ISSN 2645-9078

Jomat

JOURNAL OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY ACADEMIC TOURISM

2020, VOLUME: 5, ISSUE: 1

ISSN: 2645-9078

Jomat

JOURNAL OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY ACADEMIC TOURISM

Year: 2020, Volume: 5, Issue: 1

http://www.jomat.org

https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/jomat

Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism 2020, (5), 1

Aim & Scope

Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism (JOMAT) is an explicitly international and multidisciplinary peer-reviewed scientific journal founded in 2016. JOMAT aims to publish both empirically and theoretically based articles which advance and foster knowledge of tourism and research that explores one or more of the economic, social, cultural, political, organizational, marketing, management or environmental aspects of the subject. We are also trying to give a new perspective to tourism-related activities. The journal encourages short commentaries and rejoinders and provides a rapid turnaround of submissions. In addition to regular length submissions, the journal also welcomes extended peer-reviewed papers on a single topic that combines detailed literature reviews with substantive empirical research and policy analysis. We also welcome supplementary material in the form of video, audio, photographs and additional supplementary about data, not included in the paper. The journal publishes Main Papers, Book Reviews, Review Essays and occasional Opinion Pieces. Book reviews and Opinion Pieces are by invitation only.

The Journal invites contributions related to the following subjects and their applications in tourism and hospitality: marketing management; innovations; global issues; economics; consumer behavior; organizational behavior; culture; methodology; sustainability; beverage management; planning and development; financial management; gender issues; ethics; entrepreneurship; education; and future trends. We also commission Special/Additional Issues – please contact the editors if you have a proposal for a Special Issue or Opinion Piece.

Journal History

Journal Previous Name: Disiplinlerarası Akademik Turizm Dergisi

eISSN : 2548-0847

Year: 2016-2018

Indexing and Abstracting

This journal is abstracted and indexed by CAB Abstract, Cabi Leisure, Hospitality & Tourism, SOBIAD, CrossRef, Google Scholar, ASOS Index.

Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism 2020, (5), 1

Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism 2020, (5), 1

Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism 2020, (5), 1

Contents

Jomat

Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism
2020, 5 (1): 1-9
www.jomat.org

ISSN: 2645-9078
OLD ISSN: 2548-0847

A Retrospective Analysis: 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympics and Lessons for Future Olympic Cities

Tuna Batuhan

Keywords:
Mega-event planning,
Olympics,
Atlanta,
Planning Practice

Article History:
Submitted:06.12.2019
Accepted: 24.04.2020

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the rationale of the 1996 Summer Olympics bid of Atlanta and provides a retrospective analysis of the short- and long-term impacts of the Olympic Games. Olympics provided a means to facilitate the primacy of downtown Atlanta and this new strategy was partially successful mainly because of other external factors. The elites of downtown Atlanta seized the opportunity presented by a potential Olympic hosting in Atlanta to make promises and implement a vision that revitalizes certain downtown areas. Atlanta's Olympic strategy gave positive results in the short-run, however did not help to increase the primacy of downtown Atlanta in the long term due to short-term focused strategies, prioritizing regional issues and shifting focus of business elites to regional growth. Atlanta's Olympic planning practice mostly benefited the business interests while the desires and needs of the residents mostly disregarded, mainly because of the privately-lead planning initiatives. Atlanta Olympic planning practice showed that privatization of the Olympic planning results in limited effects in urban transformation. This paper concludes that the Olympics is not a "one-fits-all approach" for host cities, thus the outcomes differ from city to city mainly because of the different objectives, politics, and culture of each city.

Doi: https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.656291

1. Introduction

A Brief History of the Olympic Games

The largest exceptional public events (ECMT, 2002) that are defined as 'mega' includes the Summer Olympic Games, Expos, World Cups, and Commonwealth Games, which attract millions of visitors and also justify large-scale infrastructure development (Roche, 2002). Mega-events have the potential to be the catalyst for host cities to apply their planning strategies in a more focused environment, and they can result in remarkable changes in infrastructure, urban form, and city image (Essex and Chalkley, 1998; Essex and Chalkley, 2003. According to Essex and Chalkley (1998), the Olympic Games offer "the justification for related developments to be 'fast-tracked' through accelerated planning, design and construction." (p. 201). Mega-events are "the best stage upon which a city can make the claim to global status" (Short, 2004, p.24).

1976 Montreal Games and 1984 Los Angeles Summer Olympic Games are two mile stones for the Olympic movement in terms of the financial concerns. 1976 Montreal Games concluded with a debt of $2.8 billion, and cities hesitated at hosting the 1984 Olympics. Two years before the 1976 Olympics, the host city for the 1980 Olympics had already been selected. Los Angeles and Moscow were the only two cities to bid for the 1980 Summer Olympics, and Moscow was selected over Los Angeles as the host city in 1974. After the financial problems of 1976 and 1980 Games, only two cities expressed their interest for hosting the 1984 Olympics: Tehran and Los Angeles. When Tehran decided to drop out, Los Angeles became the only bidding city and was awarded to host the 1984 Summer Olympic Games by default. Two consecutive Olympic Games were boycotted; US-led boycott of the 1980 Olympics prompted the Soviet-led boycott of the 1984 Olympics. 1984 Los Angeles Olympic bid was privately-initiated by a group of business leaders (Burbank et al., 2002). The City of Los Angeles refused to sign financial responsibility contract with IOC (Rule 4) and IOC had no other option rather than waiving this rule for 1984 Olympics (IOC, 1978; 1979). This could explain "the absence of significant public sector financial support in Los Angeles, and, perhaps, the private financial success the 1984 Games are thought to have enjoyed." (Baade and Matheson, 2002, p. 32) The success of Los Angeles Games and

Research Paper

Tuna Batuhan: Asst. Prof. Dr., Atatürk University Department of City and Regional Planning, Email: tuna.batuhan@atauni.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0001-7662-3405

the profit that is generated increased the interest of other cities to host the Games. The 1984 Los Angeles Games were staged only six years earlier at the time of 1996 Olympic host city selection process. Atlanta tried to distinguish itself from Los Angeles and emphasized the city's advantages.

Especially after the 1984 Los Angeles Games, the economic value of the Olympics has increased. The Los Angeles approach to the bidding process changed "the Olympic Games financial model for less public and more private financing" (Zimbalist 2011, p. 120), and showed that the Games could be profitable. The Games generated positive publicity for the city and its tourist industry with a minimum amount of tax money. Therefore, hosting the Games became more popular and got more attention from city leaders all around the world (Burbank et al. 2001). The image of a successful Olympics and $223 million profit of Los Angeles Olympics increased the number of competing cities for the following Summer Olympic Games. As seen in Table 1, Olympic Games has been growing in many aspects since the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics (ACOG 1994; ATHOC 2004; 2005, CMB 1986; Currie 2007; Greater London Authority 2011; OASA 2009; ODA 2009, ORTA 2001; IOC Website; IOC 2006).

The Olympic Games are one of a kind opportunity for any city to attract global attention and become the center of the globe for three-week period. This is one of the main motivations for cities to compete for hosting the Games. The Olympics could also serve as a catalyst to solve the aged urban

Table 1. The Growth of the Summer Olympic Games

Host City	Year of the Olympics	Tickets Sold (in millions)	Number of Countries	Number of Athletes	Number of Events
Los Angeles, USA	1984	5.7	140	6.829	221
Seoul, Korea	1988	3.3	160	8.391	237
Barcelona, Spain	1992	3	169	9.356	257
Atlanta, USA	1996	8.4	197	10.318	271
Sydney, Australia	2000	6.7	199	10.651	300
Athens, Greece	2004	3.6	201	10.625	301
Beijing, China	2008	6.5	204	10.942	302
London, UK	2012	8.2	204	10.500	302
Rio De Janeiro, Brazil	2016	6.5	205	11.384	306

Source: *Compiled by author. Adapted from ACOG 1994; ATHOC 2004; 2005, CMB 1986; Currie 2007; Greater London Authority 2011; OASA 2009; ODA 2009, ORTA 2001; IOC Website; IOC 2006.*

problems, and could "provide a unique opportunity for politicians and industry to move hidden agendas such as the improvement of infrastructure for sport, housing, communication, traffic and other sectors" (Preuss, 2004, p. 1).

2. Literature Review

The Logic Behind The Olympic Bid of Atlanta

Cities' interest in global networking and the increasing competition among cities are merged into economic strategies and hosting a mega-event like the Summer Olympic Games is seen as a convenient vehicle to achieve the economic goals of a city such as image creation, tourism, and business investments. The difficulties that the city government and the business leaders face within the broader political and economic environment and within the changing forces in international economy required American cities to play an entrepreneurial role; thus, hosting a mega-event like the Olympic Games became a major way to help any city achieve local economic goals (Burbank et al., 2001; Heying et al., 2007). In contemporary American cities, staging the Olympic Games is not simply an international sporting event but a tool for implementing the vision of a world-class city by providing opportunity for growth (Burbank et al., 2001; Preuss, 2004; Short, 2018).

In this sense, Atlanta's bid for hosting the Olympic Games can be understood as the product of an active growth coalition that already existed in Atlanta. The Olympic regime was created in the form of influential individuals getting involved with the bidding and planning for the Olympics in order to make their vision the local policy agenda. For Atlanta, the vision and the central motivation among growth elites was to show that Atlanta was a "world-class" city capable of hosting the Olympic Games. The city leaders and the business elites used tourism and convention to promote the city's economic development and attract tourists and business investments. In order to justify local development in Atlanta, public policy strategies promoted tourism, and the Olympic Games provided that promotional means to reach a broader population (Burbank et al., 2002). For Atlanta, the Olympic bid was not just about hosting a major sporting event, but about transforming the city into a world-stage player, which has been part of the long-running agenda of the downtown elites. The Olympic Games provided an opportunity for downtown business elites to overcome the loss of interest in downtown Atlanta and to increase their power in manipulating and shaping policy decisions. The business elites' strategy was using the Olympics to facilitate the primacy of downtown Atlanta (French and Disher, 1997).

Downtown Atlanta business elites has functioned as a powerful figure to manipulate and shape the planning decisions in downtown Atlanta since 1950s in order to increase their business interests. Downtown Atlanta policy was driven by the governing coalition, consisting of the business elites, elected mayors, and black electoral power in order to increase the primacy of downtown Atlanta and further their objectives in the phase of suburbanization/decentralization. During Hartsfield's and Allen's mayoralty, with the strong support of downtown business elites and black votes, Atlanta's governing coalition was successful implementing their policy agenda by using every policy tool, including transportation plans, sports and convention facilities, urban renewal, and other federal laws. Atlanta achieved continues growth and by the end of Allen's mayoralty (1970) the city completed its transformation from a regional capital to a national city (Allen, 1971; Stone, 1976).

1970s was also the time when the transition in regime started with the election of Massell and Jackson as mayors. The regime dynamics began to change with blacks' stronger presence in Atlanta politics, but the power of business elites on governing coalition have not weakened. In late 1980s, Atlanta looked completely different than it was in the previous decades; the blacks were the voting majority since 1970s; the city lost population and its population share declined on the metropolitan level. The city was not able to keep pace with the changing local and national dynamics. The city experienced "white flight" starting in the 1960s. Improved transportation technology, extended highway network throughout the nation, and national policies supporting home ownership resulted in migration of middle class and live further from their workplace. In addition to these national forces and policies, fear of crime, concerns about city schools, and higher share of property taxes for services in downtown influenced the location decisions of white middle class (Banfield, 1965; Holmes (1977; Murphy, 1997).

Despite these changing dynamics, downtown Atlanta business elites believed that downtown Atlanta would keep its primacy in the region by investing on city's unique strengths, including the infrastructural facilities such as the airport, rapid-rail system, and the freeway network; strong convention and tourism industry; concentration of strong institutions and industries; and strong economy and business community. As a result, Atlanta business leaders turned to market based solutions, such as tourism and convention, in order to generate profit and increase the reputation of the city in an era where the manufacturing is declining and the competition with the surrounding suburbs for office space tenants and residents has intensified. In other words, the focus of the governing elites shifted to planning for visitors, not for residents. The future of downtown Atlanta is imagined as a place for consumption, not for production (Andranovich et al. 2001; Keating, 2001; Rutheiser 1996).

Although some elements of the regime have changed over time, the regime sustained its stability and the business elites committed on the "regressive agenda" of economic growth. In this sense, the idea of hosting major conventions and events became a new strategy. The rewards of these efforts was hosting some major events later, including the 1988 Democratic National Convention, 1994 NFL Super Bowls, and finally the 1996 Summer Olympic Games(Andranovich et al. 2001; Heying et al. 2007).

