JOURNAL OF TOURISMOLOGY

Journal of Tourismology
Volume: 5 • Number: 2 • December 2019
e-ISSN: 2459-1939 • **DOI:** 10.26650/jot

Journal of Tourismology is the official peer-reviewed, international journal of the Istanbul University Faculty of Economics
Authors bear responsibility for the content of their published articles.

Owner
Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics

Head Office
İstanbul University Faculty of Economics

Type of Publication
International Periodical

Language
English

Publishing Period
Biannual (June & December)

Indexed by
Türkiye Turizm Dizini
DOAJ
SOBIAD
ASOS Index (Social Sciences Index)
ERIH PLUS
RePEc IDEAS
RePEc EconPapers

Publishing Company
Istanbul University Press
Istanbul University Central Campus, 34116, Beyazit, Fatih, Istanbul, Turkey
Phone: +90 (212) 440 00 00

Correspondence
Department of Tourism Management, The Faculty of Economics
Department of Tourism Management, The Faculty of Economics Istanbul University,
Beyazit, Fatih, Istanbul, Turkey

Call: +90 (212) 440-0000 / 11540
Fax: +90 (212) 520 82 86
Web: http://jt.istanbul.edu.tr/en/_ & www.dergipark.gov.tr/iuturizmoloji
Email: tourismology@istanbul.edu.tr

Table of Contents

ARTICLES

İSTANBUL UNIVERSITY PRESS

Journal of Tourismology, 5(2): 93-112

DOI: 10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0005
http://jt.istanbul.edu.en/

Journal of Tourismology

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Submitted: 01.03.2019
Revision Requested: 18.04.2019
Last Revision Received: 30.10.2019
Accepted: 31.10.2019
Published Online: 05.11.2019

Examining the Relationship between Residents' Level of Happiness and Supportiveness to Tourism Events: Winchester (UK) as a Case Study

Hugues Seraphin[1], Vanessa GB Gowreesunkar[2], Marco Platania[2]

Abstract

Existing literature has explored the impacts of tourism events on destinations and on their residents as a one-way strategy. However, the direction of those impacts may have a reversal in terms of residents' supportiveness and level of happiness. Happiness and tourism are very topical at the moment and are still under-researched. Based on this notion, the main objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between residents' level of happiness and their supportiveness/ non-supportiveness for tourism events. Primary data was collected using questionnaire and SPSS was utilised to run few descriptive analyses. The study reveals a different outcome; it is resilience of local residents that enable tourism events to grow and sustain the industry. The findings provide valuable insight on the relationship between residents' causes of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with tourism events and the impacts on their level of happiness. The information is helpful for Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) and event organisers for development of events that may be profitably marketed along with tourism. Happiness may therefore be used as a metric by DMOs to assess tourism performance.

Keywords

Resident's happiness, Tourism events, Relationship, Supportiveness, Winchester

1 **Correspondence to:** Hugues Seraphin (Dr.), University of Winchester, Faculty of Business, Law and Sport, Department of Marketing, Event Management and Project Management, Winchester, United Kingdom. E-mail: Hugues.seraphin@winchester.ac.uk ORCID: 0000-0002-2092-728X

2 Vanessa GB Gowreesunkar (Dr.), University of Africa Toru Orua, Department of Hotel and Tourism Management, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. E-mail: vanessa.gowreesunkar@uat.edu.ng ORCID: 0000-0001-5934-6872

3 Marco Platania, University of Catania, Department of Tourism, Katania, Italy. E-mail: marco.platania@unict.it ORCID: 0000-0002-0965-8816

To cite this article: Seraphin, H., Gowreesunkar, V., & Platania, M. (2019). Examining the relationship between residents' level of happiness and supportiveness to tourism events: Winchester (UK) as a case study. *JJournal of Tourismology, 5*(2), 93–112. https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0005

Introduction

Events have always been an important and integral part of every society (Andrews and Leopold, 2013). They are part of the national identity of a group (Miller and McTavish, 2013; Bladen *et al.*, 2012; Foley *et al.*, 2012). In the tourism package, event (in the form of sports, games, cultural activities, awards, exhibitions, contests and awards *inter alia*) represents an important element, given its potential to enhance the attractiveness of the tourism offer (Gowreesunkar and Sotiriades, 2014). Event, as an entertainment activity, is also marketed to locals, with the idea of encouraging them to indulge in domestic tourism in order for them to break from their stressful routine environment (home and work) (Campistron, 2018). Events are therefore important motivators of tourism and if appropriately exploited, may strengthen the competitive advantage of a destination, given its potential to increase the volume of domestic and international tourists.

From another perspective, studies show that residents of tourism destinations are increasingly showing concern about their well-being and, economic benefits of tourism are less important than their happiness (Seraphin *et al.*, 2018; Gowreesunkar and Sotiriades, 2015). People are indeed spending more on recreation and wellness activities, and they are willing to spend on destinations which offer event and entertainment (see Bosshart & Macconi, 1998; Wolf, 1999; Loi, 2009). However, it is observed that existing literature discuss mainly the contribution of events and tourism to destinations and local residents from a political, economic and social point of view (Andrew and Leopold, 2013; Bladen *et al.*, 2018; Richard and Palmer, 2010). They present a one-way direction between event / tourism and impacts (positive and/or negative) on local communities, with events and tourism impacting on local communities.

In this paper, it is argued that, in many cases, the direction of impact or contribution of tourism events may go the other way round; the level of happiness of residents do impact on their supportiveness for tourism events; when locals are happy, they are interested to participate in tourism event and they demand for the product. As a result, the current study's main focus was based on one specific social impact - the happiness of locals interpreted by their satisfaction level with tourism events. Level of happiness with tourism and events are very topical at the moment, but it is still poorly researched (ex. Kim *et al.*, 2013) and in fact, there is a gap in the event industry research between academia and industry (Getz, 2007). With this as foundation, the paper's objective is formulated as follows: first, it attempts to identify the causes of residents' satisfaction/dissatisfaction with events and tourism; second, it seeks to investigate the impact of those satisfaction/dissatisfaction levels on their supportiveness for tourism events. To achieve the research objectives, Winchester (England), a rural event destination, is used as a case study.

The methodological approach for the study is based on quantitative research and is inspired from past research. An online questionnaire was chosen for convenience purpose and for the analysis of the data, SPSS software was chosen. From a practitioner point of view, the findings of this research might help the Winchester DMO (Destination Management Organisation) to review its approach in terms of tourism and events development. From an academic point of view, if the study successfully demonstrate that the level of happiness of the local residents can contribute to tourism event development, the present study will add to the existing body of knowledge. Findings of this study may be of interest to those involved in marketing and management of event tourism.

Contextual and Conceptual Framework: A Brief Overview

The Contribution of Events in Tourism Industry

Events are meaningful cultural resources that are often exploited in tourism (see Gowreesunkar and Sotiriades, 2015; Hugues and Allen, 2008). It is an area that contributes in the marketing of tourism and it attracts more visitors and the family segment. According to Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris and McDonnell (2010), events may be classified into types and category; the four common types of events are family, sport, cultural and business events and the four categories of events are hallmark, local or community, major and mega events. As such, a large number of organizations organize and promote special events to create a positive image of the place and bring in money to the local community. Event organizers have therefore realized the potential of this industry and therefore, often join themselves with the tourism industry in order to package the final offer. Events and tourism are both important for tourists and locals (Getz, 2008; Getz and Pike, 2016) and they both meet individuals and groups' needs. Additionally, events are a way for a group to demonstrate their values and celebrate their culture (O'Toole, 2011); preserve and renew cultural identities and practices (Bladen *et al.*, 2018).

In fact, many success stories in tourism are derived from event which is acknowledged as an important contributor in boosting tourism performance (see Getz, 2008; Carlsen, 2004; Bowdin et al, 2004). The evaluation of the events' impacts is therefore exceptionally important for sustaining tourism businesses and these can be carried out by the monitoring of economic and non-economic impacts. Studies (for example, Gowreesunkar and Sotiriades, 2015; Bosshart & Macconi, 1998; Wolf, 1999; Loi, 2009) show that people are now spending more on recreation and wellness activities , and they are willing to spend on destinations which offer event and entertainment. For instance, studies conducted by Seraphin, Ambaye and Gowreesunkar (2016) and Seraphin (2018) demonstrate that Haiti, as a destination failed to reclaim its position as the ‘Pearl of the Caribbean’, as Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) of the country, so far, failed to address the basic human needs of its locals and overlooked the wellness and happiness factor of its residents while developing tourism. This observation is well supported by the claim that tourism has a Janus-faced character (Sanchez and Adams, 2008); every positive impact comes with a negative one, and this is again well supported in the work of Campistron (2018) and Leadbeater (2017) and Seraphin *et al.*(2018) who confirm that when on one side tourism benefits the economy and some of its stakeholders, on the other side, it also has some negative impacts on the quality of life of residents. It is important for governments to value equally the happiness of locals and visitors. It is therefore, the level of happiness of locals in Winchester that leads to satisfaction with events and tourism, and not the other way round. It is the resilience of local residents that enable events and tourism to grow and remain.

Contextual Framework

The contextual framework sets out the geographic limits of the study. Also, the impacts of an event or tourism can also have different impacts according to the context (Fox *et al.*, 2014). Results from the 2011 Census show that Winchester’s population is 116,600 with a low rate of unemployment. Indeed, it is one of the 20% least deprived districts/unitary authorities in England. According to Public Health England, the health of people in Winchester is generally better than the England average. Life expectancy for both men and women is higher than the England average. People in Winchester scored 7.7 out of 10 in the happiness charts compiled by the Office of National Statistics, against a national average of 7.4 (Winchester [Online]). In Winchester, all types of events are represented. That said, most of them are either family or cultural events (Table 2). In terms of size, Winchester only hold local or community events (Table 2).

Conceptual Framework

Once the concepts have been identified, literature is used to establish the relationships between them. The third step is to operationalize the concepts, in other words, turn them into items that can be measured or observed. Finally, once operationalized, the concept becomes a variable. In the case of quantitative research, hypothesis or research question can be developed afterwards (Fox *et al.*, 2014).

- Concept 1 - Dialogical self

During many years, in the western world, a ‘person’ was defined by the sense of being the same person during the course of time. In other words, being a single and unique person, different from others. The self is considered nowadays as multiple. Individual have multiplicity of the self within our own person. The self changes according to the audience, context and therefore needs to be understood and analysed as a social and linguistic negotiation (Hermans, 2003; Salgado and Hermans, 2005). In the context of tourism, the self changes depending on the roles assumed. For instance, as a tourist, an individual will explore a destination, but the same individual will not really explore his own living environment, as a resident of a given place. Equally interesting, his concern will be different as compared to a tourist who spends a temporary period of time at the destination. Despite knowing the explorative characteristic of a tourist, the resident behave differently when a tourist visits his residential area. Salgado and Hermans (2005, p. 3) explained that: 'the self is considered nowadays as multiple, varied, changeable, sometimes as chameleon that changes along with the context, sometimes as a double-faced Janus with opposite sides'. The dialogism self-theory, is in line with the multiple self as this theory supports the fact that 'human meanings are created within and by relationships. Nobody exists alone. In fact, every human being is, from the very beginning, involved in a relational and communicational process' (Salgado and Hermans, 2005, p. 8). Finally, Salgado and Hermans (2005) also added that the other may function as another *I,* in that case it becomes an alter ego, who is exactly like me (ego) but also be someone else (alter). Creating the identity is about uniting diversity, and this is considered as a challenge and it is not an easy task (Salgado and Hermans, 2005). Based on the above, visitors should be an integral part of who the locals and their place of residence are. Is it the case in Winchester? It is important that visitors are not considered as 'alien'. In psychology, the absence of reconciliation between the *I* is called schizophrenia, in other words a 'collapse of the dialogical self' (Hermans, 2003, p. 110). The creation of a dialogical space, where the two parties meet and find common direction (Hermans, 2003) becomes very important. Does this space exist in Winchester?

- Concept 2 – Quality of Life / Happiness

Quality of Life (QOL) and well-being are interchangeable terms (SDRN, 2005). Community well-being refers to: 'the quality of life and level of sustain ability as viewed by the members of that community (…) that shape the way people think and act, as well as their relationships with others in their community' (Akinyi, 2015, p. 71). Still according to Akinyi (2015), the determinants of community well-being are based on social equity (connected, accessible, and friendly community); cultural vitality (culturally rich and diverse city; strong identity, history and sense of place); economic prosperity (dynamic and thriving centre for businesses and services) and finally, environmental sustainability (leader in environmental sustainability). Does tourism and/or events contribute to social equity, cultural vitality, economic prosperity and environmental sustainability in Winchester? According to Seraphin (2018), government should also focus on ensuring their populations' happiness when developing their tourism strategies/plans. Seraphin (2018), also added that meeting the needs of local residents should be equally important as meeting the needs of visitors to ensure a strong tourism sector, as they are both key stakeholders for the sustainability of the tourism industry. This point of view is further supported by Gholipour *et al.* (2016). Likewise, the study of Seraphin (2018) on Aruba also confirms the positive impact of Arubans' happiness on the performance of the destination, so much so that Aruba was classified in the group of leading destinations of the Caribbean: The 'Big 6' (Seraphin *et al.*, 2018). However, a further study of Seraphin (2018) revealed that since the locals in Haiti (another Caribbean island) are still facing unfavourable living conditions, there is no incentive to attract tourists and it is one of the less visited destinations of the Caribbean. Seraphin (2018) also added that the population is not supportive of the tourism industry. Indeed, following the announcement by the president of the country that fuel prices would raise, mass protests erupted. Hundreds of tourists found themselves trapped in hotels. There was even an attempt by rioters to set fire to Royal Oasis Hotel, Haiti's first premier and international acclaimed hotel.

- Concept 3 – Tourism Events and Residents' Happiness in the Co-integration and Causality Theories

Based on Johansen (1988) test of cointegration and Granger test of causality (1988), Dupont (2009), explained that there is one-way direction between poverty reduction, economic growth and tourism development. It is the reduction of poverty and economic growth that are leading to tourism development and not the other way round. Based on empirical evidences, the paper argues that level of happiness of locals in Winchester may lead to satisfaction with events and tourism, and not the other way round. In other words, tourism development and organisations of events are not the cause for the level of happiness of the locals. The level of resilience of the locals in Winchester, is a sine qua non condition that enforces their support to both events and tourism due to their already existing level of happiness.

Research Framework: Modelling

The research framework (Figure 1) has been designed using the information provided in section 2, of this research paper.

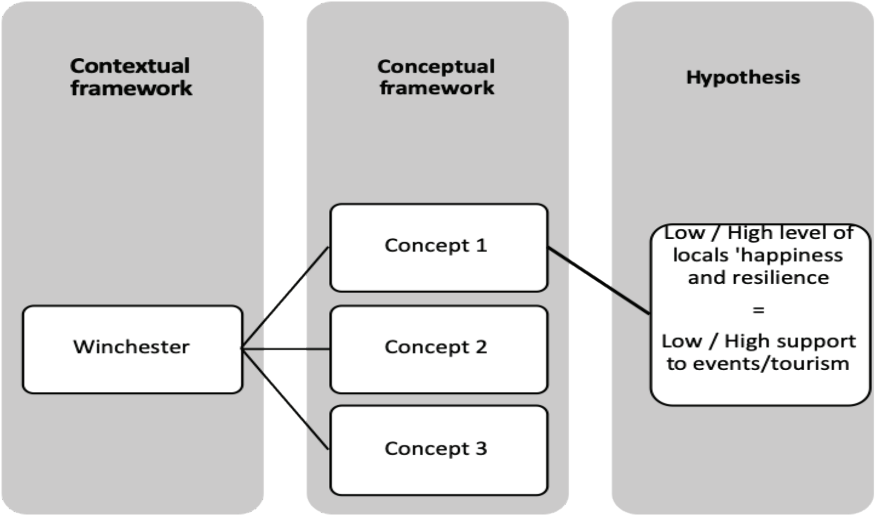

Figure1. *Research framework.*
Source: The authors

Methodology

Since empirical studies how that residents of tourism destinations are increasingly showing concern about their well-being rather than economic benefits of tourism, the current study sought to investigate the relationship between happiness of residents (measured by their satisfaction/dissatisfaction levels) and their supportiveness for tourism events in Winchester For this study, a qualitative approach was preferred due to the soft nature of the research – happiness of locals. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) argue that qualitative methods normally focus on people's lived experiences and have the ability to help researchers understand the meanings people bring to them. Therefore, from a purely ontological perspective, investigating local's happiness ideally requires the use of qualitative research methods. While aligning with the philosophy of qualitative research method, this particular study somewhat deviated from qualitative and chose to design an online questionnaire to collect the data. The reason behind the choice was that it was less costly, practical and easily accessible to Winchester citizens. A questionnaire (Appendix 1) was therefore developed based on literature reviewed. Specific questions on quality of life, tourism development, types of events, participation in tourism events, opinion on events and quality of life of locals, impact of events, and suggestions for improvement were included to investigate perception of locals on the relationship between event, tourism and their quality of life (and indirectly their happiness).

The questionnaire was sent to locals in Winchester via social media (Facebook groups; LinkedIn, Twitter, WinchesterBID newsletter. To answer the questions, the people surveyed had to use a Likert scale going from 1 (completely disagree) and 5 (completely agree) (ex. Croasmun and Ostrom, 2011). The data collected (in the month of March 2018) were analysed using SPSS software (descriptive analysis). In this research only 3 different sets of questions were considered: (1) A set of questions where the respondents were asked whether or not they consider themselves happy in general in life (2) the second set of questions respondents were asked to evaluate the impacts of events on their quality of life (3) in the 3rd set of questions analysed, respondents were asked to rank some statements regarding events.

The results of the survey are based on 396 (valid) responses obtained from 400 questionnaires. This was considered as a reasonable sample while taking into account Winchester's population (116.000 habitants, from the latest Census (Winchester.gov.uk [Online])). Most of the people who responded to the survey were female, belong to 45-54 age class (27.0%), with children. Table 1, provides detailed information on the respondents. The following section provides the results of the survey.

Table 1
Level of Happiness of Locals in Winchester (UK)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		4	1.0	1.0	1.0
	A happy person	371	93.7	93.7	94.7
	Not a very happy person	21	5.3	5.3	100.0
	Total	396	100.0	100.0	

Source: The authors

Results

According to Rivera et al., (2015), wellbeing is a multidimensional concept and refers to objective conditions (for example: health, education or income), as well as subjective perception of those conditions. For this reason, wellbeing was directly measured asking respondents their satisfaction, using a modified subjective happiness scale (Croes et al., 2017), which is measured, in this study, by five items. Two items ask respondents to characterize themselves respect their happiness. The other three items present brief statements about happiness and unhappiness, asking respondents their level of agreement.The results of our survey (Table 2) shows that the vast majority of the respondents consider themselves to be happy.

Table 2
Descriptive Analysis of Happiness/Events in Winchester (UK)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Arts (e.g. Hat Fair, Winchester Festival, Winchester Mayfest, Winchester School of Art Degree Show, Winchester Speakers Festival, Woolly Hat Fair)	392	1	5	4.02	1.085
Sports (e.g. Winchester Community Games, Winchester Criterium and Cyclefest)	389	1	5	3.59	1.072
Science (e.g. Winchester Science Festival)	387	1	5	3.69	1.021
Music (e.g. Alresford Music Festival, Boomtown, Graze Festival, Winchester Chamber Music Festival, Winchester Jazz Festival)	389	1	5	3.86	1.164
Literature (e.g. Winchester Poetry Festival, Winchester Writers Festival)	390	1	5	3.55	1.083
Food and drink (e.g. Ginchester, Hampshire Food Festival, Harvest Festival, Winchester Beer and Cider Festival, Winchester Cheese and Chilli Festival, , Winchester Cocktail Week, Wine Festival Winchester)	390	1	5	4.02	1.002
Horticulture (e.g. Winchester Cathedral's Festival of Flowers)	390	1	5	3.56	1.051
History (e.g. Heritage Open Days)	386	1	5	3.91	1.020
Film (e.g. Winchester Short Film Festival)	390	1	5	3.33	1.093
Fashion (e.g. Winchester Fashion Week)	391	1	5	3.20	1.136
Comedy (e.g. Winchester Comedy Festival, Winchestival)	392	1	5	3.65	1.072
Christmas (e.g. Winchester Christmas Lights Switch On, Winchester Christmas Lantern Parade, Winchester Christmas Market and Ice Rink,)	392	1	5	4.03	1.079
Children's (e.g. Children of Winchester Festival)	387	1	5	3.53	1.031
Architecture (e.g. Winchester Cathedral's Stonemasonry Festival)	391	1	5	3.61	1.066
Valid N (listwise)	368				

Source: The authors

Another element of reflection is the resident perception of the events contribute to the local community enjoyment of life. Table 3 reveals that the local residents are supportive of events being held in their city. The less popular type of events in Winchester scored a mean of 3.20 (events based on Fashion). As for the most popular type of events, they scored 4.03 (events related to Christmas). In general, there is a high level of agreement between the residents' respect to the positive economic effect of events in Winchester (Table 4). Vice versa is not at the same level the valuation about tourism.

Table 3
Tourism Development in Winchester Disrupts My Life

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	93	23.5	23.7	23.7
	2	128	32.3	32.7	56.4
	3	90	22.7	23.0	79.3
	4	58	14.6	14.8	94.1
	5	23	5.8	5.9	100.0
	Total	392	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	1.0		
Total		396	100.0		

Source: The authors

Table 4
I See Tourists in Winchester As Intruders

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	212	53.5	54.2	54.2
	2	97	24.5	24.8	79.0
	3	55	13.9	14.1	93.1
	4	19	4.8	4.9	98.0
	5	8	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	391	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.3		
Total		396	100.0		

Source: The authors

Finally, the findings also show residents' feeling regarding tourism event development through three statement based on the impact of tourism on quality of life (Ridderstaat et al., 2016): 'Tourism brings more investment opportunities to Winchester's economy', 'Tourism creates a variety of jobs in Winchester' and 'Tourism preserves my community's culture'. The reason of these statement is related to the needs to understand in depth the feeling of the residents respect to some of the direct effects of the tourism presence (investment and job) and one of the externalities (the corruption of the identity). The results shows that there is a wide agreement on tourism local effect in Winchester. Most of the respondents voiced their concerns regarding the economic impact of tourism based on investments (76% as sum of agree (42%) and completely agree (35%)) and jobs (67% a sum of agree (34%) and completely agree (+33%)).

Despite this wide agreement on positive effects of tourism, there is a little part of the respondents who shows some doubts regarding the influence of tourism in front of the local culture. As to the statement: 'Tourism preserves my community's culture', 16% (12.2% + 3.8%) of the respondents see tourists as a threat to the community.

To analyse in depth, the relationship between happiness, tourism and events, some correlations between one of the more general variable that express happiness (I consider myself A happy/unhappy person) and questions about tourism pressure and social variables (presence of children, gender and age) are developed. In particular, to value the ties that exist between the variables was used Kendall's tau-b, a nonparametric measure of association for ordinal or ranked variables. The measure of association reveals that a relation between the condition of unhappiness and the perception of a negative - or weak - effects of the tourism development in Winchester. If social variables of respondents are considered, results show that the unhappy people are young and the without children.

Table 5
Tourism Growth in Winchester Has Taken Advantage of The Community

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	104	26.3	26.7	26.7
	2	92	23.2	23.7	50.4
	3	136	34.3	35.0	85.3
	4	45	11.4	11.6	96.9
	5	12	3.0	3.1	100.0
	Total	389	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	7	1.8		
Total		396	100.0		

Source: The authors

Table 2 reveals that local residents in Winchester are in general happy people. Table 3 and 4, reveals that the local residents are supportive of events being held in their city. As for figure 3 reveals that the local residents are supportive of tourism and events development in their city. Finally, Table 5 shows that the residents whom express an unhappy conditions are critical in front of the tourism effects and respect to the organization of the events in Winchester. Considering the less information about socioeconomic characteristics, the unhappy residents are younger and without children, while the variable 'gender' is not related with the happiness condition.

Based on the results, it would be plausible to suggest that when local residents are generally happy in their daily life, they are more resilient to issues related to tourism and events, and are therefore very supportive of development (tourism and events) in their city. Our results support the fact that it is important for governments to value equally the happiness of locals and visitors. It is therefore, the level of happiness of locals in Winchester that leads to satisfaction with events and tourism, and not the other way round. Additionally, it is important to foster real encounter between hosts and guests. 'The recognition that the interaction between the main actors involved in the production and consumption of urban spaces is an essential factor contributing to the co-creation of new urban localities and 'active' tourism experiences' (Tiberguhien, 2017: 102). The following sections of this research, will identify and understand the factors that cause residents' dissatisfaction with tourism events.

Discussion and Analysis

Reverse Psychology / Deductive Approach

Tourism is acknowledged to be an industry having potential to bring considerable satisfaction to the locals if wisely planned and managed; it can boost the socio-economic condition of a destination if locals are integrated in the decision making process (Fenich, 2007; Getz, 2007;). In contrast, a study conducted on the impacts of tourism events on the city of Pietarsaari, locals showed that although hosting a tourism can be of economic benefit to a host community, there are also instances where it ends up costing the host community more in the long run (Etiosa, 2012). Factors like infrastructural breakdown, solid waste disposal after large scale events have been held in a community or other forms of environmental pollution caused by the events to the community, can cost the community a lot. These factors have in past time acted like a stumbling block towards the achievement of the desired result by the host community and therefore caused significant dissatisfaction with the hosting of a tourism event even if those events are part of the community's norm (Kolb, 2006; Etiosa, 2012). Similar to the Petarsaari case study, in the present context, if a reverse stand is adopted, the residents' dissatisfaction with events and tourism, could be listed as follow:

- They do not feel integrated in the organisation, planning and delivery
- They do not feel represented by the events and form of tourism developed
- They might not be native born of the area, therefore do not understand the purpose, nature and importance of either activity
- They are part of deprived area and are on low income, therefore have other concerns that the sustainability of tourism and events
- They have a poor health and therefore do not enjoy neither tourism or events
- They do not believe that others (visitors) contribute to their own development
- They perceive more negative impacts than positive in the organisation of events and tourism development (like waste production; infrastructural breakdown; etc).

In general, residents voicing their dissatisfaction with events and tourism are consumers at the base of the pyramid. They belong to the poorest economic group (Sanchez-Barrios *et al.*, 2015). Extended literature, Kim *et al.* (2013, p. 537) stated that '…when residents perceive the positive economic, social, and cultural impact of tourism, satisfaction with related life domains (sense of material, community, and emotional well-being) increases too. However, when residents perceive the negative environmental impact of tourism, their sense of health and safety decreases as a result'. Basically, those not benefiting from events or tourism could be considered as not supportive. Sanchez-Fernandez, Alvarez-Bassi and Cardona (2018), explain that cultural loss, environmental deterioration and saturation as a results of activities like tourism or events are reasons why locals are voicing their dissatisfaction regarding enjoyment of public spaces.

The Consumers at the Base of the Pyramid As the 'Opponent' of Tourism and Events

In general, studies always try to understand the motivations of those (visitors and/or locals) taking parts to events (Fotiadis *et al.*, 2018; Slak Valek, 2018). Research is not focusing on those (visitors and/or locals) who are not. They are equally important because, if motivation is likely to bring satisfaction (Fotiadis *et al.*, 2018), non-motivation is likely to bring complaints, poor performance. In the present case, locals who are not supportive of local events and tourism development, are not likely to be welcoming with visitors, what might affect the image, therefore performance of the destination. Host community receptiveness to both visitors and tourism development play an important role in attracting and pleasing visitors and this has been acknowledged in the work of Andriotis (2005), Sirakaya and Choi (2005), Wang and Pfister (2008), and Gowreesunkar et al (2011).For instance, when we know that 'tourists are demanding more unique experiences in making their destination choice, and the interaction with locals can shape these unique experiences, we tend to involve locals in the process. The willingness to interact depends on how the locals perceive the impact of tourism on their happiness and satisfaction with life' (Croes *et al.*, 2017, p. 5). Our view that the dissatisfied with the development of tourism and events should be taken into in consideration and their concern addressed is to some extent supported by Gunn and Var (2002) and Edgell et al. (2008) both cited in Draper *et al.* (2011, p. 65), who argued that: 'local planning and management must go beyond just those who directly benefit by being in the tourism business (…).

For sustainable tourism, the business community should seek input from local residents so they can voice their concerns and preferences regarding tourism development and planning'. Furthermore, service design toward the well-being of consumers (in our case, local residents that are dissatisfied with events and tourism development in Winchester), should be engaging, inclusive and acknowledge social standing. Such practice can positively impact on well-being of the target (Sanchez-Barrios *et al.*, 2015). This is very important for Winchester because 16% of respondents considering that Tourism don't preserve the community culture, and 31% is not agree respect the statement "I am satisfied with the manner in which tourism development and planning in Winchester is currently taking place". These are both significant percentage (even if they represent the minority).

Gentrification and the 'Venice Syndrome'

For the consumers at the base of the pyramid, gentrification - defined as a process of socio-spatial changes, where the rehabilitation of residential properties situated in popular or traditional neighbourhoods for residents with high financial capacity or for tourists, leading to the consumers at the base of the pyramid to move somewhere else (Mendes, 2014) – could also explain this lack of interest and even antagonism for tourism and events development. Gentrification is to be related to the ‘Venice syndrome’. Over tourism in Venice has led to the emergence of a new term, the ‘Venice Syndrome’ ‘often used to refer to the phenomena of tourism saturation and the exodus of local residents to the surrounding urban centres’ (Milano, 2017, p. 3).

The negative perception of events and tourism by some member of the local community can be put under the umbrella of negative social impacts. More specifically, the negative perception is due to personal frustration: ‘This is the extent to which individual members of a community feel personally impacted by an event. Residents affected in this way feel that they are less important than event attendees during the event period and may therefore be resentful towards the event itself’ (Bladen *et al.*, 2018, p. 383). For Bladen *et al.* (2012), social impacts, therefore the level of frustration should be a metric to evaluate the performance of an event.

