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CONTENTS

| Research articles |
|--|
| BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF TOURISM RESEARCH FOR THE PERIOD 2007- 2016 |
| SUSTAINABLE TOURISM RESEARCH TOWARDS TWENTY-FIVE YEARS OF THE JOURNAL OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM |
| A STUDY OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING CUSTOMERS' IMPULSE BUYING BEHAVIOR IN RESTAURANTS |
| CULTURAL HERITAGE MANAGEMENT IN TURKEY AND EGYPT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY |
| WHY DO SO FEW LOCAL PEOPLE VISIT NATIONAL PARKS? EXAMINING THE CONSTRAINTS ON ANTALYA'S NATIONAL PARKS IN TURKEY |
| Opinion Piece |
| A NEW CONCEPT GENERATED BY COMMODITIZING ANIMALS: EGOLOGICAL TOURISM |

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BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF TOURISM RESEARCH FOR THE PERIOD 2007-2016

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to identify trends in tourism literature in bibliometric terms by analyzing scientific studies carried out over the past decade and to reveal the similarities and differences of the trends between Turkey originated and other international publications. The research data comprised of 4473 studies published between 2007-2016 in the top-five journals of tourism field according to the Journal Citation Reports and 213 Turkey-originated studies published in 19 tourism and hospitality journals. The journals were examined in terms of number and types of publications, author-institution-country productivity, citation analysis, conceptual orientations and citation burst. In order to reveal the links between key words and the leading studies, social network analysis was utilized. Social network analysis facilitates mapping the links in a research community and specifying the key actors for the field development. According to research findings, experimental researches were observed to have an important place in both Turkey originated and other international topics publications. was determined that organizational behavior and management fields were studied the most, particularly the concepts such as attitude, perception, intention, experience, behavior and satisfaction were measured. Turkey originated publications often

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addressed conflict and behavior issues whereas other international publications focused on sustainable tourism, destinations, local people and travel experiences. It is considered that the research results would enable individuals interested in tourism discipline, in both scientific and sectorial terms, to have an overview of the research scope and intellectual framework of the field.

INTRODUCTION

The increasing importance of tourism for national and local economies and its cultural and sociological effects enabled it to develop as a discipline and led researchers from different disciplines to become interested in the field. Improvement of tourism over years and its multidisciplinary structure require its bibliometrical analysis both in quantitative (basic and further technical analysis) and qualitative ways (literature search) (Koseoglu, Sehitoglu, & Parnell, 2015: 359).

As a widely accepted definition in literature, bibliometrics is the application of mathematical and statistical methods on books and other communication mediums (Pritchard, 1969: 348). Bibliometrical studies allow determination of quality of the studies in a specific field, evaluation of the concepts and definition of trends in the field. Thus, it helps researchers have an overview of the main studies and trending topics leading the field (Kasemodel, Makishi, Souza, & Silva, 2016: 73-83). Citation analysis in bibliometrical studies allows determination of basic reference sources on a specific topics and evaluation of the quality of scientific publications as well as their effects in a specific discipline. Although bibliometrical analysis could be applied on various documents, it mainly focuses on journals. Academic journals are important communication channels for researchers. Also, journals function as a glass through which the evolution of a specific discipline could be observed (Xiao & Smith, 2006: 490-1).

Bibliometrical techniques can be classified under the evaluative or relational categories. Evaluation techniques generally try to evaluate the impact of the scientific research in order to compare the relative scientific contributions of two or more individuals or groups (Benckendorff, 2009a: 2-3). Evaluative techniques consist of productivity measurements (publication, author, organization and country-related productivity), of impact measurements (rating of journals, and document, author, journal

citation analyses) and of hybrid metrics embodying both productivity and impact measurements (Hall, 2011; Koseoglu, 2016: 154). On the other hand, relational techniques discover the relationships in the researches such as the structure of the research fields, new research themes and techniques. Word analysis, co-authorship analysis and co-citation analysis are the most widely-used visual techniques to reveal relationships (Benckendorff & Zehrer, 2013: 126). Word analysis refers to the analysis of data obtained through checking the frequency of the use of the words on titles, key words and summary of publications and it is one of the important indicators showing the concepts that were in the focus of the studies in a specific field (Ukşul, 2016: 67). Within the scope of co-author analysis, the collaborations realized by researchers in a particular scientific community to contribute to general knowledge base of the community are examined (Racherla & Hu, 2010: 1012). Co-citation analysis is defined as "the frequency with which two documents are cited together", and cocitation occurs when two or more authors, documents or journals are cited together as a reference in another document simultaneously. (Small, 1973; Diodato, 1994; Osareh, 1996: 155). Co-citation analysis focuses on the possibility that documents often cited together in reference lists would have a point in common. Co-citation analysis reveals the relationship network among the documents, and thus, provides predictions on intellectual structure of the field (Benckendorff, 2009c).

The analysis of progress in knowledge and theory emphasizes the effect of academic forces and trends forming the knowledge production besides understanding the development of ideas and interpretations. Such researches facilitate search of the intellectual structure of a discipline (Benckendorf & Zehrer, 2013: 122). In this study, it is aimed to determine trends in the field through examining bibliometrical features of the studies published in Turkey- originated and other international tourism literature within the scope of the data gathered from Web of Science database. In order to achieve the mentioned goal, two main questions were attempted to be answered in the study:

- (1) What kind of distribution do the Turkey-originated and other international publications show when they are examined through evaluation-based bibliometrical techniques (publication numbers, publication types, author-institution-country productivity and citation analysis)?
- (2) What are the important concepts and the leading resources found as a result of the examination of Turkey-originated studies and

other international publications through the relationship-based bibliometrical techniques (word analysis and co-citation analysis)?

In the present study, implications on the nature of tourism, knowledge structure and specific research themes are planned to be discussed in terms of leading researches, authors, institutions and countries in the tourism field. It will allow the researchers to have an overview on the epistemological structure of the field, the current research themes in the field and reference books to be benefited from within the framework of those themes. Sectorial developments occur in coordination with the scientific developments. Therefore, the present study serves as a guideline to the sector representatives because of scientifically putting forward the dynamics and route of today's tourism. In addition, the examination of the trends in Turkish tourism literature in comparison with the other international tourism literature and revealing the similarities and differences within the context of the research themes, provide information about to what extent the Turkish tourism researches match up with or separate from the developments in the world.

BIBLIOMETRICAL RESEARCHES IN THE FIELD OF TOURISM

The fact that tourism has developed as a discipline resulted in the increase in number of scientific publications, publishers and academic institutions which brought along the necessity to interpret and summarize the scientific knowledge in the field. Specified as studies allowing trends in a specific field to be examined, bibliometrical researches also draw great interest in tourism recently, as they do in every field (Hall, 2011:16).

Within the scope of bibliometric researches carried out in the field of tourism, Ballantyne, Packer, and Axelsen (2009) examined the improvement in tourism researches by way of categorizing 2868 articles under 21 topics area that were published in 12 important tourism journals between 1994 and 2004. The most studied topics in articles were tourist/visitor researches (focused on behavior and choices), tourism planning (focused on improvement of tourism, strategy and demand prediction), destination (focused on image, improvement and management) and marketing (focused on market segmentation and promotion) representing 37% of all articles. In addition, while the productivity of authors and institutions from USA and Britain has decreased, publication productivity of Australia, New Zealand and Asian countries has increased. Among 17.413 tourism-themed studies from 1900

to today, Zhang, Lyu, and Yan (2015) specified the USA, Britain and Australia as the countries producing the most efficient publications; and New Zealand, China, Britain and Australia as the countries producing publications with the closest cooperation. According to the authors, Annals of Tourism Research and Tourism Management are the most productive journals; Hong Kong Polytechnic University is the most productive institution. According to the results of co-citation network analysis in the last 10 years, the most studied topics in the field of tourism are online tourism, customer perception and behavioral intention, tourism demand prediction and destination's competitive capacity.

Benckendorff (2009b) indicated that the publications published in the Journal of Sustainable Tourism between 1999 and 2008 were significantly affected by the geography and ecology. Furthermore, in this study, three clusters on which the researches focused were specified, as well. These are: improvement of sustainable tourism, eco-tourism and management of the effects of tourism. On the other hand, among 2486 articles published in Annals of Tourism Research, Journal of Travel Research and Tourism Management journals between the years of 1996 and 2010, Benckendorff and Zehrer (2013) found that the trendiest topics in the field of tourism were sociology, anthropology and psychology. In that study, tourism, as a social phenomenon, was divided into three clusters: tourism planning, perception of tourists and local people, and customer behaviors.

According to Karagöz and Yüncü (2013), management, human resources and education topics are the key actors in tourism knowledge network in 385 doctorate theses produced in Turkey between 1991 and 2010. In terms of information production in the field of tourism at doctorate level, it is mainly focused on management sciences. However, other fields under the social sciences are ignored while a non-flexible and limited approach is adopted. Similarly, Evren and Kozak (2014) found that management and organization topics followed by tourism marketing and tourism economy were dominant in 1217 articles published in Turkish tourism journals between 2000 and 2010. In addition, it was observed that vast majority of the studies was carried out with the help of empirical techniques. In their study on 135 Turkey-originated studies published in 14 of the leading international tourism/hospitality journals between 1984 and 2013, Koseoglu et al. (2015) found that experimental methods were utilized in 96.3% of the articles and the most studied topics were customer behavior, tourism policies, tourism development, tourism marketing and business management. Results showed that the most productive authors

were Metin Kozak and Cevat Tosun. In addition, it was observed that the authors who contributed the most to the literature were holding the professor title; that authors generally contributed to journals with one article; while, authors cooperation was highest in articles.

As mentioned above, there are many bibliometrical studies examining the tourism discipline specific to Turkey or at an international dimension in specific journals, academic theses, under specific titles and within specific time ranges. In those studies, such variables as authorinstitution-country productivity and collaboration, citation analyses, research methodologies and research themes were examined. Since each research was carried out within the framework of different time ranges and data resources, it could be misleading to come to a general conclusion over the research findings. However, it can be indicated that the tourism research themes in the publications in Turkey mainly focus on business and management sciences whereas the tourism marketing and planning are mainly discussed topics in other international studies. Although similar evaluation and relationship-based techniques are examined in current study, the distinguishing part is the examination of trends in Turkish tourism literature in comparison with the other international tourism literature.

METHODOLOGY

The present study was carried out using the document examination method within the framework of descriptive analysis. Bibliometrical study methodology enables the scientific production on the research topic to be visualized through objective techniques and explained in numbers (Kasemodel et al., 2016: 74).

The purpose of the study is to put forward the image of scientific development and trends in tourism literature over 10 years at Turkey-originated and other international level. This was done by bibliometrically analyzing 213 Turkey-originated studies published between 2007-2016 in 19 tourism-hospitality journals and 4473 studies published between 2007-2016 in Tourism Management (TM), Journal of Travel Research (JTR), Journal of Sustainable Tourism (JST), Cornell Hospitality Quarterly (CHQ) and Annals of Tourism Research (ATR), which are the top-five journals in tourism field according to Journal Citation Report (JCR) 2016. 19 journals in which Turkey originated studies are published in and top-five journals

are indexed in "Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism" research field in Thomson Reuters Web of Science database.

The reason for choosing the mentioned journals is because they are considered as the top-five tourism journals in the fields of tourism due to their citation numbers, impact factor and h-index according to 2016 JCR data, they are at Q1 quarter in JCR and SCImago Journal & Country Rank (SJR) (2017). JCR enables assessing and comparing the performance of the journals and determining the trend journals within the important research fields (Web of Science, 2017) whereas SJR, developed based on the information from Scopus database, is a publically accessible portal containing the scientific indicators of journals and countries. Journal clusters are ranged in SJR and JCR and they are divided into four quarters as Q1-Q2-Q3-Q4. Q1 represents the quarter of the journals with the highest value (SJR, 2017).

The continuous change and development of the scientific information brings along a continuous transformation in research fields and topics under scientific disciplines. The main reason for choosing the time range of 2007-2016 in the present study is to provide an insight to the current situation of the information structure in tourism field. In addition, the other reason is that Journal of Travel Research, Journal of Sustainable Tourism and Cornell Hospitality Quarterly have started to be indexed in Web of Science after 2007.

In the study, the data of top-five journals and Turkey-originated studies were acquired from Web of Science database. Turkey-originated publications were found in 19 out of 23 tourism and hospitality journals. In this regard, top-five journals and Turkey-originated publications were examined in the context of publication numbers according to years, type of publications, author-institution-country productivity and citation analysis. In addition, 4394 studies acquired by excluding Turkey-originated studies published in top-five journals and data from 213 Turkey-originated studies were examined comparatively via Word analysis.

Besides deriving the current topics and trends in tourism literature in the last 10 years through word analysis, similarities and differences between Turkey-originated researches and other international literature were put forward, as well.

Social network analysis was used in order to determine the concept trends in Turkey originated and other international publications. By means of mapping and visualizing the relations in a research community, social network analysis ensures definition of the key actors in an information network, test of the structure and discovery of the factors effective for the improvement of a field (Karagöz & Yüncü, 2013: 211-2). Network analysis allows the examination of wide and complex structures such as academic research communities. Mathematically, a network is a graphic in which every participant in the network is named as an actor and presented as a node (Racherla & Hu, 2010: 1016-7). On the other hand, CiteSpace II application was used for the analysis of social network. CiteSpace II is a Java application that supports structural and time-wise analysis of various networks deriving from scientific publications (Chen, Ibekwe-SanJuan, & Hou, 2010: 10).

As a result of the analyses, relations were visualized, and statistical information was presented about the structure of the network formed. In this context, network density, network modularity and mean silhouette values were calculated. Q-modularity takes value ranging from 0-1, and the values close to 1 indicate closer relations and connections within the clusters. In general, Q modularity value between 0.4-0.8 is accepted as the indicator of a good clustering. On the other hand, mean silhouette takes value ranging from -1 and 1, and the fact that the value is close to 1 indicates that the actors in the network are consistent and similar (Li, Ma, & Qu, 2017: 80).

In the study, locations of concepts in the network were examined according to their betweenness centrality. Betweenness centrality measures the importance of the nodes locations in the network and stresses the potential key points in the network. In addition, citation bursts for the cited publications were identified. Citation burst is a metric that defines the sharp increase observed in the citation number of a reference in a certain period of time. Therefore, it could be indicated that a reference with a strong burst is in a specific relationship with the research trend during the burst period (Zhang, Chen, Wang, & Ordonez de Pablos, 2016: 1131-3).

FINDINGS

Number of Publications

4473 studies in total were published in the top-five journals between 2007 and 2016. Journals with the highest number of publications in top-five

journals are Tourism Management (n=1808) and Annals of Tourism Research (n=1123). There are 213 Turkey-originated publications between 2007-2016 published in 19 journals indexed in Web of Science, and Tourism Management (n=51), International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (n=37) and International Journal of Hospitality Management (n=28) are the journals in which Turkey-originated studies are published the most. Turkey-originated studies in these three journals comprise 54.5% of total publications.

Table 1. Number of Publications

| | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | Total |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| TM | 193 | 148 | 125 | 131 | 200 | 195 | 186 | 175 | 229 | 226 | 1808 |
| JTR | - | 44 | 39 | 40 | 54 | 61 | 59 | 58 | 54 | 77 | 486 |
| JST | - | 45 | 53 | 72 | 54 | 61 | 91 | 76 | 82 | 110 | 644 |
| CHQ | - | 50 | 52 | 46 | 61 | 43 | 42 | 42 | 39 | 37 | 412 |
| ATR | 89 | 81 | 64 | 90 | 125 | 160 | 127 | 123 | 113 | 151 | 1123 |
| Turkey | 14 | 15 | 16 | 22 | 20 | 15 | 17 | 25 | 27 | 42 | 213 |

TM: Tourism Management; JTR: Journal of Travel Research; JST: Journal of Sustainable Tourism; CHQ: Cornell Hospitality Quarterly; ATR: Annals of Tourism Research

Types of Publications

Table 2. *Types of Publications*

| | Article | Book Review | Review | Editorial Material | Proceedings Paper | Biographical Item | Correction | Letter | Reprint | Total |
|--------|---------|----------------|--------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------|--------|---------|-------|
| TM | 1377 | 376 | 37 | 13 | 3 | 3 | 2 | - | - | 1811 |
| JTR | 457 | - | 21 | 5 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | 486 |
| JST | 513 | 92 | 16 | 18 | - | 2 | 3 | - | - | 644 |
| CHQ | 320 | 2 | 4 | 73 | - | 1 | 2 | 9 | 1 | 412 |
| ATR | 597 | 314 | 24 | 181 | 1 | - | 7 | - | - | 1124 |
| Turkey | 186 | 21 | 3 | 2 | 5 | - | 1 | - | - | 218 |

Calculations regarding the types of publications were done considering 4477 studies in top-five journals and 218 Turkey-originated publications. The difference between the total number and types of publications results from the fact that one publication could be evaluated in multiple types. According to analysis results, it is seen that 90.4% of the studies published in the top-five journals are composed of articles and books. In Turkey-

originated publications, articles and book summaries are dominant and the ratio of them in total is 95%.

Productivity of Authors

213 Turkey-originated articles were written by 280 different authors in total. Among these articles, 27.7% (n=59) is single-authored, 39% is (n=83) two-authored, 23% (n=49) is three-authored, 6.6% (n=14) is four-authored, 3.3% (n=7) is five-authored and 0.5% (n=1) is six-authored. 29.6% (n=83) of the authors are foreigners. Total number of authors in Turkey-originated publications is 469. Authors that contribute to studies with one article comprise 48.6% (n=228) of total authors. The ratio of authors with 2-5 publications is 11.9% (n=56), of authors with 6-10 publications is 0.6% (n=3), of authors with 11-20 publications is 0.4% (n=2) and of authors with more than 20 publications is 0.2% (n=1). The top seven authors having contributed to the top-five tourism journals and Turkey-originated studies at most are presented in detail in the table 3.

Table 3. Productivity of Authors

| Authors | Country/ Institution | Number of Publications |
|--------------------|---|---------------------------|
| Rob Law | China/Hong Kong Polytechnic University | 43 |
| Colin Michael Hall | New Zeland /University of Canterbury | 43 |
| Chris Ryan | New Zeland /University of Waikato | 39 |
| Haiyan Song | China/Hong Kong Polytechnic University | 32 |
| Bob Mckercher | China/Hong Kong Polytechnic University | 32 |
| Sara Dolnicar | Australia/University of Qeensland | 29 |
| Osman M. Karatepe | Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus /Doğu Akdeniz University | 29 |

According to data from the studies published in top-five journals, Rob Law was found to be the most productive author. Also, the number of authors from Hong Kong Polytechnic University in China draws attention in terms of publication productivity. Osman M. Karatepe (n=29) is the most productive author in Turkey-originated studies. The second most productive Turkish researcher is Metin Kozak (n=19).

Productivity of Institutions

For the determination of institution productivity, institution changes of authors were taken into consideration, and where two or more authors were from the same institution, those institutions were considered as one and the calculations were done, accordingly. Turkey-originated studies were conducted by 125 different institutions. 44% (n=55) of these institutions is from Turkey and 66% (n=70) of them is composed of foreign institutions. The best five productive institutions in Turkey-originated studies are Doğu Akdeniz University (n=37), Muğla University (n=26), Akdeniz University (n=23), Dokuz Eylül University (n=18) and Gazi University (n=15), respectively. On the other hand, regarding the top-five journals, the best five productive institutions were found to be China/Hong Kong Polytechnic University (n=230), Australia/Griffith University (142), Australia/Queensland University (n=111) England/Surrey University and USA/Cornell University (n=99), respectively.

Country Productivity and Collaborations

While calculating country productivity, in case when two or more authors from the same country contributed to a study, these countries were considered as one. The number of publications of top ten countries that published the highest number of publications between 2007-2016 and the number of Turkey-originated publications in these top-five journals are presented in the table 4.

In total, 97 countries contributed to the top-five journals. USA (25.9%) and Australia (15.2%) had the highest contribution, and the ratio of contribution by top ten countries was 92.5%. Besides country productivity, collaboration of Turkey-originated publications with other countries was also determined. In each publication, countries with more than one author were considered as one. Accordingly, it was found that total 24 different countries were collaborated with. The top five countries

with the highest portion of common publication are USA (n=39), New Zealand-England (n=8) and Portugal-Spain (n=5), respectively.

Table 4. Country Productivity

| Countries | Number of Publications | Percent(%) |
|-------------|---------------------------|--------------|
| USA | 1157 | 25,9 |
| Australia | 679 | 15,2 |
| England | 589 | 13,2 |
| China | 450 | 10,1 |
| Spain | 295 | 6,6 |
| New Zealand | 256 | 5 <i>,</i> 7 |
| Canada | 242 | 5,4 |
| Taiwan | 208 | 4,7 |
| Scotland | 128 | 2,9 |
| South Korea | 127 | 2,8 |
| Turkey | 79 | 1,8 |

Citation Analysis

In the period that the study was conducted, 2756 citations in total were made from Turkey-originated publications. Annual average citation number is (275,6) and average citation number per publication is (12,9). The study which has the highest number of citation among the 213 Turkey originated study is "Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty" (n=177). The study with the highest number of citation among the studies published in top-five journals is "Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet – The state of eTourism Research" (n=523). The citation numbers of publications were presented in detail in the table 5.

According to the data presented in Table 5, Tourism Management is the journal with the highest number of citation and the highest average citation number (19.21) per publication. On the other hand, Cornell Hospitality Quarterly has the lowest citation number and the lowest average citation number (7.57) per publication. In the above-mentioned top-five journals, there are publications with the citation number ranging from 1-10 (%36, 3). While 1.2% of the publications have 100 and more citations, 22.9% of them are not cited at all. Turkey-originated publications

mostly have 1-10 citation range and they comprise 46.5% of total publications. In addition, 0.9% of the publications have more than 100 citations and 19.2% of them are not cited. Having examined the Turkey-originated publications on the basis of journals they were published in, it was observed that the studies published in Tourism Management journal had the highest number of citation (n=1379). Citations made on those studies comprise 50% of total citations.

Table 5. Citation Counts According to Publication Number

| Citation Counts | TM | JTR | JST | CHQ | ATR | Turkey |
|----------------------|------------|----------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| 100 < | 37 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 12 | 2 |
| 81-100 | 40 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 15 | 3 |
| 61-80 | 45 | 13 | 13 | 2 | 23 | 5 |
| 41-60 | 102 | 32 | 23 | 10 | 53 | 5 |
| 21-40 | 297 | 75 | 89 | 25 | 139 | 25 |
| 11-20 | 321 | 122 | 114 | 61 | 140 | 33 |
| 1-10 | 578 | 213 | 253 | 190 | 389 | 99 |
| 0 | 388 | 22 | 140 | 123 | 352 | 41 |
| Publication/Citation | 1808/34745 | 486/8269 | 644/8654 | 412/3120 | 1123/14576 | 203/2756 |

Word Analysis and Citation Bursts of non-Turkey-Originated Studies in Top-Five Journals

The most frequently used words in published in top-five journals were presented in Figure 1 through dimensioning in line with their degree of centrality.

The network is formed by 155 nodes (words), 816 connections and is divided into 8 clusters. The density of the network is 0.0684, modularity value is Q= 0.3791 and mean silhouette value is 0.5248. Each node shows a word and each connection shows the relations between words. Connections between nodes get thicker as the number of connections increase. Thickness and size of the circles around the nodes mean that centrality degrees of the nodes are high. Colouring in the network is determined in accordance with the time table above according to the years in which words are used (Ukşul, 2016: 71). As a result of the analysis, 165 words were detected and the most frequently-used top twenty words with the highest centrality degree were presented in the table 6.

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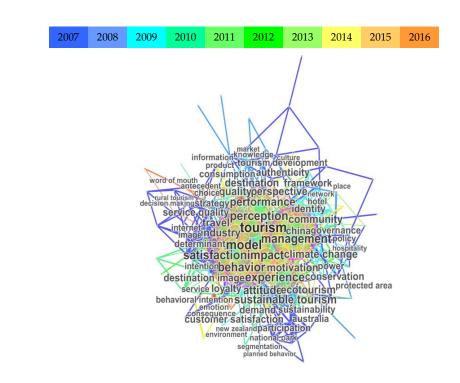


Figure 1. Word Network of Top-Five Journals

Table 6. Most Frequently-Used Top Twenty Words and Centrality Degrees

| Words | Frequency | Cluster# | Words | Centrality | Cluster# |
|---------------------|-----------|----------|---------------------|------------|----------|
| tourism | 593 | 3 | behavior | 0.13 | 1 |
| model | 475 | 1 | management | 0.12 | 0 |
| effect | 331 | 0 | satisfaction | 0.12 | 1 |
| management | 327 | 0 | society | 0.11 | 0 |
| behavior | 285 | 1 | model | 0.10 | 1 |
| satisfaction | 277 | 1 | perception | 0.10 | 1 |
| perception | 257 | 1 | destination | 0.10 | 4 |
| experience | 248 | 3 | attitude | 0.09 | 0 |
| attitude | 222 | 0 | sustainable tourism | 0.09 | 0 |
| performance | 218 | 2 | tourism | 0.08 | 3 |
| sustainable tourism | 216 | 0 | information | 0.08 | 2 |
| perspective | 172 | 0 | effect | 0.07 | 0 |
| destination | 170 | 4 | experience | 0.07 | 3 |
| industry | 158 | 2 | travel | 0.07 | 3 |
| motivation | 152 | 3 | loyalty | 0.07 | 1 |
| society | 145 | 0 | quality | 0.06 | 1 |
| climate change | 139 | 0 | identity | 0.06 | 3 |
| travel | 136 | 3 | conservation | 0.06 | 0 |
| ecotourism | 130 | 0 | firm | 0.06 | 2 |
| quality | 129 | 1 | performance | 0.05 | 2 |

According to the data presented in Table 6, it is seen that the most frequently used words in top-five journals are "tourism" (n=593), "model" (n=475) and "effect" (n=331) and the concepts that have the highest betweenness degree are "behavior" (0.13), "management" (0.12) and "satisfaction" (0.12). Words with high centrality degrees represent the top topics that studies are concentrated on.