The Olympic Bidding and Preparation Process of Atlanta

The Olympic journey for Atlanta started on February 8, 1987, when William Porter "Billy" Payne, a real estate lawyer and former football player at the University of Georgia, dreamed of Atlanta hosting a summer Olympic and began campaigns to win the right to host the 1996 Summer Olympic Games. In Atlanta, no organization was in place to initiate an Olympic bid. Thus, Billy Payne, as Atlanta's "Olympic entrepreneur" (Burbank et al., 2002), formed the bidding committee of Atlanta and formed the Georgia Amateur Athletic Foundation (GAAF), a non-profit corporation in 1987 for the USOC's endorsement for the 1996 Olympics. Payne's Olympic dream became more possible to achieve after he got the support from mayor Andrew Young and other business leaders, especially Roberto Goizueta of Coca-Cola. Later, mayor Young took the first official step by sending a letter to the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) in August 1987, expressing the City of Atlanta's interest in being the US nominee for the 1996 Summer Olympic Games (Newman, 1999). In September 1987, GAAF members submitted the formal bid materials in person to the USOC headquarters in Colorado Springs, Colorado (ACOG, 1996; ACOG, 1997). GAAF members met the sport federation leaders and discussed the aspects of Atlanta's bid. The bid described

Atlanta's strengths as follows: a world- class airport; existing venues and facilities; new construction plans for sports venues; more than 60,000 existing hotel rooms; the MARTA system; experience in handling large masses of people because of the city's large convention industry; and private funding through corporate sponsors, television rights, and ticket sales. (ACOG, 1997, p. 7)

On April 29, 1988, USOC selected Atlanta as the US nominee to host the 1996 Summer Olympics. Atlanta won 65-42 over Minneapolis-St Paul (AJC, April 30, 1988). After winning the designation as the US nominee, a new organization, the Atlanta Organizing Committee (AOC), was created by Billy Payne and his friends for the international Olympic campaign. In May 1988, international competition started for Atlanta. Atlanta competed against five other cities: Athens, Greece; Toronto, Canada; Manchester, England; Melbourne, Australia; and Belgrade, Yugoslavia to become the host city for the 1996 Olympics. The modern Olympic Games began in 1896 in Athens and the 1996 Olympics was the 100th anniversary of the Games. Thus, it was assumed, at least by Greece, that Athens has the biggest chance to win the bid and host the Centennial Olympic Games (Hutton, 2001; Payne, 1997).

Atlanta’s Olympic bid proposed to spend about $1.2 billion in private funds to hold the Games, and expected to generate about $1.4 billion in revenues from television broadcast rights, commercial sponsorships, tickets, and other promotions (Weisman, 1990).

On September 18, 1990 IOC awarded the 1996 Olympics to Atlanta at the 96th Session of IOC in Tokyo, Japan. An exuberant crowd in Underground Atlanta celebrated the announcement that Atlanta will host the 1996 Olympic Games. Atlanta used technology, an image of enthusiasm along with the strong support from Atlantans, and the organization skills to be selected over Athens by a 51-35 vote to host the Games after five rounds of voting (Table 2 shows the five- round sequence of IOC votes). Atlanta’s selection as the 1996 Olympic host city was surprising, even for Atlanta bidding committee. Atlanta was “the best city of the rest” to prepare itself for the 1996 Olympic Games on time with its concepts for transport – especially the air connection to the world with one of the leading airports in the world–, infrastructural facilities, 65,000 hotel rooms, existing sport facilities, and communication systems (IOC, 2009).

Table 2. IOC Voting for the 1996 Summer Olympic Games

Candidate City	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3	Round 4	Round 5
Atlanta	19	20	26	34	51
Athens	23	23	26	30	35
Toronto	14	17	18	22	-
Melbourne	12	21	16	-	-
Manchester	11	5	-	-	-
Belgrade	7	-	-	-	-

Source: *IOC, 2009*

The business elites heavily engaged in Olympic bidding and preparation processes. Atlanta’s Olympic bidding committees consisted of influential business leaders; especially Goizueta of Coca-Cola was the “behind the scene” figure for Atlanta’s Olympic bid. In a sense, the bidding committee was another ad hoc form of the governing regime in Atlanta. With extensive lobbying effort, enthusiasm, and organization skills, Atlanta convinced the IOC members and the 1996 Olympics was awarded to Atlanta. Atlanta came forward with its sports facilities already in place, transportation network, and strong convention business. This proves the success of business elites’ vision in a sense that investing on Atlanta’s unique strengths and turning to market-based solutions would help the city to keep its primacy in order to generate profit and increase the reputation of the city (Keating, 2001).

From its bidding period to the Olympic staging, Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG)’s strategy was to meet the Olympic requirement at the minimum level by limiting its attention “inside the fence”, increase the profit, and implement the long-dated agenda of putting Atlanta on the international map. Corporation for Olympic Development in Atlanta (CODA), which was intended to plan and coordinate redevelopment projects “outside the fence”, was not successful to increase the community benefits of the Olympics. Besides the limited funds, the major problem with the unsuccessful CODA venture was that the downtown business elites did not genuinely support CODA. ACOG was representing the business elites’ interests while CODA was trying to increase the benefits of the Games for Atlantans ((Rutheiser 1996, French and Disher, 1997; Hoffman, 2003).

3. Study Design and Methodology

Case study methodology was employed for this research (Mossberger and Stoker, 2001) and Atlanta was selected as the single case. This single-case study investigation engages a wide literature on regime theory, mega-event planning, and urban planning; archival data; and in-depth interviews with area urban planning experts, business leaders, and other interested parties in order to examine the propositions stated above. The study covered the time period from 1950s to 2000s to set the boundaries of the case.

This qualitative case study investigation used multiple sources, including public agency documents at different levels; interviews with key decision makers; academic articles and books researching urban planning, regime theory, and mega-event planning; newspaper articles; and other online documents. Both primary and secondary data are reviewed: the official documents and reports from various governmental and non-governmental organizations (Public and private memos, local government policy statements, Olympic host city report, master plans, official websites), previous academic studies on mega-event planning, regime theory, planning policy, and press releases and media reports from local and national newspapers. The resulting information created a triangulation at the data collection level to ensure cohesive research findings.

4. Results: The Legacy of 1996 Atlanta Olympics

Atlanta's Olympic strategy gave positive results in the short-run, however did not help to increase the primacy of downtown Atlanta in the long term due to short-term focused strategies selected by downtown business elites as well as prioritizing regional issues and shifting focus of business elites to regional growth. The regime in Atlanta was different than what it was in 1950s or 1970s. Economic, social, demographic, and political changes resulted in changes on governing coalition and the elites' focus have shifted to regional issues rather than concentrating on downtown Atlanta.

First of all, the Olympics created some positive tangible legacies, most notably the Centennial Olympic Park; the new Olympic Stadium; new concourse and a central atrium for the Hartsfield-Jackson Atlanta International Airport; and new facilities for Colleges and Universities in or near downtown Atlanta. In addition to these tangible benefits, the Olympic Games was also a catalyst for some other physical improvements, such as the $16 million ITS system; $100 million Empowerment Zone designation to enhance housing, childcare, and job training in a nine square mile area in downtown Atlanta; and the $14 million federal grant for MARTA to purchase natural gas buses which will be showcased during the summer of 1996. The Olympic Games also contributed to the growth of convention business. Additionally, Atlanta hosted more major sports events after the Olympics. Lastly, the new housing units in downtown Atlanta stand as one of the tangible legacies of the Olympics.

In terms of intangible legacies, one of the goals of the Atlanta Olympic organizers was to create a world city image. This goal was achieved with the Olympic hosting and Atlanta was finally on the map as an international city. The Games also served as an excuse to guarantee to complete the infrastructure on time. The tight deadlines of the Games forced the agencies to cooperate and do much work in a short time and the Olympics helped to make the process faster. Additionally, as another intangible legacy, the Olympic transportation planning experience changed the perception on transit and proved the capacity of MARTA system, the airport, and the convenient location of Atlanta.

In regards to negative legacies, the Games had negative social impacts on low-income residents, intensified social problems and deepen existing divides among residents. The Olympic Games did not increase the quality of life for the residents of Atlanta, especially the poor. Atlanta focused more on "Olympics-as-sport" side and the needs of communities are disregarded. Atlanta's Olympic primary effort aimed to meet the IOC requirements in a most efficient way from Games organization to architecture with limited infrastructure investment. Atlanta staged the Olympic mostly with temporary infrastructural improvements and not necessarily targeting for a legacy after the Games. Atlanta used its key strengths, such as convention sport facilities and transit system to be awarded to host the Olympics, in contrast to other host cities which used Olympics to improve their urban infrastructure and create a legacy. In one sense, Atlanta was ready to manage Olympic-sized events, but the privately-led approach and profit-maximization idea limited the city's capacity to prepare for the Games with a comprehensive planning approach and handle the Games without major problems.

Overall Assessment of 1996 Atlanta Olympics

The 1996 Olympics served as a catalyst for physical development in downtown Atlanta. The Atlanta Olympics raised the global profile of Atlanta, improved the city's attractiveness for new businesses to locate, increased growth in service industry – especially in tourism and convention sectors, created a sense of pride for Atlantans, and improved the physical environment with some tangible legacies, such as the new sports facilities, the Centennial Olympic Park, beautification of the city, new dorms for Georgia Tech and Georgia State Universities, and new housing options in downtown. Olympics and post-Olympics construction projects have made profound changes in and around the edge of the CBD.

The Olympic strategy of downtown Atlanta business elites was partially successful. The Olympic organizers used the key strengths of Atlanta such as the convention facilities, rapid-rail system, the airport to get the Olympics, but they failed to address political, economic, and social problems because of the short-term vision and lack of planning during the Olympic preparation process. French and Disher (1997) examined the lessons from Atlanta Olympics for prospective host cities. In this study, four main expected benefits of large scale events for the host cities are listed: creating a physical legacy, short-term economic stimulus, marketing and tourism opportunities, and sufficient urban redevelopment. The study concluded that the first three benefits are achieved; however the hardest benefit to obtain from the event – significant urban redevelopment – remained as a dream for Atlanta. According to this study, the main problems that bounded Atlanta from obtaining this benefit were dependence on private funding sources and divided management body.

The Olympics were a significant attempt for downtown business elites to keep the downtown area vibrant, attractive, and lively. As a result of the Olympic hosting in 1996, Atlanta finally received the "international city" title and the original business development agenda largely accomplished for downtown business elites. As a reflection of the existing regime in Atlanta, the lack of public involvement and public funding also meant that implementing comprehensive, long-term oriented, and integrated planning was limited in Atlanta Olympic planning process. The legacy of Olympics in Atlanta was not long-lasting and hard to be recognized. Atlanta's bid strategy was not grounded in a specified long-term plan that includes venue planning, funding sources, citizen participation, and community involvement. As a result, the Olympics was relatively unsuccessful and did not create positive lasting legacies.

5. Discussion and Results:

Lessons for Future Olympic Cities

The sole purpose of the Atlanta's Olympic bid was to increase the city image and attract businesses. Even though it was expected that the city and its residents would benefit from the Olympics, it was not part of the business elites' agenda. Atlanta Olympics served only narrow purposes and the local politics and power structure determined the outcome of the Atlanta Olympics. Despite neighborhood resistance and opposition, business elites' redevelopment projects were implemented including the Centennial Olympic Park and the new Stadium, which proves the power of business elites in manipulating and shaping policy agendas. Olympics served as a catalyst for economic revitalization around the Centennial Olympic Park. New housing units, new hotels, and new retail spaces are added to the area after the Olympics. Overall, 1996 Olympics renewed the interest in the future of downtown Atlanta: the city and the business elites benefited from Olympic legacies, however the Olympics failed to address socio-economic problems and the benefit to the overall community was limited.

Atlanta focused more on "Olympics-as-sport" side and the needs of communities are disregarded. Atlanta's Olympic primary effort aimed to meet the IOC requirements in a most efficient way from Games organization to architecture with limited infrastructure investment. Ginger Watkins, ACOG's managing director of corporate services, sees the Olympics as an image-enhancing opportunity for Atlanta and he describes this effort as follows: "despite the huge effort ACOG undertakes through the "Look of the Games" program, what we are really doing is "decorating" Olympic venues and transportation corridors." (Watkins, 1993).