Despite the negative social impacts of events and tourism , cities can’t afford not to have events or tourism. Taking the case of events, Richard and Palmer (2010) explained that events contribute to the competitiveness of cities particularly in the context of globalisation where destinations are competing against each other. Richard and Palmer (2010, pp. 2-3) added that: ‘The creation and promotion of events (…) have become a critical component of urban development strategy across the globe (…). Cultural events have become central to processes of urban development and revitalisation (…). That said, it becomes obvious that a sustainable tourism and event management strategy is needed. This approach contributes to a balance of benefits for both residents and visitors (Edgell and Swanson, 2013).

Winchester As A Resilient Destination

‘Developing city resilience has been an international focus in the past decades’ (Basurto-Cedeno & Pennington-Gray, 2016: 149). The topic of this research is fully part of this international focus. Systems and individuals are exposed to a variety of crises (either social, ecological or economic) that can threaten their existence. Resilience is all about the ability of the systems and / or individuals to resist those threats (Pechlaner, Zacher, Eckert & Petersik, 2018). Systems and individuals have different level of resilience (Pechlaner, Zacher, Eckert & Petersik, 2018). The economic success of an area over a long period of time contributes to the resilience of this area (Pechlaner et al, 2018). From a tourism point of view, the resilience of a destination is determined by the general acceptance of tourism by the locals, but also by the positive image of the DMO among the locals (Pechlaner et al, 2018).

For Basurto-Cedeno and Pennington-Gray (2016), resilience is about the ability of a destination to return to its previous condition after a crisis or shock.

The results of the survey carried in Winchester revealed that local residents in Winchester are overall happy people. The survey also revealed that the locals are overall happy with the DMO. Indeed, to the questions:

'I am satisfied with the manner in which tourism development and planning in Winchester is currently taking place', 40% of the respondents scored 3 on the likert scale (1 = completely disagree; 5 = completely agree) which is the highest score.

'Tourism development is done with the best interests of Winchester and environment in mind' 36% of the respondents scored 3 on the likert scale (1 = completely disagree; 5 = completely agree) which is also the highest score.

The above results are also supported by Table 3 and 5.

On that basis, Winchester could be said to be a resilient city toward events and tourism. The level of happiness of the locals has turned into a form of resilience that make them more tolerant toward the negative impact of tourism and events. That said, the less endowed members of the local community are not supportive of neither activity. Also, considering the literature review, it may be concluded that in Winchester the level of support to tourism and events, in other words, the level of resilience, is pro rata of the socio-economic background of the locals. The locals at the base of the pyramid by voicing their concern regarding tourism are overall voicing their frustration with life in general that turned into a form of antagonism toward visitors. To some extent, the findings of tis research paper is in line with Pechlaner et al (2018) who argued that the resilience of a region is related to the economic situation of that particular region. It is very important for the local DMO not to ignore the 'opponent' to tourism and events because they are part of the community and as such a stakeholder of the tourism and event industry. The performance of the destination relies on them as well.

The nature of the tourism developed in Winchester (SIT) as well as the type of events (family based) held in the city can also explain the overall level of resilience of the city. Taking the example of Indianapolis, Gullion, Hji-Avgoustis, Fu and Lee (2015), explained that the development of cultural tourism (SIT) in the city contributed to the overall happiness of the local community. That was evidenced by the opening of new businesses and more people move to the area.

Conclusion

In the case of well-off destinations (like Winchester) dissatisfaction with events and tourism, come from the less endowed members of the community. Most of the time it is due to social reasons (they have other concerns that the sustainability of tourism and events; they do not enjoy neither tourism or events; they do not believe that visitors contribute to their own development); political or management reasons (they do not feel involved in what is going on in the community; they perceive more negative impacts than positive in the organisation of events and tourism development); cultural reasons (they do not feel represented by the events and form of tourism developed; they do not understand the purpose, nature and importance of either activity). But overall, in well-off destinations (like Winchester), the level of support to tourism and events is quite high overall. This is due to the fact that the level of resilience, is pro rata of the socio-economic background of the locals. The nature of the tourism developed as well as the type of events (family and cultural local community events) held in the destination also contribute to the overall level of resilience.

The findings also reveal that the happiness of residents should systematically be used as a metric by DMO to assess their performance. For local residents, the economic impacts of tourism are less important than their happiness (Seraphin *et al.*, 2018). Failure for DMO to take into consideration happiness / quality of life as a metric for assessment of performance might lead on the long term to issues like tourismphobia and anti-tourism movements. It is important that DMOs conduct research on the perception of locals on tourism events as studies (Candrea and Ispas, 2010; McCabe, 2006) show that that locals' perceptions of events are shaped and dictated by their expectations and this impact on their happiness and in turn, receptiveness to welcome such events in the future.

Given that the decision to host tourism events is a condition closely tied to the domestic policies of destinations, residents' political perspectives also do play an important part in their propensity to support tourism events. DMOs need therefore be pro-active and innovative in their approach of destination management. The local political context need to be studied along with marketing conditions in order to bring out the desired results of tourism event hosting. 'Destination management is, therefore the glue that hold together a variety of interdependent, co-existing partners, which collectively make the destination superior to the sum of its individual, independent parts' (Semley &Bellingham, 2018: 49).

In terms of addition to literature, existing research presented a one-way direction between event / tourism and impacts (positive and/or negative) on local communities, with events and tourism impacting on local communities. The present findings show that in some cases, the direction of the impact or contribution goes the other way round. It is the resilience of local residents that enable events and tourism to grow and remain. From an academic point of view, the findings have demonstrated that the level of happiness of the local residents can mitigate their dissatisfaction with the tourism industry if they derive satisfaction from events, which is part of the tourism industry. It also implies that there is a one-way direction between local residents' happiness and the development of the tourism industry and events organisation. Namely, that it is the level of happiness of locals that leads to satisfaction with events and tourism, and not the other way round, in other words, the satisfaction with events and tourism leading to improving the level of happiness of local residents.

However, it is also important to highlight that happiness may also be related to many other factors for some residents. For instance, residents who are economically weak might still associate happiness with economic gain. As a result, this situation represents a limitation to the study, as it cannot be deduced that happiness is more important than economic gain for all residents. Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) and other national bodies, should therefore conduct some analyses of residents' supportiveness to tourism and give priority to foster local residents' happiness (where necessary) before planning tourism events. This view is supported by Dupont (2009) who used the co-integration and causality theory, but also by Seraphin *et al.* (2016), based on the Blakeley Model. This research paper is therefore contributing to the meta-literature in the area. Last but not least, there is absolutely no research paper on tourism and events based on Winchester (UK). Future research may look into the possibility of replicating the study in other destinations facing issues regarding resident's supportiveness and tourism event developments.

Grant Support: The authors received no financial support for this work.

References

Andriotis, K. (2005). Community group perceptions of and preferences for tourism development: Evidence from Crete. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *29*(67).

Akinyi, M. M. (2015). Community-based tourism as a new livelihood: Sustaining social and human capital and local impact management on the local community. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*, *13*(2) 68–78.

Andrews, H., & Leopold, T. (2013). Events and the social sciences. Abingdon: Routledge.

Basurto-Cedeno, E. M., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2016). Tourism disaster resilience scorecard for destinations (TDRSD): The case of Manta, Ecuador. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, *2*(2), 149–163.

Bladen, C., Kennel, J., Abson, E., & Wilde, N. (2012). Event management. An introduction. London: Routledge.

Bosshart, L. & Macconi, I. (1998). Defining entertainment. *Communication Research Trends, 18*(3), 3–6.

Bowdin, G., Allen, J., O'Toole, W., Harris, R., & McDonnell, I. (2010). Events management. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Buckley, J. (2017). *Florence launches campaign telling tourists how to behave*. Retrieved 31 July 2018, from http://www.cntraveler.com/story/florence-launches-campagin-telling-tourists-how-to-behave.

Campistron, M. (2018). Tourisme: On part pour oublier le monde plutot que pour le decouvrir. Retrieved on 30 July 2018, from https://www.nouvelobs.com/societe/20180718.OBS9887/tourisme-on-part-pour-oublier-le-monde-plutot-que-pour-le-decouvrir.html.

Candrea, A. N., & Ispas, A. (2010). Promoting tourist destinations through sport events. The case of Braşov. *Revista de turismstudii si cercetari in turism*, 10, 61–67.

Carlsen, J. (2004). *The economics and evaluation of festivals and events*, pages 246–259, Festival and events management, an international arts and culture perspective. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, Elsevier.

Croasmun, J. T., & Ostrom, L. (2011). Using Likert-Type Scales in the Social Sciences. *Journal of Adult Education*, *40*(1), 19–22.

Croes, R., Rivera, M. A., Semrad, K., & Khalizadeh, J. (2017). Happiness and tourism: Evidence from Aruba, Unpublished Manuscript, The Dick Pope Sr. Institute for Tourism Studies. Orlando, Florida.

Draper, J., Woosnam, K. M., & Norman, W. C. (2011). Tourism use history: Exploring a new framework for understanding residents' attitudes toward tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, *50*(1), 64–77.

Dupont, L. (2009). Cointégration et causalité entre développement touristique, croissance économique et réduction de la pauvreté : Cas de Haïti. *Revue Caribéennes,* http://etudescaribeennes.revues.org.

Edgell, D. L. & Swanson, J. R. (2013). Tourism policy and planning. Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. New York: Routledge.

Etiosa, O. (2012). The impacts of Event Tourism on host communities: The city of Pietarsaari. Thesis to Central Ostrobothnia University of Applied Sciences.

Fenich, G. (2007). Meetings, expositions, events & conventions. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice. Hall.

Foley, M., McGillivray, D., & McPherson, G. (2012). Event policy: From theory to strategy. Routledge: London.

Fotiadis, A. K., Vassiliadis, C. A. & Spyridoy, A. (2018). What motivates people to be involved in sport tourism events? The Greek case of Sfendami International Mountain Festival, in Seraphin, H. and Korstanje, M. (Ed.), *International event management. Bridging the gap between theory and practice*, Nova Science Publishers, New York, 185-204.

Fox, D., Gouthro, M. B., Morakabati, Y., & Brackstone, J. (2014). Doing events research. From theory to practice. Routledge: London.

Getz, D. 2007. *Event management and event tourism*. New York: Cognizant Corporations.

Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, *29*(3) 403–428.

Getz, D. & Page, S. (2016). *Event studies: Theory, research and policy for planned events*. Oxon, UK: Routledge.

Gholipour, H. F., Tajaddini, R., & Nguyen, J. (2016). Happiness and inbound tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 57, 234–278.

Gowreesunkar, V, Cooper, CP & Durbarry R (2011). A study of Attitude and Knowledge of Residents, as Tourism Hosting Community, in the region of Grand Bay (Mauritius). *International Tourism Sustainability Conference: Embracing Social and Environmental Change: The Influence and Role of Tourism*, 21-24 September

Gowreesunkar, V & Sotiriades, M. (2014). Entertainment of leisure tourists in island destinations: Evidence from the Island of Mauritius. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *4*(2223), 1–19.

Gullion, C., Hji-Avgoustis, S., Fu, Y. Y. & Lee, S. (2015). Cultural tourism investment and resident quality of life: A case study of Indianapolis, *Indiana, International Journal of Tourism Cities*, *1*(3), 184–199.

Hermans, H. J. M. (2003). The construction and reconstruction of a dialogical self. *Journal of Contructivist Pyschology*, *16*(2), 89–130.

Hughes, H. L., & Allen, D. (2008). Entertainment and its significance in the holiday experience at UK seaside resorts. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *33*(2), 131–141.

Kim, K., Uysal, M. & Sirgy, M. J. (2013). How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? *Tourism Management*, 36, pp. 527–540.

Kolb, M. (2006). Tourism marketing for cities and towns: using branding and events to attract tourists. Elsevier Ltd: Oxford.

Leadbeater, C. (2017). Anti-tourism protesters in Barcelona slash tyres on sightseeing buses and rental bikes. http://www.telegraph.co.uk.

McCabe, S. (2006). The making of community identity through historic festive practice: The case of ashbourne royal shrovetide football. *Festivals, Tourism and Social Change,* 99–118

Mendes, L. (2014). Gentrificacao e politicas de reabilitacao urbana em Portugal: Uma analise critica a luz da teste rent gap de Neil Smith. *Cadernos Metropole*, *16*(32), 487–511.

Milano, C. (2017), *Overtourism and tourismphobia: Global trends and local contexts*. Ostelea School of Tourism & Hospitality, Barcelona.

O'Toole, W. (2011). Event feasibility and development. From strategy to operations. Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford.

Pechlaner, H., Zacher, D., Eckert, C., & Petersik, L. (2018). Joint responsibility and understanding of resilience from DMO perspective – An analysis of different situations in Bavarian tourism destinations, *International Journal of Tourism Cities*. Doi: 10.1108/IJTC-12-2017-0093

Richard, G., & Palmer, R. (2010). Eventful cities. Cultural management and urban revitalisation. Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford.

Ridderstaat, J., Croes, R., & Nijkamp, P. (2016). A two-way causal chain between tourism development and quality of life in a small island destination: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *24*(10), 1461–1479.

Rivera, M., Croes, R., & Lee, S. (2015). Tourism development and happiness: A residents' perspective. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 5, 5–15.

Salgado, J., & Hermans, H. J. M. (2005). The return of subjectivity: From a multiplicity of selves to the dialogical self. *E-Journal of Applied Psychology: Clinical section*, *1*(1), 3–13.

Sanchez-Barrios, L. J., Giraldo, M., Khalik, M., & Manjarres, R. (2015). Service for the underserved: Unintended well-being. *The Service Industries Journal*, *35*(15-16), 883–897.

Sanchez-Fernandez, M. D., Alvarez-Bassi, D., & Cardona, J. R. (2018). Difficulties for enjoyment of public spaces by residents: Maldonado-Punta del Este conurbation, *International Journal of Tourism Cities*. *D*oi: 10.1108/IJTC-11-2017-0069

Semley, N., & Bellingham, T. (2018). Determining the policy importance of event tourism for DMOs in England", in Seraphin, H. and Korstanje, M. (45-64). *International event management. Bridging the gap between theory and practice*, Nova Science Publishers, New York.

Seraphin, H. (2018). Locals' happiness: The missing measurement in Caribbean tourism development, *Words in the bucket*. https://www.wordsinthebucket.com/locals-happiness-the-missing-measurement-in-caribbean-tourism-development.

Séraphin, H**.,** Gowreesunkar, V., Roselé-Chim, P., Korstanje, M., & Duplan, Y. (2018). Tourism planning and innovation: The Caribbean under the spotlight, *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management,* 9, 384–388.

Seraphin, H., Gowreesunkar, V., & Ambaye, M. (2016). The Blakeley Model applied to improving a tourist destination: An exploratory study. The case of Haiti. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *5*(4), 325–332.

Sirakaya, E. and Choi, H (2005). Measuring Residents' Attitudes towards Sustainable Development: Development of Sustainable Tourism Attitude Scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, *43*(380).

Slak Valek, N. (2018). Identifying latent variables of participants at a community marathon event", in Seraphin, H. and Korstanje, M (Ed.) (pp. 205-218). *International event management. Bridging the gap between theory and practice*, Nova Science Publishers, New York.

Sustainable Development Research Network (SDRN) (2005). Wellbeing concepts and challenges, Briefing paper 3, SRDN: London.

Sunshine, K., Backman, K., & Shelai, J. (1995). Festival Management and Event Tourism, *2*(3-4), 159–166(8)

Tiberghien, G. (2017) Reinventing the local in tourism: Producing, consuming and negotiating, *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, *3*(1), 102–104.

Visit Winchester, "Destination Management Plan (2015-2020)", available at: https://www.winchester.gov.uk/data/tourism-data (accessed 15 June 2018).

Wang, Y., & Pfister, R. (2008). Residents' Attitude towards Tourism and Perceived Personal Benefits in a Rural Community. *Journal of Travel Research*, *47*(84).

Istanbul University Press

Journal of Tourismology

Journal of Tourismology, 5(2): 113-126

DOI: 10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0032
http://jt.istanbul.edu.en/

Submitted: 23.09.2019
Accepted: 27.09.2019
Published Online: 16.10.2019

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Accessible Museums for Visually Impaired: A Case Study from Istanbul

Fusun Istanbullu Dincer[1], Hulya Ozcit[2], Ibrahim Cifci[3], Bahadir Sezer[4], Onur Cuneyt Kahraman[5], Simal Sahinoglu[6]

Abstract

Freedom to travel is a fundamental human right. Thus, disabled people should be able to travel. Disabilities are divided into subcategories, whereby vision disability is one of them. In the context of museums, there are some implementations for visually disabled people. However, there is still limited empirical investigation on the expectations, satisfaction, and challenges of visually impaired travelers. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to determine the expectations, needs, and challenges of visually impaired people visiting museums. In this vein, the study draws on a qualitative research approach employing data from visually impaired individuals to understand those individuals' perceptions, needs, and challenges. The study offers several practical implications to help museum managers enhance the experience of visually impaired visitors.

Keywords

Accessibility, Accessible museum, Visually impaired person, Museum tourism, Tourist expectations

1 Fusun Istanbullu Dincer (Prof. Dr.), Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Department, Istanbul, Turkey. E-mail: istanbul@istanbu.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0001-9446-5519

2 Hulya Ozcit (Ph.D. Student), Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Department, Istanbul, Turkey. E-mail: hulyaozcit@gmail.com ORCID: 0000-0002-8722-882X

3 **Correspondence to:** Ibrahim Cifci (Dr.), Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Department, Istanbul, Turkey. E-mail: ibrahim.cifci@istanbul.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0001-7469-1906

4 Bahadir Sezer (Lecturer), Trakya Univesity, School of Applied Sciences, Department of Tourism Management and Hotel Management, Trakya, Turkey. E-mail: bahadirsezer@trakya.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0002-4403-5630

5 Onur Cuneyt Kahraman (Dr.), Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Tourism, Tourism Management Department, Bolu, Turkey. E-mail: onurcuneytkahraman@ibu.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0001-7773-8757

6 Simal Sahinoglu (Lecturer), Ayvansaray University, Plato College of Higher Education, Istanbul, Turkey. E-mail: simalsahinogluyayla@ayvansaray.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0002-0197-4961

To cite this article: Istanbullu Dincer, F., Ozcit, H., Cifci, I., Sezer, B., Kahraman, O. C., & Sahinoglu, S. (2019). Accessible museums for visually impaired: A case study from Istanbul. *Journal of Tourismology, 5*(2), 113–126. https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0032

Introduction

Disabled people are have been referred to as the next consumer niche (Prager, 1999). Traveling for relaxation, having a good time and getting around is a human right, and it is not only for non-disabled people, rather it is for all humans whether disabled or not (Ozturk, Yayli, & Yesiltas, 2008). That shows the need to discuss the requirements and motivations for disabled people. The reason for its importance is very simple, the group is substantial and unfortunately it is growing every day. At the United Nations 85th plenary meeting, some Standard Rules on Equal Opportunities for People with Disabilities were adopted. Some of these rules, for example, are related to the tourism sector (ENAT, 2007).

- Rule 1: Awareness-raising. Countries will increase societal awareness of the rights and needs of people with disabilities.
- Rule 5: Accessibility. Countries will ensure they provide accessible environments.
- Rule 10: Culture. Countries should ensure that people with disabilities are integrated and that they participate in cultural activities.
- Rule 11: Recreation and Sports. Countries will make areas for sports and recreational activities accessible for disabled people.

As Darcy (2002) stated in his study, there are socially constructed barriers that exclude disabled people from participating in social activities. Accessible tourism for disabled individuals may provide leverage to social well-being by maintaining empowerment to the aforementioned group, who in turn may become more life-bounded and active within the multifold dynamics of society at large (Devile & Kastenholz, 2018). Recent studies regarding disabled people's participation in tourism activities was limited (McKercher, Packer, Yau, & Lam, 2003; Shaw & Coles, 2004). Some researchers have examined hotel facilities and the views of hotels and travel agents (Ozturk, Yayli, & Yesiltas, 2008; Bulgan & Carikci, 2015; Wazzan, 2015) while some researchers have focused on the needs and motivations of disabled people - especially for physically disabled people (Ray and Ryder, 2003; Daniels, Rodgers, and Wiggins, 2005; Darcy S. , 2010; Kim, Stonesifer, and Han, 2012; Shaw and Coles, 2004; Blichfeldt and Nicolaisen, 2011) and limited studies were about the destination competitiveness and accessible tourism information system for disabled people market (Villa, Darcy, & Gonzales, 2015; Michopoulou & Buhalis, 2013; Darcy & Dickson, 2009). However, attending tourism activities is not only related to staying in a hotel. Furthermore, hotel facilities and access to the destination are essential factors for disabled people to feel comfortable during their vacation. On the other hand, to have a complete holiday experience taking part in social activities in the cities is important and museum visits are one of the most important methods of learning about destinations. At this point, the importance of museum access arises and this issue deserves more attention from academia because visiting a museum is not only a touristic activity, rather it is a cultural activity for residents of destination.

Existing literature on accessible museums has focused on evaluating museums' accessibility from the side of museums and creating technologies to make the museums more accessible (Mesquita & Carneiro, 2016; March, Wiener, Naghshineh, & Giusti, 2005). The studies in this field are restricted to clarifying expectations, satisfaction levels, challenges, and needs of visually disabled people. The tendency has been focused on physical access rather than sensory access regarding museum accessibility (Argyropoulos & Kanari, 2015). Therefore, the aim of this study is to identify expectations, satisfaction levels, and the challenges of people with visual impairments when visiting museums. With this in mind, interviews have been conducted with authorized people in associations for visual impairments based in Istanbul.

Removing disabilities and facilitating access to the visually impaired in the travel context entails a close examination of such a collective experience from the perspective of visually impaired individuals. This approach consistent with necessities for extensive efforts to delineate expectations, satisfactions, and challenges of visually impaired travelers by the meaning of museum visiting experiences in contexts rather than to isolate and generalize experiences based on quantitative measures. The result of this study reveals reliable strategies to address needs of visually impaired individuals for more accessible museums by providing a body of knowledge to the tourism professionals that allows them to respond with more appropriate applications.

Literature Review

There are over 1 billion people who have a disability in the world and the World Health Organization defines disability as an umbrella term, which covers impairments, activity limitations, and participation restrictions. This means 1 in 7 people. 200 million people need glasses or other low vision devices; 70 million people need a wheelchair, 360 million people globally suffer from profound hearing loss (World Health Organization, 2016). According to the Population and Housing Census in Turkey, (TUIK) proportion of Turkey's population which has at least one type of disability is 6,9%. This table shows that 5,9% of the male population and 7,9% of the female population are disabled (TUİK, 2011, s. 79). Disabled people are less fortunate to benefit from social services than persons without disabilities. Despite all these facts global awareness of disability-inclusive developments is increasing. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) supports people with disabilities with full integration in societies (The World Bank, 2016).

The ICF (International Classification of Functioning, Disability, and Health) approved on May 22, 2001 during The World Health Assembly. According to ICF, *"a disability is a condition or function judged to be significantly impaired relative to the usual standard of an individual or group."*. Another definition of disability was made by The Equality Act. The Act defines a disability as *"a physical or mental impairment which has a substantial and long-term adverse effect on a person's ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities."* (The Equality Act, 2015).

Disability is a wide term, which can be divided into the following different sub-categories (Disabled World, 2016):

a) Mobility and physical impairments,
b) Spinal cord disability
c) Head injuries – brain disability
d) Vision disability
e) Hearing disability
f) Cognitive or learning disabilities
g) Psychological disorders
h) Invisible disabilities

Impairment and disability have close meanings. However, authors have come across some critical points between impairment and disability. Essentially, impairment is a functional limitation. On the other hand, disability is the loss of opportunities to take part in ordinary life, owing to physical and social barriers (Hughes, 1999).

Visual impairment impacts on all aspects of the quality of a person's life (Tadic, Lewando Hundt, Keeley, & Rahi, 2014). The World Health Organization (2016) stated that 285 million people are visually impaired and 39 million are blind. *"Visual impairment refers to a significant functional loss of vision that cannot be corrected by medication, surgical operation, or ordinary optical lenses such as spectacles"* (Department of Health HKSAR, 2008). Visual impairment can be mild or moderate but also includes total or functional blindness (National Eye Institute, 2016). Verma and Arora (2016) stated in their study that visual impairment is also known as sensory disability since vision is one of the five senses of the body. Some of the common visual impairments are a scratched cornea, scratches on the sclera, diabetes-related eye conditions, dry eyes, and corneal grafts. These injuries may result in serious problems such as blindness or ocular trauma (Disabled World, 2016). A legally blind person is the one whose visual field is less than an angle of 20 degrees. It has also been proved that ninety percent of individuals who are defined as legally blind have some useful vision or light perception, which means that total darkness is rare (The University of Texas In Austin, 2016).

A Disabled person's willingness to travel may vary according to their hearing, speaking, seeing, or orthopedic disabilities. Therefore, people's disabilities should be considered when designing indoor. The planning of a building for disabled people must be suitable in advance. However, some changes for disabled people can be implemented after the building constructed (Pehlivanoğlu, 2012, s. 28). Over the past decades, the awareness of accessible museums for disabled individuals has been increased. This increasing awareness has also changed the roles that museums need to have in the 21st century (Argyropoulos & Kanari, 2015). It is crucial to carry out a deep investigation of user requirements, to design a system to accommodate the needs of the disabled market (Michopoulou & Buhalis, 2013).

Before delving into the term of the accessible museum, it is necessary to understand the definition of a museum. The first definition of museum was made by the International Council of Museum (ICOM) in 1964. Since 1964, ICOM has updated this definition. According to the latest definition, "a museum is a non-profit, permanent institution in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity and its environment for the purposes of education, study and enjoyment" (ICOM, 2016).

Many previous researchers have focused on evaluating museums from the visitor's side, in the tourism perspective (Beeho & Prentice, 1995; Jansen-Verbeke & Van Rekom, 1996; Mafuya & Haydam, 2005; Nowacki, 2005; Braun-La Tour, Hendler, & Hendler, 2006; Tufts & Milne, 1999). Few researchers have focused on the features of the museums, such as accessibility. Mesquita and Carneiro (2016) identified strategies for museums to increase their accessibility for visitors with visual impairments. They analyzed 28 museums in London, Paris, Madrid, and Lisbon and demonstrated that European museums are more likely to implement strategies for mobility and available information. Further research on the experience of individuals with visual disabilities was carried out by Argyropoulos and Kanari (2015). They stated that the requests of visually disabled individuals are in contrast with one of the most critical duties of museums, which is the displaying of artwork and while protecting it at the same time. Asakawa et al. (2018) conducted a survey on visually impaired people to explain their experiences and motivations to visit and the accessibility problems they faced. Their study revealed that the participants are overly eager to visit the museums to satisfy their desire to learn and gain value the experience. However, it was found that they are not eligible to visit the museums more often because they were attached to friends, family or guides to visit the museum. Thus, it is recommended to provide navigation assistance as well as specific audio content to read to enhance the experience in the study. March et al. (2005) focused on creating accessible science museums for visitors with visual impairments with user-activated environmental audio beacons. They introduced a system called Ping, which is a cellphone-based program and guiding people by navigating for exhibiting the museum. Sen, Celik Yetim and Bilici (2014) stated that firstly visitors should reach the destination to accessing the museums. Wiastuti et al. (2018) in their studies aimed to answer three following questions: (a) Do museums implement the concept of accessible tourism? (b) How is every dimension in accessible tourism implemented by each museum? (c) What are the minimum and maximum size applied by most museums? Results sorted as; information, transport, common needs, universal design, and accessibility. The authors provided recommendations to ensure that museums are in line with the concept of accessible tourism and to improve the expected accessibility performance. Besides, It is recommended to have a strategic plan for accessibility, emphasizing that applications can be structured according to need. Streachay and Annis (2012) gave the following suggestions regarding the accessibility of museums and parks for people with visual disabilities:

1. Braille signage designed appropriately, which should be placed in easily recognizable places.
2. Audio descriptions, large print, and braille should provide the same information as the standard printed documents.
3. Descriptive signs for artwork should be significant. Furthermore, large and sans-serif fonts should be used with highly contrasting colors.
4. Audio-described tours should provide navigation that allows the patron to walk around when listening to descriptions.
5. Staff should be well trained to interact effectively with disabled people.
6. Visual displays and electronic signage should have large fonts in highly contrasting color schemes.
7. Objects should be placed in front of high-contrast backgrounds.
8. Lighting should be designed to reduce glare.
9. Museums should provide access through senses other than sight alone. For example, some museums have a smaller tactile versions of the artwork to allow patrons to feel the shapes and the design.

Accessibility has gained more attention in European countries in the last decades. Considering Turkey, the term of accessibility is far newer. In 2013, the Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality launched “Accessible Istanbul for All Project.” The aim of the project was to bring Istanbul on a competitive edge in global tourism. The project contributes mainly to the accessibility of museums in Istanbul (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2013). This project contains 21 museums in Istanbul, the Topkapi Palace, the Hagia Sophia, the Istanbul Archaeological Museum, the Chora Museum, the Great Palace Mosaic Museum, the Turkish and Islamic Arts Museum, the Istanbul Museum of the History of Science and Technology in Islam, the Rahmi

M. Koc Museum, the Istanbul Museum of Modern Art, the Istanbul Aviation Museum, the Sakip Sabanci Museum, the Istanbul Toy Museum, the Yildiz Palace, the Galata Mawlavi House Museum, the Miniature, the Panorama 1453 Historical Museum, the Basilica Cistern, the City Museum, the Istanbul Fire Museum, the Asian Museum, the Cartoon and Humor Museum.