Table 7. Citation Burst Values Over The Years

| References | Burst | Begin | End | 2007-2016 |
|---|---------|-------|------|-----------|
| Baker, D. A., & Crompton, J. L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. | 10.3752 | 2007 | 2008 | |
| Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G., & García, H. C. (2002). Destination image: Towards a conceptual framework. | 8.9711 | 2007 | 2010 | |
| McGehee, N. G., & Andereck, K. L. (2004). Factors predicting rural residents' support of tourism. | 9.2903 | 2009 | 2012 | |
| Andereck, K. L., Valentine, K. M., Knopf, R. C., & Vogt, C. A. (2005). Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. | 9.4296 | 2009 | 2013 | |
| Uriely, N. (2005). The tourist experience: Conceptual developments. | 10.4199 | 2010 | 2013 | |
| Gallarza, M. G., & Saura, I. G. (2006). Value dimensions, perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty: an investigation of university students' travel behaviour. | 9.2164 | 2012 | 2013 | |
| Steiner, C. J., & Reisinger, Y. (2006). Understanding existential authenticity. | 8.7527 | 2012 | 2013 | |
| Hair, J. F., Black, WC, Babin, BJ Anderson, RE & Tatham, RL (2006). <i>Multivariate data analysis</i> . | 10.942 | 2012 | 2014 | |
| Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., & Babin, B.J. RE Anderson (2010). Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective. | 21.3802 | 2014 | 2016 | |
| Hjalager, A. M. (2010). A review of innovation research in tourism. | 8.8577 | 2014 | 2016 | |

One of the most effective methods that could be used to determine the research trends in a discipline is to determine the citation burst values of publications that the studies have cited in specific time periods. In this way, trends in the discipline in line with cited publications could be put forward. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that total 112 references were citation burst and the top ten references with the highest values were presented in the table 7. Highest citation burst value belongs to the studies conducted by Hair, J. F., Black, W. C. and Babin, B. J., Anderson R.E. (21.38) in 2010.

Word Analyses and Citation Bursts of Turkey-Originated Publications

The network is formed by 127 nodes (words), 494 connections and is divided into 10 clusters. The density of the network is 0.0617, modularity value is Q= 0.5169 and mean silhouette value is 0.6044. As a result of the analysis, 127 words were detected and the most frequently-used top twenty words were presented in the table 8.

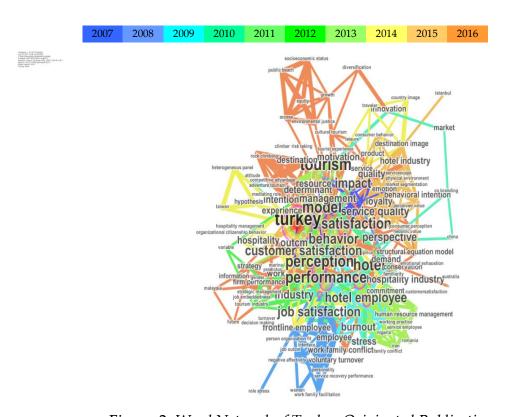


Figure 2. Word Network of Turkey-Originated Publications

The most frequently used words in Turkey-originated studies are "Turkey (n=52)", "tourism (n=32)" and "model (n=31)". The words "model (0.20)", "satisfaction (0.20)" and "management (0.19)" are the concepts with the highest centrality degree in Turkey-originated studies.

Table 8. Most Frequently-Used Top Twenty Words and Centrality Degrees

| Words | Frequency | Cluster# | Words | Centrality | Cluster# |
|-----------------------|-----------|----------|-----------------------|------------|----------|
| Turkey | 52 | 5 | model | 0.20 | 2 |
| tourism | 32 | 3 | satisfaction | 0.20 | 3 |
| model | 31 | 2 | management | 0.19 | 1 |
| performance | 31 | 0 | source | 0.17 | 4 |
| perception | 29 | 2 | job satisfaction | 0.16 | 0 |
| hotel | 28 | 4 | performance | 0.15 | 0 |
| satisfaction | 26 | 3 | perception | 0.15 | 2 |
| behavior | 21 | 2 | hotel employees | 0.13 | 4 |
| effect | 17 | 3 | Turkey | 0.12 | 5 |
| hotel employees | 17 | 4 | hotel | 0.10 | 4 |
| customer satisfaction | 16 | 1 | customer satisfaction | 0.09 | 1 |
| job satisfaction | 15 | 0 | burnout | 0.09 | 4 |
| industry | 12 | 5 | intention | 0.09 | 1 |
| service quality | 12 | 3 | behavior | 0.08 | 2 |
| perspective | 10 | 2 | outcome | 0.08 | 0 |
| burnout | 9 | 4 | front line workers | 0.08 | 0 |
| outcome | 9 | 0 | effect | 0.07 | 3 |
| management | 9 | 1 | perspective | 0.07 | 2 |
| quality | 8 | 3 | product | 0.07 | 1 |
| intention | 8 | 1 | emotion | 0.07 | 3 |

Table 9. Citation Burst Values Over The Years

| References | Burst | Begin | End | 2007-2016 |
|---|--------|-------|------|-----------|
| Karatepe, O. M., & Uludag, O. (2007). Conflict, exhaustion, and motivation: A study of frontline employees in Northern Cyprus hotels. | 2.5898 | 2009 | 2011 | |
| Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. | 2.5898 | 2009 | 2011 | |
| Kim, H. J. (2008). Hotel service providers' emotional labor: The antecedents and effects on burnout. | 2.5898 | 2009 | 2011 | |
| Yavas, U., Babakus, E., & Karatepe, O. M. (2008). Attitudinal and behavioral consequences of workfamily conflict and family-work conflict: does gender matter? | 2.7247 | 2009 | 2012 | |
| Deery, M. (2008). Talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies. | 3.209 | 2011 | 2013 | |

While having examined the references to which Turkey-originated publications made citation, citation bursts were observed in total 5 references. Citation burst values of these studies are close to each other and the highest citation burst value belongs to the study by Deery, M. (3.20) in 2008.

CONCLUSION

In this study, by examination of the Turkey-originated and other international publications in terms of publication numbers, it was determined that the highest number of studies was published in Tourism Management. Turkey-originated publications published in Tourism Management cover 23.9% of the total publications while other international publications cover 40.4% of total publications. Fluctuations are seen in the distribution of publication numbers according to years.

When studies are examined according to publication types, the fact that the high number of studies is published as an article and book summary draws attention. Another remarkable result is that the number of proceedings papers published in top-five journals and Turkey-originated publications is very low. The number of proceedings papers is 0.1% in top-five journals and 2.3% in Turkey-originated publications.

39% of the Turkey-originated publications were conducted by two authors. Foreign researchers comprise almost 30% of the authors. It indicates that Turkish authors have international contacts. The fact that the authors travel to other countries for educational purposes or as researchers is considered to be the biggest factor underlying this result. The authors having contributed to Turkey-originated publications with one article comprise 48.6% of total authors. This ratio is very low compared to the contribution rate with the single article in the literature. In their study, Ruiz-Castillo and Costas (2014: 922) determined the average of interdisciplinary single article contribution as 69%. In Turkey-originated publications, Osman M. Karatepe and in other international publications Rob Law have the highest number of articles. Osman M. Karatepe created 13.6% of the Turkey-originated publications. In the context of author productivity, those in China and New Zealand draw attention.

Doğu Akdeniz University and Muğla University are the leading universities regarding Turkey-originated publications. It is seen that

specific authors are influential on the productivity of these institutions. In the context of publications in top-five journals, Hong Kong Polytechnic University is the most productive institution. The issue drawing attention here is that institutions in China and Australia leave world famous institutions in USA and England behind regarding the productivity although these countries are very effective in various fields. The findings concerning the author and institution productivity show parallelism with the results of the study carried out in 2009 by Ballantyne et al. On the country basis, the USA is the country with the highest publication production rate. In their study, Zhang et al. (2015) determined the USA, England and Australia as the most productive countries and Hong Kong Polytechnic University as the most productive institution. 25.9% of the total publications in the top-five journals were created by authors in USA. Also, Turkish authors created the most of the common publications with the authors in USA.

As a result of the citation analysis, it was observed that Turkey originated and other international publications published in Tourism Management had the highest citation numbers. Citations made for the studies published in Tourism Management comprise half of the citations that Turkey-originated studies received. Studies of which citation number is between 1 to 10 are dominant in top-five journals and Turkey-originated publications. It is determined that 22.9% of the studies in top-five journals and 19.2% of Turkey-originated studies were not cited by those indexed in Social Science Citation Index.

Words used in Turkey-originated and other international studies are similar in general. According to word's usage frequencies and centrality, it could be stated that experimental researches have an important place in both Turkey-originated and other international publications. In general, it is seen that the studied topics are organizational behavior, management organization and human resources management. In the studies, particularly intangible objects such as attitude, perception, intention, experience, behavior and satisfaction were measured. In the studies published in top-five journals, studies on sustainable tourism, destinations, local people and travelling experience are observed, as well.

Cited references and burst values do support the trends found as a result of the word analysis. In Turkey-originated publications, cited references and burst values cover, in line with word analysis results, conflict, behavior and service quality topics. It was observed that Turkeyoriginated studies, similar to those (Karagöz & Yüncü 2013; Evren & Kozak 2014) carried out within the same context in literature, mainly focused on management, organizational behavior and human resources management. The highest citation burst value in other international publications between 2012 and 2016 was measured in "Multivariate Data Analysis" book. This indicates that experimental researches have an important place within the studies in general. In addition, it was determined that topics such as behavioral intention, satisfaction, sustainable tourism, destination image, local people, tourist experience, travelling motivation and innovation were in focus during the specific year ranges. In other international publications, the most popular topics are innovation and sustainable tourism. Contrary to the existing findings (Benckendorff & Zehrer 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), it was also realized that the number of studies focusing on management and behavior were dominant in other international publications. Moreover, the studies are remarkably affected by the fields of marketing, sustainability, psychology and sociology.

The limitations of the current study are the fact that it only includes studies from journals indexed within the Social Science Citation Index, and the non-Turkey originated studies published in only the top-five journals. Future studies could include more local or international journals into the analysis, and other important databases such as Scopus and Google Academic could be used as a data collection tool. The future studies can be enriched with parameters such as the methodology examinations and testing the compatibility with the bibliometrical rules. Through the comparative analysis of the studies carried out in tourism field and other disciplines within different time ranges and published in different scientific journals, the changes observed in trends over the time can be examined.

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Appendix. Journals that published Turkey-originated studies

| Journals | Publication Numbers (2007-2016) |
|--|---------------------------------|
| Tourism Management | 51 |
| Journal of Travel Research | 5 |
| Journal of Sustainable Tourism | 5 |
| Cornell Hospitality Quarterly | 4 |
| Annals of Tourism Research | 14 |
| International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management | 37 |
| International Journal of Hospitality Management | 28 |
| Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing | 12 |
| Current Issues in Tourism | 9 |
| Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research | 2 |
| Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research | 4 |
| Tourism Geographies | 9 |
| International Journal of Tourism Research | 9 |
| Journal of Destination Marketing & Management | 3 |
| Leisure Sciences | 1 |
| Journal of Leisure Research | 3 |
| Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change | 2 |
| Tourism Economics | 9 |
| Journal Of Hospitality Leisure Sport & Tourism Education | 6 |

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SUSTAINABLE TOURISM RESEARCH TOWARDS TWENTY-FIVE YEARS OF THE JOURNAL OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

The Journal of Sustainable Tourism (JOST) is a main journal in 'Geography, Planning and Development'. The concept of sustainable tourism has gained importance over time. This paper presents a general overview of the journal over its lifetime by using bibliometric indicators. Moreover, in order to establish the position of sustainable tourism research, this paper identifies the trends in research through bibliometric studies. It uses the Scopus database to analyse the bibliometric data. This analysis includes key issues such as the publication and citation structure of the journal; the most cited articles; the leading authors, institutions, and countries in the journal; and the keywords that are most often used. This paper also uses the visualization of similarities to graphically map the bibliographic material. This analysis provides further insights into how JOST links to other journals and how it

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links researchers across the globe. These results indicate that JOST is one of the leading journals in the areas where the journal is indexed, with a wide range of authors from institutions and countries from all over the world publishing in it. The results of the current study can provide insights into topics related to sustainable tourism that can be researched in the future.

INTRODUCTION

The Journal of Sustainable Tourism (JOST) is a journal that publishes studies on the relationships between tourism and the concept of sustainability. Tourism should be responsible in terms of sustainability (Lu & Nepal, 2009); however, sustainability is a concept that requires more critical and comprehensive analysis (Butler, 1999; Lu & Nepal, 2009; Mowforth & Munt, 2003). In 1987, the concept was born when the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) published "Our Common Future" (Ruhanen, Weiler, Moyle, & McLennan, 2015). The World Tourism Organization (WTO, 1998) declares that sustainable tourism considers the current and future economic, social and environmental impacts to meet the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and the host communities. The sustainable tourism has increased its importance over time. The research in this topic has grown a lot in recent years (Qian, Shen, & Law, 2018). According to Buckley (2012), a search by this topic in Web of Science showed more than 8,500 results and more than 1 million in Google Scholar (Sánchez-Cañizares et al., 2018). Xiao and Smith (2006) said that, tourism journals have also recognized the importance of such review studies and have published more of these articles.

The research on sustainable tourism in JOST is both from a theoretical and empirical perspective. Since sustainable tourism has increased its importance over time, and the journal has been published for 25 years, it is interesting to analyse the evolution of the journal over this time period. JOST has been, until now, the only journal dedicated exclusively to sustainable tourism research (Lu & Nepal, 2009).

The journal is indexed in the main databases, including among others, Social Sciences Citation Index of the Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus. We will conduct this study using a bibliometric overview using the Scopus database to collect and analyse the bibliographic material. We

have analysed all the publications of the journal since its origin, using bibliometric indicators. Moreover, our study also uses the visualization of similarities (VOS viewer software) to graphically analyse the results obtained with certain bibliometric techniques, including bibliographic coupling, co-citation and co-occurrence of author keywords (Van Eck & Waltman, 2010). The productivity and influence of the journal has been studied, as well as the main topics, authors, institutions and countries.

The objective of this paper is to disclose the contribution of JOST to scientific research analysing the evolution of its trends since its beginning in 1993 until 2017. There are previous works that have analysed the evolution of a journal since its creation. Merigó et al. (2015a) studied the Journal of Business Research between 1973 and 2014. Cobo et al. (2015) studied the evolution of Knowledge-Based Systems for its 25th anniversary. Valenzuela et al. (2017) studied the first thirty years of the Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing. Merigó et al. (2017) studied the International Journal of Intelligent Systems. Laengle et al. (2017) conducted a study for the fortieth anniversary of the European Journal of Operational Research. Cancino et al. (2017) did the same for the fortieth anniversary of Computers & Industrial Engineering.

The review of the recent literature about the bibliometric studies in sustainable tourism found that there are four main articles about this topic. The first has been elaborated by Ruhanen et al. (2015). This paper carried out a bibliometric analysis of the four main journals in the tourism field. Results indicated that the research in sustainable tourism had significantly increased during the last years and the largest proportion of papers published on sustainable tourism were case studies, empirical studies, and critical reviews, while the subjects and themes in sustainable tourism research had remained constant. The second one, have been elaborated by Qian et al. (2018). This paper conducts an analysis of the main studies in sustainable tourism with the objective to present the current state of this research. The third is the Alvarez-Garcia et al. (2018) article. In this paper a bibliometric comparative study of the documents indexed in the WoS and Scopus databases was done with the objective to show the current state of scientific production on community tourism, which is considered as a type of sustainable tourism. This paper analysed, among others, different aspects such as the overlapping of documents and journals, growth, dispersion or concentration of articles. The main conclusions indicated that although WoS and Scopus databases differ in terms of scope, volume of data, and coverage policies, both information systems are complementary. Finally, the paper also indicated that Scopus has a better coverage in the community tourism due to collecting a greater number of articles and journals, and its articles receive a greater number of citations. Finally, the paper of Sánchez-Cañizares et al. (2018) conducts a bibliographical review in order to find out who the leading research pioneers are in sustainable tourism in sensitive areas, discover gaps, and to redefine the concept's frontiers.

The results obtained in this paper will be interesting for researchers, academics and publishers because they will provide these readers with information that will help them in the publication of their studies or help publishers in decision making activities related to their journal's strategy. In this sense, it may be interesting to analyse the information on the evolution of the journal, the changes in trends over time, and the most influential authors and institutions.

BIBLIOMETRIC METHODS

Bibliometrics is a research field that quantitatively studies bibliographic material by analysing a research area and identifying its leading trends (Merigó et al., 2017). Pritchard (1969) introduced this term as 'the application of mathematical and statistical methods to books and other means of communication'.

Bibliometric papers expand into many different disciplines, including, among others, accounting (Merigó & Yang, 2017), health economics (Wagstaff & Culyer, 2012), marketing (Moussa & Touzani, 2010; Theubl, Reutterer, & Hornik, 2014; Svensson & Wood, 2007), natural resources (Zhong, Geng, Liu, Gao, & Chen, 2016), and strategic management (Vogel & Güttel, 2013).

There are also several bibliometric studies in tourism, leisure and hospitality management. For example, the papers by Jogaratnam et al. (2005a, 2005b), Goodall (2009) and Yuan et al. (2015) focus on the most productive and influential institutions; the papers by McKercher (2008), Benckendorff and Zehrer (2013) and Figueroa-Domecq et al. (2015) study the number of publications from the most influential authors, and the papers by Ruhanen et al. (2015), García-Lillo et al. (2016) and Omerzel (2016) examine the most renowned journals in the field.

This paper conducts a bibliometric analysis of a specific journal. This methodology has previously been used in other studies and journals, such as, the Annals of Tourism Research (Swain et al., 1998), the Journal of

Sustainable Tourism (Lu & Nepal, 2009), Knowledge-Based Systems (Cobo et al., 2015), the Journal of Business Research (Merigó et al., 2015a), Computers & Industrial Engineering (Cancino et al., 2017) the International Journal of Intelligent Systems (Merigó et al., 2017), and the Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing (Mulet-Forteza, Martorell-Cunill, Merigó, Genovart-Balaguer, & Mauleon-Mendez, 2018).

This paper considers a wide range of methods to represent the bibliographic data under study. The most popular are the number of publications and citations (Ding et al., 2014). Usually, the first one measures productivity, while the second measures influence (Svensson, 2010). Other indicators that have been utilized are the citation per paper and the h-index (Hirsch, 2005; Alonso et al., 2009). The citation per paper measures the impact of each article, while the h-index measures the X number of documents that have X cites or more. Furthermore, the paper also includes several citation thresholds (Merigó et al., 2015b). This inclusion allows identifying the sum of articles that have a certain level of influence.

The analysis focuses on JOST publications between 1993 and 2017 using the Scopus database. The search process uses the keyword 'Journal of Sustainable Tourism' and was conducted in November 2017. The paper considers all the documents published in the journal. The search obtains 1,137 documents, which decreases to 1,032 if only considering articles, reviews, notes and letter.

Finally, this paper shows a graphical mapping of the bibliographic data collected (Cobo et al., 2011; Sinkovics, 2016) by using the VOS viewer software (Van Eck & Waltman, 2010). The VOS viewer gathers the bibliographic material, creating graphical maps in terms of bibliographic coupling, co-citation and co-occurrence of author keywords (Merigó et al., 2016). Co-citation is produced when two documents receive a citation from the same third document. Co-occurrence of author keywords measures the most common keywords used in the documents, and bibliographic coupling occurs when two documents cite the same third document. This last approach can be applied for authors, institutions and countries. Note that it is also possible to implement this approach for authors when there are several journals in the analysis. However, for this study, this behaviour is not possible because the analysis only considers the JOST.

RESULTS

The rising interest in sustainable tourism as an academic field can be observed through the expansion of JOST over its first 25 years. Up to November 15th, 2017, considering only articles, reviews, notes and letters, JOST had published 1,037 documents and had received 27,188 citations; the ratio of citations per paper was 26.2, and its *h*-index was 80.

Publication and citation structure of JOST

Figure 1 shows the annual evolution in the number of publication in each year.

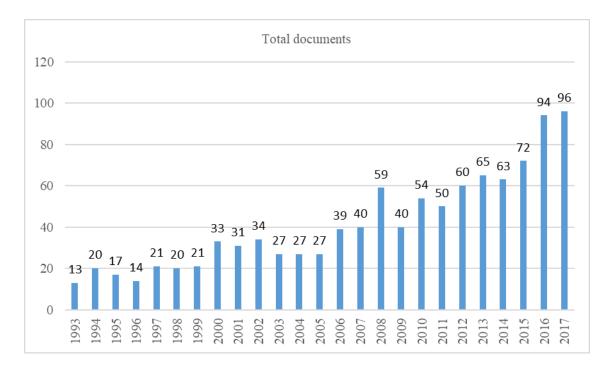


Figure 1. Annual number of publications in JOST

We can subdivide the information of the previous figure into five-year periods: from 1993 to 1999, where the journal published approximately 20 documents per year; from 2000 to 2005, where it published an average of 30 documents; the years 2006, 2007 and 2009, in which it published approximately 40 documents per year; 2008 and the years 2010 to 2015, in which it increased to approximately 60 papers years. Finally, there is a large increase in the production of documents in the

2016-2017 biennium, with 95 documents per year. The increase of the interest in sustainable tourism has allowed the size of the journal to increase substantially in recent years.

Table 1 shows the results of a citation structure analysis using different citation thresholds.

Table 1. Annual citation structure of JOST

| Table 1. Annual citation structure of JOS1 | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| Year | TP | TC | ≥250 | ≥100 | ≥50 | ≥25 | ≥10 | ≥5 | ≥1 |
| 1993 | 13 | 633 | - | 3 | 4 | 7 | 9 | 10 | 12 |
| 1994 | 20 | 937 | - | 3 | 6 | 13 | 14 | 16 | 18 |
| 1995 | 17 | 514 | - | 1 | 3 | 8 | 11 | 12 | 15 |
| 1996 | 14 | 360 | - | 1 | 1 | 4 | 10 | 10 | 13 |
| 1997 | 21 | 1,027 | - | 3 | 6 | 11 | 14 | 18 | 19 |
| 1998 | 20 | 539 | - | 1 | 2 | 7 | 15 | 18 | 18 |
| 1999 | 21 | 993 | - | 1 | 9 | 14 | 20 | 21 | 21 |
| 2000 | 33 | 1,455 | 1 | 4 | 7 | 14 | 27 | 30 | 32 |
| 2001 | 31 | 963 | - | 1 | 5 | 16 | 28 | 28 | 31 |
| 2002 | 34 | 1,370 | - | 4 | 10 | 20 | 25 | 29 | 33 |
| 2003 | 27 | 1,185 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 17 | 26 | 26 | 27 |
| 2004 | 27 | 999 | - | - | 6 | 19 | 23 | 27 | 27 |
| 2005 | 27 | 796 | - | 1 | 6 | 11 | 21 | 22 | 27 |
| 2006 | 39 | 1,831 | - | 6 | 14 | 26 | 35 | 36 | 37 |
| 2007 | 40 | 2,106 | - | 6 | 16 | 29 | 38 | 39 | 40 |
| 2008 | 59 | 1,613 | - | 5 | 10 | 21 | 35 | 37 | 44 |
| 2009 | 40 | 1,651 | - | 2 | 11 | 27 | 36 | 39 | 40 |
| 2010 | 54 | 2,582 | - | 7 | 18 | 34 | 51 | 54 | 54 |
| 2011 | 50 | 1,867 | - | 5 | 10 | 27 | 43 | 49 | 50 |
| 2012 | 60 | 1,140 | - | - | 2 | 13 | 48 | 55 | 60 |
| 2013 | 65 | 1,065 | - | - | 2 | 11 | 42 | 61 | 65 |
| 2014 | 63 | 791 | - | - | - | 11 | 31 | 55 | 62 |
| 2015 | 72 | 459 | - | - | - | 1 | 13 | 40 | 67 |
| 2016 | 94 | 248 | - | - | - | - | 3 | 16 | 73 |
| 2017 | 96 | 64 | - | - | - | - | - | | 40 |
| Total | 1,037 | 8,315 | 2 | 55 | 156 | 361 | 618 | 748 | 925 |
| Percentage | | | 0% | 5% | 15% | 35% | 60% | 72% | 89% |

Abbreviations: TP = Total papers; TC = Total cites; \geq 250, \geq 100, \geq 50, \geq 25, \geq 10, \geq 5, \geq 1 = Number of papers with equal or more than 250, 100, 50, 25, 10, 5 and 1 citations.

In these 25 years of the journal, examining the number of citations highlights the period 2006 to 2011. In these six years, the journal reached an average of 1,941 cites per year, with 2010 being the best year. A second period is also observed (2000 and 2002), where the annual average citations were 1,412. Next, 1997, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2004, 2012 and 2013 are

notable, in which the average of citations was 1,053. In the past three years (2015-2017), citations were low, which is logical given that the documents are recent and have not achieved their maximum potential to receive cites.

When analysing the thresholds, it should be noted that only two documents receive more than 250 citations. However, the number of published papers with ranges of 50, 25 and 10 citations improves considerably. It should also be noted that only 11% of the published papers are not cited, which highlights that the papers published by JOST are highly cited. In fact, except for the two most recent years (2016 and 2017) and 2008, the number of papers that did not receive citations was very low; and in 11 of the 25 years, all the papers were cited.

Table 2 shows the 50 most cited documents published by JOST according to the Scopus database.