Olympic Games marked the last phase of civic and downtown orientation of business elites. From the business elites' perspective, the Olympics partially delivered the expected benefits, such as revitalizing specific downtown areas, increasing the global recognition of Atlanta, and attracting more businesses and residents to downtown Atlanta. These effects were positive for a short-time period right after the Olympics, but these benefits were not long-lasting and did not help to facilitate the primacy of downtown Atlanta for the long-term because of other internal and external factors. After the Olympics, the business elites' focus shifted towards regional issues and downtown Atlanta lost its priority to be an attractive location for business interest over growing surrounding suburbs. Although city employment increased in the post-Olympic period, the city's share in the region declined. Atlanta has also been promoted as a site for regional offices. This goal was accomplished with the Olympics, but the changing dynamics prevented Atlanta to keep its primacy as the regional economic center. In other words, regional growth surpassed downtown growth and the regime lost its interest to implement policy changes in downtown Atlanta as a result of changes over time with new actors gaining more power in city politics. With the changing demographics, immigrants, multiethnic groups, and labor movements are now part of the regime analysis. In regards to Olympic planning practice, Atlanta can be considered as an outlier.

Atlanta was the second Olympic host city after Los Angeles, which heavily relied on private funding for Olympic planning. The absence of government backing created a planning environment where increasing profit was the main target, not creating a legacy of the Olympics. Eventually, after the Atlanta Olympics, one lesson IOC learned was to require government involvement on Olympic planning. Richard Pound, Vice President of IOC at that time, delivered a speech at the Ambassador's Lecture Series in Washington D.C. on May 16, 1994 and said, "We [IOC] will never award the Games in future to a city, in the United States or elsewhere, which has no significant public sector commitment, either in the form of financial contribution or, at the very least, in the form of a guarantee to meet the necessary costs of organizing the Games" (Pound, 1994).

Additionally, the Olympic bidding process in today's world is a lot more competitive, more complex, and has string rules. In a sense, Atlanta Olympics was a bitter experience for IOC and one period was closed with in Olympic history with the 1996 Atlanta Olympics. As one of the ACOG member stated, "now, the technical requirements for a bid are huge. It is too comprehensive. All we did was identifying locations for the venues. It would be interesting to see how much of it we changed. We were going to have 5 venues in Stone Mountains, but we ended up 2. It is a whole different time now. The contract we made was may be 10 pages, it is now about a 100 pages. When Moscow won in 1980, their contract was a one-page document" (ACOG Member 1).

Another important lesson for IOC was to include legacy aspects to the Olympic bidding process. Atlanta staged the Olympics mostly with temporary infrastructural improvements and not necessarily targeting for a legacy after the Games. Atlanta used its key strengths, such as convention sport facilities and transit system to be awarded to host the Olympics, in contrast to other host cities which used Olympics to improve their urban infrastructure and create a legacy. In one sense, Atlanta was ready to manage Olympic-sized events, but the privately-led approach and profit-maximization idea limited the city's capacity to prepare for the Games with a comprehensive planning approach and handle the Games without major problems. This study intended to contribute to the body of literature in urban politics by exploring the evolving role of downtown business elites in light of the Olympic experience of Atlanta and it represented an initial attempt to explore this phenomenon. While the results are not universally representative, they nonetheless provide insights to see the regime evolvement.

The mega-event literature suggests that mega-events have the potential to be the catalyst for host cities to apply their planning strategies in a more focused environment, and they can result in remarkable changes in infrastructure, urban form, and city image. Nevertheless, the economic value of the Olympics is not as important as it was before. The Olympics became more complex to plan and stage and it is unlikely for another city to be able to organize an Olympic Games without any government support. Even in Atlanta case, where no governmental support was "expected" by ACOG, the Games cost millions of dollars to governments and tax payers. Moreover, it is also hard to convince the residents that Olympics have huge promises to transform the host city. Atlanta's Olympic experience showed that expecting urban transformation as a result of the Games is not realistic without comprehensive planning effort as well as intention to create legacies. This means, the results of the Olympics depend on the strategies that are implemented and the planning efforts to achieve these strategies. The Olympic experience of Atlanta shows that the Games may have limited long-term impacts, if it was not intended to make significant changes.

Overall Atlanta Olympic experience suggests that the local policy settings matters the most for Summer Olympics planning. That is why we see different planning approaches and distinct legacies in different host cities. Even though the IOC has fixed strategies to handle the huge Olympic planning effort, the local settings of each host city results in different outcomes. In Atlanta, many of the infrastructures were already in place and the Olympics was a catalyst to speed up the process for some necessary improvements that needed to be made regardless of the Olympics. Olympics dramatically increased the image of Atlanta, which was the main goal for the business elites. Summer Olympics were one of those rare events that would put a city on the map quickly and the downtown Atlanta business elites wisely used this opportunity to create an international city image.

Regarding Atlanta's Olympic experience, the finding of this study is consistence with the previous literature in a sense that Atlanta Olympics created negative social impacts and did not improve the urban-living conditions for the residents. This study showed that Atlanta's Olympic strategy has produced results different than other Olympic host cities. Thus, the Atlanta Games are considered as a bad example of mega-event planning. However, Atlanta Olympics had no intention to create a legacy for its residents and transform the urban-living conditions. If we consider the initial strategy of Atlanta Olympic organizers, it was clear that the governing elites used the Olympics as a unique opportunity to accomplish their goals by overcoming the limitations of local government. The regime had its agenda with a set of purposes to accomplish. In conclusion, the local politics and context matter more than the fixed Olympic strategies. In other words, Olympics is not a "one-fits-all approach" for host cities, thus the outcomes differ from city to city mainly because of the different objectives, politics, and culture of each city.

Atlanta's Olympic experience also has some implications for planning practice. "Inside the fence" approach of Atlanta Olympic organizers showed that private planning initiatives are more likely to result in outcomes that are not necessarily consistent with the needs of the residents. Atlanta's Olympic planning practice mostly benefited the business interests while the desires and needs of the residents mostly disregarded, mainly because of the privately lead planning initiatives. The city transferred its decision-making power to profit-oriented private entities such as ACOG during the Olympic preparation process and as a result, the plans that are implemented mostly focused on meeting the needs of the business interests, not the residents. Public entities had limited money and/or support to implement major "outside the fence" development projects. Atlanta Olympic planning practice showed that privatization of the Olympic planning results in limited effects in urban transformation.

This study was able to provide evidence to the changing regime dynamics and the impact of Olympic hosting on Atlanta's urban regime. However, the single-case study design limits the generalizability of this study's findings. The government structure in Atlanta is unique in a sense and cannot easily compared with other cities. The leadership of individuals, long-term relationships between elected officials, business leaders, different ethnic and race groups create a unique policy arena in Atlanta. Future research should focus on comparative cases to see the changing regime dynamics on different government settings. Atlanta's regime is still evolving and developing itself with revisions. As Stone (1976) stated, "revision is a constant process" in the instance of studies of local politics and public policy (p. 7). Therefore, this research offered one such revision to regime analysis and attempted to contribute to the body of urban policy and mega-event literature by providing additional insights on Olympic strategy of downtown Atlanta business elites.

6. References

ACOG Member 1. (2014) *Personal interview*, April 17.

Allen, I. with Hemphill, P. (1971) *Mayor: Notes on the Sixties*. New York: Simon and

Schuster.

Andranovich, G., Burbank, M. J., and Heying, C. H. (2001) *Olympic Cities: Lessons Learned from Mega-event Politics*. Journal of Urban Affairs 23 (2), p. 113-131.

Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG). 1996. *1996 Olympic Press Guide*. Retrieved from Atlanta History Center (Atlanta, USA).

Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG). (1997) *Official Report of the Centennial Olympic Games*, Volume One: Planning and Organizing.

Baade, R.A. and Matheson, V. (2002) *Bidding for the Olympics: Fool's Gold?* In Barros C; Ibrahimo M.; Szymanski , S. (Eds.), Transatlantic Sport: the Comparative Economics of North America and European Sports, p. 127-151.

Banfield, E. C. (1965) *Big City Politics: A Comparative Guide to the Political Systems of Atlanta, Boston, Detroit, El Paso, Los Angeles, Miami, Philadelphia, St. Louis and Seattle*. New York: Random House.

Burbank, M. J., Andranovich, G. and Heying, C. (2001) *Olympic Dreams: The Impact of Megaevents on Local Politics*, Lynne Rienner Publishers, Boulder, Colorado.

Burbank, M. J., Andranovich, G., and Heying, C. (2002) *Mega-events, Urban Development, and Public Policy*. The Review of Policy Research, Fall 2002 (19) 3: p. 179-202.

Essex, S. and Chalkley B. (1998) *The Olympics as a catalyst of urban renewal: a review*. Leisure Studies, 17 (3), 187-206.

Essex, S. and Chalkley, B. (2003) *Urban transformation from hosting the Olympic Games: university lecture on the Olympics* [online article]. Barcelona: Centre d'Estudis Olímpics (UAB). International Chair in Olympism (IOC-UAB). http://olympicstudies.uab.es/lectures/web/pdf/essex.pdf.\ [Date of consulted: 08/10/2014]

French, S. P. and Disher, M. E. (1997) *Atlanta and the Olympics: A One-Year Retrospective*. Journal of the American Planning Association, 63 (3) Summer, p. 379-392.

Heying, C., Burbank, M. J., and Andranovich, G. (2007) *World Class: Using the Olympics to Shape and Brand the American Metropolis*. Chapter 9 in Smith, Melanie K., Tourism, Culture, and Regeneration. CABI Publishing.

Hoffman, A. V. (2003). *House by House, Block by Block: The Rebirth of America's Urban Neighborhoods*. Oxford University Press.

Holmes, R. A. (1977). *The Politics of Governmental Reforms in the Atlanta Metropolitan Region*. In Gorsuch, E.N. and Hinds, D. S. 1977. The Future of Atlanta's Central City. Research Monograph No. 73, Georgia State University College of Business Administration.

Hutton, A. K. 2001. *The Olympic Games: Lessons for Future Host Cities*. Master Thesis Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia.

International Olympic Committee (IOC) (1978) *Agreement between IOC and the City of Los Angeles*, (27 October), typescript.

International Olympic Committee (IOC) (1979) A*greement between IOC, United States Olympic Committee and Organizing Committee of Games* (1 March), typescript.

International Olympic Committee (IOC).2009. *Fact Sheet. Host City Election Facts and Figures.*

Keating, L. 2001. *Atlanta: Race, Class, and urban Expansion*. Temple University Press, Philadelphia.

Murphy, A. D. (1997). *Introduction: Atlanta: Capital Of The 21st Century?* Urban Anthropology and Studies of Cultural Systems and World Economic Development, Vol. 26, No. 1, Atlanta: Capital of the 21st Century (Spring, 1997), pp. 1-8.

Payne, B. (1997). *Lessons from Atlanta, The organizer's view: Q&A with Billy Payne*. The Cincinnati Enquirer. Sunday, July 27, 1997.

Pound, R. W (1994) *The Centennial Olympic Games, Atlanta, 1996. Vice President, International Olympic Games*. Delivered at the Ambassador's lecture series, Washington, D.C., May 16.

Preuss, H. (2004) *The Economics of Staging the Olympics: A Comparison of the Games*, 1972-2008. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Roche, M. (2002) *Mega Events and Modernity. Olympics and Expos in the Growth of Global Culture*. Routledge.

Rutheiser, C. (1996) *How Atlanta lost the Olympics*. New Statesman (1996). 125.4293 (July 19, 1996): p28. Cover story

Short, J. R. (2004) *Global Metropolitan: Globalizing Cities in a Capitalist World*. Routledge

Short, J. R. (2018) *Hosting the Olympic Games: The Real Costs for Cities*. Routledge

Stone, C. N. (1976) *Economic Growth and Neighborhood Discontent: System Bias in The Urban Renewal Program of Atlanta*. The University of North Carolina Press: Chapel Hill.

Weisman, S. (1990) *Atlanta Selected Over Athens for 1996 Olympics.* The New York Times. September, 19, 1990.

Zimbalist, A. (2011) C*ircling the Bases: Essays on the Challenges and Prospects of the Sports Industry*. Temple University Press, Philadelphia.