Since 2013, the museums have become more accessible in Istanbul. The Istanbul Health Directorate has launched a Guidebook for Accessible Museums. This Guidebook focused more on physical accessibility. A few rules have been defined for people with visual impairments. Such as audio descriptions, large fonts and highly contrasting color schemes in visual displays, the ability to touch the artwork and guide dog implementations (Istanbul Saglik Mudurlugu, 2013).

Research Methodology

Due to the exploratory nature of the study, the qualitative study approach was used to designate the expectations, satisfaction levels and difficulties of visually-impaired persons who visit accessible museums in Istanbul. A series of semi-structured interviews were used to obtain the data. Three open-ended questions were established through the literature review (Akıncı & Sönmez, 2015; Pehlivanoğlu, 2012):

- What is your opinion about the accessible museums in Istanbul?
- Are you satisfied with the guidance services in accessible museums?
- What are the visually-impaired person’s expectations from the museums and what improvements can be made to accessible museums?

Within the scope of this research, the convenience sampling technique was employed. Two managers of visually impaired associations were initially reached. After these interviews were conducted, participants were asked to provide contacts with other potential informants. At the end of this process, interviews were conducted with 8 different participants from 4 different associations. After the reaching saturation for data, eight interviews were found enough and the interviews were terminated (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The reason to choose these associations is that the most authorized people are in this non-profit association since they are responsible for the needs and claims as well as they are responsible for minimizing the challenges that visually disabled people are facing and all these authorized people are visually disabled.

The data were obtained from June to July in 2016. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim with the permission of the participants. Right after the interviews, the acquired data was listened by researchers and computerized. A total of 30 pages were obtained after computerization. The data was initially evaluated by researchers separately. After the evaluation process, descriptive analysis method was performed phenomenologically to finalize the analysis. Descriptive analysis offers the opportunity to provide convenience to researchers due to interviews, and observations can be organized and interpreted to be presented to the reader. The data can be classified according to the previously determined themes, summarized and can be interpreted easily. Table 1 shows the participants of this study.

Table 1
Participants of This Study

Participant 1	Bogazici University, Technology and Education Laboratory for the Visually Impaired-GETEM
Participant 2	Bogazici University, Technology and Education Laboratory for the Visually Impaired-GETEM
Participant 3	Beyazay Association of Turkey
Participant 4	Turkey Visually Impaired Association Headquarters
Participant 5	Altinokta Visually Impaired Association
Participant 6	Altinokta Visually Impaired Association
Participant 7	Altinokta Visually Impaired Association
Participant 8	Altinokta Visually Impaired Association

Findings

What is your opinion about the accessible museums in Istanbul?

The result showed that there was a general opinion about the “accessibility” of the accessible museums in Istanbul. The participants stated that there were many deficiencies in accessible museums and all attendants criticized the accessibility of the museums in Istanbul. In addition, according to attendants, accessible museums in Istanbul were constructed for physically disabled people not for all disabilities. Perspectives of visually impaired people, it was stated by all interviewers that the historical artifacts exhibited inaccessible museums could be the limitations of the original ones. With customization of artifacts according to visually impaired individuals’ sense organs respectively tactual sense, sense of hearing even the sense of smell can help to re-identify elements.

On our topic, **P1** specified that: “*Firstly, either I can touch the historical artifacts, or it must be a replica that I can touch in museums.”* Likewise, with the following statement **P2** showed the importance of sense of hearing besides the tactual sense “*There are two important organs for visually-impaired people. One is hand; the other one is ear. There is a school named “Gören Eller.” Therefore, one reads the letter with his hand and uses the devices with his hands. These two forefingers are maybe the most important organs after the brain and heart, so it is very important use this effectively.”* In addition to this **P3** stated that: “*I remember what I touch. For instance, I can say sense of smell and heat. We can add the heat as a touching sense.”* With these statements, **P3** emphasized the importance of the sense of smell and the heat. In addition to all these, unlike the other participants **P4** stressed the depth perception. About the depth perception **P4** stated the importance of the education of depth perception to visually-impaired people with these words: *"The depth perception is not taught for visually-impaired* people *in Turkey. For this reason, even if the statues were made as a true copy, visually-impaired persons cannot comprehend the historical artifacts with touching. For example, distinction between Jesus statue and Virgin Mary statue all but impossible for visually-impaired persons in Turkey."*

Are you satisfied with the guidance services on accessible museums?

It was stated that visually impaired *people* could not visit the museums alone. In addition, accessibility practices in museums were not suitable for visually impaired people to visit alone. Based on accessibility, people with disabilities have the right to visit museums alone as others, but as stated by attendants they could not visit the accessible museums in Istanbul alone. They visited museums with a guide or a companion. In addition to this, the result also showed that there were different opinions about guidance services.

P1 expressed these statements about the importance of education for guides on the visually-impartments: *"Guides should not tell the place like there is something here and there. They need to train the guides. Visually impaired people can join a tour so you should train guides for them. How can you express the details of something in museums? What it means to tell visually impaired persons like "there is something."* About the qualifications of guides **P4** stated that: *"Guides have an impact like hearing on radio or television for us."* Different from these statements, **P5** indicated that the guides were sufficient: *"It is impossible to visit museums alone. ... You can find the guides sufficient."* **P6** commented on guides' sufficiency with this statement: *"Guides have to narrate to 15-20 people at one time, it is very hard to ask a question and also there is a limited time to guides' descriptions, so the benefit for us is limited."* Guide services were nor enough for all disabled people as stated by **P7**: *"Guide services were enough for who can hear but it was insufficient for the deaf-mute. Because deaf-and mute people cannot understand what the guides tell, it would be more beneficial to make some adjustments for all disabilities."*

What are visually impaired peoples' expectations from the museums and what improvements can be carried out for accessible museums?

There was a unified opinion about the accessibility of museums, the expectations of visually-impaired people were that to necessary regulations for all disabilities should be made. Specifically, to understand the meanings of historical artifacts for visually-impaired people it is important to make regulations that are conducive to an understanding with the sense organs. Besides the regulations of accessibility, it was addressed that the ability to understand the details should be taught for visually-impaired people.

P1 stated the importance of the sense organs for understanding historical artifacts and their expectations with these statements: *"As a visually-impaired our expectations are basically sense of touch, sense of hearing and understanding. ... Before the visitation of museums, I need to access their brochures. ... In this case they are thinking about visually-impaired persons if they send us brochures typed in Braille alphabet. ... For example, if they made an announcement on their website and put a description of the pictures if they think this we could tell that they made a regulation for me."* In addition to this **P5** added these statements: *"We need right to travel alone. We need roads with embossed. ... it would be better for visually-impaired persons if there is audio system that helps visually-impaired persons to navigate where they are and what is around."* **P4** had a different point of view, and not only regarding the arrangements for accessibility in museums. He suggested education for visually-impaired persons to understand the artifacts in the museums with these statements: *"Ministry of culture and tourism think in an economic way in this as usual. The entrance of museums is free for us even it is free for our companion. I wouldn't mind if there is entrance fee it is not important for me to enter museums, I am happy in the museums, I need to be at peace with myself for this they have to arrange the place and I need and education to gain benefit from the museums."* For the improvement of accessibility of museums, **P3** stated these suggestions: *"They can make a little cabin and you can make simulations which I can sense all the things. It is ever so easy. For example, visually-impaired persons can enter this cabin and they can have everything at one's fingertips so you can solve everything with this simulation. You need to define the aim well."*

Conclusion

Museums are important foundations that make a significant contribution to protecting countries' corporeal and moral heritages and have an important impact on the development of countries. Whether they are disabled or not, every person has a right to visit museums, have a great time and learn. However, disabled people have both physical and motivational challenges when visiting museums. For visually-impaired persons, these visits bring different challenges. Therefore, it is important to investigate the sufficiency of the arrangements in museums for visually-impaired persons.

In this study, most of the participants criticized accessibility and indicated that there were many deficiencies in the museums in Istanbul. Also, the participants stated that there was a traffic problem in Istanbul. Similarly, Şen, Çelik Yetim and

Bilici (2014) stated the importance of transportation. The most important expectation of visually-impaired persons was the making of arrangements for their sense of touch, sense of hearing and sense of smell. For visually-impaired persons it is more important to understand the artifacts and understand the meanings of these objects rather than visiting the museums. Therefore, it is necessary to make arrangments for visually-impaired persons' other senses. The sense of touch helps to understand an object and helps to remember it later for visually-impaired persons. For this they need education in depth perception. However, there is no proper education for visually-impaired persons about creating a depth perception in mind. Thus, visually-impaired persons cannot identify the objects by touching. if they would have this training, visually impaired individuals could have visualized the objects by touching their imitations in their minds. Streachay and Annis (2012) suggested braille signs designed appropriately to guide places, audio descriptions, large prints, and well-trained staff for accessibility of museums. As March, Wiener, Naghshieneh, and Giusti (2005) focused on to create user-activated environmental audio beacons for visually impaired visitors. In addition to this Akıncı and Sönmez (2015) stated that improving physical conditions for museums can please people with disabilities.

Another important issue for visually-impaired persons is visiting museums alone. Participants indicated that visiting museums with a group of people who do not have any disabilities is not providing a good experience because the guides cannot provide narration in a way that the visually impaired can understand and giving meaning. All participants stated that there should be a similarly visually-impaired guide who knows how to communicate with visually impaired individuals in order to provide a meaningful guidance service in museums. Thus guides who do not have a visual impairment are not adequate even if they were trained to serve to guide to visually-impaired people. The arrangements should be done for visually-impaired persons to visit museums without a companion. Naghshieneh and Giusti (2005) suggested in their study that a cellphone-based program be introduced to allow people to navigate the museum.

Besides the expectations of arrangements for sense organs, participants indicated that the required physical conditions were not provided either. Similarly, Dogru, Kaygalak, Miral Cavdırlı and Bahçeci (2014) stated that the most complained about the subject were physical conditions, the support of the infrastructure and technical equipment for disabled people. Also it was indicated that although all people have a right to do touristic activities, these activities have not been designing for disabled people which is inhibiting their participation (Yau, McKercher, & Packer, 2004; Yaylı & Öztürk, 2006, s. 87). In addition to this it has been suggested that arrangements must be made before the construction of the building and that it is designed for all disabled people. As stated by Yau, McKercher, and Packer (2004), participating in tourism activities for people with disabilities is more than just removing physical barriers, it is a metaphor for recovery.

There are a number of limitations to this study. First, in this study, the interview method was used and only eight participants took part. Also the convenient sampling method was used. For any future research being conducted in this subject, it would be desirable to add not only visually-impaired persons but also other disabled persons.

Grant Support: The authors received no financial support for this work.

References

Akıncı, Z., & Sönmez, N. (2015). Engelli bireylerin erişilebilir turizm beklentilerinin değerlendirilmesine yönelik nitel bir araştırma. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi, 26*(1), 97-113.

Argyropoulos, V. S., & Kanari, C. (2015). Re-Imagining The museum through "touch" reflections of individuals with visual disability on their experience of museum-visiting in Greece. *ALTER, European Journal Of Disability Research*, 130-143.

Asakawa, S., Guerreiro, J., Ahmetovic, D., Kitani, K.M., & Asakawa, C. (2018) "*The Present and Future of Museum Accessibility for People with Visual Impairments*", ASSETS'18 The 20th International ACM SIGACCESS Conference on Computers and Accessibility, October 22–24, 2018, Galway, Ireland.

Beeho, A. J., & Prentice, R. (1995). Evaluating the experiences and benefits gained by tourists visiting a socio-industrial heritage museum: An application of ASEB Grid Analysis to Blists Hill Open-Air Museum, the Ironbridge Gorge Museum, United Kingdom. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 229-251.

Blichfeldt, B. S., & Nicolaisen, J. (2011). Disabled travel: Not easy, but doable. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *14*(1), 79-102.

Braun-La Tour, K., Hendler, F., & Hendler, R. (2006). Digging deeper: Art museums in Las Vegas. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *33*(1), 265-268.

Bulgan, G., & Carikci, I. (2015). Handicapped tourism - A Research in four star and five star hotels of Antalya. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Universitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitusu Dergisi*, *1*(13), 15-42.

Daniels, M. J., Rodgers, E., & Wiggins, B. (2005). "Travel Tales": An interpretive analysis of constraints and negotiations to pleasure travel as experienced by persons with physical disabilities. *Tourism Management*, 26, 919-930.

Darcy, S. (2002). Marginalized participation: Physical disability, high support needs and tourism. *Journal of Hospitality Management*, *9*(1), 61-72.

Darcy, S. (2010). Inherent complexity: Disability, accessible tourism, and accommodation information preferences. *Tourism Management*, *31*(6), 816-826.

Darcy, S., & Dickson, T. (2009). A Whole-of-life approach to tourism: The case for accessible tourism experiences. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *16*(1), 32-44.

Department of Health HKSAR. (2008). *Visual Impairment.* Retrieved September 10, 2016, from Developmental Disorders Series: http://www.dhcas.gov.hk/english/public_edu/ files/SeriesI_VisualImpairment_Eng.pdf

Disabled World. (2016, August 17). *Disability: Definition, Types, and Models*. Retrieved from Disabled World Towards Tomorrow: http://www.disabled-world.com/disability/types/

Doğru, H., Kaygalak, S., Miral Çavdırlı, C., & Bahçeci, V. (2014). Engelli Bireylerin turizm hizmetlerine yönelik e- şikâyetleri. *Gazi Üniversitesi Turizm Fakültesi Dergisi, 2*, 33-47.

ENAT. (2007). Rights of tourists with disabilities in the European union framework. Athens: European Network For Accessible Tourism.

Devile, E., & Kastenholz, E. (2018) Accessible tourism experiences: The voice of people with visual disabilities. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events, 10*(3), 265-285. Doi: 10.1080/19407963.2018.1470183.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. (1967). The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research (NY: Aldine b.). New York.

Hughes, H. (1999). The construction of impairment: modernity and the aesthetic of oppression. *Disability and Society*, *14*(2), 155-172.

ICOM. (2016, August 22). *Museum Definition*. Retrieved from International Council of Museum: http://icom.museum/the-vision/museum-definition/

Istanbul Saglik Mudurlugu. (2013). *Engelsiz Muze Rehberi.* Retrieved September 15, 2016, from Erisilebilir Istanbul: http://www.erisilebiliristanbul.org/BilgiBankasi/Documents/engelsiz_muze_rehberi.pdf

Jansen-Verbeke, M., & Van Rekom, J. (1996). Scanning museum visitors: Urban tourism marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *23*(2), 364-375.

Kim, W. G., Stonesifer, H., & Han, J. (2012). Accommodating the needs of disabled hotel guests: Implications for guests and management. *International Journal Of Hospitality Management*, *31*(4), 1311-1317.

Mafuya, N. P., & Haydam, N. (2005). Tourists Expectations and perceptions of the robben island museum - a world heritage site. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, *20*(29), 149-169.

March, S., Wiener, W., Naghshineh, K., & Giusti, E. (2005). Creating accessible science museums with user-activated environmental audio beacons (Ping!). *Assistive Technology*, 17, 133-143.

McKercher, B., Packer, T., Yau, M., and Lam, P. (2003). Travel agents as facilitators or inhibitors of travel: Perceptions of people with disabilities. *Tourism Management*, *24*(4), 465-474.

Mesquita, S., & Carneiro, M. (2016). Accessibility of European museums to visitors with visual impairments. *Disability and Society*, *31*(3), 373-388.

Michopoulou, E., & Buhalis, D. (2013). Information provision for challenging markets: The case of the accessibility requiring market in the context of tourism. *Information and Management*, 50, 229-239.

Ministry of Culture and Tourism. (2013). *Accessible Istanbul*. Retrieved September 15, 2016, from Turkey Republic Ministry of Culture and Tourism: Accessible Tourism, Barrier project Istanbul.

National Eye Institute. (2016, September 11). *Low Vision and Blindness Rehabilitation - National Plan for Eye and Vision Research [NEI Strategic Planning]*. Retrieved from National Eye Institute: https://nei.nih.gov/strategicplanning/np_low

Nowacki, M. M. (2005). Evaluating a museum as a tourist product using the servqual method. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 20, 235-250.

Ozturk, Y., Yayli, A., and Yesiltas, M. (2008). Is the Turkish Tourism industry ready for a disabled customer's market? The views of hotel and travel agency managers. *Tourism Management*, 29, 382-389.

Pehlivanoğlu, B. (2012). Konaklama Yapıların engellilere yönelik oda düzenlemelerinin irdelenmesi. *İnönü Üniversitesi Sanat ve Tasarım Dergisi, 2*, 27-35.

Prager, J. H. (1999, December 15). People with disabilities are next consumer niche. *Wall Street Journal*, B1-B2.

Ray, N. M., & Ryder, M. (2003). "Abilities" tourism: An exploratory discussion of the travel needs and motivations of the mobility-disabled. *Tourism Management*, 24, 57-72.

Shaw, G., & Coles, T. (2004). Disability, holiday making and the tourism industry in the UK: A Preliminary survey. *Tourism Management*, 25, 397-403.

Strechay, J., and Annis, T. (2012, February). *Access to Museums and Parks for Patrons who are Blind or Visually Impaired.* Retrieved from AFB Access World Magazine: https://www.afb.org/afbpress/pub.asp?DocID=aw130206

Şen, N., Çelik Yetim, A., and Bilici, N. (2014). Kültür Varlıkları ve Müzelerin Engelli Turist Ziyaretine Uygunluğunu Belirlemeye Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *Erzincan Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 7*(1), 1-16.

Tadic, V., Lewando Hundt, G., Keeley, S., & Rahi, J. (2014). Seeing it my way: Living with childhood-onset visual disability. *Child: Care, Health and Development*, *41*(2), 239-248.

The Equality Act. (2015, September 23). *Definition of Disability Under The Equality Act 2010*. Retrieved September 05, 2016, from GOV.UK: https://www.gov.uk/definition-of-disability-under-equality-act-2010

The University of Texas in Austin. (2016, September 11). *Blind and Visual Disabilities*. Retrieved from The University of Texas In Austin Services for Students With Disabilities: http://diversity.utexas.edu/disability/visual-impairments/

The World Bank. (2016, August 13). *Disability - Overview*. Retrieved from The World Bank: http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/disability/overview#1

Tufts, S., & Milne, S. (1999). Museums: A Supply-Side Perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 613-621.

TUİK. (2011). *Nüfus ve Konut Araştırması.* TUİK.

Verma, S., and Arora, M. (2016). Role of the national institute for the visually handicapped in the dissemination of information to visually impaired people. *Journal of Library Administration*, *56*(3), 285-294.

Villa, T. D., Darcy, S., and Gonzales, E. (2015). Competing for the disability tourism market - a comparative exploration of the factors of accessible tourism competitiveness in Spain and Australia. *Tourism Management*, 47, 261-272. Doi: 10.1016/j.tourman.2014.10.008

Wazzan, W. (2015). My Accessible Room Is Not Accessible, Applying Human Factors: Principals to Enhance The Accessibility Of Hotel Rooms. *6th International Conference On Applied Human Factors and Ergonomics (AHFE 2015) and Affiliated Conferences*, (pp. 5405-5410).

World Health Organization. (2016, August 13). *Visual Impairments and Blindness.* Retrieved from World Health Organization: http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs282/en/

Yau, M. K.-s., McKercher, B., & Packer, T. L. (2004). Traveling with a disability. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(4), 946-960.

Yaylı, A., and Öztürk, Y. (2006). Konaklama işletmeleri yöneticilerinin bedensel engelliler pazarına bakış açıları üzerine bir araştırma. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, *17*(1), 87-97.

Wiastuti, R.D., Adiati M P and N S Lestari, R D Wiastuti et al 2018 IOP Conf. Ser.: *Earth Environ. Sci.* 126.

İSTANBUL UNIVERSITY PRESS

Journal of Tourismology

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Journal of Tourismology, 5(2): 127-144

DOI: 10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0027
http://jt.istanbul.edu.en/

Submitted: 13.05.2019
Revision Requested: 24.05.2019
Last Revision Received: 30.09.2019
Accepted: 23.10.2019
Published Online: 18.11.2019

Gastrodiplomacy: Captivating a Global Audience Through Cultural Cuisine-A Systematic Review of the Literature

Wajeana White[1], Albert A. Barreda[2], Stephanie Hein[3]

Abstract

The aim of the study is to contribute to the scholarly works that examine food and the role it plays as a tool in the diplomatic influence known as gastrodiplomacy. This work also offers readers literature inclusive of authors, periods of time, sources, and titles pertaining to the topic. The goal is to categorize diverse workings and problems related to gastrodiplomacy that have been analyzed up to this point. A systematic review of 32 peer-reviewed academic articles published in the past five years, validate the depth of the present research. Up-to-date subjects, methodologies, and results are provided, in addition to prospects for supplementary exploration. The literature tracks industry developments in the tourism sector. Most of the research concentrates on the platform of nations experiencing global status from a dynamic array of distinctive foods from other cultures. A great amount of opportunity for research is recognized in the literature, whereas only a limited amount has been delivered. Research in gastrodiplomacy has been inadequate up to this point, both in tourism and hospitality literature, with more attention given to the social aspects of cultural cuisine. Consequently, this study provides a foundation for researchers, scholars, and learners to expand and develop additional analysis in the future.

Keywords

Systematic review, Diplomatic influence, Gastrodiplomacy, Multi-cultural, National cuisine

1 Wajeana White (MS. Candidate), Missouri State University, Department of, Hospitality Leadership, Springfield, United States. E-mail: Wajeanawhite@missouristate.edu ORCID: 0000-0002-1453-2556

2 **Correspondence to:** Albert A. Barreda (Assoc. Prof.), Missouri State University, Department of, Hospitality Leadership, Springfield, United States. E-mail: AlbertBarreda@MissouriState.edu ORCID: 0000-0003-1578-199X

3 Stephanie Hein (Dr.), Missouri State University, Department of, Hospitality Leadership, Springfield, United States. E-mail: Stephaniehein@missouristate.edu ORCID: 0000-0001-5639-1336

To cite this article: White, W., Barreda, A. A., & Hein, S. (2019). Gastrodiplomacy: Captivating a global audience through cultural cuisine-a systematic review of the literature. *Journal of Tourismology, 5*(2), 127–144. https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0027

Introduction

This study focuses on the national branding endeavor known as gastrodiplomacy. Through gastrodiplomacy, nations utilize food to engage in diplomacy efforts and encourage the global branding process. Food has long connected societies as well as geographical areas. During the earliest of time periods, these connections centered on commodities such as spices, coffee, tea, and sugar (Suntikul, 2017). Gastrodiplomacy is a relatively modern experience in the market branding design process. When effectively applied, gastrodiplomacy can help develop a persona of a national influence by way of national cuisine. Through global identification, food is used as a symbol of national individuality for achieving diverse economic principles (Suntikul, 2017).

Although the primary role of food is to provide sustenance, it has long been used as a means to convey traditions, foster negotiations, and exchange ideas or expressions. For example, ceremonial meals and gatherings for diplomats, utilize precise, traditional culinary methods and extraordinary regional cuisine to mark a notable occasion and to build rapport between nations (Sormaz, Akmese, Gunes, & Aras, 2016). Quite often, communication between parties is delivered by way of table etiquette, dignitaries in attendance, seating provisions, and extravagant cuisine (Tettner & Begum, 2018).

Specifically, this study aims to understand the development, the evolution, and the most recent, significant academic literature that contemplates gastrodiplomacy within the tourism and hospitality industry. The authors not only examined the most up-to-date research on gastrodiplomacy, but also considered the gaps in the literature as well as essential issues pertaining to the topic and provided thoughtful direction for forthcoming research in the gastronomy, culinary, and tourism industry. Within the context of this systematic review, gastrodiplomacy, as it relates to the tourism industry and the international relations continuum, is discussed, and the role it has on societal or cultural diplomacy is considered. Then, the interchange of cuisine and the vacation industry in the development of gastrodiplomacy promotions at a national branding level is examined. This includes a comparison and review of current gastrodiplomacy campaigns from Peru, Taiwan, Malaysia, Thailand, South Korea, the United States, and Australia. Next, additional areas of importance generated through gastrodiplomacy are presented. From this, gastrodiplomacy, tourism, and the political role cuisine plays in the national branding process are discussed. The research concludes by presenting considerations for further research and strategy.

Literature Review

The review that follows provides an organized examination of past and current literature. Key topics of consideration include gastrodiplomacy's influence on national distinctiveness, the individuality of nations, and soft power.

Gastrodiplomacy As A National Distinctiveness

Customs and food diversity are significant for regional locations where environments, cultivation of lands, cuisine, Epicureanism, values, arts, and hospitality join together (Longin & Würschum, 2016). Additionally, cuisine and cultural commodities are a vital measurement of a country's resources and influence manufacturing and distribution capabilities, as well as promotion, branding, and trade opportunities. Food is an essential way in which countries distinguish themselves (Zhang, 2015). The figurative symbol of food is used to interconnect beliefs, principles, individualities, and viewpoints. Dissimilar societal statuses are articulated not only through the elegance of service at different gatherings, but also through variations and extent of the cuisine (Zhang, 2015).

Gastrodiplomacy connects to public diplomacy in the same way that the relationship merges culture and culinary diplomacy with national branding, thereby creating a physical perception of taste and touch to a nation (Suntikul, 2019). Whereas gastrodiplomacy is a relatively modern concept, cuisine has long influenced diplomatic activities (Nirwandy & Awang, 2014). Gastrodiplomacy is often referred to as culinary diplomacy; however, there are dissimilarities between the two. Culinary diplomacy relates to the expansion of relations through cuisine and the eating habits of visiting ambassadors or public figures. Gastrodiplomacy engages the role of food in public diplomacy, revealing wide-ranging public views targeted by leaders in modern diplomacy and enriching the palatable national brand (Rockower, 2014). Gastrodiplomacy shapes the lives and values of all individuals by using food as a building block of collective elements. It is often referenced as the compassionate segment of public diplomacy, promoting simply through emotional relations (Osipova, 2014).

Individuality of Nations

Gastrodiplomacy has largely benefited middle power nations who are not global forces in the areas of culture, armed forces, or financial stature (Rockowner, 2014). However, middle power nations encompass some authority and control on the international platform. These countries include Thailand, Korea, Taiwan, and Peru, along with major authorities like the United States and Japan. Each one utilizes food as an ambassadorial tool (Rockower, 2014). Gastrodiplomacy should not be observed as just a branding tool for a country, as it involves much more. For world power nations, collective agreements develop through public diplomacy, enrich envisioned developments, and create advantages for nations (Nirwandy & Awang, 2014). National cuisine is often utilized as a soft power for societal resolution in the collective agreement process by way of gastrodiplomacy. As a result, democratic ideals are communicated through recognized global cuisine that is part of the society's sustenance culture (Zhang, 2015).

Culinary tourism is viewed as a cultural means for branding a destination persona. For quite some time, culinary tourism has been an attractive theme for scholarly research of industrial concerns (Lee, Wall, & Kovacs, 2015). The tourism industry continuously focuses on marketing visions and experiences. For instance, experience tourism pays attention to the interest of what is authentic and unique in any given destination (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2015). A culture encompasses histories that preserve specific ethics and beliefs, channeling them through art, composition, and theatre, as well as cuisine. Cultural values are often shared with others through communal experiences and societal backgrounds or traditions that surround a meal (Cavalcanti de Melo, 2015).

From one generation to the next, the planning and partaking of food has been vital to a society's culture, and has shaped each generation's particular ways of existence, as well as forms of appreciation. A society's vision is often solidified and protected through their cultural values. Nationalized gastronomy advances this idea by classifying cultural legacy as a broadly recognized element in the tourist segment (Strugar, 2015). A small number of nations, together with Italy, France, and Mexico have at present, created the global status of dynamic, distinctive culinary cultures, even though the gastrodiplomacy concept is a relatively new idea (Nirwandy & Awang, 2014).

Precise branding campaigns, coupled with the use of a national cuisine, help create a persona for nations. This is particularly true when familiar cuisines from smaller countries are utilized (Griffith, 2016). As a result, globalization is often encouraged. It is important that the globalization of culture is embraced, as it is a key component for the boundaries between nations to disappear, thereby creating a new world image. New generations are more likely to be open to new ideas and integration, which allows for the fusion and acceptance of other cultures (Nahar, Karim, Karim, Ghazali, & Krauss, 2018).

Table 1
Examples of Contemporary Gastrodiplomacy Actions

Location	Country	Actions
Latin America	*Peru*	The government of Peru started campaigning for its cooking in 2006 with a service sector program called "Peru Mucho Gusto" meaning "Peru, nice to meet you and Peru, full of flavor". The outcome of this promotion was funds created for national cookbooks, prestigious culinary celebrations, and the launching of Peruvian eateries all over the globe. An additional significant element was to ensure that Peruvian food was acclaimed as a "culinary treasure" on the Intangible Cultural Heritage listing by UNESCO.
Asia	Taiwan	The endorsed name of Taiwan's gastrodiplomacy program began in 2010 called, "All in Good Taste: Savor the Flavors of Taiwan" and was supported by the Economic Affairs Ministry. Over a four-year time, the commonly referred to program, "Dim Sum diplomacy" devoted $34.2 million in an attempt to improve Taiwan's worldwide brand encompassing its trade, cultural and culinary contributions.
North America	United States	In 2012, a selection of chefs from all over the United States called the American Chef Corps was chosen to participate in government programs to reflect America's rich culinary culture. The culinary diplomacy program was closed in 2016 by the current administration.
Oceania	Australia	Australia's Ministry of Tourism allocated $10 million in 2014 for the funding of their international movement "There's Nothing like Australia" a gastrodiplomacy program constructed in a year called "Restaurant Australia" targeting twelve global marketplaces.

Gastrodiplomacy As A Soft Power

Gastrodiplomacy is an increasingly important international affairs topic (Farna, 2018). As such, gastrodiplomacy is one approach countries use to promote their indigenous culinary landscape. To do this, countries use gastrodiplomacy to generate progressive international relations by way of their local cuisine. Rich culture and history are then expressed by sharing uniqueness through food. Countless countries have utilized a gastrodiplomacy movement to share or market their cultural journey to other nations (Krinis, 2018).