Table 2. The 50 most cited documents in JOST

| R | TC | Title | Author/s | Year | C/Y |
|----|-----|---|---|------|-------|
| 1 | 282 | Tourism and sustainable development: Exploring the theoretical divide | Sharpley, R. | | 16.59 |
| 2 | 252 | Sustainable tourism development: A critique | Liu, Z. | 2003 | 18.00 |
| 3 | 238 | 'Staying within the fence': Lifestyle entrepreneurship in tourism? | Ateljevic, I., Doorne, S. | 2000 | 14.00 |
| 4 | 219 | Food, place and authenticity: Local food and the sustainable tourism experience | Sims, R. | 2009 | 27.38 |
| 5 | 183 | Understanding how consumers view green hotels: How a hotel's green image can influence behavioural intentions | Lee, JS., Hsu, LT., Han, H., Kim, Y. | 2010 | 26.14 |
| 6 | 181 | Rethinking collaboration and partnership: A public policy perspective | Hall, C.M. | 1999 | 10.06 |
| 7 | 180 | A framework for monitoring community impacts of tourism | Faulkner, B., Tideswell, C. | 1997 | 9.00 |
| 8 | 178 | What is rural tourism? | Lane, B. | 1994 | 7.74 |
| 9 | 176 | Tourists' perception of international air travel's impact on the global climate and potential climate change policies | Becken, S. | 2007 | 17.60 |
| 10 | 157 | On the need to re-conceptualise sustainable tourism development | Hunter, C.J. | 1995 | 7.14 |
| 11 | 152 | A framework of approaches to sustainable tourism | Clarke, J. | 1997 | 7.60 |
| 12 | 151 | Can tourism deliver its "aspirational" greenhouse gas emission reduction targets? | Scott, D., Peeters, P., Gössling, S. | 2010 | 21.57 |
| 13 | 145 | Sustainable tourism and the evolving roles of government planning | Bramwell, B., Lane, B. | 2010 | 20.71 |
| 14 | 141 | Governance, the state and sustainable tourism: A political economy approach | Bramwell, B. | 2011 | 23.50 |
| 15 | 141 | Sustainable tourism: An evolving global approach | Bramwell, B., Lane, B. | 1993 | 5.88 |
| 16 | 140 | A community-based tourism model: Its conception and use | Okazaki, E. | 2008 | 15.56 |
| 17 | 135 | Tourism carrying capacity: Tempting fantasy or useful reality? | Mc Cool, S.F., Lime, D.W. | 2001 | 8.44 |
| 18 | 135 | Some fundamental truths about tourism: Understanding tourism's social and environmental impacts | McKercher, B. | 1993 | 5.63 |
| 19 | 132 | Sustainable tourism: An overview of the concept and its position in relation to conceptualisations of tourism | Hardy, A., Beeton, R.J.S., Pearson, L. | 2002 | 8.80 |
| 20 | 132 | Impacts of climate change on winter tourism in the Swiss alps | Koenig, U., Abegg, B. | 1997 | 6.60 |
| 21 | 131 | The development of cross-cultural (mis)understanding through volunteer tourism | Raymond, E.M., Hall, C.M. | 2008 | 14.56 |

| R | TC | Title | Author/s | Year | C/Y |
|----|-----|--|--|------|-------|
| 22 | 130 | It does not harm the environment!' An analysis of industry | Gössling, S., Peeters, P. | 2007 | 13.00 |
| 23 | 130 | discourses on tourism, air travel and the environment Using interpretation to manage nature-based tourism | Orams, M.B. | 1996 | 6.19 |
| 24 | 128 | Sustaining the ego | Wheeller, B. | 1993 | 5.33 |
| | | Mediterranean tourism: Exploring the future with the tourism | | | |
| 25 | 123 | climatic index | Amelung, B., Viner, D. | 2006 | 11.18 |
| 26 | 120 | Achieving voluntary reductions in the carbon footprint of tourism and climate change Can ecotourism interpretation really lead to pro-conservation | McKercher, B., Prideaux, B., Cheung, C., Law, R. | 2010 | 17.14 |
| 27 | 120 | knowledge, attitudes and behaviour? Evidence from the Galapagos Islands | Powell, R.B., Ham, S.H. | 2008 | 13.33 |
| 28 | 120 | Voluntary carbon offsetting schemes for aviation: Efficiency, credibility and sustainable tourism | Gössling, S., Broderick, J., Upham, P., Ceron, JP., Dubois, G., Peeters, P., Strasdas, W. | 2007 | 12.00 |
| 29 | 120 | Climate change and the sustainability of ski-based tourism in eastern North America: A reassessment | Scott, D., McBoyle, G., Minogue, A., Mills, B. | 2006 | 10.91 |
| 30 | 118 | Sustainable tourism or sustainable mobility? The Norwegian case | Høyer, K.G. | 2000 | 6.94 |
| 31 | 117 | Policy learning and policy failure in sustainable tourism governance: From first- and second-order to third-order | Michael Hall, C. | 2011 | 19.50 |
| | | change? | | | |
| 32 | 115 | Sustainable rural tourism strategies: A tool for development and conservation | Lane, B. | 1994 | 5.00 |
| 33 | 114 | Why sustainable tourism must address climate change | Scott, D. | 2011 | 19.00 |
| | 114 | The role of food tourism in sustaining regional identity: A case study of Cornwall, South West England | Everett, S., Aitchison, C. | 2008 | 12.67 |
| 35 | 114 | A cultural encounter through volunteer tourism: Towards the ideals of sustainable tourism? | McIntosh, A.J., Zahra, A. | 2007 | 11.40 |
| 36 | 114 | Sustainable tourism development in developing countries: Some aspects of energy use? | Gössling, S. | 2000 | 6.71 |
| 37 | 112 | Analysing international tourist flows to estimate energy use associated with air travel | Becken, S. | 2002 | 7.47 |
| 38 | 110 | Networks, conflict and collaborative communities | Dredge, D. | 2006 | 10.00 |
| | | Community-based tourism enterprises development in Kenya: | | | |
| 39 | 109 | An exploration of their potential as avenues of poverty reduction | Manyara, G., Jones, E. | 2007 | 10.90 |
| 40 | 108 | Information and empowerment: The keys to achieving sustainable tourism | Cole, S. | 2006 | 9.82 |
| 41 | 131 | Environment-friendly tourists: What Do we really know about them? | Dolnicar, S., Crouch, G.I., Long, P. | 2008 | 14.56 |
| 42 | 107 | Problematising 'Festival tourism': Arts festivals and sustainable development in Ireland | Quinn, B. | 2006 | 9.73 |
| 43 | 107 | Understanding the impact of ecotourism resort experiences on tourists' environmental attitudes and behavioural intentions | Lee, W.H., Moscardo, G. | 2005 | 8.92 |
| 44 | 106 | Cooperative tourism planning in a developing destination | Timothy, D.J. | 1998 | 5.58 |
| 45 | 105 | Intention to pay conventional-hotel prices at a green hotel - a modification of the theory of planned behavior | Kim, Y., Han, H. | 2010 | 15.00 |
| 46 | 105 | Festival tourism: A contributor to sustainable local economic development? | O'sullivan, D., Jackson, M.J. | 2002 | 7.00 |
| 47 | 104 | A typology of governance and its implications for tourism policy analysis | Michael Hall, C. | 2011 | 17.33 |
| 48 | 104 | Implementing STD on a small island: Development and use of sustainable tourism development indicators in Samoa | Twining-Ward, L., Butler, R. | 2002 | 0.06 |
| 49 | 104 | The environment-community symbiosis: A case for collaborative tourism planning | Getz, D. | 1994 | 4.52 |
| 50 | 103 | Local tourism governance: A comparison of three network approaches | Beaumont, N., Dredge, D. | 2010 | 14.71 |
| | | revisitions available in Table 1 except for P = Pank C | | | |

Abbreviations available in Table 1 except for: R = Rank; C/Y = Citations per year

The most cited document is made by Richard Sharpley (University of Central Lancashire, UK), entitled "Tourism and sustainable development: Exploring the theoretical divide" published in the 2000. This paper proposes a model of sustainable development according to which principles of sustainable tourism are compared. The results of the paper indicate that there are significant differences between the concepts of sustainable tourism and sustainable development, suggesting that the principles and objectives of sustainable development cannot be transposed onto the specific context of tourism. This work occupies the 13th place in the C/Y ranking. Regarding this last classification, the first work is by Rebecca Sims (Lancaster University, UK), "Food, place and authenticity: Local food and the sustainable tourism experience", from 2009 with 219 citations.

Table 3 presents the most cited documents in the papers published in JOST. This allows one to identify which documents have been most influential in the documents that have been published by the journal.

Table 3. *Most cited documents in JOST documents*

| R | Year | Cited reference | Туре | Citations | TLS |
|----|------|--|------|-----------|-------|
| 1 | 1993 | Bramwell, B., Lane, B. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 1 (1), pp. 1-5 | Α | 47 | 45.00 |
| 2 | 1997 | Hunter, C. Annals of Tourism Research, 24 (4), pp. 850-867 | A | 42 | 40.00 |
| 3 | 1985 | Murphy, P. Tourism: A Community Approach | В | 38 | 33.00 |
| 4 | 1995 | Jamal, T., Getz, D. Annals of Tourism Research, 22 (1), pp. 186-204 | A | 35 | 35.00 |
| 5 | 2000 | Sharpley, R. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 8 (1), pp. 1-19 | A | 32 | 30.00 |
| 6 | 1980 | Butler, R. Canadian Geographer, 24 (1), pp. 5-12 | Α | 31 | 31.00 |
| 7 | 2011 | Bramwell, B., Lane, B. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 19 (4-5), pp. 411-421 | A | 30 | 29.00 |
| 8 | 1990 | Urry, J. The Tourists Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies | В | 29 | 22.00 |
| 9 | 2003 | Liu, Z. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 11 (6), pp. 459-475 | A | 28 | 28.00 |
| 10 | 2000 | Tosun, C. Tourism Management, 21 (6), pp. 613-633 | Α | 25 | 24.00 |
| | | Mowforth, M., Munt, I. Tourism and Sustainability Development and New Tourism | _ | | |
| 11 | 1998 | in the Third World | В | 25 | 23.00 |
| 12 | 1991 | Butler, R. Environmental Conservation, 18, pp. 201-209 | A | 25 | 21.00 |
| 13 | 2006 | Saarinen, J. Annals of Tourism Research, 33 (4), pp. 1121-1140 | A | 24 | 24.00 |
| 14 | 2011 | Scott, D. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 19 (1), pp. 17-34 | A | 24 | 23.00 |
| 15 | 1994 | Lane, B. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 2 (1-2), pp. 102-111 | A | 24 | 22.00 |
| 16 | 1999 | Butler, R. Tourism Geographies, 1 (1), pp. 7-25 | A | 23 | 23.00 |
| 17 | 2006 | Choi, H., Sirakaya, E. Tourism Management, 27 (6), pp. 1274-1289 | A | 23 | 23.00 |
| | | Inskeep, E. Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development | _ | | |
| 18 | 1991 | Approach | В | 23 | 21.00 |
| 19 | 1999 | Honey, M. Ecotourism and Sustainable Development: Who Owns Paradise? | В | 22 | 22.00 |
| 20 | 1987 | Our Common Future. Oxford: Oxford University Press | В | 22 | 19.00 |
| 21 | 1982 | Britton, S. Annals of Tourism Research, 9 (3), pp. 331-358 | Α | 22 | 17.00 |
| 22 | 2010 | Miller, G., Rathouse, K., Scarles, C., Holmes, K., Tribe, J. Annals of Tourism | | 24 | 24.00 |
| 22 | 2010 | Research, 37 (3), pp. 627-645 | A | 21 | 21.00 |
| 23 | 2007 | Becken, S. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15 (4), pp. 351-368 | A | 21 | 20.00 |
| 24 | 1988 | Cohen, E. Annals of Tourism Research, 15 (3), pp. 371-386 | A | 21 | 20.00 |

| R | Year | Cited reference | Туре | Citations | TLS |
|----|------|---|------|-----------|-------|
| 25 | 2002 | Gossling, S. Global Environmental Change, 12 (4), pp. 283-302 | Α | 21 | 20.00 |
| 26 | 1999 | Scheyvens, R. Tourism Management, 20 (2), pp. 245-249 | A | 20 | 20.00 |
| 27 | 1997 | Clarke, J. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 5 (3), pp. 224-233 | A | 19 | 19.00 |
| 28 | 2006 | Cole, S. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 14 (6), pp. 629-644 | A | 19 | 19.00 |
| 29 | 1995 | Hunter, C. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 3 (3), pp. 155-165 | A | 19 | 17.00 |
| 30 | 2001 | Miller, G. Tourism Management, 22 (4), pp. 351-362 | A | 19 | 17.00 |

Abbreviations available in Table 2 except for: A = Article; B = Book; TLS = Total Link Strength

The document that has received the most citations was a work published in JOST. We refer to the work of Bill Bramwell & Bernand Lane (Sheffield Hallam University and the University of Bristol, respectively, both in the UK), entitled "Sustainable tourism: An evolving global approach", published in 1993. This paper was the first article that was published in the journal. Moreover, being the most cited article, it has set a trend for future works related to sustainable tourism. Of the documents cited in Table 3, 80% are articles, compared to only 20% being books. Of the total of the most cited articles, 33.3% have been published by JOST; 20% were published in Annals of Tourism Research and 13.3% in Tourism Management.

Leading authors, institutions and countries of JOST

This section presents a general overview of the leading authors, originating institutions and countries publishing in JOST. The objective is to examine the most successful publications and citations according to the Scopus database.

Table 4 shows the fifty most effective authors in JOST. Note that the ranking is based on the number of total publications. In case of a tie in the number of papers, the ranking favours the number of citations. Additionally, more indicators are included to provide a better overview, such as the h-index, the ratio of citations to papers and the number of works with an amount equal or more than 100, 50, 25, 10, 5 and 1 citations. In addition, the ranking lists the authors' studies in any journal to attain a higher profile and to assess the influence of authors publishing in JOST.

Table 4. The most productive authors in *JOST*

| | | , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , | | | | | | JOST | | | | | | | ΓAL | • |
|----|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------|----|-----|----|-------|------|-----|-----|----|----|-----|-------|-----|-------|
| R | Author Name | University | Country | TP | TC | Н | C/P | ≥100 | ≥50 | ≥25 | ≥5 | ≥1 | TP | TC | Н | C/P |
| 1 | Gössling, S. | Lund U. | Sweden | 20 | 869 | 14 | 43.45 | 4 | 5 | 11 | 16 | 19 | 129 | 4,122 | 32 | 31.95 |
| 2 | Lane, B. | U. of Bristol | UK | 20 | 796 | 10 | 39.80 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 13 | 16 | 44 | 1,248 | 17 | 28.36 |
| 3 | Hall, C.M. | U. of Canterbury | New Zealand | 18 | 792 | 12 | 44.00 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 15 | 17 | 369 | 7,331 | 44 | 19.87 |
| 4 | Bramwell, B. | Sheffield Hallam U. | UK | 17 | 706 | 9 | 41.53 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 10 | 12 | 78 | 2,697 | 29 | 34.58 |
| 5 | Becken, S. | Griffith U. | Australia | 14 | 624 | 8 | 44.57 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 7 | 12 | 88 | 2,027 | 23 | 23.03 |
| 6 | Ryan, C. | U. of Waikato | New Zealand | 14 | 370 | 11 | 26.43 | - | 1 | 6 | 14 | 14 | 223 | 4,700 | 36 | 21.08 |
| 7 | Higham, J. | U. of Otago | New Zealand | 13 | 178 | 8 | 13.69 | - | - | 2 | 9 | 11 | 86 | 1,400 | 21 | 16.28 |
| 8 | Peeters, P. | U. of Applied Sciences | Netherlands | 12 | 689 | 10 | 57.42 | 1 | 5 | 7 | 11 | 12 | 47 | 1,842 | 20 | 39.19 |
| 9 | Weiler, B. | Southern Cross U. | Australia | 12 | 321 | 10 | 26.75 | - | 2 | 5 | 10 | 10 | 80 | 972 | 17 | 12.15 |
| 10 | Scott, D. | U. of Waterloo | Canada | 11 | 556 | 8 | 50.55 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10 | 11 | 100 | 3,796 | 35 | 37.96 |
| 11 | Wearing, S. | U. of Newcastle | Australia | 11 | 233 | 7 | 21.18 | - | 2 | 3 | 7 | 10 | 79 | 1,351 | 20 | 17.10 |
| 12 | Font, X. | Leeds Beckett U. | UK | 11 | 215 | 6 | 19.55 | - | 1 | 3 | 7 | 10 | 52 | 1,103 | 18 | 21.21 |
| 13 | McKercher, B. | Hong Kong Polytechnic U. | China | 9 | 445 | 7 | 49.44 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 8 | 132 | 3,551 | 33 | 26.90 |
| 14 | Eagles, P.F.J. | Murdoch U. | Australia | 9 | 400 | 8 | 44.44 | - | 4 | 6 | 9 | 9 | 56 | 1,165 | 17 | 20.80 |
| 15 | Jamal, T. | Texas A&M U. | USA | 9 | 399 | 8 | 44.33 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 9 | 9 | 63 | 2,031 | 21 | 32.24 |
| 16 | Weaver, D. | Griffith U. | Australia | 9 | 265 | 6 | 29.44 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 8 | 9 | 91 | 2,187 | 26 | 24.03 |
| 17 | Dolnicar, S. | U. of Queensland | Australia | 9 | 257 | 6 | 28.56 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 153 | 3,057 | 31 | 19.98 |
| 18 | Ruhanen, L. | U. of Queensland | Australia | 9 | 152 | 6 | 16.89 | - | 1 | 2 | 7 | 9 | 69 | 557 | 12 | 8.07 |
| 19 | Dredge, D. | Aalborg U. | Denmark | 8 | 372 | 7 | 46.50 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 65 | 1,190 | 17 | 18.31 |
| 20 | Fennell, D.A. | Brock U. | Canada | 8 | 259 | 6 | 32.38 | _ | 2 | 5 | 7 | 8 | 60 | 1,193 | 20 | 19.88 |
| 21 | Moore, S.A. | Murdoch U. | Australia | 8 | 189 | 6 | 23.63 | - | _ | 3 | 7 | 8 | 88 | 1,307 | 21 | 14.85 |
| 22 | Moscardo, G. | James Cook U. | Australia | 7 | 229 | 6 | 32.71 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 7 | 102 | 2,186 | 25 | 21.43 |
| 23 | McGehee, N.G. | Virginia Polytech Inst State U. | USA | 7 | 184 | 6 | 26.29 | - | 2 | 2 | 7 | 7 | 38 | 1,564 | 21 | 41.16 |
| 24 | Laing, J. | La Trobe U. | Australia | 7 | 129 | 5 | 18.43 | - | 1 | 2 | 5 | 7 | 75 | 510 | 13 | 6.80 |
| 25 | Coghlan, A. | Griffith U. | Australia | 7 | 126 | 5 | 18.00 | - | _ | 2 | 5 | 7 | 45 | 467 | 14 | 10.38 |
| 26 | Buckley, R. | Griffith U. | Australia | 6 | 303 | 5 | 50.50 | - | 3 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 196 | 3,264 | 31 | 16.65 |
| 27 | Lumsdon, | U. of Central | 1 117 | _ | 225 | | 20.17 | | 2 | _ | | | 22 | | 10 | 22.72 |
| 27 | L.M. | Lancashire Central | UK | 6 | 235 | 6 | 39.17 | - | 2 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 33 | 783 | 18 | 23.73 |
| 28 | Prideaux, B. Dickinson, | Queensland U. | Australia | 6 | 217 | 6 | 36.17 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 6 | 151 | 1,942 | 26 | 12.86 |
| 29 | J.E. | Bournemouth U. | UK | 6 | 194 | 5 | 32.33 | - | 2 | 3 | 5 | 6 | 44 | 927 | 17 | 21.07 |
| 30 | Wall, G. | U. of Waterloo | Canada | 6 | 164 | 4 | 27.33 | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 204 | 2,875 | 32 | 14.09 |
| 31 | Pearce, P.L. | James Cook U. | Australia | 6 | 130 | 6 | 21.67 | - | - | 2 | 6 | 6 | 152 | 3,406 | 31 | 22.41 |
| 32 | Chan, W.W. | Hong Kong Polytechnic U. | China | 6 | 95 | 5 | 15.83 | - | - | 1 | 5 | 5 | 62 | 840 | 17 | 13.55 |
| 33 | Boley, B.B. | The U. of Georgia | USA | 6 | 32 | 3 | 5.33 | - | - | - | 3 | 5 | 29 | 200 | 8 | 6.90 |
| 34 | Sharpley, R. | U. of Central Lancashire | UK | 5 | 392 | 5 | 78.40 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 78 | 1,953 | 21 | 25.04 |
| 35 | Getz, D. | U. of Calgary | Canada | 5 | 327 | 5 | 65.40 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 97 | 4,338 | 36 | 44.72 |
| 36 | Han, H. | Sejong U. | South Korea | 5 | 295 | 3 | 59.00 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 112 | 2,929 | 29 | 26.15 |
| 37 | Ham, S.H. | U. of Idaho | USA | 5 | 269 | 4 | 53.80 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 18 | 531 | 13 | 29.50 |
| 38 | Ramkissoon, H. | Curtin U. | Australia | 5 | 215 | 5 | 43.00 | - | 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 45 | 939 | 17 | 20.87 |
| 39 | Mair, J. | U. of Queensland | Australia | 5 | 193 | 5 | 38.60 | - | 2 | 3 | 5 | - | 42 | 605 | 13 | 14.40 |
| 40 | Simmons, D.G. | Lincoln U. | New Zealand | 5 | 190 | 4 | 38.00 | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 32 | 976 | 15 | 30.50 |
| 41 | Powell, R.B. | Clemson U. | USA | 5 | 134 | 2 | 26.80 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 39 | 394 | 11 | 10.10 |
| 42 | Tribe, J. | U. of Surrey | UK | 5 | 123 | 3 | 24.60 | - | 2 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 68 | 1,966 | 21 | 28.91 |
| 43 | Mason, P. | Bedfordshire U. | UK | 5 | 114 | 4 | 22.80 | - | - | - | 4 | 5 | 28 | 498 | 10 | 17.79 |
| 44 | Higgins- Desbiolles, F. | U. of South Australia | Australia | 5 | 82 | 3 | 16.40 | - | 1 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 32 | 469 | 11 | 14.66 |
| 45 | Cohen, S.A. | U. of Surrey | UK | 5 | 81 | 3 | 16.20 | - | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | 50 | 834 | 17 | 16.68 |
| 46 | Hallo, J.C. | Clemson U. | USA | 5 | 12 | 2 | 2.40 | - | - | - | 1 | 3 | 45 | 235 | 8 | 5.22 |
| 47 | Coles, T. | U. of Exeter | UK | 5 | 10 | 2 | 2.00 | - | - | - | 1 | 4 | 70 | 1,026 | 17 | 14.66 |
| 48 | Kasim, A. | U. Utara Malaysia | Malaysia | 4 | 146 | 4 | 36.50 | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 36 | 255 | 9 | 7.08 |
| 49 | Kaltenborn, B.P. | Norwegian Inst Nature Res | Norway | 4 | 95 | 3 | 23.75 | - | - | 2 | 3 | 3 | 71 | 1,410 | 26 | 19.86 |
| 50 | Kastenholz, E. | U. de Aveiro | Portugal | 4 | 75 | 4 | 18.75 | - | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | 38 | 480 | 13 | 12.63 |

Abbreviations available in Tables 1, 2 and 6.

Stefan Gössling (Lunds University, Sweden) and Bernard Lane (University of Bristol, UK) head the ranking of the journal in number of papers. However, Stefan Gössling is in first place, since he received more citations, had a better h-index and had more articles that received a number equal to or higher than 100, 50, 25, 5 and 1 citations. Other authors to be highlighted are Colin Michael Hall (University of Canterbury, New Zealand) and Bill Bramwell (Sheffield Hallam University, UK). However, the authors with the best ratio citations per paper are Richard Sharpley (University of Central Lancashire, UK) and Donald Getz (University of Calgary, Canada). We highlight that 19 authors have obtained 100 or more citations in their works published in JOST; 38 authors achieve 50 or more citations. Furthermore, 46 authors reach 25 or more citations; and all the authors of the list have published works in JOST that have received 5 or more citations. The above data confirm that the works published in JOST receive a significant number of citations. Some of the leading authors currently also lead the journal from an editorial perspective, including Stefan Gössling, C. Michael Hall and Susanne Becken (among other important authors). Conversely, we have observed that most of the authors that publish in JOST diversify their research in several journals; there are only 6 authors whose works published in JOST represent more than 20% of their total published works. If we analyse the affiliation of the authors, four authors are from Griffith University, three are from the University of Queensland. In addition, there are seven institutions that are represented in the ranking by two authors: Clemson University, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, James Cook University, University, the University of Central Lancashire, the University of Surrey and the University of Waterloo. The distribution by countries presents a clear concentration, since 66% of the authors belong to three countries: Australia (17 authors), the UK (10 authors) and the USA (6 authors). Canada and New Zealand present 4 authors.

Table 5 shows the 50 most productive institutions in a ranking based on the number of publications. As in the previous analysis, this table includes additional indicators, such as total citations, the h-index and the ratio citations per paper, as well as the number of documents that achieved the threshold of 100, 50, 25, 5 and 1 citations. Table 5 also presents the current world ranking of these institutions according to the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) and the Quacquarelli Symonds World University Ranking (QS).

