency (Urry, 1992a). To put this in other terms, Urry agrees with Baudrillard on the following axiom: tourism exhibits a vital force that integrates the citizens into the logic of consumption, leading the revitalization of psychological frustrations. Nonetheless, Urry realizes that the classic behaviours of holidaymakers in the nineteenth century are being gradually articulated into the constellations of different experiences. By the orchestration of countless (fabricated) landscapes, tourists actively select a subjective experience which is

systematically replicated by a much deeper cultural matrix. In this way, Urry clarifies, we witness the appearance of a type of *post-tourism*. It is important not to lose the sight Urry confronts with Dean MacCannell, who considers tourism a type of post auratic force. In fact, for Urry, the individual experience cannot be unilaterally imposed to the agency. Rather, the tourist looks for an experience which is adapted to its previous cognitive organization. The gaze was originally introduced in the social science by Michel Foucault, who was obsessed with understanding the intervention of medical reason in the society. Urry instead describes the tourist gaze as the intersection of a new emerging aesthetic, which results from a reflexibility process, and the adaptation of psychical environment by the expansion of technology. The mobilities, as well as the tourist gaze, advances through the environment consuming not only natural resources but also commoditizing cultures. The culture of entertainment and the quest of new experiences demands always new landscapes to be consumed (gazed), in which case it places the natural environment in serious jeopardy (Urry, 1990, 1992a, 1992b; Lash and Urry, 1993; Urry, 2001, 2016). In a seminal book edited jointly with Chris Rojek, Urry (2002) holds the thesis that the system of production that historically characterized modernity is facing radical shifts towards a new decentralized form of production where the sign and reflexibility occupied central positions. Originally, editors are intended to frame an accurate definition of tourism that helps other researchers to overcome the fragmentation of meanings. Around the term "tourist" many connotations emerge such as holidaymakers, sightseers, visitors and so forth. Despite the multiplication of publications, Rojek and Urry remarked, little is known about the nature of tourism without mentioning its connection with mobilities. Another additional problem appears to be the position of the economic-centered paradigm that defines tourism as an economic force alone. Their book *Touring Cultures* comes from the needs of both the positivist operationalization and the economic-centered paradigm, as editors in their foreword contend. Until the rise and expansion of capitalism, tourism and culture were distinguished as two different institutions. Here Urry and Rojek identify two types of modernities. While modernity 1 signals to the order of things as the result of a universal causality, the modernity 2 falls to the "disorderliness of life". After all, the latter showed how rational decisions may have irrational effects in our daily lives.

> Tourism and cultures now plainly overlap and there is no clear frontier between the two. They cannot be kept apart. First, this is because there is a culturalisation of society, a de-differentiation between all sorts of social and cultural spheres which were previously distinct. . . . Even the apparently separate economy has partly turned into an economy of signs; while the development of a post-modern cultural paradigm involves the breaking down of conventional distinctions, such high/low culture, art/life, culture/street life, home/abroad, that had kept different social practices within different social/spatial locations.
>
> *(Rojek & Urry, 3)*

Per their definition, the modern economy not only comprises the circulation of objects and goods, but also the disposition of cultural landscapes as commodities too. However, these resulting circuits of exchange are not static, they are culturally "encoded" toward a complex and embroiled notion of "hybridity". They put as an example the history of Irish Americans who today evolved into a hybrid form. The process of culturization not only toys with the belief that tourism makes people better, but there is an increasing manipulation of signs disposed of by the marketing to furnish, decorate and embellish some destinations. At the time of exploring modern tourism, social scientists should operate within the frames of an economy of signs, where a hybridized cultural product is externally manipulated and imposed on visitors; hence, in the next years, editors vaticinate more abstract version of tourism such as cyber or virtual tourism would be brought into the foreground (Rojek and Urry, 2002).

As the previous backdrop, the society or the economy of signs are terms Urry previously used in other works. Although not new, the terms are oriented to mark the division between the old and new modernity that altered the pre-existing paradigms. While in other centuries travellers were moved by leisure goals which oscillate from relaxing to learning about other cultures, postmodern tourists need to consume culture gazing at others as a commodity while re-accommodating their previous stereotypes. Through the tourist gaze, the self possesses what is being gazed. In this respect, Chris Rojek (2002) acknowledges that the tourist practice rests on the dichotomy between the extraordinary and the ordinary-everyday life. This binomial was culturally designed. He argues convincingly that myth and fantasy play a leading role in the configuration of the alterity and the travel. On a closer look, tourists need to travel to far-located destinations, entering in unknown areas. In doing so, the "remoteness" forces us to abandon our daily habits while we keep some speculations and allegories, and narratives about the new destination. The fact is that the tourist gaze engages with a "representational symbol" which allows us to access to hosts. In this way, the host–guest encounter would be somehow mediated by the tourist gaze. This moot point suggests that the local is unilaterally subordinated by the foreign tourists. Neither Rojek-Urry nor Urry in his entire bibliography has made an explicit annunciation on this, but what is clear is that the process of globalization has disarticulated the standardized forms of production as inherently enrooted in the core of industrialism. As a result of this, the global economies are not only more malleable, flexible and dynamic but they are subject to the creation of external signs which price the commodity.

This matter is evidently clear in a book published in 1993, in co-authorship with economist Scott Lash, which entitles *Economies of Signs and Spaces*. In this text, authors depart from the original contributions done by Karl Marx, who envisaged "the end of organized capitalism". Capitalism is constantly doomed to destroy and reconstruct the same means of production that amass profit. The main goal of capitalism is far from achieving an economic stability; rather it goes to "the creative destruction". Most probably, Lash and Urry understand the myopia of current Marxist scholars who debated the material asymmetries of capitalism from an old paradigm, the world of industrialism. Now, they said, the advanced economies are

experiencing the disorganization of labour unions, whose territorialities are being withered away. The economies tend towards a global climate where there are no boundaries or frontiers while the means of production have fragmented or faced more flexible ways. The "disorganization of capitalism" derived from the expansion of global trade, foreign investment and international finance whereas more disruptive forms of violence as terrorism have suddenly surfaced. This led very well to tourism promoters and policymakers to divide the world in two, wild and safe zones. In the post-Fordist era, there are serious problems to distinguish the objects (commodities) from the peoples (embodied as labor-power). They are commodities exchanged in the marketplace. This creates a faster circulation of object-subject that emptied the economy, transforming the products simply in signs. To put this in another way, the objects are gradually emptied of content in a decentralized economy that appeals to creativity and innovation as an ongoing form of progress. However, far from being a positive action, it affirms the exhaustion of natural resources or the predatory consumption of the environment. Capitalism is out of control while the process of reflexibility mediates between the citizens and the knowledge production. The signs not only keep a primary content, which is associated with the product but to the commoditization of goods. For example, when I mean coffee I imagine Colombia; I mean whisky and the image of Scotland come to my mind. The aesthetic of capitalism, and of course tourism, aims at gazing at what is different no matter their nature. In this stage, marketing as a discipline plays a crucial role in creating the needs and the product to meet such needs at the same time. We need to talk about a global sociology of flows which involves not only tourists or migrants but also landscapes, cultures, images, money, and of course information. Technological breakthrough has accelerated the times, blurring the distinction between space and time. Epistemologically speaking, the cognitive reflexibility that characterized the industrial life is replaced by an "esthetic reflexibility" which lacks any judgment. Instead, the cognitive reflexibility refers to the relation of object and subjects, whereas the aesthetic reflexibility places the self hermeneutically in egalitarian conditions with objects. We do not understand events out of the screens in which they are exhibited. In a nutshell, global tourism depicts a scenario never seen before when consumers are gazed or consumed as objects while they are touring (Lash and Urry, 1993). In the preface, the authors mean that the culture industries engender a vertical disintegration where the products are externally designed and introduced as an opportunity for further profits and businesses. In the media, which involves TV, films, and advertising industries, the aesthetic reflexibility turns both the production of images and their pertinent consumption. Finally, the state of exploitation accelerated by this new capitalism has created an underclass, which is not allowed the benefits of mobility and consumption. This underclass is immobilized, or at the least pressed to live in the peripheral wild zones. In consequence, global capitalism shows a dark side. While thousands of tourists and visitors are actively encouraged to travel throughout the globe enjoying exotic different destinations, the presence of the underclass in the (tourist) paradise is undesired (Lash and Urry, 1993).

As stated, John Urry was a trailblazer who contributed notably to the sociology of tourism. Undoubtedly, he illustrated the change of paradigm in a new type of capitalism, more dynamic but not less dangerous for the planet. Paradoxically, the same technology that facilitated the rise of tourism in former centuries now was widely used not only to domesticate the man, but also in producing virtual forms of consumptions (like virtual tourism). Although globalization was enthusiastically embraced by many of Urry's followers, he indeed feared that the acceleration of the economy of sign would be a direct aftermath of natural resources exhaustion. Then, his legacy should be resituated within the fields of ecology and sustainability. At the best, it is exactly what he reflects in his paper "The Complexity Turn", published at the journal *Theory, Culture and Society*. Urry acknowledges two important assumptions. On one hand, there is a turn that confronts directly with the established knowledge about nature, economy and agency which very well leads towards the need to change the social order. On another, the lack of causality in the epistemology of sciences impedes mankind to evaluate correctly the negative effects on environment or adopting all-encompassing models to struggle against "climate change" (Bulkeley, 2013; Korstanje, 2018). In this grim and apocalyptic scenario, we adopt creativity and innovation not to disappear.

Technology, creativity and tourism

If Urry was right, creativity is not part of the solution, but the problem. The same can be said about technology. In this section, we shall discuss critically the role of creativity and technology in the contexts of the postmodern city. Richard Florida in a seminal text, *The Creative Class,* talks of the emergence of a post-industrial class in the urban cities which adopted creativity as its tug of war. This class not only makes more open minds but also works for a multicultural world (Florida, 2004). In this vein, Florida continues the discussion left by T. Veblen about the *leisure class.* Florida toys with the idea that liberal education and ideals paved the ways for the rise of innovative entrepreneurs who comprises professionals, intellectuals and various types of artists who push for further economic shifts in the major US cities. This surfacing class, for him, evokes the needs of changing the traditional workplaces towards the horizons of a global economy. Cities should be benefited by the arrival of the creative class, but for this to happen, the hosting city must have the three T's: talent (emulated by the skills and gained knowledge in the population), tolerance (which respects the difference and the ethnic diversity), and technology (which signals to the necessary background to develop an entrepreneur culture) (Florida, 2006). In tourism fields, one of the authoritative voices in creative tourism is Greg Richards. To wit, he developed different interesting and well-integrating theoretical works where the concept not only was interrogated, but he coins the term "the paradox of creativity". The concept denotes that while creativity generates positive effects in local communities, narrowing hosts and guests and employing the amassed wealth to better the community; not surprisingly in the passing of years, this flexible and decentralized version of cultural tourism will inevitably

derive in standardized and saturated forms of (alienated) consumption (Richards and Raymond, 2000; Richard and Wilson, 2007; Richards, 2011a, 2011b).

To some extent, creativity helps overcoming those obstacles that prevent the progress and well-functioning of tourism (Borrelli and Kalalyil, 2011; Rogerson, 2013). The expertise of policymakers, adjoined to the synergic cooperation of all stakeholders, results in an accurate diagnosis that employs culture as an instrument of salvation, eradicating the negative effects of unsustainable tourism (Chang, Backman and Chih Huang, 2014; de Bruin and Jelincic, 2016). Those researchers interested in creativity tailored the theory to a particular case study, most of them documented in an underdeveloped economy or a saturated destination (Friedmann, 2018). In this way, creative tourism was amply accepted and adopted by many scholars in the fields of cultural tourism – above all in tourism management and marketing – in order to make destinations more resilient though no attention was given to Richard's paradox (Hall and Page, 2009; Tan, Luh and Kung, 2014; Saxena, 2016; Brouder, 2012).

As with the previous argument, Korstanje et al. (2016) unearths the original worries of Urry, which remained unheard by his adherents, dangling the possibilities that creativity and particularly creative tourism would be signs of exhaustion in a hyper-globalized economy that today is confronted with the sustainability of the planet. This begs some more pungent points which were not addressed by Richards – is creativity and technology the affirmation of the end of tourism as Urry initially lamented, or simply an efficient mechanism towards a better society?

Is the end of tourism possible?

As reviewed in the earlier sections, the same technology that accelerated the growth of tourism worldwide seems to be now recreating new forms of consumption that escape to the traditional mode of movements or travelling. Following Urry, this marks the end of tourism – at least as we know it.

In 1995 Urry coined the phrase "the end of tourism" to refer a rapid disorganization of capitalism, where the habits of leisure are changing. Lay-citizens do not need travelling for touring while the division of leisure and work is certainly blurred. In a seminal chapter incorporated in the book *Tourism and Mobilities: local-global connections,* Tim Gale (2008) interrogates on Urry's argument considering the virtualization of tourism as a simulated experience, which combines production with consumption at the same time. The proliferation of countless risks such as terrorism adjoined to the fact that destinations are gradually saturated leads toward the virtualization (end) of tourism as we know today. The technology is employed to reach destinations that otherwise would be inexpugnable. This inevitably dispossesses tourism from its original function and purpose. From its inception, as Gale observes, tourism is doomed to its final destruction. One thing is clear. The capitalist economy expanded to other non-western markets in the recent decades. This generated an inter-link with developed and underdeveloped nations as never before. Any change or crisis in some local economy has impacts in the rest of the

system affecting many other economies. This process of globalization, which was originally supported by the technological advances in the fields of mobilities (as Urry puts it) decelerated after the stock market crisis happened in 2008. It is not surprising that the financial crisis, as well as the rise of new risks as terrorism that mainly targets main tourist destinations and European cities, helped in the development of virtual tourism as the safest way of touring, the specialized literature agrees (Smeral, 2010; Papatheodorou, Rosselló and Xiao, 2010).

As the previous argument provides, tourism mutated towards new morbid forms, which were already enumerated as Dark Tourism, Mourning Tourism, Post Disaster Tourism and so forth. Capitalism is not correcting the glitches, or the asymmetries that lead towards the problems but commoditizing the aftermaths as a form of entertainment. This ranges from global warming to poverty. Visitors are in quest of new sensations and experiences to affirm their own ego. These new segments of tourists reveal two important assumptions. At a first glimpse, social maladies as poverty, war or mass death were not eradicated. The system failed to perform a fairer distribution of wealth, in which case many citizens – in the underdeveloped economies – were forced to live in miserable conditions. What is more important, these undeveloped economies appeal to foster tourism as a form of poverty relief. Slum tourism, to set an example, shows the resilient capacity of slum-dwellers, as well as the role of tourism, to overcome their living conditions. However, since poverty is the main commodity to exchange, as F. Medeiros puts it, it is very hard to think that slum tourism generates social upward mobility. Slum-dwellers are exploited and commoditized in order to be gazed by foreign tourists, though they take certain advantages from the commercial exchange (Freire Medeiros, 2014). This exactly denotes a paradox revolving these types of demands. Secondly, there is a new tendency oriented to gaze "the Other's pain" to affirm the own status and mainstream cultural values. Those tourists, who visit spaces of destruction or mass death, need not only confirm their own status, but renovate the liaison to their respective states. The problem is that since the real causes of disaster remain, the possibilities the same disaster happens again are high (Korstanje, 2016). Doubtless, the classic patterns of consumption in holidays which consisted in visiting exotic beaches and sunbathing set the pace to new (morbid) expressions. This seems to be the peak of the iceberg, and not as Urry said, the end of tourism. To some extent, Urry was correct in deciphering the evolution of an aesthetic reflexibility as a force that obscures the causality between the event and its causes. In the *aesthetic reflexibility* there is no causality and one event is replaced by a new one. As a result of this, people are receiving more information but they have problems understanding it. He brilliantly realized how not only even disasters or risks would be commoditized as spectacles, but the capitalist system would turn towards more depersonalized forms of relationships and lifestyles. The rapid and inevitable exhaustion of resources, adjoined to the climate crisis, moves the economy towards the imposition of sign as the main regulator in the commodity-exchange. Far from being good, as Urry alerts, the figure behind the *economies of sign* reminds the impossibilities of capitalism to grant a sustainable planet. Though Urry is correct in his diagnosis,

most probably he put the cart before the horse when he refers to "*the end of tourism*". As a rite of passage, tourism recycles and takes different shapes depending on the cultural background. The cultural values of society are expressed through tourism. As Krippendorf (2010) observed, tourism – like technology – is not bad or good; it revitalizes the day-to-day frustrations to achieve social cohesion. In consequence, though the end of tourism would be a utopia, it remains interesting to discuss its epistemological changes in the years to come. What will be the role of creativity and technology in this process?

Although Urry never gave a clear diagnosis to respond to this question with accuracy, he dangles that creativity is the direct result of the chaotic (decentralized) form of production, which resulted once the *aesthetic reflexibility* arrived. We are more creative (or smarter) once our natural resources are being depleted. In competence with others, we need to optimize the time and efforts to achieve the goal. This does not mean that creativity and technology is leading to the climate crisis, but just the opposite. When the cultural values of capitalism (as interests and profits) are not limited, we exhaust our resources and need to appeal to creativity to survive. This metaphor bodes well in what American sociologist Richard Sennett dubbed as "the corrosion of character". He acknowledged that a new decentralized capitalism is shaping not only labour relations but the nature of labour itself. In today's capitalism people are offered to accept more flexible working rules such as fewer working hours, flexible or home-working and so forth, but beyond these changes, the workers are systematically exploited by the capital-owners. At the same time, workers are pressed to manage their own potentialities and skills to deal with external risks. The state is not the protector of workforce nor the regulator of working relations anymore. At the bottom, we are going through an international labour crisis as one of the greatest current security threats for business. While the workers competition increases, workers are unable to interrogate the ruling elite. Sennett is rightly asserting that innovation should be seen as a disruptive force that recreates the autonomy of the agency ensuring more benefits, knowledge and freedom, which is used to compete with others while the rules of the game are never altered. This does not mean that creativity is in fact an ideological instrument of control but unless the values of this solipsist culture are placed upside down, the figure of creativity is the immediate consequence (not the cure) of a depersonalized rationale (Sennett, 1998). Last but not least, Korstanje coined the term "*Thana Capitalism*" to denote a new facet of capitalism where the morbid drive for gazing the Others' suffering and social Darwinism ideologically prevailed (Korstanje, 2016).

Scaling up framework and revival of the hospitality and tourism industry

Ensuring the long-term sustainable development of destinations is one of the key roles of Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs). To ensure this, DMOs adopt offline (brochures, trade shows, market research, product development, etc.)

and online (presence on social media platforms, e-marketing and mobile marketing, etc.) strategies (Gowreesunkar, Séraphin and Morrison, 2018).

Starting with online strategies, research provides evidence that social media marketing helps to engage with consumers; enhances customer equity (Kim and Ko, 2012); offers additional promotion opportunities (Stankov, Lazic and Dragicevic, 2010); helps to popularise brands (De Vries, Gensler and Leeflang, 2012); and provides organisations an opportunity to collect data on customers' feedback. As for Visual Online Learning Material (VOLM), they can contribute to educating visitors particularly in the case of destinations with negative images (Seraphin, Butcher and Korstanje, 2016). Offline strategies used to promote and communicate the narrative of destinations and tourism organizations rely very often on the design of logos (Gali, Camprubi and Donaire, 2016). Online and offline strategies are used to promote destinations' built, natural and cultural heritage (Brown and Cave, 2010; Cisneros-Martinez and Fernandez-Morales, 2015). Heritage is often used in destinations' branding strategies (Seraphin et al., 2018). Online and offline strategies are also used to promote events (Hartman and Zandberg, 2015).

The listed marketing strategies are considered as explicit and sometimes aggressive marketing strategies. "Explicit and aggressive marketing strategies have proven to be ineffective" (Alvarez and Campo, 2014; Seddighi, Nuttall and Theocharous, 2001 cited in Seraphin, Butcher and Korstanje, 2016: 2). Equally important, subtle strategies have proven to be more effective (Seraphin, Butcher and Korstanje, 2016).

In this chapter, we are therefore suggesting a subtle management approach of the image of destinations, based on the ambidextrous management of tourism organizations that can have a significant impact on the overall tourism industry of a destination. This leads to the need to develop business models.

The purpose of business models is to inform the tourism sector on ways the industry is operating and how to innovate and change current business practices for the benefit of the industry by addressing existing challenges (Reinhold, Zach and Krizaj, 2017). A more formal definition was also provided by Zott and Amit (2010 cited in Reinhold, Zach and Krizaj, 2017:463): "A business model is an interdependent system of activities that explains how an individual or collective actor creates and captures value". Finally, a business model is also about co-creation, accommodating new business practices and changing consumer behaviour (Reinhold, Zach and Krizaj, 2017).

Reinhold, Zach and Krizaj (2017) also explained that to develop a model, three elements are important: (a) Focusing on the interdependent system of activities; in other words, identifying the actors involved in the system, the links between them, how they engage with one another, the objective they are pursuing, and the value created by (b) including individual and collective actors. They key focus is on how the different actors can develop their business model by means of conceptual transfer and analogical reasoning (c) creating and capturing value. This is the core of business model research which focuses on the benefits for all parties involved. The challenge for the 21st century is therefore to develop the most suitable model for the tourism industry.

Conclusion

Innovation can save the tourism industry. Indeed, innovation is all about introducing new concepts that would meet the needs of existing and new customers. Innovation is presented as a beneficial strategy for organizations as it contributes to stimulate increased spending and growth but requires a capacity of adaptation. Changes linked to innovations are either incremental or radical. Radical innovation is all about introducing new ideas that disrupt existing practices. Radical innovations "prefer to focus on why customers make certain purchases and, equally important, why non-customers do not" (Brooker and Joppe, 2014:502). Innovation can be achieved through ambidextrous management or organizational ambidexterity.

Ambidexterity calls for a balance between exploration and exploitation. Indeed, organizations deeply anchored onto exploration suffer the costs of experimentation (R&D) with, sometimes, limited benefits. Organizations anchored onto exploitation, on the other hand, do not move forward and remain in a "status-quo" in terms of performance. Organizations who manage to find a balance between exploitation and exploration are likely to be prosperous (Nieto-Rodriguez, 2014 [Online]). The same can be said about mastering a balance between adaptability (in other words the ability of the organization to innovate to adapt changes in the market) and alignment (daily management of operations). This approach is about balancing exploitation of existing resources and competencies with a focus on the present, and exploring new opportunities with a focus on the future (Mihalache and Mihalache, 2016). Despite the challenges of achieving ambidexterity because exploitation and exploration innovation are contradictory activities, Mihalache and Mihalache (2016:144), taking the example of the tourism industry (main service industry), explain that "organisational ambidexterity is a key driver of sustained performance in the tourism industry, since it enables firms to make the most of their current capabilities while at the same time developing new ones to attract new customers".

Future research should look at developing suitable and innovative models for the 21st century hospitality and tourism industry using the Reinhold, Zach and Krizaj (2017) model.

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4

UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF HERITAGE TOURIST EXPERIENCE

A netnographic research in Italy

Massimiliano Matteo Pellegrini, Giacomo Marzi, Lamberto Zollo and Vanessa Ratten

Introduction

This work investigates the concept of cultural heritage through the visitor's perception of a tourist experience and in relation to this, how small entrepreneurs of the tourism industry can leverage such a value. We studied heritage in its intangible elements, examining the reports of an *online community* by means of qualitative analysis.

Firstly, after introducing the concept of the heritage tourist experience, we will focus on its intangible components. Very often the cultural and historical heritage of a place is applied only to material elements such as monuments, museums and landscapes, thus ignoring the importance of its intangible components, which are always present and as much relevant (UNESCO, 1972; Greffe, 2004; De Varine, 2005; Faro Convention, 2005; Vecco, 2010). In particular, the authors pinpoint the intangible elements of the cultural heritage of a specific place that visitors perceive as most significant, analysing the emotional relationship established between them and the tourist.

Since the eighties, holidays are no longer considered just as a mere moment of recreation and rest, but as an opportunity to go through new and authentic experiences connected to the discovery of innovative culinary products, sites linked to important historical events, or customs and traditions of still unknown territories (Sims, 2009). For the heritage tourist, both tangible and intangible local resources are true attractions, interpretable as real motivational factors (Rispoli, 2001). Given the experiential dimension of tourism in general, it becomes crucial for local marketing managers to analyse emotions, feelings and motivations connected to the experiences undergone during the holiday. For these reasons, the research was carried out according to qualitative methods, which were considered more appropriate for the investigation of this phenomenon (Casarin, 2005; Prayag and Ryan, 2011).

In this research the netnographic method developed by Kozinets (2002, 2006) was employed in order to carry out marketing qualitative researches. This method, starting from a solid ethnographic methodological basis, was then readjusted so that the information found in web forums, blogs and online communities could be used for the study of the sentimental relationship built between the consumer and specific products or services. In this work, the authors apply this method to the analysis of the tourist experience, particularly to analyse the concept of heritage through reports freely shared *online* by the beneficiaries of this experience. To this purpose, travel journals concerning four Italian cities (Florence, Naples, Rome and Venice) were compared to each other. The research has shown to which extent *heritage* intangible elements are present in the analysed reports, assessing the major role they cover in the motivational process and in the satisfaction of the tourist. In particular, it was shown that some elements have a greater intensity than others, being capable of determining the satisfaction of the entire tourist experience as well as covering a key role in the desire of living that experience again.

Heritage and tourism as a subject of research

According to the definition given in the *Cambridge Dictionary*, the term heritage is related to "those characteristics belonging to a particular society, such as traditions, languages, or buildings, coming from the past but still determinant nowadays" (Merchant and Rose, 2013:2620). According to Prentice (1993), heritage is classified in respect of the type of attraction it offers, thus conceptualizing its possible subdivision into: (1) natural heritage (Butler and Boyd, 2000); (2) cultural heritage, both immaterial (Butler and Hinch, 1996) and material (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 1999); (3) industrial heritage, regarding the actors of a place that have contributed to its economic development in the past (Graham, 2002); (4) aspects of a place that have a relevant meaning for an individual or for a group of individuals (Lennon and Foley, 1999).

With specific reference to the touristic industry, since the eighties a new type of tourism called heritage tourism (Prentice, 1993) has started to develop. Many authors have addressed several aspects of this phenomenon, from problems concerning the management of heritage sites (Garrod and Fyall, 2000), related marketing activities (Bennet, 1997), destination selection processes (Swarbrooke, 1994), the characteristics of this new type of "heritage tourist" (Richards, 1996), and the dimension of heritage possessed by a particular location (Poria, Butler and Airey, 2003).

For the purpose of this study, it is important to delineate different types of heritage tourism (Gilli, 2009). In the literature two main approaches to define this phenomenon emerged; the first deals with the "objective" dimension of the visit, e.g. a specific destination, monument, historical site etc., considering it as a discriminating factor for defining a touristic experience. Thus, attention is focused on the characteristics that such a touristic "target" should possess (Poria, Butler and Airey, 2003). Contrarily, the second approach concerns a "psychological" dimension, based on

motivations and attitudes that drive an individual to visit certain places (Poria, Butler and Airey, 2003). Although motivations are fundamental elements for any form of tourism, in the case of a heritage tourist they are of even greater importance Urry (1995:119); the term "tourist's gaze" indicates a set of subjective dispositions shown by a person toward a given destination. A relationship between the tourist and the visited place is therefore built by increasing elements such as nostalgia, sense of belonging, identification and search of an identity (Wang, 1999).

In this work we use a psycho-anthropological approach that considers the heritage tourist's experience with respect to the journey; this is not only characterized by visual experiences concerning historical buildings, areas and landscape (Laws, 1998), but also rather aiming at discovering peculiar lifestyles, values, traditions and traditional events connected to a place's cultural heritage (Richards, 1996).

According to Gilli (2009) the heritage tourist experience is based on three essential elements: (1) the subject, (2) the interpretation process and (3) the process of active acceptance. The first element indicates the attraction of heritage tourism for a tangible or intangible object that entails the memory of a past, though not referring to a recent past in the temporal sense, but rather in the cognitive sense, triggering a relationship between the object and the visitor (Urry, 1995). The second element refers to the relationship between the object and the visitor, i.e. the process by which the object of the visit conveys its meanings, creating a relationship between the visitor and the visited object (Fyall, 2008). The process of interpretation must therefore be examined in a multidimensional perspective, not only restricted to the transmission of information, but also considered in an educational perspective, emphasizing the relationship between the object and the present world (Tilden, 1977). An interpretation of the touristic experience cannot be regarded as a purely intellectual operation, given its sentimental and emotional implications (Gilli, 2009). In order to experience a heritage, it is not enough that the visitor is "physically" on site, but a participative attitude in the building of a relationship with the object is required, i.e. the tourist must seek an emotional involvement rather than only a staring occasion. Finally, the third element is the acceptance connected to the implicit concept of inheritance hinted at by the word heritage, i.e., a sense of receiving. This process can be studied at three levels (Gellner, 1983): (1) a cognitive level, in which the individual recognizes her/his own role as heir in regard to a particular symbolic object; (2) an affective level, which includes the feeling and desire for identification; (3) a conative level, which directs the individual's behaviours and consequently this is the actual level of her/his participation.

Thus, the essence of the experience for heritage visitors/tourists is the full immersion in a place/site, with emotional and cognitive features which promote the role of the subject as participant and active user (Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello, 2009).

For these reasons, it appears that the heritage tourist differs from the "traditional" one not only for her/his desire to seek and revive the heritage during the holiday, but especially for her/his need to live a multisensory experience, involving visual sensations, sounds, local customs and traditions (Hall and Zeppel, 1990).

Currently, the tourism industry observed a growing demand of typical environments capable of transmitting the history of the place, thus enhancing its traditions, habits, customs and culture. More and more, places where events are hosted, such as wine and food festivals or historical re-enactments, are turned into touristic destinations. This is probably due to an easiness of real-life, social and communicative relationships that strengthen the bonds and the sense of community (Hughes, 1992; Warde and Martens, 2000).

A narrative approach for the heritage tourist experience

The heritage context considers cognitive and affective components as essential variables (Rust and Zahorik, 1993; Boss, 1999; Giese and Cote, 2000; Szymanski and Henard, 2001; Chi and Qu, 2008; Wong and Dioko, 2013; Bansal and Taylor, 2015). The experience of the heritage tourist can hardly be assessed by exclusively quantitative instruments, making it necessary to resort to qualitative techniques in primary or supplementary ways, such as the mixed method approach (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989).

Recalling the perspective of the Consumer Culture Theory (Arnould and Thompson, 2005) and tribalism (Maffesoli, 2004), the focus is shifting more and more on the micro-social context by integrating approaches deriving from anthropology and ethnology (Cova, 2003). These new methods differ from methodologies solely based on questionnaires, classical interviews or focus groups. Following this perspective, an incisive ethnography of consumption should be based on participatory observation as well as on the respect of the interpretative models of the local and personal culture of the consumer (Sherry, 1995). Therefore, the introspective narration produced by the consumer in the form of comments, stories, interviews, journals and videos becomes fundamental. This new narrator role played by the consumer is stimulated by the increasing presence of "self-reflective" individuals, whose insight allows them to tell their stories and explain their actions, thoughts and motivations by the means of words (Cova, 2008). The post-modern ethnography model is therefore based on the use of introspective narration also known as "big stories". These narratives are intended as life narrations and autobiographical accounts to describe the subjective and inner or collective dimension of the experience of consumption of goods and services (Georgakopolou, 2006). Thus such stories, verbal or not, regarding a lived experience, are keys to get access to the inner sphere of an individual.

The choice of an ethnographic method is also justified for two other orders of reason: an experience, as already expressed, is mainly related to feelings and emotions of a great intensity, fact that distinguishes the tourist experience from a normal daily one; the second concern relates to operations of reworking, rethinking, and framing of what happened into a narration (Carù and Cova, 2008). Accordingly, experiences communicated, explained and shared, through the creation of a narrative, move from one's own inner sphere to the outside world. A further important aspect is the management of temporality. The story involves a linguistic representation in which events, objects, actors and moods are placed in relation

along a time path that requires the distinction between "before" and "after" (Poggi, 2004). In addition to this, a narration involves actions such as the identification and the selection of aspects that turn out to be more meaningful and relevant to the experience itself. Through the identification and selection of experienced events, the narrator manages to convey a sense of reality and simultaneously s/he outlines a logical/emotional order. Through this process, a perceptual and emotional sense can be assigned to experience, because narrated events need and refer to a logical structure of reality that is congruent to the interpretation of the teller (Longo, 2006). Thus, the narration also becomes relevant from a sociological point of view since it can "relate" the individual to the social structure (Jedlowski, 2000), connecting the inner sphere of the teller to the story/experience.