The importance of gastrodiplomacy is discussed within the context and extensive debate on soft power. The notion of soft power, or exploiting national food and culture, was shaped by Joseph Nye in the first part of the 1990s. The concept has since achieved wide acceptance (Farina, 2018). Gastrodiplomacy can be viewed as a fundamental paradigm for maintaining national well-being while re-enforcing national policy intentions. Cuisine is an example of public soft power, and in recent research, the role of food in diplomacy has been examined (Nirwandy & Awang, 2014).

Gastronomic soft power is the recognized charm and allure of food traditions that hold fast to a region, state, or nation (Assmann, 2015). Gastrodiplomacy strives to improve unilateral relations by using culinary events as a process to charm notables.

As a result, culinary values are communicated to foreign societies in a way that is better distributed than culinary diplomacy (Rockowner, 2014). Gastrodiplomacy encompasses more than just the promotion of a national cuisine on an international platform; it is also instrumental in allowing nations to utilize their local cuisine as a subtle power source. This increases the attractiveness and appeal of the gastrodiplomacy philosophy, as societal ideals and principles are reinforced with the relationship of specific indigenous foods that help achieve positive economic results to advance tourism activity (Farina, 2018).

Methodology

In May 2019, all gastrodiplomacy publications in tourism and hospitality were collected, categorized, and analyzed from Google Scholar, Science Direct, Emerald Insight, and Ebscohost, which are considered to be the most common and useful online databases and search engines (Leung, Law, Van Hoof, & Buhalis, 2013). Aligned with previous studies, the systematic review process implemented in this project followed the PRISMA framework adapted from Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, and Altman (2009) and others (Yang, Khoo-Lattimore, & Arcodia, 2017). Since Gastrodiplomacy is a relatively modern concept and this systematic review aims to investigate the most recent literature regarding Gastrodiplomacy, the time-frame was constrained from January 1, 2013 to December 31, 2018.

To attain the research objective of presenting an all-encompassing summary of findings, the keywords of diplomatic influence, gastrodiplomacy, multi-cultural, and national cuisine were used to identify peer-reviewed published papers. These keywords were considered the most pertinent search terms for the study of the topic. Similar to previous research projects, the authors decided only to examine full-length articles published in refereed academic journals (Jang, & Park, 2011). The authors did not include conference abstracts, book reviews, dissertations, or theses.

After completing the database review, the search generated 11,682 collected works from a wide-ranging spectrum. Searching across databases by topic, full-text articles were assessed for eligibility. Honing in on pertinent articles was key as the Ebscohost database alone included approximately 9,100 full-text periodicals from publishers such as Taylor & Francis Ltd., Sage Publications, Inc., and Springer Link, among others. From this, 7,900 peer-reviewed journal articles associated with international relations and humanities linked to food studies populated in the search of this one database.

To focus the review, criteria were set to only include literature published in a five-year timeframe, so that the authors could gain the most up-to-date information pertaining to gastrodiplomacy and the manner in which countries currently utilize the concept. Upon review, 9,484 articles were excluded because the work existed outside of the five-year time-frame or lacked focus on the topic. Excluded articles lacked a specific relationship between governmental soft powers utilizing cultural cuisine. The excluded articles referenced food from a conventional perspective relative to a precise culture, and did not include the most recent concepts of gastrodiplomacy. An additional 22 articles were eliminated for invalid material and duplications. As a result, 32 studies were determined to be appropriate and included in this synthesis.

Figure 1 illustrates the literature search method. In phase 1, questions were formulated to determine the amount of research that would be generated on the topic of interest, as well as determining the final outcome. In phase 2, keywords were identified to search digital databases for journal articles and gather sample collections. As an outcome, the chosen articles were fully characteristic of conventional gastrodiplomacy and public diplomacy research. During phase 3, empirical data were collected from articles that reported research findings from observer participation, dynamic interviews, field research, as well as additional documented research methods. In this stage, numerous articles were available for appraisal. However, many were rejected due to their lack of relevance related to the topic of focus. After careful consideration, articles that fit the criteria of gastrodiplomacy, public diplomacy, and soft power were utilized. Selected applicable data, included observer participation, interviews, case studies, surveys, field research, and documentary resources. The final stage, phase 4, presents the results and findings in addition to reporting any research gaps.

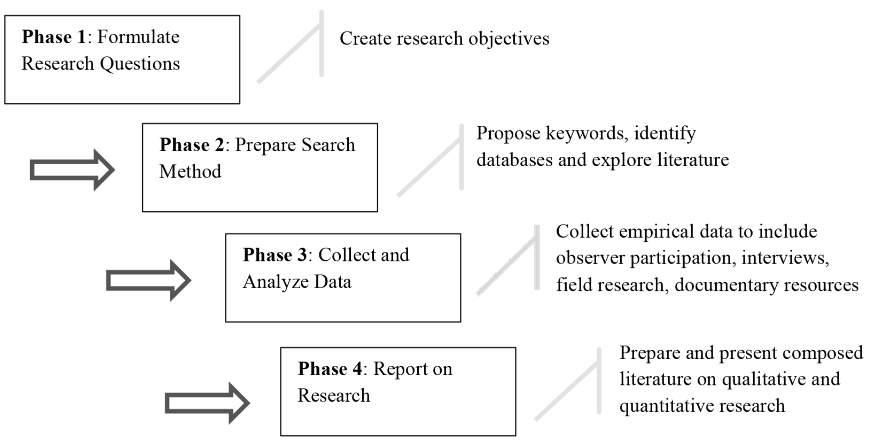

Figure 1. *Research design protocol*

All gastrodiplomacy related works in hospitality and tourism were identified using keywords including gastrodiplomacy, gastrodiplomacy in tourism, gastrodiplomacy in hospitality, international gastrodiplomacy, and culinary diplomacy. Key factors were used to evaluate full-length, peer-reviewed articles in scholarly journals. Each article was meticulously examined to confirm and certify its significance to the topic. Furthermore, each reference was studied to confirm that applicable journals were not excluded in database examinations. Data compilation ensued at the beginning of the analysis, and continued until the completion of the analysis process could be validated.

Gastrodiplomacy research published between 2013 to 2018 supports the development and growth of gastrodiplomacy as a geopolitical means to successfully channel peace, nurture societal well-being, and aid diplomatic ambitions. To conduct a thorough examination of the literature, studies were cataloged by coordinating the number of studies and the year they were published, along with the level of analysis and sample types. The literature corresponding to the designated time period, as well as the research unit of analysis is presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Timing and Unit of Analysis

Year		# of studies	%
	2018	5	16
	2017	9	28
	2016	4	12
	2015	8	25
	2014	5	16
	2013	1	3
Level of Analysis	Local Private Sector	2	6
	Subject Matter Experts	8	25
	Familial Community	1	3
	Migrant Authors	1	3
	Celebrity Chefs	6	20
	Tourists	5	16
	Government	3	9
	Donor Institutes	1	3
	Diplomats	3	9
	Students/Faculty	2	6
Sample Type	Public Opinion	1	3
	Papers	7	22
	Subject Matter Experts	6	19
	Tourists/Customers	5	16
	Case Study	3	9
	Celebrity Personalities	5	16
	Direct Observation	2	6
	Hotels	1	3
	Diplomats	2	6

Review of Findings

Tourism has developed a close association to gastrodiplomacy to extend outside gastronomic nationalism. It is relevant to say, according to research, that the tourism sector has acquired a greater curiosity in local cuisine. Since 2013, the research indicates that there has been steady growth in the interest of culinary diplomacy, especially between 2015 and 2017, with no less than 21 scholarly articles written by subject matter experts. Research compiled during this time reflects over half of the overall data collected.

Research Framework and Topics

Table 3 provides a summary of gastrodiplomacy research by geographical location, the first author location, as well as the number of articles of reference originating from each location. With an increase in tourism travel, major players like Malaysia, Peru, South Korea, and British governments have entered public diplomacy as a soft power since 2015. This has created an increase in influence across the Middle East. Although research shows that some countries like the United States and Australia only participated for a short time or have already ceased their culinary public diplomacy programs, others recognized the need to advance their soft power through gastrodiplomacy. Locations such as Malaysia, South Korea, Peru, and Spain are recognized in the data set for their investment in gastrodiplomacy. All national campaigns from these settings were introduced and sponsored by their domestic government. The campaigns for each country achieve positive elements that develop harmonious imageries of their culinary traditions (Zhang, 2015). In this study, the nation-state is individually considered as a distinct cultural alliance.

Table 3
Research Location

Research Location	# of studies	1st Author Location	# of studies
Malaysia	4	USA	5
South Korea	3	Japan	2
Taiwan	2	Nigeria	1
Peru	3	Great Britain	1
Australia	1	Turkey	4
Spain	2	Spain	4
Germany	1	Indonesia	2
United States	3	Croatia	1
Jamaica	1	Malaysia	4
Japan	3	Peru	3
China	2	South Korea	5
Turkey	1		
Italy	1		
Great Britain	2		
France	1		
United Kingdoms	1		
Thailand	1		

In the knowledge areas of public diplomacy and gastrodiplomacy, national branding is a concept that is dependent on marketing the national cuisine. These results are depicted in Table 4. When combined with a tourism market, branding creates a resilient image that fosters an effective reputation of a nation (Luša, 2018). Articles gathered for this research focused primarily on the topics and sub-topics of public diplomacy, gastrodiplomacy, national cuisine, market branding, and tourism while including the areas of persuasion as a soft power. Many countries have implemented gastrodiplomacy programs to endorse their local cuisines. For instance, Japan launched a global sushi campaign with Washoku, Peru introduced Cocina Peruana, Malaysia unveiled Malaysia Kitchen, and South Korea presented Kimchi diplomacy (Luša, 2018).

Table 4
Knowledge Areas

Knowledge Areas	# of studies	Research Fields	# of studies
Public Diplomacy	7	National Cuisine	8
Gastrodiplomacy	8	Marketing/Branding	12
Washoku	3	Tourism	8
Food Education	1	Migration	1
Food Culture	2	Food Travelogue	1
Fusion Cuisine	1	Food Media	2
National Food Security	1		
Culinary Programming	1		
Television Concepts	1		
Soft Power	4		
Gastro-Brand	1		
Culinary Diplomacy	2		

A majority of the collected works pertaining to gastrodiplomacy are in the form of case studies. Numerous researchers have offered examinations of gastrodiplomatic campaigns and strategies as they are implemented by different countries. Examples of these include those from Peru, South Korea, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Taiwan, and Japan, along with others who seek branding and promotion strategies to endorse soft powers through gastrodiplomacy (Tettner & Kalyoncu, 2018).

An examination of the diverse approaches countries use revealed gastrodiplomacy promotions are often incorporated into marketing, advertisements, image management, and public relations strategies to achieve collaborative results (Zhang, 2015). These marketing elements often place emphasis on the development of franchisees, growth of membership, and the promotion of processed food commodities. Image management is also utilized to increase recognition, develop food brands, and enhance long-term rapport with international viewers (Zhang, 2015). Table 6 captures the events or campaigns various nations use to promote and/or endorse national cuisine to foreign leaders as well as the general population. It is feasible that this strategy may be the most pragmatic for many of these national campaigns. For instance, South Korea is likely benefiting from key international events and gastrodiplomacy strategy. Peru individually fashions its own international events, and promotes them among other nations to create a platform for cultural awareness (Zhang, 2015).

Table 5
Promotion and Branding through Culinary Diplomacy

Location	Events
Malaysia	● 1.3 billion people in cities across the world to include New York, Sydney, Melbourne, London, Perth, Wellington, and Auckland became informed about Malaysian's cuisine through the Malaysian Kitchen Program since it was launched in 2010 (Nahar, Karim, Karim, Ghazali, and Krauss, 2018).
South Korea	● The strategy of South Korea's branding of gastrodiplomacy is through the custom of introducing *hansik* (Korean food) globally through the practice of tempering traditional characteristics of spicy and sour tastes to allure foreign palates. (Pham, 2013).
Peru	● In 2007, the Peruvian administration elevated Peruvian cuisine to the prestige position of National Heritage in expectation to continue expanding the excitement of the local cuisine as an agency of identity (Bannister, 2017). ● The organization, Apega is furthering the economic and social presence of small-scale agricultural producers and small company owners through gastronomy programs (Bannister, 2017).
Spain	● Cultural assimilation is celebrated annually to honor cultural interchange among two countries, Spain and the Philippines. The 2017 conference, "Towards a Sustainable Gastronomic Planet" highlighted Madrid Fusion directing attention to the sustainability of people, culture, land, and water to communicate methods of satisfying gastronomic requirements while placing emphasis on cultural evaluation and environmental fortification in the lead (Dublin, 2017).
Japan	● The Ministry of Economy, Industry, and Trade along with the Foreign Affairs Ministry have participated in an aggressive role to promote Japanese cuisine out of the country which included a published report in 2010 labeled "Towards Nation Building through Cultural Industries" to highlight the value of the cultural diplomacy as a country's soft powers (Farina, 2018).

Table 6 represents the type of research methods used in each article reviewed. The majority (78%) of the data collected for each work was qualitative in nature. Qualitative methodologies utilize methods such as conceptual review, comparative analysis, interviews, and case studies.

Table 6
Research Type

Research Type	# of studies	%
Qualitative	25	78
Quantitative	6	19
Mixed	1	3

As depicted in Table 7, the studies analyzed most frequently (38%) used the conceptual review as a research design. This was followed by comparative analysis (16%) and case study methods (13%).

Table 7
Research Design

Research Design	# of studies	%
Conceptual Review	12	38
Comparative Analysis	5	16
Survey	2	6
Data Collection-Secondary Sources	2	6
Interviews	3	9
Exploratory Design	1	3
E-questionnaires	2	6
Case Study	4	13
Systematic Review	1	3

Conclusion

The research gathered in this literature examination addresses the degree of the relationship between the consumption of a nation's cuisine and its national persona. The research denotes that food accomplishes the ability to transform shared views of a national semblance, which can be an entrance to utilizing a nation's additional cultural exports. Such cultural exports might include athletics, cultural arts, as well as literature that could possibly increase tourism within that country (Ruddy, 2014). The study also determines that small to intermediate size countries have a great deal to gain from gastrodiplomacy agendas. Nations emergent from, or currently in, present-day disagreements may discover that gastrodiplomacy movements are beneficial to improve their domestic image from the world view. However, each nation will need to determine what type of program is right for them.

Expressive of unique innovative developments contained in public diplomacy, gastrodiplomacy has become a prevalent topic in the tourism industry. The study of gastrodiplomacy has gone from being an obscure concept to a subject of high importance, with much debate taking place in academic journals and at national conferences. Gastrodiplomacy exemplifies an influential standard of nonverbal communication to link diverse societies, creating a new dynamic approach to cultural and public diplomacy. As more nations implement gastrodiplomacy strategies, it will create a new structure for best practices in the study to promote personal connections (Buscemi, 2014).

Gastrodiplomacy is a subject that continues to require additional evaluation and assessment. The culinary topic has been defined as a characteristic of public diplomacy which utilizes gastronomy as an instrument for interaction and appeal of a nation's resources. As an element of a nation's philosophical foundation, gastronomy preserves a society's traditions and beliefs while meeting the needs of nourishment. Recently, there has been a precipitous growth in gastrodiplomacy inventiveness throughout the world. By marketing and branding ideas on a national, regional, and local level, it is prudent to deliberate what this will hold for future diplomats and reconciliation advantages for nations.

Examples were provided by multiple countries that illustrate how each one strives to work with others for constructive interaction by using gastronomy and diplomacy to resolve opposition. Gastrodiplomacy is a positive influence on the private sector and can be instrumental in partnerships between nations and society. Public diplomacy, along with gastrodiplomacy, is often used to develop inventive programs that inspire the public and support national foreign policy in diverse issues (Solleh, 2018). Evidence suggests the food that we eat motivates the decisions that are reached. Thus, it can be concluded that careful consideration should be given to the cuisine that is served when negotiating and making important national decisions. As the significance of food to policymaking in situations such as decision-making, diplomacy, and innovations are acknowledged, then it should also follow that a destination space is also vital to nations coming together in a collective manner (Spence, 2016).

Gastrodiplomacy tourism campaigns should be encouraged to use resourceful methods to create situations for tourists to be involved with national cuisine endeavors. Comprehensive focus should be given to the diplomatic food scope of a population, as it relates to tourists as culinary representatives, since this plays an important role in gastrodiplomacy (Suntikul, 2017). While bringing foreign dignitaries to a destination, tourism presents many occasions for limited culinary organizations and local businesses that are deficient in resources to manage international gastrodiplomacy programs which improve the responsiveness to the role of peacekeeping. A nationalized brand can be carried across lands, but a destination will always remain in place.

Significance of the Message

Variation and influence are two key interests in the preparation of a gastrodiplomacy campaign message. Each country customizes its gastrodiplomacy campaign message to focus on the populace of interest. For instance, South Korea introduced menus custom-made for the British public during its introduction of Bibigo. This was done by using British names for the Korean food offered to create a feeling of familiarity. This tactic preserved the uniqueness of Korean food while enticing the British People (Zhang, 2015). The goal of many gastrodiplomacy campaigns is to increase tourism in individual countries by designing a food experience that will inspire foreign representatives to visit that country. This can be extended by designing special social occasions and entertainment that allow the country to be viewed as a culinary destination. For instance, the idea of “Thai Kitchen to the World” was to foster Thai restaurant growth overseas while also using restaurants as tourist information places (Suntikul, 2017).

Promoting A National Brand Through Marketing

In the public diplomacy domain, it is customary for a country to introduce its brand with the purpose of promoting and sharing the campaign all over the world. The individuality of a nation is promoted and created as slogans and expressions are used to communicate the essence and fundamental characteristics of the nation. The use of ideas, perceptions, imageries, and expressions enables nations to convey their culture abroad (Nirwandy & Awang, 2015). Within the sources of national marketing, food and beverages are frequently used as connections between national imagery and activities of the consumer (Zhang, 2015). For example, in 2006, Japan introduced an extensive campaign to represent Japanese food and food culture overseas with the "Washoku-Try Japan's Good Food" campaign. The idea behind this campaign was to present Japanese cuisine at distinctive events organized by Japanese diplomatic operations abroad with the goal of using media at such events to create patron demand (Farina, 2018).

Another example involves the Malaysia Kitchen for the World program which was developed in 2006 by the Malaysian government. This project allowed Malaysians who resided outside of the country to participate by encouraging restaurants to be opened abroad and enhanced. The objective of this program was to increase international consumers attraction towards Malaysian cuisine (Nahar, Karim, Karim, Ghazali, & Krauss, 2018). In 2010, an additional promotion was launched by the Deputy Prime Minister of Malaysia. This campaign featured British celebrity chefs Chef Gordon Ramsay, Atul Kochar, Angela Hartnett, along with Malaysian restauranteurs and important authority figures to promote Malaysia using British broadcasting avenues (Nahar, Karim, Karim, Ghazali, & Krauss, 2018).

Diversity

Two recipe books, Heritage by Sean Brock and Peru: The Cookbook by Gaston Acurio, were analyzed to examine the concepts of soft power and how cuisine can be used to heighten a region's brand image. Separately, these chefs/authors utilize multiple cross-cultural styles to propose that new age cuisines are a genuine gateway to cultural coherence and annexation (Passidomo, 2017). Peru asserts that it encompasses biocultural stewardship, as it is home to 84 of the 104 recognized life zones, or belts of vegetation and animal life, that subsist around the globe. Moreover, the country suggests that its culture is further enhanced by the 40 plus ethnic groups that reside in the country. Taiwan's movement positions itself as a fusion of disparate cultural societies. It is noted that Taiwan is a domestic residence to cultural and social diversity that influences its nutritional traditions while continuing to merge the spirit of cuisine presented internationally with the inspirations and tastes of Western cuisine (Zhang, 2015).

Healthfulness

The notion, or message, of healthfulness highlights that a country's cuisine is beneficial to an individual's health. The Korean government implemented a form of diplomacy by making use of Korean culture, music, and cuisine as a way to provide for the less fortunate. Kimjang, the custom of preparing kimchi, joined together whole villages and communities to convert hundreds of heads of cabbage into a supply of food and sustenance for individuals who have historically endured poverty and famishment (Sisters, 2016). Japan's gastrodiplomacy movement affirms that health value, coupled with the exceptional taste of its cuisine, has generated positive recognition of its food. Japanese cuisine is drawing notice on a global level as a healthy dietary option that provides a nutritional way of life (Zhang, 2015).

Natural Culture

Cuisine is an essential element of a nation's character and as a result, often enhances other cultural traditions. Japan's gastrodiplomacy movement communicates its cuisine culture through the use of local ingredients and culturally specific cooking methods. Culture is further enhanced and communicated through tableware and décor, architecture, mysticism, and artfully designed floral arrangements. These elements are often combined and demonstrated during the traditional Japanese tea ritual. Ultimately, the cuisine culture echoes Japan's inclusive values.

The Mistura campaign of Peru promotes Peruvian gastronomy as a foundation for societal uniqueness that helps influence trade and industry while enhancing the health and welfare of Peruvians. Food is part of the country's cultural traditions. Embracing these traditions allows for the increased potential to market food-related design products and support services that provide additional economic and awareness opportunities (Zhang, 2015).

Research Implications

To date, gastrodiplomacy case studies have primarily focused on nations that are typically considered to have middle-powers. These tend to be nations that do not have a dominant government; however, they are not nations that have a lack of power, but they reside somewhere in the middle (Buscemi, 2014). Countries with middle power face challenges as they navigate obstructed, often difficult, global landscapes. Culinary cultural diplomacy researchers provide important meaningful insight on the topic, and facilitate lesser national brands to improve cultural perception through the strategy of national and local cuisine (Buscemi, 2014).

In the current environment, it can be argued that food serves as an essential function, not only as nourishment to satisfy hunger but also as a tool that preserves inspiration and ideas from country to country, thereby protecting a nation's foreign strategy. In addition, food enjoyed as a national brand upholds a nation's philosophy and identity. For any country that is facing a political decline and uncertainty, employing cultural tourism events could contribute to an improved perception of national uniqueness (Solleh, 2015). This research concludes that by using a domestic cuisine as a subtle power tool, it offers the potential for middle power countries to be put on the global stage.

Limitations of the Study

This study analyzed literature pertaining to gastrodiplomacy campaigns from several countries across the globe. As with any research, there are limitations and areas for improvement, as well as further research possibilities. Although research on this topic has improved over the last few years, much of the content covered is limited. This leads to limitations with the present research. These limitations include a minimal amount of studies pertaining to the gastrodiplomacy topic, as well as an inadequate number of countries that are utilizing gastrodiplomacy for their national soft powers. Additionally, this research lacks a quantitative databank encompassing personal experiences of individuals that have first-hand experience with tourism diplomacy.

The culture of cuisine, including the countries diplomacy campaigns, were unmistakably revealed. However, additional nations should recognize the benefits of gastro and public diplomacy. Cultural cuisine has the promise to unite people together to create expressive dialogue through food. Using cuisine for national purposes allows for the fostering of a national brand image. To improve gastrodiplomacy campaigns across the globe, it is imperative that tourism endeavors grow so that new culinary traditions that enrich the interchange of culture and diversity can be discovered and promoted.

Grant Support: The authors received no financial support for this work.

References

Adesina, O. (2017). Projecting Nigeria's soft power through culinary diplomacy. *African Journal for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, 20*(1), 140–149.

Assmann, S. (2015). The remaking of a national cuisine: The food education campaign in Japan, Ed. James Farrer (2015), The Globalization of Asian Cuisines. Transnational Networks and Culinary Contact Zones, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan: 165-185. 10.1057/9781137514080_9.

Bannister, H. (2017). Gastronomic revolution: Peruvian cuisines journal from cultural entity to commodity. *Undergraduate Research Journal for the Humanities, 2*(Spring 2017), 135-151. doi:10.17161/1808.23866

Bellesia, G. (2017). Comfort food, acquired taste, and fusion cuisine: A migrant journey. *Italian Language and Literature: Faculty Publications.* Smith College, Northampton, MA. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.smith.edu/itl_facpubs/1.

Buhalis, D., & Amaranggana, A. (2015). Smart tourism destinations enhancing tourism experience through personalisation of services. In *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2015* (pp. 377-389). Springer, Cham.

Buscemi, F. (2014). Jamie Oliver and the gastrodiplomacy of simulacra'. *Public Diplomacy Magazine, 11*(Winter), 46–50.

Cavalcanti de Melo, C. (2015). Culture and gastronomy: Local identity resources and tool for economic development case study: France and Le' Gout De France'. *The Art of Food: Culture and Food Diversity, Gastrodiplomacy, 1*, 25–28.

Celik, D. (2018). The Healing Effect of Gastrodiplomacy in Conflict-Affected Communities. *Yasar University Policy Brief, 1*(3) 1–9. Retrieved from https://unescochair.yasar.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/2018/02/Dogan_Celik_July032018.pdf.

Dublin, G. (2017, May 7). Madrid fusión Manila 2017 cooks its way to sustainability. *BusinessMirror.* Retrieved from https://businessmirror.com.ph/

Farina, F. (2018). Japan's gastrodiplomacy as soft power: Global washoku and national food security. *Journal of Contemporary Eastern Asia, 17*(1), 133–146. doi: 10.17477/jcea.2018.17.1.153

Granlund, R. (2015). Mass media recipes for rapprochement: Television's celebrity chefs as gastrodiplomats. *The Art of Food: Culture and Food Diversity, Gastrodiplomacy, 1*, 34–39.

Griffith, J. (2016). Falafel nation: Cuisine and the making of national identity in Israel. *International Social Science Review*, *92*(1), 1–2.

Immawati, N. (2017). The Thailand's gastrodiplomacy as a strategy to develop national branding (2002-2025). *Research Repository*. Retrieved from http://repository.umy.ac.id/handle/123456789/17182

Irwansyah, I. (2016). Traditional Icon Culinary as Indonesia Gastro Brand. *Advanced Science Letters,22*(12), 4255–4258. doi:10.1166/asl.2016.8119

Jang, S., & Park, K. (2011). Hospitality finance research during recent two decades: subjects, methodologies, and citations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *23*(4), 479–497.

Krinis, N. (2018, November 13). 'Gastrodiplomacy' introduced as tool to promote food tourism. *Greek Travel Pages*. Retrieved from https://news.gtp.gr/2018/11/12/gastrodiplomacy-introduced-tool-promote-food-tourism/

Lee, A. H., Wall, G., & Kovacs, J. F. (2015). Creative food clusters and rural development through place branding: Culinary tourism initiatives in Stratford and Muskoka, Ontario, Canada. *Journal of rural studies*, *39*, 133–144.

Leung, D., Law, R., Van Hoof, H., & Buhalis, D. (2013). Social media in tourism and hospitality: A literature review. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, *30*(1-2), 3–22.

Longin, C. F. H., & Würschum, T. (2016). Back to the future–tapping into ancient grains for food diversity. *Trends in Plant Science*, *21*(9), 731–737.

Luša, Đ, & Jakešević, R. (2017). The role of food in diplomacy: Communicating and "winning hearts and minds" through food. *Medijske Studije,8*(16), 99-119. doi:10.20901/ms.8.16.7

Moher, D., Liberati, A., Tetzlaff, J., & Altman, D. G. (2009). Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: The PRISMA statement. *PLoS Medicine*, *6*(7), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1000097

Nahar, N., Karim, S.A., Karim, R., Ghazali, H. & Krauss, S.E. (2018). The globalization of Malaysia national cuisine: A concept of 'gastrodiplomacy'. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts, 10*(1), 42-58.

Nirwandy, N. & Awang, A. A. (2014). Conceptualizing public diplomacy social convention culinary: Engaging gastro diplomacy warfare for economic branding. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *130*(2014), 325–332. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.038.

Osipova, Y. (2014, February 3). From Gastronationalism to Gastrodiplomacy: Reversing the Securitization of the Dolma in the South Caucasus. *Public Diplomacy Magazine, 11*(Winter), 18-22.

Passidomo, C. (2017). Our culinary heritage. *Humanity & Society*, *41*(4) 427–445. doi:10.1177/0160597617733601.

Payne, G., Ordeix, E., & Rom, J. (2018). New perspectives on cross-cultural communication and corporate diplomacy. *Tipodos, 42,* 9–10.

Pham, M. A. (2013). Food as communication: A case study of south korea's gastrodiplomacy. *Journal of International Service,22*(1), 1–22.

Ranta, R. (2015). Food & Nationalism: From Foie Gras to Hummus. *World Policy Journal, 32*(3), 33–40.

Rockower, P. (2014). The State of Gastrodiplomacy. *Public Diplomacy Magazine, 11*(Winter), 13–16.

Ruddy, B. (2014). Hearts, minds, and stomachs: Gastrodiplomacy and the potential of national cuisine in changing public perceptions of national image. *Public Diplomacy Magazine, 11*(Winter), 29–34.

Scharf, S. (2016). The campaign to make you eat kimchi. Priceconomics. Retrieved from https://priceonomics.com/the-campaign-to-make-you-eat-kimchi/

Okumus, B., & Cetin, G. (2018). Marketing Istanbul as a culinary destination. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 9*, 340–346.

Sisters, T. K. (2016, August 22). How South Korea uses kimchi to connect to the world - and beyond. *NPR*. Retrieved from https://www.npr.org/sections/thesalt/2016/08/22/489805398/how-south-korea-uses-kimchi-to-connect-to-the-world-and-beyond

Solleh, F. M. (2015). Gastrodiplomacy as a Soft Power Tool to Enhance Nation Brand. *Journal of Media and Information Warfare, 7*(2015), 161–199.

Sormaz, U., Akmese, H., Gunes, E., & Aras, S. (2016). Gastronomy in tourism. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, *39*, 725–730.