Table 5. The most productive and influential universities in *JOST*

| | Table 5. The most prod | | | | | | | | | | 1 | A DYATT T | |
|----------|-----------------------------------|--------------|----|-------|----|-------|--------|--------|-----|----|----|-----------|------------|
| <u>R</u> | Institution | Country | TP | TC | H | C/P | ≥100 | ≥50 | ≥25 | ≥5 | ≥1 | ARWU | QS 225 |
| 1 | Griffith U. | Australia | 49 | 1,450 | 22 | 29.59 | 3 | 10 | 19 | 37 | 47 | 301-400 | 325 |
| 2 | U. of Queensland | Australia | 40 | 904 | 17 | 22.60 | 1 | 5 | 13 | 29 | 38 | 55 | 47 |
| 3 | U. of Waterloo | Canada | 35 | 1,271 | 19 | 36.31 | 3 | 11 | 16 | 27 | 33 | 201-300 | 152 |
| 4 | U. of Otago | New Zealand | 29 | 721 | 17 | 24.86 | 1 | 2 | 10 | 20 | 26 | 301-400 | 151 |
| 5 | Hong Kong Polytechnic U. | China | 29 | 748 | 13 | 25.79 | 2 | 3 | 9 | 21 | 25 | 201-300 | 95 |
| 6 | James Cook U. | Australia | 27 | 810 | 17 | 30.00 | 1 | 4 | 11 | 25 | 26 | 301-400 | 367 |
| 7 | Sheffield Hallam U. | UK | 26 | 879 | 13 | 33.81 | 3 | 5 | 12 | 18 | 21 | - | - |
| 8 | Southern Cross U. | Australia | 24 | 528 | 15 | 22.00 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 20 | 22 | - | 801-1000 |
| 9 | U. of Waikato | New Zealand | 20 | 584 | 14 | 29.20 | 1 | 2 | 10 | 19 | 20 | 601-700 | 292 |
| 10 | Monash U. | Australia | 20 | 807 | 17 | 40.35 | 1 | 8 | 13 | 18 | 18 | 78 | 60 |
| 11 | Texas A&M U. | USA | 20 | 711 | 13 | 35.55 | 1 | 4 | 11 | 18 | 19 | 101-150 | 195 |
| 12 | U. of Canterbury | New Zealand | 20 | 698 | 13 | 34.90 | 3 | 4 | 10 | 15 | 18 | 401-500 | 214 |
| 13 | Virginia Polytech Inst State U. | USA | 20 | 471 | 12 | 23.55 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 18 | 18 | 301-400 | 367 |
| 14 | Leeds Beckett U. | UK | 18 | 430 | 9 | 23.89 | - | 3 | 5 | 14 | 17 | - | - |
| 15 | Lincoln U. | New Zealand | 17 | 701 | 10 | 41.24 | 2 | 5 | 8 | 13 | 15 | 601-700 | 319 |
| 16 | Western Norway Research Institute | Norway | 17 | 657 | 10 | 38.65 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 13 | 15 | - | - |
| 17 | NHTV Int Hoger Onderwijs Breda | Netherlands | 17 | 709 | 11 | 41.71 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 12 | 16 | - | - |
| 18 | Linnaeus U., Kalmar | Sweden | 15 | 333 | 9 | 22.20 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 14 | - | - |
| 19 | U. of Johannesburg | South Africa | 14 | 233 | 7 | 16.64 | _ | 1 | 4 | 8 | 13 | 401-500 | 601-650 |
| 20 | Wageningen U. and Research Centre | Netherlands | 14 | 178 | 7 | 12.71 | _ | _ | 2 | 10 | 13 | 101-150 | 124 |
| 21 | Murdoch U. | Australia | 14 | 262 | 8 | 18.71 | _ | _ | 5 | 11 | 13 | 701-800 | 501-550 |
| 22 | Massey U. | New Zealand | 13 | 447 | 10 | 34.38 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 12 | 12 | 501-600 | 316 |
| 23 | U. of Surrey | UK | 13 | 299 | 7 | 23.00 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 11 | 301-400 | 264 |
| 24 | U. of Technology Sydney | Australia | 13 | 284 | 8 | 21.85 | _ | 2 | 4 | 9 | 12 | 301-400 | 176 |
| 25 | Lund U. | Sweden | 13 | 703 | 10 | 54.08 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 11 | 13 | 101-150 | 78 |
| 26 | Pennsylvania State U. | USA | 12 | 232 | 10 | 19.33 | _ | - | 4 | 11 | 12 | 85 | 93 |
| 27 | U. of Calgary | Canada | 12 | 287 | 9 | 23.92 | _ | 2 | 3 | 9 | 11 | 151-200 | 217 |
| 28 | U. of South Australia | Australia | 12 | 190 | 7 | 15.83 | _ | 1 | 2 | 8 | 12 | 501-600 | 279 |
| 29 | U Oulu | Finland | 11 | 276 | 8 | 25.09 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 9 | 10 | 401-500 | 411-420 |
| 30 | U. of Bristol | UK | 11 | 425 | 6 | 38.64 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 7 | 61 | 411-420 |
| 31 | U. of New South Wales UNSW | Australia | 11 | 224 | 7 | 20.36 | _ | 1 | 3 | 8 | 10 | 101-150 | 45 |
| 32 | Brock U. | Canada | 10 | 289 | 7 | 28.90 | _ | 2 | 5 | 9 | 10 | - | 40 |
| | | | | | | | | 1 | | 7 | 9 | | 260 |
| 33 | La Trobe U. | Australia | 9 | 232 | 6 | 25.78 | 1 | | 3 | | 9 | 301-400 | 360 210 |
| 34 | Sun Yat-Sen U. | China | | 113 | 5 | 12.56 | - 1 | - 1 | 2 | 6 | | 151-200 | 319 |
| 35 | Clemson U. | USA | 9 | 150 | 4 | 16.67 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 601-700 | 701-750 |
| 36 | Bournemouth U. | UK | 9 | 216 | 7 | 24.00 | - | 2 | 3 | 8 | 9 | - | 701-750 |
| 37 | U. of Central Lancashire | UK | 9 | 262 | 8 | 29.11 | - | 1 | 5 | 9 | 9 | - | 801-1000 |
| 38 | Charles Darwin U. | Australia | 8 | 171 | 6 | 21.38 | - | - | 3 | 6 | 7 | - | 651-700 |
| 39 | U. of Bedfordshire | UK | 8 | 156 | 6 | 19.50 | - | - | 1 | 16 | 8 | - | - |
| 40 | U. of Florida | USA | 8 | 109 | 6 | 13.63 | - | - | 1 | 6 | 7 | 88 | 178 |
| 41 | Macquarie U. | Australia | 8 | 169 | 5 | 21.13 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 6 | 151-200 | 240 |
| 42 | U. of Exeter | UK | 8 | 50 | 3 | 6.25 | - | - | 1 | 3 | 7 | 151-200 | 158 |
| 43 | Institute for Tourism Studies | China | 8 | 77 | 5 | 9.63 | - | - | - | 5 | 7 | - | - |
| 44 | London Metropolitan U. | UK | 7 | 204 | 5 | 29.14 | - | 2 | 3 | 6 | 7 | - | 701-750 |
| 45 | Victoria U. Melbourne | Australia | 7 | 134 | 4 | 19.14 | - | 1 | 2 | 4 | 6 | - | - |
| 46 | Colorado State U. | USA | 7 | 51 | 4 | 7.29 | - | - | 1 | 4 | 4 | 201-300 | 481-490 |
| 47 | Arizona State U. | USA | 7 | 263 | 6 | 37.57 | - | 2 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 101-150 | 209 |
| 48 | Western Sydney U. | Australia | 7 | 102 | 4 | 14.57 | - | - | 2 | 4 | 7 | 301-400 | 551-600 |
| 49 | Norwegian Inst Nature Research | Norway | 7 | 109 | 5 | 15.57 | - | - | 2 | 5 | 5 | - | - |
| 50 | U. of Ljubljana | Slovenia | 7 | 52 | 2 | 7.43 | - | - | - | 2 | 7 | 401-500 | 651-700 |

Abbreviations available in Tables 1, 2 and 6 except: ARWU and QS = Ranking in the general ARWU and QS university rankings.

Two Australian institutions, Griffith University and the University of Queensland, are the leaders in terms of the number of papers published in JOST. The first institution is the first in the ranking both in number of documents and number of citations received, as well as in the h-index and number of documents that receive a number greater than or is equal to 25 and 5 citations. These two institutions accumulate 12% of the works and citations received from all the top 50. These results are related to the number of authors that figures in the top 50 of Table 5, since these two institutions are the ones that have the most authors in this top. If we focus on the first ten institutions, we can highlight that they accumulate 39% of the works and 43% of the citations received, which highlights a high degree of concentration in the institutions that lead the publications in JOST. Of these ten institutions, half are from Australia, and two from New Zealand; however, Canada, China and the UK contribute only one. We must also highlight Lunds Universitet (Sweden), which is the first in the ranking of citations per paper and documents with 100 or more citations. This is due to the fact that the most prolific author in JOST, Stefan Gössling, is from this institution. If we analyse the position of these institutions in the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU), thirty-four of the institutions in Table 5 are included in the ARWU, and five are among the first hundred universities in this world ranking (the University of Queensland, the University of Bristol, Monash University, Pennsylvania State University and the University of Florida). The analysis of the QS World University Rankings of the institutions in Table 5 reveals that only eleven institutions are not included in the QS. These same institutions were not in the ARWU either. The institutions that were not in the ARWU but appear in the QS are: Charles Darwin University, Bournemouth University, London Metropolitan University, Southern Cross University and the University of Central Lancashire. Of the total of institutions in Table 5, six are in the top 100 of the QS ranking. Of these, the University of Bristol, the University of Queensland, Monash University and Pennsylvania State University were also at the top of the ARWU.

Regarding the most productive countries in JOST, we want to emphasize that the country refers to where the author is based at the time of publication. In addition, this analysis considers the total population of the country to show the productivity per million inhabitants. Table 6 presents the thirty-five most productive countries.

Table 6. The most productive and influential countries in JOST

| R | Country | TP | TC | Н | <u>пи тпјти</u> С/Р | <u>≥100</u> | <u>≥50</u> | 225 ≥25 | <i>ES 111</i> ≥5 | <i>jO</i> 2 ≥1 | Pop | TP/Pop | TC/Pop |
|----|---------------|-----|-------|----|------------------------|-------------|------------|------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------|--------|--------|
| 1 | Australia | 256 | 6,869 | 46 | 26.83 | 12 | 41 | 96 | 197 | 240 | 23.61 | 10.84 | 290.94 |
| | United | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Kingdom | 226 | 6,800 | 45 | 30.09 | 18 | 40 | 79 | 162 | 199 | 65.22 | 3.47 | 104.27 |
| 3 | United States | 198 | 4,504 | 39 | 22.75 | 7 | 25 | 61 | 135 | 170 | 324.29 | 0.61 | 13.89 |
| 4 | New Zealand | 104 | 3,314 | 33 | 31.87 | 9 | 17 | 44 | 82 | 95 | 4.51 | 23.05 | 734.55 |
| 5 | Canada | 95 | 2,731 | 34 | 28.75 | 4 | 21 | 37 | 72 | 89 | 36.16 | 2.63 | 75.53 |
| 6 | China | 71 | 1,180 | 19 | 16.62 | 2 | 3 | 14 | 44 | 61 | 1,369.81 | 0.05 | 0.86 |
| 7 | Netherlands | 42 | 1447 | 19 | 34.45 | 5 | 8 | 14 | 29 | 38 | 17.12 | 2.45 | 84.54 |
| 8 | Spain | 36 | 576 | 14 | 16.00 | - | 3 | 8 | 21 | 32 | 46.47 | 0.77 | 12.40 |
| 9 | Norway | 32 | 882 | 13 | 27.56 | 3 | 6 | 10 | 23 | 27 | 5.27 | 6.08 | 167.45 |
| 10 | Sweden | 29 | 1,100 | 17 | 37.93 | 5 | 6 | 14 | 22 | 27 | 10.07 | 2.88 | 109.29 |
| 11 | South Africa | 21 | 353 | 10 | 16.81 | - | 1 | 6 | 12 | 18 | 59.96 | 0.35 | 5.89 |
| 12 | Taiwan | 18 | 230 | 7 | 12.78 | - | 1 | 3 | 12 | 15 | 23.11 | 0.78 | 9.95 |
| 13 | Germany | 16 | 426 | 10 | 26.63 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 13 | 15 | 82.18 | 0.19 | 5.18 |
| 14 | Finland | 15 | 293 | 8 | 19.53 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 12 | 13 | 5.50 | 2.73 | 53.24 |
| 15 | South Korea | 13 | 469 | 7 | 36.08 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 9 | 12 | 49.54 | 0.26 | 9.47 |
| 16 | Austria | 13 | 156 | 7 | 12.00 | - | - | 2 | 7 | 10 | 8.57 | 1.52 | 18.20 |
| 17 | Malaysia | 12 | 266 | 9 | 22.17 | - | 1 | 4 | 10 | 10 | 29.63 | 0.41 | 8.98 |
| 18 | Slovenia | 10 | 88 | 4 | 8.80 | - | - | - | 4 | 9 | 2.07 | 4.84 | 42.62 |
| 19 | France | 9 | 315 | 6 | 35.00 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 9 | 66.95 | 0.13 | 4.70 |
| 20 | Kenya | 9 | 251 | 8 | 27.89 | - | 1 | 5 | 9 | 9 | 48.66 | 0.18 | 5.16 |
| 21 | Switzerland | 9 | 243 | 4 | 27.00 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 8.40 | 1.07 | 28.92 |
| 22 | Japan | 9 | 205 | 4 | 22.78 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 7 | 126.93 | 0.07 | 1.62 |
| 23 | Greece | 9 | 185 | 8 | 20.56 | - | - | 2 | 8 | 9 | 11.18 | 0.80 | 16.54 |
| 24 | Portugal | 9 | 120 | 5 | 13.33 | - | - | 1 | 6 | 9 | 10.56 | 0.85 | 11.36 |
| 25 | Egypt | 7 | 147 | 5 | 21.00 | - | 1 | 1 | 5 | 7 | 95.87 | 0.07 | 1.53 |
| 26 | Italy | 7 | 94 | 5 | 13.43 | - | - | 1 | 6 | 6 | 60.59 | 0.12 | 1.55 |
| 27 | Ireland | 6 | 236 | 5 | 39.33 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 6.38 | 0.94 | 37.00 |
| 28 | Denmark | 6 | 131 | 5 | 21.83 | - | 1 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 5.75 | 1.04 | 22.79 |
| 29 | Turkey | 6 | 103 | 5 | 17.17 | - | - | 2 | 5 | 6 | 79.81 | 0.08 | 1.29 |
| 30 | Botswana | 5 | 142 | 4 | 28.40 | - | 1 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 2.03 | 2.46 | 69.99 |
| 31 | Israel | 4 | 150 | 4 | 37.50 | - | 1 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 8.76 | 0.46 | 17.13 |
| 32 | Mauritius | 4 | 142 | 4 | 35.50 | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 1.26 | 3.17 | 112.52 |
| 33 | Poland | 4 | 103 | 3 | 25.75 | - | 1 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 38.63 | 0.10 | 2.67 |
| 34 | Ghana | 4 | 56 | 3 | 14.00 | - | - | - | 3 | 3 | 24.22 | 0.17 | 2.31 |
| 35 | Thailand | 4 | 52 | 3 | 13.00 | - | - | 1 | 3 | 3 | 68.86 | 0.06 | 0.76 |

Abbreviations available in Tables 1, 2 and 6 except: Pop: Population (in millions)

In the past 25 years, there have been many countries that have published in JOST, which highlights its international character. In total, fourteen countries are European, accumulating nearly a third of the documents published and the citations received. There are three countries that lead the journal: Australia, the UK and the USA. These three countries accumulate 52% of the works published and 53% of the citations received in JOST. In this order, these countries appear in the ranking in terms of

number of documents, citation, h-index and number of documents with equal or more than 50, 25, 5 and 1 citations. The citation quantity only changes when we analyse the number of documents with 100 or more citations, in which case the UK leads the ranking, followed by Australia and New Zealand. It should also be noted that the position in the ranking changes when analysing the ratio of citations per paper, where the leader is Ireland, followed by Sweden and Israel. If we analyse the number of documents published and the ratio citations per paper considering the population of the countries, the first three are New Zealand, Australia and Norway.

GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF JOST WITH VOS VIEWER SOFTWARE

This section develops a graphical analysis of the leading issues in JOST using the VOS viewer software (Van Eck & Waltman, 2010). In the graphical visualization, the size of a circle increases with an item's relevance, and the network connections identify more closely linked items. The placement of the circles and the colours are used to cluster the items.

First, we examine the co-citation of journals cited in JOST. Co-citation occurs when two journals receive a citation from the same third source (Small, 1973). The representation illustrates the most cited journals, and the network connections indicate the journals that are co-cited. Figure 2 shows the results for publications in JOST with a citation threshold of fifty and the one hundred most representative co-citation connections.

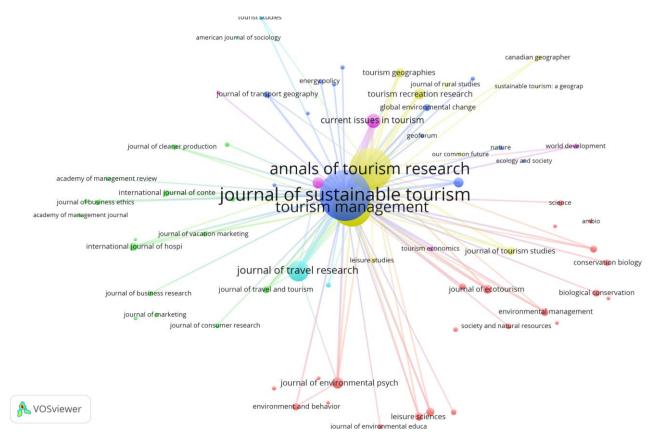


Figure 2. Co-citation of journals in JOST

Figure 2 shows how the Journal of Sustainable Tourism, Annals of Tourism Research and Tourism Management are the most cited journals by far. The figure also shows four important nodes. The first, led by the Journal of Sustainable Tourism, includes a set of journals focused on sustainable tourism. The second, led by Annals of Tourism Research and Tourism Management, consists of a few journals with a more interdisciplinary approach. The third node, located at the right of the figure, is composed of journals focused on environmental aspects of tourism, while the last node, located on the left of the figure, is composed of journals focused on management, marketing and hospitality fields.

Next, let us examine the country level. Figure 3 presents the bibliographic coupling of countries in JOST with a threshold of one document and one hundred connections.

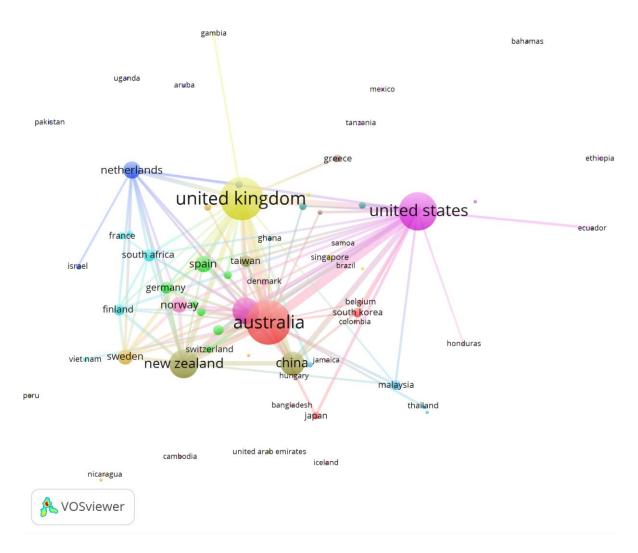


Figure 3. Bibliographic coupling of countries that publish in JOST

Australia is the most productive country and has the largest network in the map. The UK and the USA also have a significant position in the journal. Regardless, most of the leading countries in the journal are from Europe; these are countries that are also part of the most representative node of the previous figure.

Next, we analyse the leading keywords (available from 1999) of JOST. Thus, Figure 4 analyses the co-occurrence of author keywords for documents published in the journal with a threshold of five occurrences and the one hundred most representative co-occurrence connections.

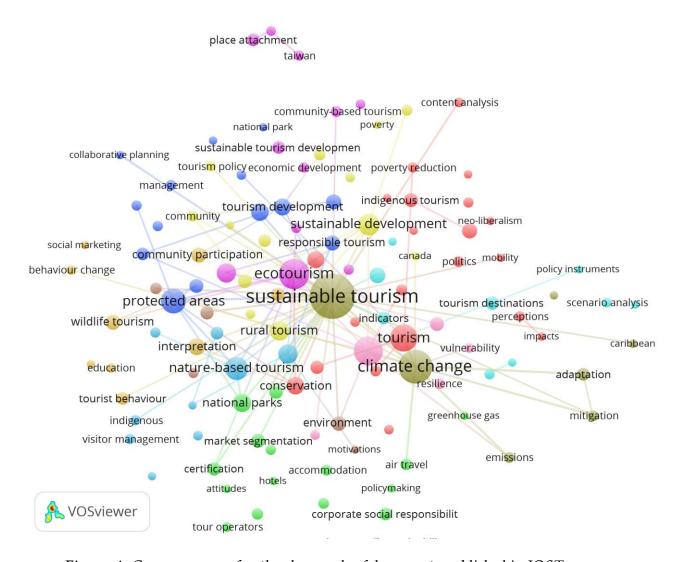


Figure 4. Co-occurrence of author keywords of documents published in JOST

'Sustainable Tourism, 'Ecotourism' and 'Tourism' were the most common keywords with the most extensive network. These three keywords lead the three main nodes that are shown in Figure 4. Other significant keywords are 'Climate Change' and 'Sustainability'. As can be observed, most keywords are related to sustainable development and related issues. The analysis of the main keywords also highlights the main approaches on which the journal focuses. It can be observed that an important node of keywords focuses on topics related to 'tourism and ecotourism based on nature'. A second node on issues related to 'tourism in general', and a last node focused on 'tourism of cultural heritage, alternative tourism and urban tourism'. Therefore, from the analysis of the main keywords, JOST focuses on analyse topics related to sustainable development, tourism and alternative tourism.

According to this analysis, we can expect that the future trends of research in sustainable tourism will carry out in the topics related to, among others, climate change, sustainable tourism development and ecotourism.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper provides a general overview of JOST journal. The leading trends in productivity, influence, topics, authors, institutions and countries have been analysed. The journal has maintained a prominent place among leisure and tourism journals. The increase in the size of JOST has revealed the growing interest in sustainable tourism over time.

This finding shows the consolidation of the journal in the tourism sector and the growing concern for sustainable development in that field. JOST's documents have been commonly consulted. Proof of this finding is that 89% have received citations during the analysed period; in addition, if we discard the most recent years, 2017 and 2016, due to the temporary impossibility of having previously obtained citations, the percentage of documents cited increases to nearly 96% of the total.

Although the journal is originally from the UK, it is cited most often by authors from New Zealand and South Africa. Regarding the most productive institutions in JOST, two Australian ones are notable: Griffith University and the University of Queensland, which are also the originators of the most productive authors in JOST. As time has passed, more institutions from different countries have published works constantly and uninterruptedly. The journal's geographical representation is increasingly expanding. Although Australia, the UK and the USA remain the leaders in the publication of articles in JOST, the list extends to more countries, not only European but also Asian and African, which highlights its marked international character.

Although this work has attempted to provide a complete overview of the leading trends of JOST, it has certain limitations that are worth noting. The data are collected from the Scopus database. Therefore, the data have been collected under a full counting system. Thus, in the analysis conducted, the documents with many co-authors are more important than the works signed by a single author. To overcome this limitation, the paper uses fractional counting in the mapping analysis with the VOS viewer software. Another limitation is that the paper focused on

analysing only articles, reviews, notes and letters and did not consider all the contributions made by the journal.

Despite these limitations, the paper provides information that will be useful for different stakeholders such as researchers, academics and publishers. These results will help these stakeholders make their decisions about their research, collaborations and strategies.

For future studies researchers are recommended to attempt to isolate specific patterns related to JOST and to sustainable tourism, as well as to define the causal relation between research quality/productivity and citation flow.

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A STUDY OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING CUSTOMERS' IMPULSE BUYING BEHAVIOR IN RESTAURANTS

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ABSTRACT

Nowadays, while facing the intense competition in restaurant business, in order to increase sales revenue and customers' average check, understanding how to encourage customers' impulse buying behavior is very important. The main objectives of this study were to analyze the influence of dining environment and reference group on customers' impulse buying behavior, and the relationships of dining environment, reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants. The findings showed that influence of reference group, social factors and extraversion were three major factors that affect customers' impulse buying behavior. It was suggested that impulse buying behavior could be a research topic worth of being explored in hospitality industry, and significant managerial and theoretical implications were proposed.

Article History

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Keywords

Impulse buying Impulse purchase Impulse ordering Dining environment Restaurant

INTRODUCTION

As economic downturn has led customers to keep less disposable income in hand and make consumption more prudently, for restaurants it usually results in the decrease of average check and lower sales revenue. In order to enhance the customers to spend more money, it's important to realize which circumstances cause customers to order more dishes; namely, to

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have impulse buying behaviors such as ordering additional dessert and beverage. It's crucial to increase sales revenue of the restaurants. Hence, to figure out the factors of influencing customers' impulse buying behavior is imperative to restaurant management.

Regarding the factors which influence customers' impulse buying behavior, while most research in customer behavior emphasized the relationship of customers' perception, attitude and their decision, some research has indicated that other factors might also influence their behaviors. Previous research proposed that the ambience, design and social factors were three major factors affecting customers' impulsive behavior (Baker, 1987; Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, & Voss, 2002). And, the reference group usually has significant effect on a person's acceptance of new behavior, lifestyle, his/her attitude towards and choice of products and brands (Kotler, 2003). As previous researchers pointed out, in the environment where customers would have certain contact with other customers while receiving service, their consuming experience was shaped by their interaction with other customers (Baker, 1987; Bitner, 1992; Martin, 1996). When a person goes shopping with a group of friends, the larger the group is, the more probable he/she would have impulse buying behavior (Bearden & Woodside, 1978; Belk, 1974; Granbois, 1968). Additionally, personality traits were found to be a factor in deciding consumers' purchase behavior (Stern, 1962). Summing up the above, the dining environment (ambiance) of the restaurant, customers' reference group and personality traits are the factors that would affect customers' impulse buying behavior proposed in previous research. Thus, the problems of this research are formed as follows:

- 1. Whether the dining environment of the restaurant would enhance the likelihood of customers' impulse buying behavior?
- 2. Whether customers' reference group would affect the tendency of their impulse buying behavior?
- 3. Whether different personality traits would incline customers toward impulse buying behavior differently?

As it's shown above, there is already extensive literature in impulse buying behavior. Nevertheless, little attention has been paid to impulse buying behavior in the restaurant, which is termed in this study "impulse ordering behavior". Therefore, this study brings up this issue to analyze the factors that influence impulse ordering behavior in the restaurant. To be summarize, the main objectives of this study are as follows:

- 1. To analyze the influence of dining environment and reference group on customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants;
- 2. To analyze the influence of personality traits on customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants;
- 3. To analyze the influence of personality traits on the relationships of dining environment, reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

The literature of impulse buying behavior and the influential factors of impulse buying behavior will be reviewed in the continuation. In addition, the interpretation of hypotheses would be addressed.

Impulse Buying Behavior/ Impulse Ordering Behavior

Impulse buying behavior was defined as the behavior that takes place due to the "purchase impulse" resulted from the "attraction of product," which is unplanned, hasty, thoughtless, and irrational purchase behavior. It is the purchase behavior more of "emotion" than of "rationality," and of "irresistible drives" (Rook, 1987; Rook & Fisher, 1995; Weinberg & Gottwald, 1982). Mowen and Minor (1998) referred to impulse buying as an uncontrollable reaction, which arouses the desire to acquire and possess, and entice customers to have impulse buying behavior.

Dholakia (2000) divides the factors that affect customers' impulse buying behavior into three categories. The first category is the optimum stimulation level—that is, the stimulation of the surroundings which includes design of shopping path, merchandise display and atmosphere, advertisement and promotion, demonstration of information, and attraction of certain products (Iyer, 1989). The second category is customers' impulsivity traits which include customers' personal traits, values (their moral judgment on impulse buying behavior) (Chang, 1998; Rook & Fisher, 1995), degree of enjoying window-shopping, ability of self-control, socio-economic status, and gender. And, the third category is the situational factors, which include time pressure and financial pressure (Iyer, 1989).

To sum up the above, impulse ordering behavior could be defined as an unplanned, unpremeditated, uncontrollable impulse buying behavior that takes place in a restaurant (it means that the customer ordered a meal under an unplanned or uncontrollable situation).

The Influential Factors of Impulse Buying Behavior/Impulse Ordering Behavior

Physical environment (dining environment) and impulse buying behavior

Ambient factors are those factors that can make customers feel thrilled, and enhance their willingness to prolong their stay and return to the same store (Milliman, 1982). Miao and Mattila (2013) addressed that primary food motives (like health, indulgence) and situational motives jointly affect impulse buying behavior in food consumption. These factors include, for example, background music, that keeps customers happy, can decrease their attention to the pass of time.

Design factors point to those factors that make the surroundings of a store comfortable and aesthetically appealing. These factors increase the degree of customers' excitement, get them more involved, and encourage them to appreciate the value of merchandise. Hence, customers will be less aware of risk, tend to extend their shopping time, and be inclined towards impulse buying (Babin & Darden, 1995; Baker, Grewal, & Levy, 1992; Baker et al., 2002; Beatty & Ferrell, 1998; Chaudhuri, 2001; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, & Nesdale, 1994; Mano, 1999). Furthermore, Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) found that display of merchandise and promotion event are positive factors to unplanned or impulse buying behavior.

Social factors mean, for instance, that customers would infer the quality of merchandise and service based on their observation of the type of customers and the number of servers. In addition, customers' stereotyped impression of servers can have impact on their processing of information and their emotion (Babin & Dardin, 1995). That is, the impression, professional ability and attitude of servers that influence customers' emotional reaction, their appreciation of value of merchandise, and their willingness of purchase are considered as social factors of a store (Yoo, Park, & MacInnis, 1998; Baker et al., 1992; Baker, Grewal, & Parasuraman, 1994, Baker et al., 2002). According to the above discussions and literature, store environment has significant influences on customers'

behavior. In other words, it will prolong customers' stay in a restaurant and thus increase the possibility of their impulse ordering behavior. For restaurants, the shopping environment is described as dining environment which includes ambiance. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H₁: Dining environment has significant influence on impulse ordering behavior in restaurants.

H₁₋₁: Ambient factors have significant influence on impulse ordering behavior.

H₁₋₂: Design factors have significant influence on impulse ordering behavior.

H₁₋₃: Social factors have significant influence on impulse ordering behavior.