In tourist experiences, narration is at the central stage (McCabe and Foster, 2006). Touristic narration develops a sense of belonging (Bird, 2002), emphasizing its contents. Through it, the individual is able to transmit his own interpretation of what s/he saw and experienced, but at the same time s/he selects the most salient elements of the experiences, thus creating a symbolic construct that forms the heritage tourist experience (McCabe and Stokoe, 2004; McCabe and Foster, 2006; Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier, 2007; Young, 1999).

Several scholars (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Poria, Butler and Airey, 2003; Yoon and Uysal, 2005) stress the awareness of the traveller as the trigger of the experiential process of heritage tourism, reflecting the sensitivity of the subject and her/his motivation to visit a particular place rather than others and this also determines the level of participation and enjoyment of the visiting experience (Solomon, Bamossy and Askegaard, 1999; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Moreover, awareness affects the capacity of perception of the tourist with regards to the heritage of the place. This is because such awareness increases the ability to frame the real level of heritage of a site, a factor that in turn implies a behavioural intention to visit and revisit the site, as well as the interest in visiting similar sites (Clements and Josiam, 1995; Swarbrooke, 1996; Josiam, Smeaton and Clements, 1999; Poria, Butler and Airey, 2003).

In this research, we decided to study the heritage tourist experience in four different Italian cities and what intangible components of it emerge and which are most attractive for visitors. In particular, the aim is to uncover elements of the intangible cultural heritage, which are best perceived and remembered during the experience. To this end we will analyse the narrations that visitors share freely and publicly on the web. Since this issue has already been analysed by several studies, mainly through surveys (Yang and Cen, 2011; Chung and Petrick, 2013), it was decided to use the netnographic method. This choice is appropriate for examining this kind of experience for which conventional evaluation methods such as questionnaires turn out to be inadequate to understand the relationship established between the visitor and the visited object (Casarin, 2005; Kelly & Thrift, 2009; Chandralal, Rindfleish and Valenzuela, 2015). To operate a fully ethnographic research, the language used by the tourist should be the unit of analysis (Gobo, 2001), carrying out semi-structured interviews or resorting to the narrative directly produced by individuals (Longo, 2006).

We opted to examine stories written by travellers, containing tourists' recounts of the most intense moments and sensations experienced during the holiday. Nowadays, thanks to the web and in particular to social media, accessing narrations of individuals is much easier and cheaper than before. Online communities represent new places where research can be carried out (Kozinets, 2002) and the netnography is able to process an enormous set of information contained in the narrations produced and published online by travellers to uncover relationships between the visited object and the elements of the personal experience of the tourist (Tilden, 1977).

Method

The first phase of a netnografic approach consists in data extraction. We performed a web search on Italian blogs, forums and websites, where journeys are the main theme. Further we privileged those presenting complex narrative structures, thus with richer contents to be analysed. The final choice was directed to the blog "Diari di viaggio" (*Travelogues*) on the website http://turistipercaso.it, as it presented the most comprehensive collection of narrations on travel experience in Italian cities. This blog is characterized by extensive narrations, written with an intimate and introspective style, useful to reveal the feelings and emotions of travellers. Unlike the forum on the same website, the blog section is more flexible with a greater freedom of expression, which encourages users to elaborate on the experience and events of the holidays with a more reflective and personal perspective. Moreover, this virtual space can be interpreted as a virtual community where each user is a traveller and lived such an experience, thereby increasing the accuracy and relevance of the reported information (Ranfagni, Guercini and Crawford Camiciottoli, 2014). Indeed, also from a quantitative perspective, this website seems appropriate given its high rank in search engines, high numbers of visits and the presence of more than 27,000 travel diaries regarding cities all around the world.

After choosing the website, we also targeted four Italian cities, with the aim of identifying the factors of cultural heritage that could better explain differences and similarities between examined cities. The choice fell on Florence, Naples, Rome and Venice. This decision was justified by the fact that these four cities are characterized by a significant artistic, historical and material heritage. Furthermore, these are the cities with the highest number of stories, allowing to perform a research with a significant data sample.

We decided to employ a total amount of 216 travelogues distributed among the four cities, which has been extracted and transcribed. Although the website managers perform a primary quality control on the published travelogues, eliminating those not relevant nor focusing on travel experiences, we paid particular attention to the quality of the travelogues, excluding those that were not suitable for the purposes of the research or those not rich enough. The following table (Table 4.1) illustrates the characteristics of the research sample; the number of pages has been calculated with line spacing 1.5 and font size 12.

The second phase, data coding, was initially carried out manually in order to perform a basic exploration of the data, and then move onto *Nvivo* software for

TABLE 4.1 Analysed sample

City	Total number of travelogues		Total number of words		Total number of pages	
Florence	56	25,93%	74.289	24,72%	161	23,40%
Naples	49	22,69%	81.897	27,25%	199	28,92%
Rome	51	23,61%	78.456	26,11%	171	24,85%
Venice	60	27,78%	65.852	21,91%	157	22,82%
TOTAL	216	100%	300.494	100%	688	100%

Source: Our elaboration.

an accurate coding analysis (Saldaña, 2012). This software is specifically designed to assist the researcher in qualitative analyses, facilitating the management of large masses of data both for reading and querying. Practically, data analysis touched two aspects: (1) the identification of heritage intangible factors that occur more frequently in the dataset, using a checklist; and (2) the identification of emotional references in respect of the visited place that emerged spontaneously from the stories. For the coding analysis, it is important to stress the results obtained. First a set of elements generally called categories represent conceptual issues/objects to classify a text, while the quotes (or codes) – portions of text that are expressions of the categories – are used to form homogeneous groups of recursive concepts in all the travelogues (Neuendorf, 2002).

Subsequently, in the third phase, two of the authors who were not involved in the process of classification and codification, independently verified the goodness of the classifications conducted. This step was able to verify the internal and external reliability of the coding process. A random sample of quotations and categories were selected and presented to independent authors. The authors independently linked them together to simulate the early stages of the work, but without carrying out a further codification. This step was necessary to ensure greater accuracy and an impartial data analysis process as suggested by the most recent literature on this subject (Kozinets, 2015).

Finally, in the fourth phase, always referring to the literature on the ethnographic method (Altheide, 1987; Worthington and Whittaker, 2006), textual analysis (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008) and the netnographic method (Kozinets, 2015), the authors have rounded up to assess if other macro-categories might emerge from the *grounded* analysis, performing the task of verifying the saturation of concepts.

Findings

The objective dimension of the touristic experience

The initial step was to define heritage-intangible categories so related quotations could be identified in the travelogues. For the creation of these categories we used a descending approach (or closed checklist approach), which implies that categories

are defined in advance, regardless of the structure of the text. In this case we employed the widely accepted classification proposed by Kelly and Thrift (2009), who classifies the cultural heritage in built, natural and living. Since our goal is to identify intangible heritage factors, we discarded the built and natural variables and focused our attention on the variables of the macro-category "living heritage" that refers to the heritage that is socially embedded in the place visited. Once categories were defined, the real analysis and encoding began. During this process stories were manually analysed line by line. After identifying the portions of text referring to the elements of the living heritage, those were then linked to categories. In the following paragraph we describe categories together with some examples of associated quotations (see Table 4.4).

The "craftmanship" category refers to all the typical economic activities of artisan nature that are history-imbued. The "songs and typical local music" category identifies particular musical traditions of a place or of a community that embody its history and customs. The "local community" category refers to all aspects of the daily life that distinguishes a place. "Festivals, typical local events, religious events" refer to recurring events such as festivals and local celebrations that become typical when they are fuelled by the local community. "Typical local language" pertains to languages and dialects of a given local community. The "typical markets and shops" category refers instead to those local commercial activities not directly related to artisanal production. Finally, the last category, "local wine and food traditions" includes the entirety of gourmet products and food-related events that characterize the culinary tradition of a given area. Table 4.2 indicates the different categories and examples of quotations linked to them.

Table 4.3 summarizes quantitative information identified during the encoding of the travelogues about quotations from the previously mentioned categories. The first value, in brackets, refers to the number of travelogues in which quotations related to a specific category have been identified. The second number instead indicates the number of identified quotations. Finally, the percentage shows the "relative weight" of each category (number of quotations related to the specific categories on the overall number of identified quotations). Analysing further this information, the category of food and wine traditions has the highest number of quotations in all three cities.

The stories concerning the visits to the city of Venice have the highest values in the categories of craftsmanship and festivals and typical local events. This high value of the craftsmanship category in Venice may be justified by a thriving industry related to craftsmanship productions, e.g. the laces of Burano or the hand-blown glass of Murano. As for the festival and local events category, Venice can boast a worldwide-known event: the Carnival of Venice. Florence has the highest number of quotations concerning typical markets and shops. Rome displays high values with regards to the interaction with the local community; it also has high levels of quotations about religious events, due to the presence of the Vatican State. Naples offers a larger number of quotations in the categories relating to language, local community and food and wine traditions. Finally, the values concerning the music and songs category are generally very low; slightly higher values are recorded in Naples.

TABLE 4.2 Coding analysis for the objective dimension: categories and quotations referred to heritage intangible elements

Category	Quotations
Craftsmanship	"We really dunked into an unknown Florence by appreciating the various scents of soaps of an old pharmacy, tea flavours, masks and handcrafted objects, smells and tastes. We really had the feeling of living in a different reality!" [Florence]
	"Obviously you cannot refuse to visit any of the many shops, feel the smells, hear the sounds, observe unique items. All your senses are involved in this magic". [Naples]
	"The demonstration really leaves everyone breathless, glass craftsmen manage to create their work handling for some instants heated glass balls, then leaving them in the oven and transforming them into objects that we all know well! It's wonderful, a really unique experience!" [Venice]
Songs and typical local music	"In Venice, in the calmness of its alleys, the silent furrow of Gondolas interrupted from time to time by the bells of some church, by the orchestras of St. Marco Square and by the street artists, all of this bring us into a distant mysterious world, almost magic and dreamlike".
Local community	"Yet it has its own charm and it must be visited at least once in a lifetime. For the pleasure of getting lost in its narrow alleys and then find a person willing to help you to find your way". [Naples]
	"It has much more to offer, it has its people, it has the majesty and the wonder that you can feel while walking and speaking with strangers as if they were your friends". [Naples]
	"It was exactly how we expected it to be: congested and crowded alleys full of noisy people, elegant buildings, chaotic traffic, horns used without economy". [Rome]
Festival, typical local events, religious events	"From the first steps we immediately notice that the atmosphere is different, masked people coming out from everywhere, those who choose their own animal (lions, tigers, crocodiles, wolves), those who choose the mask of some Venetian Lord of the 18th century, and those who decide to play the barbarians. In Venice, also the rowers are masked! There really is the desire to have fun and forget about the problems of this crisis for just one day". [Venice]
	"Around the Basilica you can find banquets of sweets, toys for children and candles, that are lighted all day long by believers in the churches, the *Candelèta de la Madona Benedeta* (edit: *the candle-light event for the Holy Virgin*). Despite the strangers, this is a truly Venetian festival and deserves to be experienced at least once!" [Venice]
	"An emotional pause even for a non-Catholic like me: this is the place where you can regularly see the warmth and the brotherhood of the people of this city, that reunite with great charm during the ceremony of the Holy Blood liquefaction". [Naples]
	"So in Venice you can really say that there is a continuous feast!!! No coincidence that the artists from all around the world come to this city for inspiration". [Venice]

(Continued)

TABLE 4.2 Continued

Category	Quotations
Typical local language	"to make it a pleasant evening there were also the waiters and Bobo (edit: *the owner*) himself with their jokes in Tuscan dialect, who took the mick out of us but always within the limits of amusement, especially if you have sense of humour". [Florence] "It's very strange to see Venice at this hour of the day, you can finally hear people speaking in dialect". [Venice] "The Neapolitan atmosphere surrounds us, with sounds, colours, flavours" [Naples]
Typical markets and shops	"the streets of the city centre are very typical, with their fruit shops (cedars were incredible!) and obviously *limoncello* (edit: *traditional liquor obtained from lemons*) of all types, it seems to have stepped back in time!" [Naples] "In the centre, in addition to stalls and local markets, there are shops of all kinds and for all needs, like the boutiques of major Italian brands such as Patrizia Pepe, Armani, Prada, Coveri or Dolce&Gabbana. You can find shoes and leather goods boutiques like Ferragamo but also antiques, books, food and wine. So, nothing's missing". [Florence]
Local wine and food traditions	"Florence has an incredible variety of taverns and typical restaurants of all kinds and for all budgets". [Florence] "There are so many *Bacari* (edit: *traditional taverns*) where Venetians stop especially at lunch and where you can taste the *cicchetti*, that is to say having small portions of polenta, fish, fried vegetables, creamed cod, sardines in sauce and many other delicacies, together with a glass of Venetian wine". [Venice] "One thing that we immediately want to point out about Naples is its sweets: the *pastiera*, the *sfogliatella*, but especially the *Babà* that we discover with amazement to be really tasty". [Naples]

Source: Our elaboration.

The psychological dimension of the touristic experience

Whereas in the previous data analysis we used a closed checklist to define categories for cataloguing purposes, such a decision seemed not proper for a more complex analysis focused on psychological and attitude elements.

In this third phase of research, we did not follow a "descending" approach again for the definition of macro-categories concerning the evaluation of the experience lived by the visitor; instead we employed an "ascending" approach (without checklist) of *grounded* type (Charmaz, 2014). In line with this, categories are not defined *a priori*, but they are identified and defined during the process of encoding of the text, according to the information that emerged during its analysis. The authors decided on this approach as the literature on ethnographic methodology (Altheide, 1987; Worthington and Whittaker, 2006; Timmermans and Tavory, 2007; Charmaz, 2014) and netnographic methodology (Kozinets, 1998, 2002, 2006,

TABLE 4.3 Identified quotations about the elements of intangible *heritage* found in literature

Category	Number of identified quotations											
	Florence			Naples			Rome			Venice		
Craftmanship	(6)	7	6,31%	(13)	15	7,21%	(5)	6	4,20%	(18)	22	15,38%
Local community	(4)	4	3,60%	(27)	56	26,92%	(20)	31	21,68%	(13)	16	11,19%
Festival, typical events	(2)	2	1,80%	(6)	6	2,88%	(15)	24	16,78%	(12)	23	16,08%
Typical language	(3)	4	3,60%	(7)	10	4,81%	(3)	5	3,50%	(5)	6	4,20%
Typical markets and shops	(15)	20	18,02%	(13)	14	6,73%	(14)	18	12,59%	(8)	10	6,99%
Songs and typical music	(1)	2	1,80%	(4)	6	2,88%	(4)	5	3,50%	(2)	3	2,10%
Wine and food traditions	(37)	72	64,86%	(42)	101	48,56%	(35)	65	45,45%	(33)	63	44,06%
TOTAL	(68)	111	100%	(112)	208	100%	(96)	154	100%	(91)	143	100%

Source: Our elaboration.

2015) recommends letting data emerge naturally from the textual context without using checklists that could influence the discovery of elements that are already naturally embedded in context (Charmaz and Mitchell, 2001).

Furthermore, such an exploratory approach is proper for several aspects: (1) the ethnographic method, specifically netnographic in this research, is not just a tool of analysis of "aseptic" frequencies or correlations; rather it is an interpretative approach to a context. After having validated the variables already present in the literature, we decided to disregard the use of closed checklists in accordance with the previously mentioned literature; (2) the fact that the literature on our specific topic is not sufficiently vast nor specific enough to allow a precise use as a set of pre-established variables; our interpretative results confirmed the goodness of this choice; and (3) psychological aspects that influence the selection of a destination are a personal and inner expression of the traveller, possible with an infinite number of patterns (Ulusoy, 2015); therefore we considered to be a limitation the use of closed checklists for this inquiry, as a matter of fact preventing emergent patterns to be fully analysed (Angrosino, 2007). Table 4.4 highlights the main categories emerged from the process, along with examples of associated quotations.

TABLE 4.4 Coding analysis for the psychological dimension: macro-categories and quotations referring to the experience

Macro-categories	Quotations
References to the uniqueness of the visited city	"It is something more than discovering the usual Italian art city. Florence charms and fascinates with the splendour of its squares, with the magnificence of its museums, with the romance of the walks along the Arno river with its beautiful Ponte Vecchio".
	"It conveys a pleasant sensation, and after waiting many years to visit it, I understand now the saying 'see Naples and die'. It is true: to see and to appreciate its authenticity makes you just think that you can't find a place like that elsewhere in the world".
	"Venice is beautiful because it is different from all other cities. To make a small and almost insignificant example: when you ask for directions, people don't tell you the corner, but the bridge to be taken. It really is a special reality that catches you and never lets you go".
Desire, intention to return	"We vowed to return, because Florence needs to be enjoyed bit by bit".
	"and so we promise ourselves that next time our tour will start again from here . . ."
	"Goodbye Venice, see you soon magic city!"
	"Hopefully we will be able to come back and enjoy again the same pleasant atmospheres we experienced".
Sensation of reliving the past	"A dip into the Neapolitan culture and at the same time a journey back in time, among family-run pastry shops, unforgettable *sfogliatelle* and *babà* [edit: *traditional fresh bakery products*], and fish shops where you can see eels and *capitoni* [edit: *large eels*] splashing around small tanks".

Source: Our elaboration.

The three identified categories do not relate so much to specific physical objects or material entities, but rather to feelings, impressions and psychological elements that are naturally associated with an experience. Obviously, the identified components include both positive and negative judgments about the recounted experience and this proves the goodness of the approach, allowing for a greater level of "authenticity" in reconstructing the experiences (Hosany, 2012). Looking at the quotation the emotional connection of the teller with the recounted experience is evident, and considering that these travelogues have been written *ex post* they should report only feelings and events of a greater intensity.

Data inserted in Table 4.6 are those that emerged from the encoding process concerning the quotes in which the visitor-narrator expresses her/his sentimental and affective considerations in regards to the place. The table reports the same information of the previous data analysis (Table 4.3), i.e. the number of travelogues related to a specific category, the number of identified quotations, and the "relative weight" of each category. For a better explanation of the percentages, a graphic representation (Figure 4.1) has been also presented, and Table 4.5 shows the cumulative number of travelogues and quotations divided into macro-categories (regardless of the city to which they referred).

According to their values, Naples and Rome are perceived as the cities that most involve the visitor from a sentimental point of view. This grounded analysis has highlighted that the most recurring immaterial heritage element in the travelogues is the desire and the intention to return to visit the city. The detection of this element shows that in heritage tourism a positive tourist experience seems to be linked to the desire and the intention to return to the place. Other researches in the tourism field (Beerli and Martin, 2004; Qu, Kim and Im, 2011; Giraldi and Cesareo,
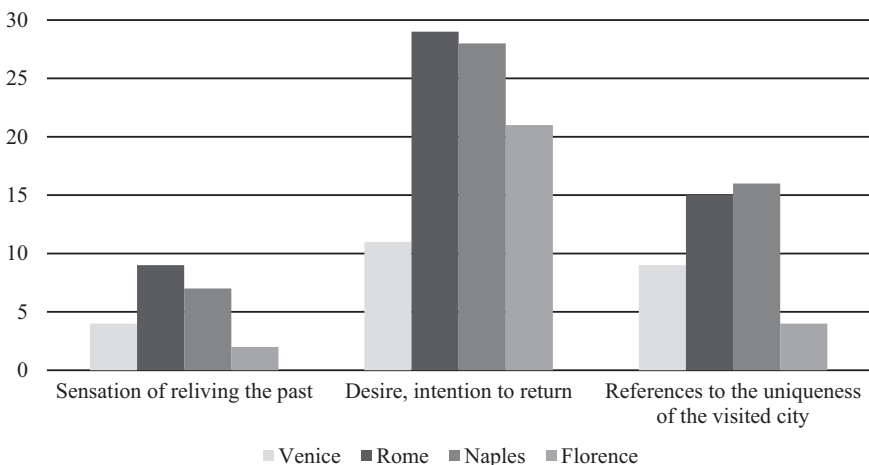
FIGURE 4.1   Histogram of visitors' quotations with regards to the visited city

Source: Our elaboration.

TABLE 4.5 Comparison of quotations referring to visitors' reflections with regards to the visited city

Macro-category	Number of identified quotations											
	Florence			Naples			Rome			Venice		
References to the uniqueness of the visited city	(3)	4	13,79%	(9)	16	31,37%	(10)	15	28,30%	(8)	9	33,33%
Desire, intention to return	(18)	21	72,41%	(25)	28	54,90%	(24)	29	54,72%	(11)	11	40,74%
Sensation of reliving the past	(2)	2	6,90%	(7)	7	13,73%	(7)	9	16,98%	(4)	4	14,81%
TOTAL	(25)	29	100,00%	(41)	51	100,00%	(41)	53	100,00%	(26)	27	100,00%

Source: Our elaboration.

TABLE 4.6 Analysis of travelogues and quotations divided into macro-categories

Macro-categories	Number of travelogues		Number of identified quotations	
References to the uniqueness of the visited city	30	22,56%	44	27,50%
Desire, intention to return	78	58,65%	89	55,63%
Sensation of reliving the past	20	15,04%	22	13,75%
TOTAL	133	100%	160	100,00%

Source: Our elaboration.

2014) get to the same conclusion by demonstrating that positive experience is often associated with the perception of a positive image of the place; however, these other studies never identified the immaterial components connected to the heritage, a task that was carried out in the sixth phase of this work. It is also interesting to note that a negative sensation associated with this type of tourism concerns the perception that the city is no longer the same.

Ultimately, a further important fact emerging from the analysis of the travelogues that can easily be noticed from Table 4.6 concerns the desire to return. In fact, 58.65% of travelogues show at least one quote about the desire to return to the visited city in order to deepen or relive the experience. This element has persuaded the researchers to analyse in the sixth part of the work the motivations that drove individuals to return to a place already visited.

Implication for the "motivation to return"

From the last analysis, the one interesting result is the intention and the desire of the writer to visit the city again in the future.

Therefore, we focused on seeking causal relations between the values related to *intangible heritage* elements regarding the relationship between the visitor and the visited city. The occurrence of such an intense desire to return to visit a place prompted the authors to investigate what were the factors related to the desire to return for the sake of reviving or deepening one's experience.

The analysis of the values of the quotations of these travelogues showed that some categories had a greater intensity. It was therefore assumed that these categories had more weight within the visitor's motivational process. Table 4.7 summarises the categories used for the detection of the tourist's desire and motivation to return.

As it can be noticed, those who want to return to visit the city are motived by elements such as wine and food products (53,93 %), local markets and shops (26,97 %) and typical events or festivals (19,10 %).

Collected data show that the main motivation for the tourists who wish to return is the desire to relive the positive experience generated by the contact with

TABLE 4.7 Percentage representation of the motivations behind the desire to return

Motivations to return	Number of quotations	Percentage value
Reliving the positive experience generated by the contact with typical local wine and food products	48	53,93%
Reliving the positive experience generated by the contact with typical local economic realities	24	26,97%
Reliving the positive experience generated by the contact with typical local events	17	19,10%
TOTAL	89	100%

Source: Our elaborations.

typical local wine and food products. As pointed out by the literature, heritage tourism is related to the presence of gastronomic opportunities, as these are capable of conveying the history of the place thus enhancing traditions, practices and culture. Food and wine festivals contribute to form tourist destinations where it is easier to find and live social and communicative relationships that strengthen the bonds and the sense of community (Warde and Martens, 2000). A further important reason in relation to the desire to return is the pleasure to relive the experience generated by the contact with typical local economic realities (local markets, craftsmanship), despite the smaller number of quotations compared to the first motivation.

Wine and food traditions and typical economic realities represent the most important motivations for the desire to return, and it is interesting to notice how both motivations are connected with emotional and personal involvement, combined with the feeling of taking part in the visited place (Hall and Zeppel, 1990).

An important result of this research is to have highlighted the main reasons behind the desire to relive the tourist experience. In fact, the chapter allows entrepreneurs who are concerned with *heritage* tourism to understand how the presence of typical wine and food products and typical local economic realities has a positive impact on the tourist experience evaluation and on the desire to return.

These facts are important to raise awareness both in the cities dealt with by the study (Florence, Naples, Rome and Venice) and in other tourist destinations. This work is in fact able to increase the knowledge of *drivers* and relevant reasons for the purposes of the evaluation of intangible elements of *the heritage* tourist experience. Tourist destinations can be considered as a set of different offers available for the visitor (Buhalis, 2000), which, often due to the large number and various types of operators require a greater coordination with respect to development and marketing policies (Buhalis, 2000). This function of coordination is often carried out by public institutions that play a key role in territory development policies thanks to local marketing actions, although not controlling the different operators in the area (Golinelli and Simoni, 2011).

It is crucial to fully understand what the interests and the feelings of the visitors are in order to produce a more detailed and clear segmentation of tourism demand. Such segmentation allows local marketing managers to carry out more targeted marketing operations, catching the attention of a wider and more heterogeneous public of potential visitors.

Conclusions

In this work, heritage tourism experiences in four different Italian cities have been analysed by means of netnographic research, which allowed the analysis of stories available on the web. This research took advantage of the traveller's attitude to narrative (McCabe and Foster, 2006), searching in travelogues for information that can be used to understand how individuals evaluate the tourist experience as a whole. In this chapter, holidays are not considered just as a simple set of goods and services provided to visitors, but they are examined in an experiential context. Through the story, the visitor-narrator describes activities and events that characterized her/his holidays, but s/he also communicates and shares thoughts, desires, sentimental and emotional motivations and assessments regarding the place. Thanks to the introspective dimension of the examined stories it was possible to find out not only what elements of *living heritage* (intangible patrimony) left a deeper mark on the visitor, but also what are to be considered the real motivational factors for future visits. This shows that for a significant number of tourists a positive experience of *heritage* tourism is characterized by the capacity to create the desire or intention of coming back.

This study also highlighted the emotional, sentimental and critical element of the tourist experience in the texts, with reference to its intangible elements. It was thus possible to examine the process of interpretation thanks to which the visited object conveys its meaning by creating a relationship with the visitor pro-actively engaged by micro-entrepreneurs (Fyall, 2008).

As emerged from the research, intangible elements have a considerable relevance, becoming veritable attractions like those of tangible nature such as monuments, museums and landscapes.

The main limitation of the study is that a qualitative analysis implying a manual codification of the texts could be a problem in case of a very large data sample analysis, where the cognitive biases of the researcher might affect the study. However, these biases could be limited in compliance with all the instructions provided by the methodological literature on the subject. Furthermore, this research was limited to the *cluster* of Italian tourists travelling to Italy, representing the perception of the examined elements only from the perspective of these subjects.

In future researches, the objective will not be limited to analysing the travelogues of Italian travellers in Italy, but it will also expand on foreign tourists who visited Italy, in order to define more targeted marketing policies by exploiting efficiently and effectively the multitude of information that individuals freely share on the web.

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5

MANAGEMENT OF TOURISM INNOVATION, MUSIC AND NIGHTLIFE

Case study

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Introduction

Organizations operate in a complex, globalized, changeable and vertiginous environment, and its evolution will determine the speed and the direction of future change. When this happens, organizations should realize that the main track to being competitive depends on the ability to successfully introduce innovations that allow differentiation (Crespí and Orfila, 2003; Jacob and Aguiló, 2008). The innovative capacity of the organizations would be to achieve growth, profitability and benefits such as protection against price wars (Aaker, 2008). The premise stems from the concept that the core of organizational strategy seeks differentiation (Porter, 1991). Innovation is an attitude linked to creativity and maintaining an inquisitive, imaginative and pragmatic spirit in a changing world, in balance with satisfying people's needs. There is no doubt that innovating carries risks, but an organization makes this bet for two reasons: the future and the leadership of the market.

The tourism sector is not foreign to the process of improvement and innovation, evident in the evolution of the characteristics of the various services offered to tourists and visitors. Exoticism is the main attraction of emerging destinations, with the quality of service and the innovation of the supply a valued, but not essential element. But with the course of time, the exoticism of the destinations droops and it is necessary to provide another element of differentiation to stand out among its competitors. This usually involves the search for an original supply which can differentiate the destination, and an increasingly excellent quality of service. It is at this stage of the evolution of tourist destinations when innovation becomes essential for public and private managers. In this chapter it is proposed to analyze differentiation based on the innovation in nightlife of the tourist supply of Ibiza through a multicase analysis of several establishments.

Ibiza is an island of the Mediterranean, with 571.76 km^2 of surface area and 144,000 inhabitants, with a strong economic dependence on tourism, having received

3,240.000 tourists in 2017 (Ibestat, 2018). The beginnings of tourism took place in the first third of the twentieth century, but it was between the second half of the fifties and seventies when the greatest tourist growth happened, because it allowed to leave the poverty situation that the population of the island lived until then. From its beginnings, Ibiza radiated an image of freedom that attracted artistic avant-gardes and countercultural (alternative) groups. The atmosphere of tolerance favored the existence of parties and nighttime places unthinkable elsewhere (Ramón, 2001).

Since the sixties, the nightlife supply have constituted a very relevant component of the supplyand image of Ibiza (Ramón, Azpelicueta and Serra, 2015). This supply of night entertainment has been characterized by owners through enterpreneurship and in constant search of innovations that would improve the attractiveness of their product. But entrepreneurship and innovation have not only taken the format of nightclubs; other forms of tourist activity and events have sought to increase added value and differentiate their supply. The most classic case is the beach clubs, but new formats have appeared that have realized the same evolution: party boats and hotel clubs (Ramón, Azpelicueta and Sánchez, 2016). The target of this chapter is to realize a review of this new type of tourist supply in the form of a multicase study, indicating the characteristics of the most emblematic establishments of each typology and the impact they have had. It should be noted that Ibiza has been a pioneer in these innovations, but they are being implemented in many other sun and beach destinations around the whole world, making Ibiza of interest for analysis for its pioneering examples. All the analyzed typologies are characterized by incorporating musical events and nightlife with classic tourist supply. This transformation does not imply a rupture with the image of the tourist destination, but a deepening in the ideas of freedom, party and enjoyment, that it implies.

Review of the literature

A review of the innovation literature shows a variety of angles from which this issue has been studied: Schumpeter (1939) studied the process as a whole; Tushman and Moore (1982) analyzes innovation as an information process; Porter (1991) relates innovation to competitiveness; Muñoz and Riverola (1997) links innovation with learning and training. The provision of a broad literature on innovation and its diverse aspects raises the question of whether the different treatments given to the term and the diverse types of innovation contemplated have impeded the securing of homogeneous and determinant conclusions on the organizational characteristics that favor it; therefore, the concept of innovation that is being used is to be nuanced (Damanpour and Gopalakrishnan, 1998).

Innovation can be defined as

> the effort to use new knowledge to perform a change oriented and intentional, in the economic or social potential of the company, thus becoming the medium with which the entrepreneur creates new resources for producers of wealth or power existing ones, to supply a new product or service

or an improvement of the already existing ones, depending on what the customers want.

<div align="right">*(COTEC, 2001:9)*</div>

An innovation is the "introduction of a new, or significantly improved, product (good or service), of a process, of a new marketing method or of a new organizational method in the internal practices of the company, the organization of the workplace or foreign affairs" (OECD, 2005:56). For innovation, it means at least that the product, process, marketing method or method of organization are new, or significantly improved, for the company.

The researchers have established different classifications of the types of innovation, being the two best known (Sundbo and Gallouj, 1998; OECD, 2005): the grade of innovation (incremental or radical) and the nature of innovation (product, process, organization or marketing). In Table 5.1, it is noted that innovative generation can result not only from technological notions, but also as an extended reference that reinforces the role of the subject, his vision, his desires, his proposals and his surroundings.

The innovative activity of organizations has aroused the interest of researchers who have tried to identify the factors that lead to innovation (Damanpour and Gopalakrishnan, 1998). In addition, many organizations appear in a prominent place in business strategy and culture. These premises are applicable with special strength to the tourism sector. Tourism is the fastest growing industry in the world (Bigné, Font and Andreu, 2000), being fundamental to the economy of many regions. Tourism has made it possible to achieve high growth rates in countries like Spain since the mid-twentieth century, thanks to its direct impact on the sector, as well as indirect impact on other activities such as transport and construction. The innovation activities of a company depend on the diversity and structure

TABLE 5.1 Types of innovation

Types of innovation	Objectives	Means
Process	Reduce costs and times. Increase productivity. Improve flexibility.	Renew the equipment. Renovate the facilities. Reorganize production.
Product	Improve quality and differentiation. Renew products. Open new markets.	Incorporate new components. Create strong brand image. Segment the market.
Management & Organization	Professionalize management. Increased flexibility. Increase motivation.	HR training. Extend the value chain. Outsource services.
Social & Institutional	Remove barriers. Disseminate good practices.	Adaptation to the legislative framework. Innovation policy.