Spence, C. (2016). Gastrodiplomacy: Assessing the role of food in decision-making. *Flavour, 5*(1). doi:10.1186/s13411-016-0050-8

Strugar, T. (2015). Eastern gastrodiplomatic efforts: Asian nations as pioneers in the use of cuisine in cultural diplomacy. *The Art of Food: Culture and Food Diversity, Gastrodiplomacy, 1*, 29–33.

Suntikul, W. (2019). Gastrodiplomacy in tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *22*(9), 1076–1094.

Tettner, S., & Kalyoncu, B. (2018). Gastrodiplomacy 2.0: Culinary tourism beyond nationalism. *Ozyegin University Department of Gastronomy and Culinary Arts,*1-10. Retrieved February 24, 2019, from https://www.cett.es/fitxers/campushtml/MiniWebs/122/papers/Tettner_Kalyoncu.pdf.

Yang, E. C. L., Khoo-Lattimore, C., & Arcodia, C. (2017). A systematic literature review of risk and gender research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *58*, 89–100.

Zhang, J. (2015). The foods of the worlds: Mapping and comparing contemporary gastrodiplomacy campaigns. *International Journal of Communication*, *9*, 568–591.

İSTANBUL UNIVERSITY PRESS

Journal of Tourismology

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Journal of Tourismology, 5(2): 145-158

DOI: 10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0026
http://jt.istanbul.edu.en/

Submitted: 13.05.2019
Revision Requested: 24.05.2019
Last Revision Received: 30.09.2019
Accepted: 23.10.2019
Published Online: 18.11.2019

Tourist Tax Practices in European Union Member Countries and Its Applicability in Turkey

Levent Selman Göktaş[1], Serkan Polat[2]

Abstract

The taxes applied in the tourism sector have been the subject of constant debate. The economic power of tourism and the fact that it is an element increasing costs, have led to the tax type applied specifically in the tourism sector, and collected from tourists. Although this tax type is referred to by different names in different countries, it is considered appropriate to use it in the literature as the tourist tax concept, since it is collected specifically from tourists as taxpayers. In this study, an effort has been made to develop the conceptual framework of the tourist tax, and how European Union member countries apply tourist tax has been investigated in detail by using secondary sources. In addition, the applicability of the tourist tax in Turkey, how it should be applied, and the policy of which of the countries applying the tourist tax is appropriate for Turkey, have been discussed. It is considered that the tourist tax, which has the potential to provide a financial contribution primarily to the local administrations and tourism destinations, will be an essential source for Turkey. As a result of the study, recommendations for a tourist tax implementation that may be used in Turkey have been developed.

Keywords

Tourist tax, European Union, Tax, Eco tax, City tax

1 **Correspondence to:** Levent Selman Göktaş (Lecturer), Harran University, Vocational School of Social Sciences, Tourist Guidance Program, Şanlıurfa, Turkey. E-mail: leventselmangoktas@harran.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0001-6675-3759

2 Serkan Polat (Asst. Prof.), Istanbul Medeniyet University, Faculty of Tourism, Department of Gastronomy and Culinary Arts, İstanbul, Turkey. E-mail: serkan.polat@medeniyet.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0002-4097-8148

To cite this article: Goktas, L. S., & Polat, S. (2019). Tourist tax practices in European Union member countries and its applicability in Turkey. *Journal of Tourismology, 5*(2), 145–158. https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0026

Introduction

Economic, social, cultural, environmental and psychological changes that emerged in the second half of the twentieth century have created a significant impact on tourism habits and needs; as a result of this, a widespread international-level tourism movement has emerged. Thus, the phenomenon of tourism has become an important and continuous sector like industry and international trade, thanks to the dimensions it has reached today. With the large dimensions it has obtained at the local and international level, tourism, which is considered as the service industry, has gained a scope that develops business volume, creates income, provides foreign currency and employment, affects social and cultural life, and protects the environment (Usta, 2014: 1-2). In addition to being an essential source of income for countries hosting millions of tourists every year, this tourism-based mobility also causes certain problems. As the tourism season expands, the needs and related problems also increase in the countries, regions and areas to which this mass displacement movement canalizes. These problems, which can also be considered as the costs of tourism, are observed in the environmental, socio-cultural and economic domains of a country, in the form of additional roads, airports, municipal services, water consumption, public health, pollution, pressure on natural and cultural areas, energy use, etc. (Dogan, 2017: 269; Kirca and Topal, 2017: 96; Okumus and Cetin, 2018). To finance, rectify and limit these intensive costs, many countries have added general taxes to the tourism sector, and as result of the insufficiency of these general taxes, tourist taxes have also been integrated into the system to ensure sustainability.

Tourist Tax

It is thought that the negative environmental, social and cultural impacts caused by the tourism sector can affect the life quality of the local population. To overcome these drawbacks, the introduction of specific taxes on tourism is seen as a way for the host community to obtain appropriate and fair gains from tourism (Kato et al., 2011: 44). Specific taxes are generally used extensively in the financial applications of both developed and developing countries (Gago et al., 2006: 6). Today, tourism represents about 10% of the gross domestic product (GDP) worldwide, and this data expresses that an activity which traditionally benefited from low financial pressure, has become an important area of action for the financial systems of many countries. At the same time, tax revenues generated by tourism represent more than 10% of the tax revenues collected by some developed countries, and this amount can reach 100% in some small tourism economies. Therefore, taxation of tourism becomes quite appealing in terms of financial reform (Gago et al., 2006: 3-4).

Tourism taxes have begun to spread rapidly throughout the world since the 1980s (Mak, 2006: 251). Tourist tax, included in tourism taxes, has a significant place for countries, and in recent years, it has become a way for governments to generate additional income for tourism investments, infrastructure and social services (Aguilo et al., 2005: 359). Tourist taxes are one of the local means used more and more worldwide to distribute the costs of tourism more equitably within the framework of the "user pays" principle (Gago et al., 2006: 2). Particularly in addressing environmental issues related to tourism, tourism tax has become increasingly popular worldwide (Valle et al., 2012: 1408).

Tourist tax is a special and generally regional tax type that is taken as fixed or value basis (e.g. percent) per night from tourists, who stay temporarily, and paid to the accommodation establishment during the check out. Tourist tax is an earmarked tax, usually collected by local governments to strengthen the tourism infrastructure and to positively affect long-term tourism demand. In many countries, the funds collected from these taxes are reserved for tourism-related expenditures, but can also be included in a general fund to the extent allowed by local law (Spengler and Uysal, 1989: 310).

Tourist Tax Practices in European Union Countries

In order to improve recreation areas, meet public services, and eliminate the negative consequences occurring in the environment due to the large number of visitors, today, many European Union countries such as Spain, Italy, Germany and the Netherlands collect extra taxes under the names of tourist tax, city tax, and accommodation tax from foreign visitors visiting their countries for touristic purposes only. The legal basis for the implementation of the tourist tax in EU member states is the Council Directive 2006/112/EC, which also includes amendments (282/2011) in the application of Value Added Tax (VAT) (Official Journal of European Union, 2011).

Although tourist tax is a local tax, and though it is possible for the national legislators in each country to freely determine the criteria for the application of tourist tax, there is an obligation to comply with the principles of international agreements. Tourist tax is an extra tax imposed on tourists who will make an accommodation with a fixed amount or a certain percentage (Çetin, 2014: 28).

Table 1

The Application of Tourist Tax in the European Union Member Countries

Countries	Manner of Receipt	Tax Rate/Amount	Special Conditions
Austria	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.15 - € 2.18	The tax amount varies according to the municipality.
Belgium	Net Price Per Person Per Night or Per Room Rate-Percentage	€ 0.53 - € 7.50	The tax amount varies according to the municipalities, and amount hotels are required to pay per room to municipalities annually in some cities has been determined.
Bulgaria	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.10 - € 1.53	The tax amount varies according to the municipality and it is paid within the hotel fee.
Croatia	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.27 - € 1.34	The tax amount varies according to the municipality.
South Cyprus	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
Czech Republic	Per Person Per Night	Up to € 1.00	Varies by region.
Denmark	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
Estonia	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
Finland	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
France	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.20 - € 4.00	The tax amount varies according to the municipality. Municipalities have the right to add 10% additional state and 15% additional regional taxes to prices.
Germany	Percentage of Per Person Per Night or Room Rate	€ 0.25 - € 7.00 or 6% of room rate	Taxes vary per person depending on the accommodation type, room rate, and location.
Greece	Per Room Per Night	€ 0.50 - € 4.00	Fees vary depending on hotel quality rating.
Hungary	Room Rate Percentage	4% of the room rate	Applied to the room rate before adding VAT.
Ireland	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
Italy	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.30 - € 7.00	The amount of tax depends on the municipality and type of the accommodation.
Latvia	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
Lithuania	Per Room Per Night	€ 0.30 - € 1.00	Tax Amount varies by Municipality.
Luxembourg	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
Malta	Per Person Per Night	€0.50	It has no regional diversity and is applied throughout the country.
The Netherlands	Percentage of Per Person Per Night or Room Rate	€ 0.55 - € 8 or up to 7% of the room rate.	Tax Amount varies by Municipality.
Poland	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.37 - € 0.55	Tax Amount varies by Municipality.
Portugal	Per Person Per Night	€2.00	Tax Amount varies by Municipality.
Romania	Room Price Percentage	1%	Tax Amount varies by Municipality.
Slovakia	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.50 - € 1.65	Tax Amount varies by Municipality.
Slovenia	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.60 - € 2.50	Tax Amount varies by Municipality.
Spain	Per Person Per Night	€ 0.25 - € 2.25	Varies by city and/or region.
Sweden	Tourist Tax is not charged.		
United Kingdom	Tourist Tax is not charged.		

Note: Figures are adult prices. In many cases reduced rates are available for children.

Source: European Commission (2017: 36-37) (updated by the authors).

Croatia

The tourist tax applied in Croatia is paid as Croatian Kuna, and holidaymakers aged older than 18 years are obliged to pay a "Soujourn Tax" ranging between 2kn and 10kn, that varies according to the season and the accommodation. In Croatia, cities are categorized according to their capacity to attract tourists. These categories are divided into 4 as A, B, C and D. For example, Dubrovnik is in the category of A, and the highest tax rate is applied in this city (European Tour Operators Association, 2018).

France

In France, tourist tax, whose infrastructure was prepared with the law dated 13 April 1910, is still applied today. The tourist tax is levied to contribute to the development of touristic activities, the promotion of the region and the strengthening of its attractiveness. Accordingly, the income of the tax is reserved solely for the expenditures aimed at improving the experience of tourists. In France, tourist tax includes persons who do not reside within the municipality borders, and are not subject to housing taxation (Taxesejour.fr). The maximum rate of tourist tax (per person) is between € 0.20 and € 4.0 per night, excluding additional taxes. The base price has been determined as € 0.70 in 5 and 4-star hotels, € 0.50 in 3-star hotels, € 0.30 in 2-star hotels, and € 0.20 in 1-star hotels. On the other hand, the ceiling prices have been set as € 3.00 for 5-star hotels, € 2.30 for 4-star hotels, € 1.50 for 3-star hotels, € 0.90 for 2-star hotels, and € 0.80 for 1-star hotels. In France, guests are charged tourist tax not only in hotels but also in holiday villages, camps and caravans, and apart-hotels providing bed and breakfast services. While the hotels referred to as ultra-luxury hotels have the highest (€ 4.00) tourist tax demand, the accommodation facilities offering 1 and 2-star camp and caravan services have the lowest (€ 0.20) tourist tax demand (Finance Law, 2014).

In France, as far as the laws allow, municipalities can add a 10% additional state tax to the prices. As a matter of fact, in cities like Paris, in addition to the 10% additional state tax, the 15% additional regional tax amount can also be reflected on the prices. In Paris, for example, per night tourist tax rate of € 3 for a 5-star hotel can be € 3.75 per night with an additional tax rate of 10% + 15%.

With the Finance Law dated 29 December 2014 (Art. L.2333-31), the scope of exemptions from tourist tax was updated and as a result, it was determined that (Finance Law, 2014);

- Individuals aged under 18 years,
- Seasonal workers employed in the region,
- People who benefit from emergency accommodation or temporary displacement, and

- People who occupy properties with rent rates less than the amount determined by the municipal council are exempted from the tourist tax.

Germany

In Germany, the tourist tax is applied as “Culture Tax” and “Bed Tax”, and the rate applied differs depending on the time of stay, the number of rooms of the hotel stayed, type of accommodation, and per night rate of the hotel. This tax type was first entered in force by becoming law in 2011, in the state of Thuringia. While the tourist tax rate in Berlin, Dortmund, Bremen, Cologne, and Freiburg is 5% of the room rate, excluding breakfast and extra services, it is 6% in Dresden. In Dahlem city, this tax is € 1 per person per night for guests older than 14 years, and € 0.50 for guests younger than 14 years. As of January 2018, a € 2 tax has been charged per person per night in Frankfurt (bettensteuer.de). In Hamburg, the way this tax is levied is much different. The tax varies depending on the net overnight rate of the accommodation. For example, the tax rate is charged as

€ 0.00 on net per night accommodation rates up to € 10.00
€ 0.50 on net per night accommodation rates up to € 25.00
€ 1.00 on net per night accommodation rates up to € 50.00
€ 2.00 on net per night accommodation rates up to € 100.00
€ 3.00 on net per night accommodation rates up to € 150.00.

For every € 50.00 increase in per night net accommodation rate, taxes increase by € 1.00 (bettensteuer.de; hamburg-tourism.de).

Greece

The tourist tax to be paid by all tourists/taxpayers visiting Greece became effective as of 01 January 2018. This tax is paid by cash or card at check-in to the accommodation facility or, if a residential property has been rented, to the landlord. This tax is not paid to holiday companies at the time of booking; tourists pay this tax to the accommodation companies (news.gtp.gr, 2017).

The tourist tax is a compulsory tax that must be paid by the visitors to the accommodation facility (including hotels, apartments and furnished rooms rented to visitors) without any exception. The tourist tax is calculated over the number of overnight stays and the “star rating” category of the accommodation unit. The tourist tax ranges from € 0.50 to € 4 per room, per night (Nikana, 2018).

Italy

In Italy, this tax type, which is referred to as accommodation tax, was first entered in force in 1910 for thermal facilities, and in 1938, other popular sights were also included. In 1989 (Decree Law No. 10, dated 2 March 1989), the accommodation tax was suspended in order to prevent the possible decline in the number of tourists visiting Italy for the FIFA World Cup to be held in 1990. In Italy, although the national government does not demand any tourism tax, a recent legal decree stipulated that local administrations are free to determine their own policies (Rinaldi, 2012: 6). Accommodation tax has started to be charged in many cities of Italy since 2010. To ensure the financial and economic sustainability of municipalities, the annual tax fee in the rates determined by the law has been approved by the decision of the municipal councils (Fontana and Lagutin, 2018: 84-85). In Italy, the tourist tax is charged for all accommodations such as hotels, motels, holiday homes, farmhouses and campsites.

Tourist tax levied in Italy is spent for the following purposes:

- Tourism and regional marketing;
- Urban decoration and maintenance;
- Investments in urban mobility;
- Implementing tourism, cultural initiatives and events, exhibitions and fairs in terms of fairs and workshops;
- Developing tourist information points;
- Co-financing of promotional activities to be conducted in cooperation with professional organizations or private persons;
- Employment opportunities for young people; projects and interventions aimed at the training of professional figures in the tourism sector.

The tourist tax charged in Italy is divided into two, as the condition of the accommodation and the high-low season. A tax rate between € 0.30 and € 7 is levied from the tourists at hotels depending on the number of stars. However, this situation differs in the Ancona region. The tax levied in Ancona is € 0.50 for accommodation rates lower than € 20 per night, € 1 for accommodation rates between € 20 and € 50, € 2 for accommodation rates between € 50 and € 100 per night, and € 3 for accommodation rates higher than € 100 (Göktaş et al., 2018: 2).

In Italy, every municipality introduces different conditions in child policy and exemptions, and these conditions are continually updated in accordance with the law. In some municipalities, guides that bring groups of more than 20 people are exempted from this tax, whereas in other municipalities, university students studying in that city, and people who come to provide voluntary aid as a result of natural disasters are exempted from this tax (Torino Municipality, 2018).

Malta

Since June 20, 2016, tourist tax under the title "Eco Contribution" has begun to be levied from people aged 18 years and older, who stay at all kinds of accommodation facilities, for environmental protection and infrastructure improvements (Environmental Contribution Law, 2016). The tourist tax has been determined as €0.50 per person, and this amount has been limited to a maximum of €5 for those who perform consecutive accommodation (Malta Ministry of Tourism).

The Netherlands

In the Netherlands, Article 224 of the municipality law, and Articles 41 and 53 of the Law on Public Institutions include the obligations related to the tourist tax (Municipality Law, 2019). The tourist tax was introduced in the 1970s to ensure additional financial sources to municipalities struggling with costs by hosting a large number of tourists. Guests staying one night within the borders of a municipality, pay this tax to contribute to the means they use (Den Haag Municipality, 2006). As of 2017, the tourist tax is levied by 388 municipalities throughout the Netherlands (Bnnvara, 2017).

Municipalities of the Netherlands levy tourist tax not only from accommodation facilities such as hotels, bed and breakfast apart-hotels, holiday homes, caravans, and campsites but also from ships that organize marine tours within the borders of the municipality and from tourists staying individually at rented homes. In marine tours, however, ships smaller than 4 meters are exempted from paying tourist tax. In 13 municipalities registered under Partnership Real Estate Information and Valuation (SVHW), there is no minimum age limit for tourist tax, and regardless of their age, everybody is accepted as a taxpayer (SVHW, 2019).

As of 1 January 2019, the Amsterdam Municipality charges a daily tourist tax of €8 per passenger on transit sea liners that anchor within the borders of Amsterdam Municipality.

Portugal

Since 1 January 2016, the tourist tax has been levied on all tourists visiting Portugal's capital city, Lisbon. As of 2019, the Lisbon and Porto municipalities have updated their tariffs and have started to take €2 as accommodation fee per night. In Lisbon and Porto, the tourist tax is charged for stays performed at most consecutive 7 nights, and if more overnight stays are made, there is no increase in the fee after the 7th night. Upon the decision taken by the Algarve municipality, tourist tax of €1.50 per night has been introduced but has not yet been effectuated (Bratley, 2018).

Spain

Tourist tax is charged in the Catalan region of Spain and the Balearic Islands. The tourist tax which entered in force in the Balearic Islands in 2001, and which is titled "ecotax" is levied as per person per night (Cantallops, 2004: 44). Meanwhile, the Parliament of Catalonia approved the tourist tax on 20.03.2010 for the purpose of financial support (Catalonia Department of Employment and Recruitment, 2012).

In Barcelona, taxation is based on hotel types and higher tourist tax is levied in the hotels allowing gambling compared to the other hotels. The tax applied in Barcelona is € 2.25 per night per person at 5-star hotels and touristic homes leased out by landlords, € 1.10 at 4-star hotels, and € 0.65 at accommodation facilities with 3-stars and lower. Passenger ships that stay at the port for more than 12 hours are subject to a tourist tax of € 2.25 per person, while the same tax is € 0.65 per person for passenger ships staying at the port less than 12 hours. These rates may be lower in other cities of Catalonia (costabravatouristguide.com, 2019).

Methodology

The research consists of a literature review and secondary data. With the literature review, the subject is explained clearly and conceptually. Secondary data are the data sets that the organizations have created as a result of studies carried out related to the topic that the researcher is interested in. The secondary data types are frequently used in both qualitative and quantitative research. The current tourist tax tariff of the member states of the European Union is explained in Table 1, and then the laws, tariffs, exemptions and the expenditures to be transferred to the tourist tax of many European Union member countries that levy tourist tax are explained in detail. Later, in line with the purpose of the research, recommendations for the implementation of the tourist tax in Turkey are developed. It is considered that the tourist tax would be an important resource for tourism of Turkey and tourism expenditures of local administrations.

Recommendations for the Implementation of the Tourist Tax in Turkey

Accommodation Tax, which was introduced to the agenda of Turkey for the first time in 2004, was included in the draft of the Special Provincial Administrations and Municipal Revenues Law in 2008 and discussed in the Parliament Subcommittee. Details of the Accommodation Tax practice were provided in articles 34, 35, 36, and 37 in section four of the law draft in question. Accordingly, accommodations in facilities such as hotels, motels, holiday villages, hostels constituted the subject of the Accommodation Tax, and those staying at these facilities were the payers of the Accommodation Tax. Those operating the accommodation facilities were held responsible for collecting the Accommodation Tax and paying it to the authorized administration on behalf of the taxpayers. The Accommodation Tax base was determined as the total accommodation amount paid by taxpayers, including daily dining and bed fees, and determining the tax rate as 3% of the total daily accommodation fee was projected. The Council of Ministers was authorized to reduce this rate to zero, and to increase it to the legal limit. However, following the Parliament Sub-Committee discussions, due to the impact of intense pressures of the representatives of the sector, the draft in question could not pass the committee and was not enacted (Güler, 2017: 24; Kılıçer, 2019: 68).

In the law proposal intended to be applied in Turkey, but not enacted, the quality of the accommodation, its low-high season state, and the situation of facilities where no fee was paid for dining were overlooked, and municipalities were not being given a chance to act freely. When the rival countries in the Mediterranean basin are examined, it is seen that the most accurate and reasonable tourist tax is applied in Italy.

After the literature and secondary data reviews detailed above, the following recommendations for the implementation of the tourist tax in Turkey have been developed:

1- In Turkey, after the base and ceiling limit of the tax fixed fees are determined by Ministry of Treasury and Finance within the framework of law, it will be a right decision that within its autonomous structure, each municipality determines the tourist tax amount by making a joint decision together with the shareholders.
2- It would be quite right to determine different fixed tax amounts according to the quality and type of the accommodation, according to destination demand structure, by distinguishing high and low seasons and providing discounts to people with certain qualities, or by adding the exemption from the tourist tax.
3- The tourist tax amount should be able to differ between the regions that have reached saturation in terms of tourism demand and the other regions. By demanding higher tourist tax, the regions that have developed in terms of tourism and experience intense tourist traffic would be able to gain sources faster in order to develop the region’s tourism activities, realize its promotion, solve environment and infrastructure problems, and meet the high costs that arise in touristic regions. By demanding a lower tourist tax, both the developing regions would be able to continue to provide services without losing their competitiveness, and create extra resources for the municipality’s tourism activities. The better conditions the municipalities have in this respect, the more appropriate the tariff that they apply would be in terms of the city’s tourism demand.
4- In today’s conditions, where the competitive environment is also experienced specific to the cities, in order to attract more visitors, municipalities may not demand tourist tax from those aged under 18 years, who certify their business trip, who visit the city for health reasons, and who come for assistance in the aftermath of disasters. Municipalities would also be able to ensure an increase

in the number of overnight stays by stating that tourist tax would not be applied after a certain number of accommodation days.

The tourist tax model being applied in Italy also supports all these situations.

Much research has been done on what kind of changes would occur in tourism demand as a result of the enactment of the tourist tax, and different results have been obtained. Some researchers have reported that tourist tax would not create a major negative impact on the demand (Bonham et al., 1992; Mak and Nishimura, 1979). A study conducted in Istanbul revealed that tourists were in favor of paying additional taxes for the improvement of services offered to them, and taxes would not affect their travel decisions negatively (Çetin et al., 2017). In this case, it is understood that it is very important that the tourist tax to be levied in Turkey, as in other countries, is transferred only to tourism expenditures. That is, it is understood that if tourists' positive experiences and the service quality they receive is increased, tourist tax would not lead to a decline in demand.

Conclusion

In this study, it was attempted to determine in which European Union member countries the tourist tax was applied, and under which conditions and which amounts/rates of the tourist tax were charged. Though there are differences between the methods applied in European Union member countries, there is a consensus that the tourist tax should be applied by local administrations, and the revenues from the tourist tax should be spent directly on the development of tourism and eliminating the negative factors caused by the tourism sector. Therefore, the fact that certain legal regulations aimed at the application of the tourist tax have not been enacted in our country, which has a significant tourism potential and presents importance in terms of tourism based on its location, does not mean that the tourist tax issue will not be brought up on the agenda again. Therefore, the Draft Law on Special Provincial Administrations and Municipal Revenues should be updated and enacted by specifying the issues such as tourist tax base and ceiling fees, who will be covered and who will be exempted. Municipalities wishing to implement the enacted tourist tax would created an important resource for tourism investments. Some of the recommendations developed for the tourist tax to be applied in Turkey are as follows:

1- The law draft for the tourist tax should be reviewed again, and submitted to parliament and accepted.
2- The law draft should be renewed again within the scope of the methods or rules adopted by the countries applying the tourist tax successfully, and formed in accordance with Turkey's tourist profile.
3- Different fixed tax amounts should be determined according to the quality and

type of the accommodation, according to destination demand structure, by distinguishing between high and low seasons and providing discounts to people with certain qualities, or adding the exemption from the tourist tax for them.

4- In addition to the fact that the tourist tax is seen both as rational and economical in terms of local administrations, significant problems are likely in conditions where it is not used for the development of the region’s tourism activities, promotion, and the solution of environmental and infrastructure problems, or in case these facilities are not developed. For this reason, it is important to make clear to which institutes’ budgets the funds obtained through city tax would be transferred, how they would be spent, and which services and activities would be financed.

Grant Support: The authors received no financial support for this work.

References

Aguiló, E., Riera, A., & Rosselló, J. (2005). The short-term price effect of a tourist tax through a dynamic demand model: The case of the Balearic Islands. *Tourism Management, 26*(3), 359–365.

Bettensteuer. (n.d.), Available online: www.bettensteuer.de, (accessed on 2 February 2019).

Bnnvara. (2017). Available online: kassa.bnnvara.nl/gemist/nieuws/toeristenbelasting-verschillen-gemeente, (accessed on 4 February 2019).

Bonham, C. S., Fjii, E., Im, E., & Mak, J. (1992). The impact of hotel room tax: An interrupted time series approach. *National Tax Journal,* 45, 433–442.

Bratley, C. M. (2018). Algarve Councils Green-Light Tourist Tax Worth €20m Per Year – Silves And Tourism Board Against It, http://www.theportugalnews.com/news/algarve-councils-green-light-tourist-tax-worth-20m-per-year-silves-and-tourism-board-against-it/46964, (accessed on 2 February 2019).

Cantallops, A. S. (2004). Policies supporting sustainable tourism development in the Balearic Islands: The ecotax. *Anatolia, 15*(1), 39–56.

Catalonia Department of Employment and Recruitment. (2012). Tourist Tax: A Fund for Promoting The Competitiveness Of Tourism, http://empresa.gencat.cat/en/treb_ambits_actuacio/turisme/coneixement_planificacio/emo_informes/fullturisme/emo_fullturisme_noticies/emo_numero13/emo_1_1_taxa_turistica, (accessed on 10 February 2019).

Cetin, G. (2014), Sustaining tourism development through city tax: The case of Istanbul. *E-Review of Tourism Research (Ertr), 11,*(1/2).

Cetin, G., Alrawadieh, Z., Dincer, M. Z., Dincer, F. İ., & Ioannides, D. (2017). Willingness to pay for tourist tax in destinations: Empirical evidence from Istanbul. Economies, 5, 21.

Costabravatouristguide. (2018). Available online: costabravatouristguide.com, (accessed on 10 February 2019).

Den Haag Municipality, (2006), Toeristenbelasting, https://www.denhaag.nl/web/file?uuid=b7d5bb9d-df6f-47b7-ae6a-8eb14db2bdda&owner=b72728d4-2a96-4024-8fd4-ccdda2a602ba, (accessed on 12 February 2019).

Dogan, M. (2017), Turizm ve şehir vergisi: Kuramsal bir analiz ve Türkiye üzerine öneriler. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi, 28*(2), 269–280.

Environmental Contribution Law. (2016), Environmental Contribution, tourism.gov.mt/en/Documents/Environmental_Contribution_Info.pdf, (accessed on 12 February 2019).

European Commission. (2017). The Impact of Taxes on the Competitiveness of European Tourism, Final Report, PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP (PwC) Publishing.

European Tour Operators Association. (n.d.), Policy Areas, Tourist Taxes, https://www.etoa.org/policy/regulation-and-taxation/tourist-taxes/accommodation-taxes-in-croatia, (accessed on 12 November 2018).

Finance Law. (2014). www.legifrance.gouv.fr (accessed on 8 February 2019).

Fontana, C., & Lagutın, İ. (2018). Tourıst taxes in Italy and Russia. *Russıan Law Jornal, 6*(1).

Gago, A., Labandeira, X., Picos, F., & Rodriguez, M. (2006). Taxing tourism in Spain: results and recommendations. The Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei Note Di Lavoro Series Index: http://www.feem.it/feem/pub/publications/wpapers/default.htm.

Göktaş, L. S., Çetin, G., & Kızılırmak, İ. (2018). Tourist tax and its implications. II. International Congress of Tourism and Cultural Heritage, pp: 1-6.

Güler, A. (2017). Roma ve Venedik özelinde İtalya'da turist vergisi ve Türkiye'de uygulanması. *Pamukkale Journal of Eurasian Socioeconomic Studies, 4*(1), 18–25.

Hamburg Tourismus. (n.d.). Culture and Tourism Tax. https://static1.hamburg-tourism.de/live_fileadmin/redaktion/Pressemitteilungen/The_culture_and_tourism_tax_from_A_to_Z.pdf, (accessed on 8 March 2019)

Kato, A., Kwak, S., & Mak, J. (2011). Using the property tax to appropriate gains from tourism. *Journal of Travel Research 50*(2), 144–153.

Kılıçer, Ü. E. (2019). Turist vergisi: Yabancı ülke uygulamaları ve Türkiye'de uygulanabilirliği üzerine bir inceleme. *Mali Çözüm Dergisi/Financial Analysis, 29*(151), 55–74.