The influence of reference group and impulse buying behavior

Kotler (2003) defined reference group as all of the groups that can directly or indirectly influence one's attitude or behavior. Laesser and Dolnicar (2012) addressed that impulse purchasing also occurred in tourism, and travel companion was a factor affecting the impulse purchasing behavior. Reference groups often put individuals under the pressure of accepting new behavior and way of life, adjusting one's attitude, and choosing certain kind of product. Reference groups include a wide variety of groups such as race, community, family, and company colleagues.

When making purchase decision, customers will be influenced by reference groups, service persons, other customers, family and friends, or other social factors (Kotler Armstrong, Saunders, & Wong, 1999). Arndt (1967) pointed out that when evaluating a new product or new service, customers would greatly rely on others' advice. When the number of the parties who go shopping increases, the probability of impulse buying also significantly increases (Bearden & Woodside, 1978; Belk, 1974; Granbois, 1968). When customers are in the environment where they have to share service with other customers, regardless of whether they are in a restaurant or on travel, customers will have different consuming experience because of their interaction with other customers (Baker, 1987; Bitner, 1992; Martin, 1996). According to theory and literature, customers are easily influenced by the advice of reference groups and, as a result,

have impulse ordering behavior in restaurants. Therefore, this study assumes:

H₂: The impact of reference group has significant influence on customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants.

Personality traits and impulse buying behavior

The internal difference of customers comes from personality traits, value, background, and lifestyle. People of different personality traits must have different way of making their consumption decision. In the EKB Model (Engel-Kollat-Blackwell Model) of consumption decision-making, personality traits are considered as one of the most important internal factors in customers' purchase decision-making (Neyer & Voigt, 2004).

Impulse buying behavior is determined by the combination of the factors of economy, personality traits, time, place, and culture. Different kinds of people have different kinds of impulse buying behavior even if the same product is concerned. And, the same person can have different kind of impulse buying behavior in different shopping settings (Stern, 1962). Personal factors also play a decisive role in whether customers would be influenced by stimulation to do impulse buying (Dholakia, 2000). The customers of higher tendency toward impulse buying usually have higher degree of emotional activities when shopping. They also have more spontaneous and less rational reaction. Furthermore, positive sentiments encourage people to reward themselves better and to view shopping from a more appreciative way such that people in positive sentiment tend to fall to impulse buying (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). If referred to the Big Five personality traits, what are described above can be categorized into two of the five dimensions of personality; that is, extraversion and openness to experience. According to theory and literature, different personality traits will entail different kinds of impulse ordering behavior in restaurants. Therefore, this study assumes:

H₃: Customers with extraversion or openness to experience personality traits are more likely to have impulse ordering behavior in restaurants.

H₃₋₁: Customers with extraversion personality traits are more likely to have impulse ordering behavior.

H₃₋₂: Customers with openness to experience personality traits are more likely to have impulse ordering behavior.

H₄: Personality traits have moderating effect on the relationship of dining environment and customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants.

H₄₋₁: Customers with extraversion personality traits has moderating effect on the relationship of dining environment and customers' impulse ordering behavior.

H₄₋₂: Customers with openness to experience personality traits has moderating effect on the relationship of dining environment and customers' impulse ordering behavior.

H₅: Personality traits have moderating effect on the relationship of the impact of reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants.

H₅₋₁: Customers with extraversion personality traits has moderating effect on the relationship of the impact of reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior.

H₅₋₂: Customers with openness to experience personality traits has moderating effect on the relationship of the impact of reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior.

METHODOLOGY

Research Framework

Arising from the literature review above, this study proposes that the dining environment (ambiance), influence of reference group and personality traits have positive influence on customers' impulse ordering behavior in restaurants. Thus, the research framework was conceptualized (see figure 1). According to this framework, five hypotheses were proposed in this research.

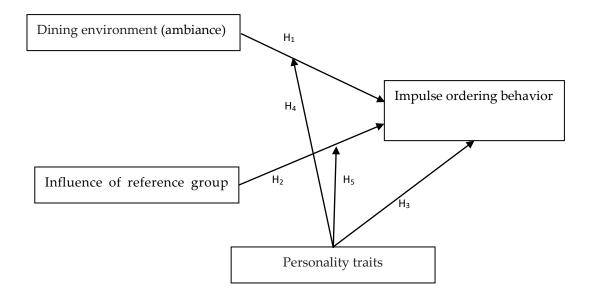


Figure 1. Research framework

Questionnaire Design

Based on the literature, the variables employed in the questionnaire include 21 items for dining environment/ambiance (there are three dimensions, including 7 items for ambient factor, 9 items for design factor, 5 items for social factor) (Baker, 1987; Baker et al., 1994; Dholakia, 2000; Liaw, Tsai & Lee, 2007; Wu, Lin & Wu, 2003), 3 items for the influence of reference groups (Kotler et al., 1999), 10 items for personality traits (McCrae & Costa, 1987) and 3 items for impulse ordering behavior (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Babin & Attaway, 2000). The five-point Likert-type scale was used in the first three sections, from "very agree" to "very disagree" (from 5 points to 1 point). Finally, socio-demographic data were collected. In order to obtain effective measurement tools, the questionnaire was modified during pre-test and pilot-test stages.

Regarding the examination of reliability, Cronbach's α of the overall scale is 0.909 which is greater than 0.7 indicating a satisfactory level of reliability. For the dimensions of the scale, Cronbach's α of dining environment/ambiance, the influence of reference group and personality traits are 0.882, 0.568 and 0.854 respectively. For the impulse ordering behavior, the Cronbach's α is 0.661. The validity of this study was examined by content validity. Before the questionnaires were distributed, a pre-test is conducted to modify the questions. The experts in hospitality

were consulted to clarify the meaning of the questions. Therefore, this research was provided with considerably content validity.

Sampling

By applying random sampling, questionnaires were distributed to the customers of Japanese and American restaurants in Taipei City, Taiwan. Finally, 484 questionnaires were obtained. After eliminating invalid questionnaires (with incomplete answers), there are 477 usable samples (the valid questionnaire return rate is 98.1%). There were six interviewers standing in front of the restaurants to utilize personal interview to distribute questionnaires to the customers.

Data Analysis

The analyzing tool is SPSS for Windows 18.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Science). Descriptive Statistics Analysis, Reliability Analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis, Correlation Analysis and Regression Analysis were employed in this research. This research tried to explain the effect of dining environment, the influence of reference groups and personality traits on impulse ordering behavior in restaurants.

FINDINGS

The Demographic Characteristics of Participants

As it's shown in Table 1, of the 477 valid questionnaires returned in this study, the majority of respondents were female (55.3%). Most of them were aged between 21 and 40 years old (82.4 %). In educational degree, most of them were bachelor degrees (72.5%). For occupation, most of them were students (47.6%), the followed is service industry (29.8%). When referred to income, most of the respondents' monthly income was below \$1,000 US dollars (70.6%). In marital status, most of them were single (82.6%).

Table 1. *The demographic characteristics of participants (n= 477)*

| | | Number | % |
|-------------------------|----------------------|--------|------|
| Gender | Female | 264 | 55.3 |
| | Male | 213 | 44.7 |
| Age | less than 20 and | 68 | 14.3 |
| | 21-30 | 309 | 64.8 |
| | 31-40 | 84 | 17.6 |
| | 41-50 | 13 | 2.7 |
| | 51 and more than 51 | 3 | 0.6 |
| Educational level | Junior high school | 7 | 1.5 |
| | Senior high school | 82 | 17.2 |
| | University(college) | 346 | 72.5 |
| | Graduate school | 42 | 8.8 |
| Occupation | Business/trading | 36 | 7.5 |
| | Education/government | 24 | 5.0 |
| | Student | 227 | 47.6 |
| | Service industry | 142 | 29.8 |
| | Professional expert | 21 | 4.4 |
| | Self-employed | 8 | 1.7 |
| | Others | 19 | 4.0 |
| Personal monthly income | Less than \$600 | 202 | 42.3 |
| (US dollar) | \$600-\$1,000 | 135 | 28.3 |
| | \$1,000-\$1,500 | 90 | 18.9 |
| | \$1,500-\$2,000 | 28 | 5.9 |
| | More than \$2,000 | 21 | 4.4 |
| Marital status | Single | 394 | 82.6 |
| | Married | 78 | 16.4 |
| | Others | 5 | 1.0 |

Results of Descriptive Analysis

Regarding the descriptive analysis of research variables, for dining environment/ambiance, the highest item is "The pictures on the menu or the food samples stimulate me to order more dishes" (Mean=4.17; SD=.852), and the lowest item is "The server's upselling makes me order more dishes" (Mean=3.35; SD=.994) (see table 2).

Regarding influence of reference group, the means of three items are "While dining with my relatives and friends, I usually order more dishes or dessert" (Mean=4.01; SD=.808), "While dining with female friends, I'm more

likely to order more drinks and dessert" (Mean=3.92; SD=.918) and "Other customers' meals usually affect my order" (Mean=3.51; SD=1.010).

Table 2. *Means of dining environment/ambiance (n= 477)*

| Items | Mean | S.D. |
|---|------|-------|
| The server's upselling makes me order more dishes. | 3.35 | 0.994 |
| The server's good appearance stimulates me to order more dishes. | 3.47 | 1.036 |
| The route planning is appropriate. | 3.52 | 0.836 |
| The dining environment is clean and hygiene. | 4.02 | 0.791 |
| The promotion of this restaurant makes me order more dishes. | 4.05 | 0.890 |
| The pictures on the menu or the food samples stimulate me to order more dishes. | 4.17 | 0.852 |

Regarding personality traits, the highest item is "*I usually admire esthetic things*" (Mean=3.21; SD=.744), and the lowest item is "*Compared with my friends, I have rich life experience*" (Mean=2.81; SD=.724) (see table 3).

Table 3. Means of personality traits (n=477)

| Items | Mean($ar{X}$) | S.D. |
|--|-----------------|-------|
| Compared with my friends, I have rich life experience. | 2.81 | 0.724 |
| I'm courageous to do what others wouldn't do. | 2.85 | 0.748 |
| I like adventures. | 2.92 | 0.740 |
| I'd like to try novel or exotic food. | 3.15 | 0.661 |
| I like many friends accompanied. | 3.15 | 0.701 |
| I usually admire esthetic things. | 3.21 | 0.744 |

Regarding impulse buying behavior, the means of three items are "I like to stay in this restaurant" (Mean=3.48; SD=.808), "I usually spent more money than expected in this restaurant" (Mean=3.47; SD=.940) and "I usually ordered more food and beverage in this restaurant" (Mean=3.26; SD=.923).

Results of Correlation Analysis

According to table 4, there were significant correlations between the six predictors and impulse ordering behavior. The most significant correlation existed between social factor and impulse ordering behavior (γ = 0.476, p<.001). Followed by ambient factor (γ =0.468, p<.001), design factor is

next (γ = 0.455, p<.0001), openness to experience factor has the lowest correlation with impulse ordering behavior (γ = 0.338, p<.001).

Table 4. *Results of correlation analysis*

| | J | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---|
| 1 | Impulse ordering | 1 | | | | | | |
| | behavior | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Design factor | 0.455* | 1 | | | | | |
| 3 | Social factor | 0.476* | 0.562* | 1 | | | | |
| 4 | Ambient factor | 0.468* | 0.708* | 0.596* | 1 | | | |
| 5 | Influence of reference | 0.361* | 0.430* | 0.461* | 0.326* | 1 | | |
| | group | | | | | | | |
| 6 | Openness to | 0.338* | 0.425* | 0.363* | 0.311* | 0.350* | 1 | |
| | experience | | | | | | | |
| 7 | Extraversion factor | 0.342* | 0.287* | 0.310* | 0.273* | 0.286* | 0.735* | 1 |

^{*}p<0.001

Results of Regression Analysis

In this study, six factors (design factor, social factor, ambient factor, influence of reference group, openness to experience, extraversion factor) were employed to examine the influence on impulse ordering behavior. In order to examine the collinearity among the variables, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was utilized as the criteria (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1989). The variance inflation factor is the reciprocal of tolerance. When the VIF value is smaller, the possibility of collinearity is lower. Moreover, the value of Durbin-Watson (DW) was used to examine the autocorrelation of residual value. The results revealed that the VIF of the variables (dining environment, reference group, personality traits and impulse ordering behavior) are between 1.39 and 2.49, and VIF value is less than 10. Namely, the collinearity doesn't exist among these variables. Besides, the value of Durbin-Watson is 1.875 which is close to 2, it means there's no self-correlated problem among the residuals.

The R² value reaches 0.331. According to Table 5, the predicting effect of dining environment factors upon impulse ordering behavior are significant. Design factors, social factors and ambient factors are positively significant to impulse ordering behavior (β = 0.117, p<0.05; β = 0.196, p<0.001; β = 0.187, p<0.001). Thus, the H₁₋₁, H₁₋₂ and H₁₋₃ are supported (see Table 8). The predicting effect of reference group upon impulse ordering

behavior is significant (β = 0.112, p<0.05), the H₂ is supported. For personality traits, the predicting effect of extraversion factor upon impulse ordering behavior is significant (β = 0.167, p<0.01), but the openness to experience didn't reach statistical significance, Therefore, the H₃₋₁ is supported, H₃₋₂ is not supported.

Table 5. Results of regression analysis

| Input factors | R^2 | Adjusted R ² | ΔR^2 | F | β | t | р |
|------------------------------|-------|-------------------------|--------------|-----------|----------|--------|-------|
| design factors | 0.331 | 0.323 | 0.331 | 38.792*** | 0.117* | 1.999 | 0.046 |
| social factors | | | | | 0.196*** | 3.829 | 0.000 |
| ambient factor | | | | | 0.187*** | 3.273 | 0.001 |
| influence of reference group | | | | | 0.112** | 2.529 | 0.012 |
| openness to experience | | | | | -0.003 | -0.056 | 0.956 |
| extraversion factor | | | | | 0.167*** | 2.966 | 0.003 |

^{***}p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05

The moderating effect of personality trait-extraversion

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to explore the relationship of the variables (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The main purpose is to examine the moderating effect of personality traits on the relationship of the impact of environment/ambient factors, reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior. According to table 6, the model 3 revealed that dining environment factors and extraversion personality traits had positively significant influence on impulse ordering behavior (β = 0.252***, t= 4.270), and the explained variance increased 2.6% (ΔR^2 = 0.026). It means that more dining environment factors could stimulate more impulse ordering behaviors. Moreover, to be combined with extraversion personality traits, the people with more extraversion personality traits tend to express more impulse ordering behaviors. In model 4, reference group combined with extraversion didn't have positively significant influence on impulse ordering behaviors. Thus, the H₄₋₁ is supported, and the H₅₋₁ is not supported (see Table 8).

Table 6. The moderating effect of personality trait-extraversion

| | Impulse orde | ring behaviors | |
|----------------|---|---|---|
| Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 |
| | | | |
| -0.051(830) | -0.029(571) | -0.016(-0.325) | 015(-0.298) |
| -0.050(-1.068) | -0.049(-1.254) | -0.403 (-1.124) | 042 (-1.096) |
| 0.028(.613) | 0.010(.249) | 0.010(0.260) | 0.011(0.280) |
| -0.008 (139) | -0.099(182) | -0.012(-0.250) | -0.013(-0.267) |
| 0.099^* | 0.044(.904) | 0.038(0.795) | 0.038(0.790) |
| | 0.473*** (10.801) | 0.296*** (4.941) | 0.352* (1.890) |
| | 0.136*** (3.096) | 0.107*** (2.453) | 0.033 (0.139) |
| | | | |
| | | 0.252***(4.270) | 0.144(0.417) |
| | | | |
|) | | | 0.120(0.318) |
| | | | |
| 0.011(1.037) | 0.311(30.302***) | 0.337(29.768***) | 0.337(26.420***) |
| 0.000 | 0.301 | 0.326 | 0.325 |
| 0.011(1.037) | 0.301(102.349***) | 0.026(18.233***) | 0.000(.101) |
| , , | 1. | 894 | |
| | -0.051(830) -0.050(-1.068) 0.028(.613) -0.008 (139) 0.099* 0.011(1.037) 0.000 | Model 1 Model 2 -0.051(830) -0.029(571) -0.050(-1.068) -0.049(-1.254) 0.028(.613) 0.010(.249) -0.008 (139) -0.099(182) 0.099* 0.044(.904) 0.473*** (10.801) 0.136*** (3.096) 0.011(1.037) 0.311(30.302***) 0.000 0.301 0.011(1.037) 0.301(102.349***) | -0.051(830) -0.029(571) -0.016(-0.325) -0.050(-1.068) -0.049(-1.254) -0.403 (-1.124) 0.028(.613) 0.010(.249) 0.010(0.260) -0.008 (139) -0.099(182) -0.012(-0.250) 0.099* 0.044(.904) 0.038(0.795) 0.473*** (10.801) 0.296*** (4.941) 0.136*** (3.096) 0.107*** (2.453) 0.252 ***(4.270) |

^{*} *p*<0.1, ** *p*<0.05, ****p*<0.01

The moderating effect of personality trait- openness to experience

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to examine the moderating effect of openness to experience personality traits on the relationship of the impact of dining environment factors, reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior. According to table 7, the model 3 revealed that dining environment factor and openness to experience had positively significant influence on impulse ordering behavior (β = 0.216***, t= 3.236), and the explained variance increased 1.5% (ΔR^2 = 0.015). It means that more dining environment factors could stimulate more impulse ordering behaviors. Moreover, to be combined with the personality of openness to experience, the people with more personality traits of openness to experience tend to express more impulse ordering behaviors. In model 4, reference group combined with openness to experience didn't have positively significant influence on impulse ordering behaviors. Thus, the H42 is supported, and the H5-2 is not supported (see Table 8).

Table 7. The moderating effect of personality trait- openness of experience

| | Impulse ordering behaviors | | | |
|---|----------------------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 |
| Independent variables | | | | |
| Age | 051(830) | 029(571) | 016(325) | 015(298) |
| Education | 050(-1.068) | 049(-1.254) | 403 (-1.124) | 042 (-1.096) |
| Occupation | .028(.613) | .010(.249) | .010(.260) | .011(.280) |
| Monthly income | 008 (139) | 099(182) | 012(250) | 013(267) |
| Marital status | .099* (1.726) | .044(.904) | .038(.795) | .038(.790) |
| Environment/ambient | | .473*** (10.801) | .296*** (4.941) | .352* (1.890) |
| Reference group | | .136*** (3.096) | .107*** (2.453) | .033 (.139) |
| environment/ambient | | | 216 ***(2 226) | 70E* (1.002) |
| factors x openness of | | | .216***(3.236) | .705* (1.903) |
| experience influence of reference group | | | | 553(-1.341) |
| x openness of experience | | | | |
| $R^{2}\left(F\right)$ | .011(1.037) | .311(30.302***) | .326(28.358***) | .329(24.450***) |
| Adjusted R ² | .000 | .301 | .315 | .316 |
| $\Delta R^2 (\Delta F)$ | .011(1.037) | .301(102.349***) | .015(10.470***) | .003(1.799) |
| Durbin-Watson | 1.875 | | | |

^{*} p<0.1, ** p<0.05, ***p<0.01

Table 8. Hypotheses examination

| Hypotheses | Result |
|--|------------------|
| H ₁ : Dining environment has significant influence on impulse ordering behavior. | |
| H ₁₋₁ : Ambient factors have significant influence on impulse ordering behavior. | Supported |
| H ₁₋₂ : Design factors have significant influence on impulse ordering behavior. | Supported |
| H ₁₋₃ : Social factors have significant influence on impulse ordering behavior. | Supported |
| H ₂ : The impact of reference group has significant influence on customers' impulse ordering behavior. | Supported |
| H ₃ : Customers with extraversion or openness to experience personality trait are | |
| more likely to have impulse ordering behavior. | |
| H ₃₋₁ : Customers with extraversion personality trait are more likely to have impulse ordering behavior. | Supported |
| H ₃₋₂ : Customers with openness to experience personality trait are more likely to have impulse ordering behavior. | Not supported |
| H ₄ : Personality traits have moderating effect on the relationship of dining environment and customers' impulse ordering behavior. | |
| H ₄₋₁ : Customers with extraversion personality trait has moderating effect on the relationship of dining environment and customers' impulse ordering behavior. | Supported |
| H ₄₋₂ : Customers with openness to experience personality trait has moderating effect on the relationship of dining environment and customers' impulse ordering behavior. | Supported |
| H ₅ : Personality traits have moderating effect on the relationship of the impact of reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior. | |
| H ₅₋₁ : Customers with extraversion personality trait has moderating effect on the | Not |
| relationship of the impact of reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior. | supported |
| H ₅₋₂ : Customers with openness to experience personality trait has moderating | Not |
| effect on the relationship of the impact of reference group and customers' impulse ordering behavior. | supported |

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aims to analyze the influential factors of impulse ordering behavior by dining environment, influence of reference group and personality traits. It's the first attempt to use the variables of "store environment," "influence of reference group," and "personality traits" to predict customers' impulse ordering behavior. From the findings of this study, it could be concluded that "influence of reference group," "social factors," and "extraversion" are three major factors that affect customers' impulse ordering behavior. This conclusion corresponds to existing literature in impulse buying. It suggests that the research of impulse

buying is applicable to the field of hospitality and tourism. Below are the corresponding points between this study and existing literature:

- (1) Store environment can predict customers' impulse ordering behavior
- i. Social factors: The findings correspond to Babin's research (1995) that found serviceperson's professional performance and friendliness could increase customers' appreciation of the value of merchandises and their willingness of purchase.
- ii. Ambient factors: The findings correspond to Milliman's (1982) major point that stated ambient factors could make customers excited about shopping, help prolong their stay in the store, and increase their willingness of return. It's also consistent with what other scholars have found: comfortable environment could increase the time customers stay in a store shopping, and their unplanned spending (Babin & Darden, 1995; Baker et al., 1992, 2002; Chaudhuri, 2001; Donovan et al., 1994; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982).
- iii. Design factors: The findings correspond to the research by Mano (1999), Beatty and Ferrell (1998) discovering that excellent design of store environment could increase customers' excitement and involvement, and hence the probability of their impulse buying.
- (2) Influence of reference group is certain to be a factor of impulse ordering behavior

The findings correspond to Baker's (1987), Bitner's (1992), and Martin's (1996) research whose points are that customers' shopping experience will be influenced by their interaction with other customers in the settings- in a restaurant or on vacation, where interactions between customers often take place.

(3) Personality traits can have impact on impulse ordering behavior

The findings correspond to Stern's findings that asserted the influence of economic, personality, time, space, and cultural factors on impulse buying. This study uses "Extraversion" and "Openness to Expression" as two predictors to impulse order behavior; however, this study found that "Openness to Experience" couldn't effectively predict impulse ordering. Perhaps it's due to the error of highly homogeneous samples. Yet, this study is an exploratory study and the R2 value is up to 33.8%. It indicates that there are other factors that have not been included, which merit further study.

IMPLICATIONS

According to the findings and conclusions of this study, to increase sales revenue by stimulating impulse ordering behavior in the restaurants is a way which could not be disregarded. Several managerial implications are proposed as follows:

To improve store environment is still a key. The advice is to pay more attention to these factors to make sure customers find the atmosphere of restaurant pleasant, have impression of high popularity, and feel its air-conditioning comfortable. While feeling comfortable, the customers would like to make more orders.

To emphatically show the signature dishes on the menu is critical. To emphasize the uniqueness of restaurant's signature dishes in the design of menu has proved positive in encouraging customers to order more. Try to design the menu to display the signature dishes for customers.

To train waiters/waitresses to make most of the group dining occasions by effectively introducing the specialties of restaurants. Since customers tend to be under the influence of reference groups, the waiters/waitress should know how to grasp the opportunities of group dining. It is especially important when there are female members in the group, because it is more likely to encourage impulse ordering if disserts and beverages are introduced in this kind of situation.

To train the waiters/waitresses' ability to respond to improvident situation. The point is to train the waiters/waitresses to pay attention to whether customers would be interested in what other customers have ordered or what other customers are having. The waiters/waitresses should know how to take advantage of this kind of opportunities to introduce the uniqueness of house specialties in order to encourage customers' impulse ordering behavior.

To introduce house specialties in different ways according to customers' personality traits. It is to train the waiters/waitresses' ability to tell customers' personality traits in order to introduce certain kinds of dishes to please them. For example, for customers with extraversion personality trait, to introduce novelty and exotic dishes for them to try will more likely succeed in increasing their impulse ordering behavior.

For the theoretical implications, the relationship of personality traits and impulse ordering behavior is a merit for academic research.

Customers' personality traits of extraversion or openness to experience had moderating effect on the relationship of dining environment and impulse ordering behavior. Namely, customers with the personality traits of extraversion or openness to experience would influence how the dining environment impacts their impulse ordering behavior. However, customers' personality traits of extraversion or openness to experience didn't have moderating effect on the relationship of reference group and impulse ordering behavior. Is it due to the fact that people with personality traits of extraversion or openness to experience tend to accept novelty things and display more impulse ordering behaviors? And, is it because of the people with personality traits of extraversion or openness to experience are more likely to insist on their opinions and not likely be influenced by the referees? These are important issues for customers' impulse buying behavior.

Finally, the limitations and direction of future research are addressed. Originally it was designed to conduct questionnaire survey in the restaurants; however, most of the chain restaurants required permission from their headquarters to do so, it was not allowed to complete this procedure. Therefore, this study modified the way of conducting survey to let the interviewers wait outside the restaurants and ask customers who had finished their meal to complete the questionnaire. Since it was inconvenient to fill out the questionnaire outside the restaurants, most customers refused to do it. It's probably the outcome of the homogeneous nature of interviewees- most of them are students because they were more accessible to our professionally trained interviewers, most of whom were also students. It's one of the limitations. Due to the limit of time and budget, in this study interviews could only be conducted in the area of Taipei City and New Taipei City. Other areas of Taiwan couldn't be approached. It's another research limitation.

This study has shown that the issue of impulse ordering is indeed important to restaurant management. There is large room for further research since this study is in a preliminary status. Regarding the suggestions for future research, below are some directions in which this study can be improved:

- (1) To find more moderating variables affecting impulse ordering behavior. For example, what impact does shopping mood have on impulse ordering behavior?
- (2) To find the moderating effects of impulse ordering behavior such as customers' intervention.

- (3) To find what impacts do other probable variables, including stimulus factors (promotions, limit-time or limit-quantity promotions), customers' impulse personality traits, cross-cultural factors, experience marketing, situational variables (time, money, and so on.) have on impulse ordering behavior.
- (4) To compare impulse ordering behaviors in different types of restaurants.