Source: Méndez (1997) and own elaboration.

of its links, which also depend on the nature of the company and its market, and the sources of information, knowledge, technologies, business practices, and human and financial resources (OECD, 2005). Moreover, the competitiveness of tourism companies depends on the conservation of the environment, since it is an attribute of the product and a necessary factor (Jacob et al., 2004).

The economy of the Balearic Islands is strongly outsourced, representing 80% of GDP (Crespí and Orfila, 2003; Jacob and Aguiló, 2008; Serra, 2001); has a strong dependence on the economic development of the issuing markets (Serra, 2001); and must adapt to the transformation in the travel patterns and preferences of the tourists. Maintaining the competitiveness of the Balearic tourism sector depends, in addition to satisfying the demands of tourists, on competing with innovations and the incorporation of the opportunities that arise from technological development (Orfila, Crespí and Martínez, 2005). However, the introduction of any change in the company can generate resistance and obstacles that must be overcome in order to guarantee the future of the organization (Jacob et al., 2004).

Traditionally, there was a belief that tourism was a sector that developed little innovative activity and that consumed innovations originating in manufacturing sectors. However, there is increasing evidence that the services sector plays an important role in the use and generation of innovations, although it has been proven that innovation in this sector has specific characteristics and that unlike other sectors, non-technological innovation plays an important role (Jacob et al., 2004).

New technologies are setting up a new relationship map, creating new channels and enterprises and fostering an interesting movement of forces and opportunities, which have in the tourism sector an ideal crop field for the experimentation of new solutions (Macías, 1999). Therefore, the importance of innovation for the tourism sector should be highlighted along with its consideration as an element of development and competitiveness (Crespí and Orfila, 2003; Jacob andAguiló, 2008), transforming travel, with more informed and demanding customers who prefer destinations and more specialized products with a better value for their money. It has also made possible a reduction in intermediation costs due to increased global competition and an acceleration of technological change. In the case of the Balearic Islands innovation is characterized by:

- An important presence in all the branches of the tourist activity, and these data can be extrapolated to other destinations, mainly the coast.
- Traditional indicators for measuring technological innovation: expenditure on I + D and the number of patents not valid for tourist sectors.
- The companies tend to be more innovative as they increase in size.
- Technological innovation (78.7%) is more common than non-technology (21.3%), predominating the information and communication technologies (49%) and environmental technologies (19%).
- The most frequent type of innovation refers to the production process (62%), followed by far by the product (16%), the marketing (13%), the organization (8%) and the market (1%).

- The companies dedicated to hospitality activities have the most innovations presented (63%), followed by leisure-entertainment (14%), catering (12%), travel agencies (6%), car rental (3%) and transport (3%).
- The main difficulties of innovation are the lack of qualified personnel, the high cost involved and public action, referring to the lack of aid and excessive bureaucracy (Jacob et al., 2004).

Methodology

The applied methodology is based on the case study (Yin, 2014), specifically a multicase study where we analyze examples of innovation based on the musical events and nightlife created on the island of Ibiza. Specifically, we analyze different types of supply that have been chosen for this element as innovation and differentiation of its service: beach clubs, party boats and hotel clubs. The aim is to explain what these innovations consist of from reviewing the most representative examples. In each case the characteristics of the supply and the origin of the most emblematic establishments are exposed. Before exhibiting the diverse cases, a quick review of the evolution of tourism on the island is carried out in order to put into context the emergence of these innovations in the tourism supply.

In order to carry out the study, we visited the websites of the establishments and the aforementioned business groups mentioned, as well as visiting the areas where the analyzed establishments are located. This information has been extended by the consultation of the system of analysis of Iberian balances (SABI) and the newspaper library, mainly the *Diario de Ibiza*. The pages of the establishments and hotel chains on social networks have also been consulted to obtain an orientated vision of the impact that these establishments obtain in the new communication environments.

Music and entertainment in the tourist supply of Ibiza

Historical evolution of tourism in Ibiza

Until the beginning of the twentieth century, the economy of Ibiza was based on agricultural, livestock and forestry products for export and for domestic consumption (Cirer, 2004; Ramón, 2001). The first documentary evidence of an interest in developing a tourist industry is found in the appearance of the guide *Ibiza, Guía del Turista* of Arturo Perez-Cabrero, published in Barcelona in 1909 (Ramón, 2001). Nevertheless, the origins of tourism started in the period from 1931 to 1936 and it was in these years when the first hotel infrastructures arose. Between 1936 and 1950 there was a parenthesis in the tourist activity caused by various events (wars, postwar and international sanctions), and from 1950 the tourist sector regained its presence in the insular economy, with the return of the artists and intellectuals and the appearance of the beatniks. The airport of Es Codolar was a military aerodrome until June 1, 1958, when it opened to commercial traffic (Soriano, 1996), although international flights could not land on Ibiza until 1966 (Cirer, 2004). In the fifties,

in order to compete with Majorca, the Ibiza businessmen oriented most of their efforts to supply a differentiated product, resorting to the charm of Ibiza among artists and beatniks. From the sixties, the European and national press published reports depicting Ibiza as a refuge for the world's outcasts(Rozenberg, 1990). It was these promotional actions which started the image of Ibiza as a destination for nightlife.

The sixties and seventies saw a tourist boom, with the arrival of the hippies, the emergence of entrepreneurship, modern hotels and a great urban development. Between the late sixties and early seventies, they opened the first nightclubs. In the eighties, there was a boom in the number of nightclubs and local establishments like Pacha, Playboy, Amnesia and Ku acquired worldwide fame. The shortcomings of the tourism trade previously led to a loss of quality, which became apparent in the eighties (Ramón, 2001), with a large number of rules being adopted that were designed to correct these shortcomings and limit the growth of tourist rooms (Cirer, 2001). The maximum influx of tourists that occurred at the turn of the century seems to mark a before-and-after in the trend of the sector. With the beginning of the twenty-first century, there is a qualitative improvement of the tourism supply, combined with a very stable volume of rooms. According to data from the Ibestat (2018) in 1999, there was one five-star establishment and 12 with four stars, and in 2017, there were nine five-star and 42 four-star. On the other hand, according to the same source, in 1999, there were 79,654 places and in 2017, they had been reduced to 78,113 places.

Since the late nineties there has been an emergence of projects aimed at improving the tourist infrastructure, mainly the hotel supply, and attracting tourists of greater purchasing power. The tourism promotion of the island is still focused on leisure and climate, but with the new century it has added to its image glamour and luxury. Consequently, the sector redirects the image of the island towards a combination of freedom with sophistication and luxury. The product supplied does not change but is looking to orient it to segments of greater purchasing power.

The improvements of the hotel supply and the development of a supply based on luxury were accompanied by the emergence of innovations in different types of tourist supply. They are innovations that do not involve technological developments, except in specific cases such as the nightclub Amnesia, but they involve new product concepts and new tourist profiles. In the vast majority of cases, innovative projects have been driven by new entrepreneurs or by a generational change in the consolidated companies.

Beach clubs

The beach clubs are an evolution of the bars and restaurants located on the coast, mainly beach bars, which implies an improvement in the presentation and the menu of products, complete with the celebration of musical events. This fact brings the beach clubs closer to the nightclubs and, in practice, have become the main providers of the pre-parties, the events before the parties of the great nightclubs

(Ramón, Azpelicueta and Sánchez, 2016). The beach club pioneers in Ibiza are Café del Mar and Bora Bora but, in recent years, the transformations of establishments in beach clubs with an supply focused on luxury tourism are multiple: Blue Marlin, Ocean Beach, Nikki Beach, etc.

Café del Mar is located in Ses Variades, in Sant Antoni area, along the urban nucleus. The idea of this establishment was from Ramón Guiral, Carlos Andrea and José Les, inaugurated in 1980 (Café del Mar, 2018). The idea was innovative and, beforehand, risky. On the basis of a bar located on the underside of a block of coastal tourist apartments, an establishment was created that supplied as an attraction the contemplation of the sunset while listening to classical music. After sunset, this establishment has a more conventional electronic music supply and offers pre-parties for the big nightclubs, although as an open space it must finish the music before midnight.

Something seemingly extravagant and that is not exclusive to a single region, as is the contemplation of the sunset, became the differential element. Ses Variades is an area of rocks and without a nearby beach, which achieved a significant presence of tourists thanks to Café del Mar. Next to Café del Mar opened Café Mambo and Savannah, among others, copying the supply of this establishment. Throughout the west coast of Ibiza and in other parts of the world establishments have appeared whose attractiveness is the sunset, but Café del Mar retains the prestige of being the pioneer of this supply.

Bora Bora opened in 1983 (Bora-Bora, 2018) at the underside of the Jettourist apartments, currently Bora Bora apartments, in Playa d'en Bossa. From 1997 it began to supply parties thanks to the permissiveness of the municipality of Sant Josep. At first, it supplied pre-parties and after-hours parties, after the closing of the nightclubs. At present, Bora Bora has been partially eclipsed by the presence of other beach clubs (Delano, La Plage, Sands, Ushuaïa, Nassau, Sirocco, etc.) and two hotel clubs (Ushuaïa and Hard Rock Hotel) in Playa d'en Bossa. In addition, they have opened new, more modern and luxurious establishments in various coves on the island. In spite of all this, Bora Bora is one of the pioneers of the beach club format in Ibiza, next to Café del Mar.

Blue Marlin Ibiza is a luxury Beach Club located in Cala Jondal. This important establishment is located in a small cove and is the pioneer of the luxury Beach Clubs in Ibiza. Services and prices are much higher than the previous beach clubs, leading to headlines in the media: "Blue Marlin Ibiza assures that is false a bill that circulates through the net of 142,939.50 euros" (NouDiari, August 9, 2016). Finally, to indicate that in the last years BMI Group (the company that owns Blue Marlin Ibiza) has expanded with beach clubs in Marina Ibiza, Abu Dhabi (UAE) and Los Cabos (Mexico), in addition to the restaurants Yemanjá in CalaJondal and Coricancha in Las Salinas, both located in Ibiza (Blue Marlin, 2018).

Nikki Beach is a project of American businessman Jack Penrod who opened it in 1997 in Fort Lauderdale (Florida). Currently the brand owns beach clubs in the United States, France, Spain, Thailand, Greece, Monaco, United Arab Emirates,

Turkey, Italy and Barbados. It also has hotels in Thailand, Greece, Turkey and United Arab Emirates (Nikki Beach, 2018). The Nikki Beach of Ibiza is located next to the five-star hotel Me Ibiza of the chain Meliá Hotels International, in S'Argamassa (Santa Eulalia des Riu), forming a small pin of luxury tourism with musical events. Nikki Beach is a project that was not started in Ibiza, but came from outside, but it is a brand well known internationally as synonymous with luxury beach clubs, which in Ibiza has been associated with a hotel of a large international chain.

Although the island's first beach clubs appeared in the eighties, it is from 2000 when they reached great international relevance and increased in number, almost eradicating traditional establishments on some beaches. Within the beach clubs of Ibiza, there are three main approaches (Ramón, Azpelicueta and Sánchez, 2016):

- Classic Beach Club: It is the most traditional and basic approach, offering electronic music and cocktails on the beach. The most well-known examples are Bora Bora, Nassau, Sands, Sirocco, White and La Plage.
- Luxury Beach Club: With regard to the classic approach, it implies more luxury and higher prices. Standouts within this approach are Blue Marlin and Ocean Beach.
- Sunset Beach Club: The classic approach adds the allure of the sunset. They are located in the west part of the island, mainly the Bay of Sant Antoni, and although there are many establishments known for this supply (Café Mambo, Kumharas, Savannah, etc.) the most famous is Café del Mar.

Party boats

In the coastal areas, there are many boats that are destined for excursions or to rent for groups. Since a few years ago, these boats have begun to supply a special type of excursion that does not have the main objective of observing the seabed or access to secluded coves. In these cases, the boat acts as a platform for celebrating parties with music and alcoholic beverages, namely party boats (Ramón, Azpelicueta and Sánchez, 2016). In many cases, the promoters of these party boats are the great nightclubs of the island, which organize them as a pre-party of their establishments.

The party boats generate a significant controversy about the lack of specific legislation on this type of activity, involving a risk to the safety of the participants, and the inconvenience they generate in the coastal areas they frequent. All this is reflected in the local press: "The party boats will have the same controls as nightclubs and bars" (*Diario de Ibiza*, August 16, 2014); "The autonomous government adopted the decree regulating the party boats" (*Diario de Ibiza*, April 17, 2015); "Formentera leads to the autonomous Parliament the prohibition of party boats on the protected coast" (*Diario de Ibiza*, July 13, 2015); "The autonomous government to punish the party boats sailing in the waters of the Natural Park" (*Diario de Ibiza*, July 14, 2015). Various administrations and associations have worked to regulate these boats and limit their activity in protected coastal areas.

Hotel clubs

Hotel clubs are establishments which have incorporated a second activity to the hotel's accommodation: the celebration of events. These events usually consist of concerts, shows or festivals (Ramón, Azpelicueta and Sánchez, 2016). Four establishments in Ibiza fit the format of hotel club: Ibiza Rocks Hotel, Ushuaïa Ibiza Beach Hotel, Hard Rock Hotel Ibiza and Destino Pacha Ibiza Resort.

Ibiza Rocks was an initiative of Andy McKay and Dawn Hinde that resulted in the opening in 2008 of the Ibiza Rocks Hotel in the urban center of Sant Antoni, the island's first initiative that sought to combine hotel accommodation with musical events. Ibiza Rocks Hotel supplies concerts and parties during the summer months in the pool area, and the hotel reservation includes access to these events. In 2010, Bar M became the Ibiza Rocks Bar, offering live music. The success of the idea led the company to enlarge the 368 rooms of the Ibiza Rocks Hotel with the 42 rooms of the Ibiza Rocks Apartments, and the guests of both establishments have free access to the services and concerts of the hotel (Ibiza Rocks, 2018). In 2008, the Pikes Hotel was acquired, a boutique hotel located on the outskirts of the urban nucleus of Sant Antoni, and after being remodeled it reopened in 2011 as Pikes Ibiza (Pikes Ibiza, 2018). Ibiza Rocks Group is currently comprised of three accommodations, three shops, two bars and a travel agency.

Ushuaïa Ibiza Beach Hotel belongs to Palladium Hotel Group. Ushuaïa Ibiza Beach Hotel is conceived as "a five-star theme park for adults" (Palladium Hotel Group, 2018). The brand's philosophy indicates that "the Ushuaïa concept was born with the idea of becoming the epicenter of the best outdoor parties and offering the music-loving customer an exclusive experience complementary to their holidays" (Palladium Hotel Group, 2018). The Ushuaïa Ibiza Beach Hotel is composed of two establishments: The Ushuaïa Club with 234 rooms, inaugurated in 2011 and the Ushuaïa Tower with 181 rooms, inaugurated in 2013 (Ushuaïa Ibiza Beach Hotel, 2018). Ushuaïa Ibiza is the result of the renovation and modernization of two obsolete establishments, belonging to Palladium and focused on family holiday tourism: Fiesta Club Playa d'en Bossa and Fiesta Hotel Platja d'en Bossa. Ushuaïa is an idea developed by Abel Matutes Prats and was implemented after several years of improvements and coinciding with the generational change in the direction of Palladium Hotel Group. The main differentiating elements are the parties and events held in the pool area of the Ushuaïa Club and to which the clients of both establishments have access. The most common event is the electronic music festivals that act as pre-parties for the great nightclubs (Ushuaïa Ibiza, 2018). The supply of this establishment is considered "Adults Only", thus meaning guests over 22 years old (Palladium Hotel Group, 2018).

Hard Rock Hotel Ibiza belongs to Palladium Hotel Group, is located on Playa d'en Bossa (next to Ushuaïa Ibiza Beach Hotel) and follows a pattern very similar to Ushuaïa but inspired by rock "n" roll. In this case, they chose to supply an establishment covered by a consolidated brand, Hard Rock International (Palladium Hotel Group, 2018). Hard Rock Hotel Ibiza was inaugurated in 2014, has 493 rooms and

is the result of the refurbishment and modernization of two obsolete establishments belonging to Palladium and focused on family holiday tourism: Fiesta Club Don Toni and Fiesta Hotel Don Toni. This hotel includes in its supply of restaurants Sublimotion by Paco Roncero, a restaurant shows for 12 guests, which is considered the most expensive in the world. In addition to the festivals and concerts, the Hard Rock Hotel also has a convention center, allowing the option for Meetings, Incentive, Conferences and Exhibitions (MICE) tourism. The Hard Rock Hotel has an supply considered "Adults Only", is not as innovative as the Ushuaïa or Ibiza Rocks and, being a later project, is not as well known as the Ushuaïa.

Destino Pacha Ibiza Resort is a hotel of 163 rooms, belonging to Pacha Group and placed in Cap Martinet, next to Talamanca Beach and within the municipality of Santa Eulalia (DestinoPacha Ibiza Resort, 2018). Pacha Group is composed of a set of nightclubs and establishments that makeup an extension of brand: Pacha Restaurant & Sushi Lounge, the Hotel, Restaurant Cabaret Lío, Sailboat Pacha 67 (the party boat of the group) and Destino Pacha Ibiza Resort (Pachá Group, 2018). Destino Pacha Ibiza Resort is a project created and directed by Hugo Urgell, son of Ricardo Urgell. Work on the Destino Pacha Ibiza Resort was long because the previous hotel was much deteriorated, and it opened for the summer season of 2013. Compared to the other hotel club on the island, this hotel is smaller and has a more leisurely policy of events (DestinoPacha Ibiza Resort, 2018).

The hotel club combines the activity of lodging and the celebration of events: festivals and concerts, mainly. The four hotel clubs have in common that the renovation of the establishment was accompanied by a change of name, an improvement in the quality of the service, a modern and differentiated design, and the incorporation of events, celebrated in the swimming pool area, to its supply. Three cases (Ibiza Rocks, Ushuaïa and Destino) are the development of an original concept and brand of Ibiza. In addition, with the exception of Ibiza Rocks Hotel, they supply a five-star hotel service.

The impact on the social media of these establishments is similar to that of the great nightclubs of the island, due to the events held, and much higher than that of many Spanish hotel chains. Palladium Hotel Group accumulates a high volume of followers in social networks, comparing with larger hotel chains, but more than three quarters of these followers are due to Hard Rock Hotel and Ushuaïa. The main criticism of the hotel clubs is the inconvenience the noise causes to residents. Ushuaïa Ibiza Beach Hotel is the hotel with more events and more media impact of the four and also which accumulates the most criticism from the neighborhood associations and the local press.

Discussion

The mature destinations have the need not to fall into a process of degradation of their supply and this requires improvements and innovations that allow them to compete with emerging destinations that attract by their exoticism. In the case of Ibiza, the image generated by its parties and nightclubs has made the employers of

the island give priority to the incorporation of musical events as a differentiating innovation of their establishments, as is the case of the beach clubs, the party boats and the hotel clubs. In all these cases, supplies of economical middle ranges, focused on a traditional sun and beach tourism, with predominance of families, are turned into tourist products focused on elderly people and the young, with good purchasing power and lovers of surprising experiences:

- The beach clubs are an evolution of the bars and restaurants located on the coast, mainly beach bars, which implies an improvement in the service accompanied by a musical supply based on DJs and that acts as an event before the parties of the great nightclubs.
- The party boats are boats previously destined for excursions or nautical charter services that have been used for the celebration of parties with electronic music, being a kind of floating outdoor nightclub, although very controversial.
- The hotel clubs before were formerly obsolete three-star hotels focused on family sun and beach tourism, which after a deep renovation have become boutique hotels with a nightclub in the pool.

The emergence of these establishments has been paired with the incorporation of a new generation in the management, as is the case of Abel Matutes Prats in Palladium Hotel Group and Hugo Urgell in Pachá Group. The qualitative improvements in the supply of the island have been very important and necessary, but the events and, consequently, the beach clubs, hotel clubs and nightclubs have brought media impact. This multicase analysis allows assessing the importance of the innovations of tourism enterprises for the empowerment of a mature tourist destination and the ability of events to generate a powerful media impact in the era of social media. It should be noted that it is not necessary for all destinations to opt for musical events to differentiate and enhance their tourist supply and, in each case, it must be decided that attractiveness fits more to the history and characteristics of the destination. In the case of Ibiza, the musical events fit very well in the image and historical evolution of the destination.

While the main positive impact of these innovations is the media impact (traditional channels and social networks) of entrepreneurial initiatives and tourism destination, as well as higher prices for services rendered, the main downside is the inconvenience generated to residents, mainly due to the fact of making musical events a differentiating element. The parties are a controversial supply for residents for the inconvenience and risk of an imitation effect on the young local population.

Other innovations, mainly technological, have been tried, focused to the customer's attention but their degree of success has been low due to technical, legal or acceptance problems by the clients. In recent years, the only technological element in which the tourist companies of Ibiza have had a clear success has been in the use of social media, but this success is due to the organized events. The festivals and concerts have a high capacity of generating electronic Word-Of-Mouth (eWOM)

and the managers of online communication should only make a correct management of the flow of eWOM.

Conclusion

Musical events, concerts and festivals are the element that contributes the good (media impact) and bad (annoyances to the neighbors) of the new analyzed formats. The various cases analyzed are examples of incremental product innovations seeking to improve and add something to a product that was already too conventional and undifferentiated to ensure economic profitability. The differentiating element adopted was new for the companies, but not for the destination, since the supply of night entertainment (festivals and concerts) is widely tested on the island thanks to the nightclubs and bars.

The main limitation of this work is that it is an initial descriptive study of the new tourist supplies that have appeared in recent years in Ibiza, a world reference for vacation tourism. The supply formats exhibited have been virtually bypassed until the present time by the academic world and the need to deepen in their characteristics and implications in future research. The main lines of future research should focus on the residents, measuring attitudes towards the various supplies of nightlife and looking for the causes of these attitudes, and in the clients, analyzing their assessment of the experience, the degree of satisfaction with the nightlife and the propensity to generate eWOM that possesses. In addition, it would be of great interest to continue to deepen the management of this supply through case studies.

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6

EMPLOYEES' SOCIAL CAPITAL, SELF-EFFICACY, AND TURNOVER INTENTION

A study in the context of tourism and hospitality

Dung Hoang, Masoud Karami and Sam Spector

Introduction

Employee turnover is becoming an increasingly more significant issue to organizations. Recruiting and training requires increasing amounts of investment, and new team members can affect organizations' standards and performance in a negative manner. According to Lashley (2001), there are two kind of employee turnover costs. These are direct costs and hidden costs. Direct costs contain recruiting, interviewing, orienting, and training fees. Hidden costs include management's time, losing experienced staff, and decreasing service quality. For example, Davidson, Guilding, and Timo (2006) observed that the manager turnover rate of luxury hotel chains in Australia was 39.1% which cost $109,909 on average to replace them. The operational employee turnover rate was 50.74% and cost the organization $9,591 to replace. In addition, the new replacement team members also influence the organization's standard and performance of customer service due to their inability to immediately integrate and perform at a similar level as their predecessors. Overall, a high rate of turnover intention is negatively related to organizations' financial performance (Hinkin and Tracey, 2000).

According to the bi-annual Mood of Nation Research, Tourism, as the largest export earner, plays an important role in New Zealand's economy. As a popular tourist place, New Zealand has opened and attracted an international workforce. As a result, the turnover rate in locations such as Queenstown is particularly high which strongly influences and affects Tourism and Hospitality (T & H) organizations (Middleton, 2001). The high staff turnover means it is quite expensive to find suitable replacements. There are several reasons behind this high turnover rate. These include external factors such as immigration procedures, organizational level factors such as the organization's culture, and individual level factors such as employees' attitudes. Many employees are in the country on a student visa, working

holiday visa, or working visa which is only valid for 1 or 2 years. Therefore, it is a reasonable expectation for them to leave because they plan to stay in Queenstown short term and move to other countries after that. Therefore, this chapter will ignore this cohort and focus on those employees who want to stay in Queenstown long term and just change jobs from one company to another within Queenstown.

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of employees' self-efficacy and social capital on their turnover intention in the T & H industry in New Zealand. The relationship between turnover intention, social capital, and self-efficacy is examined via quantitative research that involved a concise survey instrument. The findings of this research can help tourism and hospitality managers and related organizations in New Zealand in dealing with the issue of high employee turnover – one of the main challenges for businesses in this industry. Our findings reveal that developing employees' self-efficacy by involving them in the organization and investing in organizational social capital can contribute to decreasing employees' turnover in the T & H industry. This chapter begins with literature review about previous research relevant to self-efficacy, social capital, and turnover intention to conceptualize the substantive constructs of the study and the relationships between them. The chapter then discusses the hypotheses formulated based on the review of literature and the survey that was developed to test these hypotheses.

Literature review

Turnover intention

Staff turnover can be defined as the movement of employees into, and out of, employment within a firm (Denvir and McMahon, 1992). Turnover intention is conceptualized as "a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" (Tett and Meyer, 1993:262). Firth et al. (2004) and Shields and Price (2002) observed that employees' intention to quit leads to actual quitting, which in turn, results in a high staff turnover. Organizations can determine the chance of employees leaving the organization at a specific point in time by investigating their intentions. This provides critical information for managers in planning such activities as recruitment, training, succession etc. For example, Moynihan and Landuyt (2008) showed that if organizations can identify employees who intend to leave, then they can improve working conditions to keep those employees. By reducing the turnover intention, the actual turnover is declined which leads to save costs which were associated with it (North et al., 2013).

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy (SE) has been defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986:391). The choice of activities and environmental settings are affected by self-efficacy judgments. People tend to perform better in activities that they believe they have abilities to complete. In contrast, they try to avoid activities

that they think their capabilities cannot fix (Bandura, 1977). Also, people tend to put more effort into dealing with the challenges when their self-efficacy is high, whereas those who doubt their capabilities will give up easily (Bandura and Schunk, 1981; Weinberg, Gould and Jackson, 1979). Self-efficiency is significantly important for organizations because it influences employees' job attitudes. Gruman et al. (2006) observed that a higher level of self-efficacy can make employees more satisfied and more involved with their jobs, which in turn can reduce turnover intention.

Social capital

Social capital is about transferring useful information and knowledge within our networks of relationships which helps us attain our goals (Burt, 2007). Close and trustful relationships (bonding capital; Putnam, 2000) can be helpful in terms of gaining emotional support and coping assistance strategies (Thoits, 2011). Social capital has been defined as "social networks and their associated norms of reciprocity" (Putnam, 2000). According to Putnam, there are two kinds of social capital including bridging (breath of relationship) and bonding (depth of relationship). With bridging capital, individuals can access necessary information or resources (Williams, 2006). On the other hand, bonding focuses more on the depth of relationship. Social capital is a valuable asset because people can reach desirable resources including educational attainment, community development, economic development, crime reduction, democracy and governance, health, and knowledge exchange (Kilpatrick, Field and Falk, 2003).

Job involvement

Job involvement can be defined as the extent to which an individual identifies psychologically with his/her job (Blau, 1985). Job involvement plays a key role in activating employee motivation (Lawler, 1986) and provides a fundamental basis for establishing competitive advantage in markets (Lawler, 1992; Pfeffer, 1994). Job involvement is a main factor in encouraging individual growth, fulfilment with the organization, and motivating employees to reach their personal goals (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Kahn, 1990; Lawler and Hall, 1970). Job involvement has three dimensions including work concentration, work evaluation, and work identification (Kanungo, 1982). Hsu (1995) pointed out that job involvement can vary with regard to age, service duration, position and duty, marital status, and level of education. For instance, it is more difficult for employees who have less working experience facing a stressful working environment (Chuang, 2002).

Hypotheses development

Self-efficacy and turnover intention

According to Avey et al. (2008), employees who believe in their ability to perform their task have lower intention to quit the organization. According to and Den

Hartog and Belschak (2007, employees with a strong sense of efficacy will be more involved in extra roles than individuals with weak sense of efficacy. Moreover, employees who have a strong sense of efficacy will be more able to master their jobs. An inability to internalize individual performance and/or a belief that the job characteristics do not match their own view of their potential capabilities or skills will result in a perceived mismatch between personal and organizational goals. This may result in leaving the organization in search of a better match. Lewin and Sager (2010) found that self-efficacy and turnover intention have a negative relationship. Also, Bandura (1997) supported the notion that self-efficacy could influence individuals' decisions. For instance, when employees with low sense of efficacy face high-pressure situations they tend to quit the job. In contrast, the high self-efficacy employees will feel more excited with challenging situations. They can handle the surprise, disappointment, and stress of the workplace. In sum, employees with strong sense of efficacy will have less turnover intention than low self-efficacy employees.

> **Hypothesis 1**: *There is a significant relationship between employee's self-efficacy and turnover intention.*

Social capital and turnover intention

Organizational social capital (OSC) plays an important role in the T & H industry. OSC includes communication, influence, and trust (e.g. McGehee et al., 2010; Zhao, Ritchie and Echtner, 2011). Communication directly influences turnover intention. However, it is not easy to create an effective communication channel, especially in the T & H industry because of the diverse nationalities of employees, which leads to different cultural and language barriers. Therefore, the received information may be different to the original one. Organizations try to influence their employees by effective communication. When the employees receive effective communication, they will feel more power from their position (Yukl and Taber, 1983) and this will impact their turnover intentions. (Yukl and Taber (1983) also stated that trust has less impact on employees' turnover intention than effective communication and developing influence on employees.

> **Hypothesis 2**: *Social capital has significant negative relationship with turnover intention.*

Job involvement as a mediator factor of social capital and turnover intention

Blau and Boal (1987) proved that job involvement influences turnover intention. The more involved an employee is in the job the less intent they will have to leave the organization. According to the Blau and Boal (1987) model, employees who are less involved in their jobs will feel less attraction to their job. In contrast, employees

with higher levels of job involvement will think less about leaving an organization. Also, they exhibit higher satisfaction with their jobs even if their supervisor does not provide the required feedback. Then they become important to the organization, leading them to invest more into their jobs. As a result, job involvement positively influences employees' turnover intention.

Following Paullay, Alliger and Stone-Romero (1994), job involvement was defined as "the degree to which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with one's present job" (Paullay, Alliger and Stone-Romero, 1994). It means the employees who are highly involved in their jobs will see their jobs as central to their social circles. People tend to ask colleagues whom they think are hardworking and skilled, so the highly involved person can maximize the benefits and minimize the cost of building their social relation (Blau, 1988). Therefore, job involvement positively impacts social capital. In summary, social capital has significant negative relationship with turnover intention, and both of those factors are impacted by job involvement, so job involvement can be considered as a factor that mediates the relationship between social capital and turnover intention.

> **Hypothesis 3**: *Job involvement mediates the relationship between turnover intention and social capital.*

Job involvement as a mediating factor of self-efficacy and turnover intention

According to Avey et al. (2008), the perceived self-efficacy reduces staff turnover intention. Also, Bandura (1997) highlighted that self-efficacy could influence the individual's decision. For instance, when employees with a low sense of efficacy face high-pressure situations, they tend to call in sick or quit the job. In contrast, the high self-efficacy employees will feel more excited with challenging situations. They can easily deal with the changes and stressors within the workplace. In sum, the turnover intention of employees with strong sense efficacy will be lower than low self-efficacy ones. The more employees' involvement in their jobs, the higher job quality they can provide (Hsu, 1997). High job-involved people are more responsible for achieving the organization's goals, and their performances are more productive. However, employees low in job involvement tend to give up easily and not associate with the organization's goals (Hsieh, 1998). Hence, self-efficacy can be improved by developing job involvement. In sum, self-efficacy is significantly correlated with job involvement. Therefore, self-efficacy has significant negative relationship with turnover intention, and both of those factors are impacted by job involvement, so job involvement can be considered as a factor that mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and turnover intention.