Kırca, M. ve Topal, M. H. (2017). Türkiye'de turizm talebinin vergi gelirleri üzerindeki etkisinin analizi. *Balkan ve Yakın Doğu Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 3*(2).

Mak, J. (2006). Taxation of travel and tourism. International Handbook on The Economics of Tourism, pp: 251-265.

Mak, J., & Nishimura, E. (1979). The economics of hotel room tax. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17, 2-6.

Malta Tourism Ministry. (n.d.), tourism.gov.mt/en/Documents/Environmental_Contribution_Info.pdf, (accessed on 8 March 2019).

Municipality Law. (2019). wetten.overheid.nl/BWBR0005416/2019-01-01, (accessed on 5 March 2019).

News.gtp.gr. (2017). Greece's New 'Stayover Tax' to Be Charged to Hotel Guests. (accessed on 5 February 2019).

Nikana. (2018). Overnight Stay Tax in Greece, nikana.gr/en/tourist-guide/blog/general-information/3337/overnight-stay-tax-in-greece, (accessed on 5 February 2019).

Official Journal of European Union. (2011), http://eur-lex.Avropa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=OJ:L:2011:077:TOC, (accessed on 5 February 2018).

Okumus, B., & Cetin, G. (2018). Marketing Istanbul as a culinary destination. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 9, 340–346.

Rinaldi, A. (2012), Externalıtıes and Tourıst Tax Evidence from Italy, Rivista Di Scienze Del Turismo, Anno III, Numero 2, Luglio-Dicembre 2012.

SVHW. (2019), https://www.svhw.nl/belastingen-en-tarieven/overzicht-belastingen/toeristenbelasting/ (accessed on 5 June 2019).

Spengler, J. O., & Uysal, M. (1989). Considerations in the hotel taxation process. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 8*(4), 309–316.

Taxesejour.fr, (n.d.). Présentation De La Taxe De Séjour En France. www.taxesejour.fr (accessed on 8 February 2019).

Torino Municipality. (2018). Imposta Di Soggiorno, http://www.comune.torino.it/soggiorno/, (accessed on 10 February 2019).

Usta, Ö. (2014). Turizm (Genel ve Yapısal Yaklaşım). (4. Baskı). Ankara: Detay Yayınları.

Valle, P., Pintassilgo, P., Matias A., & André F. (2012). Tourist attitudes towards an accommodation tax earmarked for environmental protection: A survey in the Algarve. *Tourism Management, 33*(2012), 1408–1416.

ISTANBUL UNIVERSITY PRESS

Journal of Tourismology

THEORETICAL ARTICLE

Journal of Tourismology, 5(2): 159-170

DOI: 10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0018
http://jt.istanbul.edu.en/

Submitted: 19.02.2019
Revision Requested: 17.03.2019
Last Revision Received: 24.07.2019
Accepted: 15.08.2019
Published Online: 20.09.2019

Comparing Hedonism with Responsible Tourism Diversities*

Omer Sarac[1] **Orhan Batman**[2] **Vahit Oguz Kiper**[3]

Abstract

The aim of this study was to explore the importance and necessity of responsible tourism as a solution for problems arising from hedonic consumption and its negative impact on sustainability. Associated with the increasing production volumes of consumption goods in the market, hedonic consumption — a concept which involves consumers' use of products to fulfill fantasies and satisfy emotions — is directly linked to environmental pollution, destruction of limited natural resources, and loss of national values. Tourism is one of the sectors in which environmental, natural and social impacts of hedonic consumption unfold. Relying directly on nature and social environment, tourism has been losing its assets as a result of hedonic consumption. In this context, ecotourism – a mode of responsible tourism which advocates sustainable tourism – stands out as it does not disturb local lifestyles, while rural tourism can be considered as an alternative as it involves touristic operations held in villages and farmland which also conserve social life. Another alternative is cittaslow which protects local traditions and cuisines. Moreover, environmentally-conscious tourism offers certification programs which contribute to sustainability, awarding those businesses with best practices. Halal tourism, on the other hand, rejects wastefulness and places great importance on sustainable tourism with its respect to social life and religious beliefs.

Keywords

Hedonic consumption, Sustainable tourism, Responsible tourism, Environment, Halal tourism

* This paper is the upgraded and re-worked version of the research that was published as "Opposite Approaches in the Tourism Comparison of Halal Tourism and Hedonism Approach" in 2nd International Halal Congress.

1 **Correspondence to:** Omer Sarac (PhD. Student), Tourism Management, Faculty of Tourism, Sakarya Uygulamalı Bilimler University, Sakarya, Turkey. E-mail: o.sarach@hotmail.com ORCID: 0000-0002-4338-7394

2 Orhan Batman (Prof.), Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, Faculty of Tourism, Sakarya Uygulamalı Bilimler University, Sakarya, Turkey. E-mail: obatman@sakarya.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0001-7186-7064

3 Vahit Oguz Kiper (Ress. Asst.), Faculty of Tourism, Sakarya Uygulamalı Bilimler University, Sakarya, Turkey. E-mail: oguzkiper@subu.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0001-5558-2341

To cite this article: Sarac, O., Batman, O., Kiper, V. O. (2019). Comparing hedonism with responsible tourism diversities. *Journal of Tourismology, 5*(2), 159–170. https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0018

Introduction

Due to a number of factors such as increased income levels in the post-industrial revolution era which also gave birth to the concept of "spare time" have led to the trend of travelling. In addition to that; pursuit of discovery-adventure and reduced travelling times –thanks to breakthroughs in technology- also imrpoved tendency towards tourism.

Offering a great economic potential, tourism found its deserved place in the economy following the 1950s. After the World War II, industrial stability was once again established and the liberalism movement gained momentum. Today's developed Western states had believed that tourism was a great source of economic growth and development, and with the influence of liberalism, tourism as we know it today was born (Diamond, 1977: 539; Britton, 1982: 332; Copeland, 1991: 515; Crouch & Ritchie, 1999: 138; Hao, Var & Chon, 2003: 33).

Liberalism is highly related to private property which means a market system based on private enterprise and freedom and is divided into two both politically and economically. Economic liberalism is the ideology of capitalism and can be summed up with the expression "let [them/it] do and let [them/it] pass" (Şaylan, 2003: 47-48).

It is possible to see the wheels of liberalism turning in all the modern industries including tourism. The well-known quote by Adam Smith, i.e. "laissez faire, laissez passer, le monde va de lui même" (Let [them/it] do and let [them/it] pass, the world goes on by itself), is echoed in tourism in a way that tourists' irresponsible behaviors have impaired the economic, social and natural environment.

With respect to the main virtue of liberalism, its famous slogan, "laissez-faire," means that people in their economic activities, religious tendencies, ideas and culture should be free to do as they wish (Raico, 1990). In other words, liberalism emerged as a reaction to feudalism and against its irrational, individualistic, religious ideology (Akşin, 2000: 264).

As a result, religion, which has an impact on purchasing decisions such as traveling, staying in accommodation facilities and benefiting from food and beverage services, began to be ignored (Essoo & Dibb, 2004: 684; Soesilowati, 2011: 153; Demirel & Yaşarsoy, 2017: 34). This situation led to the emergence of the concept of hedonism and due to public resentment, now we know that "let (them/it) do" cannot be allowed. Hedonism is a behavior which cannot be explained as satisfying one's needs, but it is a consumption behavior aimed at pleasure (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982: 92; Baudrillard, 2004: 94).

The growth of the tourism sector has led to environmental and social issues as hedonic consumers were catered for without caring or having to take responsibility of natural, environmental or social issues and depletion. Considering these issues which emerged by the end of the 20th century and their economic importance, the "Brundtland Report" released by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). This itself offered a definition of the concept of Sustainable Development which then led to the emergence of the concept of Sustainable Tourism. Collin (2004) defined sustainability as activities meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

Thus, tourism was reborn with an impetus against the destruction of the environment and natural resources with a hedonic approach which does not allow for the regeneration of the environment and natural resources. This revolutionary new mentality infused the phenomenon of tourism with sustainability and changing common practices that had emerged since the 1950s.

Although responsible tourism and sustainable tourism share a common purpose, responsible tourism requires individuals, organizations and businesses to be responsible for their actions. The reason behind this requirement is that each business expects the other involved parties to comply with the principles of sustainability (Zengin & Erkol, 2018: 371), so that all parties would stand off disruptive actions within sustainable activities.

The current study aimed to stress the importance and necessity of responsible tourism, which is necessary for sustainability, as a solution to problems caused as a result of hedonic experience.

Hedonic Consumption

The changes brought about by liberalism in the post-Industrial Revolution era have been felt in literally every aspect of life, and consumption is not an exception. The new system was built on production at every stage of development and both sale and consumption of anything what is produced. Today, the concept of consumption has become a social activity, a part of daily routine, rather than an attempt to satisfy needs. Consumers today are being conditioned by external stimuli to consume. Also there are several mental images of a product linked to them by the consumer. Such mental images guide them towards consumption activities which result in emotional pleasure (Ünal & Ceylan, 2008: 266). These activities fall under hedonic experiences and they are based on the mental image, fancy and emotional stimuli consumers associate with a product (Okado, 2005: 44).

Briefly, hedonism can be defined as the pursuit of pleasure. An ethical theory, hedonism defines things which give pleasure and deliver people from pain as good, and those which give pain as bad. In other words, hedonism can be explained as the consumers' dedication to pleasure. Hedonic consumption, on the other hand, is defined as the pleasure taken from such dedication (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982: 92; Hopkinson & Pujari, 1999: 274; O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2002: 526; Altunışık & Çallı, 2004: 235). For a hedonic consumer, pleasure is the purpose of life and they often find themselves in a pursuit of pleasure in what they purchase.

In this context, hedonism can be approached from its philosophical and psychological aspects. From a philosophical point of view, the purpose of the consumer is to maximize pleasure. As a result, they work towards this goal throughout their lives. From a psychological point of view, consumers are conditioned by external stimuli to acquire the things they take pleasure in and they work towards these desires (Fromm, 1991: 19-20).

Accordingly, the main goal of a hedonic lifestyle is to ensure personal interests are fulfilled and to embrace personal desires. In other words, it involves worldly pleasures such as taste in food, sex, etc. Moreover, hedonic consumers tend to lack a belief in a Judgment Day, therefore they think they need to make the best of their lives.

Pleasure, an output of hedonism, allows for acts like vandalism, violence against women and children, same-sex relationships, bad habits such as gambling and drugs, and unacceptable practices such as eating live monkey brains under the guise of gastronomy.

Tourism was given an identity in the post-Industrial Revolution era by developed Western states; it was then introduced with liberalism and the relationship between humans and the subject of "tourism" was shaped based on the hedonic experience. This attitude paved the way for hedonist communities and nations (Yener, 2010: 43). As a result, limited natural resources and important values making up the social construct have been drained and undermined rapidly jeopardizing the future of tourism. In this context, responsible tourism practices have emerged as significant solutions so that we are to leave future generations the limited natural resources we enjoy now.

Responsible Tourism

A contemporary concept, responsible tourism was discussed for the first time at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) which took place in Cape Town, South Africa. This tourism approach looks out for the interests of both locals and tourists and is based on the notion of responsible practices in social, environmental and economic aspects of products (Zengin & Erkol, 2018: 369-370).

In this context, the purpose of responsible tourism is to generate greater economic benefits for local people, to involve local people in decisions that affect their lives and life changes, to make positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage, to provide access for people with disabilities and the disadvantaged, and to minimize negative economic, environmental and social impacts of hedonic consumption in touristic activities (UNWTO, 2002).

This mode of tourism has developed based on the needs, desires and expectations of tourists, just as it is the case in other modes of tourism. Among the expectations of this tourist segment we can mention about; respect for the local traditions, local culture, local behaviors, habits and lifestyle, adapting to this lifestyle and in doing so, adopting responsible behaviors as if it were their home. Thus, it has been made possible for people from different cultures to adapt to local cultures, which in turn offers an enriched product for tourism (Frey & George, 2010: 267; Zengin & Erkol, 2018: 371).

In this context, the following modes of responsible tourism help businesses increase their market popularity and create a brand: Ecotourism, Rural Tourism, Cittaslow, Environmentally-conscious Tourism and Halal Tourism (Zengin & Erkol, 2018: 372).

Ecotourism

Having a nature-oriented character, Ecotourism is known as a mode of tourism which is ideal for nature lovers and environmentally-conscious tourists. This mode of tourism uses natural and cultural resources from the perspective of sustainability and it consists of environmental, economic and social interactions (Weaver, 1999). Ecotourism is an environmentalist alternative to mass tourism in its understanding of nature and its respect to nature along with the pleasure it derives from nature (Erdoğan 2003).

Ecotourism is built on the principles of respect, responsibility, and sustainability. As part of this sense of responsibility, tourists prefer accommodation at local houses, they prefer local cuisine and camping in nature and these factors add value to this mode of tourism. All these aspects translate into tourists' adoption of and compliance with the local lifestyle without changing the environmental conditions. Thus, it is possible to contribute to local development without abusing the nature or the local people (Erdoğan, 2003; Polat & Önder, 2006: 54; Şahin, 2009: 73). In this respect, ecotourism differs from hedonic consumption with respect to the aforementioned principles and practices.

Rural Tourism

Even though rural tourism may be associated with meadows and prairies, there is no consensus on a single definition of this mode of tourism and thus, this mode of tourism has had many names, such as farm tourism, village tourism, highland tourism, agro tourism and ecotourism, and involves activities such as touristic visits to farms, horseback riding, trekking, etc. (Soykan, 1999: 68; Esengün et al., 2001; Aydın, 2012: 40).

In this context, it would be fair to say that rural tourism embraces rural culture, natural environment and agriculture. With accommodation options such as village houses, farm houses or chalets (Soykan, 2003: 2), tourists act with a sense of responsibility without disrupting local lifestyle while accommodating to the environmental conditions; an approach which is the total opposite of hedonic consumption.

Cittaslow

Cittaslow is a term coined using the Italian word "Citta" and the English word "Slow." The Cittaslow movement emerged in the face of globalization with the aim of giving cities their identity back and to conserve their characteristics (Cittaslow, 2012). This mode of tourism aims to create a peaceful and clean environment, while conserving local traditions and cuisines (Sezgin & Ünüvar, 2011: 128); it differs from hedonic consumption with respect to these qualities.

Accordingly, Cittaslow aims for the creation of better living spaces which improves the living standards of the people. In other words, this mode of tourism conserves the historic heritage while using technology efficiently for this purpose (Uslu, 2009: 53; Cittaslow, 2012; Sırım, 2012:120).

Environmentally-conscious Tourism

Environmentally-conscious tourism involves conservation of environmental assets in a way that allow future generations to enjoy these them. Following the Industrial Revolution, globalization led to the destruction of natural resources which in turn devastated the ecological balance. As touristic activities depend highly on environmental assets, it is a must for the tourism sector to take the lead in environmental protection. In connection with these conditions, touristic businesses boasting an "Environmentally-conscious Facility" badge or certificate contribute to their marketing efforts while making it convenient for them to adopt a sense of responsible tourism (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2016; Zengin & Erkol, 2018: 381). Thus, this approach stands at odds with hedonic consumption behavior.

Halal Tourism

Halal Tourism is a mode of tourism in which accommodation activities and the needs involved are satisfied with respect to Islamic beliefs and rules (Arpacı & Batman, 2015: 186). The main purpose of this mode of tourism is to offer touristic services to Muslim tourists with a commitment to religious beliefs and rules (Büyükşalvarcı et al., 2016: 1058). In this respect, this mode of tourism can be categorized as a mode of responsible tourism which respects the beliefs of people.

Recently, Halal Tourism has attracted great attention on the international tourism market. According to research, the global tourism market has grown at an annual average of 3.8%, while the halal tourism market has grown at an annual average of 4.8% (DinarStandard & CrescentRating, 2012). The most important reason behind this is the fact that the number of Muslims, especially wealthy Muslims, has increased steadily (Çetin & Dinçer, 2016; Arpacı & Batman, 2015). Here, it would be fair to say that religion along with social, cultural, personal and psychological factors have influenced tourists' purchasing decisions (Köleoğlu, Erdil & Gezen, 2016: 364).

In Turkey, the first Muslim-friendly Hotels were established in 1996 in an attempt to serve the the needs of Muslim tourists. Furthermore, since categorization under "halal tourism" began in 2002, the number of such establishments serving pious tourists has drastically increased (Yeşiltaş, Cankül & Temizkan, 2012: 196; Pamukçu & Arpacı, 2015: 320). A retrospective look at tourism activities which have been developing since the 1950s shows that halal tourism was very late to enter the market. There are several reasons behind this fact, but the most important reason is that the Industrial Revolution had emerged in the Western states.

Average education and income levels have increased following the Industrial Revolution, the concept of 'spare time' was created, and traveling times have decreased thanks to technological breakthroughs (Kozak, Kozak, Kozak, 2014: 31). Having emerged as a result of the increased traveling activities, tourism has been shaped based on the beliefs and lifestyle of developed Western states.

Muslim states, on the other hand, entered the tourism picture much later than Western states (Pamukçu, 2017: 1). The reason behind this is the fact that Muslim states were not immediately able to take advantage of the developments brought about by the Industrial Revolution. Shaped by developed Western states, tourism activities were at odds with Islamic beliefs, therefore the awareness around tourism was not created in Muslim states for a long time. Defined as the sum of social, cultural, and financial events and relations arising from traveling from one point to another (Olalı & Timur, 1988), tourism has been under the influence of hedonic consumption coupled with liberalism which was imposed by Western states. As a result, tourism was associated with being under the influence, gambling, prostitution and endless consumption of worldly pleasures which led to a perception that the other activities were also not part of the concept of tourism.

As there is no end to hedonic consumption and it is now known that such behavior jeopardizes our future, Human being have taken an approach from sustainable tourism which resulted in the emergence of many modes of responsible tourism. Halal Tourism, on the other hand, has emerged as a mode of tourism which places importance on environment, bans wastefulness, and values human health and social life (Sarı, 2017: 507).

Islam orders people to protect the environment, it bans wastefulness and consumables which may harm the human body while advising respect to the beliefs of people. Muhammad (s.a.a.w), the prophet of Islam, even advised in a hadith for the economical use of running water. In this respect, it is safe to conclude that Islam does not pose a threat to social life or the environment, on the contrary, it supports responsible tourism which benefits the environment and the locals (Batman, 2017: 32).

Tourism is commonly referred to as the sum of activities which take place during a trip to one destination and back (Samori et al., 2016: 132). The common Islamic practice of returning to where one comes from also resonates with the definition of tourism. Nevertheless, Islam orders believers to travel. In Islamic belief, if Muslim travelers acknowledge where they come from and pray to Allah, then this is considered a type of devotion and it is considered a good deed to travel the world Allah created, while seeing and assigning meaning to it, i.e. contemplation (Aydın, 1966: 201; Batman & Arpacı, 2016; Pamukçu, 2017: 26). Nevertheless, Muhammad (s.a.a.w), prophet of Islam, stated that "one should travel to gain health".

In light of this information, it is clear that Islam promotes traveling and when this approach is considered as a mode of responsible tourism, it plays an important role in the protection of the environment, reduction of tourism-related waste, respect to religious beliefs and social life; altogether it is very important for the sustainability of touristic activities.

Conclusion

Mechanization and industrialization have taken over since the Industrial Revolution, especially with the emergence of hedonic consumption. This has led to depreciation of natural resources and corruption of the social construct. The resulting environmental threat has grown to prepare for the demise of the human existence (Başol, Gökalp, 1997; Barlas, 1998). Although it relies on nature, the environment and social construct, tourism is yet another one of the industries to destroy the economic, social and natural environment.

Touristic businesses' poor use of land, their negative impact on flora and fauna, their waste discharge directly to the sea and ocean, and fuel burning systems without proper filtering contribute to pollution (Kahraman & Türkay, 2014). The fact that the number of tourist businesses with these practices increase every other day has a negative impact on local cultural identity and the social construct which is a very important handicap for sustainability.

Sustainable tourism requires minimization of environmental damage, paying attention to the local welfare and involving local people in decisions that affect their lives and life changes. Mass tourism, a concept which promotes hedonic consumption at the cost of sustainability, threatens the environment and creates income inequality as large hotels operate excursions, airport transfers, etc. instead of the local people. On the other hand, a responsible tourism approach would allow the local people to earn 95% of the income in question (Kahraman & Türkay, 2014: 50).

As part of the responsible tourism approach, ecotourism ensures that the local lifestyle remains intact while adapting to the environmental conditions. Rural tourism poses no harm to the local lifestyle and environment as touristic activities are held in villages, farms or mountains. Cittaslow protects the local traditions and local cuisine, while environmentally-conscious tourism promotes sustainability and encourages businesses to obtain “Environmentally-conscious Facility” badges or certificates.

Halal tourism, as a mode of responsible tourism, stops wastefulness, encourages cleanliness, and allows for Muslim tourists and local people to live by the Islamic rules ensuring sustainable tourism activities. Halal tourism contributes to sustainability with its environmentally-friendly approach and it offers great economic potential to local communities.

Considering the fact that Islam has *1.8 billion* adherents, it can be said that there are 1.8 billion potential tourists. Moreover, according to statistics, the global tourism revenue will reach up to $192 B. by 2020. These numbers place a great importance on the development of Halal Tourism as an environmentally-conscious mode of responsible tourism.

As a result, responsible tourism is of great importance in terms of sustainability against the concept of hedonism. The most important reason for pointing out responsible tourism types in this research is that individuals, organizations and businesses in responsible tourism are responsible for their own actions. In line with this idea, future research may be recommended to measure the perceptions of hedonism of tourists engaged in activities within the scope of responsible tourism.

Grant Support: The authors received no financial support for this work.

References

Akşin, S. (2000). *History of thought (After 1945)*, Editor: Aksin, S., Turkey Date 5: Today’s Turkey History 1980-1995, İstanbul: Cem Publishing House.

Altunışık, R., & Çallı, L. (2004). A study on unplanned purchase and hedonic consumption; the use of information in the purchase decision. 3. National Congress of Information, Economy, and Management Proceedings, Eskişehir, 2004.

Arpacı, Ö., & Batman, O. (2015). The effect of perceived service quality on customer loyalty and customer value of the halal hotel concept establishments in high and low season. *Journal of Travel and Hospitality Management, 12*(3), 73–86.

Aydın, A. A. (1966). The importance Islam places on traveling. Directorate of religious affairs, religious – moral – literary – occupational monthly periodical. 5.8, 201-203.

Aydın, O. (2012). Top 5 countries in the EU's rural tourism and rural tourism in Turkey. *KMU Journal of Social and Economic Research*, (2), 39–46.

Barlas, H. (1998). Textile industry, problems in waste management in industry. İstanbul: ISO Publication.

Başol, K., & Gökalp, F. (1997). Ecological balance and conservation of natural resources. *Alternative Methods in Natural Resource Consumption: New Approaches*, Moderator: Fuat Vural SAVAŞ, Freidrich Naumann- V Foundation, Ankara.

Batman, O., & Arpacı, Ö. (2016). An application of philosophical theory behind halal tourism. Germany: Türkiye Alimler Publishing House.

Batman, O. (2017). *Halal Tourism QA / What is and What is Not?*. I International Halal Tourism Congress, 07-09 April 2017. Alanya, 30-32.

Baudrillard, J. (2004). The consumer society. Trans. H. Deliceçaylı. İstanbul: Sarmal Publications.

Britton, S. G. (1982). The political economy of tourism in the third world. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 9, 331–358.

Büyükşalvarcı, A., Şapçılar, M. C., & Adabalı, M. M. (2016). Konya mentioned as the tourism capital of islamic world and effects of Konya's tourism, *Journal of International Social Research*, *9*(45), 1054–1064.

Cittaslow Türkiye, http://www.cittaslowturkiye.org, 04.03.2012.

Collin, P. H. (2004). *Dictionary of environment & ecology*. Eisbn-13: 978-1-4081-0222-0, 265 S, Bloomsbury Publishing Plc, London.

Copeland, B. R. (1991). Tourism, welfare and de-industrialization in a small open economy. *Economica,* 58, 515–529.

Crouch, G. I., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1999). Tourism, competitiveness and societal prosperity. *Journal of Business Reseacrh***,** 44, 137–152.

Çetin, G., & Dincer, M. Z. (2016). Muslim friendly tourism (MFT): A discussion. *Journal of Tourismology*, *2*(1), 65–67.

Demirel, Y., & Yaşarsoy, E. (2017). Exploring consumer attitudes towards halal products. *Journal of Tourismology*, *3*(1), 34–43.

Diamond, J. (1977). Tourism's role in economic development: the case reexamined. *Economic Development and Cultural Change, 25*(3), 539–553.

DinarStandard & CrescentRating, (2012). Global Muslim Lifestyle Travel Market 2012: Landscape&Consumer Needs Study For Airlines. Destinations&Hotels/Resorts Executive Summary.

Erdoğan. N. (2003). Environment & (Eco)tourism *Başkent University, Vocational School of Social Sciences*. ISBN: 975- 93130-2-2 Ankara.

Esengün, K., Akça, H., & Sayılı, M. (2001). The role rural tourism plays in the development of rural areas. *Standart Journal, 470,* 29–35.

Essoo, N., & Dibb, S. (2004). Religious influences on shopping behaviour: An exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *20*(7-8), 683–712.

Frey, N., & George, R. (2010). Responsible tourism management: the missing link between business owner's attitudes and behaviour in the Cape Town tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, *31*(5), 621–628.

Fromm, E. (1991). To have or to be (Trans. Aydın Arıtan). İstanbul: Arıtan Publishing House.

Hao, J., Var, T., & Chon, J. (2003). A forecasting model of tourist arrivals from major markets to Thailand. *Tourism Analysis,* 8, 33–45.

Hirschman, E.C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption; emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing***,** 46(3), 92–101.

Hopkinson, G. C. & Pujarı, D. (1999). A factor analytic study of the sources of meaning in hedonic consumption. *European Journal of Marketing*, *33*(4).

Kahraman, N., & Türkay, O. (2014). *Tourism and Environment*. Ankara: Detay Publishing House.

Kozak, N., Kozak, M.A., & Kozak, M. (2014). *General Tourism Principles & Concepts*, (16th Edition). Ankara: Detay Publishing House.

Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Issuance of Environment Friendly Accommodation Facility Certificate to Touristic Businesses Communication, Dated 20.06.2016.

Köleoğlu, N., Erdil, Ş. T., & Gezen, A. (2016). A research on consumers' halal product perception and intention of purchasing halal products. *Hitit University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, *9*(1), 364–378.

Okado, E. M. (2005). Justification effects on consumer choice of hedonic and utilitarian goods. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22, 43–53.

Olalı, H. & Timur A. (1988). *Tourism economy.* İzmir: Ofis Ticaret Matbaacılık Şti.

O'shaughnessy, J., & O'shaughnessy, N. J. (2002). Marketing the consumer society and hedonism. *Europan Journal of Marketing, 36*(5-6).

Polat, A. T., & Önder, S. (2006). A research on the evaluation of landscape features of Karapınar province and its environs respect to ekotourism uses. *Selcuk Journal of Agriculture and Food Sciences*, *20*(40), 53–64.

Pamukçu, H. (2017). *A proposal on standardization of halal tourism for accommodation businesses. (unpublished doktoral thesis)*. Sakarya: Sakarya University Tourism Faculty.

Pamukçu, H. & Arpacı, Ö. (2015). *Hotel businesses with halal concept: A study on the current situation in Turkey*, 1st International Turkic World Conference, Kastamonu, 319–331.

Raico, R. (1990). *Classical liberalism in the Twentieth Century*. Institute for Humane Studies at George Mason University.

Samori, Z., Sallah, M., Z., N. & Khalid, M., M. (2016). Current trends on halal tourism: cases on selected Asian countries. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *19*, 131–136.

Sarı, Y. (2017). *A conceptual study on 'contemplatıon tourism' as an alternative tourism,* I. International Halal Tourism Congress, 07-09 April 2017. Alanya, 503-508.

Sezgin, M., & Ünüvar, S. (2011). *Cittaslow with respect to sustainability and city marketing*, Konya: Çizgi Bookstore.

Sırım, V. (2012). Cittaslow movement as an example of a local administration integrated with environment and Turkey's potential. *Journal of History Culture and Art Research*, *1*(4), 119–131.

Soesilowati, E. S. (2011). Business opportunities for halal products in the global market: Muslim consumer behaviour and halal food consumption. *Journal of Indonesian Social Sciences and Humanities*, 3, 151–160.

Soykan, F. (1999). A complete tourism type with natural environment and rural culture: rural tourism. *Anatolia Journal of Tourism Research:* 67-75.

Soykan, F. (2003). Rural tourism and its importance for Turkish tourism. *Aegean Geographical Journal*, 12, 1-11.

Şahin, İ. F. (2009). Tourism potential in Erzincan city and its ecotourism facilities. *Eastern Geographical Review*, *14*(22), 69–88.

Şaylan, G. (2003). Change, Globalization and the new function of the state. Ankara: İmge Bookstore.

UNTWO, (2002). "International Conference on Responsible Tourism in Destinition". Retrieved from http://www.responsiblecapetown.co.za/wp-content/uploads/downloads/2011/09/Responsible-Tourism-in-Cape-Town.pdf 15.06.2018.

Uslu, A. (2009). *Sustainable ideas for green cities, examples and lessons for Turkey*, XXI. International Congress on Structure and Life Proceedings, TMMOB Chamber of Architects Publication, Bursa.

Ünal, S., & Ceylan, C. (2008). The reasons to motivate consumers for hedonic consumption: A comparative study for the cities of Istanbul and Erzurum. *Atatürk University, Economics and Administrative Sciences Journal*, *22*(2), 265–283.

Weaver, D. B. (1999). Magnitude of ecotourism in Costa Rica and Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *26*(4), 792-816.