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CULTURAL HERITAGE MANAGEMENT IN TURKEY AND EGYPT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Recently, there are various threats encountering the cultural heritage worldwide. Indeed, these threats make conservation and management of cultural heritage a complex process to deal with. Since the 1970s, the UNESCO started to issue many guidelines and charters related to the management and conservation of the cultural heritage. Meanwhile, the Cultural Heritage Management (CHM) including sustainability has become a significant concept especially in the European countries. Turkey and Egypt are famous for their diversified cultural and natural heritage attractions which give an opportunity for both countries to be appealing tourist destinations Nevertheless, cultural heritage of Turkey and Egypt suffers from several major problems at present. All of these require a selective policy, urgent conservation, constant monitoring, protection, and maintenance. This paper aims to examine and compare cultural heritage management in both countries according to specific criteria which will evaluate the current situation of the cultural heritage management in Turkey and Egypt from different aspects (legal framework, institutional/administrational framework, resources, and current challenges). Also, this paper shows how the cultural heritage management has been developed in both countries. Generally, it highlights the increasing importance of cultural heritage management. Furthermore; it will emphasize the significance of sustainability practices in managing world heritage sites.

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INTRODUCTION

Heritage is always the matter of debate concerning its definitions, preservation and management approaches (Fredholm, 2015). Cultural heritage, with its social and economic impacts, is considered as an important asset for the destinations (Scheffler, 2011) through its role in attracting investments, creating jobs and increasing tourism income (Bandarin & van Oers, 2012). Destinations try to find ways to differentiate themselves and create unique identities to take advantage in dense competition and function of cultural heritage seems crucial in doing that. Preserving the cultural heritage can protect the national and cultural identity, strengthen the economic and political aspects, and enrich the urban context (Boztaş, 2014; Scheffler, 2011).

Unfortunately, in the last decades, the cultural heritage has suffered the consequences of urbanization, industrialization, climate change, pollution, and intense pressure from tourism development (Jokilehto, 2005). Before the1970s, there were not proper practices for cultural heritage management and the adopted approach in most heritage sites was the "conservation" in order to protect these sites, but since the 1970's "Cultural Heritage Management (CHM)" has been implemented with laying a particular stress on the "sustainability". This approach aims to develop and preserve the heritage and make it sustainable for the next generations through utilizing it in an innovative way (Boztaş, 2014; Mangialardi et al., 2016). Furthermore, the cultural heritage management needs a multidisciplinary understanding of heritage (Guzmán, Roders & Colenbrander, 2017) as this approach deals with the integration of a wide range of complex and interrelated management considerations (Leask, 2006). The management of cultural heritage requires the identification of two things: heritage types (e.g., tangible, intangible) and values of heritage (e.g., historical, scientific, social and economic) (Guzmán et al., 2017).

Tourism activities undertaken at World Heritage Sites (WHS) are with no doubt an important issue (Pedersen, 2002; Bastemur & Günes, 2011). However, some conflicts exist about how to carry out tourism on heritage sites. From the conservative perspective, heritage tourism has been perceived as a threat to the preservation of the site and considered to have a negative impact on the conservation goals (Aas, Ladkin & Fletcher, 2005). While the tourism activity at some sites is well developed and organized, at others it is an insignificant activity and there are no serious management practices (Leask, 2006). Thus, just possessing these sites are

not sufficient but preserving and managing creates difference (Seker, Alkan, Kutoglu, Akcin & Kahya, 2010).

This paper focuses on the cultural heritage management applications merely in Turkey and Egypt due to several reasons. Firstly, Turkey and Egypt are located in the same region, as well as, both countries are rich in their cultural heritage. Secondly, cultural heritage is considered as a crucial part of the tourism supply for both countries and it is a widely used product in the tourism portfolio of both countries. Thirdly, according to UNESCO and ICOMOS reports in 2016 and 2017, the cultural heritage sites in both countries are facing the same threats especially for their world heritage properties; additionally, both countries are suffering from a lack of robust cultural heritage management approaches.

The main objective of this paper is to compare the cultural heritage management approaches in Egypt and Turkey through evaluating the current situation of cultural heritage sites, and shed light on the differences between two countries. Moreover, this paper aims to elaborate cultural heritage management concepts, and to discuss the requirements of an effective management process.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Cultural Heritage Management Concepts (CHM)

There is a growing interest in the management of cultural heritage properties which has increased especially after UNESCO issued the guidelines of heritage management (Pedersen, 2002; Cooper & Helmy, 2008). The concept of Cultural Heritage Management is handled in several disciplines, which have different interest areas related to cultural and archaeological resources (Gültekin, 2012) such as archaeological heritage management (Kerber, 1994), historical buildings and sites managing (Orbasli, 2000) or monitoring and evaluation of historical sites (UNESCO), all providing different perspectives and definitions about CHM.

The management studies on heritage sites began in the 1970s and the concept firstly used by The ICOMOS International Committee on Archaeological Heritage Management (ICAHM). In 1972, UNESCO World Heritage Convention established the "World Heritage Committee", which aims to preserve the cultural and natural heritage worldwide with responsibility of determining the World Heritage. In literature, the

discipline dealing with cultural sites management is also known as Cultural Resources Management (CRM) (Mangialardi et al., 2016). For instance, in the Unites States, much of historic preservation is carried out in a framework of CRM (Knudson, 1999; Nemaheni, 2003) which contains different concepts such as conservation, restoration, safeguarding, history, architecture and preservation of archaeological sites (Mangialardi et al., 2016).

Many changes have occurred in CHM since 1993. Firstly, ICOMOS issued its guideline, as well as UNESCO which started writing the Guidelines for the Management of World Cultural Heritage Sites, that was modified respectively in 1993 and 1998. In the 2000s, the CHM approach was modified globally and many European projects applied it. Additionally, in the same decade, the sustainability concept became a significant principle for conserving the heritage sites (Jokilehto, 2005). The World Heritage concept becomes substantial in the context of CHM approach as it gives priority to manage heritage sites.

Recently, the cultural heritage management approaches have changed. They have been transformed from "the conventional approach" which gives more attention to the resource itself, to "the human approach", which gives attention to the resource and the visitor in order to achieve the required balance regarding the quality of the visitor experience (Rowe, 2009), while following the preservation practices and principles at the heritage property (Figure 1). Moreover, the local community participation in heritage management and ensuring the benefits for them becomes one of the most important principles in managing cultural heritage (Cooper & Helmy, 2008).

The outstanding universal value of the heritage becomes the indicator of choosing the cultural heritage to be in the World Heritage List and this gives priority for management (Boztaş, 2014). Preservation of cultural heritage can increase the awareness of values, cultural identity and support the sustainability in the world of globalization (Mason & Avrami, 2002). The cultural heritage management is a complicated and changeable process and it should be modified according to the changes in the political, economic and physical settings (Vacharopoulou, 2005).

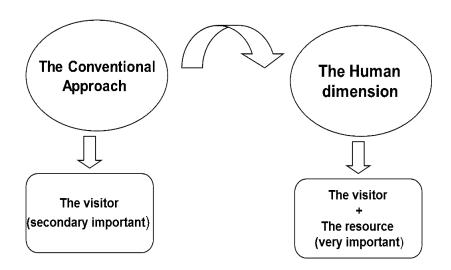


Figure 1. Shift in CHM approach (Source: Authors' own figure)

The Requirements and Guidelines of Cultural Heritage Management Process

There are some requirements for the management approach in order to make it more efficient. Management guidelines for the world Cultural Heritage Sites were initially prepared by a group of conservation experts in 1983. Then, it was published by ICCROM and updated to include the most current activities and principles in 1998. The guideline, in general, provides recommendations for implementation by state party in several areas. These are inventory and documentation; interpretation; visitor management; education of the society; administrative and organizational structure; legislation; financial management; and lastly monitoring and reviewing (Ünver, 2006; Ismail, 2016) (Figure 2).

| | Inventory& documentation | It provides the data for the selection of the heritage to be conserved. Recording and documentation is an on-going activity the inventory of cultural property is to be systematically cataloged using a computerized system(GIS) These records should be protected against disasters such as fire, flood or theft |
|----------------|--|--|
| | Visitor management | It has an importance mostly in the prehistoric and historic sites. It includes orientation, information and interpretation; planning and managing urban use, traffic management and activities, special groups pedestrianization; activities; services; special groups (handicapped) |
| | Interpretation | An interpretation process and use this for an educational purpose |
| Sustainability | Administrative &organizational structure | The responsibilities of all stakeholders should be determined systematically. Responsibilities should be decentralized Each State party consolidate their management by having adequate numbers of properly trained personal at all levels properly trained personnel at all levels |
| Sı | Cultural heritage managers | Managers are important for the effectiveness and achievement of the process. They should be a multidisciplinary team for this process. |
| | Legislation | In most countries the management process is done by the state authority, federal laws and regulations. The majority of these regulations are protective not a developer. |
| | Financial management | Financial policies should be determined according to the type of intervention and also the effectiveness should be achieved by choosing the true source of finance; tourism should be used as a tool of conservation, and central and local governments should be encouraged and support the investments. |
| | Monitoring and reviewing | It includes the monitoring the physical, social, functional, legal and organizational structure of the heritage. As well, it consists monitoring, controlling, review and updating the projects, strategies and even the vision. |

Figure 2. *Guidelines of Cultural heritage management process* (Source: adopted by Researchers from Ünver, 2006; and Ismail, 2016)

CULTURAL HERITAGE MANAGEMENT IN TURKEY AND EGYPT

In recent years, cultural heritage management in Turkey and Egypt is facing various problems, i.e. the poor condition of many heritage properties due to development pressures, tourism and agricultural growth. Even though Turkey and Egypt have an appropriate legislative context theoretically, the governments have many challenges- regarding financial resources, staff and skills - to implement it. It becomes so difficult to understand the status of heritage in one country without recognizing the background of this country such as the economic and political situation and its cultural policies. These elements have impressive impacts on the business and management environment (Zan, 2014). CHM mainly concerns the legal and administrative requirements.

In respect to safeguarding whether Turkey and Egypt are managing these sites effectively, it is essential, firstly to evaluate the current situation and to reveal the troubles that these sites have. Two main categories of troubles could be noted. The general problems in all cultural heritage sites in both countries are often related to the national system of WHS management as well as the problems which are related particularly to the heritage sites themselves (Somuncu & Yiğit, 2010).

Cultural Heritage Management in Turkey

Land of Turkey having hosted many civilizations, like Hattis, Troy, Hittites, Urartians, Lydians, Lycians, Pergamon, combines heritage roots of Europe and Asia. Turkey is, thus, noted by some researchers as being a "melting pot" of various cultures where classical culture was shaped.

Turkey has a rich world heritage list. It contains seventeen WHS fifteen of which are cultural and two are mixed properties of both cultural and natural values. The number of these sites will probably increase because Turkish heritage inventory has not completed yet, as many valuable heritage sites are being discovered almost every day. Hence, in order to preserve this rich Turkish cultural heritage and to ensure its sustainability many efforts should be made (Yıldız, 2010; Boztaş, 2014; UNESCO, 2016). The Ministry of Culture and Tourism is the main body responsible for preparing and processing the WHS with some international assistance.

Turkey has some cases that are considered among the best practices for preserving cultural heritage. In 2012, UNESCO announced on its

official website that Historic Areas of Istanbul as one of the best practices in terms of conservation, local community, boundaries, sustainable development tourism and interpretation as well as other different aspects (whc.unesco.org).

On the other hand, Turkey has also some issues to resolve regarding CHM. One critique about CHM is that sites were identified, nominated and inscribed to the World Heritage List with no meaningful consultation of local communities and other stakeholders (Somuncu & Yiğit, 2010; Human, 2015). The cultural heritage sites in Turkey seem to suffer from significant challenges even after inscription to UNESCO list. These challenges result from mainly lack of professional management and misuse of lands which could be recognized in most of the other developing countries as well. UNESCO and Turkey are working together to create effective tools and stronger policies for the sustainable development of historic cities (Yıldız, 2010; UNESCO, 2016). Additionally, Turkey has a distinctive blend of natural and cultural attraction as well as, legislative framework, which all require effective management (Yıldız, 2010). Conservation efforts have been undertaken with legislation that was strict but weakly enforced and ill-equipped with implementation tools, and a centralized administrative (Yıldırım, 2015). There is an also shortage in the planning process as it does not include the conservation policies and this makes a gap in the Turkish conservation system (Boztaş, 2014).

Turkey has performed many actions to realize its main goal in order to implement heritage management policies in the context of the World Heritage Convention. In 2004, Turkish authorities adopted the state's heritage conservation legislation in order to bring Turkey's heritage management in line with international standards to protect all listed heritage sites in Turkey (Human, 2015). Turkish local councils on the conservation of the cultural heritage are controlling and monitoring all alterations in cultural heritage sites such as excavation works, development projects, construction and demolition (Özdoğan, 2013).

Mostly the museums hold the management of archaeological sites in Turkey. The General Directorate of Waqf is responsible for preserving the majority of Islamic monuments. Furthermore, the fountains, city walls and water channels are managed by the municipalities. City councils also allocate a specific amount of their budget for improving the historical properties (ICOMOS Turkey).

On the other hand, due to a large number of heritage sites in Turkey, it becomes so critical for the Ministry of Culture and Tourism to carry out renovation and conservation plans at these sites (ICOMOS Turkey). Indeed, Turkey does not give any permission to the private sector to work at archaeological sites; it only gives the authority to the universities and museums to undertake all restoration missions and operations at these sites (Özdoğan, 2013). In spite of this fact, Turkey is working on the development of public and civil renovation projects to maintain the characteristic features of sites that have lost their original functions, through initiatives from academic research as well as practical applications (UNESCO, 2016). As the inventory of Turkish heritage properties is not finished yet, the demolition risk of unregistered heritage properties is also high (ICOMOS Turkey).

Cultural Heritage Management in Egypt

Egypt is considered as one of the richest countries in the world regarding the number of heritage sites (Hang & Kong, 2008). Egypt's Cultural Heritage has become more valuable because of its role in creating an image that is based on Pharaonic identity, while promoting the country as a tourism destination. It essentially depends on the unique and diversified blend of the cultural heritage sites such as, the pyramids, the temples in Luxor and Aswan, the mosques and churches in Cairo and many other treasures. Although Egypt is considered as an ideal case of a tourism destination which depends mainly on unique historical attractions, these attractions are facing many threats due to the urban development and tourism activities. Unfortunately, Egypt has particular difficulties in preserving its heritage (Hang & Kong, 2008; Cooper & Helmy, 2010).

Cultural management practices of Egypt date back to the mid-19th century when the traditional approach was executed with little indication of a proper system. Egypt has started to improve the application of CHM system in their heritage sites relying on sustainability principles for a few decades (Tassie & Hassan, 2004).

Egypt has faced severe social and political conditions since 2011 and many heritage sites were looted and destroyed due to the absence of a system for management and insufficient restoration and maintenance of cultural heritage sites. It is obvious that Egypt has serious problems at the cultural heritage landscape sites caused by the lack of comprehensive vision for management and conservation (Nofal, 2011; Marzouk, Metawie, & Ali, 2016).

The Supreme Council of Antiquities became the first responsible authority in Egypt - under the supervision of the Ministry of Culture - for the management and conservation of archeological sites (Hang & Kong, 2008; Cooper & Helmy, 2010). This Council has various responsibilities such as conservation and renewal works, research and scientific studies, the management and monitoring all the cultural heritage sites (Cooper & Helmy, 2010). However, there are other administrative organs and bodies concerned with cultural heritage and cultural landscapes in Egypt and they are working to assist the Supreme Council of Antiquities, each one in its fields (Nofal, 2011).

The majority of the archaeological sites, including the WHS like Giza pyramids and Saqqarah, are suffering from the lack of an integrated program of site management. This inadequacy can cause negative impacts for the conservation of the monuments as well as the tourist experience. Besides, Egypt confronts difficulties to preserve these sites because of its unhealthy financial situation. The government can hardly allocate sufficient budget for these treasures' upkeep (Hang & Kong, 2008). Therefore, many international associations are supporting numerous of heritage sites in Egypt financially, in particular for restoration, conservation, and technical support (Tassie & Hassan, 2004).

In the last five decades, a lot of attempts have been made in order to ameliorate the cultural heritage sites and their facilities. Accordingly, many changes have been undertaken in legislation framework and in the planning process. Despite all the efforts of authorities, many obstacles such as economic, social, technical and political problems- still stand which make the implementation a hard work (Abada, 2008). Generally, the governmental bodies in Egypt give more attention to the world cultural heritage sites in UNESCO list and they disregard other cultural heritage sites which are not registered in the list.

Comparison of Cultural Heritage Management in Turkey and Egypt

Turkey and Egypt have affluent cultural heritage properties which are seen as essential elements of the tourism supply for both countries. The management approach of nations for these properties changes according to many things, i.e. cultural background, political view, prosperity level. Notwithstanding, it is possible to make comparisons of two countries' approach with the help of some basic factors. In this study, the comparison of cultural heritage management in Turkey and Egypt is

presented according to various criteria indicating the legal, organizational, and governance differences and similarities (Table 1).

The data and the information used in this comparative study have been collected from different sources, e.g. secondary sources, literature review, interviews with professionals. It is aimed to offer as much an exhaustive comprehension as to evaluate the cultural heritage management approach in both countries that is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Cultural Heritage Management in Turkey and Egypt: A Comparative Analysis

| CRITERIA | EGYPT | TURKEY |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| | WORLD HERITAGE | |
| Signing the World Heritage Convention | • 1974 | • 1983 |
| (UNESCO Convention concerning the | | |
| Protection of the World Cultural and | | |
| Natural Heritage) | | |
| UNESCO list Heritage Sites | Cultural sites:5 | Cultural sites:15 |
| | Natural sites :1 | Natural sites: None |
| | Mixed sites: 1 | Mixed sites: 2 |
| Tentative list | • 33 heritage sites | • 71 heritage sites |
| World Heritage in Danger | One cultural heritage site (Abu Mena) | • None |
| The recent Heritage Site inscribed | • Whale valley (2002) | Archeological site of Ani (2016) |
| ICOMOS Membership | Egypt is not a member in ICOMOS | Turkey is a member in ICOMOS |
| (ICOMOS National Committee) | ICOMOS national committee doesn't establish in Egypt | In 1974 Turkey established ICOMOS Turkey National which carried out their work in the context of international practices and ICOMOS guideline |
| | Legal and Institutional Framewo | ork |
| Legal Framework | Egyptian law on the protection of Antiquities: law No.117 of 1983 | Significant changes in existing law are made for the protection of cultural assets in the last period in Turkey: |
| | In 2010 new legislation: Law No.3 of 2010 Although Egypt has the legislation and laws to protect the heritage sites but actually till now these laws are not effective as a result of various economic, political, technical social problems. | On 25/4/1973 the Antiquities Act No. 1710, Republic is the first general-protection legislation. In 1983 many modifications have been occurred e.g. the removal of No. of Cultural and Natural Heritage Protection Act 2863; these modifications have been conducted at different dates in the law. Currently, Turkey is depending on the Cultural and Natural Heritage |

| Institutional framework/Administration and organizational structure (for cultural heritage management and conservation) | Ministry of Antiquities Ministry of culture: The supreme council of Egyptian antiquities (under the umbrella of the Ministry of Culture.) This council is responsible for several tasks such as restoration, and renovation, management and supervision of all the archaeological historical sites including museums Ministry of Tourism Municipalities (by Law 144 in 2006) | Protection Act 2863which is issued in 1983. In 2003, Turkey has adopted around ten laws and regulations, which had various implications for heritage protection. In 2004 and 5226 some modifications have been made, it was the final version of law which changed heritage management in Turkey (important changes). Law 5226 was an important law as it mentioned to some essential concepts and definitions, it altered the role of local authorities and their responsibilities. Also, created new financial resources for municipalities to carry out conservation, changed organizational structures and devolved responsibilities to local authorities Other laws which set forth provisions regarding the use and construction conditions in the heritage Site are, firstly, "Zoning Law" numbered 3194, "Law on Preservation by Renovation and Utilization by Revitalization of Deteriorated Historical and Cultural Properties" numbered 5366 and "Tourism Encouragement Law" number 2634. In addition (secondly), "Metropolitan Municipality Law" numbered 5216 and "Municipality Law" numbered 5393 which address the management of the Site is in effect as general laws. The management conducted mostly by the central Government in Turkey The role of central Government is more dominant in Turkey The Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MoCT) with its central, regional and local branches is the primary agency with management authority in heritage conservation. It is the main authority concerned with the implementation of the World Heritage Convention, managing issues relating to cultural and natural properties, including tourism The main body responsible for cultural heritage in the MoCT is the GDCHM (the General Directorate of Cultural Heritage and Museums) Regional Conservation Councils (RCCs), which are responsible for 'scientifically guiding the intervention in immovable cultural and natural property throughout the country'; their main role is to approve |
|--|--|--|
|--|--|--|

Heritage Documentation • Many entities in Egypt are interested in the documentation of • The organizations interested in documentation and preservation of cultural the heritage sites especially those registered as monuments in heritage in Turkey are increasing in number almost every day, but they need the ministry of state of antiquities to be completed as soon as possible for effective conservation interventions • The National Center for Documentation of Cultural and • There are two departments in Ankara which are responsible for research Natural Heritage (CultNat) was established and documentation of monuments and cultural heritage sites • The Center aims to apply the latest technological innovations The General Directorate of Monuments and Museums. in documentation and dissemination of Egypt's cultural ✓ The General Directorate of Conservation with branch offices in major heritage, the tangible and intangible. towns. • Many CULTNAT projects are devoted to document the tangible heritage, such as the Archeological map of Egypt which utilizes multimedia in conjunction with Geographical Information Systems (GIS) technologies to create an effective documentation and management tool for ancient Egyptian archeological sites Evaluation of current situation in cultural heritage sites in Turkey and Egypt Current challenges in heritage sites 1.1 The limited perception of official bodies of heritage areas The problems related to national World Heritage management system that are common problems found in all World Heritage Sites of Turkey: regardless of their historical value 1.1 Management Plan and lack of policy formulations the most important 1.2 The overlapping of the administrative responsibilities of the obstacle in effective management and protection of WHSs in Turkey authorized governmental bodies in most heritage sites in 1.2 Administrative Structure: lack of necessary communication and Egypt. cooperation between institutions interested in heritage and conservation 1.3 The shortage of legislations for Conservation and 1.3 Buffer Zone: In Turkey, no World Heritage Sites have any buffer zone. **Preservation in some aspects.** it seems that is not clear especially when selecting some proposed development World Heritage Sites are facing serious problems due to increased projects to be conducted in these areas number of tourists, urbanization and construction activities. 1.4. Limited financial resources for conservation and 1.4. Financial Resources: Available financial resources for conservation and development of World Heritage are not sufficient for all areas. development of heritage sites in Egypt and depending on 1.5. Tourism/Visitor Management Plan: There is no appropriate public use international funds and UNESCO assistance. plan (tourism/visitor management plan) for World Heritage Sites in Turkey. 1.5 Lack of awareness about the value of these heritage sites in 1.6. Information shortage and Promotion Deficiency: Lack of recognition, particular amongst a large number of officials and decision orientation and even insufficient information signs in Turkey's all World makers, and the local community. Heritage sites. 1.6 Resorting to local solutions and formal treatments in urban 1.7. Local people residing within surrounding areas of heritage sites are Conservation in historical areas in Egypt. This has led to poorly aware of their values and protected status. the vanishing of some distinctive cultural values in these 1.8. Lack of sufficient communication and cooperation among stakeholders areas. working for the preservation of World Heritage Sites.

| | 1.7 The neglected impacts of development projects when dealing with heritage, these impacts have resulted in radical changes in the historical areas regardless of the role of the citizens or the local communities in the processes 1.8 No comprehensive vision to deal with the Egyptian heritage sites All the Egyptian authorities dealing with the heritage sites with one single approach without taking into consideration the differences between the nature of these sites. | 1.9. Monitoring: In the Turkish World Heritage Sites, there is no official monitoring activity to check the effectiveness of management programs. 1.10. Staff Problems 1.11. Inadequate facilities especially sites not included in the UNESCO list and lacking of laboratory and storage areas. 1.12. Abandonment: archaeological sites are abandoned when the excavation work is finished. Many archaeological sites in Turkey are open to theft, illegal excavation or looting. 1.13. Ongoing excavations are conducted by Turkish and foreign scientists, but storage areas are adequate to either contain or display the finds. 1.14. Lack of mitigation efforts: There are no mitigation efforts taken against natural or other environmental disasters in Turkey. 1.15. Fragmentation of heritage activities is the second notable feature of the system. Besides many bodies within the MoCT, the GDF, the Turkish Parliament and even the Ministry of Defense play roles at different points in the heritage chain 1.16. Lack of communication between tourism and cultural sectors |
|--|--|---|
| Role of Non- Governmental initiatives in | Some individual popular and volunteer efforts have emerged. | Civil public associations |
| cultural heritage sites | Also, some private institutions became active, representing | Foundations |
| | civil society recently involved in this field. • The efforts of NGOs include the conservation, development, | Chambers of Architects All of them are active in both the cultural and natural heritage fields in |
| | and renovation of some heritage sites in Egypt. | Turkey |
| | Management plan approach in Turkey | and Egypt |
| Site management plan | There are some site management plans for specific world | The Management Plan approach occurred firstly in 1994. This |
| | heritage sites in Egypt, but most of them are not effective and just "paper plans" | development can be described as a requirement for the sites that placed at World Heritage list and the Tentative List. |
| | Jane haber huma | The Ministry of Culture and Tourism and Municipalities are responsible |
| | | for preparing plans for archaeological, natural and historic conservation sites, as well as those urban conservation sites not attached to any |
| | | municipality |
| Sustainable management practice within | | There is a council to provide the sustainability of the management process |
| the management system | development principles in their practices, but when it comes to the issue of sustainability of archaeological sites, this | in heritage sites under the control of the central government. |
| | objective seems to be too general. | |
| Visitor management | There is a shortage of visitor centers and visitor management | There is no appropriate public use plan (tourism/visitor management plan) |

| Local community involvement in cultural heritage management | activities and programs in many Egyptian archeological sites Most of the archaeological sites need to provide advanced interpretive and techniques in order to improve the visitor experience and, reduce the pressure of visitation. Egyptian authorities paying little attention to the local community in cultural heritage management even in the world heritage sites (ex. Conflict between local community and the state in Giza Pyramids project) | for World Heritage Sites in Turkey. T and here is a shortage of visitor centers in cultural and natural sites in Turkey. There is a gradually increase in local community participation in managing heritage sites in order to improve their image as protectors of the heritage sites. UNESCO appreciated Turkey's approach to enhancing community involvement as an example of 'international best practices'. |
|---|---|---|
| Financial management for heritages sites | Lack of funds: The Egyptian authorities can only put limited budget for the up keeping of the heritage sites. They give the attention mostly to the urgent tasks such as restoration and renovations. This might reflect directly on the effectiveness of implementing policies and strategies for cultural heritage sites. | lack of financial sources of central and local Governments for conserving the heritage Mostly, the central government in Turkey is doing the best to develop projects despite the lack of sponsors and resources. According to the law, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism is providing the financial support for maintenance and restoration, as well as other institutions which specify from their budget. |
| Monitoring the plans and conservation projects in heritage sites as an apart of CHM | The Supreme Council of Egyptian Antiquities This council is responsible for several tasks such as restoration researches, excavation, renovation, management and supervision of all heritage sites including Museums Also, the Council is responsible for tourism management: Planning and managing tourism activities in heritage sites; define the acceptable carrying capacity of every site; evaluating the impacts of tourism on archaeological sites. | A representative from the MoCT (almost museum staff) is monitoring the Turkish and foreign Archaeologists. Although, the planning and implementation process are undertaking in Turkey, but the reviewing and monitoring stage is always a missing part. As a result, the sustainability concept cannot be mentioned |
| Human resources | However, Egypt has an adequate number of archaeologists and architects, but there is shortage in some expertise especially site planners, site managers, and impact evaluators for historical sites This confirms that there is lack of professionals with management and planning educational backgrounds. | Limited financial resources and lake of professional experts make the decisions to save a damaged building or site in Turkey so difficult and critical. |

Source: Adopted by researchers from Abada,2008; Boztaş, 2014; Cooper & Helmy,2010; Fushiya, 2013; Günlü et al., 2009; Hang & Kong, 2008; Human, 2015; ICOMOS, Turkey, 2017; Kilic, 2008; Luke, 2013; Marzouk et al., 2016; MOCT, 2017; Nofal, 2011; Özdoğan, 2013; Saraç, 2003; Somuncu & Yiğit, 2010; Tassie, 2004; Tawab,2012; Ulusan & Yüncü, 2016; UNESCO, Egypt, 2017; UNESCO, Turkey, 2017; Ünver, 2006; Yıldırım, 2015; Yıldız, 2010.