> **Hypothesis 4**: *Job involvement mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and employees' turnover intention.*
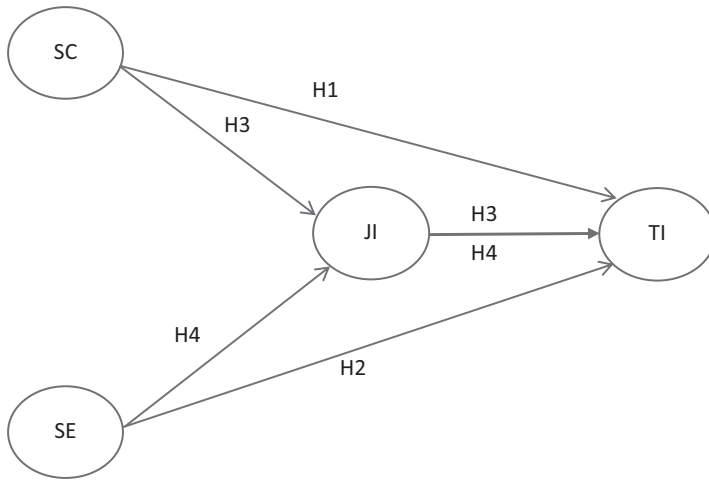
FIGURE 6.1 Conceptual model

Methodology

Sample and data collection

We used a questionnaire to collect the data. The questionnaire included 29 questions related to turnover intention, social capital, self–efficacy, and job involvement. There are three questions about job involvement, seven questions about social capital, and nine questions about self–efficacy. Data was collected in Queenstown, New Zealand. Thirty-five questionnaires were delivered to Queenstown Resort College students who had hospitality and tourism working experiences, and 50 questionnaires were sent to students who just finished a 9-month full–time internship in hospitality and tourism organizations. Also, there were 29 participants from hotels and restaurants in Queenstown. There were 109 respondents in total.

Measurement

Firstly, turnover intention was measured by three items from different "propensity to leave scales" (Lyons, 1971; Cammann et al., 1979). Secondly, social capital was measured by "psychological sense of community" which was defined by Putnam (1992). Self-efficacy was examined literature of Bandura, 1997 scale. Six items of job involvement scale from Kanungo was used, and four items from "different attitudinal commitment scales" (Mowday et al., 1979; Cook and Wall, 1980; Guest and Dewe, 1991; Allen and Meyer, 1990). All the scale items were checked for construct validity to make sure they are reliable. The questionnaire used Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree", and the respondents need to agree or disagree with items which associated to turnover intention, social capital, job involvement, and self-efficacy.

Data analysis

Of participants, 62.4% were from hospitality organizations and 32% from tourism organizations in Queenstown. Participants were mainly New Zealanders (60%), following by Asians and Europeans which were 22% and 15.6% respectively. Most of the sample working position was from front of house (88.1%); only 9.2% work at back house. Males made up 41.3% of the respondents and females accounted for 57.8%, whereas other genders held a small proportion of 2.7%. The respondents from 18–22 years old represented 72.5% of the study sample, whereas the percentage of respondents from 23–27 years old and 28–32 years old were quite equal (11.9 and 13.8 respectively). The respondents who were single accounted significantly (77.1%), and 18.3% were in partnership status. The respondents with a secondary school qualification accounted for 66.1% of the study sample; bachelor's degree made up 17.4%. People who had working experience less than one year in T & H industry accounted for 38.5%, 1 year experience attributed 14.7%, 2 years and 4 years experiences were the same percentage (19.3%). 73.4 % of respondents worked at their present job less than 1 year, 17.4% of respondents worked 1 year, and a small percentage of respondents worked at their current job for more than 2 years. Similar to years working with their current manager, 75.2% of them spent less than 1 year and 19.3 worked for a year. Regarding visa demographics, more than half of respondents were New Zealand citizens and 18.3% and 11% of respondents are working visa and student visa respectively.

Descriptive analysis

Table 6.1 presents the results of descriptive analysis. Age, education, working experiences in hospitality, and years in current job are significantly correlated with nationality. Age is significantly correlated with marital status, education, working experiences in hospitality, years in current job, and years with director. Gender is significantly correlated with years of experiences in hospitality. Education is in a significant correlation with years of experiences in hospitality. Experience in hospitality is significantly correlated with years in current job and years with director. Years in current job is in significant correlation with years with director, job involvement, and social capital. Years with director is significant with job involvement. Turnover intention is significantly correlated with job involvement, social capital and self-efficacy. Job involvement is significantly correlated with social capital and self-efficacy. Finally, social capital is significantly correlated with self-efficacy

The measurement and structural model

The analysis was started with a measurement model and different tests of validity and reliability were performed. Firstly, items loading for substantive constructs was checked. Major construct items' loading was well above the threshold of 0.7 (Hulland, 1999). Second, the composite reliability test was performed. As shown

TABLE 6.1 Sample characteristic

Variables	Groups	Frequency	Percentage
Nationality	New Zealand	62	56.9
	Asia	24	22.0
	Europe	17	15.6
	America/South America	1	0.9
	Others	5	4.6
Job position	Front house	96	88.1
	Back house	10	9.2
	Others	3	2.7
Age	18–22 years old	79	72.5
	23–27 years old	13	11.9
	28–32 years old	15	13.8
	33–37 years old	2	1.8
Gender	Male	45	41.3
	Female	63	57.8
	Other	1	0.9
Marital	Single	84	77.1
	Partner	20	18.3
	Married	2	1.8
	Separated	1	0.9
	Divorced	2	1.8
Education	Secondary school qualification	72	66.1
	Trade/Technical qualification	1	0.9
	Bachelor's degree	19	17.4
	Post graduate degree/diploma	17	15.6
Experiences in T & H industry	Less than year	42	38.5
	1 year	16	14.7
	2 years	21	19.3
	3 years	9	8.3
	Above 4 years	21	19.3
Years in Current Job	Less than 1 year	80	73.4
	1 year	19	17.4
	2 years	7	6.4
	3 years	1	0.9
	Above 4 years	2	1.8
Years with current director	Less than 1 year	82	75.2
	1 year	21	19.3
	2 years	3	2.8
	3 years	2	1.8
	Above 4 years	1	0.9

in Table 6.2 the composite reliability of all substantive constructs was above the threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2013).

A structural model was used to test the hypotheses. A nonparametric bootstrap technique with 500 sub-samples was applied. (Hair et al., 2013). Overall, the

TABLE 6.2 Means, standard deviations, and correlations

Variable	Composite Reliability	AVE	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	—	—	1.45	.80									
2. Gender	—	—	1.60	.51	.06								
3. Education	—	—	1.83	1.20	.64**	.02							
4. Job position	—	—	1.16	.48	-.04	-.08	-.02						
5. Experience in T&H	—	—	2.55	1.54	.39**	.20*	.27**	-.03					
6. Years with current director	—	—	1.34	.71	.30**	-.03	.21*	-.13	.36**				
7. Turnover Intention	.90	.76	2.64	1.14	.07	.05	.04	.03	.01	-.15			
8. Job Involvement	.90	.54	2.68	.78	.10	-.18	.12	-.14	.14	.38**	-.52**		
9. Social Capital	.84	.51	3.47	.62	-.11	-.03	-.05	-.03	-.02	.17	-.43**	.53**	
10. Self-Efficacy	.83	.50	3.92	.55	.13	.03	.16	-.02	.17	.07	-.24*	.37**	.40**

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level. ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level. Two–tailed test.

suggested structural model provided a good fit to the data (SRMR = 0.087; Hu and Bentler, 1998). The explained variances (R^2) for main variables were as follows: turnover intention as a dependent variable 0 .40, job involvement 0.31. The mediating variable of "experiential learning" explains the majority of variance in the dependent variable. Figure 6.2 shows the structural model.

Hypothesis 1 proposed a negative association between self-efficacy and turnover intention. As presented in Figure 6.2, the hypothesized relationship between self-efficacy and turnover intention was significant ($\beta = -0.310$, $t = 1.655$, $p > 0.05$). *Hypothesis 2*, predicting the negative association between social capital and turnover intention, is supported ($\beta = -0.457$, $t = 6.611$, $p < 0.05$). According to the Figure 6.2, the job involvement and turnover intention has a significant negative relationship was supported ($\beta = -0.0401$, $t = 3.624$, $p < .05$). While the association between self-efficacy and turnover intention ($\beta = -0.080$, $t = 0.690$, $p > .05$) was not significant. In addition, relationship between self-efficacy and job involvement was
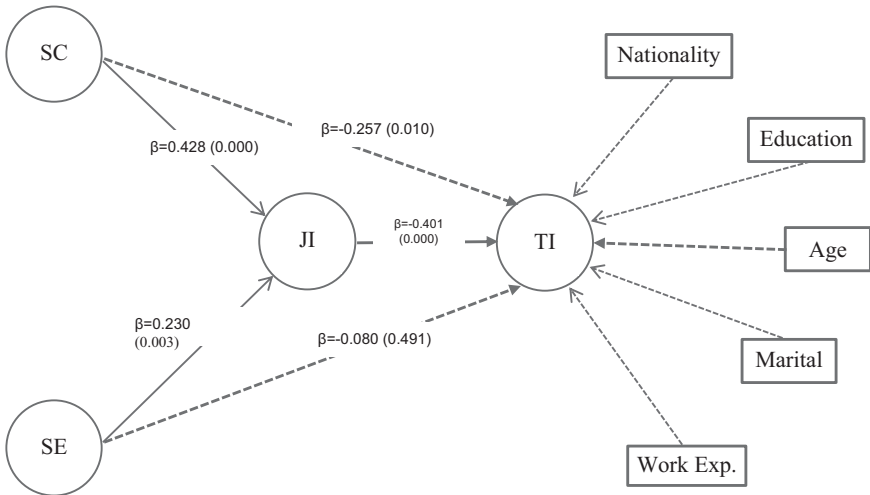
FIGURE 6.2   Structural model

TABLE 6.3 Summary of findings

Hypothesis	Result
Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between employee's self-efficacy and turnover intention	Supported
Hypothesis 2: Social capital has significant negative relationship with turnover intention	Supported
Hypothesis 3: Job involvement mediates the relationship between turnover intention and social capital	Supported
Hypothesis 4: Job involvement mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and employee's turnover intention	Supported

significant ($\beta = 0.230$, $t = 3.008$, $p < .05$). *Hypothesis 3*, proposing job involvement mediates relationship between turnover intention and social capital, is supported. *Hypothesis 4*, proposing a mediation role for job involvement between created social capital and turnover intention was supported. Job involvement and turnover intention has a significant negative relationship was supported ($\beta = -0.0401$, $t = 3.624$, $p < .05$). The association between social capital and turnover intention was not significant ($\beta = -0.257$, $t = 2.588$, *n.s*). The relationship between social capital and job involvement was significant ($\beta = 0.428$, $t = 6.133$, $p < .05$).

Discussion

The purpose of this chapter was to determine whether improvement in the degree of self-efficacy, social capital, and job involvement reduce the degree of perceived turnover intention in the T & H industry. The overall findings of the study are stated in table 6.3. Findings showed that increasing self-efficacy and social capital can reduce the turnover intention which leads to a decrease in the actual turnover. This finding supports Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory and Andresen, Goldmann and Volodina's (2017) theory, which discussed that turnover intention is reduced by improving employee's social capital and self-efficacy. Second, findings revealed that job involvement positively mediates the relationship between social capital and turnover intention and the relationship between self-efficacy and turnover intention. This means that job involvement improves self-efficacy and social capital along with decreasing turnover intention. This finding is in line with the theory of Paullay, Alliger and Stone-Romero (1994) and Hsieh (1998), which stated that job involvement improves self-efficacy and social capital of employees which in turn results in lower staff turnover intention.

It is essential for the T & H managers to model employees' motivation by using the relationship among social capital, self-efficacy, job involvement, and turnover intention to reduce employees' turnover rate. Managers should explain to employees the concepts of social capital, self-efficacy, and job involvement and indicate how these factors will influence their performance. To improve employees' job involvement, managers should give employees chances to solve problems in their own way, ask their opinions and suggestions, and then employees will feel more involved in the job and their teams. Moreover, managers should notice employees' improvement and consistency related to their performance. Improving employee's self-efficacy by providing training programs to provide and expand working knowledge to employees will encourage employees to believe in their ability. In addition, managers need to believe and trust their employees' abilities and create opportunities for them to prove themselves. Managers should also align reward and recognition programs to celebrate employees when they complete their tasks excellently. Managers should be patient when employees make wrong decisions and support the employees to fix their mistakes. Sense of achievement is necessary to improve employee's self-efficacy, as is improving employees' social capital by creating efficient communication channels where manager can share all necessary

information clearly and equally to all employees. Managers should create a channel where employees can communicate and share working experiences, as well as create a supportive working environment to encourage employees to get involved more with the team and organization such as creating team building activities and encouraging colleagues to help each other during working time. Also, managers should regularly organize small meetings, briefing to get people involved with the team's issues, and share information. They should look at the individual level and create a working environment where they can bring their skills and talents on the table and teach others what they know.

This study has some limitations. Firstly, the small sample size of 109 respondents makes generalizability of findings difficult. Secondly, the data is a cross-sectional date which provides a static picture of the situation. Therefore, future research should conduct a more qualitative approach with larger dataset to investigate the consequences of turnover from a more complete perspective.

Conclusion

Social capital, self-efficacy, and job involvement play an important role in reducing turnover intention which leads to actual turnover. Reducing employee turnover is critically important for T & H organisations' productivity. This study provided insights to decrease employees' turnover intention in the T & H industry by improving social capital, self-efficacy of employees, and getting them more involved in the organization and with their team members. These findings highlight the importance of the relationships within the organizations among people and the positive feeling of belonging to a community of human resources who contribute to the objectives of the organization.

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7

SUSTAINABILITY AND TOURISM

Cluster analysis on the effectiveness of the Porter hypothesis in the European aeronautical sector

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Introduction

The environmental impact of European aviation has increased at the same time as the growth of the sector and the demand for its services. Since 1990, during 25 years, air traffic and CO_2 emissions have increased by 80%. However, due to technical, technological and operational improvements in the sector and the economic crisis of 2008, by 2014 these emissions dropped to 2005 levels (EASA, 2016; Transport and Environment, 2018). The great global challenge for the aviation sector is that future improvements will be sufficient to prevent global emissions growth over the next 20 years. At present, direct emissions generated by aviation activity account for around 3% of total GHG emissions and more than 2% of total emissions and are among the sectors with the highest GHG generation (EU, 2015).

The European Union (EU) is aware of the high positive impact of tourism on economic growth and employment, as well as the importance of tourism in the lives of its citizens, who travel more and more, whether for holiday or professional reasons. Tourism is therefore seen as a critical instrument that strengthens the European economy and image in the rest of the world, projecting its values and promoting interest in the European model, which is the result of centuries of cultural exchanges, linguistic diversity and creativity. Tourism, conceived as the activity that projects the contemporary tradition and culture of countries, reflects how to reconcile economic growth and sustainable development, including the ethical dimension (EC, 2010).

Authors such as Leiper (1979) and De la Torre (1980) consider that tourism involves the movement of people from one place to another, generating multiple interrelations of great economic and cultural importance. Thus, among its sectors, the aeronautical sector in Europe plays an important role in the economy insofar as it allows the development of tourism. The fact that this is a globalised sector, which

affects the different departments of transport, commerce, industry, environment, security, and research, entails the need to have a policy that makes the coordination and allocation of resources endure and maintains a continuous development at the levels of competence required.

On the other hand, the consequences of the environment in the aeronautical sector today receive increasing attention from citizens, to the point that in some countries it is questioned the importance of increasing growth in the number of flights and users (Alonso and Benito, 2012), because aeronautics is one of the sources of greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) faster growth. In this way, the environment can become the main cause that limits the growth of the sector in the medium term. To this end, the EU is implementing measures to reduce aviation emissions in Europe through the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (EU ETS) and is working with the international community to develop measures with global reach (IATA, 2018).

European Union Emissions Trading Scheme

Under the Kyoto Protocol, the EU committed itself to reducing its GHG emissions by 8% between 2008 and 2012 compared to 1990 levels. One of the main measures adopted was the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (EU ETS). Directive 2003/87/EC of the European Parliament, as amended by Directive 2004/101/EC, Directive 2008/101/EC, to include aviation activities in the EU GHG Emission Trading Scheme, and Directive 2009/29/EC, whose purpose is to include the forecast of the most significant GHG emission reductions and to set out provisions for the implementation of the EU reduction commitment; they established the regulatory framework for GHG emissions trading applicable to the European aeronautics sector.

The EU has been a pioneer in the implementation of an emissions control system based on quotas and market, the EU Emissions Trading Scheme. This programme currently covers all intra-European flights. This will contribute around 65 million tonnes of CO_2 between 2013 and 2016, in the aviation sector and in other sectors (EASA, 2016).

The start-up has started with the sectors and installations with the highest volume of emissions. Some consideration has also been given to the effects that emission limitations could have on the economic-financial performance of companies and implementation has been carried out with some flexibility concerning deadlines, quotas and free allocations in the first phase of the programme (EC, 2009).

The EU ETS "is the cornerstone of the EU's initiative to reduce its human-induced GHG emissions, which are largely responsible for global warming and climate change" (EC, 2013:1), becoming the first major global carbon market created to date. It aims to recognise that the most cost-effective way to radically reduce emissions of CO_2 and other GHGs, in order to prevent climate change from reaching undesirable levels, is to set a carbon price so that companies can buy and sell

emission rights according to their needs. It was created in such a way that it could be compatible with international emissions trading and the other instruments and mechanisms of the Kyoto Protocol (López and López, 2008). In this way, the EU ETS has managed to put climate change on the agenda of the boards of directors of all major European companies.

The system, with the approval and implementation of the European Parliament and the EU Member States, is based on four fundamental principles (EC, 2009):

- It is a system of ceilings.
- The participation of companies belonging to the sectors concerned is compulsory.
- It contains a solid compliance framework.
- It applies to the EU market but takes advantage of emission reduction opportunities in the rest of the world because it accepts credits for emission reduction projects under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) and Joint Implementation (JI). Also, the EU ETS is open to establishing formal links with compatible and mandatory cap-and-trade schemes in third-party countries that have ratified the Kyoto Protocol.

The implementation of the EU ETS is taking place in different phases or periods of trade. Table 7.1 shows a summary of each of them. During the first two phases most allowances were allocated to installations free of charge, but from 2013 there was an in-depth reform, with a progressive shift towards auctioning allowances rather than free allocation.

The central axis of the EU ETS is based on the common currency of emission allowance trading, the European Emission Allowance (EEA). Each EEA allows the operator to emit one tonne of CO_2. Currently, each Member State prepares national allocation plans for each trading period, determining how many EAS each installation receives annually. This information is public.

The maximum limit on the total number of allowances allocated creates the scarcity necessary for the EU ETS to exist. In this way, companies that do not have problems in staying below this limit will be able to sell their surplus EAS at a price determined by supply and demand at any given time. However, companies that have problems staying below the limit should take steps not to exceed it. Among these measures we can mention several options: they can carry out measures to reduce their emissions (such as investing in technologies that are more efficient or using energy sources that release less carbon); they can buy additional rights and/or CDM or JI credits in the EU ETS; or adopt both measures jointly. By allowing companies to buy credits from emission-saving projects around the world, the EU ETS is an important source of investment in environmentally sustainable development in developed countries (EC, 2013). This modernisation has meant that the EU ETS covers around 45% of all EU emissions (EC, 2013), becoming an essential instrument to achieve its aim of becoming a highly energy efficient and low GHG emitting economy.

TABLE 7.1 Phases of EU emissions trading

Period	Duration	Objectives	Results
PHASE 1 (01/01/2005– 31/12/2007)	Three years	Called the preparatory learning-by-doing phase for phase 2, during which a carbon price was set, free emissions trading was defined across the EU, and the necessary infrastructure was put in place to monitor, record and verify the actual emissions of the companies concerned.	The ETS successfully began operating as the world's largest carbon market. However, the number of allowances, based on an estimate of needs, proved excessive; consequently, the price of allowances in the first period fell to zero in 2007.
PHASE 2 (01/01/2008– 31/12/2012)	Five years	The phase in which the EU and its Member States were to meet the emission targets for the first commitment period of the Kyoto Protocol.	Iceland, Norway and Liechtenstein join the ETS in early 2008. The number of allowances for the period is reduced by 6.5% compared to 2005 levels, but the economic crisis is leading to an even greater reduction in emissions – and therefore in demand. This leads to a surplus of unused allowances and credits that plunges the price of carbon. In 2012, air navigation was included in the system.
PHASE 3 (01/01/2013– 31/12/2020)	Eight years	The extended trading period that helps increase the predictability needed to promote long-term investments in emission reductions.	An in-depth reform is being carried out. The most significant changes are the introduction of a European emission limit (which is reduced by 1.74% each year) and a progressive shift towards auctioning allowances instead of free allocation. Croatia joins the EU ETS in early 2013.

Source: Own elaboration from EC (2009, 2013).

Aeronautics sector and the EU ETS

In order to include aviation activities in the Community Greenhouse Gas Emission Allowance Trading scheme, in November 2008 the European Parliament and the Council adopted legislation based on airline emissions, from which the following points can be extracted:

> From 1 January 2012 to 31 December 2012, the total quantity of allowances allocated to aircraft operators shall be equivalent to 97% of historical aviation emissions.
> From 1 January 2013, the total quantity of allowances to be allocated to aircraft operators shall be equivalent to 95% of the historical aviation emissions multiplied by the number of years in the period.
> A Regulation shall be adopted containing detailed provisions for the auctioning by Member States of allowances which are not required free of charge. The number of allowances to be auctioned in each period by each Member State shall be proportionate to its share of the total aviation emissions allocated to all Member States for the base year. The base year shall be 2010 and for each subsequent period the base year shall be the calendar year ending 24 months before the start of the period to which the auction relates.

(EC, 2008)

In addition, the new legislation stipulates that all airlines with a mass greater than 5,700kg flying to, from or within EU countries will participate in the EU ETS from 2012. The purpose of this regulation has been based on charging a fee to any airline taking off or landing at any airport in the EU. The charges depend on the type of aviation and distance, calculated on the total flight distance.

So, since 2012, the aeronautical sector has been included in the EU ETS with the aim that all airlines operating in Europe must monitor, report and verify their emissions as well as surrender emission rights against those emissions. Faced with this, the various governments and international agencies had debated for years on the relationships that could exist between climate change and aeronautics.

Despite this, the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) and the International Air Transport Association (IATA) had not taken action. Therefore, the EU regulated the market on its own, thus limiting the scope of the EU ETS to flights within the European Economic Area (EEA) until 2016 and decided to maintain the geographical scope of the EU ETS limited to flights within the EEA from 2017 onwards. In 2016, ICAO agreed on a Resolution for a global market-based measure to address CO_2 emissions from international aviation from 2021. CORSIA, the Carbon Reduction and Offset Plan for international aviation, will aim to address the increase in total airline CO_2 emissions above 2020 levels (ICCT, 2017).

The EU ETS, with a good design and implemented with flexibility, should be giving the expected results by increasing the productivity of companies and the economic-financial performance of the affected companies according to some

studies such as those of Porter and Van Der Linde (1995) or Przychodzen and Przychodzen (2015). This chapter analyses whether companies in the aeronautical sector have managed to increase their economic-financial performance or whether they have been adversely affected.

Literature review

The convenience of environmental regulation: Porter's hypothesis

Society and business are more aware of the need for a sustainable environment. Objectives and agendas have been set that have made progress in this sustainability, but an even greater effort is required. This raises the question of whether shortening deadlines and forcing companies to comply with the requirements to reduce their environmental impact could be forced.

The desirability of environmental regulation, voluntary or regulated, has been much discussed in the last two decades. Early approaches and studies advised voluntary and flexible regulation as it leads to increased productivity, development of competitive advantages and cost savings (Porter, 1991; Porter and Van der Linde, 1995). These conclusions have been supported by other studies in which the results show that the cost of adapting to the requirements of environmental regulation is offset by the increase in innovation and competitiveness achieved (Ramanathan et al., 2010; Kneller and Manderson, 2012).

Another series of works demonstrate the lack of relation between a predisposition and a regulation of the environmental behaviour of companies (López-Gamero, Molina-Azorín and Claver-Cortés, 2010). This predisposition is positively associated with voluntary regulation leading to greater competitiveness and improved financial performance thanks to cost savings. Jiang, Wang and Li (2018) obtain a negative relationship between industrial regulation and business innovation being positive if the regulation falls on the region. In this case, Franco and Marín (2015) find a positive effect between the imposition of environmental taxes and the productivity of companies, although the same does not happen with innovation.

As the results of previous studies are mixed, this study analyses the evolution of eco-efficiency in the European aeronautical sector since 2012, which included a European emissions regime that limits the volume of gases emitted by companies.

Efficiency in the aeronautical sector

Technical and technological advances highly condition the aeronautical sector since they condition energy consumption. Adequate management of operations also means an increase in efficiency. A good performance in its efficiency means a reduction in its costs with a corresponding increase in its economic-financial results and, at the same time, a reduction in emissions into the atmosphere.

Efficiency gains in the aircraft sector are achieved through technical and technological improvements or by optimising your operations. The main technical and technological measures leading to a reduction in aircraft emissions would be the use of alternative fuels, the combustion process, reducing the structural mass of aircraft through new materials and improving the aerodynamics of aircraft. Concerning operational improvements, the aircraft weight is reduced, optimising consumption, minimising empty seats per flight, aircraft maintenance, cruising speed, altitudes or flight routes (Grewe and Linke, 2017; EASA and EEA, 2016; ICAO's, 2016).

The progress in recent years has been very satisfactory, but due to the projection of high growth of the sector in the coming decades, many research projects are being developed (see Table 7.2). The common objective of these projects is to innovate in the design and engineering of aircraft, infrastructures and flight routes in order to continue improving the efficiency in consumption that will lead to the sustainability of this activity. This is in anticipation of a more significant decrease in prices and pressure due to the impact of this activity on climate change regarding emissions.

Among the most recent studies on eco-efficiency, Albrizio, Kozluk and Zipperer (2017) analyse the behaviour of productivity in the face of greater environmental regulatory requirements for a data panel made up of 17 OECD countries for the years 1990–2009. In the most advanced countries with a high level of technology, a positive relationship is obtained in the short term. Yang, Tseng and Chen (2012) and Hamamoto (2006) agree on results that demonstrate a positive relationship between productivity growth and environmental regulation.

TABLE 7.2 International projects on aeronautical efficiency

Project	Brief description	Efficiency	Year of beginning	References
TRADEOFF	Changes in cruising altitudes	16%	2015	Frömming et al. (2012)
CATS	Adaptation of cruise routes and altitudes	31%	2015	Koch (2013); Dahlmann (2012)
CATS–Redesign	Re-design of aircraft and adaptation of routes to cruise altitudes	46%	2025	Koch (2013); Dahlmann (2012)
WeCare-ISO	Intermediate stops	n.d	2015	Linke (2016)
REACT4C	Routes adapted to climatology	25%	2025	Grewe et al. (2014)
WeCare-CAS	Airspace management according to meteorology	20%	2020	Niklass et al. (2015)
AHEAD	Fuel mix	25%	2050	Rao, Yin and van Buijtenen (2014); Grewe et al. (2016)

Source: Adapted from Grewe and Linke (2017).

In contrast, other authors such as Cohen and Tubb (2015) or Ambec et al. (2013) are inconclusive concerning the significance or effects observed between environmental regulation and productivity. For their part, Cohen and Tubb, 2015; Kozluk and Zipperer (2014) obtain a positive relationship between the productivity of the company in a scenario of submission to environmental protection regulations.

The effects that environmental regulation may have on the prices of the products that companies offer to the market are also particularly interesting. Thus, studies such as those of Nishitani and Itoh (2016), who worked with a sample of 5,686 observations referring to sales of refrigerators in Japan in the years 1998–2012, demonstrated a willingness of customers to pay an extra price when they perceive attributes of environmental protection in the products they purchase, which provides a competitive advantage and differentiation for manufacturing companies.

Sample study and methodology

The work focuses on Europe's leading airlines concerning air traffic. To this end, the Unique European Emissions Register (EC, 2018), the international ranking FlightGlobal (2018) has been used to select the largest European airlines. Thus, the study sample is made up of 16 companies from 13 European countries with data from 2015 to 2017. Table 7.3 shows the composition of the sample by country and number of companies.

The first is a descriptive analysis of the year-on-year evolution of emissions generated by air traffic within the European Union from the sample of selected companies. These emissions have been recorded and verified in the European single

TABLE 7.3 The composition of the sample by country and company

Company	Country	Frequency
Finnair	Finland	1
Air France–KLM	France	1
Lufthansa Group	Germany	1
Aegean Airlines	Greece	1
Wizz Air	Hungary	1
Ryanair	Ireland	1
Alitalia	Italy	1
Norwegian	Norway	1
TAP Air Portugal	Portugal	1
Air Europa	Spain	1
SAS	Sweden	1
IAG	U.K.	4
Thomas Cook Airlines		
TUI Airlines		
Virgin Atlantic Airways		
Ukraine International	Ukraine	1

emission register (Verified Emission Rates, VER). Table 7.4 shows how in 2013, the first year of entry into force of the regulations governing emissions based on emission quotas and the acquisition of emission rights, all but one of the aeronautical companies significantly reduce their emissions. However, in the following two years only three companies manage to reduce their emissions and in the last two years only six (37.5% of the total sample).

In the previous table (Table 7.5), it can also be observed that, on average, aeronautical companies manage to reduce their emissions for the set of years analysed. However, this is due to the high reduction experienced in the initial year, 2013. If we remove this year from the series, only four companies (Lufthansa, Air France-KLM, Norwegian and Alitalia) achieve a sustained reduction over time with a negative average for the years 2014–2017. Similarly, it is observed how some companies continue to increase their emissions throughout the series of years, would be the case: IAG, Ryanair, Wizz Air, TUI Airlines and Finnair.