Yener, Ö. (2010). God-you and i our three road pastoral psychology and counseling on of requirements. *Journal of Neuroscience Academic Research*, *10*(2), 41–57.

Yeşiltaş, M., Cankül, D. & Temizkan, R. (2012). The effects of religious life style on hotel selection. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 39, 193-217.

Zengin, B. & Erkol, G. (2018). *Politics and strategies in tourism*, Editors: Batman, O., Türkay, O. & Ulama, Ş., Policies for Developing Modes of Responsible Tourism, İstanbul: Değişim Publishing House.

İSTANBUL UNIVERSITY PRESS

Journal of Tourismology, 5(2): 171-183

DOI: 10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0007
http://jt.istanbul.edu.en/

Journal of Tourismology

Submitted: 16.03.2019
Revision Requested: 20.04.2019
Last Revision Received: 08.08.2019
Accepted: 24.08.2019
Published Online: 16.10.2019

PROCEEDINGS PAPER

Investigation of Consumer Reviews on Social Media for Five-Star Hotel Enterprises in Istanbul: A Case of TripAdvisor

Serkan Ak[1], **Mithat Zeki Dincer**[2]

Abstract

Today, access to social media on the internet is becoming easier and the number of active users on social media is increasing day by day. This mobility causes social media platforms to become a frequently used source of information. In this context, the importance of online consumer reviews of hotel enterprises on social media is increasing in the tourism industry. The aim of this study is to investigate the consumer review scores of the five-star hotel enterprises in Istanbul on social media by comparing them in terms of some operating features such as location, number of rooms, number of reviews, room rate, and environmental awareness. Accordingly, a total of 101 five-star hotel enterprises with tourism operating certificates have been examined. Within the scope of the research, consumer review scores were discussed in terms of five criteria; location, cleanliness, service, price-performance value and general performance. The data was analyzed with the help of descriptive statistical methods, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests. In the study, it is concluded that five-star hotel enterprises have various statistically significant differences in consumer review scores in terms of some operating features such as location, number of reviews, room rate and environmental awareness.

Keywords

Social media, TripAdvisor, Consumer reviews, Hotel enterprises, Istanbul

1 **Correspondence to:** Serkan Ak (Lecturer), Kütahya Dumlupınar University, Kütahya Social Sciences Vocational School, Department of Tourism and Travel-Entertainment Services, Kütahya, Turkey. E-mail: serkanak11492@gmail.com ORCID: 0000-0002-9094-4202

2 Mithat Zeki Dincer (Prof.), Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Department of Economics, Istanbul, Turkey. E-mail: mzdincer@istanbul.edu.tr ORCID: 0000-0002-4928-8303

To cite this article: Ak, S., & Dincer, M. Z. (2019, April). *Investigation of Consumer Reviews on Social Media for Five-Star Hotel Enterprises in Istanbul: A Case of TripAdvisor*. Paper presented at the 18th Traditional Tourism Symposium, Istanbul, Turkey. Proceedings of the *Journal of Tourismology, 5*(2), 171–183. https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2019.5.2.0007

Introduction

The development of digital technology and social media offers numerous benefits to human society (Nilashi et al., 2018, p. 168). Thanks to these developments, it is easier for people to explain and share their views about the products and services they prefer. Indeed, these views can be expressed in various ways such as ratings, texts, expressions, images, and videos (Balbi et al., 2018, p. 674). As travelers book hotels, they are becoming increasingly dependent on their friends' opinions and consumer ratings on social media (Casalo et al., 2015, p.28). In this respect, consumer reviews on social media have become one of the most useful and effective information sources in consumer purchasing decisions (Filieri et al., 2018, p. 122).

TripAdvisor, one of the most common online review sources for touristic consumers available today, provides an abundant supply of information on tourism and travel, especially reviews, which are rich in quality and qualification (Ak & Surucu, 2018, p. 530). TripAdvisor is increasingly becoming a reliable mediator for consumers who want to make their own holiday arrangements instead of choosing traditional travel agency services (Jeacle & Carter, 2011, p. 293). Reviews about hospitality enterprises on the Internet affect the purchasing decision of consumers (Alrawadieh & Demirkol, 2015, p. 132). In addition to affecting consumers' decisions, another subject is related to protecting the image of the enterprise. Furthermore, the financial performance of an organisation can be affected by online customer ratings (Torres et al., 2015, p. 77).

Istanbul is recognized as a strong card for the development of tourism in Turkey (Kladou & Mavragani, 2015, p. 188). Hotel enterprises have a large share in the development of tourism in the country and city. Previously, almost all the hotel enterprises in Istanbul were on the European side. In recent years, however, hotel investments on the Anatolian side have increased with the construction of Sabiha Gokcen Airport. Kadikoy, Atasehir and Pendik districts on the Anatolian side are important in terms of the number of hotels, while Besiktas, Sisli and Beyoglu districts are important on the European side (Republic of Turkey Culture and Tourism Ministry, 2019). In this context, it may be beneficial to consider the hotel enterprises in Istanbul in terms of their location.

This study also focuses on the green star certificate issued by the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism, which has been regarded as an important influencing factor in recent years by both tourists and hotels. Of late, the number of green star hotel enterprises in Istanbul has increased with the ministry's focus on this issue (Republic of Turkey Culture and Tourism Ministry, 2019). The increasing sensitivity awareness of hotel enterprises' target market is the driving force that pushes hotel enterprises to be green conscious (Altunoz et al., 2014, p. 157). At this point in time, it is also thought that environmental awareness can affect the reputation and management of hotel enterprises on social media. For instance, Accor Group Hotels has spent millions of dollars on Search Engine Optimization and invested in sustainability programs, which allows them to increase their brand equity and save energy. Furthermore, Accor Leading Digital Hospitality Program will help Accor Group Hotels to increase guest satisfaction and generate more income from online channels (Demirciftci & Kizilirmak, 2016, p. 54).

In the cities where touristic movements are quite abundant, tourist consumers' comments about hotel enterprises on social media platforms are becoming more important. Accordingly, it may be possible to examine the hotel reviews on social media in terms of quantity and quality. Also, it can be thought that room capacities also affect hotel reviews on social media. On the other hand, since one of the factors affecting satisfaction is price (Radojevic, 2015, p. 13.), it can be thought that room rate also affects hotel review scores.

Considering all these issues, the aim of this study is to investigate the consumer review scores of the five-star hotels in Istanbul on social media by comparing them in terms of some operating features such as location, number of rooms, number of reviews, room rate, and environmental awareness. Within the aim of the research, consumer review scores in terms of five criteria were discussed; location, cleanliness, service, price-performance value and general performance.

Literature Review

Social media sites are environments in which individuals can express themselves in a limited system through their personal profiles and see the shared posts of other individuals (Boyd & Ellison, 2007, p. 211). TripAdvisor, a social media platform running on user-generated content and rated as the world's largest travel site (TripAdvisor, 2019), allows tourist consumers to share their views on various aspects of hotel and tourism enterprises (Nilashi et al., 2018, p. 168). While TripAdvisor users actively pass on experience through reviews, they may passively use information sent by others in decision-making processes (Molinillo et al., 2016, p. 16). In this regard, the consumers who purchased services on TripAdvisor may also affect the image of hotels in potential tourists (Kladou & Mavragani, 2015, p. 189).

In the related literature Casalo et al. (2015) has investigated the impact of online hotel review scores on consumer attitudes towards hotel enterprises and on booking intentions. The results showed that online review scores are a more useful and reliable source when published by well-known social media travel platforms such as TripAdvisor. Torres et al. (2015) examined the hotel enterprises' revenues obtained by their online transactions. The results of the study showed that the number of reviews, as well as the review scores on TripAdvisor, had a positive relationship with the average quantity of each online booking process. Chan et al. (2017) determined that consumer review scores on social media have a significant impact on the intention of booking for hotel enterprises. Verma et al. (2012) found that positive reviews about hotel enterprises increased the probability of making a room reservation at the hotel to between 70.0% and 80.0%, while the negative reviews reduced the probability of booking to 40.0%. Sparks and Browning (2011) concluded that consumers are more affected if general comments and reviews are negative. On the other hand, they observed that positive comments increase both the intention of booking and consumer confidence. Phillips et al. (2017) expressed that higher review scores increase room sales and revenues in hotel enterprises. Gavilan et al. (2018) revealed that social media users think that low scores rather than high scores reflect reality when examining social media reviews. According to the results of the study, low scoring is reliable regardless of the number of reviews, whereas high scoring is only reliable when supported by a large number of reviews. Park and Nicolau (2015) found that people evaluated extreme scores (positive or negative) as more beneficial than moderate scores and negative scores were found to be more useful than positive scores.

Molinillo et al. (2016) found a relationship between the size of hotel enterprises and the average online consumer rating scores. They also proved that there was a relationship between the general review score and the number of reviews per room. Anderson (2012) observed in his research that the number of touristic consumers who made TripAdvisor reviews increased before booking hotel enterprises. Cuhadar et al. (2018) showed that there are differences between the type of hospitality enterprise and online consumer review scores. Cuhadar and Akcil (2018) found differences between the type of enterprise, the room price level and online customer reviews. Akgoz and Temgilimoglu (2016) found that the average online consumer review scores of five-star hotels are different according to the price level. Another finding in this study was that the average satisfaction scores of five-star hotels vary according to their regions. Ak and Surucu (2018) reported that the total number of online reviews of green star thermal hotel enterprises, i.e., the number of online reviews per room and the general rating scores, were higher than non-green star hotels.

Soler et al. (2019), in their study that examined reviews of hotels on social media, found that the hotel enterprises in Barcelona were more dependent on external conditions than hotel enterprises in Madrid. Gungor et al. (2018), in their study of four and five-star hotels in Barcelona and Antalya, showed that tourists were more satisfied with the service offered by the staff of the accommodation companies in Barcelona. On the other hand, tourists were more satisfied with the sports and entertainment services offered by the accommodation enterprises operating in Antalya. Cenni and Goethals (2017), in their work, confirmed that consumers have dealt with similar issues with positive and negative comments. However, “accommodation” and “services” elements were the most frequently commented-on issues in negative comments, and "location" was the most frequently evaluated subject in positive reviews. Sahin et al. (2017) examined online reviews for hotel enterprises in Bishkek and found that the most recurring factor (35.4%) in reviews was product-related problems. And it was determined that hotel enterprises responded to these complaints to a great extent (69.7%). Alrawadieh and Demirkol (2015), on the other hand, stated that only 42% of the complaints received for the hotel enterprises they have dealt with in the scope of their studies were responded to and therefore the accommodation enterprises within the research were not aware of the importance of e-complaint management.

In the literature review above, it is seen that there are many studies on online consumer reviews of hotel enterprises. However, the fact that online consumer review scores for five-star hotels in Istanbul were not studied in terms of score criteria, this constitutes the starting point of this study. Specifically, in this study, the evaluation of hotel enterprises in Istanbul in terms of location, room rate and the green star certificate will contribute to the relevant literature.

Methodology

In this study, data obtained from TripAdvisor and the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism were analyzed. First of all, according to data shared on January 2, 2019 by the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2019), there were 101 five-star hotel enterprises with a tourism operation license in Istanbul. Based on investigations of this data, it was seen that all of the hotel enterprises were advertised in TripAdvisor. Thus, 101 five-star hotel enterprises with a tourism operation license in Istanbul were chosen as the sample for research. Data on the number of consumer reviews of the hotel enterprises, consumer review scores and room rates from TripAdvisor, data on the hotels' room capacities from Istanbul Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism (2019), and data on the hotels' locations and whether they have environmentally sensitive facilities from the Republic of Turkey Culture and Tourism Ministry (2019) were obtained. Scoring in consumer reviews was made between 1 and 5; 1 terrible, 2 bad, 3 average, 4 very good, 5 perfect. There was no time limit in which consumer reviews were not considered. All consumer reviews rated until January 5, 2019, of the hotels within the scope of the research, were analyzed.

The data was analyzed by using descriptive statistical methods. In the study, it was tested whether the data used was normally distributed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. As a result of the test, it was determined that all the research data did not show normal distribution and therefore, non-parametric tests were used in the analysis of the research data. In this context, Mann-Whitney U (if there were two groups) and Kruskal-Wallis (if there were more than two groups) were used in the study. In addition, when the Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a significant difference between the groups, differences between groups were determined by the Dunn-Bonferroni tests.

Findings

Descriptive statistics for five-star hotel enterprises examined within the scope of the study are presented in Table 1 below. When the five-star hotels in Istanbul were analyzed according to their locations, it was seen that 81.2% of the enterprises are located on the European side and 18.8% are on the Asian side. Considering the room capacity of the hotel enterprises, it is noteworthy that 14.9% of the enterprises had 150 or less, 57.4% had between 151 and 300, and 27.7% had 301 or more rooms. When the hotel enterprises were grouped in terms of average daily room rates, 29.7% of them were 300 TL or less, 27.7% were 301-400 TL, and 27.7% were 501 TL or more. Besides this, it was seen that 14.9% of them were distributed in the rate ranges of 401-500 TL.

When considering the total number of reviews of hotel enterprises, it is noteworthy that 28.7% of the hotels had between 501 and 1000 reviews, 27.7% had 250 or less, 24.8% had between 251 and 500, and 18.8% of them had 1001 or more reviews. Finally, it was seen that 38.6% of the five-star hotel enterprises in Istanbul had the green star, whereas 61.4% did not have the green star.

Table 1
Information on General Features of the Hotel Enterprises

General Features		n	%
Location (Side)	European	82	81.2
	Anatolian	19	18.8
	Total	**101**	**100.0**
Total Number of Rooms	150 or less	15	14.9
	151-300	58	57.4
	301 or more	28	27.7
	Total	**101**	**100.0**
Total Number of Reviews	250 or less	28	27.7
	251-500	25	24.8
	501-1000	29	28.7
	1001 or more	19	18.8
	Total	**101**	**100.0**
Average Minimum Daily Room Rates	300 TL or less	30	29.7
	301-400 TL	28	27.7
	401-500 TL	15	14.9
	501 TL or more	28	27.7
	Total	**101**	**100.0**
Environmental Awareness	Green Star	39	38.6
	Not Green Star	62	61.4
	Total	**101**	**100.0**

The Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between customer review scores of the hotel enterprises and their operating features. The analyzed results are presented in Table 2 through Table 6 in the following part of the article.

According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U tests presented in Table 2, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference (p=0.048) between the consumers review scores and the locations of the hotel enterprises. According to this, the hotel enterprises, which are located on the European side, had a higher rating in terms of location compared to the hotels on the Asian side. On the other hand, as a result of these tests, no statistically significant difference was found between the general consumer review scores and consumer reviews, cleanliness, service, price-performance value criteria or their location.

Table 2

Mann-Whitney U Analysis Regarding the Consumer Review Scores and the Regions of the Hotel Enterprises

Criteria	Location (Side)	n	Mean Rank	Mann Whitney U	z	p
Location	European	82	53.66	561.000	-1.975	**0.048***
	Anatolian	19	39.53			
Cleanliness	European	101	52.11	688.000	-0.907	0.364
	Anatolian	82	46.21			
Service	European	19	51.96	700.000	-0.737	0.461
	Anatolian	101	46.84			
Price/Performance	European	82	51.11	770.000	-0.084	0.933
	Anatolian	19	50.53			
General	European	101	51.60	729.500	-0.460	0.646
	Anatolian	82	48.39			

*: Significant at $p<0.05$ level

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis tests presented in Table 3 show that there was no statistically significant difference between the total number of rooms and the consumer review scores of the hotel enterprises. In other words, the consumer review scores of the enterprises did not differ according to the room capacity of the enterprises.

Table 3

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis Regarding the Consumer Review Scores and the Total Room Capacities of the Hotel Enterprises

Criteria		Total Number of Rooms	n	Mean Rank	X^2	Mann Whitney U	p
Location	a	150 or less	15	57.53	1.944	-	0.378
	b	151-300	58	51.96			
	c	301 or more	28	45.52			
Cleanliness	a	150 or less	15	52.60	1.949	-	0.377
	b	151-300	58	53.34			
	c	301 or more	28	45.29			
Service	a	150 or less	15	54.40	3.085	-	0.214
	b	151-300	58	53.84			
	c	301 or more	28	43.30			
Price/Performance	a	150 or less	15	57.43	5.026	-	0.081
	b	151-300	58	54.00			
	c	301 or more	28	41.34			
General	a	150 or less	15	55.27	1.026	-	0.599
	b	151-300	58	51.84			
	c	301 or more	28	46.96			

In the results of Kruskal-Wallis tests presented in Table 4, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the consumer review scores and total number of reviews of hotel enterprises in all criteria except price-performance value. In other words, the consumer review scores of the enterprises differed according to the total number of consumer reviews they had. The differences were determined by applying Dunn-Bonferroni tests. According to this, in general, location and service criteria for hotel enterprises with consumer review scores of 250 or less were statistically significantly lower than consumer review scores between 501 and 1000, and 1001 or more.

Table 4

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis Regarding the Consumer Review Scores and the Total Number of Reviews of the Hotel Enterprises

Criteria	Total Number of Reviews		n	Mean Rank	X^2	Mann Whitney U	p
Location	a	250 or less	28	36.79	18.503	**a<c, d** **b<d**	**0.000****
	b	251-500	25	44.16			
	c	501-1000	29	59.09			
	d	1001 or more	19	68.61			
Cleanliness	a	250 or less	28	41.34	10.294	**a<d**	**0.016***
	b	251-500	25	48.68			
	c	501-1000	29	53.00			
	d	1001 or more	19	65.24			
Service	a	250 or less	28	34.18	17.061	**a<c, d**	**0.001****
	b	251-500	25	51.00			
	c	501-1000	29	59.29			
	d	1001 or more	19	63.13			
Price/Performance	a	250 or less	28	46.79	1.140	-	0.767
	b	251-500	25	53.70			
	c	501-1000	29	53.33			
	d	1001 or more	19	50.11			
General	a	250 or less	28	35.64	17.458	**a<c, d**	**0.001****
	b	251-500	25	48.22			
	c	501-1000	29	57.50			
	d	1001 or more	19	67.37			

*: Significant at p<0.05 level;
**: Significant at p<0.01 level

In the results of the Kruskal-Wallis tests presented in Table 5, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the consumer review scores of all criteria except the price-performance value of the hotel enterprises and the average lowest daily room rates. In other words, the consumer review scores of the enterprises varied according to the average daily room rates. The differences were determined by applying Dunn-Bonferroni tests. Accordingly, all criteria except price-performance for hotel enterprises with consumer review scores of 501 TL or more were statistically significantly higher than consumer review scores between 300 TL or less, and between 301 and 400 TL.

Table 5

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis Regarding the Consumer Review Scores and Average Daily Room Rates for Hotel Enterprises

Criteria		Average Daily Room Rates	n	Mean Rank	X^2	Mann Whitney U	p
Location	a	300 TL or less	28	35.62	32.710	**d>a,b** **c>a**	**0.000****
	b	301-400 TL	15	39.66			
	c	401-500 TL	28	62.47			
	d	501 TL or more	30	72.68			
Cleanliness	a	300 TL or less	28	43.42	20.898	**d>a,b**	**0.000****
	b	301-400 TL	15	41.64			
	c	401-500 TL	28	49.40			
	d	501 TL or more	30	69.34			
Service	a	300 TL or less	28	39.15	19.012	**d>a,b**	**0.000****
	b	301-400 TL	15	44.70			
	c	401-500 TL	28	53.47			
	d	501 TL or more	30	68.68			
Price/Performance	a	300 TL or less	28	47.03	7.692	-	0.053
	b	301-400 TL	15	42.73			
	c	401-500 TL	28	54.47			
	d	501 TL or more	30	61.66			
General	a	300 TL or less	28	37.53	29.085	**d>a,b**	**0.000****
	b	301-400 TL	15	41.23			
	c	401-500 TL	28	55.23			
	d	501 TL or more	30	72.93			

**: Significant at $p<0.01$ level

According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U tests presented in Table 6, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the general and service criteria of the consumer review scores of the hotel enterprises and their environmental sensitivity. According to this, hotel enterprises with a green star had a higher rating in general compared to non-green star hotel enterprises. On the other hand, as a result of the tests performed, no statistically significant difference was found between the location, cleanliness and price-performance value criteria of the consumer review scores and the environmental awareness.

Table 6

Mann-Whitney U Analysis Regarding the Consumer Review Scores and Environmental Awareness of the Hotel Enterprises

Criteria	Environmental Awareness	n	Mean Rank	Mann Whitney U	z	p
Location	Green Star	39	56.87	980.000	-1.665	0.096
	Not Green Star	62	47.31			
Cleanliness	Green Star	39	57.04	973.500	-1.884	0.060
	Not Green Star	62	47.20			
Service	Green Star	39	59.23	888.000	-2.403	**0.016***
	Not Green Star	62	45.82			
Price/Performance	Green Star	39	55.59	1030.000	-1.338	0.181
	Not Green Star	62	48.11			
General	Green Star	39	60.47	839.500	-2.756	**0.006****
	Not Green Star	62	45.04			

*: Significant at $p<0.05$ level

**: Significant at $p<0.01$ level

Discussion and Conclusion

According to the results of the study, the hotel enterprises located on the European side had higher consumer review scores than the hotel enterprises located on the Asian side in the location criterion of consumer reviews. This study is partially consistent with the study of Akgoz and Temgilimoglu (2015) in which the average satisfaction levels of the five-star hotel enterprises in Antalya differed according to their regions. In this context, regardless of sample, it can be said that geographical location is taken into consideration when reviewing hotels by tourists. The fact that this result can partly be supported on the basis of the difficulties of access to hotel enterprises on the Asian side is a clue to the validity of consumer reviews on social media for touristic consumers, hotel enterprises and tourism researchers. In this context, transportation may need to be improved by the authorities on the Asian side of Istanbul.

As a result of the research, it can be said that as the total number of consumer reviews of hotel enterprises decreased, the consumer satisfaction in general, the location, cleanliness and service criteria also decreased. It should also be pointed out that whether this differentiation was due to room capacity of hotel enterprises was also investigated within the scope of the research. In this respect, it was seen that these differences did not change in the analyses suggested by Molinillo et al. (2016) where the number of reviews per room of the hotel enterprises were converted into data. This result is similar to the study of Molinillo et al. (2016) in which the overall online score for this hotel increased as the number of online comments posted per room increased. As a result of this situation, it can be expressed as “the number of reviews increases as the level of satisfaction increases”. Nevertheless, it should be remembered that people will also evaluate after dissatisfaction. However, scoring of reporting satisfaction is common for hotel enterprises in Istanbul on platforms such as TripAdvisor. In fact, scoring of the reporting of satisfaction can be explained by the fact that higher scores are more common than lower scores on TripAdvisor. In this respect, it can be suggested that the hotel enterprises, which have been reviewed 250 or less times, should encourage their guests to give positive reviews on social media.

In this study, it can be said that as the average daily room rates of hotel enterprises increased, the consumer review scores in general, location, cleanliness and service criteria also increased. Here, it is likely that hotel enterprises with room rates of 501 TL or more will provide higher quality services compared to cheaper hotel enterprises and result in higher satisfaction. This study is consistent with the study by Akgoz and Temgilimoglu (2015) in which the general consumer review scores of the five-star hotel enterprises differed according to their room rates. However, it may be useful to emphasize that there is no difference in all criteria. In this context, the lack of a difference in the price-performance value criterion may indicate that hotel enterprises should criticize themselves. As a matter of fact, it can be said that high rates cause lower price-performance satisfaction and increase consumer expectations. In both cases, control of rate policies and target audiences may help to ensure consumer satisfaction on price-performance value. However, it should be remembered to focus on pricing that could continue to serve the same target market. In this way, a possible decrease in other criteria' values will be prevented.

Lastly, the review scores of the environmentally friendly hotel enterprises in Istanbul in terms of general and service criteria were higher than other hotel enterprises. This result supports the study of Ak and Surucu (2018) that showed the general rating of the green star thermal hotel enterprises in Turkey is higher than the non-green star hotels. In this context, future research can investigate whether the satisfaction of consumers in terms of general satisfaction and service is directly or indirectly caused by green star policies. The fact that review scores of the environmentally friendly hotel enterprises were higher than other hotel enterprises may be related to increased environmental awareness and responsible tourist behavior within the scope of sustainable tourism.

When the results of this research are considered, it was evident that the scores for the hotel enterprises in Istanbul differ in terms of some features discussed in the study. This research was conducted only on five-star hotel enterprises in Istanbul. In following studies, it may be suggested for researchers to examine three and four star hotels in Istanbul. Also, in subsequent studies, five-star hotel enterprises located in other provinces may be considered in order to make comparisons with five-star hotel enterprises located in Istanbul. In addition, in this study, green star hotel enterprises were compared with other hotel enterprises and it was revealed that green star status is an important factor in terms of review score. In this context, expanding the research parameters may allow generalizations to be made within the scope of all hotels in Turkey. It would also be possible to compare this study's results with respect to those who comment on green star hotel enterprises versus those who comment on non-green star enterprises. In this way, it could help to reveal the profile of responsible tourists on social media.

Grant Support: The authors received no financial support for this work.

References

Ak, S., & Surucu, O. A. (2018). Termal otel isletmelerinin cevrimici tuketici degerlendirmeleri baglaminda incelenmesi: TripAdvisor ornegi. *19. Ulusal Turizm Kongresi*, Afyonkarahisar.

Akgoz, E., & Tengilimoglu, E. (2015). Online musteri degerlendirmelerinin, tesis ozellikleri acisindan incelenmesi; Booking.com ornegi. *16. Ulusal Turizm Kongresi*, Canakkale.

Alrawadieh, Z., & Demirkol, S. (2015). E-complaint management in hotel industry: A study of five star hotels in Istanbul. *Nisantasi University Journal of Social Sciences*, *3*(1), 132-151.

Altunoz, O., Arslan, O. E., & Hassan, A. (2014). The analysis of tourists' opinions for green marketing in the context of demographic variables. *Istanbul University Journal of the School of Business Administration*, *43*(1), 157-172.

Anderson, C. K. (2012). The impact of social media on lodging performance. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, *12*(15), 4-11.

Balbi, S., Misuraca, M., & Scepi, G. (2018). Combining different evaluation systems on social media for measuring user satisfaction. *Information Processing & Management*, *54*(4), 674-685.

Boyd, D. M., & Ellison, N. B. (2007). Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. *Journal of computer-mediated Communication*, *13*(1), 210-230.

Casalo, L. V., Flavian, C., Guinaliu, M., & Ekinci, Y. (2015). Do online hotel rating schemes influence booking behaviors? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 49, 28-36.

Cenni, I., & Goethals, P. (2017). Negative hotel reviews on TripAdvisor: A cross-linguistic analysis. *Discourse, Context & Media*, 16, 22-30.

Chan, I. C. C., Lam, L. W., Chow, C. W., Fong, L. H. N., & Law, R. (2017). The effect of online reviews on hotel booking intention: The role of reader-reviewer similarity. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 66, 54-65.

Cuhadar M., Koseoglu, S., & Gultepe O. (2018). Investıgatıon of online customer reviews for lodging properties in Isparta: The case of TripAdvisor. *Suleyman Demirel University The Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, *23*(1), 227-239.

Cuhadar, M., & Akcil, A. C. (2018). Analysis of online reviews for accommodation establishments operating in Kalkan Region: The case of TripAdvisor. *Journal of Recreation and Tourism Research*, *5*(2), 1-10.

Demirciftci, T., & Kizilirmak, I. (2016). Strategic branding in hospitality: Case of Accor Hotels. *Journal of Tourismology*, *2*(1), 50-64.

Filieri, R., Hofacker, C. F., & Alguezaui, S. (2018). What makes information in online consumer reviews diagnostic over time? The role of review relevancy, factuality, currency, source credibility and ranking score. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 80, 122-131.

Gavilan, D., Avello, M., & Martinez-Navarro, G. (2018). The influence of online ratings and reviews on hotel booking consideration. *Tourism Management*, 66, 53-61.

Gungor, O., Gungor, M. Y. & Dogan, S. (2018). Comparative study about 4 and 5 star hotels in Antalya and Barcelona according to tourist ratings at Holidaycheck web site. *Journal of Travel and Hospitality Management*, *15*(1), 74-88.

Istanbul Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism (2019). *Tourism Certified Facilities*. Retrieved from http://www.istanbulkulturturizm.gov.tr/TR-172646/turizm-belgeli-tesisler.html. 05.01.2019

Jeacle, I., & Carter, C. (2011). In TripAdvisor we trust: Rankings, calculative regimes and abstract systems. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *36*(4-5), 293-309.

Kladou, S., & Mavragani, E. (2015). Assessing destination image: An online marketing approach and the case of TripAdvisor. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *4*(3), 187-193.

Molinillo, S., Ximénez-de-Sandoval, J. L., Fernández-Morales, A., & Coca-Stefaniak, A. (2016). Hotel assessment through social media: The case of TripAdvisor. *Tourism & Management Studies*, *12*(1), 15-24.

Nilashi, M., Ibrahim, O., Yadegaridehkordi, E., Samad, S., Akbari, E., & Alizadeh, A. (2018). Travelers decision making using online review in social network sites: A case on TripAdvisor. *Journal of Computational Science*, 28, 168-179.

Park, S., & Nicolau, J. L. (2015). Asymmetric effects of online consumer reviews. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 50, 67-83.

Phillips, P., Barnes, S., Zigan, K., & Schegg, R. (2017). Understanding the impact of online reviews on hotel performance: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, *56*(2), 235-249.

Radojevic, T., Stanisic, N., & Stanic, N. (2015). Ensuring positive feedback: Factors that influence customer satisfaction in the contemporary hospitality industry. *Tourism Management*, 51, 13-21.

Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2019). *Tourism Facilities*. Retrieved from http://yigm.kulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,9579/turizm-tesisleri.html. 05.01.2019.