According to the Table (1), the main results concerning the cultural heritage management context in Turkey and Egypt are as follows:

Legal and Institutional Framework of cultural heritage; it is clear that both countries are trying to update their legislation and laws in order to ensure more protection for their cultural heritage sites. Unfortunately, these efforts encounter many obstacles due to several economic, social, technical and political problems which make the implementation a harder one. It seems that both countries have some difficulties when selecting some proposed development projects to be conducted in these areas. In this moment, some conflicting interests appear between some authorities and developers. In recent years, several important modifications in the current laws were made in order to preserve the heritage properties in both countries and this reflects positively on managing the cultural heritage, e.g. the modifications in the Turkish cultural heritage legislation concentrated on decentralization of the government power. In this context, increased roles, responsibilities and funding resources were given to local authorities, as well as incentives to the private bodies in order to protect the cultural and natural heritage (Yıldırım, 2015).

By comparing the organizational structures in Turkey and Egypt it can be noticed that the role of central government is dominant in both countries, the management is conducted mostly by the central government. Furthermore, in both countries, there are various governmental authorities who are in charge of managing world heritage sites and this cause overlapping in responsibilities. However, Turkey has a very important advantage as The Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MoCT) is the primary agency with management authority in heritage conservation. This Ministry is responsible for managing culture and tourism under one administrative authority, so it becomes easier for managing the heritage sites within two dimensions.

Current situation of the world heritage properties in both countries; although Egypt signed on the world heritage convention for the protection of cultural and natural sites 10 years before Turkey did, it seems that Turkey is going in a more progressive way concerning the WHL.

As it appears from the comparative study, the ICOMOS National Committee in Egypt is still under construction, although ICOMOS Turkey National Committee was established in 1974 and it operates within the framework of international practices. Regarding the world heritage list and the tentative list in both countries, many of properties are archaeological sites, although both countries have many exceptional

natural and mixed sites that could potentially be inscribed in the world heritage list.

Egypt has very rich cultural and natural heritage sites but only 7 heritage sites are inscribed in WHL which is unparalleled with the richness of Egypt. On the other hand, Turkey has 17 heritage sites inscribed in UNESCO list. Furthermore, the number of Turkish heritage sites inscribed in WHL is increasing each year, the last Turkish heritage site was inscribed in 2017, while the last Egyptian heritage site was included in WHL in 2005, and it seems that Turkey is actively working more than Egypt. With regard to the year of the inscription, it is obvious that five of Egyptian heritage sites inscribed in 1979 and from this year till 2005 Egypt did not submit nomination proposals for any property. In other words, Egypt seems to lose its motivation to inscribe its heritage properties to WHS since 2005. Additionally, Turkey is trying to prepare the nominated sites to meet the criteria for inscription with continuous, stable and, more progressive ways.

Regarding the evaluation of current situation in cultural heritage sites in Turkey and Egypt; it is clearly shown that the cultural heritage sites in both countries are suffering from continuous threats. These threats can be divided into two main categories. Firstly, general threats which are facing all sites and related to the national system of WHS management. Secondly, the threats which are related to particular heritage sites. These threats can be categorized into high risky threats as management deficiencies, large-scale development projects and others might be called common threats like; shortage in the legal framework, looting, lack of authenticity, environmental conservation, threats pressure, unrestrained visitation, lack of financial and human resources. Similarities about the threats on the cultural heritage sites are observed in both countries.

Management plan approach; the findings have clarified that there is a lack of management plan for heritage sites in both countries. In fact, the situation in Egypt is worse than Turkey as most of the existing management plans are only "papers plans" without effective actions and sometimes the plans do not follow the time frame so it results in many delays in implementation. It is obvious that there is a lack in visitor management programs and visitor centers in both countries, especially for the heritage sites that are not included in UNESCO list. Hence, there is a necessity for both countries to conduct new policies and approaches particularly for visitor and resource management.

Additionally, it is observed that there is a lack of *local community involvement* in heritage management in Egypt. Some development projects conducted in the heritage areas has not taken the opinions of local community into the consideration. As a result, conflicts between authorities and the local communities occur in Egypt. On the contrary, UNESCO appreciated the Turkish efforts to raise the local community participation in management and development plans.

In terms of *financial management* of the heritages sites, it seems that the situation is almost the same for both countries. Mainly, the central governments are providing funds to develop projects. However, the funds are limited in both countries. Egypt is eager to allocate limited funds to urgent sites that need restoration and renovation whereas in Turkey it is the various governmental bodies and to some extent the sponsors who support the heritage sites.

Finally, the comparative study revealed that there is an absence of collaboration among *stakeholders* and this can affect the heritage sites negatively. Moreover, there is no integration between the city plans and the conservation plans, so this can lead to inefficiencies in creating and pursuing the monitoring systems of these sites in both countries.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Evaluating and comparing the cultural heritage management approaches of Turkey and Egypt cases, which are two countries with quite different historical background but owning very rich cultural heritage sites, produced some valuable findings for the researchers and governing bodies in both countries.

This comparative study highlighted that general situation concerning the management of heritage sites does not seem different and despite the richness of both countries, they are suffering from the poor management systems for their cultural heritage sites due to several obstacles and threats. Regarding the presence of heritage sites in World Heritage List, Egypt appears to be less motivated than Turkey to inscribe its sites to WHL, especially since 2005. Thus, Egypt should give more attention to accelerate the inscription of new heritage sites in UNESCO list. Using the prestige of being in the WHL to attract more tourists at the one hand, and applying mitigation measures to eliminate the negative impacts of various threats, on the other hand, could provide opportunities

for managing these sites better. However, these benefits are not recognized well by both countries even Turkey is slightly better than Egypt in some cases. Hence, it is recommended to the governing bodies in both countries to take necessary actions, firstly, to inscribe their heritage sites, which have outstanding value as World Heritage Sites and secondly, to manage these sites sustainably according to the universal criteria.

New strategies and policies should be adopted in both countries for managing the heritage sites effectively. Therefore, there is an urgent need to put priorities while dealing with important issues, e.g., the absence of management plans, lack of collaboration among stakeholders, deficiency of international investment and poor level of awareness. For Egypt, it is better to establish an authoritative entity that works under the supervision of the Ministry of Tourism in order to manage tourism activities at cultural and historical sites.

Degree of centralization of management is so high in both countries which creates some problems like delays in renovations, protecting the sites properly, and taking necessary actions. It is recommended to decentralize the monitoring and management of all heritage sites in both countries.

Supporting the collaboration between the public and the private sectors, particularly in the implementation phase, could be realized through different ways. There are several examples of partnership between public and private sectors in conserving heritage sites, e.g. in Spain, Italy, UK, US and Australia. The success of such collaboration aiming to protect and conserve the heritage sites depends mainly on the payoffs that the private companies are offered. For example, in Italy, the government gave the private sector some incentives such as tax reduction when they support the heritage sites financially (Fuligni, 2015). In US, the private sector and government collaborates in order to reuse some historical buildings which now allow the public access. The partnership between private and public sectors also supports the infrastructure projects which are serving the heritage sites (Macdonald& Cheong, 2014). Including the local community in the management of heritage sites, especially for the conservation of these sites, is crucial. The management process needs to be practiced within the legislative context which seeks for the partnership with the local community to raise their awareness about the values of these sites through conducting various programs and campaigns.

In addition, there is a necessity to benefit from tourist guides and travel agents in both countries so as to minimize the harmful impacts of tourism activities on heritage properties. For instance, travel agents can put limits on the number of groups who visit the heritage sites or direct the visitors to respect the environment, local traditions and values, and to follow the code of ethics in the heritage sites with regard to minimizing the harmful behaviors (Imon, Dioko, & Ong, 2007).

On the other hand, documentation and inventory of the cultural heritage in Turkey urgently needs to be completed for effective conservation. Additionally, it is vital to identify buffer zones to eliminate the construction nearby WHS, as well as there is an urgent need to apply the integrated approach between the city plans and conservation plans. It is recommended for both countries to give more attention to visitor management plans, particularly to develop visitor centers, in order to improve visitor experiences at heritage sites and minimize the negative impacts. As a final point, the governmental bodies which are responsible for managing cultural heritage sites in both countries should increase the number of qualified people who are able to work as planners and site managers.

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WHY DO SO FEW LOCAL PEOPLE VISIT NATIONAL PARKS? EXAMINING THE CONSTRAINTS ON ANTALYA'S NATIONAL PARKS IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

National parks are significant tourism and recreational areas that are widely used in many countries. Although such areas are widespread in Turkey, their resource value is underestimated. For this reason, this research aims to identify the constraints regarding local people's use of national parks and investigate the effects of demographic features on these constraints. This research conducted in Antalya, which is the city with the most national park areas in Turkey. Mixed method approach was applied in this study. In the first stage, a sample of 100 people in Antalya were interviewed. In the second stage, a questionnaire was given to 2,367 people. The three-dimensional leisure constraints model was used as the study's theoretical framework. The findings showed that lack of information/facilities (structural) was the main restriction on local people's use of national parks, followed by accessibility/finance (structural), maintenance (structural), social (interpersonal) and individual/ psychological (intrapersonal) factors. Use of national parks was also affected by demographic features of sex, age, marital status, having a child, income and education level. In conclusion, the existence of structural constraints as dominant national park use is advantageous in constraint management. The Turkish national parks and the tourism authorities should therefore change their management strategies regarding this issue.

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INTRODUCTION

The notion of the national park, as the new form of "area use" first developed in the USA (Runte, 2010) in 1872, following the announcement of Yellowstone National Park. This notion of national park management was then adopted in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and Mexico before the 19th century ended, before spreading in Europe in the early 19th century. Initially, although the main purpose in developing national parks was nature protection, the recreational and tourism activities performed in these areas formed the building block of national park understanding. While using national parks as a resource for recreation and tourism provided economic benefits, it also aimed to protect the natural and cultural heritage, and support increased quality of life (Eagles & McCool, 2004). Although demand for national parks has increased significantly over the last century in the USA and Canada, which are considered as the leading countries in national parks, a decrease in the number of visitors has been reported (Stevens, More, & Markowski-Lindsay, 2014). While the current debate in these countries where the national park system is highly developed has been over how to sustain the present structure, in Turkey, instead, the current debate is focused on developing the national park system. For example, according to a report published by the American Travel Union (2014), at least 40% of Americans, out of a population of approximately 320 million, have visited a national park at least once in the last five years (As cited in Miller & Washington, 2014). Furthermore, when other areas in the country subsidiary to the National Park Services (NPS) are included, the number of visitors is 331 million (National Park Service Annual Visitation Highlights, 2017). In Turkey, however, the demand to visit national parks is below the desired level due to a lack of resource value, and insufficient numbers of local people or foreign visitors. According to 2016 data, the number of visitors (both local and foreign) who visited Turkey's 42 national parks was about 17 million (General Directorate of Nature Conservation and National Parks, 2017), even though the population of the country is 80 million (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2017a) and the number of foreign visitors is 31 million (Association of Turkish Travel Agencies, 2017). While the number of the national park visitors in Turkey represents 21% of Turkey's population, when the number of tourists is taken into consideration, this decreases further. One of the reasons for low figure, in comparison to developed countries, is that Turkey's national park system was only started in the late 1950s. It is also necessary to conduct exploratory research regarding the use of national park areas in Turkey to identify the present situation

and people's understanding. One of this research subject is to determine the factors that affect the use of national parks by local people. To develop the national park system in Turkey, it is necessary to identify the constraints on people's use of national parks. Accordingly, this study aims to determine these constraints, identify the demographic factors underlying them, thereby contributing to the literature and helping to eliminate the aforementioned deficiencies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies on leisure constraints started in the 1970s and became highly developed in the 1990s (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Leisure obstacles, barriers and preventers were identified as prohibitory factors. The focus of leisure constraint research was initially on the barriers to people's participation in recreational activities. While the term barrier refers to not taking part in a recreational activity, the term constraint is defined as a limit to "joining to an activity or limiting the level of pleasure" (Jackson, 1988). Crawford and Godbey (1987) argue that constraints affect not only participation but also adoption of leisure preferences. The term *leisure constraints* is interrelated and dimensional. The most popular and known classification related to this term is the hierarchical model (Shores, Scott, & Floyd, 2007) developed by Crawford et al. (1991). According to this model, leisure constraints can be classified under three categories: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural. Intrapersonal constraints relate to stress, anxiety, perceived skills, etc., intrapersonal and personal psychological conditions, interpersonal constraints, family disinterest, lack of a partner etc. and social interaction. include constraints, which Structural financial resources, transportation, suitability of opportunities, family life lifecycle, businessoccupational-professional life and climate, are exogenous. Crawford et al. (1991) found that interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints have more effect on selection of leisure time activities whereas structural constraints have more effect on participation selection. According to the same study, personal constraints are the most powerful of the leisure constraints whereas structural constraints are less powerful.

The dimensions of leisure constraints have been applied to a number of specific groups participating in leisure time activities (Thapa, 2012). The most widely developed constraints in the literature concerning parks and recreation are insufficient time, transportation, accompanying person, distance, cost, family responsibility, fear and bad air conditions

(Zanon, Doucouliagos, Hall, & Lockstone-Binney, 2013). Other well-established constraints are lacking awareness (Lawton & Weaver, 2008; Pennington-Gray, Thapa, & Holland, 2002) and lack of information/knowledge (Alberta Community Development, 2000; Godbey, Graefe, & James, 1992; Le & Holmes, 2012; Scott & Kim, 1998; Virden & Yoshioka, 1992; Walker & Crompton, 2013).

Another point to focus on is what other factors influence these constraints. While earlier studies focused on race or gender distinctions, recent studies have extended to other demographic factors like socioeconomic status, income, educational level and place of residence. Some studies have investigated how social inequality affects participation in outdoor recreation activities. However, because of that limited sample size and geographic coverage, many studies often failed to examine the perceived constraints faced by these groups (Ghimire, Green, Poudyal, & Cordell, 2014). Thus, although there is strong evidence that age, sex, race and education limit park visits (Zanon et al., 2013), there is no consensus on the matter.

METHODOLOGY

The Research Area

Antalya province in southern Turkey was chosen as the area of research, mainly because it has the most national parks (5), a dense population and many visitors, which are a resource value for the region. The city is Turkey's fifth largest city (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2017b) with the population of 2,328,555. Antalya is one of the country's most significant tourism and recreation centers with its natural, cultural and structural features, hosting more than 10 million overseas tourists per year.

Research Design

A mixed method approach was employed in this study to determine the constraints affecting local people's use of Antalya's national parks. In social research, a mixed method approach involves collecting two or more types of data, often both qualitative and quantitative, and planning the analysis techniques accordingly (Greene, Kreider, & Mayer, 2005). While qualitative research methods examine in detail, quantitative method make it possible to reach many participants. Using these two approaches

together therefore provides an opportunity to understand the research problem better than by employing each approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). In addition, the leading reason for employing mixed methods in a study is that, when quantitative and qualitative methods are used in time sequence, the quantitative data study helps the qualitative dimension of the study (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). Another reason for using a mixed method approach is that, in constraints research, it is useful to develop a question pool of constraint items so that researchers can adopt these for the constraint scales in order to meet their needs (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001).

Qualitative Approach: Interview

To determine the constraints limiting the use of national parks by local people, the researchers employed a half-restructuring technique. In this study, 100 people (52% women, 48% men, average age: 36.49±14.80 years), living in Antalya Province voluntarily participated in the study in the period March-April 2016. In order for national park use distribution to be balanced, the participants were first asked "Do you visit national parks in your leisure time?".47% of the participants had used the national parks while 53% had not. During the interviews, which lasted about 5-6 minutes, the participants were asked about the constraints affecting their visits to national parks and their responses were recorded on forms. The interview forms were collected by the researchers for coding by the quantitative analysis method(Strauss & Corbin, 1990). To begin coding, the sentences entered in the interview forms were first conceptualized then similar concepts were collated and schematized as: transportation (27.4%), cost (13.2%), work load density (11.3%), time (10.4%), disinterest (9.4%), lack of maintenance of the area (6.6%), lack of transportation (4.7%), safety (3.8%), social environment (3.8%), entrance fees (2.8%), health problems (1.9%), insufficient tour organization (1.9%).

Quantitative Approach: Questionnaire Study

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of three sections. To determine participants' use of national parks the following question was asked, after giving information about the national park concept: "Do you visit national parks in your leisure time?" (61.2% "Yes", 38.8% "No"). For the next section, a pool of 31 questions was formed based on the literature

(Kruger & Douglas, 2015; Lawton & Weaver, 2008; Mowen, Payne, & David, 2005; Nadirova & Jackson, 2000; Pennington-Gray et al., 2002; Shores et al., 2007; Thapa, 2012; Zanon et al., 2013) to identify the national park constraints relevant to the participants, based on the three-dimensional Hierarchical Model (Crawford et al., 1991) used in previous studies on leisure constraints. The themes identified in the interviews in the first part of the study were contrasted with the question pool to determine whether the question pool covered the themes obtained from the interview study. This demonstrated that there was no need to add extra propositions to the questionnaire beyond those obtained from the interview study themes. Participants responded to the questionnaire through a five-point Likert scale with "1, I strongly disagree" to "5, I totally agree". The final part of the questionnaire asked for demographic information about the participants (Table 1).

The questionnaire was administered through face-to-face survey method in May-October 2016 with 3,000 voluntary participants residing in Antalya region. Of these, 363 participants (12.1%) stated that they had no idea whatsoever about national parks so their data was discarded from the study, leaving 2,637 people. The statistical analysis of the data obtained was performed through SPSS 21.

Table 1. *Sample characteristics* (*N*=2367)

| Gender | | | Marital sta | tus | | Children | | |
|---------|------|-------|-------------|------|-------|------------------|------|-------|
| Females | 1172 | 44.4% | Single | 1774 | 67.3% | Yes | 788 | 29.9% |
| Males | 1465 | 55.6% | Married | 863 | 32.7% | No | 1849 | 70.1% |
| Age | | | Income (TI | _*) | | Level of educati | on | |
| 18 > | 110 | 4.2% | 1500 > | 422 | 16.0% | Primary school | 66 | 2.5% |
| 18-25 | 1036 | 39.3% | 1500-2500 | 759 | 28.8% | Secondary | 189 | 7.2% |
| 26-35 | 729 | 27.6% | 2501-3500 | 727 | 27.6% | school | | |
| 36-45 | 346 | 13.1% | 3501 < | 729 | 27.6% | High school | 763 | 28.9% |
| 46-55 | 283 | 10.7% | | | | University | 1619 | 61.4% |
| 56-65 | 106 | 4.0% | | | | - | | |
| 65 < | 27 | 1.0% | | | | | | |

^{*1\$=3.79}TL (11.01.2017)

RESULTS

To reveal the factorial structure of issues related to local people's views about the constraints on national park usage, an exploratory factor analysis was performed using Varimax Rotation (KMO .92) and the

Bartlett test (p<.05). Cross-loading and low communality items were discarded from the scale, leaving 24 items. The eigenvalue of the scale, ranging between 4.30 and 2.05, formed of 5 dimensions that accounted for 62.2% of the total variance (Table 2). For each dimension, a validity analysis was carried out to establish that the Cronbach's alpha value of each dimension was at an acceptable level (I= .881, II= .828, III= .798, IV= .820, V= .720).

Table 2. Factor analysis of NP usage constraints items

| | M | SD | I | II | III | IV | V |
|---|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| I-INDIVIDUAL/PSYCHOLOGIC | 2.35 | .86 | | | | | |
| Have physical/health problem | 2.22 | 1.10 | .83 | | | | |
| No abilities to participate | 2.37 | 1.11 | .80 | | | | |
| Fear of the forest/natural areas | 2.27 | 1.09 | .76 | | | | |
| Feel uncomfortable in natural areas | 2.37 | 1.09 | .68 | | | | |
| Have physical disabilities/health problem in | 2.36 | 1.21 | .68 | | | | |
| family | | | | | | | |
| Lack of equipment for outdoor activities | 2.60 | 1.18 | .66 | | | | |
| Don't like the outdoor activities | 2.33 | 1.09 | .62 | | | | |
| II-ACCESSIBILITY/FINANCE | 3.12 | .86 | | | | | |
| Expensive entrance fees | 3.12 | 1.17 | | .77 | | | |
| Lack of transportation | 3.32 | 1.09 | | .70 | | | |
| Distance to NP is too far from Antalya centrum | 3.30 | 1.09 | | .69 | | | |
| Lack of financial means | 2.75 | 1.11 | | .68 | | | |
| Lack of time | 3.14 | 1.13 | | .47 | | | |
| III-LACK OF INFORMATION/FACILITIES | 3.40 | .81 | | | | | |
| Limited information and knowledge about NP | 3.61 | 1.15 | | | .80 | | |
| No organized tours to NP | 3.47 | 1.07 | | | .73 | | |
| Limited information what to do in NP | 3.42 | 1.14 | | | .73 | | |
| Inadequate activity areas in NP | 3.22 | 1.04 | | | .61 | | |
| Lack of accommodations in NP | 3.28 | 1.05 | | | .56 | | |
| IV-SOCIAL | 2.77 | .93 | | | | | |
| Family/friends not interested in visiting NP | 2.83 | 1.17 | | | | .81 | |
| Family/friends preferred to different activities | 3.00 | 1.14 | | | | .69 | |
| in their leisure time | | | | | | | |
| No one to go with | 2.61 | 1.18 | | | | .66 | |
| NP is not place to go with family in leisure time | 2.67 | 1.12 | | | | .58 | |
| V-MAINTAINTENANCE | 2.94 | .85 | | | | | |
| NP is overcrowded | 2.85 | 1.01 | | | | | .70 |
| NP not well-maintained | 3.01 | 1.06 | | | | | .63 |
| Poor conditions of the roads in NP | 2.97 | 1.10 | | | | | .56 |
| Eigenvalue | | | 4.30 | 3.16 | 2.90 | 2.52 | 2.05 |
| % of variance explained | | | 17.93 | 13.17 | 12.10 | 10.48 | 8.54 |
| Cumulative % of variance explained | | | 17.93 | 31.10 | 43.20 | 53.68 | 62.22 |
| KMO: .918; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 30498.81 (. | 000) | | | | | | |

The dimensions that emerged concerning constraints on national individual/psychological, park follows: were named as accessibility/finance, lack of information/facilities, social and maintenance. The results obtained displayed similarity to the hierarchical model Crawford et al. (1991) with three dimensions: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. However, in the current study, the structural constraints were divided into three parts: accessibility/finance, lack of information/facilities and maintenance. The lack of information/facilities dimension (3.40), which was the main constraint in people's use of national parks, was followed by accessibility/finance (3.12), maintenance (2.94), social (2.98) and individual/psychological (2.78). The total score for the scale, ranging between 24 and 120, was obtained by adding the scores from all 24 items. A higher score indicates a higher level of perceived constraints, with a mean score of 69.11.

Use of National Park and National Park Visitation Constraints

An independent t-test was conducted to compare National Park Visitation Constraints (NPVC) scores for the National Park users and National Park non-users. There was a significant difference in the scores for in total and all sub-dimensions (p=.000). These test result suggest that NPVC scores of the participants who had visited national parks in their leisure time was lower than those who had not visited any national park in total (t=-20.04, p<.001) and all sub-dimensions (I. t= -17.98, p<.001: II. t= -12.74, p<.001; III. t=-5.98, p<.001, IV. t= -14.04, p<.001, V.t= 21.79, p<.001).

Table 3. Perceived constraints visitors and non-visitors to NP

| | Yes | No | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|--------|------|
| | (n=1614) | (n=1023) | t | р |
| Total Score | 2.69±.59 | 3.18±.61 | -20.04 | .000 |
| I-Individual/Psychologic | 2.13±.78 | $2.72 \pm .85$ | -17.98 | .000 |
| II-Accessibility/Finance | 2.96±.84 | 3.39±.83 | -12.74 | .000 |
| III-Lack of Information/Facilities | 3.33±.81 | 3.52±.79 | -5.98 | .000 |
| IV-Social | 2.77±.82 | $3.22 \pm .82$ | -14.04 | .000 |
| V- Maintenance | $2.49 \pm .87$ | $3.23 \pm .84$ | -21.79 | .000 |

Gender and National Park Visitation Constraints

Examination of the total constraint scores of local people who do not visit national parks showed no meaningful difference between men and

 Table 4. Perceived Constraints to NP visitation by gender, marital status and having children

| | | Gender | ler | | | Marital status | tatus | | | Having Children | hildren | |
|--|---------------------|-------------------|-------|------|-------------------|----------------|-------|--------|--------------------|-------------------|---------|------|
| | Female | Male | 7 | | Single | Married | 7 | ş | γes | No | 7 | ; |
| | (n=1172) $(n=1465)$ | (n=1465) | 1 | P | (n=1774) | (n=863) | 1 | ρ | (n=788) $(n=1849)$ | (n=1849) | 1 | р |
| Total Score | 2.87±.63 | 2.87±.63 2.89±.65 | 88 | .381 | 2.86±.63 2.93±.66 | 2.93±.66 | -2.65 | 800° | 2.92±.66 | 2.92±.66 2.86±.64 | 2.44 | .015 |
| I-Individual/Psychologic | $2.29\pm.81$ | 2.29±.81 2.42±.89 | -3.94 | 000. | 2.33±.86 2.42±.85 | $2.42\pm.85$ | -2.33 | .020 | 2.43±.84 2.33±.86 | 2.33±.86 | 2.72 | 200. |
| II-Accessibility/Finance | $3.14\pm.88$ | 3.14±.88 3.12±.86 | .70 | .487 | 3.13±.85 3.14±.87 | $3.14\pm.87$ | 276 | .782 | 3.12±.88 3.13±.85 | $3.13\pm.85$ | 24 | .811 |
| III-Lack of Information/Facilities 3.47±.81 3.35±.80 | 3.47±.81 | 3.35±.80 | 3.68 | .000 | 3.35±.81 3.51±.79 | $3.51\pm.79$ | -4.96 | 000. | 3.51±.79 3.35±.81 | $3.35\pm.81$ | 4.67 | 000. |
| IV-Social | 2.93±.86 | 2.93±.86 2.95±.84 | 55 | .583 | 2.92±.84 3.00±.87 | 3.00±.87 | -2.21 | .027 | 2.99±.88 2.92±.83 | 2.92±.83 | 1.68 | .093 |
| V- Maintenance | 2.74±.92 | 2.74±.92 2.81±.93 | -1.77 | .076 | 2.78±.91 2.78±.96 | 2.78±.96 | 203 | .839 | 2.78±.96 2.78±.91 | 2.78±.91 | 94 | .925 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |

women (p>.05). However, when the sub-dimensions were examined, a difference emerged between individual/psychological and lack of information/facilities. In the individual/psychological subdimension, the average score of men was higher than women's (t=3.94, p=.000), on the other hand in the lack information/facilities of subdimension, women's mean scores were higher than those of men (t=.82, p=.000).