Another result of the analysis of the series of data on emissions of the main European aeronautical lines would be the variance between the different companies and also between the years of the series. The comparison between companies shows very different behaviour between them. This is because these companies do not follow a clear or common strategy for reducing emissions.[1]

TABLE 7.4 Evolution of Verified Emission Rate (VER) Companies, 2013–2017

Company	VER_17	VER_16	VER_15	VER_14	VER_13	Average	Variance
Lufthansa	−18.44%	−13.45%	16.57%	11.59%	−99.29%	−20.60%	0.1733
IAG	0.41%	6.39%	6.92%	4.67%	−17.77%	0.12%	0.0085
Air France-KLM	−55.41%	−0.73%	0.44%	−3.02%	−27.50%	−17.25%	0.0469
Ryanair	9.56%	14.03%	11.47%	0.46%	−11.37%	4.83%	0.0086
Norwegian	−9.50%	−31.20%	−3.04%	11.56%	8.77%	−4.68%	0.0234
Thomas Cook	9.75%	14.25%	3.40%	−5.07%	−74.14%	−10.36%	0.1059
Wizz Air	13.65%	18.39%	23.32%	14.81%	−0.37%	13.96%	0.0062
SAS	2.19%	3.18%	−0.37%	1.35%	−35.53%	−5.83%	0.0221
TUI Airlines	5.35%	26.89%	7.01%	6.54%	−63.92%	−3.63%	0.0972
Alitalia	−4.32%	−0.02%	−5.92%	−4.41%	−13.21%	−5.57%	0.0018
Air Portugal	9.11%	−3.92%	4.71%	5.01%	−17.64%	−0.55%	0.0091
Finnair	6.39%	11.00%	38.24%	4.97%	−28.69%	6.38%	0.0453
Air Europa	−6.76%	6.37%	9.50%	14.43%	−39.55%	−3.20%	0.0379
Aegean Airlines	−8.21%	−5.23%	15.93%	24.32%	0.21%	5.41%	0.0158
Ukraine Intern.	32.62%	11.79%	−4.93%	7.07%	−14.46%	6.42%	0.0256
Average	−0.91%	3.85%	8.22%	6.29%	−28.96%		
Variance	3.48%	1.86%	1.30%	0.61%	8.32%		

Source: Prepared using the European Unique Emission Register (EC, 2018)

TABLE 7.5 Data panel: measures of emissions and efficiency, years 2016–2017

Company	Year	RPK (Mill)	ASK (Mill)	LF (%)	TnCO2 (m)	ERPK	EASK
Aegean Airlines	2015	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
Aegean Airlines	2016	12.72	16.38	73.50%	964.75	69.65	58.90
Aegean Airlines	2017	13.85	16.66	83.20%	1002.46	72.37	60.18
Air Europa	2015	22.50	26.75	84.10%	n.d	n.d	n.d
Air Europa	2016	23.81	28.34	84.00%	n.d	n.d	n.d
Air Europa	2017	25.36	30.76	82.50%	n.d	n.d	n.d
Air France-KLM	2015	234.44	275.82	85.25%	27645.81	117.92	100.23
Air France-KLM	2016	238.18	278.81	85.70%	27407.15	115.06	98.30
Air France-KLM	2017	248.48	286.19	86.80%	27665.81	111.34	96.67
Alitalia	2015	34.40	44.43	77.40%	148.93	4.32	3.352
Alitalia	2016	35.00	45.00	77.80%	131.80	3.76	2.93
Alitalia	2017	36.00	45.75	78.70%	138.54	3.85	3.03
Finnair	2015	25.59	31.84	80.40%	2681.74	104.79	84.24
Finnair	2016	27.07	33.91	79.80%	2903.41	107.28	85.61
Finnair	2017	30.75	36.92	83.30%	2940.14	95.62	79.63
IAG	2015	232.89	286.10	81.83%	26335.73	113.08	92.05
IAG	2016	243.47	298.43	85.50%	28264.45	116.09	94.71
IAG	2017	252.82	306.19	82.60%	28764.43	113.77	93.94
Lufthansa	2015	162.17	202.31	80.20%	28601.35	176.36	141.37
Lufthansa	2016	145.88	184.43	79.10%	29250.82	200.52	158.60
Lufthansa	2017	261.16	322.82	80.90%	30584.19	117.11	94.74
Norwegian	2015	42.28	49.03	86.20%	3213.58	76.00	65.55
Norwegian	2016	50.80	57.91	87.70%	3759.05	74.00	64.91
Norwegian	2017	63.32	72.34	87.50%	3213.58	50.75	44.42
Ryanair	2015	130.59	140.74	92.90%	9044.00	69.25	64.26
Ryanair	2016	148.68	158.00	94.10%	9672.00	65.05	61.22
Ryanair	2017	160.00	167.50	95.50%	9044.00	56.53	53.99
SAS	2015	33.78	44.29	76.30%	3826.74	113.28	86.41
SAS	2016	36.94	48.62	76.00%	4126.51	111.71	84.87
SAS	2017	40.08	52.22	76.80%	4378.00	109.24	83.84
TAP Air	2015	29.55	37.60	78.60%	n.d	n.d	n.d
TAP Air	2016	28.54	36.27	78.70%	n.d	n.d	n.d
TAP Air	2017	34.71	41.86	82.90%	n.d	n.d	n.d
Thomas Cook	2015	22.46	24.47	81.00%	4026.96	179.29	164.57
Thomas Cook	2016	23.58	26.26	89.80%	4091.16	173.47	155.79
Thomas Cook	2017	62.94	70.17	89.70%	4342.13	68.99	61.88
TUI Airlines	2015	130.21	160.64	80.25%	6443.90	49.49	40.11
TUI Airlines	2016	135.82	168.59	81.55%	6720.64	49.48	39.86
TUI Airlines	2017	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
Ukraine Inter.	2015	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
Ukraine Inter.	2016	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
Ukraine Inter.	2017	13.46	16.84	79.90%	n.d	n.d	n.d
Virgin Atlantic	2015	37.16	48.39	76.80%	4606.94	123.99	95.21
Virgin Atlantic	2016	37.13	47.18	78.70%	4437.41	119.52	94.06
Virgin Atlantic	2017	36.14	46.15	78.30%	4086.46	113.08	88.54
Wizz Air	2015	30.79	34.84	88.20%	n.d	n.d	n.d
Wizz Air	2016	37.63	41.69	90.10%	n.d	n.d	n.d
Wizz Air	2017	47.21	51.54	91.60%	n.d	n.d	n.d

Source: CDP (2018) and FlightGlobal (2016, 2017, 2018)

The previous analysis would have to be complemented by relativising the recorded emissions concerning a variable that represents the volume of activity or production achieved for each year; this is a measure of efficiency in emissions. The problem we are facing would be to have data referring to the European Union. Given the lack of information, it has been decided to take global data published by the companies in the Carbon Disclosure Project (CDP, 2018), the report issued by FlightGlobal (2016, 2017, 2018) and the data published in annual reports of the companies themselves on their websites. Thus, we compile the total annual emissions data and the total annual revenues per kilometres and passengers, RPK (see Table 7.5). Also, as additional consumption efficiency measures, we collect data on the variables: available seats per kilometre (ASK) and occupancy coefficient (LF). Two emission efficiency measures (ERPK and EASK) are also obtained as a result of dividing the total CO_2 emissions by RPK and ASK, respectively.

Table 7.6 shows the growth rates of global efficiency and emissions variables for airlines for the years 2016–2017. An analysis of the results obtained shows how all airlines increase their revenue figures considerably, except in the case of Virgin Atlantic Airways, for which they hardly vary between 2015–2016 and fall slightly between 2016 and 2017. Lufthansa Group and TAP Air Portugal obtain less revenue between 2015 and 2016 but compensate with a large increase in 2017. Although global emissions also increase for most companies and years, this increase is less than the volume of activity of the companies, which causes efficiency levels to improve for almost all periods and companies. It can also be observed the evolution of improvement in the efficiency measures referred to the LF or occupancy level of the seats offered by the airlines.

Table 7.7 shows the central trend descriptive statistics for the companies in the study. The "skewness" or asymmetry and kurtosis statistics were obtained to represent the position, the degree of concentration of the data and their variability, respectively. The data show a positive asymmetry for being greater than zero and a negative kurtosis which indicates that the distribution of the variables has lighter tails than the normal distribution.

As a complement to the above descriptive analysis, a cluster analysis is applied to define homogeneous groups according to the values of the efficiency variables. This technique makes it possible to form clusters of objects with a high degree of internal homogeneity. It is a descriptive methodology, not inferential since the solution of group formation is not unique and depends on the characteristics of each of the variables under study.

The hierarchical method was used to determine the number of clusters where each of them is an object. The distances of each of the objects from each other are calculated through a distance matrix, where the main diagonal has a value of zero. The nearest objects form each of the clusters.

For the determination of the number of groups the Ward Method was used which minimises the variance within the groups.[2] The values of the variables were transformed through "z" scores to standardise them because the variables have different units of measure. Figure 7.1 shows the dendogram with the methodology

TABLE 7.6 Airline efficiency growth rates, years 2016–2017 (%)

Company	Year	PaxW (Mill)	RPKs (Mill)	ASKs (Mill)	LF (%)	TnCO2 (m)	ERPK	EASK
Aegean Airlines	2017	n.d	8.90	1.70	13.20	3.91	-4.58	2.17%
Air Europa	2016	4.50	5.83	5.96	-0.12	n.d	n.d	n.d
Air Europa	2017	-0.75	6.48	8.51	-1.79	n.d	n.d	n.d
Air France–KLM	2016	2.69	1.60	1.08	0.53	-0.86	-2.42	-1.93%
Air France–KLM	2017	4.61	4.32	2.65	1.28	0.94	-3.24	-1.66%
Alitalia	2016	-5.33	1.75	1.28	0.52	-11.50	-13.03	-12.62%
Alitalia	2017	5.63	2.86	1.67	1.16	5.11	2.19	3.39%
Finnair	2016	5.64	5.76	6.53	-0.75	8.27	2.37	1.63%
Finnair	2017	9.48	13.62	8.87	4.39	1.27	-10.87	-6.98%
IAG	2016	10.05	4.55	4.31	4.49	7.32	2.66	2.89%
IAG	2017	4.10	3.84	2.60	-3.39	1.77	-1.99	-0.81%
Lufthansa Group	2016	-21.31	-10.05	-8.84	-1.37	2.27	13.69	12.19%
Lufthansa Group	2017	108.33	79.02	75.04	2.28	4.56	-41.60	-40.27%
Norwegian	2016	1.74	20.14	18.12	1.74	16.97	-2.63	-0.97%
Norwegian	2017	12.97	24.65	24.92	-0.23	-14.51	-31.42	-31.56%
Ryanair	2016	12.59	13.85	12.26	1.29	6.94	-6.07	-4.74%
Ryanair	2017	8.76	7.62	6.01	1.49	-6.49	-13.11	-11.80%
SAS	2016	4.63	9.35	9.78	-0.39	7.83	-1.39	-1.77%
SAS	2017	2.04	8.49	7.40	1.05	6.09	-2.21	-1.21%
TAP Air Portugal	2016	3.36	-3.44	-3.54	0.13	n.d	n.d	n.d
TAP Air Portugal	2017	22.22	21.64	15.43	5.34	n.d	n.d	n.d
Thomas Cook	2016	-5.67	5.00	7.32	10.86	1.59	-3.25	-5.33%
Thomas Cook	2017	-13.15	166.89	167.21	-0.11	6.13	-60.23	-60.28%
TUI Airlines	2016	39.00	4.30	4.95	1.62	4.29	-0.01	-0.62%
Virgin Atlantic	2016	-8.47	-0.08	-2.50	2.47	-3.68	-3.60	-1.21%
Virgin Atlantic	2017	-1.85	-2.66	-2.16	-0.51	-7.91	-5.39	-5.87%
Wizz Air	2016	44.24	22.22	19.65	2.15	n.d	n.d	n.d
Wizz Air	2017	24.37	25.47	23.62	1.66	n.d	n.d	n.d

Source: Own elaboration based on CDP (2018) and FlightGlobal (2016, 2017, 2018)

TABLE 7.7 Descriptive statistics

Statistics	RPK	ASK	LF	PAX	CO2	ERPK
Average	83.52	99.570	0.83	39.76	10330.78	98.22
Std. Desv.	81.41	97.230	0.05	37.74	10967.96	49.20
Skewness	1.18	1.226	0.64	1.20	1.03	0.08
Kurtosis	−0.14	−0.001	−0.47	0.10	−0.77	0.07
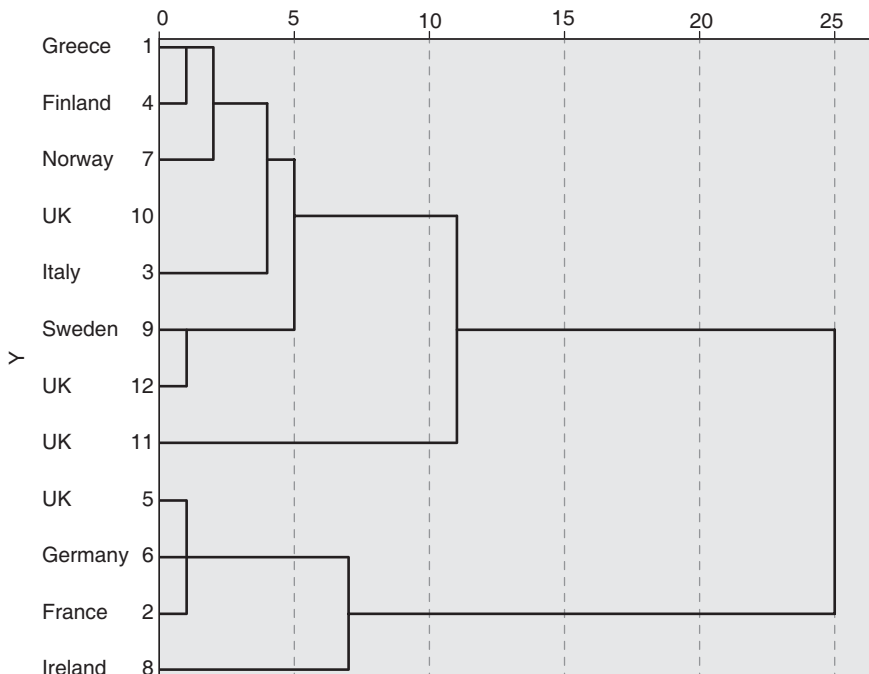
FIGURE 7.1   Dendogram: Ward Method

described above and the groups formed. Three groups were identified for the sample under study.

The multivariable analysis has been carried out forcing the k-medias method to classify in four groups, according to what the dendogram recommended. The outputs were as follows (see Table 7.8).

As can be seen in Table 7.8, we obtain two more numerous groups made up of four and five companies (clusters 1 and 4, respectively). Besides, Alitalia is a company that we consider to be an outlier because its efficiency ratios are much lower than any other. Finally, we have a grouping of two companies (Cluster 2).

From the analysis of the whole (see Table 7.9), we see how in Cluster 1 the companies with the best efficiencies on average for the period analysed (Aegean

TABLE 7.8 Classification of companies by cluster

Case	Company	Cluster
1	Aegean Airlines	1
2	Air France-KLM	4
3	Alitalia	3
4	Finnair	4
5	IAG	4
6	Lufthansa Group	2
7	Norwegian	1
8	Ryanair	1
9	SAS	4
10	Thomas Cook Airlines	2
11	TUI Airlines	1
12	Virgin Atlantic Airways	4

TABLE 7.9 Comparison of averages

Variables	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
AvEASK	54,29	155,08	3,10	90,55
AvERKP	60,92	182,41	3,81	110,72

TABLE 7.10 Anova of a factor

	Cluster		Error		F	Sig.
	Squared average	df	Squared average	df		
AvEASK	6781,437	3	60,716	8	111,691	,000
AvERKP	9808,131	3	57,846	8	169,556	,000

Airlines, Norwegian, Ryanair and TUI Airlines) are grouped. Cluster 2 groups the airlines with the lowest levels of efficiency over their emissions (Lufthansa Group and Thomas Cook Airlines).

Keeping in mind the groups that are formed, it cannot be deduced that the efficiency levels can be related to the size of the airlines regarding revenue or air traffic offered. Thus, we find that the largest airlines are grouped between Cluster 1 and Cluster 2.

In order to validate the groups or clusters formed, the ANOVA test of one factor for more than two groups was carried out. In this test, the null hypothesis affirms the equality between the means and the alternative hypothesis guarantees that at least one is different. Table 7.10 shows a significance of less than 0.05, which rejects the null hypothesis. It can be confirmed that the groups are well classified.

Conclusion

As a first conclusion, we can say that all the major European airlines have adapted as far as possible to the reductions set before the entry into force of the European regulations. There has also been an improvement in efficiency levels for practically all the leading European airlines concerning global emissions to total revenue (RPK) as well as regarding seats offered on their air routes (ASK). It can, therefore, be said that there has been a positive short- and medium-term effect on overall emissions, in line with the conclusions of Porter's previous work (1995).

The performance of the airlines has been very satisfactory, as although the emissions generated have increased the volume of activity, it did so to a greater extent, thereby achieving improved efficiency. The positive evolution of the occupancy factor (LF) reveals the excellent management of the routes and flights of these airlines.

The recommendation to the European authorities would be to invest more in research projects on emission efficiency related to new fuels or weather conditions of the different air routes.

On the other hand, the single European emissions register can be a critical benchmarking tool for airlines and a key to improving their strategies for reducing greenhouse gas emissions. Thus, the information published by this register should be increased by requiring companies to provide data on air traffic regarding passenger-kilometres or seat-kilometres offered by companies in the European Union. Thus, the emissions generated could be relativised. An emissions management report should also be obligatory for this type of company, providing data referring to investments in research and development of technology, initiatives or actions to achieve improvements referring to efficiency in emissions. Also, this report should justify possible increases or loss of efficiency in emissions. All of the above will serve as a reference for the improvement of all companies in the sector in order to improve their emission strategies.

Acknowledgement

Notes

1 The year 2013 has been excluded because the rates obtained are very high and different between companies, which distorts the analysis of the whole with respect to the rest of the years.
2 The averages of the values are used for the efficiency variables in the years analysed.

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8

TOURISM IN LOW DENSITY AREAS

A review of coastal and rural development practices

Dina Ramos, Carlos Costa and Filipe Teles

Introduction

Research introduction

Tourism has emerged as one of the main industries in the world with significant potential to grow over the coming years. The principal tourism offers are located in coastal areas, where the volume of tourist flows and business activities are concentrated. According to the World Tourism Organization (OMT – UNWTO, 2017), one third of the entire world's tourism income comes from tourism in coastal areas. In this context, considering the necessity of finding alternative and complementary offers, many studies indicate that rural zones might become common alternative sustainable destinations when situated nearby the coastal areas.

This work intends to be a systematic literature review on the subject. However, due to the lack of available information, we believe it would be relevant to start by presenting a theoretical framework of the theme.

In the next section, we present the chosen methodology to pursue our objectives, followed by a bibliographic review. Findings revealed that articles can be categorized in three dimensions (culture and heritage preservation, governance and impacts), which are interconnected. Results also include a summary and methodologies used in different studies and conclusion by projecting future investigations on the subject.

Theoretical framework

The growing importance of connectivity between urban–rural areas is fundamental to a region's development, according to Eurostat (2016). The European Union (EU) has classified certain typologies based on several criteria such as regional statistics; cities or metropolitan regions' statistics; urban–rural typology; administrative

units' urbanization level, etc. The local urbanization level identifies urban areas (cities) as those places where at least 50% of the population lives in urban centres while intermediate density areas (cities and suburbs) are places with at least 50% of the population living in urban agglomerates, but not classified as a city. Sparsely populated areas are defined as those having at least 50% of the population living in rural areas (refer to "Population Density in Europe," Eurostat, 2014).

Research regarding coastal areas in Europe is extensive. In addition, the typologies to distinguish and understand rural and urban areas are particularly complex. One reason can be associated with the cities' and urban centres' expansion and how they become closer with each other. Ecorys (2013) understands tourism in coastal areas as tourism recreational activities which occur in places near the sea. Coastal areas could be of intense urban concentration and/or areas with low demographic density (normally associated with rurality and forests).

The dynamic evolution of tourism creates opportunities for new markets based on an increasingly diversified demand. Due to the diversification of supply that complements coastal tourism with urban and rural tourism, the European Commission has implemented communication and promotional campaigns. "Since 1990, many governmental programs have tried to improve tourism and economic activities in rural areas by diversifying tourist markets" (Eurostat, 2014).

However, Sharpley (2002) argues the success of the aforementioned politics in a study conducted in Cyprus, in which he believes that the lack of specialization of service providers and the scarce external promotions limit the development of rural tourism. Moreover, rural and mass tourism compete with each other and should use different commercialization channels. Nevertheless, several authors identify convergence between these two types of tourism, emphasizing the significant value tourists give to rural areas' natural environment when situated nearby the coastal areas due to its low traffic congestion (Yague Perales, 2002).

There is still scarcity of literature about coastal tourism in rural or low demographic density areas. Lacitignola, Petrosillo and Zurlini (2007) suggested a dynamic model explaining the interrelationship between mass tourism and ecotourism. They concluded by presenting the difference between rural and coastal destinations, including the facilities and existing services with reference to the capacity of attracting tourists. As a result, it was considered positive to "sun–sand–sea" tourists and negative to ecology-minded tourists. Hernández et al. (2012) reiterated a joint promotion of rural and mass tourism as well as the establishment of common infrastructure for both. Recently, Ramos (2014) proposed a development model that links both rural and coastal destinations, concluding the possibility of making an advantageous connection between them. It can be done by creating innovative networks, sustainable rural spaces and provision of constant demands to coastal areas. Furthermore, it all should be accompanied with a strong governance, based on new forms of tourism, markets and supplies.

The presented framework intends to complement the systematic investigation in order to enrich this chapter.

Methodology

This chapter's elaboration was based on a published literature review about the subject. It was followed by a research on 'SCOPUS' database during June and July 2018. A combination of the following keywords: "Tourism", "rural-urban fringe", "coastal Tourism", "rural Tourism", "rural tourism development", "coastal areas", "Rural and Tourism and Coastal and areas", "Rural Tourism" AND "Coastal areas, Rural Tourism" AND "Coastal Tourism", among others, has shown any results. All articles considered in this research were published in the database from 2006 to 2018, and there were 159 results in total.

After having read all titles and abstracts, the studies which had not been considered related to this research were excluded. In total, we considered 14 articles as relevant samples to this study. This section was developed based on the following criteria: 1) effective approach to coastal and rural destinations, 2) the destinations' relationship with tourism and 3) the relevance of articles to the subject, including those without complete available versions (due to scarce literature about the theme). The process is shown diagrammatically in Figure 8.1.
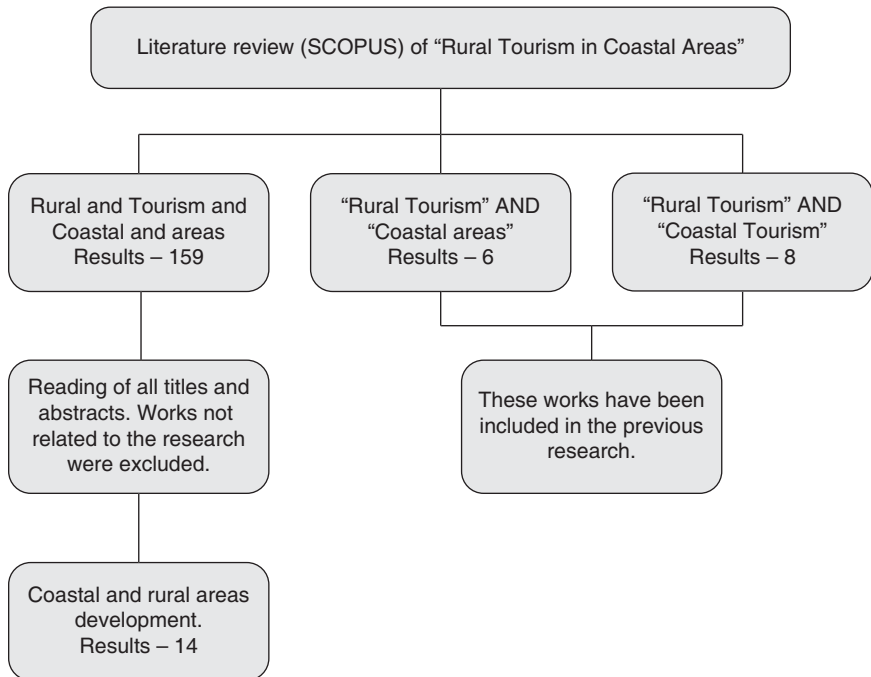
FIGURE 8.1   Literature systematic review analysis process

Sources: Own elaboration.

From the analysed articles, it has been observed that the majority of them, 64.3%, are scientific articles, 14.3% are conference papers and 14.3% are book chapters, as demonstrated in Figure 8.2.

The year with the highest number of published articles (four) was in 2012 and followed by 2016 with three, according to Figure 8.3.

Review (7.1%)
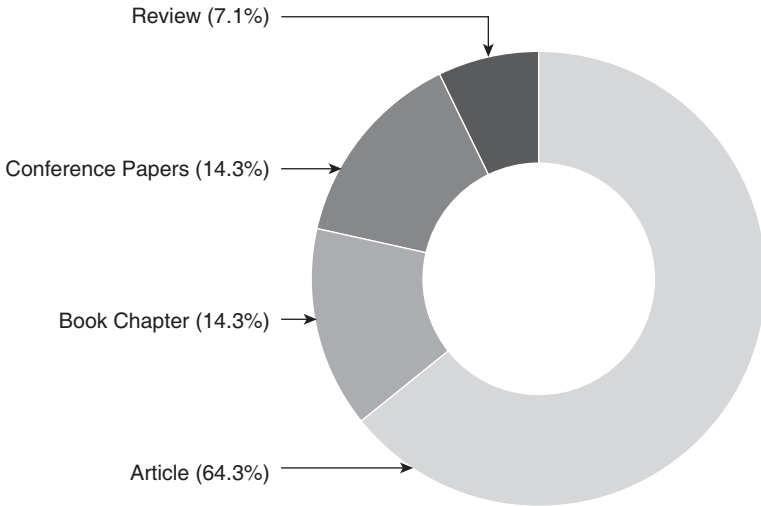
Conference Papers (14.3%)

Book Chapter (14.3%)

Article (64.3%)

FIGURE 8.2   Articles, by type (www.scopus.com)
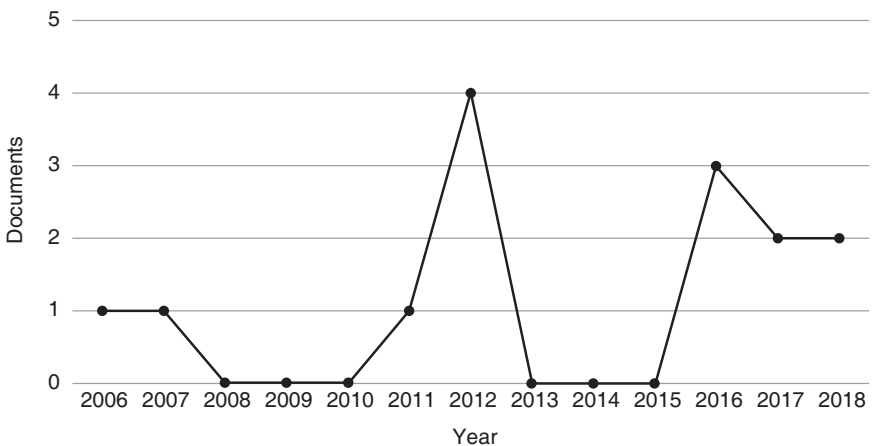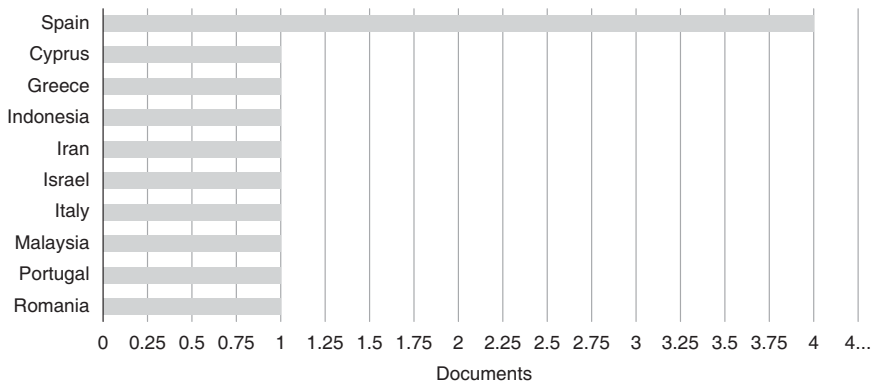
Sources: Own elaboration.

FIGURE 8.3   Articles, by year of publication (www.scopus.com)

Sources: Own elaboration.

FIGURE 8.4   Published articles by country (www.scopus.com)

Sources: Own elaboration.

Spain is the country with most publications about the subject, having four arti-cles. All other countries have one publication each, as demonstrated in Figure 8.4.

Afterwards, we conducted a literature review regarding the main analysis dimen-sions, which will be presented in the onward subsections. We conclude our study with an analysis and a discussion of results, the methodologies used and the country of publication (when applicable). Lastly, we present the conclusion, future investiga-tions and bibliographical references.

Coastal tourism in rural areas – state of the art

An in-depth analysis of the articles has allowed us to define three interconnected analysis/approaches dimensions, as shown in Table 8.1. First, in the field of culture and heritage preservation of studied locations; second, a dimension that directs us towards the development of new forms of governance, which can contribute to sustainability; and third, a more impact-centred approach, which focuses on pos-sible consequences for coastal and rural areas. Since the connection between the aforementioned articles is evident, they can be easily included in more than one approach.

Culture and heritage preservation

Considering a "common dependency" relationship between rural and coastal areas, rural communities can develop in a more sustainable way. The coast is attractive to tourists, investors and authorities, mainly because of its natural features. In a study taken in the Romanian Black Sea coast, Tascu-Stavre (2018) highlights the historical perspective in the nature of relationships between local communities, the environment and tourists. Although mass tourism has gone through development

TABLE 8.1 Analysis/approaches dimensions by authors

Approaches/fields	*Authors*
Culture and heritage preservation	Tascu-Stavre (2018); Santo (2012); Singgalen et al. (2018); Andriotis (2006)
Governance	Ramos et al. (2017); Farmaki (2012); Hernández et al. (2012); León (2007);
Impacts (positive/ negative)	Hernández, Suárez-Vega and Santana-Jiménez (2016); Rahmani, Zabihi and Izad (2016); Navarro Jurado et al. (2012); Somuncu (2016); Kilot, Collins-Kreiner and Shmueli (2011); Pirlone and Spadaro (2017)

Sources: Own elaboration.

and modernization, the aforementioned relationships allow rural tourism to survive. Also evident is the ability of local communities to manage and protect coastal areas, making it easier to guarantee sustainable management, one that contributes to cooperation, solidarity and reciprocity.

In a theoretical–conceptual approach, Santo (2012) analysed the connection between these types of tourism and points out the main differences separating mass and alternative tourism: the former – related to ideas such as high-density coastal tourism, large-scale, high market volume, seasonal, etc.; the latter – sparse, low density, small-scale, low seasonality, low market volume, etc. The author also mentioned the relationship to rural and natural contexts of traditional products that coexist with other tourist products – originally from coastal areas – or new products that allow differentiation in the market. Different types of tourism should be interconnected and collaborated with each other, as complementary alternatives (Santo, 2012).

Rural populations frequently migrate to cities and coastal resorts seeking better employment and life opportunities. On the island of Crete, the regional imbalance is evident, since tourist activities are placed around the coast. Having this in mind, the main objective is to study development gaps between rural and coastal areas and suggest how to fill them. On the island, agriculture is still the main source of economic development. Tourists usually go on day trips and rarely spend the night. To improve this scenario, it is necessary to attract environmentally conscious investments that channel alternative, cultural forms of tourism, based on local and architectural traditions. Suggested interventions should be applied in Crete with consistency, continuity and efficiency in order to achieve a sustainable development (Andriotis, 2006).

Singgalen et al. (2018) has applied the qualitative Participatory Action Research (PAR) method in Tunuo village in Indonesia. Even though tourism is a sector of development, it can be a source of extra income to many while preserving both the environment and the local culture. Based on the results, the local people's consciousness regarding tourist development results in community engagement, especially in activities such as environmental protection and development of new, local products.

Andriotis (2006), who conducted a study in Crete Island, highlights the benefits of tourism as a new economic activity. It was observed that small shops have been opened in the island by women who loom and produce arts and crafts related to the local culture. However, there are not enough tourists to whom they can sell their products, so sellers from outside the area buy their remaining stock – and sell it in the coast. Therefore, cooperation, training and sustainability programs allow culture and heritage preservation of destinations. These are considered fundamental aspects to develop rural coastal areas – and an alternative to "sun-sand-sea" tourism.

Governance

In Dominican Republic, the promotion of domestic tourism policies can provide widespread benefits to the population, since it can promote local travel agencies with low infrastructure costs and allow them to have more control over tourism. In that way, these agencies can offer alternative income resources to rural populations in coastal areas and offset the decline of dominant rural sectors by promoting the country's development. The research also suggests that the participation of local businesses and tourism organizations allows the promotion of the community's well-being and its self-sufficiency, as well as also developing their members' confidence (León, 2007).

Destinations in which tourist concentration is in coastal areas try to offset agro-industries' decline by creating tourist development strategies. Several authors who developed studies in Cipres found that it's difficult to define rural tourism and understand why tourists are attracted to such regions. They have conducted a qualitative research considering supply and demand, including people's main motivations in visiting rural areas. It has not been conclusive, but it has pointed out that sometimes the rural area itself is not the main reason for people to visit it. Surprisingly, people visit rural areas for different reasons and oftentimes not related to rural setting. Decision-makers must understand that rural tourists' motivations are essential by examining the relationship between destination-specific and personal-specific attributes in order to attract tourists to the rural areas and manage rural tourism effectively. (Farmaki, 2012).

The use of a simulation model has demonstrated the most efficient measures to guarantee long-term sustainability in the tourist sector. They are related to both regulation and planning of new buildings and to the promotion of two types of densities (coastal and rural) as unique regional resources in enhancing destinations (Hernández et al., 2012).

In 2017, Ramos et al. presented the revalidation of a development model for coastal tourism in rural areas, which intends to be an innovative way to create a differentiated tourist market. That revalidation is based on new knowledge dimensions of tourism and the search for new destinations, new experiences, etc. It acknowledged that a solid and sustainable governance is fundamental to develop these tourism areas. They also consider the "return" of people who have emigrated from rural regions and are now going back to their own villages, as a very significant

component, as those people do not only spend the summer at nearby beaches, but also support local tourism. Thus, the previous study is based on the elaboration of a productive compatibility matrix regarding tourist countryside areas. Moreover, it reflects the importance of creating a proper strategic planning, one that provides compatibility solutions and territorial uses, which can facilitate symbiotic opportunities that generate new synergy (Santo, 2012).