Jomat
Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism
2020, 5 (1): 11-16
www.jomat.org
ISSN: 2645-9078
OLD ISSN: 2548-0847

Customer Representatives' Competence Of Call Center Employees: An Exploratory Study

Murat Nazlı

Keywords:
Customer representatives,
Leadership style,
Customer relations,
Servant leadership

ABSTRACT

The fundamental purpose of this exploratory study is to understand and analyze the leadership styles of customer representatives in call centers of online travel agencies (OTAs) through content analysis. The sample consists of 895 customer responses about the services of these online agencies. The theoretical background of the study focuses on the servant leadership styles of customer representatives to see how they can handle tough situations with the customers and how the customers respond to the level of services. The findings reveal valuable hints and important perspectives of customers for the leadership styles of customer representatives. The emphasized points are the reservation problems, lack of problem-solving, delivery of wrong information to the customers, focus on sales rather than customer satisfaction, low level of institutionalism perspective of customer representatives, and lack of interest after the sales. The study enlightens the leadership styles of customer representatives in call centers of online agencies for the use of researchers and practitioners.

Article History:
Submitted:06.01.2020
Accepted: 25.04.2020

Doi: https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.671224

1. Introduction

Since the customer representatives represent their firms and the customers (Celik, 2017), and are the service providers for thousands of customers to serve professionally and satisfactorily, it is critical to show their servant leadership skills in their communications throughout the service delivery to customers and persuasion of customers to help them make an excellent decision in their service purchases. Therefore, two questions are vital to understanding the main aim of this research. 1. How much does "servant leadership style" appear for the customer representatives to provide a satisfactory service for the customers? 2. In considering the representatives' leadership styles, how do the customers react to the delivery of services offered by the customer representatives in call centers of online travel agencies?

The theoretical aspect of the study lies under the assumption that the customer representatives serve the customers to satisfy their needs and create memorable experiences in the minds of the customers, and not just focus on sales. Servant leadership theory is investigated across a variety of contexts and themes (Parris & Peachey, 2013; Babakus et al., 2010). According to Spears (2010), servant leadership seeks to involve others in decision making, is strongly based on ethical and caring behavior, and enhances the growth of workers while improving the caring and quality of organizational life. According to the study of Russell and Stone (2002), there are nine characteristics of servant leaders; Vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment. According to Spears (2010), the characteristics of servant leadership are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. Therefore, key leadership attributes of the customer representatives in call centers of online agencies play an important role in affecting the purchasing decisions of customers. It is also important to know how the customer representatives direct customers

Research Paper

Murat Nazlı: PhD., Yaşar University Department of Tourism Guidance, Email: nazli.murat@gmail.com, Orcid Id: 0000-0003-0335-1706

to make great decisions about purchasing a service and how they help the customers in a way to make them excited and satisfied with their final purchase.

In literature, there are several studies related to the competencies of employees in call centers (Kisi, 2016), discussions about online travel agency leaders based on market share (Dutta et al., 2017), being a leader in online travel industry (Sirohi, 2018), and the investigation of frontline employees and the supervisor leadership styles (Boukis et al., 2020; Bartram & Casimir, 2007), and different leadership styles playing a diverse role in call centers (Muthuveloo et al., 2014; Ruggieri & Abbate, 2013), there is still a literature gap about the use of servant leadership style of customer representatives in online travel agencies while serving the customers, which also makes this exploratory study unique. Therefore, from the leadership perspective, it is important to know the leadership attributes of these representatives, what type of complaints occur for them, how they solve the customer problems efficiently and effectively and satisfy their needs with an excellent service, and how the customers respond to the offered services.

The first section after the introduction of the study discusses the topic of customer representatives in call centers and their leadership styles, the sample, and method. The second section shows the main findings along with the critiques of customers for the customer representatives' services and leadership attributes. The third section is the results, conclusion, and recommendations for future studies.

2. Customer Representatives

Today, the most effective tool that the organizations use to solve customer problems related to products and services, and stay connected with the customers is the call centers that serve the customers all day long but while performing their jobs, their motivation, morale, dedication to work, and psychological condition is important (Agras & Emre, 2018) as well as strong leader-member interaction that affects the customer-focus positively (Gurer & Bozaci, 2019). However, working in shifts with high agent turnover (Naor & Coman, 2017), the stressful job environment in call centers can make it difficult to boost the employees' performance (Wallece et al., 2000; Taylor & Peter, 1999). Therefore, customer representatives who represent their firms and serve thousands of customers and their perspectives towards serving the customers are important. It is critical for them to present their leadership attributes in their communication and convincing of customers to help them decide in their final purchases.

According to Onat, when the customer shows his/her satisfaction, it is a plus for the call center (Onat, 2014) that ends up with positive feedback for the organization and the representatives. Concerning the study of Zhou et al. (2018), when the service quality is high, the customers are more satisfied and become more loyal than before. Once the representatives gain the confidence of customers and make them believe that the organization is reliable, and will cover for them when they are in need, the customers will be ready to pay the organization in exchange for future service (De la Croix de Castries, 2017).

On the other hand, the ones who want to work in call centers as customer representatives should possess important attributes such as understanding others with empathy, expressing yourself clearly, being patient and positive, having the ability to convince people, managing time and stress, and focusing on results (Kisi, 2016). According to the study of Agras and Emre (2018), to improve the conditions of employees in call centers, there are key factors such as reorganizing work hours, paying attention to personal needs, strengthening communication and cooperation, and the feeling of commitment to the organization.

The quality of service the employees provide is important and this occurs when employees are engaged and connected employees provide excellent customer service and unique experience (Subramanian, 2018). The defining characteristic of servant leadership is its focus on benignant or excellent service to other people (Robinson, 2018; Sun, 2013; Berry et al., 1994). Based on the key characteristics of servant leadership (Boukis et al., 2020; Spears, 2010), we believe that the level of caring behavior will set the standards for future possible transactions between the customers and the online agencies. Servant leadership studies have supported positive influences of servant leadership on individuals' job satisfaction in various organizations (Chu, 2008) but the question is whether this satisfaction has a relationship with how the customer representatives perform their jobs efficiently and effectively, especially in call centers, and how they fulfill the needs of the customers.

3. Sample and Method

The research sample consists of 895 responses from travelers who have taken services from online travel agencies and make a critique about the customer representatives for their experiences in a mainstream website "sikayetvar.com" between January 2019 and January 2020. Concerning the online visitors for the website, as of 01 January 2020, the number of members on the website is 4.560.769, the number of visitors for the last 30 days on the website is 14.801.403, and the total complaints about the online services are 8.785.554.

Among the total complaints about the online services of several industries, 895 visitor comments for the services of online travel agencies are gathered and transferred from the website to a data-sheet in which the content analysis of the text takes place in detail. Along with the content analysis of the data, frequency analysis for customer representative-related expressions, problematic topics for the customer representatives, and percentage distributions of the main findings are presented briefly. The types of problems that the customers encounter with the customer representatives are categorized according to the frequencies of them and their similarities. The study pays attention to the frequently-used comments related to the service delivery of online travel agencies and the evaluation of cases one by one to distinguish their types.

4. Findings

Frequencies of Customer-Related Expressions

Table 1 presents the customer-related expressions along with their frequencies and percentage distributions. The top three expressions are the customer, customer representative, and customer services respectively. Last but not least, the lowest frequency is the call centers' weak customer communication.

Table 1: Frequencies of customer-related expressions

Expressions	Frequencies	Percentage
Customer	110	52.9
Customer representative	29	13.9
Customer services	20	9.61
Customer representatives not returning phone calls	18	8.65
Call center customer representatives	16	7.69
Weak customer communication	15	7.21
Total:	208	100

Source: *Authors*

Customers' Problematic Issues for Customer Representatives

Table 2 emphasizes the customers' fundamental problems for the customer representatives along with the frequencies and percentage distributions. The top three topics are the reservation problems, focusing on not problem-solving, and the delivery of wrong information to the customers respectively. The lowest frequencies are the missing information, lack of representatives' authority to solve customer problems, weak communication with the customers, and the delivery of wrong discount/campaign information.

Table 2: Customers' problematic topics for customer representatives

Expressions	Frequencies	Percentage
Representatives are not helpful in reservation problems	92	30.4
The main focus is not on problem-solving	38	12.5
Providing wrong information to the customers	30	9.93
Focus on sales first rather than customer satisfaction	29	9.60
Low level of institutionalism perspective of representatives	22	7.28
Lack of interest after the sales	21	6.95
Not returning phone calls at all	18	5.96
Providing different price information than on the website	17	5.62
Disrespectful and not professional	13	4.30
Not providing all the information (missing information)	8	2.64
Representatives not having the authority to solve problems	7	2.31
Weak communication with the customers	4	1.32
Providing wrong discount/campaign information	3	0.99
Total:	302	100

Source: *Authors*

5. Results and Discussion

The customer-related expressions reveal that the customer is the core part of an online transaction or service. The connection between the customer representatives and the customer is important in terms of providing excellent services to satisfy the needs of customers satisfactorily. For instance, a customer emphasizes that "The reason I prefer online travel agencies is that if I have a service problem, I can expect to get immediate help from the customer representatives of the travel agency".

According to the customer comments, one of the key problematic issues is the reservation problem through the online travel agency and how the service takes place with the direction of the customer representative. The main problematic areas in general are the reservation issues that the customers face, problem-solving situations on the phone with the representatives, delivery of wrong information to the customers, lack of institutionalism according to the customers, lack of interest towards the customers after the sales, traffic of phone calls but no solution, lack of authority of customer representatives to solve urgent problems, weak communication between the customers and the customer representatives, and the delivery of different or wrong discount/campaign information to the customers.

Based on the comments of the customers, the reservation problem is extremely important for the customers: Here are some of the key quotes of the customers; "The customer representatives have been calling me until they sell the travel package, and then cancel my reservation without informing me. However, they organize a new tour with another name on the same date". Another customer states that "They sold our paid-hotel reservation to another customer, told us to go to another hotel with an extra fee. They do not care about our discomfort and stress at all". Another stressful customer comment is that "The representatives' interest is very low. We made a reservation and paid the price but once we get to the hotel, it was occupied". In another instance, "The representatives never respond. We make a reservation, they withdraw the money but the room is not available. Not a trustable site and service". The comments reveal that there should be quality standards of the organization while influencing the purchase of customers. The representatives should handle the stress of the customers and their stress professionally. According to Gurer and Bozaci, stress decreases due to the mediator effect of leader-member interaction (Gurer & Bozaci, 2019). That is why the leadership skills of customer representatives along with the cooperation of team leaders and training are crucial to creating a strong bond with the customers.

In terms of problem-solving of customers, the delivery of wrong information by the customer representatives, and the subject of institutionalism, there are severe comments of customers. For instance, one customer comment is that "The representatives are not professional. They have a sales-focus mind first and do not focus on solving customer problems after the sales". In providing wrong information, one customer comment is that "Every service has a price although we bought an all-inclusive service package. The representatives lead us in the wrong direction, provide wrong information, and cannot continue the process appropriately". Another comment is that "The service information on the website is not what the representatives told us. We believe that they want to make sales as fast as possible". In the subject of institutionalism, there are several comments of customers for the organization. One essential comment is that "There is a problem in corporate governance. The processes take too long and there are wrong declarations for the delivery of services. There is the satisfaction of customers at the beginning but it disappears later". Another key customer comment is that "The customer representatives do not take the responsibility of their actions, explain the level of services transparently, and fulfill the needs of customers". As being the voice of the organization, the customer representatives should step up and show their leadership with the governance principles to convince the customers and offer appropriate services to satisfy them. As the study of Othman and Rahman (2014) indicates that considering the servant leadership style, the guidance of corporate leadership towards a high standard of governance practices is important.

According to the opinions of customers about the interest of representatives, there are important comments. One comment is that "The representatives show little interest in customer problems, do not listen, and cannot handle customer complaints. Empathy is necessary". In another comment, "The customer representative shows no interest although we made a reservation, paid the price but the hotel is occupied when we get there". With these types of incidents, the customers criticize that "The representatives never call you back even though they say they will, impossible to reach them, no refund policy at all although you are right and they make delays". One of the reasons why the customer representatives do not call the customer back can be due to their job stress in call centers, as mentioned in the study of Isik and Hamurcu (2017) but no matter what the situation brings, they should provide the quality services professionally and satisfactorily.

The lack of authority, weak communication, and discount/campaign problems are the other issues the customers mention. According to one comment "The representatives lack the authority to solve any type of problem the customer faces". In terms of communication, one comment is that "The representatives have a weak communication, especially in urgent situations, do not comfort the customers, and satisfy their needs although you are absolutely right about the matter". In terms of providing discount for the services, one comment shows the unhappiness for the service. “The customer representatives say that there is no real discount or campaign or there is a little information in certain situations but the website shows the opposite situation”.