Sahin, B., Kazaoglu, I. H., & Sonmez, B. (2017). The research of the complaints on the travel sites for accommodation businesses: An example of Bishkek. *MANAS Journal of Social Studies*, *6*(5), 163-177.

Soler, I. P., Gemar, G., & Guzman-Parra, V. F. (2019). A comparison of destinations' impacts on hotel rates. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 226-237.

Sparks, B. A., & Browning, V. (2011). The impact of online reviews on hotel booking intentions and perception of trust. *Tourism Management*, *32*(6), 1310-1323.

Torres, E. N., Singh, D., & Robertson-Ring, A. (2015). Consumer reviews and the creation of booking transaction value: Lessons from the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 50, 77-83.

TripAdvisor (2019). *About TripAdvisor*. Retrieved from https://tripadvisor.mediaroom.com/tr-about-us. 24.02.2019.

Verma, R., Stock, D., & McCarthy, L. (2012). Customer preferences for online, social media, and mobile innovations in the hospitality industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *53*(3), 183-186.

AIM AND SCOPE

Journal of Tourismology (JoT) publishes two issues per year; one in December and the other in June. *JoT* is an open access journal without any submission or processing charges or fees that aims to be a comprehensive and innovative publication for scholars to present views and ideas at international level on key issues that shape tourism knowledge and industry from past to present.

The objectives of the journal are: *(i)* To present the latest disciplinary/multidisciplinary set of views and trends on tourism; *(ii)* To contribute a deeper understanding of international tourism devolopment; *(iii)* To create and disseminate knowledge by providing insights into developments, issues and methods in tourism research

JoT strongly encourages scholars and professionals in the tourism to share their ideas and research through the journal. Submitted papers should not have been previously published nor be currently under consideration for publication elsewhere. All submissions are double blind refereed which takes on average 6 weeks. The journal's contents reflect its integrative approach - theoretical, empirical or policy-related papers, discussion of current issues, case studies, reports, book reviews, research notes and forthcoming meetings might be submitted to the journal. The topics of journal include (but are not limited to) the following:

- Tourism theory
- Tourism research and methodology
- Advances in tourism development, planning and policy-making
- Tourism education and its role in managing tourism development
- Economic/social/environmental/cultural impact of tourism and sustainability
- Hospitality, gastronomy, transportation, attractions, recreations, leisure studies
- Tourism industry, marketing, organizational aspects, technology
- Cross-cultural differences- tourist and traveler behavior
- Tourism sociology and psychology
- Alternative and special forms of tourism
- Terrorism, safety and security in tourism
- Globalisation and tourism
- Future of tourism

EDITORIAL POLICIES AND PEER REVIEW PROCESS

Publication Policy

The subjects covered in the manuscripts submitted to the Journal for publication must be in accordance with the aim and scope of the Journal. The Journal gives priority to original research papers submitted for publication.

General Principles

Only those manuscripts approved by its every individual author and that were not published before in or sent to another journal, are accepted for evaluation.

Submitted manuscripts that pass preliminary control are scanned for plagiarism using iThenticate software. After plagiarism check, the eligible ones are evaluated by editor-in-chief for their originality, methodology, the importance of the subject covered and compliance with the journal scope.

Short presentations that took place in scientific meetings can be referred if indicated in the article. The editor hands over the papers matching the formal rules to at least two national/international referees for evaluation and gives green light for publication upon modification by the authors in accordance with the referees' claims. Changing the name of an author (omission, addition or order) in papers submitted to the Journal requires written permission of all declared authors. Refused manuscripts and graphics are not returned to the author. The copyright of the published articles and pictures belong to the Journal.

Author Responsibilities

It is authors' responsibility to ensure that the article is in accordance with scientific and ethical standards and rules. And authors must ensure that submitted work is original. They must certify that the manuscript has not previously been published elsewhere or is not currently being considered for publication elsewhere, in any language. Applicable copyright laws and conventions must be followed. Copyright material (e.g. tables, figures or extensive quotations) must be reproduced only with appropriate permission and acknowledgement. Any work or words of other authors, contributors, or sources must be appropriately credited and referenced.

All the authors of a submitted manuscript must have direct scientific and academic contribution to the manuscript. The author(s) of the original research articles is defined as a person who is significantly involved in "conceptualization and design of the study", "collecting the data", "analyzing the data", "writing the manuscript", "reviewing the manuscript with a critical perspective" and "planning/ conducting the study of the manuscript and/or revising it". Fund raising, data collection or supervision of the research group are not sufficient roles to be accepted as an author. The author(s) must meet all these criteria described above. The order of names in the author list of an article must be a co-decision and it must be indicated in the Copyright Agreement Form. The individuals who do not meet the authorship criteria but contributed to the study must take place in the acknowledgement section. Individuals providing technical support, assisting writing, providing a general support, providing material or financial support are examples to be indicated in acknowledgement section.

All authors must disclose all issues concerning financial relationship, conflict of interest, and competing interest that may potentially influence the results of the research or scientific judgment.

When an author discovers a significant error or inaccuracy in his/her own published paper, it is the author's obligation to promptly cooperate with the Editor-in-Chief to provide retractions or corrections of mistakes.

Peer Review Process

Only those manuscripts approved by its every individual author and that were not published before in or sent to another journal, are accepted for evaluation.

Submitted manuscripts that pass preliminary control are scanned for plagiarism using iThenticate software. After plagiarism check, the eligible ones are evaluated by editor-in-chief for their originality, methodology, the importance of the subject covered and compliance with the journal scope. Editor-in-chief evaluates manuscripts for their scientific content without regard to ethnic origin, gender, sexual orientation, citizenship, religious belief or political philosophy of the authors and ensures a fair double-blind peer review of the selected manuscripts.

The selected manuscripts are sent to at least two national/international referees for evaluation and publication decision is given by editor-in-chief upon modification by the authors in accordance with the referees' claims.

Editor in chief does not allow any conflicts of interest between the authors, editors and reviewers and is responsible for final decision for publication of the manuscripts in the Journal.

Reviewers' judgments must be objective. Reviewers' comments on the following aspects are expected while conducting the review.

- Does the manuscript contain new and significant information?
- Does the abstract clearly and accurately describe the content of the manuscript?

- Is the problem significant and concisely stated?
- Are the methods described comprehensively?
- Are the interpretations and consclusions justified by the results?
- Is adequate references made to other Works in the field?
- Is the language acceptable?

Reviewers must ensure that all the information related to submitted manuscripts is kept as confidential and must report to the editor if they are aware of copyright infringement and plagiarism on the author's side.

A reviewer who feels unqualified to review the topic of a manuscript or knows that its prompt review will be impossible should notify the editor and excuse himself from the review process.

The editor informs the reviewers that the manuscripts are confidential information and that this is a privileged interaction. The reviewers and editorial board cannot discuss the manuscripts with other persons. The anonymity of the referees is important.

PUBLICATION ETHICS AND PUBLICATION MALPRACTICE STATEMENT

Journal of Tourismology is committed to upholding the highest standards of publication ethics and pays regard to Principles of Transparency and Best Practice in Scholarly Publishing published by the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), the Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ), the Open Access Scholarly Publishers Association (OASPA), and the World Association of Medical Editors (WAME) on https://publicationethics.org/resources/guidelines-new/principles-transparency-and-best-practice-scholarly-publishing

All parties involved in the publishing process (Editors, Reviewers, Authors and Publishers) are expected to agree on the following ethical principles.

All submissions must be original, unpublished (including as full text in conference proceedings), and not under the review of any other publication synchronously. Each manuscript is reviewed by one of the editors and at least two referees under double-blind peer review process. Plagiarism, duplication, fraud authorship/denied authorship, research/data fabrication, salami slicing/salami publication, breaching of copyrights, prevailing conflict of interest are unnethical behaviors.

All manuscripts not in accordance with the accepted ethical standards will be removed from the publication. This also contains any possible malpractice discovered after the publication. In accordance with the code of conduct we will report any cases of suspected plagiarism or duplicate publishing.

Research Ethics

The journal adheres to the highest standards in research ethics and follows the principles of international research ethics as defined below. The authors are responsible for the compliance of the manuscripts with the ethical rules.

- Principles of integrity, quality and transparency should be sustained in designing the research, reviewing the design and conducting the research.
- The research team and participants should be fully informed about the aim, methods, possible uses and requirements of the research and risks of participation in research.
- The confidentiality of the information provided by the research participants and the confidentiality of the respondents should be ensured. The research should be designed to protect the autonomy and dignity of the participants.
- Research participants should participate in the research voluntarily, not under any coercion.
- Any possible harm to participants must be avoided. The research should be planned in such a way that the participants are not at risk.
- The independence of research must be clear; and any conflict of interest or must be disclosed.

- In experimental studies with human subjects, written informed consent of the participants who decide to participate in the research must be obtained. In the case of children and those under wardship or with confirmed insanity, legal custodian's assent must be obtained.
- If the study is to be carried out in any institution or organization, approval must be obtained from this institution or organization.
- In studies with human subject, it must be noted in the method's section of the manuscript that the informed consent of the participants and ethics committee approval from the institution where the study has been conducted have been obtained.

Author Responsibilities

It is authors' responsibility to ensure that the article is in accordance with scientific and ethical standards and rules. And authors must ensure that submitted work is original. They must certify that the manuscript has not previously been published elsewhere or is not currently being considered for publication elsewhere, in any language. Applicable copyright laws and conventions must be followed. Copyright material (e.g. tables, figures or extensive quotations) must be reproduced only with appropriate permission and acknowledgement. Any work or words of other authors, contributors, or sources must be appropriately credited and referenced.

All the authors of a submitted manuscript must have direct scientific and academic contribution to the manuscript. The author(s) of the original research articles is defined as a person who is significantly involved in "conceptualization and design of the study", "collecting the data", "analyzing the data", "writing the manuscript", "reviewing the manuscript with a critical perspective" and "planning/ conducting the study of the manuscript and/or revising it". Fund raising, data collection or supervision of the research group are not sufficient roles to be accepted as an author. The author(s) must meet all these criteria described above. The order of names in the author list of an article must be a co-decision and it must be indicated in the Copyright Agreement Form. The individuals who do not meet the authorship criteria but contributed to the study must take place in the acknowledgement section. Individuals providing technical support, assisting writing, providing a general support, providing material or financial support are examples to be indicated in acknowledgement section.

All authors must disclose all issues concerning financial relationship, conflict of interest, and competing interest that may potentially influence the results of the research or scientific judgment.

When an author discovers a significant error or inaccuracy in his/her own published paper, it is the author's obligation to promptly cooperate with the Editor to provide retractions or corrections of mistakes.

Responsibility for the Editor and Reviewers

Editor-in-Chief evaluates manuscripts for their scientific content without regard to ethnic origin, gender, sexual orientation, citizenship, religious belief or political philosophy of the authors. He/ She provides a fair double-blind peer review of the submitted articles for publication and ensures that all the information related to submitted manuscripts is kept as confidential before publishing.

Editor-in-Chief is responsible for the contents and overall quality of the publication. He/She must publish errata pages or make corrections when needed.

Editor-in-Chief does not allow any conflicts of interest between the authors, editors and reviewers. Only he has the full authority to assign a reviewer and is responsible for final decision for publication of the manuscripts in the Journal.

Reviewers must have no conflict of interest with respect to the research, the authors and/or the research funders. Their judgments must be objective.

Reviewers must ensure that all the information related to submitted manuscripts is kept as confidential and must report to the editor if they are aware of copyright infringement and plagiarism on the author's side.

A reviewer who feels unqualified to review the topic of a manuscript or knows that its prompt review will be impossible should notify the editor and excuse himself from the review process.

The editor informs the reviewers that the manuscripts are confidential information and that this is a privileged interaction. The reviewers and editorial board cannot discuss the manuscripts with other persons. The anonymity of the referees must be ensured. In particular situations, the editor may share the review of one reviewer with other reviewers to clarify a particular point.

MANUSCRIPT SUBMISSION GUIDE

Language

The language of the journal is English.

Manuscript Organization and Submission

All correspondence will be sent to the first-named author unless otherwise specified. Manuscpript is to be submitted online via http://jecs.istanbul.edu.tr and it must be accompanied by a cover letter indicating that the manuscript is intended for publication, specifying the article category (i.e. research article, review etc.) and including information about the manuscript (see the Submission Checklist). Manuscripts should be prepared in Microsoft Word 2003 and upper versions. In addition, Copyright Agreement Form that has to be signed by all authors must be submitted.

1. The manuscripts should be in A4 paper standards: having 2.5 cm margins from right, left, bottom and top, Times New Roman font style in 12 font size and line spacing of 1.5.
2. The manuscripts should contain between 4500 and 8500 words and the page numbers must be at the bottom and in the middle.
3. The name(s) of author(s) should be given just beneath the title of the study aligned to the right. Also the affiliation, title, e-mail and phone of the author(s) must be indicated on the bottom of the page as a footnote marked with an asterisk (*).
4. Submitted manuscripts in Turkish must have before the introduction section, the abstract both in Turkish and English, between 200 and 250 words and an extended abstract in English between 600-800 words, summarizing the scope, the purpose, the results of the study and the methodology used. Underneath the abstracts, 3 to 5 keywords that inform the reader about the content of the study should be specified in Turkish and in English. If the manuscript is written in English, it must include an abstract only in English.
5. The manuscripts should contain mainly these components: title, abstract and keywords; extended abstract, body text with sections, footnotes and references.
6. The 6th version of the APA (American Psychological Association) reference style should be used for in-text citation and references list. For information and samples on the APA 6 style please refer to http://jecs.istanbul.edu.tr/en/content/information-for-authors/references and/or REFERENCES section in the Information for Authors.
7. Tables, graphs and figures can be given with a number and a defining title if and only if it is necessary to follow the idea of the article. the article. The title of table should be placed above the table; caption of figure should be placed beneath the figure. Features like demographic characteristics that can be given within the text should not be indicated as tables separately.
8. A title page including author information must be submitted together with the manuscript. The title page is to include fully descriptive title of the manuscript and, affiliation, title, e-mail address, postal address, phone and fax number of the author(s) (see The Submission Checklist).
9. Authors are responsible for all statements made in their work submitted to the Journal for publication.
10. The author(s) can be asked to make some changes in their articles due to peer reviews.
11. A copy of the journal will be sent to each author of the accepted articles upon their request.
12. The manuscripts that were submitted to the journal will not be returned whether they are published or not.

REFERENCES

Although references to review articles can be an efficient way to guide readers to a body of literature, review articles do not always reflect original work accurately. Readers should therefore be provided with direct references to original research sources whenever possible. On the other hand, extensive lists of references to original work on a topic can use excessive space on the printed page. Small numbers of references to key original papers often serve as well as more exhaustive lists, particularly since references can now be added to the electronic version of published papers, and since electronic literature searching allows readers to retrieve published literature efficiently. Papers accepted but not yet included in the issue are published online in the Early View section and they should be cited as “advance online publication”. Citing a “personal communication” should be avoided unless it provides essential information not available from a public source, in which case the name of the person and date of communication should be cited in parentheses in the text. For scientific articles, written permission and confirmation of accuracy from the source of a personal communication must be obtained.

Reference Style and Format

Journal of Tourismology complies with APA (American Psychological Association) style 6th Edition for referencing and quoting. For more information:

- American Psychological Association. (2010). Publication manual of the American Psychological Association (6th ed.). Washington, DC: APA.
- http://www.apastyle.org

Citations in the Text

Citations must be indicated with the author surname and publication year within the parenthesis.

If more than one citation is made within the same paranthesis, separate them with (;).

Samples:

More than one citation;
(Esin, et al., 2002; Karasar, 1995)
Citation with one author;
(Akyolcu, 2007)
Citation with two authors;
(Sayıner & Demirci, 2007)
Citation with three, four, five authors;
First citation in the text: (Ailen, Ciambrune, & Welch, 2000) Subsequent citations in the text: (Ailen, et al., 2000)
Citations with more than six authors;
(Çavdar, et al., 2003)

Citations in the Reference

All the citations done in the text should be listed in the References section in alphabetical order of author surname without numbering. Below given examples should be considered in citing the references.

Basic Reference Types

Book
a) Turkish Book
Karasar, N. (1995). *Araştırmalarda rapor hazırlama* (8th ed.) [Preparing research reports]. Ankara, Turkey: 3A Eğitim Danışmanlık Ltd.

b) Book Translated into Turkish

Mucchielli, A. (1991). *Zihniyetler* [Mindsets] (A. Kotil, Trans.). İstanbul, Turkey: İletişim Yayınları.

c) Edited Book

Ören, T., Üney, T., & Çölkesen, R. (Eds.). (2006). *Türkiye bilişim ansiklopedisi* [Turkish Encyclopedia of Informatics]. İstanbul, Turkey: Papatya Yayıncılık.

d) Turkish Book with Multiple Authors

Tonta, Y., Bitirim, Y., & Sever, H. (2002). T*ürkçe arama motorlarında performans değerlendirme* [Performance evaluation in Turkish search engines]. Ankara, Turkey: Total Bilişim.

e) Book in English

Kamien R., & Kamien A. (2014). *Music: An appreciation.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.

f) Chapter in an Edited Book

Bassett, C. (2006). Cultural studies and new media. In G. Hall & C. Birchall (Eds.), *New cultural studies: Adventures in theory* (pp. 220–237). Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

g) Chapter in an Edited Book in Turkish

Erkmen, T. (2012). Örgüt kültürü: Fonksiyonları, öğeleri, işletme yönetimi ve liderlikteki önemi [Organization culture: Its functions, elements and importance in leadership and business management]. In M. Zencirkıran (Ed.), *Örgüt sosyolojisi* [Organization sociology] (pp. 233–263). Bursa, Turkey: Dora Basım Yayın.

h) Book with the same organization as author and publisher

American Psychological Association. (2009). *Publication manual of the American psychological association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Article

a) Turkish Article

Mutlu, B., & Savaşer, S. (2007). Çocuğu ameliyat sonrası yoğun bakımda olan ebeveynlerde stres nedenleri ve azaltma girişimleri [Source and intervention reduction of stress for parents whose children are in intensive care unit after surgery]. *Istanbul University Florence Nightingale Journal of Nursing, 15*(60), 179–182.

b) English Article

de Cillia, R., Reisigl, M., & Wodak, R. (1999). The discursive construction of national identity. *Discourse and Society, 10*(2), 149–173. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0957926599010002002

c) Journal Article with DOI and More Than Seven Authors

Lal, H., Cunningham, A. L., Godeaux, O., Chlibek, R., Diez-Domingo, J., Hwang, S.-J. ... Heineman, T. C. (2015). Efficacy of an adjuvanted herpes zoster subunit vaccine in older adults. *New England Journal of Medicine, 372,* 2087–2096. http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1501184

d) Journal Article from Web, without DOI

Sidani, S. (2003). Enhancing the evaluation of nursing care effectiveness. *Canadian Journal of Nursing Research, 35*(3), 26–38. Retrieved from http://cjnr.mcgill.ca

e) Journal Article wih DOI

Turner, S. J. (2010). Website statistics 2.0: Using Google Analytics to measure library website effectiveness. *Technical Services Quarterly, 27,* 261–278. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07317131003765910

f) Advance Online Publication

Smith, J. A. (2010). Citing advance online publication: A review. *Journal of Psychology.* Advance online publication. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a45d7867

g) Article in a Magazine

Henry, W. A., III. (1990, April 9). Making the grade in today's schools. *Time, 135,* 28–31.

Doctoral Dissertation, Master's Thesis, Presentation, Proceeding

a) Dissertation/Thesis from a Commercial Database

Van Brunt, D. (1997). *Networked consumer health information systems* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 9943436)

b) Dissertation/Thesis from an Institutional Database

Yaylalı-Yıldız, B. (2014). *University campuses as places of potential publicness: Exploring the politicals, social and cultural practices in Ege University* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Retrieved from: http://library.iyte.edu.tr/tr/hizli-erisim/iyte-tez-portali

c) Dissertation/Thesis from Web

Tonta, Y. A. (1992). *An analysis of search failures in online library catalogs* (Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley). Retrieved from http://yunus.hacettepe.edu.tr/~tonta/yayinlar /phd/ickapak.html

d) Dissertation/Thesis abstracted in Dissertations Abstracts International

Appelbaum, L. G. (2005). Three studies of human information processing: Texture amplification, motion representation, and figure-ground segregation. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B. Sciences and Engineering, 65*(10), 5428.

e) Symposium Contribution

Krinsky-McHale, S. J., Zigman, W. B., & Silverman, W. (2012, August). Are neuropsychiatric symptoms markers of prodromal Alzheimer's disease in adults with Down syndrome? In W. B. Zigman (Chair), *Predictors of mild cognitive impairment, dementia, and mortality in adults with Down syndrome.* Symposium conducted at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Orlando, FL.

f) Conference Paper Abstract Retrieved Online

Liu, S. (2005, May). *Defending against business crises with the help of intelligent agent based early warning solutions.* Paper presented at the Seventh International Conference on Enterprise Information Systems, Miami, FL. Abstract retrieved from http://www.iceis.org/iceis2005/abstracts_2005.htm

g) Conference Paper - In Regularly Published Proceedings and Retrieved Online

Herculano-Houzel, S., Collins, C. E., Wong, P., Kaas, J. H., & Lent, R. (2008). The basic nonuniformity of the cerebral cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 105,* 12593–12598. http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0805417105

h) Proceeding in Book Form

Parsons, O. A., Pryzwansky, W. B., Weinstein, D. J., & Wiens, A. N. (1995). Taxonomy for psychology. In J. N. Reich, H. Sands, & A. N. Wiens (Eds.), *Education and training beyond the doctoral degree: Proceedings of the American Psychological Association National Conference on Postdoctoral Education and Training in Psychology* (pp. 45–50). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

i) Paper Presentation

Nguyen, C. A. (2012, August). *Humor and deception in advertising: When laughter may not be the best medicine.* Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Orlando, FL.

Other Sources

a) Newspaper Article

Browne, R. (2010, March 21). This brainless patient is no dummy. *Sydney Morning Herald, 45.*

b) Newspaper Article with no Author

New drug appears to sharply cut risk of death from heart failure. (1993, July 15). *The Washington Post,* p. A12.

c) Web Page/Blog Post

Bordwell, D. (2013, June 18). David Koepp: Making the world movie-sized [Web log post]. Retrieved from http://www.davidbordwell.net/blog/page/27/

d) Online Encyclopedia/Dictionary

Ignition. (1989). In *Oxford English online dictionary* (2nd ed.). Retrieved from http://dictionary.oed.com

Marcoux, A. (2008). Business ethics. In E. N. Zalta (Ed.). *The Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy.* Retrieved from http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/ethics-business/

e) Podcast

Dunning, B. (Producer). (2011, January 12). *in Fact: Conspiracy theories* [Video podcast]. Retrieved from http://itunes.apple.com/

f) Single Episode in a Television Series

Egan, D. (Writer), & Alexander, J. (Director). (2005). Failure to communicate. [Television series episode]. In D. Shore (Executive producer), *House;* New York, NY: Fox Broadcasting.

g) Music

Fuchs, G. (2004). Light the menorah. On *Eight nights of Hanukkah* [CD]. Brick, NJ: Kid Kosher.

SUBMISSION CHECKLIST

Ensure that the following items are present:

- Cover letter to the editor
  - ✓ The category of the manuscript
  - ✓ Confirming that “the paper is not under consideration for publication in another journal”.
  - ✓ Including disclosure of any commercial or financial involvement.
  - ✓ Confirming that last control for fluent English was done.
  - ✓ Confirming that journal policies detailed in Information for Authors have been reviewed.
  - ✓ Confirming that the references cited in the text and listed in the references section are in line with APA 6.
- Copyright Agreement Form
- Permission of previous published material if used in the present manuscript
- Title page
  - ✓ The category of the manuscript
  - ✓ The title of the manuscript both in the language of article and in English
  - ✓ All authors’ names and affiliations (institution, faculty/department, city, country), e-mail addresses
  - ✓ Corresponding author’s email address, full postal address, telephone and fax number
  - ✓ ORCIDs of all authors.
- Main Manuscript Document
  - ✓ The title of the manuscript both in the language of article and in English
  - ✓ Abstracts (200-250 words) both in the language of article and in English
  - ✓ Key words: 5 words both in the language of article and in English
  - ✓ Grant support (if exists)
  - ✓ Conflict of interest (if exists)
  - ✓ Acknowledgement (if exists)
  - ✓ References
  - ✓ All tables, illustrations (figures) (including title, description, footnotes

İstanbul University
İstanbul Üniversitesi

Journal name: Journal of Tourismology
Dergi Adı: Journal of Tourismology

Copyright Agreement Form
Telif Hakkı Anlaşması Formu

Responsible/Corresponding Author *Sorumlu Yazar*	
Title of Manuscript *Makalenin Başlığı*	
Acceptance date *Kabul Tarihi*	
List of authors *Yazarların Listesi*	

Sıra No	**Name - Surname** *Adı-Soyadı*	**E-mail** *E-Posta*	**Signature** *İmza*	**Date** *Tarih*
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

Manuscript Type (Research Article, Review, Short communication, etc.) *Makalenin türü (Araştırma makalesi, Derleme, Kısa bildiri, v.b.)*	

Responsible/Corresponding Author:
Sorumlu Yazar:

University/company/institution	*Çalıştığı kurum*	
Address	*Posta adresi*	
E-mail	*E-posta*	
Phone; mobile phone	*Telefon no; GSM no*	

The author(s) agrees that:
The manuscript submitted is his/her/their own original work, and has not been plagiarized from any prior work,
all authors participated in the work in a substantive way, and are prepared to take public responsibility for the work,
all authors have seen and approved the manuscript as submitted,
the manuscript has not been published and is not being submitted or considered for publication elsewhere,
the text, illustrations, and any other materials included in the manuscript do not infringe upon any existing copyright or other rights of anyone.
ISTANBUL UNIVERSITY will publish the content under Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International (CC BY-NC 4.0) license that gives permission to copy and redistribute the material in any medium or format other than commercial purposes as well as remix, transform and build upon the material by providing appropriate credit to the original work.
The Contributor(s) or, if applicable the Contributor's Employer, retain(s) all proprietary rights in addition to copyright, patent rights;
to use, free of charge, all parts of this article for the author's future works in books, lectures, classroom teaching or oral presentations,
the right to reproduce the article for their own purposes provided the copies are not offered for sale.
All materials related to manuscripts, accepted or rejected, including photographs, original figures etc., will be kept by ISTANBUL UNIVERSITY for one year following the editor's decision. These materials will then be destroyed.
I/We indemnify ISTANBUL UNIVERSITY and the Editors of the Journals, and hold them harmless from any loss, expense or damage occasioned by a claim or suit by a third party for copyright infringement, or any suit arising out of any breach of the foregoing warranties as a result of publication of my/our article.
I/We also warrant that the article contains no libelous or unlawful statements, and does not contain material or instructions that might cause harm or injury.
This Copyright Agreement Form must be signed/ratified by all authors. Separate copies of the form (completed in full) may be submitted by authors located at different institutions; however, all signatures must be original and authenticated.

Yazar(lar) aşağıdaki hususları kabul eder
Sunulan makalenin yazar(lar)ın orijinal çalışması olduğunu ve intihal yapmadıklarını,
Tüm yazarların bu çalışmaya asli olarak katılmış olduklarını ve bu çalışma için her türlü sorumluluğu aldıklarını,
Tüm yazarların sunulan makalenin son halini gördüklerini ve onayladıklarını,
Makalenin başka bir yerde basılmadığını veya basılmak için sunulmadığını,
Makalede bulunan metnin, şekillerin ve dokümanların diğer şahıslara ait olan Telif Haklarını ihlal etmediğini kabul ve taahhüt ederler.
İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ'nin bu fikri eseri, Creative Commons Atıf-GayrıTicari 4.0 Uluslararası (CC BY-NC 4.0) lisansı ile yayınlamasına izin verirler. Creative Commons Atıf-GayrıTicari 4.0 Uluslararası (CC BY-NC 4.0) lisansı, eserin ticari kullanım dışında her boyut ve formatta paylaşılmasına, kopyalanmasına, çoğaltılmasına ve orijinal esere uygun şekilde atıfta bulunmak kaydıyla yeniden düzenleme, dönüştürme ve eserin üzerine inşa etme dâhil adapte edilmesine izin verir.
Yazar(lar)ın veya varsa yazar(lar)ın işvereninin telif dâhil patent hakları, yazar(lar)ın gelecekte kitaplarında veya diğer çalışmalarında makalenin tümünü ücret ödemeksizin kullanma hakkı makaleyi satmamak koşuluyla kendi amaçları için çoğaltma hakkı gibi fikri mülkiyet hakları saklıdır.
Yayımlanan veya yayıma kabul edilmeyen makalelerle ilgili dokümanlar (fotoğraf, orijinal şekil vb.) karar tarihinden başlamak üzere bir yıl süreyle İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ'nce saklanır ve bu sürenin sonunda imha edilir.
Ben/Biz, telif hakkı ihlali nedeniyle üçüncü şahıslarca vuku bulacak hak talebi veya açılacak davalarda İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ ve Dergi Editörlerinin hiçbir sorumluluğunun olmadığını, tüm sorumluluğun yazarlara ait olduğunu taahhüt ederim/ederiz.
Ayrıca Ben/Biz makalede hiçbir suç unsuru veya kanuna aykırı ifade bulunmadığını, araştırma yapılırken kanuna aykırı herhangi bir malzeme ve yöntem kullanılmadığını taahhüt ederim/ederiz.
Bu Telif Hakkı Anlaşması Formu tüm yazarlar tarafından imzalanmalıdır/onaylanmalıdır. Form farklı kurumlarda bulunan yazarlar tarafından ayrı kopyalar halinde doldurularak sunulabilir. Ancak, tüm imzaların orijinal veya kanıtlanabilir şekilde onaylı olması gerekir..

Responsible/Corresponding Author; *Sorumlu Yazar;*	**Signature** / *İmza*	**Date** / *Tarih*
		……../……../……………