Impacts (positive/negative)

In order to obtain sustainability in tourism, it is fundamental to have in mind the preservation of culture, local traditions and the environment. The involvement of the local population is also an important consideration. Hernández, Suárez-Vega and Santana-Jiménez (2016) analysed the existing interconnection between coastal tourism sustainability conditions (South of Europe – consolidated coastal resorts) and rural tourism (distant rural tourism areas). The results of the study indicate that mass and rural tourism are compatible. However, they should be independently developed and promoted, even if they have a few aspects in common, such as infrastructure, cultural events or tourist attractions. That would be the only way of preserving their own attractiveness. It also concluded that if the demand from coastal tourists to rural tourism becomes too intense, it will cause noise pollution and traffic jams and disturb rural life. Aside from these conclusions, a symbiosis between these two types of tourism is possible, provided that necessary measures are taken to minimize impacts.

An analysis regarding different tourism dimensions growth rates in Noor, Iran, includes physical, economic and sociocultural perspectives, showcasing the development of coastal villages as influenced by tourist sectors that promote economic, social and environmental development. Nevertheless, such growth had a strong impact on land use (Rahmani, Zabihi and Izad, 2016).

Navarro et al. (2012) suggested a methodology development to evaluate the limits of growth in tourist destinations applied to the planning and management of an open tourist resort. A mathematical formula was used to establish the limits of growth, based on synthetic indicators applied to two different scenarios: weak and strong sustainability. This study was conducted in a coastal area with a mass tourism-based economy; it used a flexible formula to evaluate the limits of growth. It's conclusions about the impacts caused by tourism in those regions and the specific objectives of those who manage the destination can also be adapted to other coastal areas (rural, natural and urban).

The lack of planning and a legally accepted control system is a threat to coastal resources existent in Israel. According to Kilot, Collins-Kreiner and Shmueli (2011), increasing population density and the use of unsustainable coastal and rural resources are causing strong pressure in the area. Without any planning, local people are building for touristic and private purposes, causing environmental, economic and social impacts on the region.

As stated by Pirlone and Spadaro (2017), the existence of a specific tool focusing on tourism management has not yet been identified – even though the subject of tourism sustainability is largely studied, especially in coastal areas that are rich in heritage and nature. In that sense, they consider it essential to have planning that defines innovative strategies that combine both the benefits and the impacts of tourism. During the development of their study, the authors suggest a Sustainable Tourism Action Plan (STAP) that combines those aspects.

In Turkey, mountainous regions of the East Black Sea have become popular holiday destinations for domestic tourists, mainly because of their rich natural and cultural heritage. Existing heritage exploitation and strong state investment have turned these areas into important tourist centres. Such activities have changed how the land is used, the functions of summer grazing, and even the residents' lifestyle (Somuncu, 2016).

Tourist development in rural areas adjacent to the coast can be positive when well-planned, coherently developed and respecting the local culture. On the other hand, it can also lead to negative impacts, such as abandonment of traditional activities and loss of local identity, besides other environmental, economic and social impacts.

Analysis, discussion and conclusion

This chapter's main objective is to organize a literature review regarding coastal tourism in rural areas. Although being an insufficiently researched theme, we understand this can be fundamental to the development of coastal and adjacent rural destinations – if planned in a sustainable way and by creating networks capable of promoting their differences. Such differences can become forces in overcoming the main obstacles existent in coastal tourism: seasonality and overcrowding.

In Table 8.2, we present a summary of the studied articles and the methodologies adopted by their authors, in three parts: (a) Cultural and heritage preservation, (b) Governance and (c) Impacts.

This chapter concludes that culture and heritage preservation is an important factor to populations and tourist development in destinations. Sustainable tourism that creates synergies and wealth to residents, can be supported by building awareness. Governance abilities can promote a strong proximity between a destination and decision-maker and make it easier to build confidence among residents. It is also possible to minimize negative impacts in low density and coastal areas by creating common infrastructures to "sun-sand-sea" and rural tourism. Such a measure would also bring mutual benefits to these destinations.

In our opinion, the implementation of new planning projects to promote quality of life for local residents – in areas associated with rurality and "sun-sand-sea" tourism – can help to reduce seasonality of the "sun-sand-sea" product. Simultaneously, it can be the answer to the search for alternatives in rural adjacent areas.

TABLE 8.2 Summary/methodology

(a) Culture and heritage preservation

Author	Relevant conclusions	Methodology	Location of study
Taşcu-Stavre (2018)	The development in coastal areas allows the emergence of rural tourism, with its potential benefits shaped by the effective protection of the coasts. The communities in these areas adopted specific development strategies, which lead the authors to conclude that tourists prefer rural areas when they need positive outcomes. For instance: to relax, discover their family roots and enjoy free time with nature.	Case study	Romania – Black Sea South Coast
Santo (2012)	A theoretical analysis that elaborates a productive compatibility source. It verifies that efficient planning can deepen connections between different types of tourism, as well as contributing to the preservation of local culture and creation of new synergies and tourist products.	Theoretical/ Conceptual Analysis	———
Singgalen et al. (2018)	Building awareness about tourism development enhances local community engagement toward the creation and preservation of local or indigenous products. The study concludes that the use of natural resources contributes to cultural preservation and creation of wealth among its residents.	Qualitative Participatory Action Research (PAR)	Tunuo Village – Indonésia
Andriotis (2006)	Non-agricultural incomes can create economic opportunities in the countryside of Crete. In addition, future investments will become environmentally friendly if continuously controlled and focused on developing alternative cultural forms of tourism, inspired by traditional architecture and local culture.	Statistical analysis/ Case study	Greece – Crete Island

(b) *Governance*

Author	Relevant conclusions	Methodology	Location of study
Ramos et al. (2017)	The authors elaborated a development model, which suggests that complementing coastal and rural areas would contribute to tourism sustainability as well as to the supply of new tourist products – when, and if, there is a solid proximity relationship between decision-makers.	Interviews and questionnaire/ model	Central Portugal
Farmaki (2012).	In coastal and rural areas, tourism contributes to the revival and growth of traditional agricultural industries. It concludes that the demand for rural destinations depends on the decisions made by the policy-makers and the relationship between these decision-makers and the destination attributes.	Qualitative Research/ Non-structured interviews	Cyprus – Rural and coastal areas
Hernández et al. (2012).	These results highlight the measures that should be taken by economic actors in order to preserve as well as increase the number of visitors in both (rural and coastal) types of destinations. Furthermore, the decision-makers defined the policies to regulate the construction of common infrastructure and the joint promotion of mass and rural tourism.	Dynamic growth model	Spain – Balearic Islands, Canary Islands and e Catalonia
León (2007).	The author concludes that promoting domestic tourism policies can benefit the people. The control over tourism and the promotion of local tourist companies – with low infrastructure costs – can improve a community's well-being. Based on local people's abilities, not only it is possible to promote their members' source of income, but also their confidence.	Case study	Dominican Republic

(*Continued*)

TABLE 8.2 Continued

(c) Impacts (positive/negative)

Author	Relevant conclusions	Methodology	Location of study
Hernández, Suárez-Vega and Santana-Jiménez (2016).	A comparison between the main attractions of mass and rural tourism, identifying potential linkages. Rural tourism in such destinations can be positive or negatively affected by the presence of mass tourism and vice-versa.	Comparative analysis/ Case study/dynamic model	South Europe coastal areas
Rahmani, Zabihi and Izad (2016)	This study investigates the role of tourism in economically developing local villages, according to their economic, sociocultural and physical-environmental capacities. Tourism has a significant effect on land-use changes and there is a high level of effective growth in different tourism dimensions.	Chi-square technique/ questionnaires	Noor Coastal Villages – Iran
Navarro et al. (2012)	In this study, a flexible mathematical formula is applied to coastal areas (natural, urban and rural). It concludes that urbanization processes do not always guarantee a development in regions but can often create negative impacts to their residents. The development of a tourist destination can bring positive but, sometimes, harmful consequences to local culture and the environment.	Multicriteria analysis based on reference points methodology, based on synthetic indicators	Sun Coast – Malaga, Spain
Somuncu (2016).	This study reveals tourism in coastal areas has been chosen over rural tourism in mountainous regions, which are naturally and culturally rich zones. Consequently, tourism investments have changed land-use and patterns in local population's lifestyle. They bring positive changes to rural development but negative results for environmental and cultural values. The author understands that the interconnection presents mutual conflicts and benefits.	Case study	Turkey – East Black Sea
Kilot, Collins-Kreiner and Shmueli (2011)	The analysis of coastal resource exploitation in two different regions – urban and rural – concludes there is a high level of pressure over coastal resources, due to huge growth and increase in population density.	Case study/ comparative	Israel: Haifa metropolitan region and rural/coastal Atlit and Hadera

Sources: Own elaboration.

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9

VISITING GARDENS IN PORTUGAL

Profiling the historic gardens visit and visitors

Susana Silva and Paulo Carvalho

Introduction

Visiting gardens is an increasingly popular activity around the world, so much so that there are a number of gardens that are real attractions, with visitor numbers that exceed those of some niche tourist segments. Although garden visiting is not exactly a novelty, the share it has been gaining in the global tourist trade, the ample scope for development (Bhatti and Church, 2000; Connell, 2004, 2005) and the positive effects on societies and territories, have all helped to see this activity being defined as a phenomenon of cultural tourism and leisure in postmodern society (Connell, 2004; Müller, 2011; Benfield, 2013). Evans (2001) describes gardens as strategic resources, but more particularly as important products of local, regional and even national tourism. Take the case of the United Kingdom, for example one of the major sending and receiving markets for garden visitors, where gardens are one of the main tourist attractions (Gallagher, 1983; Evans, 2001; Connell, 2002, 2004; Fox, 2007, 2017). With more than 50 million visits to English gardens in 2016 (VisitBritain, 2017), gardens are currently the third main attraction on the English market; in 2016 gardens saw a greater increase in visits than any other type of attraction, with visits to gardens rising rapidly since 2013 (VisitEngland, 2017). Benfield (2013) even considers that garden tourism could become one of the largest retail sectors in the tourist market, although it is still an underestimated segment, since in just one year (2000) it was estimated that more than 150 million people visited public gardens around the world, a figure that could reach 300 million if visitors to private gardens are added.

From north to south, and not forgetting the islands, Portugal has a broad and varied spectrum of gardens of various periods (Caldeira Cabral, 1993) that have specific and distinctive cultural traits (Carita and Cardoso, 1987). However, in spite of the number and diversity on offer, the recognition of gardens as a tourism

product is overdue and has been slow in coming compared to other countries, notably Britain and France. Even so, interest in these spaces emerged in the 1990s and is consolidating in this new millennium, with actions and strategies that have influenced the increase in visits, which is why Portugal has been occupying an increasingly prominent position on the itinerary of garden tourism. Some are tourist hot spots of great relevance, especially the Madeira and Sintra region. According to available data, botanical gardens attracted about 1.3 million visitors in 2017, a growth of 56% in 6 years (INE, 2018). In Madeira, which has more than 30 gardens spread over two islands (Madeira and Porto Santo), the three main gardens alone attract nearly 650 thousand visitors, and around Sintra, the four most important gardens are visited by almost 2 million. But there are more than botanical gardens or "well-marketed gardens", and so the size of the demand market may well exceed 4 million.

Viewed from various perspectives and studied in various sciences, in overall terms the garden has been overlooked in the social sciences in general, and in leisure and tourism studies in particular. This is according to Bhatti and Church (2000, 2001), Connell (2002, 2004), Fox (2007) and Benfield (2013). A concern shared by Portuguese authors, notably Quintal (2009), and it is in the field of landscape architecture in particular that there are occasional studies that single out gardens/pleasure farms as tourism resources and suggest tourism as a means of safeguarding Portuguese historic gardens.

To help bridge the gap between the lack of studies on the leisure and tourism dimension of gardens, particularly historic gardens, and to broaden knowledge about this segment, focusing on their relevance in the Portuguese context, this chapter proposes to describe and analyse the socioeconomic and demographic profile of the visitor. It also examines their interests, motivations, visiting habits and behaviours based on information obtained from questionnaires applied to a sample of 666 visitors from three gardens – Serralves Park (Porto), University of Coimbra Botanical Garden (Coimbra) and Fronteira Palace Garden (Lisbon).

Taking into account the empirical results collected, attention is drawn to the differences between gardens and between types of visitors in relation to the aspects analysed, as well as to the significance and implication of the evidence found for strategic management.

Garden tourism/garden visiting in the context of leisure and contemporary tourism

Visiting gardens – an experience in postmodernity

The Florence Charter says that any historic garden, defined as an architectural and horticultural composition, whether a small garden or a large park, formal or "landscape", of interest to the public from a historical or artistic point of view, is designed to be seen and walked about in. More correctly, any garden, historic or otherwise, is built to be enjoyed, appreciated and experienced. A garden is a space

that has multiple functions and uses, with particular emphasis on the recreational function (Benfield, 2013). This is an intrinsic part of its essence and ancestral existence, which has become increasingly important through growing visitor numbers, just as Connell (2004:229) argues, "Gardens play a significant role in the enjoyment of leisure time and the pleasures derived from the garden environment extend well beyond the parameters of the domestic garden".

The emergence of an industry of experiences in recent decades, as opposed to a mass industry that no longer satisfies that category of tourists that does not identify with the standardized, commonplace destinations, products and practices provided by globalization, has paved the way for the emergence and development of tourist segments fuelled by tourists who are more selective, specific, demanding and complex (Hall and Page, 2006). These constitute a fragmented demand that is different and original, less uniform and standardized (Robinson and Novelli, 2005), based more on experiences that are exceptional and unusual (Netto and Gaeta, 2011).

Although garden visiting is not a recent practice (Connell, 2002), according to Connell and Meyer (2004), gardens fit perfectly into this idea of tourism experience, with an emphasis on visual experience. As Fox and Edwards remark (2008:8), these are different from most attractions in that they cannot offer a standardized product since "the imagescape is in the state of constant transformation because nature interacting with anthropogenic actions creates and shapes a garden". The result is a space that changes with every cycle of daily, monthly or yearly life through the action of time (Berjman, 2001) and through the action of societies themselves and their uses that provide them with a memory, which is why it is quite attractive.

Thus, by bringing together natural and cultural values and components, and often historical ones, too (Cavaco and Simões, 2009), gardens are increasingly tourist places, and the development and qualification of the visit experience has brought about an increase in the commercialization and marketing of the garden as a leisure experience (Connell, 2002). Although garden tourism is regarded as a niche product (Evans, 2001; Cavaco and Simões, 2009; Quintal, 2009; Gorman, 2010), it is nowadays a highly important one and is seeing remarkable growth, to the extent that it is now identified as a phenomenon of cultural tourism and leisure of the postmodern society, as well as one of the tourist niches of postmodernity (Connell, 2004).

The motivational framework of the garden visit and the visitor profile

The recurring discussions about multiple motivations, measurement, interpretation and even the range of social and cultural influences that influence tourism motivation (Gnoth, 1997; Hall and Page, 2006) have concluded that people can visit for a number of reasons. The motivations and behaviours of a visitor are neither linear nor always constant; they depend on the combination of needs and desires, time and money available, or images, perceptions, and attitudes (Cooper et al., 1993, cited in Hall and Page, 2006).

In the case of gardens, this situation is particularly noticeable as there are not just one or two clearly defined and conceptually delimited motivations for visiting them. According to Connell (2002), the array of motivations for garden visiting is complex and fragmented and results from a combination of factors. Some of these are personal while others are related to the features and management of the attraction, which leads the author to draw attention to the relationship between the reasons for the visit to gardens and the form of tourist gaze (spectatorial, romantic, anthropological and collective), which makes it possible to define the type of visit (intentional or casual).

It is clear from the various studies carried out on this subject (Gallagher, 1983; Tipples and Gibbons, 1992; Connell, 2002; Nord/Lb, 2002; Fox, 2007; Ballantyne, Packer and Hughes, 2008; Kukla, 2009; Iwi/Brunner, Mahlberg and Schneider, 2009; Ward, Parker and Shackleton, 2010; Bauer-Krösbacher and Payer, 2012; Karaşah and Var, 2013) that a great many of garden visits are largely motivated by reasons that are more general in nature rather than specific, although the range of motives given by visitors should be noted, which were compiled and analysed by Silva and Carvalho (2017). According to the mentioned authors, these sources allow us to indicate several large groups of motivations for visiting gardens: knowledge/learning; contact with nature; relaxation; and social interaction. In earlier studies by Gallagher (1983) and Tipples and Gibbons (1992), the motivations are mainly concerned with a specific interest in gardens, gardening techniques and with getting ideas and inspiration for the garden itself. The focus in subsequent studies is more general and centres essentially on three other points: contact with nature/open air (enjoying a day out, nature, admiring the garden setting, enjoying the open air/nature); relaxation (for peace and quiet, to relax, get away from the confusion and stress of the city); and social interaction (spending quality time with family and friends or activities with children). Contact with nature and being outdoors, as well as peace and quiet, have been gaining more representation as motivations for visiting gardens.

Regarding the profile of the consumer of gardens, Evans (2001) warns that it is a broad market that crosses several socioeconomic, geographic and lifestyle boundaries. The evidence gathered by previous research has shown that although visitors to gardens are not a homogeneous group, they do share a number of identifying features. It is a predominantly female community whose members are usually adult and older, although some more recent studies report an increase in the proportion of young people. They are national/local, consisting of day-trippers (large proportion) and tourists, who work in high-end professions, implying that they have higher academic qualifications and higher incomes. They tend to visit gardens either accompanied by their spouse or with friends and they make repeat visits. Most of them have a garden of their own and exhibit a general interest in gardens and gardening. Connell (2002) and Bauer-Krösbacher and Payer (2012) also say that this type of visitor shows an interest in and propensity for cultural and natural attractions.

Gardens have attracted across a broad spectrum of people, from the curious generalist visitor, the "Sunday traveller", to the plant and botanical experts and

garden historians, the keen and knowledgeable (*passionné averti*) (Pett, 1998, cited in Connell, 2004; Arama-Carrel, 2006), from local visitors to national and even international ones. Each of these groups is characteristically distinct, has different objectives, and therefore perceives and experiences the garden differently (Hellyer, 1977, cited in Connell, 2004), which has led to the segmentation of the market according to the degree of interest the visitors have in the gardens, the size of the target audience and, of course, the main driving motivation of the visit (Gorman, 1999, 2010; Nord/Lb, 2002; Arama-Carrel, 2006).

Visiting gardens in Portugal – the awakening to a "new" tourist product

According to the landscape architect Caldeira Cabral (1993), there are plenty of gardens in Portugal. The point is that there is no accurate accounting of the number of gardens that exist on the one hand, and of those that are open to the public and which are perceived as tourist attractions on the other. Information is scarce, outdated and scattered around several sources. However, it can reasonably be said that by cross-checking the data from the various sources there could be between 100 and 150 gardens open to the public, with between 50 and 75 of these considered as real tourist attractions.

Garden tourism in Portugal is an embryonic segment that has been little publicised and exploited. Therefore, there are no statistical data that faithfully and accurately provide evidence of the scale of visits to gardens around the country. There are several reasons for this. First, the data are not organized and those that are available are not compiled, are scarce and relate to specific cases. In addition, the Portuguese Association of Historic Gardens does not know the total number of visitors to its members and the National Statistical Institute does not have this information either. This is because the supply is not fully known, with many of the gardens being private and not registered as tourist sites, although they do receive visitors. Some, however, are public gardens with free access and therefore there is no control of admissions. Others are associated with a particular monument or museum and therefore these visitor numbers are not separate but are instead included in the total number of visitors to that place. In these cases the ticket often mentions both the monument and the garden (Silva and Carvalho, 2013).

The only data available from the National Institute of Statistics regarding visits to gardens are grouped in the category of "zoos, botanical gardens and aquariums". Since 2012, the data are provided by type. In this period there was an increase of about 56% in visits to botanical gardens, currently representing 27% of the total for this category. There is also an exponential increase in foreign visitors who accounted for nearly 70% of the total number of visitors in 2017 (Table 9.1). This shows not only the attractiveness of Portuguese botanical gardens, but also their level of internationalization. There is, moreover, still a residual percentage from schools, which is contrary to the widely held view that botanical gardens are mostly visited by students because of their intrinsic educational and scientific vocation.

TABLE 9.1 Visitors to botanical gardens: total and by type (2012–2017)

Year	No.	Total visitors	% foreign visitors	% school visitors	% free admission
2012	9	805,839	32.6	5.3	11.3
2013	11	821,482	35.4	4.2	12.4
2014	10	867,409	37.2	3.1	10.0
2015	10	1,053,499	71.0	4.5	21.0
2016	11	1,069,501	70.2	4.4	23.3
2017	11	1,255,334	68.7	3.7	17.9

Source: INE – Statistics Portugal (2018).

TABLE 9.2 Garden visitor numbers (2012–2015)

| Garden	2012	2013	2014	2015	Δ %
Madeira Botanic Garden, Madeira	356,296	334,005	341,744	359,697	1.0
Monte Palace Tropical Garden, Madeira	177,618	215,154	234,677	249,158	40.3
Palheiro Ferreiro Gardens, Madeira	33,823	37,099	–	–	9.7
Pena Park, Sintra	719,686	778,426	888,615	1,082,736	50.4
Monserrate Park, Sintra	96,254	93,206	93,471	107,390	11.6
Regaleira Garden, Sintra	270,156	296,114	366,312	484,715	79.4
Queluz Palace Gardens, Sintra	134,644	124,490	132,468	136,369	1.3
Serralves Park, Porto	162,190	169,833	–	–	4.7

Source: Silva (2016).

Table 9.2 contains information on some of the most visited Portuguese gardens, all with entrance fees, and gives some idea of the size of the market that chooses to visit garden attractions. Note that in Madeira, the three main gardens – Botanic Garden, Palheiro Ferreiro Gardens and Monte Palace Tropical Garden – by themselves attract nearly 650 thousand visitors. The last one registered a 40% increase in visitors between 2012 and 2015. Around Sintra, another important focus of demand, visitor figures are almost 2 million for the four most important garden attractions. The figures show that visitor numbers improved in all of them, particularly the Regaleira garden with an increase of almost 80% and Pena Park with about 50%.

The data relating only to botanical gardens or gardens that are tourist attractions are clearly too scanty to be able to correctly judge the size of the garden tourism sector in Portugal, simply because there are not only botanical gardens or, as Connell (2004:231) says, there are more than "well-marketed gardens", and so the size of the demand market may well exceed 4 million. The offer is quite diverse and has to be seen as a sector that embraces not only those gardens that are part of the overall known tourist circuit, but also the small private gardens that are on the fringes of this tourist market because of their small size or short opening hours. These latter are critically important for building up a garden tourism sector in Portugal.

Methodology

The overall objective was to determine the leisure and tourism dimension of Portuguese historic gardens and to attempt to find out how the demand for historical gardens is characterized. For this, a questionnaire survey was applied to visitors to three gardens – Serralves Park, University of Coimbra Botanical Garden (UCBG) and Fronteira Palace Garden (Figure 9.1). Several parameters were taken into account when choosing them for this study, some of which are key and others supplementary. These three gardens are distinguished positively in all the considered parameters and are distinctive examples of the diversity of gardens and uses of gardens in Portugal.
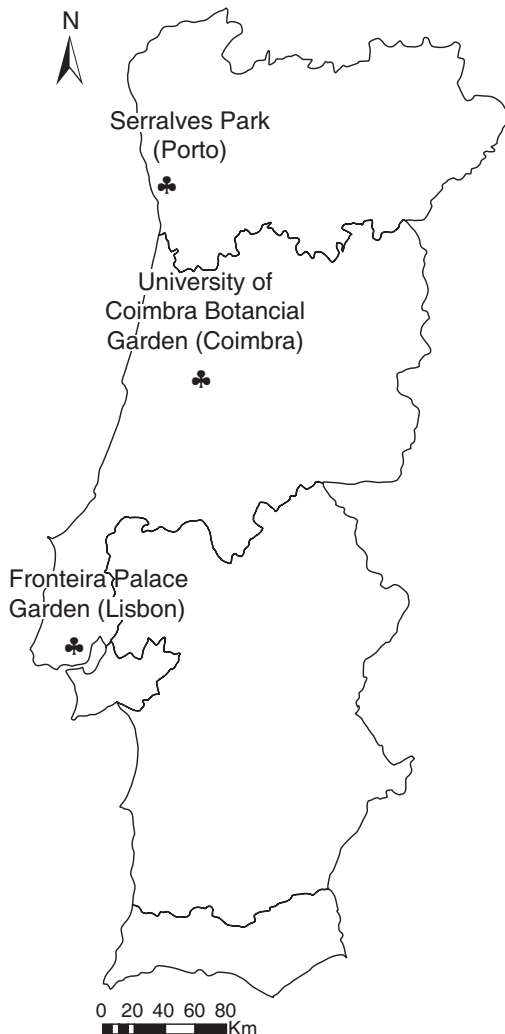
FIGURE 9.1   Location of the study gardens

The questionnaire survey was prepared in four languages (Portuguese, English, French and Spanish) and applied by the researcher on site for one year (March 2013 to February 2014). The online version was also available during the same period. The Gumunchian and Marois (2000) proposal was used to establish the sample size. For a large cohort, a 99% confidence level and a confidence interval of 0.05, they recommend that the sample should consist of 666 individuals. The sample was spatially stratified, taking into account the proportion of visits for each garden (Serralves – 50%; UCBG – 30%; Fronteira – 20%) and in time, and a sample to be collected for each month, in each garden, was established.

The questionnaire was organized in three main parts according to these specific objectives: i) characteristics of the visitor and the trip/leaving home; ii) leisure and tourism habits (general and specifically related to gardens and visits to gardens), and iii) characterization of the visit to the garden. The information, previously processed and entered in a database, was subjected to frequency distribution analysis, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests, mean and variance calculations carried out using the SPSS statistical analysis program.

Results

Socioeconomic and demographic profile of garden visitor

The analysis of the data showed that the public consisted predominantly of tourists (64.6%), mainly foreigners from France, Spain, Germany and the United Kingdom, and many of them were holidaymakers. Day-trippers represented 35.4%, almost all of them being of Portuguese origin whose main reason for leaving home was simply to enjoy a leisure trip. This is different from the studies by Tipples and Gibbons (1992), Connell (2002), Nord/Lb (2002), Ballantyne, Packer and Hughes (2008), Kukla (2009), IWI/Brunner, Mahlberg and Schneider (2009) and Bauer-Krösbacher and Payer (2012), in which the national market is prevalent. This information shows how attractive these places are for tourists, far more than it was supposed. They are not, therefore, simply local, regional or national attractions; indeed, they are attractions with a high degree of internationalization. The perception of where visitors to these gardens come from, if they are national or international, is crucial to the owners/managers. This is because, besides providing information on which regions are more or less important sources of visitors it also enables promotional efforts to be more concentrated and better targeted. Furthermore, marketing strategies can be adopted for potential visitors so as to increase and diversify source markets to mitigate the effects of seasonality. In the case of this study, the regions of Eastern Europe, Asia and North America are key because they are markets with large population numbers, considerable economic capacity and they have shown great interest in gardens, besides not having a favourable annual climate for garden visiting. In Portugal it is possible to visit and enjoy gardens in flower all year round, at much more affordable prices.

The sample mostly consists of women (61.7%); in the young–adult age group aged 18–39 (49.4%), in particular the 25–34-year-olds (22.7%); highly qualified individuals (about 80% with higher education), mostly specialists in intellectual and scientific activities (group 2), and in particular teachers, architects and engineers (Table 9.3). In socioeconomic terms, this evidence seems to be in line with the

TABLE 9.3 Socioeconomic and demographic profile (total, by garden and type of visitor)

Variables % by column	Total	Garden			P-Value	Type of Visitor		P-Value
		Serralves	UCBG	Fronteira		Tourist	Day-tripper	
Type of Visitor					*0.000*			–
Tourist	64.6	70.0	42.5	84.2		–	–	
Day-tripper	35.4	30.0	57.5	15.8		–	–	
Residence					*0.000*			*0.000*
Portugal	41.6	39.6	60.5	18.0		10.5	98.3	
Overseas	58.4	60.4	39.5	82.0		89.5	1.7	
France	20.7	18.0	4.5	51.9		32.1	0.0	
Spain	7.1	8.1	6.5	5.3		10.2	1.3	
Germany	5.0	4.2	4.0	8.3		7.7	0.0	
U.K.	4.8	6.0	3.5	3.8		7.4	0.0	
Gender					*0.635*			*0.372*
Male	38.3	38.1	40.5	35.3		39.5	36.0	
Female	61.7	61.9	59.5	64.7		60.5	64.0	
Age					*0.000*			*0.000*
18–39	49.4	46.5	63.5	35.3		39.8	66.9	
40–64	40.7	43.2	28.5	52.6		47.4	28.4	
65+	9.5	9.3	8.0	12.0		12.1	4.7	
Academic qualifications					*0.000*			*0.000*
Elementary & Middle	2.6	2.1	5.0	0.0		0.7	5.9	
High school	16.4	12.9	28.5	6.8		8.8	30.1	
Bachelor	10.8	9.3	11.5	13.5		14.4	4.2	
Graduate	30.0	34.2	28.5	21.8		27.4	34.7	
Master	29.9	33.3	17.5	39.8		36.7	17.4	
PhD	9.0	7.5	8.0	14.3		10.5	6.4	
Economic activity					*0.000*			*0.000*
Group 2	40.8	49.5	27.0	39.8		48.1	27.5	
Group 3	5.1	5.4	3.5	6.8		6.0	3.4	
Group 4	3.9	3.6	3.5	5.3		4.0	3.8	
Unemployed	2.9	2.1	5.5	0.8		0.9	6.4	
Student/researcher	20.4	12.3	37.0	15.8		12.3	35.2	
Retired	11.0	10.5	10.0	13.5		13.3	6.8	
Domestic worker	0.9	0.6	1.0	1.5		0.9	0.8	

data found by the studies mentioned earlier. However, it should be noted that this research found that the younger age group prevailed compared with the studies by Connell (2002) or Fox (2007), which is largely due to the inclusion of a university botanical garden with free admission.

Data cross-checking found some differences between the variables, gardens and type of visitors (Table 9.3). Serralves and most particularly Fronteira showed a greater capacity to attract tourists, visitors from higher age groups, especially true of Fronteira, in whose sample we can also identify a higher percentage of masters and doctorates as well as retirees. This is because the first place is an eclectic space with attractions, amenities and events aimed at different age groups, while the second has a palace, a rich collection of tiles and all the history that these imply. In the UCBG, day-trippers resident in Portugal predominate; visitors are usually younger, being more common in this garden people with lower academic qualifications as well as students, unemployed people or lower skilled workers. This is because there is no admission charge, making this garden part of the "social and academic life" of students and other local residents. In Serralves and UCBG, visitors living in Portugal in the municipality itself or neighbouring ones, are significant in number, followed by those from France in the first case, and from Spain in the second one. More than half the public surveyed in Fronteira were resident in France.

The tourists have higher qualifications, with more PhDs in this group as well as retirees rather than in day-trippers group. Day-trippers are more represented in the younger age groups and the lower academic degrees are mostly held by these, as well as students and the unemployed have a greater weight in this group.

Leisure and tourism habits specific to gardens

According to Evans (2001), visitors to gardens are mostly gardeners and individuals living in the countryside, or in urban areas but in houses that have gardens, and therefore are garden owners. Connell (2004) takes the same line by confirming that the literature suggests that an increase in the ownership of and interest in gardens can explain the greater propensity to visit them, although Fox (2017) has recently concluded that an interest in gardening is not the most important factor in predicting garden visiting. However, whereas Connell (2002) was able to detect a strong relationship between garden visiting and garden ownership (95% of visitors were owners), in our study this relationship does not appear so unequivocal, as just over half of respondents were found to be garden owners and practitioners of gardening (about 52% respectively), with more than 67% indicating they like gardening. There were no statistically significant differences between genders in these three questions ($p = 0.563$, $p = 0.668$, $p = 0.988$, respectively), but a greater proportion of owners, of those interested in gardens and of gardeners were identified in the 40–64 age group ($p = 0.000$, $p = 0.001$, $p = 0.000$ respectively).

Almost two-thirds of the sample said they regularly visit gardens, especially monthly (31%), do so all year round (58%) or when on holidays (33%), regardless of the day of the week (52%), although 38% only visit at the weekend, since that is

leisure time par excellence, and traditionally used for trips and spending time with the family. About 62% usually visit gardens with other people, and only 14% do so individually (Table 9.4). The tendency to visit free gardens is also worth noting (32.3%), although most visitors are indifferent (65.5%), as well as the high propensity to visit and appreciate gardens without supervision (76%).