Marital Status and National Park Visitation Constraints

There was also a significant difference between marital status and national constraints scores for the individual/psychological, lack of information/facilities and maintenance dimensions (p<.05). Constraint scores for married national park visitors were higher than those for unmarried visitors, both overall (t=-2.65, p<.05), for individual/psychological and (t=-2.33, p=<.05), lack of information /facilities (t=-4.96,p<.00) and maintenance (t=-2.21, p<.05).

Having Children and National Park Visitation Constraints

There were also significant differences between the total constraint scores of families with children and for individual/psychological and lack of information/facilities dimensions (p<.05; .001). The mean overall scores for national park participant families with children were higher than those of families with no children (t=-2.44, p<.05), as well as for individual/ psychological (t=-2.72, p=<.05) and lack of information/facilities (t=-4.6,7 p<.001).

Age and National Park Visitation Constraints

A significant difference was also determined between age and the national park visitation scale (F=5.61, p<.001) and for all dimensions (I. F=6.72 p<.001; II. F=7.51, p<.001; III.F=4.41, p<.001, IV.F=2.76, p<.05, V.F=3.54, p<.05). In order to further identify this difference, the groups were contrasted with each other using the post hoc Tukey test, as presented in Table 5.

Income and National Park Visitation Constraints

There was a significant statistical difference between income level and the national park constraints scale (F=9.40, p<.001), and for the individual/psychological, (F=10.51, p<.001), accessibility/finance (F=13.90, p<.001) and social (F=9.42, p<.001) dimensions. In order to further identify this difference, the groups were contrasted with each other using a post hoc Tukey test, as shown in Table 5.

Level of Education and National Park Visitation Constraints

There was a significant statistical difference between income level and the national park visitation constraints scale (F=7.28, p<.001), and for individual/psychological, (F=12.10, p<.001), lack of information/facilities (F=6.93, p<.001) and social (F=5.06, p<.05) dimensions. In order to further identify this difference, the groups were contrasted with each other using a post hoc Tukey test, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Perceived Constraints to NP visitation by age, income and education levels

| | | N | Total Score | Factor I | Factor II | Factor III | Factor IV | Factor V |
|--------------------|----------------------|------|----------------|---------------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| | 1) 18 > | 110 | 2.94±.60 | 2.48±.82 | 3.18±.89 | 3.35±.74 | 2.90±.85 | 2.92±.87 |
| | 2) 18-25 | 1036 | 2.89±.61 | 2.35±.86 | 3.23±.80 | $3.34 \pm .81$ | 2.96±.78 | 2.82±.90 |
| | 3) 26-35 | 729 | 2.85±.67 | 2.34±.85 | $3.04 \pm .90$ | $3.39 \pm .83$ | 2.93±.88 | 2.77±.93 |
| | 4) 36-45 | 346 | 2.77±.63 | 2.22±.78 | 2.94±.85 | 3.44±.79 | 2.87±.85 | 2.62±.97 |
| sdı | 5) 46-55 | 283 | 2.92±.65 | 2.42±.85 | $3.16 \pm .88$ | $3.56 \pm .82$ | 2.91±.90 | 2.72±.96 |
| Age groups | 6) 56-65 | 106 | $3.02\pm.73$ | $2.59 \pm .94$ | $3.20 \pm .94$ | $3.46 \pm .69$ | 3.12±.98 | 2.89±.98 |
| 90 00 | 7) 65 < | 27 | $3.35 \pm .80$ | 3.08±1.0 | $3.45 \pm .1.0$ | $3.79 \pm .85$ | 3.40 ± 1.0 | 3.11±1.0 |
| $A_{\mathbf{g}}$ | F | | 6.72 | 7.51 | 4.14 | 2.76 | 3.54 | 5.61 |
| | p | | .000 | .000 | .000 | .011 | .002 | .000 |
| | Post hoc test | | 1<7;2>4;2<7; | 7>6;7>5;7>4; | 2>3;2>4; | 2<5;3<5 | 7>4 | 1>4;2>4 |
| | | | 3<7;4<5;4<6; | 7>3;7>2;7>1; | 4<5;4<7 | | | |
| | | | 4<7;5<7 | 6>4 | | | | |
| | 1) 1500 > | 422 | 2.98±.53 | 2.43±.79 | 3.31±.80 | $3.40 \pm .73$ | 3.02±.77 | 2.94±.84 |
| Income status | 2) 1500-2500 | 759 | 2.93±.59 | $2.46 \pm .83$ | $3.19 \pm .84$ | $3.40 \pm .78$ | 2.95±.80 | 2.84±.87 |
| | 3) 2501-3500 | 727 | 2.85±.69 | 2.35±.88 | $3.08 \pm .88$ | $3.40 \pm .84$ | 2.91±.86 | 2.72±.97 |
| e st | 4) 3501 < | 729 | 2.80±.69 | 2.22±.89 | $3.00 \pm .87$ | $3.41 \pm .86$ | 2.92±.92 | 2.67±.97 |
| ЭЩС | F | | 9.40 | 10.51 | 13.90 | .069 | 1.78 | 9.42 |
| 'nс | p | | .000 | .000 | .000 | .976 | .150 | .000 |
| | Post hoc test | | 1>3;1>4;2>4 | 1>4;2>4;3>4 | 1>3;1>4;2>4 | - | - | 1>3;1>4;2>4 |
| | 1) Primary school | 66 | 3.15±.66 | 2.88±.86 | 3.32±.89 | 3.37±.68 | 3.21±.90 | 3.10±.83 |
| Level of education | 2) Secondary school | 189 | 2.96±.62 | 2.51±.80 | 3.13±.80 | 3.44±.74 | 2.99±.80 | 2.94±.91 |
| | 3) High school | 763 | 2.91±.63 | 2.38±.78 | 3.15±.88 | 3.51±.79 | 2.94±.84 | 2.77±.94 |
| Jo J | 4) University | 1619 | 2.84±.64 | 2.31±.89 | 3.11±.85 | 3.35±.83 | 2.93±.85 | 2.75±.93 |
| evel | F | | 7.28 | 12.10 | 1.58 | 6.93 | 2.45 | 5.10 |
| Ľ | р | | .000 | .000 | .193 | .000 | .062 | .002 |
| | Post hoc test | | 1>3;1>4 | 1>2;1>3;1>4; 2>4 | - | 3>4 | - | 1>3;1>4;2>4; |

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed to identify the constraints regarding local people's use of national parks in Antalya province, Turkey. The results showed that the structure of national park constraints here are similar to those identified by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey's (1991) three-dimensional model. However, the dimension for structural constraints developed in this study is more complex than that of the earlier model. While the findings of Nyaupane, Morais and Graefe (2004) on nature-based tourism constraints supported the three-dimensional model, their dimension of structural constraints is similarly more complex. Likewise, Alexandris and Carroll

(1997) also found variety within the structural dimension of the threedimensional leisure time model regarding the perception constraints of recreational sports participants.

While it has been argued that outdoor recreation constraints are similar to other leisure constraints (Walker & Virden, 2005; White, 2008), in the related literature it has also been claimed that structural constraints are more dominant than the others (Pennington-Gray et al., 2002). The most important constraint identified in this study is the lack of information/facilities dimension, which was defined as a structural constraint, followed by the accessibility/finance dimension. Several studies in the related literature have shown that lack of information is a constraint or barrier to national park usage (Alberta Community Development, 2000; Godbey et al., 1992; Le & Holmes, 2012; Scott & Kim, 1998; Virden & Yoshioka, 1992; Walker & Crompton, 2013). Furthermore, Martoglio (2012) identified that the lack of information about national parks could be a significant constraint factor for visiting these places. Some of the constraints could affect negatively on the levels of participation in leisure activities. Moreover, Oh, Oh, and Caldwell (2001) claimed that only interpersonal constraints affect leisure participation levels. In this frame, as basic park usage constraints, structural constraints can be regarded as advantageous for management in comparison to other constraints. Covelli, Burns, and Graefe (2006) pointed out that managers could impact the state of lack of information positively. While Thapa (2012) claims that management of interpersonal constraints is difficult, Kruger and Dauglas (2015) argue that structural constraints can be managed through effective communication messages and suitable communication channels to train the target market. In addition, structural constraints are considered in two categories by leisure time specialists/managers, namely lack of public transportation, crowds, bureaucratic procedures and facilities, which can be managed or dealt with, and material barriers, business hours and climatic conditions, which cannot be managed or dealt with (Walker & Crompton, 2013). Within this conception, Scott (2005) defines these barriers as "institutional barriers" like lack of information/facilities and maintenance that can be managed, in contrast to accessibility/finance structural constraints, and social and individual/psychological constraints that can only be partly managed or are unmanageable. Providing more information about parks is considered one of the most desired strategy to reduce the constraint factors in the literature (Mowen, Payne, & David, 2005). The present study supports this strategy, and suggests the park managers and authorities to do advertising campaign to make residents

aware of the Antalya's National Park in Turkey. In parallel to the findings of these studies, studies geared towards increasing people's knowledge and awareness of national parks may play a significant role in managing the constraints related to use of these areas. Besides, provision of facilities to meet people's expectations is another way of leisure negotiation strategies for usage of national parks. Therefore, studies concerning people's expectancies are important.

Relationships between Socio-Demographic Characteristics and National Park Use Constraints

Age, sex, race, income level and education level all affect park visits (Zanon et al., 2013). In this study, differences were found between national park use constraints and socio-demographic features. Understanding of these differences can therefore be valuable, especially for national park managers and leisure time specialists involved in managing national parks. Zanon et al. (2013) emphasized that gender was the most prevalent socio-demographic parameter in the 45 % of the studies done about the constraints of park visitation in North America. And most studies reported that females have more constraint factors to visit parks than males. While no significant overall differences were found between men and women in national park use constraints, there were differences within the individual/psychological and lack of knowledge/facilities dimensions. These results show similarity to Shores et al.'s (2007) study, and this study highlighted that time, interest and knowledge are prominent constraint factors for females. In the lack of knowledge/facilities dimension, the perception of women regarding constraints was higher than men, which his normal for the Turkish community where men are dominant. In addition, women more than men preferred joining home and related social gatherings rather than outdoor recreational activities (Lee, Scott, & Floyd, 2001), which might increase the constraints due to knowledge and opportunity. Within the individual/psychological dimension, the item "Forests or other natural environments scare me and I feel uncomfortable in outdoor recreation areas" was a higher constraint for men than women. In previous studies, while "fear" for women was defined as the most important leisure constraint (Zanon et al., 2013), it is known that women give more importance to self-defense than men (Johnson, Bowker, & Cordell, 2001). However, the findings of the present study provided a different result. This may be because most studies in the literature are related to outdoor recreation. Besides, there are fewer studies of gender

and national park usage than for race and the other ethnic demographic features (Weber & Sultana, 2013). Furthermore, in their nature-based tourism studies, Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) reported similar results, but their study did not measure scales that are particular to women. Therefore, in-depth studies concerning gender effects should be made in the future.

A person's position in their lifecycle is one of the basic determinants of leisure time use (Torkildsen, 2005, p. 108) and it is natural that married people experience more leisure constraints, due to increased family responsibilities than unmarried people (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). Previous studies indicate that constraints like access, knowledge and suitable infrastructure generally restrict families from leisure time activities outside their homes (Reis, Thompson-Carr, & Lovelock, 2012). The present study found statistically significant differences between single people, married national park users with children and families without children. The total scores of national park use constraints for married participants and those for the individual/psychological, lack knowledge/facilities and maintenance dimensions were higher than for single people. Similarly, the national park use constraints perceived by participants with children for the individual/psychological and lack of knowledge/facilities dimensions were higher than for participants with no children. Unsurprisingly, therefore, this study confirms that marriage and having children impose more constraints on national park use. While developing strategies for coping with individualistic and psychological constraints is rather difficult, strategies for coping with perceived structural constraints are more achievable. Thus, it is very advisable to offer the means and facilities to individuals who can participate as a family. Accordingly, to increase people's awareness and knowledge about leisure opportunities and benefits of national parks for families could be considered as a strategy to cope with structural constraints. The current study promotes the approaches of McDonald & Price (2009), and Reis et al. (2012) to enhance the park awareness of families, and suggests park managers to provide facilities and parks that attract family groups' attention to parks. In addition, in-depth lifecycle-specific studies can provide a detailed examination of the subject.

Age is another factor that affects leisure behavior, and a strong predictor of constraints as well. Previous research shows that the old people joined few outdoor recreational activities because of physical and age constraints (Iso-Ahola, Jackson, & Dunn, 1994). Furthermore, old people have more constraints towards park use than young people

(Raymore & Scott, 1998; Scott & Jackson, 1996). In the current study, there was a significant relationship between age and national park use as old people over 65 perceived more constraints than younger age groups. Floyd et al. (2006) state that physical constraints increase with age so the rate of older people's participation in recreational activities decreases as they prefer more passive activities. The present study supports these findings.

Shores et al. (2007) found that people over 65 participate in fewer outdoor activities than young people in the USA due to financial constraints. Although these old people are actually healthier than the young, more than 20 % suffer from loneliness and poverty, which constrain their participation in recreational activities. In Turkey, the rate of poverty of people over 65 years and living in a single household is 16.3% (Turkish Statistic Institute, 2017c), so this situation might similarly affect their national park use.

Income, educational levels and profession all significantly affect leisure time participation (Lee et al., 2001). Most outdoor recreational activities are related to financial and cultural resources so income and education levels affect the rate of participation in outdoor activities (Ghimire et al., 2014). Stevens et al. (2014) reported that economic factors, such as income, play critical roles in consumer behavior, and it also shapes the level of park visitation. Scott and Munson (1994) observed that the people with low incomes perceive more constraints towards park visits than those with high incomes. They stress that income level, sex, age, race and level of education are the most significant factors that constrain park visits. In the present study, significant differences between income level and overall national park use constraints and dimensions were also found. Those with low incomes (TL<1500 or TL 1500-2500) perceived higher constraints than those with higher income levels. This supports the claim that a low income limits participation in outdoor recreation activities and park visits. This study has some limitations. For instance, due to having no information about how income levels create constraints for residents, future studies could focus on economic factors of park visitations deeply.

In addition to level of income, another significant factor affecting participation in outdoor recreational activities is the level of education. According to Kelly (1996), education level is a more important factor than income and profession in leisure time activities. Previous studies reported that as perceived constraints decrease the level of education increases (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Searle & Jackson, 1985). This study also found

a significant relationship between education level and national park use and the constraint dimensions. That is, those with a low education level (primary education) perceive more constraints than those with a higher education (university) level. The latter group possess skills oriented towards outdoor recreation and have the chance to access this social and cultural environment more easily (Lee et al., 2001), which may be the cause of this difference. Furthermore, it is thought that people with higher education are more inclined to visit such areas (Chen, 2009), which affects an individual's national park use constraints.

Park-based activities in developing countries are both economic and social-cultural resources. Therefore, these activities need to be managed with a sustainable long-term strategy with respect to visitors and site management (Mulholland & Eagles, 2002). The results of the present study suggest basic strategies to park managers and authorities. Firstly, (a) to promote awareness of local peoples about national parks and, (b) secondly to offer opportunities to local people according to their demographic features such as age, or marital status etc. Having conducted the study only with the local people in Antalya province could be accepted as a limiting factor. Hence, future research could be done with expanded sample size by adding the visitors/tourists in different provinces, in order to investigate the differences between visitors/tourists and local peoples. Another restrictive factor of the present study was that no in-depth reasoning questions were asked in the questionnaire to explore underlying and more personal reasons of respondents. Thus, future studies could be designed with qualitative approach to clarify the problem.

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A NEW CONCEPT GENERATED BY COMMODITIZING ANIMALS: EGOLOGICAL TOURISM

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Animals have been used to amuse people for thousands of years, trained for dolphin shows, circus and similar tricks found amusing by viewers/participants, and have suffered pain in the activities that are so-called "sports", such as rodeo, horse racing, greyhound racing, bullfighting and camel wrestling; i.e., they are turned into a performer and racer by humans (Regan, 2007). What Regan says above basically addresses the commoditization of animals. Undoubtedly, tourism and its components incorporated in capitalism are to blame. This is why, in his book and philosophy, Regan asks to empty the cages and pools and wishes to free all animals involved in any shows. However, this could only come true when tourism ceases to see animals as a product and market them to tourists/visitors and the consumers wish to debar from such *amusement*.

USE OF ANIMALS FOR TOURISM DESTINATIONS

It is said that 16 thousand elephants are captive worldwide, and this figure corresponds to the quarter of the population of elephants in the world; 75% of captivated elephants are directly removed from nature to be used for amusement in tourism destinations, while 5000 captivated tigers are

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used for touristic purposes in the USA alone. Only 3200 tigers are found in nature. There are around 1600 bottle-nosed dolphins used for entertainment across the world; around 8000 lions live under captivity and are trained for the amusement service in South Africa, and around 3000 rhesus monkeys are captured and sold by hunters to the tourism industry in Indonesia alone (Dobson, 2012; Tillotson, 2013).

Tourism consists of good, nice, useful, and sustainable activities. Such activities are carried out in line with the possibilities provided by nature to humans. Initially, humans used touristic activities for their fundamental needs, then they somehow included the ego-egoism motive in such needs. Tourism will have a meaning if it is carried out, observing the right to life of nature and living things in nature. It is critically important for tourism and humans to live in harmony with nature.

As other industries, tourism serves in the benefit and interest of society and nature. However, tourism is formed in a different structure. This is an egological structure that assumes any living creatures produced or reproducing serve humans and considers that living creatures are amusing, delicious and beautiful, except for fundamental needs, in line with the rules set by such structure. In this respect, *egological tourism* is defined as a touristic activity that takes away the right of life and hinders growth and breeding of living creatures.

The *ego* is a Latin word (Latin for "I") and means the "self", and *logic* is a French world and may be defined as the study of the principles of correct reasoning. Egological Tourism falls in two groups: conscious and unconscious.

- Conscious Egological Tourism: A touristic activity that shut its eyes to the death of other living things in agony of the services under tourism and performed by individuals that consider themselves seeking different tourism.
- *Unconscious Egological Tourism:* Touristic activities in which people involved in such activity have no knowledge of how animals are fed and how they are trained and served to tourism facilities. Today, fundamental rights of animals are not observed, and many die in facilities

established to meet the needs of tourism (such as circuses, zoos and aquaparks).

The scarce resources found in nature are not only used by people but also by other living things. Any organism should feed, reproduce, and live in their habitat. Animals are fed by chemical feed stuff at feeding stations, live in an artificial environment, and are housed inappropriately. To satisfy the touristic needs of people, there are specific facilities:

Zoos and Natural Life Parks

Animals used in egological tourism activities are often confronted in zoo gardens or in wildlife parks. An explanatory indicator of this situation is the report prepared by Trip Advisor (2015), one of the world's leading travel sites, based on user evaluation. According to this report, the destinations that tourists go to most in the US are places where zoo gardens are located. In the World's Best Zoo Gardens; Henry Doorly Zoo is in 1st place, San Diego Zoo in 2nd place and it is followed by zoo gardens in European cities. The situation remains the same when the whole list is examined

Stress, abnormal or antisocial behavior, depression, anger, over aggressiveness, high young mortality, low capability of reproduction, and unusual behavior such as deprivation and obesity are observed in animals locked in zoos or natural life parks (Fletcher, 2011).

Safari Parks

Some Wildlife Watch requires specific areas, programs, and guides and has created a new market in the tourism industry, and such attraction centers increasingly have more tourists (Higginbottom, 2004; Valentine & Birtles, 2004). It is also observed that these parks, where the experiences of the egological tourism are realized, have a very negative effect on the wildlife. There is a direct intervention in the wildlife, even if it is an unconscious act, during a safari trip that takes days in the wildlife centers and is performed either by vehicles or on foot. The animals' habitat is intervened by people, so they may have problems with reproduction and show behavioral disorders, such as stress-related aggressiveness. Especially several bird species are disturbed by humans and change their migration routes, nests or reproduction sites, resulting in various incidents or conditions leading to death. The research on penguins in the south-pole underlines that a distance deemed suitable by the tour operator causes damage to the incubation period of penguins; therefore, the penguins show aggressive behavior and move away from the incubated eggs, resulting in damaged eggs and failure to lay eggs (Green & Giese, 2004). The species that get used to being fed by local people and tourists may sometimes cause serious injuries to people. For example, tourists have been injured or died by the attacks of kangaroos and wild dogs in Australia (Higginbottom & Buckley, 2003). Besides, it is indicated there is a high concern of being attacked by animals when tourists unnecessarily wish to make close contact, in which case tour operators force the guide to shoot animals to ensure safety of tourists (Valentine & Birtles, 2004).

Aqua parks

These parks are generally considered an aqua park in the tourism industry and use marine species, especially including dolphins, whales, rough tail stingrays, sea lions, seals and odobenus rosmarus for amusement. The investigations show that living creatures captured in pools demonstration animals within the framework of egological tourism are shorter in their lives than in the wild. An aqua park has an artificial or screened environment and may be used for therapy with dolphins besides the shows performed by marine animals. However, the studies indicate there are no reliable scientific results for effectivity of therapy with dolphins in the treatment of diseases or psychological disorders; on the other hand, there is no evidence that therapy with dolphins is an effective treatment or there is more than short-term improvement of the psychological state; on the contrary, such close communications may cause damage to both sides (Marino & Lilienfeld, 2007). The captivated marine animals are likely to show aggressive behaviors under pressure and stress, and there are many records that individuals participating in dolphin therapy programs suffered from injury (Samuels & Flaherty, 2000). Therefore, dolphin therapy brings important ethical issues for the quality of life of people and captivated animals (Marino & Lilienfeld, 2007).

It is estimated that around 1.600 bottle-nosed dolphins and around 60 killer whales/orcas are used for amusement purposes worldwide, but this figure is considered higher due to unregistered and not-updated

establishments (WAP, 2014). It is recognized that 60% of 257 dolphins, known to live in Europe are captivated in these parks, were born under supervision of people, and the remaining were taken from the oceans in 1970s-1980s under legal rules (Parque, 2012). However, the increasing number of dolphin parks in Europe shows otherwise.

Gastronomic Tourism

Gastronomy is a scientific discipline that deals with consumption and production of good, beautiful, and healthy food and drink. The gastronomists differ by palate and level of knowledge. Seeking different tastes and flavors improve and enrich gastronomy and gastronomic tourism. However, slaughtering animals to deliver gastronomy to provide good and delicious food is an egological approach.

To prepare Japanese food called "Ikizukuri", sea animals are cooked alive and then stuffed. The fish used for Ikizukuri are re-put in the aquarium during cooking to keep them alive, then it is stuffed and cooked again (Nelson, 2011). The animals used for cooking this food usually include lobsters, shrimps and octopuses. During an interview with famous Chef Raymond Blanc, he said such food was suitable for gastronomy (Hinson, 2013). The monkeys once eaten for scarcity and poverty in Africa and Asia are now offered as a gastronomic product. The brain of a monkey is eaten with a spoon at specially designed tables during gastronomy tours that take place in many countries, particularly in China and India (Monkeyland, 2010). The food prepared with a rodent called San Zhi Eris a national food in China. But, this is prescribed as consuming the animal when it is alive. We often encounter such consumption, as Chinese restaurants operate in many countries of the world (Cruelest Dining, 2016). The Sannakji is an octopus food in Korea. The octopus is chopped in pieces when it is still alive to prepare Sannakji. If the octopus moves in the mouth when eating, this is an indication of delicious food (Nelson, 2011). The lobsters are mostly kept alive in the aquariums in many restaurants of New York. The restaurant guests choose the lobsters and watch the food cooked alive. A kitchen chef, Louis Cole, has a cooking channel 'Food for Louis' on YouTube to show how to cook, prepare, and serve animals alive. This channel also includes how to consume grasshoppers, lizards, tarantulas, and scorpions when they are still alive, besides the animals eaten alive as described above (Thring, 2012).

CONCLUSIONS

As in any touristic centers of attraction, use of animals as an entertaining element in circuses is unethical and a breach of animal rights. Animals in tourism destinations are kept in inadequate and poor conditions, battered, subject to severe violence and trained with prod, whip, electroshock, or hook. They are not given any food to get used to the reward system for performing the acts taught to them and travel across and cover thousands of miles in travelling, despite harsh weather conditions; moreover, they are starved and dehydrated during long travels, have psychological problems as they are captivated in tiny cages, resulting in severe behavioral disorders. All these issues clarify why a circus is harmful to animals (PETA, 2015).

The tourism industry has many destinations where animals are commoditized, offered to the tourists or visitors, forced to perform, and displayed. Although this is addressed by different researchers in different ways in the literature, the touristic products are categorized above. The animals commoditized at such tourism destinations are used as a touristic product. However, the process of commoditization of animals and turning them into a touristic product requires a more macro perspective.

Egological tourism is a touristic activity performed by individuals that disregard animals' right of life and consider that animals only serve people. We encounter this mentality of tourism at many destinations today. Many animals are a touristic product of destinations as part of egological tourism. The touristic products generated through animals attract attention of people either as a component of overall touristic products or as a variety of tourism, providing a considerable economic input. However, seeing animals only as a product or servant and internalization of this by participants of tourism make it difficult to speak about sustainable tourism. Animal-oriented tourism should not only be addressed and assessed by economic benefit, but also by ethical aspects. Otherwise, animals will only remain a touristic product, rather than a living thing and subject of life.

Finally, the existence of egological tourism is considered to have adverse effects on natural life. Regarding such mentality of consumption as a normal thing and using animals in the tourism industry in many countries remove the rights of living creatures in nature. Maintaining activities of egological tourism will cause damage to the foundation of tourism. In this process, commoditization of animals will adversely affect many sustainable activities. Therefore, administrations must take necessary measures for animal rights, raise awareness of, and assign tasks to society for animal rights. Especially, no egologic approach should be adopted for the products prepared for touristic activities.

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