In terms of showing the leadership styles of customer representatives; caring others, high-quality service providing, appreciation of others, listening, showing empathy, valuing customers and trustworthiness are missing throughout the communication process with the customers, which are essential ingredients in servant leadership as they are mentioned in the study of Spears (2010) from a different perspective. The customers look for excellent services along with comfort from the online travel agencies and the representatives of these agencies, and if any problem occurs, they want to believe that they can easily call the customer representatives on the phone and solve their problems satisfactorily.

The truth is without the high-quality service, trustworthiness, and empathy and understanding the concerns of the customers, paying attention to what the customers need and ask for, they will never demand service for the future, which is a huge loss for the organizations’ prestige and sales. That is why with the perspective of servant leadership, the customer representatives in call centers of online travel agencies should be well-trained and equipped with the necessary tools to satisfy the needs of the customers no matter how difficult the situation is. The love of serving the customers along with the gained leadership attributes should come first instead of paying attention to increased sales figures for the organization. Another key point is that working closely with the team leaders in the organization will boost the customer representatives’ leadership skills to handle difficult situations they come across and serve better.

6. Conclusion

The fundamental approach of this study is to understand and analyze the leadership styles of customer representatives of online travel agencies through content analysis. Along with the theoretical background of servant leadership theory, this exploratory study is one of the early studies focusing on the leadership styles of customer representatives, in this case the servant leadership, while serving the customers in call centers of online travel agencies.

Based on the results of the study, the vast majority of the customers are very sensitive towards the level of services they get, the speed of problem-solving with the help of the customer representatives, and strong communication with the service provider whenever it is necessary to solve key obstacles such as the reservation problems and the timely arrangements. The results reveal that along with the understanding of servant leadership style, the customer representatives can serve the customers much better than before. Thus, it is critical for the customer representatives in call centers of online travel agencies to serve better and increase awareness for the delivery of services to the customers.

The study comes with a few limitations. Only a limited number of customer comments on customer representatives' services and approaches for one year period through a specific website take place in this exploratory study. For future research, other available comments for customer representatives can be investigated in the selected national or international travel organizations, other than the online services. After investigating the customer comments on customer representatives' level of services and their leadership styles, the categorization of customer problems and the use of leadership attributes in different situations can be investigated.

7. References

Agras, S., & Emre, G. E. N. C. (2018). The Relations of Organizational Commitment and Burnout: A Qualitative Research on a Call Center. *International Journal of Western Black Sea Social and Humanities Sciences*, *2*(1), 35-55.

Babakus, E., Yavas, U., & Ashill, N. J. (2010). Service worker burnout and turnover intentions: Roles of person-job fit, servant leadership, and customer orientation. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 32(1), 17-31.

Bartram, T., & Casimir, G. (2007). The relationship between leadership and follower in-role performance and satisfaction with the leader: The mediating effects of empowerment and trust in the leader. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 28(1), 4-19.

Berry, L. L., Parasuraman, A., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1994). Improving service quality in America: lessons learned. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 8(2), 32-45.

Boukis, A., Koritos, C., Daunt, K. L., & Papastathopoulos, A. (2020). Effects of customer incivility on frontline employees and the moderating role of supervisor leadership style. *Tourism Management*, 77, 103997.

Celik, S. (2017, October). An Assessment Method for Employees Performance Evaluation Using Cluster Analysis. In *Proceedings of International Academic Conferences* (No. 5908119). International Institute of Social and Economic Sciences.

Chu, H. W. (2008). *Employee perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a call center: A correlational study* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Phoenix).

De la Croix de Castries, J. (2017). *Using artificial intelligence to enhance personalization of customer relationship management in the contact center space: Afiniti's technology case study* (Doctoral dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology).

Dutta, S., Kumar Chauhan, R., & Chauhan, K. (2017). Factors affecting customer satisfaction of online travel agencies in India. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 23(2), 267-277.

Gurer, A., & Bozaci, I. (2019). The role of leader-member ınteraction in the effect of stress after a traumatic event in the workplace to customer orientation: a field study in the call center. *Hitit University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 12(2), 481-497.

Isik, M., & Hamurcu, A. (2017). The role of job stress at emotional labor's effect on the intention to leave: Evidence from call center employees. *Business and Economic Horizons*, *13*(1232-2019-728), 652-665.

Kisi, N. (2016). Prioritization of Call Center Agent Competences through Analytic Hierarchy Process Method. *Cumhuriyet University Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, 17(2), 145-160.

Muthuveloo, R., Kathamuthu, K., & Ping, T. A. (2014). Impact of leadership styles on employee adaptability in call center: A perspective of telecommunication industry in Malaysia. *Asian Social Science*, 10(7), 96.

Naor, M., & Coman, A. (2017). Offshore responsiveness: theory of Constraints innovates customer services. *The Service Industries Journal*, 37(3-4), 155-166.

Onat, O. (2014). Customer Satisfaction is the biggest plus of call centers, from http://www.itnetwork.com.tr/musteri-memnuniyeti-cagri-merkezlerinin-en-buyuk-artisidir/ accessed: 02.01.2020.

Othman, Z., & Rahman, R. A. (2014). Attributes of ethical leadership in leading good governance. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 15(2), 359-372.

Parris, D. L., & Peachey, J. W. (2013). A systematic literature review of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 113(3), 377-393.

Robinson, G. M. (2018). *Leadership and social effectiveness in sport: conceptualizations and investigation of servant leadership and political skill* (Doctoral dissertation).

Ruggieri, S., & Abbate, C. S. (2013). Leadership style, self-sacrifice, and team identification. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 41(7), 1171-1178.

Russell, R., & Stone, A. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 23(3), 145-157.

Sirohi, S. (2018). *Marketing Strategies Adopted By Makemytrip.Com* (Doctoral Dissertation).

Spears, L. C. (2010). Character and servant leadership: Ten characteristics of effective, caring leaders. *The Journal of Virtues & Leadership*, 1(1), 25-30.

Subramanian, K. R. (2018). The connection between your employees and customers. *Journal of Advanced Research in Business Management and Accounting*, 4(8), 1-14.

Sun, P. Y. (2013). The servant identity: Influences on the cognition and behavior of servant leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(4), 544-557.

Taylor, P., & Peter, B. (1999). An assembly line in the head: Work and employee relations in the call center. *Industrial Relations Journal*, 30(2), 101-117.

Wallece, C., Eagleson, G., & Waldersee, R. (2000). The sacrificial hr strategy in call centers. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 11(2), 174-184.

Zhou, R., Wang, X., Shi, Y., Zhang, R., Zhang, L., & Guo, H. (2018). Measuring e-service quality and its importance to customer satisfaction and loyalty: an empirical study in a telecom setting. *Electronic Commerce Research*, 1-23.

Jomat

Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism
2020, 5 (1): 17-27
www.jomat.org

ISSN: 2645-9078
OLD ISSN: 2548-0847

Relationships among Self-efficacy, Job Resourcefulness and Job Performance of Hotel Cooks in Cappadocia

Emrah Keskin

Keywords:
Self-efficacy,
Job Resourcefulness,
Job Performance,
Gastronomic Tourism

Article History:
Submitted:12.12.2019
Accepted: 24.05.2020

ABSTRACT

One of the significant service sectors, tourism sector has a prominent effect on the economic, social and cultural development of countries. Cappadocia region is one of the most important tourist attractions located in Turkey. Many a tourist visits the region each year, due to which the quality of service being good is regarded invaluable in terms of the advertisement of the region, making it known more widely, and its development economically. This conducted study has great importance with regard to gastronomic tourism, one of the alternative tourism types. The improvement of gastronomic tourism is closely related to the creation of quality products. Quality products are dependent upon the dedication of the cooks on their work, and their job performance being high. Because of this fact, the study tends to define the relationship among the self-efficacy of the cooks working in the hotels in the Cappadocia region, their work-resourcefulness; in other words, job resourcefulness, and their performances at their workplaces; in other words, their job performance. In the research carried out, the data related to it were collected making use of the quantitative research method, survey technique. During the collection of the data, the scales of self-sufficiency, job-resourcefulness and job-performance were implemented. The model developed by Baron and Kenny (1986) was benefitted from, and relationships were defined via regression analyses. The result of the study signifies a positive correlation among the pre-mentioned concepts.

Doi: https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.691475

1. Introduction

The economic changes occurring in the world have made it compulsory to make amendments on the structures of organizations and work procedures; and have forced the organizations to make regulations to keep pace with the changing circumstances. As a result of this, in the competitive working environment and in the workplace chaos, workers have started to become stronger and play active roles to put their work in order so as to become more successful (Chapman, 2005). This change emerging within the workers has not only enhanced the organizational output due to the regulations applied to work, but also has forced the workers to empower their conditions. The raising of the state of being good is a condition in relation to the individuals' belief of self-efficacy they own. The self-efficacy level an individual believes s/he has been defined as a significant parameter of motivation affecting performance (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). Self-efficacy, which is in relation with an individual's perseverance and determination under tough and changing circumstances and excelling him/herself with regard to his/her performance, is an active power to reach goals (Multon et al, 1991; Pajares, 1997).

During the periods when economic recession and instability arise, organizations strive to keep their income levels at the highest. At the critical periods of the organizations, the participation and efficiency of the workers have become the focal points at the organizations' easily overcoming such predicaments and the rising of the organizations' performance. The efficiency the workers of the organizations have has constituted the job resourcefulness concept for features like efficiency and activity. The job resourcefulness concept decreasing workers' intention to quit their job and contributing to their job performance in respect to increasing it and self-satisfaction of their work and the concept of self-efficacy contributing to the workers' vocational development and to the rise in their expectations regarding their careers (O'Brien et al, 2000; Erwins, 2001; Kanungo & Misra, 1992) are the two eminent factors playing a significant role in increasing the workers' success.

Emrah Keskin: *Asst. Prof. Dr., Nevşehir HBV University Faculty of Tourism, Email: ekeskin@nevsehir.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0001-6565-4265*

In the tourism sector, one of the sectors where products of service are realized, the employee turnover rate speed's being quick and the negativity caused by this being reflected on the quality of the product (Deery, 2002) have made the concepts of self-efficacy and job resourcefulness crucial. Previous researches (Goddary, Hoy and Hoy, 2004; Şahin and Gürbüz, 2012; Aşık, 2016) put forward that self-efficacy impact work-performance positively. This study aims to reveal whether the self-efficacy levels and the job resourcefulness levels of the cooks that serve in the kitchen department, which is an important section of the accommodation establishments, affect their job performances as well as whether self-efficacy has any effects over job resourcefulness.

2. Literature Review

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy, which is genuinely related to the belief on oneself regarding his/her performance, and the power of the person to make use of his/her performance under other circumstances, and the consistent attitude one has had during his/her previous accomplishments, is defined as the belief on oneself regarding if s/he will be able to successfully accomplish some job (Maddux, 1995). The concept of self-efficacy, one of the key components of the social cognitive theory, is defined as the necessary motivation one has to reach the goals s/he has set; and his/her beliefs on oneself with regard to his/her capacities on how to construct cognitive resources and evolvement styles (Bandura, 1977).

When the studies carried out on self-efficacy were analyzed, it was defined that the belief on oneself is reflected on one's life-style (Mety, 2014). Stajkovis and Luthans (1998), Mau (2000), Luthans and Peterson (2002) defined that the people with a self-belief of a high level of self-efficacy experience less psychological and physical anxiety in the works they do; and that their job performances are high. The feeling of self-efficacy that people have contributes to them to feel psychologically strong towards the deeds they will do, and to succeed in them (Compeau and Higgins, 1995; Bandura, 1997; Kenny et al, 2012). The individuals with high levels of self-efficacy are more succeccful than the individuals with low levels of self-efficacy at turning the difficulties they face into opportunities (Bandura, 1986; Mclaughlin et al, 2008).

Self-efficacy, attributed to as individuals' ability to keep their environment under control, is closely related to the stress arisen at the workplace. If an individual's belief of his/her self-efficacy related to his/her work is low, the individual then faces stress and anxiety at his/her workplace; if his/her belief of his/her self-efficacy is high, the individual can tackle and solve the problems more quickly and effectively by coping with stress and anxiety (Leither, 1992). Lu and his friends (2005) expressed that the individuals with high levels of self-efficacy feelings have specified problem-oriented and rational strategies and they are focused on success. Self-efficacy, more related to the beliefs of the individuals on their abilities rather than the abilities they actually have, is affected by the individuals' direct or indirect past experiences, by the warnings or suggestions given by the people around the individuals' environment, and by psychological factors. Therefore, an individual's own positive experiences, the positive experiences other parties have had, successful people's warnings and suggestions, the act of being psychologically strong contribute to the belief on self-efficacy being high (Lee and Ok , 2015).

Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy perception of themselves start their endeavor in a highly-motivated and success-oriented fashion, and can get rid of the circumstances that may have bad influence on them much more quickly. In the studies carried out, the belief of self-efficacy has been proved to be a significant variable with regard to the rise of individuals' performance at workplace as well as the individuals' making effective decisions. Furthermore, it has been determined that there is a positive correlation between self-efficacy and work-satisfaction; and a negative correlation between self-efficacy and stress & exhaustion (Akgündüz, 2013; Yu et al, 2009).

Job resourcefulness

In the modern world of business, the economic uncertainty and instability being experienced force the managers working for establishments to work more fruitfully and to raise the profit of their business to top levels. With the arisen circumstance, the researchers are urged to investigate the concepts of productivity and efficiency. In the light shed by the studies carried out over the productivity and efficiency concepts, the concept of job-resourcefulness has also started to gain more importance (Ashill et al, 2009; Harris et al, 2006; Licata et al, 2003; Michel and Ashill, 2009). Licata and her colleagues (2013) define the term job-resourcefulness as creating tendencies to overcome the obstacles to accomplish the goals related to work and to preserve limited resources.

In the hospitality industry, where a fierce competition exists (Güneren Özdemir and Yılmaz, 2016), providing high quality service is regarded as the major role in active success, and presenting the service in an excellent way is considered to be a significant strategy (Tsaur et al, 2014; Johanson and Woods, 2008). The social service behavior of the service providers working at hotel managements is regarded as customer-oriented service, and this influences the long-term success of the hotels (Malhotra and Ackfeldt, 2016). Job-resourcefulness, posing an essential factor on the performance of the establishment works, their creativity and intentions to quit job (Harris et al, 2013; Karatepe and Douri, 2012; Semedo et al, 2016), is considered utterly vital with regard to the establishments' increasing their level of service quality. As a result, the resourceful (abled) workers working for these companies are able to be more efficient by implementing creative solutions when the resources are insufficient (Ashill et al, 2009; Karakuş et al, 2018).

Contractually, job resourcefulness happens to begin owing to individual's personal features or the circumstances occurring around the workplace. The personal features the individual has happen to have an influence on how to behave under which circumstance. The personal traits of an individual such as being introverted or extroverted, level of integrity, being able to make use of past experiences, being open-minded to others' opinions and being well-intended have vital role in preventing the pressures regarding work (Donavan et al, 2004; Licata et al, 2003).

The job-resourcefulness concept, which is studied under three dimensions, is comprised of staff assessment regarding the services provided for customers (being customer-oriented), the assessment of the staff for their own performance (self-assessment), and the assessment of the manager on the staff's performance. Job Resourcefulness, closely related to the personal features of the staff and extremely effective on job performance, also plays a great role in increasing efficiency and productivity. The closer the work done is to the personal features of the staff, the higher levels the efficiency reaches up (Licata et al, 2003; Harris et al, 2006; Meyer and Allen, 1984).

Job resourcefulness is a vital element for the individuals to wend their way to successful results (Licata et al, 2003). Given the studies carried out on work forcefulness; the employees with high levels of job resourcefulness are observed to have excellent capacities to solve problems and make efficient decisions. They are also observed to signify positive relationships among job resourcefulness, work satisfaction and job performance and a negative relationship to quitting work (Gintner et al, 1989; Harris, 2013; Karatepe and Douri, 2012; Semedo et al, 2016). Consequently, job resourcefulness is considered to contribute significantly to an increase in job performance. The existence of employees with high job resourcefulness in such a labor intensive sector as tourism both contributes to the sector and might pose a positive impact on rising the contentedness of the guests.

Job performance

Performance, regarding the workpeople's behavior pattern under specific circumstances and a duty fulfilled expresses the completion of a job by means of pre-specified resources and by a pre-specified due (Bingöl, 2003). Job performance, defined as the efficiency set forth by workpeople in exchange for a certain amount of fee they get from establishments, is closely associated with the state of being motivated (Rousseau and Mclean, 1993). The concept of job performance has begun to gain a profuse significance in the current business world where extent of business and service quality are incessantly improving. Increasing job performance is of vital importance to ameliorate an enterprise's profitableness, to create quality products and to maintain sustainable company policies. Working with staff with high levels of job performance not only gains companies financial profit, but also allows them the chance to work with satisfied personnel (Li et al, 2012).

Job performance, constituting the whole of the behavior in line with the company's set goals, is the process during which the products created at a specific time at a specific activity are recorded and evaluated. Tangen (2004) emphasizes that this process comprises of the dimensions of efficiency, adequacy, quality, productivity, the quality of the working environment, innovation, determination and affordability (Williams, 2002; Bernardin et al, 1995; Tangen, 2004). The aforementioned dimensions show that companies must place enough emphasis on increasing job performance.

3. Methodology

As a consequence of the literature review covered, relationships among self-efficacy, job resourcefulness and job performance were aimed to be analyzed. A model was designed so as to identify the relationships, and hypotheses were defined based on this model.

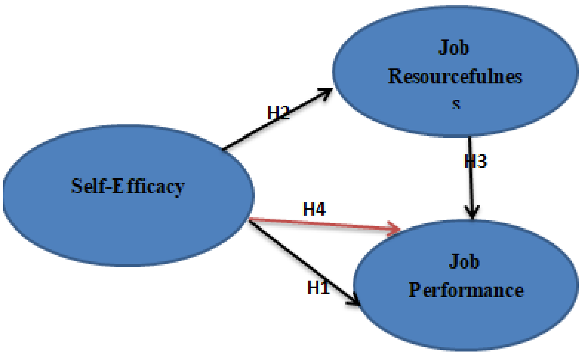

Figure1: Research Model

Source: Author

H1: Self-efficacy has positive effect on job performance.

H2: Self-efficacy has positive effect on job resourcefulness.

H3: Job resourcefulness has positive effect on job performance.

H4: Job resourcefulness has mediation effect on the effect of self-efficacy on job performance.

In the research, in order to quantify self-efficacy, the self-efficacy scale comprising of 17 statements and 3 dimensions developed by Magaletta and Oliver (1999) was made use of. The reliability and validity checks of the Turkish version were carried out by Yıldırım and İlhan (2010). So as to quantify job resourcefulness, the job resourcefulness scale devised by Licata and her colleagues (2003) comprising of one dimension and four statements was made use of. For the purpose of quantifying job performance, the job performance scale developed by Kirkman and Rosen (1999). Then the scale developed by Sigler and Pearson (2000) was used.

The research was realized on the kitchen staff of four or five star hotels in Cappadocia region. In 2019 (September and October), during which period the data for the study were collected, as the data collected from Nevşehir Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism indicate, there are seventeen four-star hotels and six five-star hotels in the region. In the light of the meetings with the hotel managers, it was specified that there were 243 kitchen staff in these hotels. The whole universe was reached instead of sampling due to the fact that the personnel count working in the hotels was compatible with an exact count. In the interviews conducted, 11 workers did not participate in the questionnaire conduct, and 14 workers did not fill in the questionnaire conduct forms. Thus, the analyses of the study were carried through via 218 questionnaire data.

4. Findings

In this part of the study, whether the data exhibit normal distribution or not was investigated. A datum that exhibits normal distribution must have

Table 1: The Factor Loads, Item Correlations and Variance Values of the Self-efficacy Scale

Self- Efficacy Items	Item Correlations	Item Loads	
While planning, I'm sure that I can put my plans into practice and actually implement them.	.318	.573	KMO:: .753 Barlett's: 800.913 Sig: .000 Explained Variance Factor1: 25.634 Factor2: 10.534 Factor3:8.429 Total Variance: 44.596
One of my problems is not being able to start work on time.	.467	.455	
If I can not do a duty of mine at my first trial, I endeavor until I manage it.	.261	.794	
I can not really succeed at reaching the important goals I have determined.	.483	.487	
I leave everything unfinished.	-	-	
I mind facing hardships.	.391	.445	
I do not even start doing something if it seems too complicated.	.585	.629	
When I have to do something I do not appreciate, I put myself until I complete it.	.498	.483	
I embark quickly when I have decided to do something.	.464	.421	
When I try something new, I give up quickly if I can not succeed.	.476	.516	
I can not overcome them easily when I come across unexpected impediments.	.516	.540	
I avoid learning new thing that seem difficult to me.	.622	.729	
Failure ascends my determination.	.403	.335	
I do not always count on my abilities much.	.509	.506	
I am a self-confident person.	.591	.691	
I give up easily.	.629	.751	
I do not feel like I will be able to overcome most of the obstacles I will encounter in life.	.361	.341	

* *Correlations are significant on the level of 0.01 (bidirectional).

Source: Author

a standart deviation value of about 1, and must have a skewness and kurtosis value within the span of -3 and +3 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). In the analyses carried out, the data were determined to exhibit normal distribution (sd: between 0.58 and 1.06; skewness: between -1.362 and -0.221; Kurtosis: between -0.431 and 2.780). Upon the normal distribution analyses, the reliability of the scales was investigated. During the reliability studies, the fifth item was taken out of the scale as it decreased the reliability of the scale. After the procedure, the reliability value of the self-efficacy scale (Cronbach's Alpha) ranked 0.77; the reliability value (Cronbach's Alpha) of the job resourcefulness scale ranked 0.73; and the reliability value (Cronbach's Alpha) of the job performance scale was specified as 0.75. The attained results indicate that the scales are reliable.

On table 1 being scrutinized, it was determined that it was grouped under 3 dimensions and that the variance ratio of the 3 dimensional structure is 44.596 %. In the analyses, it was determined that the items' factor loads vary between 0.742 and 0.366. Given the item total correlations, the correlation coefficient is between 0.261 and 0.629.

Table 2: The Factor Loads, Item Correlations and Variance Values regarding Job Resourcefulness Scale

Job Resourcefulness Items	Item Correlations	Item Loads	KMO: .712 Barlett's: 200.478 Sig: .000 Explained Variance Factor1: 56.498 Total Variance: 56.498
I am very clever and enterprising in doing my job.	.700	.668	
I am a very resourceful person in finding ways to do my job.	.802	.807	
I pride myself on being able to make things happen in the face of scarcity.	.736	.760	
On the job I am inventive in overcoming barriers	.763	.765	

* * Correlations are significant on the level of 0.01 (bidirectional).
Source: Author

Given table 2, it was specified that the total variance ratio of the job resourcefulness scale consisting of one dimension is 56,498 %. In the analyses conducted, the factor loads related to the items were indicated to vary between 0.807 and ,668. Studying item total correlations, it was determined that the correlation ratios are within the span between, 0.700 and 0.802.

When table 3 was looked into, it was defined that the job performance scale consisting of one dimension has a total variance ratio of 57.868 %. In the analyses carried out, the factor loads of the items were defined to vary between ,664 and ,832. Also, item total correlations were specified to vary between 0.746 and 0.828.

Table 3: Factor Loads, Item Correlations and Variance Values regarding the Job Performance Scale

Job Performance Items	Item Correlations	Item Loads	KMO: .724 Barlett's: 215.709 Sig: .000 Explained Variance Factor1: 57.868 Total Variance: 57.868
I reach more than my goals related to job.	.746	.764	
I complete my duties right on time.	.769	.773	
I am pretty sure of complying with the standards of quality.	.828	.832	
My level of performance I pose at work is high.	.693	.664	

* * Correlations are significant on the level of 0.01 (bidirectional).
Source: Author

Upon the results having been revealed, the correlation relations of the scales with each other were calculated.

Table 4: Analysis Results of the Correlation among the Scales of Self-efficacy, Job Resourcefulness and Job Performance

Scales	Self-efficacy	Job Resourcefulness	Job Performance
Self-efficacy	-	.772	.806
Job Resourcefulness	.772	-	.849
Job Performance	.806	.849	-

** Correlations are significant on the level of 0.01 (bidirectional).
Source: Author

Table 4 being considered, strong positive correlational relationships are visible among self-efficacy, job resourcefulness and job performance.

In this part of the study, whether self-efficacy has a positive effect on job performance was aimed to be found out. To achieve the target, regression analysis was made use of.