TABLE 9.4 Leisure and tourism habits specific to gardens (total and by type of visitor)

Variables % by column	Total	Type of Visitor						
		Tourist	Day-tripper	P–Value	General interest	Specific interest	Pleasant time out	P–Value
Garden owner	52.4	56.5	44.9	0.004	52.7	65.9	48.1	0.033
Enjoy gardening	67.6	67.2	68.2	0.147	78.2	69.5	58.6	0.000
Practice gardening	51.8	55.6	44.9	0.008	57.7	63.4	43.5	0.000
Frequency of visits				0.000				0.165
Every day	3.9	3.3	5.1		5.0	6.1	2.8	
At least 1/ week	19.4	14.7	28.0		18.2	9.8	21.3	
At least 1/month	30.6	27.7	36.0		33.2	35.4	28.1	
At least 1/year	8.1	9.5	5.5		6.4	8.5	9.6	
Twice or more/year	22.2	27.7	12.3		23.6	25.6	20.4	
Other	4.7	6.0	2.1		4.5	7.3	3.7	
Visiting habits								
Only when on holiday	7.5	10.0	3.0	0.000	5.9	1.2	9.9	0.096
Especially holidays	33.5	38.4	24.6		34.1	43.9	32.1	
All year	58.0	50.5	71.6		59.1	53.7	56.8	
Weekend	38.0	36.3	41.1	0.000	35.9	36.6	40.7	0.131
Week	4.5	2.1	8.9		3.2	1.2	6.8	
Both	52.3	54.9	47.5		55.9	57.3	47.2	
Alone	13.7	13.7	13.6	0.817	17.3	18.3	10.8	0.018
With company	62.3	61.2	64.4		60.0	62.2	65.1	
Not relevant	8.0	8.1	7.6		8.2	12.2	6.2	
Depends on circumstances	16.1	17.0	14.4		14.5	7.3	17.9	
Visited sites/events				–				
Greenhouses	68.2	66.0	72.0		80.0	67.1	59.3	–
Garden festivals	33.2	37.0	26.3		45.5	32.9	25.0	
Nurseries	35.0	32.8	39.0		39.1	28.0	32.1	
Gardening events	18.6	20.2	15.7		22.3	29.3	13.9	
Membership	6.9	7.7	5.5	0.292	9.1	12.2	4.0	0.024
Type of visitor				0.000				–
General interest	36.0	35.1	29.2		–	–	–	
Specific interest	17.3	15.1	7.2		–	–	–	
Pleasant time out	52.7	42.8	59.3		–	–	–	

Evans (2001) admits that potential garden tourists go to garden/gardening festivals and events, belong to related national/local societies or "Friends of . . ." initiatives. The data show that about 80% of respondents have visited greenhouses, nurseries/garden centres, garden/flower festivals and gardening events, and only 19% have never had contact with any of these facilities. However, 93% are not members of or associated with any association or organization, which leads us to acknowledge that the Portuguese situation in this respect is quite different from the British, where being a member of a horticultural association is common practice.

Respondents were also asked to classify themselves as garden visitors, taking into account their main motivations and interests. The visitor who is only looking to spend an enjoyable/pleasant time/day accounts for about half the total sample, followed by the visitor who has a general interest in gardens, flowers and plants, with a much smaller proportion being visitors who have a specific interest in gardens, both in terms of design and botany. A somewhat different result from the studies by Connell (2002), Fox (2007), Kukla (2009) and Bauer-Krösbacher and Payer (2012), in which specific and general interest predominate.

Data cross-checking identifies statistically significant differences between the type of visitor and a number of variables related to leisure habits linked to gardens (Table 9.4). Day-trippers tend to visit more often and throughout the year but it is among tourists and visitors with specific interest that we find more owners, that more gardening is practised and there are more affiliations to related organizations.

Reasons for visit

The profusion and diversity of reasons for visiting gardens were also confirmed in this study. In a more global approach to reasons for visiting gardens, seven major groups of reasons were identified: peace, calm and rest (32.0%); nature/contact with nature (30.0%); beauty/aesthetics (16.3%); engaging in a specific activity (7.5%); culture/knowledge/learning (5.6%); social interaction (3.9%); other reasons (3.4%). The personal and contextual dimensions of motivation are clearly prominent and are closely linked to the representations and meanings of the gardens for those visitors for whom the emotional/psychological and natural dimensions are key. We can see that the way visitors perceive the gardens influences the reason for the visit and in this case what the "natural" context provides to the emotional/personal context is what matters, unlike in Connell's (2002) study where the social and horticultural dimensions are more significant. There is no doubt about the fundamental role that gardens and visiting them have in people's physical, and especially psychological, equilibrium. In this respect, it is recalled that stress reduction has already been identified by Bennett and Swasey (1996) as an important reason for visiting public gardens, and they even proved this effect after the visit. In the opinion of the authors, and it matches the reality identified in this study, the owners and/or managers should not be oblivious to these results, but rather consider them as an added value and a powerful argument in marketing strategies. In an increasingly urbanized time and space, "Urban public gardens provide urban residents with an exposure to

nature in such an environment where such exposures are rare" (Bennett and Swasey, 1996:128), gardens should emphasize the "stress-reducing" and restorative qualities of visiting them in the material advertising them to the public.

As regards the visits to the gardens under study, a broad spectrum of reasons were provided to cover the widest variety of possible situations, from which the respondents were asked to choose the reasons that best applied to them, with multiple references almost always resulting in a large number of option combinations. Each respondent reported an average of three reasons for visiting the garden.

Analysis of the results showed three major reasons: peace, calm and rest, good weather for a walk and the natural environment, indicated respectively by 46.1%, 32.3% and 32.0% of the sample (Table 9.5). Most of the respondents chose to combine some of the reasons, for example the combination of reputation of garden and other(s) (1.8%) and of natural environment, peace, calm, rest and good time to walk (1.4%). The reasons advanced by the visitors for their visit are not very different from those reported in other studies, although those of a more general nature are well represented here. The aspects related to the layout, the setting and environment provided by the gardens are clearly highlighted and in tune with what they liked most in the gardens visited: visual beauty (27.2%) and calm, peace and quiet (25.5%). It is recognized that visitors seek out these spaces mainly because they identify them as places that provide a period of well-being in terms of peace, rest and quiet and because they let them be in contact and reinforce the bond with nature, or a construct of nature.

The main reasons for visiting are realistically reflected in the main variables and in the defined visitor groups, as can be seen in Table 9.5. Nevertheless, it is

TABLE 9.5 Reasons for visiting the garden (total, by garden and type of visitor)

Reasons	Total	Garden			Type of Visitor				
		Serralves	*UCBG*	*Fronteira*	*Tourist*	*Day-tripper*	*General interest*	*Specific interest*	*Pleasant time out*
Occupy leisure time	27.3	25.8	**41.5**	9.8	19.8	**41.1**	25.5	15.9	**32.4**
Natural environment	**32.0**	35.4	36.5	16.5	33.3	29.7	**36.4**	25.6	30.2
Peace, calm, rest	**46.1**	48.9	54.0	27.1	44.9	48.3	51.8	35.4	47.2
The different species	7.2	7.2	10.0	3.0	7.4	6.8	8.2	11.0	4.3
Nice time for a walk	**32.3**	39.6	33.0	12.8	28.4	**39.4**	31.4	18.3	**37.7**
Garden design	7.4	9.0	2.0	11.3	10.2	2.1	8.6	11.0	4.0
Reputation of the garden	20.9	25.2	9.5	**27.1**	27.0	9.7	25.5	17.1	18.8
Admire the scenery	26.1	31.2	24.0	16.5	**30.5**	18.2	**31.4**	**29.3**	21.9
Spend some quality time	21.3	27.6	19.5	8.3	17.9	27.5	22.3	13.4	22.2
Curiosity	21.9	24.0	18.0	22.6	29.5	8.1	23.6	24.4	18.5
Remaining reasons	22.5	24.9	24.5	13.5	19.3	28.4	20.9	19.5	24.7
Others	26.3	25.5	14.5	**45.9**	27.7	23.7	21.8	**31.7**	28.1

important to note that occupy leisure time was widely mentioned by UCBG visitors and day-trippers, the associated element, in the case of the palace (mentioned in the Others category) and the reputation of the garden by visitors to Fronteira garden, and admire the scenery has significant weight among tourists and visitors with a specific interest. It was ascertained, too, that a visit made because of the different floristic species is more represented in the male group and in the age group of 65 and over, while the garden design reason is more often mentioned by women and in the 40 to 64 age group. Occupy leisure time and nice time for a walk are mostly represented by the youngest group (18–39 years), students and the unemployed, and reference to the associated element (Others) occurs particularly in the group of seniors (65+) and retirees.

Characteristics of the visit and behaviour of visitors during the visit

It was found that the visit to the gardens was planned (71%), organized individually (99%) and decided on relatively close to the day/time of the visit, and 41% said that they decided to visit the garden on that very day. The visitors emphasize the importance of guides/books/magazines (38%), especially guides, as a source of information on the gardens concerned, almost exclusively mentioned by foreign visitors, followed by relatives and/or friends (19%). The internet was relegated to a residual position (9.6%), which is surprising nowadays, and which requires owners/managers to recognize this channel as a marketing tool that is essential today. This result differs from findings of Connell (2002) and Karaşah and Var (2013), where word of mouth was the main source of information motivating the visit.

More than half of the respondents (66.2%) were visiting for the first time, which is not surprising given that the sample includes a high percentage of foreigners. About 34% have visited the garden before and, as with the findings reported by authors already cited, the frequency is mainly annual and monthly for repeat visitors. People visit mainly at the weekend (32.4%), since it is the time of the week earmarked for rest and enjoyment of leisure time outside work obligations, although it is worth noting the 31% who mentioned visiting the garden on any day of the week (Table 9.6), a percentage lower than that recorded by Connell (2002), 56.1%. Nonetheless, even though visiting gardens is generally associated with the weekend, it is not confined to this period and often features on the weekly itineraries of many visitors.

The information from the questionnaires also revealed that a visit lasted 1 to 2 hours (37.7%) and 19% enjoyed the garden for more than 2 hours. As can be seen in Table 9.6, this is a recurring situation in the Serralves park, in particular, and it was common for visitors to say that they have been there the whole morning or afternoon, since it is a larger area and offers other attractions. It is interesting to note that the visit takes longer for day-trippers and, contrary to what one would expect, it is those who have visited previously who also enjoy the garden for longer.

Table 9.6 also shows that the majority of the visitors are accompanied (85.3%), especially by their spouse (42.4%), mainly in the case of tourists, and by friends

TABLE 9.6 Characterization of the garden visit (total, by garden and type of visitor)

Variables % by column	Total	Garden				Type of Visitor						
		Servalves	UCBG	Fronteira	P-Value	Tourist	Day-tripper	P-Value	GeneralInterest	Specific interest	Pleasant time out	P-Value
Visit frequency												
First time	66.2	68.8	45.0	91.7	0.000	89.5	23.7	0.000	67.3	76.8	61.4	0.020
Other times	33.8	31.2	55.0	8.3		10.5	76.3		32.7	23.2	38.6	
Daily	2.2	1.0	3.6	0.0	0.000	0.0	2.1	0.000	0.9	0.0	0.9	0.359
Weekly	18.7	6.7	30.9	9.1		0.2	17.4		4.5	2.4	8.3	
Monthly	23.6	17.3	31.8	0.0		0.0	22.5		10.0	3.7	8.3	
Yearly	27.1	46.2	10.0	18.2		3.3	19.9		6.8	11.0	10.8	
Other	27.1	27.9	21.8	72.7		6.7	13.6		10.0	6.1	9.6	
When visited												
Week	18.2	6.7	30.0	9.1	0.000	0.9	15.7	0.000	5.5	2.4	8.0	0.210
Weekend	32.4	45.2	23.6	0.0		1.9	27.5		8.2	8.5	13.6	
Both	31.1	31.7	30.0	36.4		2.3	25.4		13.2	9.8	9.6	
Time spent												
Less than 1 h	14.9	6.0	16.5	34.6	0.000	15.8	13.1	0.024	15.5	13.4	14.8	0.660
About 1 h	28.7	18.0	41.5	36.1		30.9	24.6		29.1	39.0	26.9	
Between 1–2 h	37.7	46.5	32.0	24.1		37.7	37.7		37.3	30.5	38.9	
More than 2 h	18.8	29.4	10.0	5.3		15.6	24.6		18.2	17.1	19.4	

(Continued)

TABLE 9.6 Continued

Variables % by column	Total	Garden			P-Value	Type of Visitor		P-Value	General interest	Specific interest	Pleasant time out	P-Value
		Serralves	UCBG	Fronteira		Tourist	Day-tripper					
Accompanied by					0.000			0.000				0.002
Husband/Wife	24.8	26.4	12.0	39.8		34.0	8.1		31.8	36.6	16.7	
Husband/Wife, Children & Others	8.7	11.4	5.5	6.8		8.8	8.5		5.5	8.5	9.6	
Husband/Wife & Others	2.7	1.5	2.5	6.0		4.0	0.4		3.6	3.7	1.9	
Children & Others	5.4	6.0	6.5	2.3		4.2	7.6		6.8	2.4	4.9	
Couples & Others	17.6	19.5	19.5	9.8		16.0	20.3		13.2	14.6	21.9	
Friends & Others	20.7	21.3	20.0	20.3		19.5	22.9		16.8	18.3	25.0	
Tour group	0.8	0.0	0.5	3.0		0.0	2.1		0.9	0.0	0.9	
Others	4.7	4.2	5.0	5.3		3.7	6.4		4.5	3.7	5.6	
Alone	14.7	9.6	28.5	6.8		9.8	23.7		16.8	12.2	13.6	
Activities					—			—				—
Taking pictures	74.3	75.7	61.0	91.0		84.7	55.5		75.9	80.5	71.3	
Talking	56.5	61.3	54.5	47.4		55.8	57.6		55.5	47.6	60.8	
Looking at plants	48.6	51.7	46.5	44.4		53.7	39.4		58.2	59.8	39.2	
Meditating	15.8	17.7	15.0	12.0		15.1	16.9		18.6	11.0	15.1	
Dating	11.1	11.7	15.5	3.0		7.2	18.2		9.1	6.1	13.9	
Reading	13.5	11.4	22.5	5.3		10.2	19.5		17.7	12.2	10.8	
Picnic	12.5	14.4	15.5	3.8		12.1	13.1		14.1	4.9	14.2	
Just being there	35.1	42.3	36.0	15.8		32.1	40.7		32.7	26.8	38.0	
Others	21.7	23.4	28.5	6.8		19.5	56.8		21.8	14.6	21.6	
Satisfaction★	90.1	90.0	91.0	88.7	0.128	87.9	94.0	0.079	92.7	81.7	90.5	0.279

★ Considering the sum of the levels satisfied and very satisfied.

(29.4%), particularly in the case of day-trippers and people looking for a pleasant day out. Small groups are the most frequent arrangement, and a grouping of two people accounts for more than half of the sample (59.3%). About 17% were accompanied by their children, 63% of whom were under 14 years old, revealing the importance of these places in family leisure. This is especially true in Serralves park because of the various activities organized throughout the year directed at the whole family. Note that 15% visited on their own, particularly in the UCBG and day-trippers group. The data indicate that visiting gardens is essentially a group/family activity and much less of a solitary one.

Taking pictures (74.3%), chatting (56.5%) and looking at plants (48.6%) were the most popular activities engaged in on the visit, reflecting a difference from the Connell study (2002) in which "sitting in the garden" was the most cited activity (74.7%). This shows that the "consumption" of gardens is above all a passive and contemplative activity. The more active forms of leisure such as painting, playing with children, doing sports and picnicking were carried out by only 23.2% of respondents in total. Photography has particular relevance in Fronteira because the scenery that this garden offers is quite inviting for picture taking (perspective, garden-terrace, design, tiles, statues, water games). Looking at plants is very popular in Serralves, among tourists and visitors with a general and specific interest in gardens. Being in the garden has a greater incidence in the day-trippers group and for those who are looking for a nice day (Table 9.6).

One of the characteristics of the visit was enjoyment of other attractions on the site (61.1%), particularly and justifiably among tourists, especially the museum in the case of Serralves and the palace in the case of Fronteira. On the other hand, more than half of the respondents (61.7%) did not use any of the available facilities. Only in Serralves was this trend reversed, with 58.6% enjoying the coffee/tea shop, the shop and the restaurant, since of the three gardens this one has most visitor amenities.

It turns out that there is a broad spectrum of visitors who have fixed attendance and habit behaviours when visiting gardens. It is essential for garden managers to know this so that they can meet such needs and expectations. For example, if the market attracted by gardens tends to visit them on a monthly basis, it would be essential to create different reasons for visiting each month, either at the level of the activities offered or at the level of the "flower show" provided. If it is a public that visits with companions, then it is necessary to create attractions so that the gardens can be enjoyed by a couple or a family without forgetting the children, who have their own needs. If people prefer to visit without supervision or a guide, gardens that usually only offer guided tours should create conditions for visits to be made in freedom and thus secure/increase this type of visitor. Marketing and publicity are important elements of a successful strategy in this area.

Even though they are three different gardens with distinct reception conditions, it was found that almost all respondents were satisfied (39.9%) and very satisfied (50.2%) with their visit and gave a positive rating to their experience, at a psychological/emotional level (relaxing, peaceful, calming, inspiring) and at a

generic/simple level (pleasant, good, interesting), instilling in more than half (52.3%) a definitive desire to return.

Conclusion

The market for leisure and tourism has evolved and the market for experiences has become consolidated in postmodernity. Gardens and the dimension of garden visits seem to reflect this trend in that they embody the concept of the increasingly popular garden experience, giving rise to a segment that is both impressive and unknown, especially in the Portuguese instance.

This chapter, with its approach to the demand market, has sought to contribute to the discussion about the leisure and tourism dimension of historic gardens and to our understanding of a rapidly expanding segment.

In view of the overall results, it can be said that in general terms we are look- ing at a mature adult public, although the proportion of young people is substan- tial, with family ties and high academic qualifications. In line with what has been found by Connell (2002), Fox (2007) and more recently by Bauer-Krösbacher and Payer (2012), this public tends to be in skilled occupations/professions, implying enhanced economic capacity and thus with higher levels of intellectual training and cultural appetite, therefore apparently consistent with the character traits of the postmodern tourist.

The interviewed visitors are divided, almost perfectly, into those who do not have a particular interest in gardens and are only looking for a nice time/day and those who have a more general and specific interest in gardens, botany or design. This latter is an attitude which is in tune with the proportion of visitors who own gardens and practice gardening, particularly among the older age groups. Most of them are regular visitors to gardens, and these places are seen as places of peace, calm, quiet, associated with green, colour(s), scents, nature and fresh air. These representations match the reason for the visit, which they establish as peace, calm, rest, quiet; nature/contact with nature and the beauty/aesthetics of the place.

In spite of the profile outlined, cross-checking the data revealed differences in terms of profile, motivations and behaviours between the different gardens and between the different types of visitors.

These facts point to a demand that is varied, informed and inherently more demanding in the various aspects that comprise a garden visit, and they indicate that the owners or managers of gardens should be especially alert to ensuring that the experience of the visit is as positive, complete and tailored as possible. It is therefore fundamental that everything that surrounds and contributes to the expe- rience of a visit to gardens is based on a thorough knowledge of the reality and high standards of quality in several aspects. These aspects include information, attend- ance, activities, amenities and maintenance of the physical space and psychological environment. Then visitors will be given what they hope to get from the garden when they embark on their visit.

The main limitations of this study are the small sample of gardens where the questionnaire survey was applied and the fact that only historic gardens in mainland Portugal were included. This makes generalizations impossible and prevents the discovery and analysis of possible territorial nuances in profiles, behaviours and motivations. For a more detailed analysis of the tourism/garden visiting segment in Portugal, future studies should contain a broader base of gardens (historic and others) in order to represent the entire territory (mainland and islands).

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10

RESIDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE IMPACT OF AND SUPPORT FOR THREE SMALL AND MEDIUM-SCALE SPORTING EVENTS AS THE BASIS FOR A TOURISM STRATEGY

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Introduction

The majority of studies that analyse the impact of sport events focus on the evaluation of mega-events (Gibson, Kaplanidou and Kang, 2012; Pappas, 2014; Taks, 2013). However, small and medium-sized sport events receive less attention from scholars (Higham and Hinch, 2002), probably due to the traditional view that these events have hardly any economic repercussions (Daniels and Norman, 2003).

Getz and Page (2016) classify different types of sport events, from occasional mega-events such as the Olympic Games, to 'periodic hallmark events' such as the world championships of individual sports (e.g., athletics or swimming world trials), regional medium-sized sport events such as national competitions, and small-scale sport events like local competitions (e.g., marathons), being the main characteristic common to all them the temporariness with a set duration, and are thus one-off space-time phenomena.

The minor-scale sport events that Gibson, Kaplanidou and Kang (2012) refer to upon citing Wilson (2006), such as minor events in which the number of participants may exceed the number of spectators, usually take place annually and receive only very minor coverage in the national media, as well as having limited economic impact in comparison with large events. The distinction between small-scale events and large sport events, however, goes beyond the size of the event itself, since the public resource requirements of small events are markedly different from those of hallmark competitions (Gibson, Willming and Holdnak, 2003).

In his definition of small-scale sport events, Higham (1999, p. 87), on the other hand, includes, "regular sport competitions (...), international sport centres, national competitions, masters or sports for disabled persons, and similar". As a point on

attendees of these events Taks (2013) stresses the importance of bearing in mind that, in many cases, the majority of people attending such events come from the local population.

Some authors such as Higham (1999) and Taks (2013) highlight the differences and advantages of small events compared with large sport events. Small sport events are characterised by their efficient use of existing resources, facilities, and infrastructures of the city, which means that public investment is very low compared to that required for large sport events. Furthermore, small events tend to create less disruption for residents in terms of noise, congestion, traffic, and restrictions in access to public facilities and spaces. Moreover, on many occasions, small and medium-sized sport events allow citizens to participate in the event as competitors.

Nonetheless, although they generate less income and attract fewer tourists than mega-events, some scholars point out that smaller cities or regions tend to make better use of the benefits and impacts of small and medium-sized events than in large cities or capitals (Veltri, Miller and Harris, 2009).

Literature review

Residents' perception of the impact of sporting events

Analysis of residents' perceptions comes under research into the social impact of sport events, traditionally linked to studies about the social impact of tourism (Fredline, Jago and Deery, 2003). The study of residents' perceptions on the impact of sport events brings to bear a host of theories that aim to explain changes in residents' reactions to such events. One of the most widely used is social exchange theory (Kim, Gursoy and Lee, 2006; Ouyang, Gursoy and Sharma, 2017). According to this theory, an exchange process arises in which residents display a favourable attitude towards the event if they perceive that hosting this event will bring more benefits than costs. An alternative theory that is less popular amongst scholars is social representations theory (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000), which holds that citizens have a prior representation of sport events that inform their perceptions regarding the impact of these events, based on the influence of direct prior experience, social interactions, and the media or political groups (Fredline, 2005).

The majority of classifications of the perceived impacts of residents of host communities of sport events derive from the analysis of large sport events (Preuss and Solberg, 2006). Thus, when identifying possible benefits or costs to residents of the hosting of small sport events it is necessary to account for the impacts caused by large sport events. Along these lines, Higham (1999) highlights that smaller-scale events, as opposed to mega-events, have a greater potential to yield positive benefits for the host community, whereas negative impacts are much smaller and easier to control, manage, and minimise.

Residents' perceptions about economic impacts constitute one of the most cited in the literature (Kim et al., 2015), and are related to employment opportunities,

stimulating economic activity, increases in tourism, growth in consumption and citizens' spending, and improvements in living standards. In contrast, the economic costs of sport events refer to possible tax increases to finance the event (construction and renewal of infrastructure and facilities, security, etc.), shortages of resources, or price hikes in the cost of goods and services (Gursoy and Kendall, 2006). Rises in cost forecasts for financing an event may have negative repercussions in the long term by reducing financing for other activities that require public funds, such as health and education (Solberg and Preuss, 2007).

From the viewpoint of physical impacts, those relating to construction, and improvements to infrastructure and public transport stand out. Nevertheless, the tangible or sustainable urban regeneration impacts or real legacy should be orientated towards the use of facilities or infrastructures after the event takes place (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000).

At the environmental level, numerous authors highlight that events can contribute to the preservation and conservation of patrimony and environment (Lorde, Greenidge and Devonish, 2011; Preuss and Solberg, 2006). Despite this opinion, however, some scholars mention negative environmental impacts associated with pollution, a rise in noise levels, refuse, and potential harm to natural areas (Collins et al., 2007), changes in land use, pollution of the coastline, rivers or lakes, and the deterioration of historical and cultural patrimony (Kim, Gursoy and Lee, 2006).

Another important impact relates to the image and external projection of the host region. Sport events may help promote cities as tourist destinations and boost the city's image and international standing (Daniels and Norman, 2003). Conversely, poor organisation of an event, inadequate facilities, high prices, or security and crime problems may project a bad image of the city amongst tourists (Solberg and Preuss, 2007).

Socio-cultural impact is usually measured in terms of the increase of local interests and values and of living standards of these events (Guaita-Martínez, Roig-Tierno and Mas-Tur, 2018). Socio-cultural impacts are usually associated with the possibilities that sport events offer the host community to get to know other people and cultures, strengthen local values and traditions, and build national identity, as well as to develop feelings of solidarity and hospitality towards tourists (Zhou and Ap, 2009). Moreover, hosting events presents new opportunities for residents' entertainment and leisure. Nevertheless, negative impacts arising from hosting sport events include inconveniences to residents, traffic problems, and restricted access to public facilities and spaces. Other potential problems relate to the incidence of crime, vandalism and prostitution (Chen and Tian, 2015).

Positive impacts on a psychological level are associated with a fillip to residents' pride and feelings of belonging and identification with the community (Kaplanidou, 2012; Mao and Huang, 2016), and the capacity of sport events to create a festive atmosphere amongst the host community throughout the event (Kim and Walker, 2012). On occasions, organisers promote other activities and celebrations to go along with the event and offer entertainment and leisure opportunities to residents (Kim and Walker, 2012). Some negative psychological impacts relate to

the possibility that residents adopt a defensive stance towards the host city, area, or region, as well as the scope for misunderstandings between residents and visitors that may lead to conflict or hostility (Preuss and Solberg, 2006). Studies such as Gursoy and Kendall (2006) highlight the importance of the preceding psychological benefits, as they may help citizens to tolerate and accept more willingly the negative socio-economic impacts.

Prior studies

Scholars make contributions through research into the social repercussions of special events that have a lesser international impact, as is the case of the world championships of certain sports such as Tour of Taiwan (Ma and Kaplanidou, 2017), the Superbowl (Kim and Walker, 2012), or the trials of the F1 world championship (Añó, Calabuig and Parra, 2012).

Nonetheless, research in this area that focuses on small and medium-sized events is scarcer. In fact, the majority of contributions focus more on the social impact of small festivals and community events (Fredline, Jago and Deery, 2003; Small, 2008) than sport events (Taks, 2013). Contributions from the point of view of residents' perceptions of the impacts of small-scale events include Ntloko and Swart (2008), who look at the Red Bull Big Wave in Cape Town (South Africa). More recent work has also analysed the social impact of small-scale events in various regions of the world (Chen, Gursoy and Lau, 2018; Parra et al., 2016; Taks et al., 2016).

Insofar as aspects that residents perceive positively emphasise the economic benefits for local business, entertainment offerings, raising the host region's profile, and boosting pride and social cohesion within the community (Ntloko and Swart, 2008). Conversely, both Ntloko and Swart (2008) place an emphasis on residents' perceptions of these events' economic impacts directly benefiting a small group of stakeholders rather than the local population as a whole. Similarly, the scant participation of the local population in the organisation and planning of the Red Bull Big Wave is another of the negative aspects that residents cite in Ntloko and Swart (2008).

In summary, the literature review reveals a dearth of contributions that analyse residents' perceptions of the benefits and impacts of small and medium-sized sport events, how these events affect residents' quality of life, and the factors that determine the attitude of citizens towards such events. The literature review uncovers even fewer articles that compare residents' perceptions about three small and medium-sized sport events with different characteristics in one locality.

Study approach

This study's aim is to analyse whether there are differences in residents' perceptions (benefits and costs) of hosting three sporting events: Valencia Formula 1 Grand Prix (F1GP), the Valencia Open 500 ATP World Tour (O500), and the Valencia Marathon (VM). These three events have markedly different characteristics in terms

of type of sport, size and repercussion, proximity to spectators, and the opportunity for members of the local population to participate in the event. The sporting disciplines of the three events are distinct from the spectator's point of view, and they present different opportunities for residents to participate. Furthermore, the study assesses whether willingness to host the event in subsequent editions influences residents' perceptions regarding the events, and also detects and verifies which factors or aspects perceived by the residents have the greatest influence, depending on the event.

The F1GP has a significant impact on the international stage, with a greater institutional collaboration than the other two events as regards demands on public resources. Of the three events under study, organisation of the F1GP is the most complex, as it requires setting up stands and greater security, in addition to restricted access to several sections of the Valencian docklands. Furthermore, it attracts the greatest number of spectators, tourists, and residents, but, at the same time, is the least accessible for the local population, on account of the sport's characteristics and the price of tickets, amongst other factors.

The O500 is a medium-sized event, with less international relevance and a smaller drain on public resources than the F1GP. The number of spectators and competitors are lower than the other two events, although the scope for residents' participation is practically non-existent. Of the three events under study, the O500 presents the least organisational complexity.

The marathon is a well-established, local event – although it is currently growing its international image – with considerable participation from local residents. Despite the event's classification as the least elitist and most accessible to the local population of the three, the marathon also requires a considerable coordination effort on the part of local services (local police, civil protection, etc.), owing to the need to delimit an extensive circuit that passes via the main traffic routes of the city.

Method

Participants

A total of 1030 city residents took part in the study, with non-residents being excluded from the sample population. Thus, 980 valid questionnaires provide the raw data for analysis (335 from the F1GP, 352 from the O500, and 293 from the marathon). Respondents have the following gender distribution: F1GP, 39.4% male; O500, 40.3% male; and marathon, 42.7% male. The age of respondents ranges from 16 to 80.

Instrument

The questionnaire comprises a scale of 35 items. These items draw upon previous research in this area, with a special focus on studies on sport events, (Balduck, Maes and Buelens, 2011; Kim and Walker, 2012; Lorde, Greenidge and Devonish, 2011;

Ritchie, Shipway and Cleeve, 2009), as well as research into other cultural events and festivals (Small, 2008), and tourism (Ko and Stewart, 2002). The questionnaire items were adapted specifically for our research into the three events currently under study and cover positive and negative impacts deriving from the hosting of these events. The items were then revised by scholars and specialists in research into sport economy and management.

The 35 items form eight initial dimensions: socio-economic impact (4 items); impact on image and promotion (3 items); impact on infrastructure (3 items); socio-cultural impact (5 items); community pride (5 items); social cost (9 items); and impact on sport (6 items). All items use a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Additionally, the questionnaire includes two dichoto-mous questions: the first of which refers to the respondent's support for each event and the second corresponds to whether the respondent regularly engages in some kind of sport activity. Finally, the questionnaire contains several questions that relate to sociodemographic variables.

Procedure and data collection

After we devised the questionnaire, volunteer students from the Department of Physical Education and Sport at the University of Valencia administered the survey to city residents. Prior to data collection, interviewers received training by way of an eight-hour seminar. The interviewers carried out street-level interviews of per-manent residents of Valencia across several of the city's districts. Once interviewers had explained the purpose of the study, the interviewees filled out the question-naire *in situ* under the supervision of the interviewers, who were on hand solely to resolve any doubts the interviewee may have.

The interviewers performed the data collection process upon termination of each event for the year 2012. Specifically, data collection took place for the F1GP (last week of June) in September, for the O500 (last week of October), and the marathon (second weekend of November) in December.

Taking a lead from the approach of other studies in this research field (Gursoy and Kendall, 2006; Lorde, Greenidge and Devonish, 2011), we employed a con-venience sampling method, given the absence of an adequate sampling frame. To minimise selection bias, interviewers received instructions to collect data from dif-ferent groups of the population. Furthermore, each interviewer collected data from a different district so as to cover the city's entire population. In summary, although convenience sampling does not represent the larger population, our sample ensured data capture from a mixture of residents residing in various districts of Valencia.