Table 5: The Result of the Simple Regression Analysis to Define the Effect of Self-efficacy on Job Performance

R Ratio: 0.806 . R^2: 0.649 . Rounded R^2: 0. 647. Standard Error:0.272					
Dimension	**B**	**Seβ**	**Beta**	**T**	**Sig**
(Invariable)	.637	.181	-	3.525	.001
Self-efficacy	.906	.046	.806	19.984	.000

Source: Author

On table 5, the results of simple regression analysis related to the effect of self-efficacy on job performance were given. The analyses having been looked into, it can be stated that self-efficacy is effective on job-performance. Self-efficacy explains the 64 % (Rounded R^2:0.647) of the change at job performance. This attained ratio indicates that the belief of self-efficacy of the cooks working for 4 and 5 star hotels has a significant role in their job performance. In accordance with the standardized regression coefficient (ß), a strong positive connection between self-efficacy and job performance was signified (ß=0.806, p=.000). As a consequence of the analyses, the first hypothesis of the study has been accepted. The result attained parallels the other studies that were carried out. On the second step of the hypothesis tests, a simple regression analysis was put through to define the effect of self-efficacy on job resourcefulness.

Table 6: The results of Simple Regression Analysis to Define the Effect of Self-efficacy on Job Resourcefulness

R Coefficient: 0.772 . R^2: 0.596 . Rounded R^2: 0. 594. Standard Error:0.311					
Dimension	**B**	**Seβ**	**Beta**	**T**	**Sig**
(Invariable)	.523	.207	-	2.527	.012
Self-efficacy	.927	.052	.772	17.835	.000

Source: Author

On table 6, the outcomes of the simple regression analysis to analyze the effect of self-sufficiency on job resourcefulness are given. On the analyses having been looked into, it can be mentioned that self-efficacy is effective on job resourcefulness. According to the results, self-efficacy explains 59 % (rounded R^2:0.594) of the change at job resourcefulness. In accordance with the standardized regression coefficient (ß), there is a strong positive relationship between self-efficacy and job resourcefulness (ß=0.772, p=.000). The analyses carried out prove the second hypothesis of the researcher right. The result attained puts forth there is a positive correlation between self-efficacy and job resourcefulness.

Table 7: The Results of the Simple Regression Analysis to Specify the Effect of Job Resourcefulness on Job Performance

R Coefficient: 0,849 , R^2: 0,721 , Rounded R^2: 0, 720, Standard Error:0,242					
Dimension	**B**	**Seβ**	**Beta**	**T**	**Sig**
(Invariable)	.891	.142	-	6.264	.000
Job Resourcefulness	.796	.034	.849	23.624	.000

Source: Author

On table 7, the results of the simple regression analysis regarding the effect of job resourcefulness on job performance stand. Given the analysis, it can be stated that job-resourcefulness is effective on job performance. The results indicate that job resourcefulness explains 72 % (rounded R^2:0,720) of the change at job performance. In accordance with the standardized regression coefficient (ß), a strong positive correlation between job resourcefulness and job performance was identified (ß=0.849, p=.000). This outcome has shown that a cook with a high extent of job resourcefulness can also have a high extent of job performance. In the light of the analyses, the third hypothesis of the research was also proved right.

Table 8: The Results of the Multi-Regression Analysis to Define the Mediator Role of Job Resourcefulness on the Effect of Self-efficacy over Job Performance

R Coefficient:0.881. R^2: 0.777.Rounded R^2:0.775. Standard Error: 0.217							
Dimension	B	Seβ	Beta	T	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
(Invariable)	.361	.147	-	2.466	.014		
Self-efficacy	.418	.057	.372	7.337	.000	.404	2.473
Job Resourcefulness	.527	.047	.562	11.099	.000		

Source: Author

Before analyzing the relations between the variables, a prospective multi-connection problem was checked. So as to specify a multi-connection problem, variance increase factor (VIF) and tolerance values were examined. The occurrence of VIF being more than 10.0 and the tolerance being lower than 0,10 expresses the existence of a multi-connection problem (Hair et al, 1998). The conducted analyses determined VIF to be 2.473 and tolerance to be 0,404, which are appropriate values, signifying the non-existence of multi-connection problems.

During the initial phase of the analysis, a strong positive relation (ß= 0.806, p=.000) between self-efficacy and job performance was discovered. On the second phase, a high-level positive relation (ß=0,772, p=,000) between self-efficacy and job resourcefulness; on the third phase of the analysis, a positive and high level relation (ß=0.849, p=.000) between job resourcefulness and job performance were specified. Owing to the three variables being in positive relations between one another, during the fourth phase, the mediator role of job resourcefulness in the effect of self-efficacy on job performance was efforted to be determined. Within the framework of the results obtained, a positive and low-level relation (ß=0.372, p=.000) between the independent variable (self-efficacy) and the dependent variable (job performance) was discovered to exist. Baron and Kenny (1986) being referred to, it was found out in the analysis results that the effect of self-efficacy on job performance decreased (from ß=0.806 to 0.372). By reason of this fact, job resourcefulness can be regarded to have a partial mediator effect on the effect of self-efficacy on job performance. In the light shed by the obtained findings, H4 was partially accepted.

Within the context of the study, upon the acceptance of the fourth hypothesis and the discovery of the partial mediation effect, it was endeavored to ensure the mediation effect using sobel test (Şimşek, 2007: 25), which has been identified in the literature and is stated to generate reliable results. To Jose (2013), initially, the B and Seß values between the independent variable and the mediator variable must be specified, then specifying the B and SEß values of the variable, which has the role of the mediation role in the analysis where the effect of the independent variable and the mediator variable on the dependent variable is determined must be fulfilled. In the regression analyses, the pre-mentioned values were found out. When the determined values are analyzed via the computer program, the Z value of Sobel test was calculated as 9,491 and $p < .001$. To be able to mention about the mediation effect properly, the score of the Sobel Test must be above 1.96, and the p value must be significant (Fraizer et al, 2004). In the light of the calculations, it was identified that the Z value was determined above 1.96, and the p value was significant. This attained result exerts that job resourcefulness has a mediator role in the effect of self-efficacy over job performance.

5. Conclusion

The fact that tourism sector has a vital contribution to the development of regions and countries brings it to forefront. The destinations that have tourism potential generate new forms of tourism to take advantage of the resources that they have to the best of their capacity and richness. Gastronomic tourism, one of the significant forms of tourism sector, contributes to a great extent to the promotion of the food and beverage culture of the regions. Hotel establishments carrying on their business in the tourism sector play a significant part in providing the people visiting these regions with the gastronomical values the regions possess, thus, the cooks working in the kitchens of these hotel establishments have great duties in this respect. Presently, regions have been competing fiercely in order to promote their own cuisine cultures and to accommodate the tourists that visit their regions on gastronomical tours. Performance, expressing the efficiency employee exhibit in return for the fee they get from the establishments, is a necessary source of motivation for the employees to succeed at what they do. Food and beverage department, one of the keystone units of the lodging industry, must have a high level quality of service due to the fact that it creates customer loyalty thanks to the service it provides. Increasing the service quality is in close relation to job performance. The job performance cooks have play an essential role in increasing the profitableness of the establishments they work for, creating high quality products and in the constitution of sustainable establishment policies. Therefore, the performance of the cooks being high is of great value to the establishments.

Given the researches carried out by Chen and his colleagues (2002), Gist (1989), Heslin and Latham (2004), Prussia and his colleagues (1998), Pulakos and her colleagues (2002), Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), it has been determined that the individuals with high levels of self-efficacy also have high perception of performance towards their jobs. In these studies, which investigate the self-efficacy and job resourcefulness perceptions of cooks on their job performance, a powerful positive relationship between self-efficacy and job performance was observed. Within the framework of the analyses, it was also ascertained that the cooks with the feeling of self-efficacy also pose higher job performance. Given the relations between job resourcefulness and job performance, in the studies they carried out, Harris and his colleagues (2013), Karatepe and Douri (2012), Semedo and her friends (2016), Karatepe and Ağa (2012), Gintner and his colleagues (1989) mention that the staff with high levels of job resourcefulness also have high levels of job satisfaction, ascended job performance and lower levels of intention to quit their jobs. This study has a supporting nature given the previous studies. In addition to them, it sets forth that there is a strong positive relation between the job resourcefulness level of the cooks employed in the hotel establishments pose and their job performance. Therefore, ascending the job resourcefulness of the cooks working in the tourism sector can contribute to the ascension in their job performance.

Another finding attained from the study is the effect of self-efficacy on job resourcefulness. Given the literature, there is no predecessor study quantifying the relationship between self-efficacy and job resourcefulness. Job resourcefulness, a vital tool for the employed to overcome the impediments they encounter at their jobs while reaching their targets and to take advantage of the limited resources they have in the most fruitful way they may, might stem from the self-efficacy belief individuals have. This study tests whether self-efficacy has an impact on job resourcefulness. Given the data obtained, it has been signified that there is a positive and powerful correlation between self-efficacy and job resourcefulness. This attained result has put forward that the cooks who embed substantial self-efficacy belief can also exhibit substantial level of job resourcefulness.

In the last phase of the study, there is an exertion to define how self-efficacy and job resourcefulness simultaneously affect job performance. As a result of the analyses carried out, job resourcefulness has been defined to only have a partial mediator role in the effect of self-efficacy on job performance.

In consequence of the results attained, the main principle of the hotel establishments, the major goal of which is to make profit, is to supply the visiting guests with quality service and to create customer satisfaction. Hotels must work with the personnel who are satisfied by their job and who have high job performance. There exist many motivational sources affecting the ascension of job performance. This conducted study has identified that two of the factors ascending the motivation of the establishment employees are self-efficacy and job resourcefulness. Thus, if hoteliers contribute to the ascension of the self-efficacy belief and job resourcefulness levels of the cooks working in the hotel kitchens, this will contribute to an increase in their job-related performance. And the ascended job performance will ensure the creation of quality products, customer satisfaction and thus, increased profitability.

In conclusion, ameliorating the potentials of the employees working in the kitchens of hotel establishments and touristic restaurants can be attributed to these employees' belief of self-efficacy and their level of job resourcefulness. In order for the improvement of the gastronomical tourism and obtaining ascension in customers' culinary satisfaction, there is a need for cooks with substantial job performance. On condition that the hotel managers can increase the self-efficacy belief and the extent of job resourcefulness of their personnel working for their establishments, they can also contribute to their personnel's job performance ascension. This study was carried out based on the cooks employed by the hotels located in the Cappadocia Region, and in this study, the relations among the self-efficacy, job resourcefulness and job performance of these cooks working for the hotels located in the region were investigated.

Lastly, this study puts forth the fact that the self-sufficiency and the job-resourcefulness of the cooks working in the hotels in the Cappadocia Region had effects over their job-performance. In the forthcoming studies, whether job-resourcefulness plays any role in the effect of job-performance over job-satisfaction and job-commitment can be investigated. Making comparisons of the relationships between job-resourcefulness and self-sufficiency and personality structures and looking into them, the effects of these relationships on job-performance can be signified. Besides, the study was limited to the four and five star hotels located in Cappadocia. By changing the research universe, new results can be attained.

6. References

Akgündüz, Y. (2013). Konaklama işletmelerinde iş doyumu, yaşam doyumu ve öz yeterlilik arasındaki ilişkinin analizi. *CBÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, Vol. 11 No 1, pp. 180-204. https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/45851

Ashill, N.J., Rod M., Peter T., and Janet Carruthers (2009). Job resourcefulness, symptoms of burnout and service recovery performance: An examination of call centre frontline employees. *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 23 No. 5, pp. 338–350. https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040910973440

Aşık, A. N. (2016). Öz yeterlik ve işle bütünleşmenin çalışanların iş performansına etkisi: Otel işletmelerinde bir araştırma. *Akademik Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, Vol. 32, pp. 24-34. https://doi.org/10.16992/ASOS.3469

Bandura, A. (1986). Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1977) Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, Vol. 84, pp. 191-215. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Bandura, A. (1997), Personal efficacy in psychobiologic functioning. .GV. Caprara, (Ed.), Bandura: A Leader in Psychology (pp: 43-66). Milano: Franco Angeli.

Baron, R.M. and Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 51, pp. 1173-1182. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173

Bernardin, H.J., Kane, J., Ross, S., Spina, J. and Johnson, D. (1995). Performance appraisal design, development, and implementation. R. Ferris R., S. Rosen and D. Barnum, (Ed.), Handbook of Human Resource Management (pp: 462-493). Cambridge: Blackwell.