Data analysis

The questionnaire yielded raw data that was statistically processed using SPSS ver-sion 20.0 and EQS 6.2. We first performed confirmatory factor analysis for each sample, taking the dimensions proposed previously as a starting point. Following

this, we applied confirmatory factor analysis with multiple samples. We used a range of goodness of fit indices to confirm the model's fit to the data. Namely, the Root Mean–Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Steiger and Lind, 1980), the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI; Hu and Bentler, 1995), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990) and the normalised chi-square (NC, $\chi 2/$ df; Wheaton et al., 1977). The measures to evaluate the scale's reliability are Cronbach's alpha, Composite Reliability (CR), and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Furthermore, the significance of factor loadings within the factor's dimension and the associated t-values determine convergent validity. The discriminant validity was determined using the correlation between the factors and a 95% confidence interval for the correlations between the factor pairs (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

After performing the CFA, we calculated the means and standard deviations (SD) for all items that make up each dimension. To analyse the difference of means as a function of event and sociodemographic variables, we carried out differential analysis, using the t-test for independent samples and ANOVA, first applying Levene's test to verify the homoscedasticity of each variable. Likewise, we applied Tukey's test to determine the differences between categories or subgroups of variables.

Finally, we calculated three binary logistic regressions to assess the relationship between residents' support for staging the event, the dimensions derived from the factor analysis, and the sociodemographic variables. We then calculated the odds ratios, the p-values, the Hosmer-Lemeshow test to assess the goodness of fit of the model, and the Nagelkerke R^2 to identify the percentage of variance that each of the predictor variables explains.

Results

Confirmatory factor analysis with multiple samples

Prior to the confirmatory factor analysis and given that the maximum likelihood is highly sensitive to the absence of normality (Bentler, 2004), we tested for multivariate normality using Mardia's coefficient. The coefficient exceeded the cut–off value of 5, which led us to use the Satorra-Bentler scaling method (Satorra and Bentler, 1994) and its associated p-value.

Thus, after testing the initial model consisting of seven factors and 35 items, results show that the model offers a poor fit to the three samples. With the aim of improving the model's overall fit, the number of grouping factors was increased and some items whose indices indicated high residual values and correlations with other items were dropped from the model. This approach led to an increase in the number of factors to eight (splitting the sport factor into two), and a drop in the total number of items to 30 (eliminating one item from the factor of impact on sport, and four items from the factor of social cost). Therefore, the final model comprises eight items and 30 items. For this final model – and following a second round of confirmatory factor analysis applying the robust method for analysis of multiple samples – the chi-squared test yields significant results (χ^2 = 2456.82, df = 1147, p < .01), and

the value of the normalised chi-squared (χ^2/df = 2.14) falls below the threshold value of 3 proposed by numerous authors (Bollen, 1989; Kline, 2005). Similarly, the other indices of goodness of fit imply that the model has a good fit with the data [(RMSEA = .059 (Confidence Interval (CI) of = [.056, .062]); NNFI = .92; CFI = .93)]. To ensure the convergent validity of the scale, we checked the values for the three samples of the t-test of each variable, which range between 7.47 and 28.93 (t > 1.96) and are significant at the .05 level. To assess discriminant validity, we verified that all correlations between factors are below .85 (Kline, 2005). We also observe that the value 1 falls outside the confidence interval for the correlations (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988), and that the correlations are below this cut-off value for all intervals. Table 10.1 shows that Cronbach's α for each factor in each of the three samples is between .68 and .93, whereas the values for the CR are between .67 and .94. Likewise, the values for the AVE range between .43 and .83.

The results in Table 10.2 demonstrate that the dimension of impact on image and promotion of the city contains the highest-scoring items. Conversely, the items that make up the factor of impact on infrastructure have the lowest means for all three sport events. For the social cost dimension, results show that the F1 event has the highest means for all items, whereas, at the other end of the scale, the marathon is the event with the lowest means.

On the other hand, the F1's scores for the dimension of impact on the image and promotion of the city are the highest of all three events. In contrast, residents' scores yield higher means for the items that make up the dimension of social cost.

In the case of the O500, the factors of community pride and socio-cultural impact have the highest means. In contrast, residents assign lower scores to aspects that relate to the impact of the infrastructure or event excitement.

Finally, the marathon scores more highly in the dimension of impact on sport promotion and the items belonging to the factor of socio-cultural impact. Conversely, the lowest scores for this event emerge in the factor of residents' perceptions of the socio-economic impact, and in the dimension of cost.

TABLE 10.1 Final model with reliability indicators for each dimension, by sport event

Factors	F1			O500			Marathon		
	α	CR	AVE	α	CR	AVE	α	CR	AVE
Socio-economic impact	.91	.90	.69	.89	.90	.68	.88	.89	.67
Impact on infrastructure	.88	.88	.70	.86	.88	.71	.86	.88	.71
Impact on image and promotion	.85	.84	.63	.84	.84	.64	.78	.80	.56
Socio-cultural impact	.89	.88	.59	.86	.87	.57	.83	.86	.54
Community pride	.90	.88	.60	.89	.90	.64	.90	.92	.69
Social cost	.85	.82	.49	.77	.77	.43	.78	.81	.47
Event excitement	.93	.92	.80	.90	.92	.79	.93	.94	.83
Impact on sport promotion	.68	.67	.51	.74	.72	.56	.73	.78	.65

Note: α – Cronbach's α; CR – Composite Reliability; AVE – Average Variance Extracted

TABLE 10.2 Final model with means and standard deviations for each event

Factors	F1	O500	Marathon
Socio-economic impact	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)
Increases business opportunities	4.41(1.77)	4.06(1.61)	4.01(1.64)
Attracts investors in the city	4.07(1.75)	3.74(1.63)	3.57(1.58)
Creates jobs in the city	4.08(1.78)	3.77(1.65)	3.47(1.74)
Creates business opportunities for residents with small businesses	3.85(1.83)	3.66(1.70)	3.95(1.62)
Impact on infrastructure			
Means the city develops public infrastructure that citizens subsequently benefit from	3.18(1.81)	3.06(1.75)	3.22(1.70)
Improves public facilities	3.57(1.72)	3.37(1.61)	3.62(1.70)
Improves the quality of public services	3.38(1.72)	3.18(1.63)	3.46(1.70)
Impact on image and promotion			
Promotes the city as a tourist destination	5.24(1.59)	4.49(1.60)	4.42(1.66)
Improves the appearance of the city	4.18(1.80)	4.08(1.67)	4.24(1.53)
Media coverage improves the international image of the city	4.94(1.71)	4.34(1.60)	4.49(1.62)
Socio-cultural impact			
Allows citizens to meet new people	3.63(1.79)	3.59(1.66)	5.04(1.45)
Gives citizens the chance to attend an international event	4.31(2.00)	4.63(1.74)	4.03(1.62)
Makes it possible to get to know new societies and cultures	3.31(1.72)	3.21(1.56)	4.59(1.58)
Offers citizens an alternative leisure activity	4.23(1.86)	4.17(1.71)	5.40(1.32)
Provides new activities for the city	4.08(1.90)	3.99(1.68)	5.23(1.46)
Community pride			
Boosts pride amongst citizens	3.85(1.93)	3.48(1.67)	4.29(1.63)
The city can host other important events	4.07(1.89)	4.19(1.72)	4.59(1.58)
Demonstrates our capacity to host other important events	4.55(1.77)	4.41(1.61)	4.82(1.52)
Improves our image as an important city	4.76(1.80)	4.46(1.65)	4.83(1.62)
Improves national awareness of our city	5.18(1.78)	4.74(1.65)	5.11(1.47)
Social cost			
Causes inconvenience to residents	5.04(1.71)	3.54(1.67)	3.76(1.62)
Causes harm to the environment	4.96(1.81)	2.88(1.57)	2.13(1.61)
Causes price increases in goods and services	4.99(1.69)	3.86(1.72)	2.79(1.62)
The construction of facilities for visitors is a waste of tax–payers' money	5.28(1.79)	4.77(1.92)	3.08(1.78)
The construction of facilities involves excessive spending	5.72(1.65)	5.14(1.87)	3.13(1.78)
Event excitement			
I enjoy watching the F1/Tennis/Athletics	4.03(2.08)	4.25(1.92)	4.28(1.83)
Increases my support of F1/Tennis/Athletics	3.33(2.01)	3.43(1.95)	3.90(1.86)
Increases my interest in F1/Tennis/Athletics	3.30(2.02)	3.48(1.96)	3.97(1.85)
Impact on sport promotion			
Creates more opportunities for youth sport	2.59(1.77)	3.32(1.79)	5.30(1.36)
The organisers promote sport	3.63(1.92)	4.03(1.70)	5.35(1.38)

Note: M – Mean; SD – Standard Deviation

Comparison of residents' perceptions by event

Table 10.3 shows the overall mean and standard deviation of the items that compose each dimension. The table also displays the comparisons of residents' perceptions between each event through ANOVA estimation. The ANOVA technique uncovers statistically significant differences (p<.05) for almost all factors, except for the impact on infrastructure. Tukey's *post hoc* test detects significant differences for socio–economic impact and image and promotion of the city between F1 (M = 4.10 and M = 4.79, respectively) and O500 (M = 3.81 and M = 4.30), and between F1 and the marathon (M = 3.77 and M = 4.38), in both cases in favour of the F1. For the factor of socio–cultural impact, differences emerge between the marathon (M = 4.95) and the other two events, in favour of the former. In the case of the community pride factor, the differences are between the marathon (M = 4.73) and the O500 (M = 4.26), in favour of the former. For the event excitement factor, differences appear between the marathon (M = 4.05) and the F1 (M = 3.55), also in favour of the former. For the social cost dimension, results reveal differences between all events, favouring in this case the F1 (M = 5.20) when compared with the other two events, and the O500 (M = 4.04) when compared with the marathon (M = 2.97). Finally, the impact on sport promotion is significantly different for the three events, with the marathon (M = 5.32) scoring favourably with respect to the other two events, and the O500 (M = 3.68) attaining a significantly higher score than the F1 (M = 3.11).

Residents' perceptions of the impact of staging events, and their willingness to host subsequent editions

We performed three binary logistic regressions to analyse the relationship between the willingness of residents to host the F1, the O500, and the marathon in future editions, the impact factors, and sociodemographic variables. In the regression model for each event, the predictor variables were the eight factors derived from

TABLE 10.3 ANOVA of one factor to compare residents' perceptions of impact for each event

Factors	F1	O500	Marathon	F-test	df	p-value
Socio-economic impact	4.10(1.57)	3.81(1.43)	3.77(1.42)	4.96	2	0.007**
Impact on infrastructure	3.38(1.57)	3.20(1.47)	3.43(1.51)	2.05	2	0.130
Impact on image and promotion	4.79(1.49)	4.30(1.41)	4.38(1.34)	11.32	2	0.000***
Socio-cultural impact	3.91(1.55)	3.92(1.34)	4.95(1.15)	58.77	2	0.000***
Community pride	4.48(1.55)	4.26(1.39)	4.73(1.32)	8.78	2	0.000***
Social cost	5.20(1.37)	4.04(1.27)	2.97(1.22)	233.62	2	0.000***
Event excitement	3.55(1.90)	3.72(1.77)	4.05(1.73)	6.13	2	0.002**
Impact on sport promotion	3.11(1.60)	3.68(1.56)	5.32(1.22)	185.82	2	0.000***

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

TABLE 10.4 Results of the binary logistic regression between event backing and residents' perceptions of the impact of sport events

	F1(N = 337)				O500 (N = 352)				Marathon (N = 293)			
	B	E.T.	OR	p-value	B	E.T.	OR	p-value	B	E.T.	OR	p-value
Factors												
Socio–economic impact	.66**	.22	1.93	.003	.47*	.24	1.59	.049	-.08	.23	.93	.738
Impact on infrastructure	-.07	.20	.93	.734	-.02	.21	.98	.939	.14	.22	1.15	.524
Impact on image/ promotion	.64*	.25	1.89	.011	.49	.26	1.64	.059	.30	.23	1.35	.188
Socio–cultural impact	-.04	.22	.96	.847	.20	.25	1.23	.417	-.17	.28	.84	.546
Community pride	.40	.25	1.49	.108	.83**	.26	2.30	.002	.82**	.27	2.26	.003
Social cost	-.52***	.15	.60	.001	-.92***	.19	.40	.000	-.56**	.19	.57	.003
Event excitement	.43***	.12	1.54	.000	.60***	.14	1.82	.000	.71***	.14	2.04	.000
Impact on sport promotion	.21	.15	1.23	.162	.24	.17	1.27	.160	.67**	.19	1.95	.001
Sociodemographic variables												
Gender (male)	-1.03*	.44	.36	.021	-.09	.43	.91	.827	–	–	–	–
Age	.033	.02	1.03	.168	-.02	.03	.98	.495	.04	.03	1.04	.160
Education level (no studies/graduate)	.53	.76	1.69	.488	.67	.61	1.96	.268	.97	.58	2.63	.094
Education level (Secondary)	.54	.43	1.71	.216	-.65	.41	.52	.114	.83	.48	2.28	.087
Occupation (Employed)	-1.10	1.44	.33	.444	-.54	1.04	.58	.602	.21	.98	1.02	.982
Occupation (Unemployed)	-2.05	1.80	.13	.253	-.12	1.25	.88	.921	-.47	1.16	.63	.689
Occupation (Student)	-.31	1.61	.74	.848	-.22	1.32	.81	.870	.44	1.14	1.55	.701
Does sport (yes)	-.33	.50	.72	.504	-.19	.50	.83	.701	-.21	.49	.66	.810

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

the multi-group confirmatory factor analysis and the sociodemographic variables, whereas the willingness to host the event in subsequent editions is the criterion variable.

In the three regressions, the statistical analysis implies a good fit of the model, according to the Hosmer-Lemeshow test for both the F1 (χ^2 = 5.96, p = .65) and the O500 (χ^2 = 4.87, p = .77). In the case of the marathon, the first regression model with all the predictor variables offers a poor fit according to the Hosmer-Lemeshow test (χ^2 = 20.74, p = .01). Therefore, because of this result, we eliminated the gender variable to improve marathon's fit (χ^2 = 4.51, p = .81). The Nagelkerke R^2 statistic indicates that the variables included in the model explain 66.1% of the variance in the case of the F1, 73.5% for the O500, and 63.6% for the marathon.

Results show numerous factors that reveal significant differences in residents' backing of hosting future sport events. In the case of the F1, for each unit increment in residents' perceptions of socio-economic impact, impact on image and promotion, and event excitement, the probability that residents display willingness to back the organisation of an event in subsequent editions (compared with not backing the event) increases by 1.93, 1.89, and 1.54, respectively. For the O500, a unit increment in residents' perceptions of the socio-economic impact, community pride, and event excitement imply that the probability that residents will support the hosting of a future edition of the event increase by 1.59, 2.30, and 1.82, respectively. The significant relationships in the case of the marathon emerge for the factors of community pride, event excitement, and impact on sport promotion, with an increase in willingness to host this event in future editions of 2.26, 2.04, and 1.95, respectively. Conversely, for each unit increment in the factor of social costs, the probability of residents supporting the hosting of the event diminish by .60 in the case of the F1, .40 in the case of the O500, and .57 for the marathon.

Finally, the sociodemographic variables share no significant relationships (p<.05) with backing the hosting of sport events, except in the case of the F1, for which for each unit increment of the gender variable (male), the probability of supporting the even in future editions diminishes by .36.

Discussion and conclusions

The perception of the host community seems to play a fundamental role when it comes to promoting sports event tourism. Literature already points out the importance of approaching from different perspectives the study of tourism marketing in general, and experiential tourism, as is the case of sports tourism, in particular (Tsiotsou and Ratten, 2010).

In this sense, our study can constitute a singular contribution to the understanding of a relevant aspect for the design of a tourism strategy based on tourism of sporting events. To do so, we developed and adapted from previous studies an instrument designed to assess the opinion of residents about these events. Following the data collection process, the instrument was subjected to several rounds of confirmatory factor analysis for each sample, and, subsequently, another round of

confirmatory factor analysis for multiple samples. The results of this analysis yield a scale consisting of 30 items and eight factors, whose labelling was carefully chosen on the basis of the characteristics of the items and with reference to previous studies in this research area.

The labelling of the dimensions is similar to that employed in other studies in this area: socio-economic impact (Kim et al., 2015); impact on image and promotion of the city (Kim and Petrick, 2005); impact on infrastructure (Kaplanidou et al., 2013); socio-cultural impact (Gursoy et al., 2011); community pride (Kim and Walker, 2012); social cost (Kaplanidou et al., 2013); and event excitement (Kim and Walker, 2012). Our study diverges slightly from the traditional approach in other studies that usually include the dimension of impact on sport promotion in factors such as those that relate to positive social impacts (Ritchie, Shipway and Cleeve, 2009).

In general, residents perceive that the events under study have no impact on the city's infrastructure, as scores for this factor are generally lower than other factors and with a tendency to disagree. As this study looks at small- and medium-scale events, as stated previously, the construction of new infrastructure and public services is generally low, owing to this type of event's use of existing infrastructure, hence little requirement for investment in this area (Taks, 2013). In fact, the greatest investment in this area comes from the F1GP, although these investments have no direct benefit for citizens, given that they focus on constructing the race circuit and adapting it to the city. Despite this focus on spending on the event itself, as numerous authors point out (Fredline, 2005), residents usually demand that new facilities and infrastructures that are built as a consequence, either partially or totally, of a sport event later serve the community in some way.

The aspects related to the image and promotion of the city as a consequence of staging these events are the ones that yield the highest scores, supporting findings from previous research (Balduck, Maes and Buelens, 2011). In terms of this dimension, the most highly rated event according to residents is the F1, especially in aspects relating to the promotion of the city as a tourist destination and the increase in media coverage. Of the three events under study, the F1 has the greatest international impact, and the media coverage this event receives allows the city to project and advertise itself as a tourist destination.

Residents tend to perceive the aspects within the factor of socio-cultural impact and community pride more positively in the case of the marathon. This may share an association with a widespread perception that this event is closer to and more popular amongst citizens. Indeed, the marathon is an event that gives residents greater opportunities for active participation as runners and organisers of the event alike. This aspect of the event gives rise to awareness and interaction amongst residents, and other participants or visitors. Several studies find that smaller events offer new opportunities for training, boost social cohesion, hospitality and solidarity with visitors, and improve community pride amongst residents (Ntloko and Swart, 2008; Taks, 2013). In turn, this may explain respondents' tendency to score this event highly in the dimension of impact on sport promotion.

Residents consider the F1GP to be the event that runs up the biggest costs, followed by the O500. Their opinion of the marathon is quite different, with results

showing that residents disagree that the event incurs many of the costs cited in the questionnaire. For the F1, the residents are most critical of costs relating to the construction of facilities and provisions for visitors, as well as those that relate to inconveniences for citizens due to hosting the event. In the case of the O500, residents stress the costs associated with the construction of facilities and provisions for visitors. For this reason, above all in the case of the F1 – the sport event that requires the biggest budget – organisers should propose actions that minimise negative impacts or compensate, as far as possible, the problems that residents suffer by hosting this event, paying special attention to the most affected groups such as residents of the neighbourhoods closest to the circuit.

Furthermore, the results of the study support the assertion that the residents' perceptions of the impacts influence their willingness to host sport events in future editions. In the case of the F1GP and the O500, a positive tendency in residents' perception of the socio-economic impact and the level of event excitement influence the residents' backing of future editions of the events. For the marathon, results show that the aspects that influence support for future events relate to community pride, the level of event enthusiasm, and the impact on sport promotion. Conversely, an increment in residents' perceptions of the social costs linked to hosting an event reduces their willingness to host the event in the future. These results corroborate the findings of other research in this area, albeit with a majority that refer to larger events (Balduck, Maes and Buelens, 2011; Fredline, 2004; Gursoy and Kendall, 2006; Kaplanidou et al., 2013).

In summary, for citizens of Valencia, the F1GP and the O500 have great potential as enhancers of the external image of the city, but are perceived by residents as somewhat elite events, with scarce direct, short-term benefits for residents. As Fredline (2005) expounds, it is important for organisers and authorities to develop an adequate communication strategy with the aim of shifting benefits and positive impacts of hosting these events to residents of the host city. For that, studying the identity of consumers with sport is a vital element to commercialise it in more effective ways (Ratten, 2011). At the same time, they must ensure the minimisation of impacts that residents perceive as negative. Along these lines, Chalip, Green and Hill (2003) highlight that the political and economic viability of a sport event in the long term depends greatly on a good marketing and communication strategy, which should stem from the host community itself. This action, together with an increment in the participation of residents in this type of event, minimising the negative impacts, can contribute to improving residents' perceptions of such events. Chien et al. (2011) find that the degree of support for hosting an event is greater when residents view the event positively, with the media providing a useful tool in the promotion of the community.

Limitations and future research

First, the scale used in this research could be expanded to incorporate new factors relating to psychological, environmental, and political impacts, with the aim of observing the relationship these factors have with a willingness to support

small- and medium-scale events. It would also be of interest to extend the number of items in the dimension of impact on sport promotion to endow this factor with more content. Furthermore, scholars should exercise caution when interpreting the results of this study, avoiding generalisations to the population as a whole, given that the study methodology employs a convenience sampling frame.

Future research could analyse the changes in perceptions over time, so as to gain an understanding of the long-term benefits of these events. Scholars should also seek to carry out studies that identify subgroups of the population with similar perceptions of this type of events because different members of the community may have different views regarding the events' negative and positive impacts. Furthermore, researchers should pay attention to differences depending on sociodemographic characteristics and other intrinsic variables such as interest in this type of event, attendance, participation, or having some kind of economic stake in these events.

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11

FUTURE TRENDS IN TOURISM INNOVATION

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Introduction

This book has focused on the role of tourism innovation in the global economy by taking a creativity, sustainability and technology perspective. Recent developments in the tourism industry have made us question our assumptions about the nature of tourism and how it is defined. This includes more tourism start-ups gaining ascendancy in the marketplace and developing previously unknown products. It will be interesting to see how the future of tourism progresses and what innovation becomes popular in the marketplace (Ferreira, Fernandes and Ratten, 2015). For some, the next generation of tourism services will be automated and linked to artificial intelligence. For others, the human touch and need for emotions will be brought back into the tourism sector. Thus, an open mindset is needed in order to understand future trajectories of the tourism industry.

Innovation is a broad term that has a variety of different meanings. Most tourism innovation is associated with service quality as the emphasis in tourism has been on speed and ease of availability. However, innovation – whilst meaning something new – has been linked to the topic of creativity (Ratten, 2012). Increasingly more people and businesses are seeing the need to think outside the box and develop new strategies for the tourism sector. This is seen in start-up competitions and events that result in people from various interdisciplinary backgrounds coming together to brainstorm ideas (Ratten, 2014). Ideation is part of this process as is developing new ideas and ways of thinking.

As the chapters in this book note, research needs to emphasise future directions and integrate suggestions with existing literature. There are a number of different theories used in tourism innovation research such as dynamic capabilities, organizational learning, transactions costs, resource-based view and value co-creation. The findings from the chapters in this book clearly indicate that tourism innovation is a multi-faceted phenomenon that links to a number of disciplines.

Existing research tends to rely on already existing theoretical perspectives but can benefit from new theoretical development. New methodological approaches should be developed that can open up the research to new paradigms. Most tourism innovation research has focused on qualitative research such as case studies and in-depth interviews but more large-scale quantitative data might add value to the field. Studies using panel data might open up our understanding about the changes from tourism innovation. In addition, more longitudinal studies need to be conducted to see the dynamics of tourism innovation. The field of tourism innovation can be enriched when it is taken to a new level by integrating theories from other fields. This would enable a more encompassing theoretical framework that takes into account different perspectives. The imbalance at the moment towards certain topics in tourism innovation research neglects new topics from emerging.

Growth areas in tourism innovation

Tourism researchers need to respond to new topics that have previously not been examined in sufficient detail. There is more need of interdisciplinary research as seen in the field of tourism innovation that has seminal articles with high citation rates. Due to the popularity of tourism there are many potential growth areas in tourism innovation research, but we will focus on the topics regarding sustainability, creativity and technology. Table 11.1 suggests some future themes and topics that need to be researched for tourism innovation.

Consumer aspects

There are research challenge areas regarding consumer aspects of tourism innovation. To extend the current research more emphasis of the consumer experience is needed. This can enable tourism innovation research to become more relevant and incorporate emerging trends. There are a large number of articles published on consumer behavior in tourism that provide a good understanding of behavioural intentions. However, more information is needed on how consumer opinion changes with the use of creativity in a tourism context. New theories regarding consumer co-creation are required that take into account the increased role consumers are playing in tourism. This can be complex as online communities are facilitating the sharing of ideas in a way that has never been done before. To encourage changes in the tourism literature, researchers need to change their thinking about how consumers interact.

There are different types of consumers that require new research ideologies and approaches. Consumers can quickly change their behavior based on new innovation trends (Ratten, 2016). Thus, researchers can pioneer new research methodologies that examine this behavior. This includes a pressing need for more research on emerging technology changes in tourism. Often the research in tourism is retrospective and not forward thinking in terms of new technology. In addition, new technology takes different forms, so our current understanding needs to take into account projected change.

TABLE 11.1 Future research on tourism innovation, sustainability, creativity and technology

Thematic area	Proposed topic
Consumer aspects	Analysis of what consumers expect from tourism innovation
	Clarification about how consumers can co-create tourism innovation
	Role of culture and socio-economic conditions for consumers' acceptance of tourism innovation
	Role of consumers in designing tourism innovation
	How failures are perceived by consumers and lead to further innovation
	The way new innovations are implemented and managed
	Managing intellectual property and facilitating open innovation in new tourism services
Sustainability practices	Reasons for sustainability innovation in tourism firms
	Level of exposure of sustainable innovations
	Community engagement in sustainability practice
	Marketing communication practices regarding sustainability
	The financial considerations for creating sustainable tourism innovation
	The role of climate change in tourism
	Use of new materials in accommodation
	How the term "sustainability" is changing in a tourism context
Barriers to creativity	Reasons for not being creative in tourism
	Brainstorming activities in tourism firms
	Level of stakeholder engagement in creative ideas
	Historical events leading to tourism creativity
	Geographic differences in types of tourism creativity
	Best practices in tourism creativity management
	Tourism marketing regarding creative new services
	Sources of inspiration for creativity
Stimuli for technology innovation	Role of government in fostering technology innovation in tourism firms
	Efficacy of technology adoption in tourism
	Strategies for promoting tourism technology marketing
	Technology inequality in tourism
	Digital entrepreneurship and ecosystems in tourism
	How tourism creates new technology innovations
	Reality of implementing technology into tourism businesses

Sustainability

Tourists are more conscious too about sustainability issues and the way they are affecting the environment. This is seen in over-tourism becoming a key topic in tourism debates. The popularity of certain tourist spots has meant the need to manage the flow of people. This is seen in parks regulating the amount of people coming at certain times of the year. Customer relationship databases are used to manage expected tourist numbers. This has enabled the analysis of demographic information to be used to tailor services. The ageing population has meant new services being introduced to cater for older consumers, for example, walk-in showers and elevators for people with mobility issues. In addition, there are more older travelers than in the

past, which has resulted in more apartment hotels. This has made the tourism sector competitive but also heralded the way for innovative businesses to enter the market. Event management has also become an important area of tourism innovation with services designed to accommodate different needs. Sport events such as the World Cup have meant huge growth in tourism numbers to cities that host the events.

There has been a trend towards more frequent holidays that have changed the dynamics of the tourist industry. Due to cheaper flights and accommodation suiting different needs, tourists are able to take more frequent holidays. There has also been a change in the geographic location of tourists with tourists from China increasing due to an emerging middle class. Other emerging economies like Indonesia are also expected to see strong growth in tourism numbers. In addition, changing family dynamics such as increased disposable income have impacted the tourism sector. Some tourism destinations that were previously catering to low budget travelers such as Bali have become more sophisticated. This has led to places like Bali having more expensive accommodation but also catering to low cost travelers. In addition, whilst places like Bali tended to be for international tourists there has been a growth in domestic tourism especially in Indonesia. This is in conjunction with increased interest in cultural and heritage tourism that places value on authenticity. More historical sites are being opened to tourists as a way to connect to local events. This is also evident in tourism routes such as Santiago de Compostela as religious destinations become more popular. However, not all tourists are the same and they need to be considered as distinct individuals.

Part of the impact of sustainability is evaluating the tourism value chain, such as from where food is sourced to how it is delivered to tourists. In addition, eco-tourism and the use of recyclable materials have impacted the hotel industry. More tourists are interested in the materials used to build hotels and the use of plastics in food services. There is more information available online about environmental issues related to tourism. This is evident in social media channels devoted to eco-tourism initiatives.

Technology

There is now a belief that whilst there are vast amounts of data available sometimes this can be too much data to analyse. Thus, whilst technology has progressed there has also been a backlash towards more traditional and hands-on tourism experiences. This is seen in bed-and-breakfast places still in existence that cater to a more personalized service. Health-related tourism services are an increasingly popular market segment. The pursuit of medical tourism is an area growing in developing countries that have cheaper services. At the same time consumers from developing countries are travelling to developed countries for specific medical services. Psychological or wellbeing tourism experiences are being marketed as a way to experience spiritual activities. However, some destinations advertised for spiritual reasons need to consider the impact of negative influences such as political situations. This results in some destinations being considered as safe but not being popular due to

political turmoil. Changes in government have an impact on tourism destinations that is also evident in media releases. The reasons for the massive growth in the tourism industry have been attributed to "the growing world population, availability of increasing disposable incomes, particularly in emerging world regions, faster means of transport and changing patterns of work, socializing and dwelling" (Gossling, Cohen and Hibbert, 2018:1586). The internet has created a global network of friends and family that is no longer constrained by geographic boundaries. There is a social status associated with travelling as it is considered linked to an individual's position in society (Gossling, Cohen and Hibbert, 2018).

Creativity

Creativity is linked to technology as new emerging developments have changed the way individuals and businesses interact in society. The notion of the smart city and smart tourism has rapidly gained momentum as a way to understand the interconnectivity of technology providers. Cheaper and faster air travel has changed the way people travel and transformed the global business world. Creativity has been used in product development but is still at an early stage of research in terms of tourism. This book has contributed to the linkage between creativity and tourism innovation by providing some interesting case studies about this process. This enables new thinking to emerge about the need for creativity in tourism.

There are a myriad of topics that researchers should consider in future work about the impact of creativity in tourism innovation. These include:

- Accommodation – How are accommodation providers being more creative in terms of the services they offer? This includes marketing for new segments that have been previously under represented. For example, older consumers may want different kinds of furniture or services to suit their lifestyles. In addition, choosing rooms based on location in a building similar to an aeroplane might be a future option. More specifically, are there changes that accommodation providers can make that add value to their business?
- Aesthetics – What type of innovations can change the aesthetics of tourism providers? This might include design concepts, smell and sound, which affect the customer experience. Also, what is the comparative effect of aesthetics in different types of tourism services? For example, are tourists attracted to a region or hotel because of a specific aesthetic quality?
- Comparative advantage – How can tourism providers differentiate themselves in the market based on innovation? For example, are there new marketing campaigns that offer advantages?
- Attitudes toward innovation – What factors influence the ability of tourism firms to be innovative? How do positive and negative effects from tourism innovation influence regional development?
- Longevity – Do all tourism providers have the same level of perseverance towards innovation? How does the co-creation experience affect the long-term impact from tourism services?

Managerial takeaways and policy recommendations

The managerial takeaways from this book are that managers need to be aware of how creativity can increase the level of innovation activity in their firms. In addition, encouraging employees to be creative is a good strategy for tourism managers. In order to implement creativity, managers need to place value on the implementation of ideas in the work environment. To stimulate innovation, managers should have a decentralized firm structure that facilitates the dissemination of ideas. This book demonstrates the importance of a deep understanding about the need for innovation in tourism. Policies concerning tourism innovation should consider local cultures and the role sustainability has in new venture creation. Policy recommendations to support tourism innovation should include:

1   support creative ideas for tourism enterprises and provide incentives
2   understand the benefits derived from innovation when implementing ideas
3   increase marketing efforts around tourism innovation including destination branding
4   provide best practice examples of tourism innovation
5   manage technology partnerships between small- and large-sized tourism enterprises

The chapters in this book present cutting edge research and novel ideas about the role of creativity, sustainability and technology in tourism innovation. An exciting new era of research exists about the future for tourism innovation researchers, practitioners and policy makers. Hopefully the chapters in this book will fuel further research into tourism innovation and how it will change society.

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