Bingöl, D. (2003). İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi, Fifth Edition, Ankara: Beta Yayıncılık.

Chapman, L.S. (2005). Presenteeism and ıts role in worksite health promotion. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, Vol. 19, pp. 1-8. https://doi.org/10.4278/0890-1171-19.1.TAHP-1

Chen, G., Bliese, P.D., Payne, S.C., Zaccaro, S.J., Webber, S., Mathieu, J.E., and Born, D.H. (2002). Simultaneous examination of the antecedents and consequences of efficacy beliefs at multiple levels of analysis. Human Performance, Vol. 15, No. 4, pp. 381-409. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327043HUP1504_05

Compeau, D.R. and Higgins, C.A. (1995). Computer self-efficacy: Development of a measure and initial test. MIS Quarterly, Vol. 19, No. 2, pp. 189-211. https://doi.org/10.2307/249688

Deery, M.L. (2002). Turnover in international hospitalty and tourism. N. D'AnnunzioGreen, GA. Maxwell and S. Watson (Ed.), Human Resource Management: *International Perspectives in Hospitality and Tourism* (51-64)., London: Thomson, pp.

Donavan, D.T., Brown, T.J. and Mowen, J.C. (2004). Internal benefits of service-worker customer orientation: Job satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Marketing,* Vol. 68, No.1, pp. 128-146. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.68.1.128.24034

Eccles, J.S. and Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 53, pp. 109-132. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135153

Erwins, C.J. (2001). The Relationship of women's role strain to social support, role satisfaction, and self-efficacy. *Family Relations*, Vol. 50, pp. 230-238. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3729.2001.00230.x

Fraizer, P.A., Tix, A.P. and Baron, K.E. (2004). Testing moderator and mediator effects in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology,* Vol. 51, No. 1, pp. 115-134. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.51.1.115

Gintner, G.G., West, J.D. and Zarski, J.J. (1989). Learned resourcefulness and situation-specific coping with stress. *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 123, No. 3, pp. 295-304. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.1989.10542985

Gist, M.E. (1989). The influence of training method on self-efficacy and idea generation among managers. *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 42, pp. 787-805. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1989.tb00675.x

Güneren Özdemir, E , Yılmaz, V . (2016). Konaklama İşletmelerinin Rekabet Gücünü Belirleyen Faktörler Üzerine Nevşehir İlinde Bir Uygulama. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism*, 1 (1) , 61-80 . DOI: 10.31822/jomat.288709

Harris, E.G., Artis, A.B., Walters, J.H. and Licata, J.W. (2006), Role stressors, service worker job resourcefulness, and job outcomes: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 59, No. 4, pp. 407-415. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2005.06.003

Harris, E.G., Ladik, G.M., Artis, A.B. and Fleming, E.D. (2013) Examining the influence of job resourcefulness on sales performance. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Vol. 21, No. 4, pp. 405-413. https://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679210404

Hair, J.F. Tatham, R.L. and Anderson, R.E. (1998). Multivariate Data Analysis. Fifth Edition. Prentice Hall.

Heslin, P.A., and Latham, G.P. (2004). The effect of upward feedback on managerial behavior. Applied Psychology: *An International Review*, Vol. 53, No. 1, pp. 23–37. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2004.00159.x

Johanson, M.M. and Woods, R.H. (2008) Recognizing the emotional element in service excellence. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly:* Vol. 49, No. 3, pp. 310-316. https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965508316267

Jose, P.E. (2013). MedGraph-I: A programme to graphically depict Mediation Among Three Variables: The internet version 3.0. Victoria Universty of Wellington. Wellington: New Zelaland. https://psychology.victoria.ac.nz/medgraph/medgraph.php

Kanungo, R.N. and Misra, S. (1992). Managerial resourcefulness: A reconceptualization of management skills. *Human Relations*, Vol. 45, No. 2, pp. 1311-1332. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679204501204

Karakuş, Y., Onat, G., & Ardıç Yetiş, Ş. (2018). Yöneticilerin, Aşçıların Yetkinliklerine Yönelik Beklentilerinin Değerlendirilmesi: Nevşehir Konaklama İşletmeleri Örneği. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies,* 6(4), 299-321.

DOI: 10.21325/jotags.2018.311

Karatepe, O.M. and Douri, B.G. (2012). Does customer orientation mediate the effect of job resourcefulness on hotel employee outcomes? Evidence from Iran. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, Vol. 19 No. 1, pp. 109-118. https://doi.org/10.1017/jht.2012.15

Karatepe, O.M. and Aga, M. (2012). Work engagement as a mediator of the effects of personality traits on job outcomes: A study of frontline employees. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, Vol. 33, No. 4, pp. 343-362. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332969.2012.715053

Kenny, R.F., Park, C.L., Van Neste-Kenny J.M.C., Burton, P., and Qayyum, A. (2012). Using self-efficacy to assess the readiness of nursing educators and students for mobile learning. *IRRODL*, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 277-296. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v13i3.1221

Kirkman, B.L. and Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond self-management: Antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management*

Journal, Vol. 42, No.1, pp. 58-74. https://doi.org/10.2307/256874

Lee, J.J. and Ok, C.M. (2015). Drivers of work engagement: an examination of core self-evaluations and psychological climate among hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* Vol. 44, pp. 84-98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.10.008

Li, X., Sanders, K. and Frenkel, S. (2012). How-leader-member exchange, work engagement and HRM consistency explain Chinese luxury hotel employees job performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, pp. Vol. 31, No. 4, pp. 1059-1066. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.01.002

Licata, J.W., Mowen, J.C., Harris, E.G., and Brown, T.J. (2003). On the trait antecedents and outcomes of service worker job resourcefulness: A hierarchical model approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 31, No. 3, pp. 256–271. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070303031003004

Luthans, F and Peterson, S. (2002) Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy. Journal of Management Development, Vol. 21, No. 5, pp. 376-387. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621710210426864

Maddux, J.E. (1995). Self-efficacy, adaptation and adjusment: Theory, research and application. New York: Plenum. pp. 3-33. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-6868-5_1

Magaletta, P.R. and Oliver, M. (1999). The hope construct, will, and ways: Their relations with self-efficacy, optimism, and general well-being. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, Vol. 55, No. 5, pp. 539-551. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-4679(199905)55:5<539::AID-JCLP2>3.0.CO;2-G

Malhotra, N. and Ackfeldt, A.L. (2016). Internal communication and prosocial service behaviors of front-line employees: Investigating mediating mechanisms. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69, No. 10, pp. 4132-4139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.03.038

Mau, W.C. (2000). Cultural differences in career decision-making styles and self-efficacy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 57, pp. 365-378. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1999.1745

McLaughlin, K., Moutray, M., and Muldoon, O. (2008). The role of personality and self-efficacy in the selection and retention of succesful nursing students: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Advanced Nursing,* Vol. 61, No. 2, pp. 211-221. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04492.x

Mety, M.T. (2014). Self-efficacy and the gender-specific behaviors of women leaders. Doctoral Thesis. Michingan: Baker College.

Meyer, J.P. and Allen, N.J. (1984). Testing the side-bet theory of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Vol. 69, No. 3, pp. 372-378. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.372

Michel, Rod, and Ashill, N. (2009). Symptoms of burnout and service recovery performance: The ınfluence of job resourcefulness. *Managing Service Quality*, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 60–84. https://doi.org/10.1108/09604520910926818

Multon, K.D., Brown, S.D. and Lent, R.W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology,* Vol. 38, No. 1, pp. 30-38. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.38.1.30

O'Brien, K.M., Friedman, S.M., Tipton, L.C., and Linn, S.G. (2000). Attachment, separation, and women's vocational development: A longitudinal analysis. Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 47, pp. 301-315. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.47.3.301

Pajares, F. (1997). Current directions in self-efficacy research. M. Maehr and PR. Pintrich (Ed.), Dvances in Motivation and Achievement (vol. 10, pp. 1-49). Greenwich: Jai Press.

Prussia, G.E., Anderson, J.S., and Manz, C.C. (1998). Self-leadership and outcomes: The mediating influence of self-efficacy. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 19, No. 5, pp. 523-538. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199809)19:5<523::AID-JOB860>3.0.CO;2-I

Pulakos, E.D., Schmitt, N., Dorsey, D.W., Arad, S., Borman, W.C., and Hedge, J.W. (2002). Predicting adaptive performance: Further tests of a model of adaptability. *Human Performance*, Vol. 15, No. 4, pp. 299-323. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327043HUP1504_01

Rousseau, D.M. and Mclean, P.J. (1993). The contracts of individuals and organizations. LL. Cummings and BM. Staw (Ed.), Research in Organizational Behaviour (vol. 15, pp. 16-18). Greenwich: Jai Press.

Semedo, A.S.D., Coelho, A.F.M. and Ribeiro, N.M.P. (2016). Effects of authentic leadership, affective commitment and job resourcefulness on employees' creativity and individual performance. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 37 No. 8, pp. 1038-1055. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-02-2015-0029

Sigler, T.H. and Pearson, C.M. (2000). Creating an empowering culture: Examining the relationship between organizational culture and perceptions of empowerment. *Journal of Quality Management*, Vol. 5, pp. 27-52. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1084-8568(00)00011-0

Stajkovic, A.D. and Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work related performance: A meta analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 124, pp. 240-261. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.124.2.240

Şahin, F., and Gürbüz, S. (2012). Kültürel zekâ ve öz yeterliliğin görev performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerindeki etkisi: Çokuluslu örgüt üzerinde bir uygulama. İş, Güç *Endüstri İlişkileri ve İnsan Kaynakları Dergisi*, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp. 123-140. https://doi.org/10.4026/1303-2860.2012.0202.x

Şimşek, Ö.F. (2007). Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesine Giriş. Temel ilkeler ve Lisrel Uygulamaları. Ankara: Ekinoks Eğitim ve Danışmanlık Hizmetleri.

Tabachnick, B.G. and Fidell, L.S. (2012). Using Multivariate Statics. Sixth Press. Boston: Person Education.

Tangen, S. (2004). Performance measurement: From philosophy to practice. International *Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, Vol. 53, No. 8, pp. 726-737. https://doi.org/10.1108/17410400410569134

Torres, E.N., Fu, X., and Lehto, X. (2014). Examining key drivers of customer delight in a hotel experience: a cross-cultural perspective. International *Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 36, pp. 255-262. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.09.007

Tsaur, S.H., Wang, C.H., Yen, C.H. and Liu, Y.C. (2014). Job standardization and service quality: The mediating role of prosocial service behaviors. International *Journal of Hospitality Management,* Vol. 40, pp. 130-138. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.04.004

Williams, R.S. (2002). Managing Employee Performance. USA: Thomson Learning.

Yıldırım, F. and İlhan, İ.Ö. (2010). Özyeterlilik ölçeği Türkçe formunun geçerlilik ve güvenirlik çalışması. *Türk Psikiyatri Dergisi*, Vol. 21, No. 4, pp. 301-308. http://www.turkpsikiyatri.com /PDF/C21S4/301-308.pdf

Yu, M.C., Lin, C.C. and Hsu, S.Y. (2009). Stressors and burnout: The role of employee assistance programs and self-efficacy. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, Vol. 37, pp. 365-378. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2009.37.3.365

Jomat

Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism
2020, 5 (1): 29-38
www.jomat.org

ISSN: 2645-9078
OLD ISSN: 2548-0847

Cash Flow Based Financial Performance of Borsa İstanbul Tourism Companies by Entropy-MAIRCA Integrated Model

Fatih Günay, Fatih Ecer*

Keywords:
Cash Flow Ratios,
Financial Performance,
Tourism Companies,
Borsa İstanbul,
Entropy-MAIRCA

Article History:
Submitted:23.02.2020
Accepted: 13.07.2020

ABSTRACT

The cash flow of a company is a key element for the firm value. The firm value of a company is depending largely on the ability to generate cash flows. In other words, a company's firm value is calculated by using cash flows. Financial performance analysis helps companies in effective decision-making, planning, and auditing functions. Traditional ratio analysis uses the statement of financial position (balance sheet) and the profit and loss statement (income statement) to measure financial performance. However, the income statement of a company just shows the accounting profits. Depending on this, traditional ratios can sometimes be over or underestimated on measuring financial performances. To provide a better picture of a company's financial strength and measure sensitive financial performance cash flow ratios were suggested instead of traditional ratios. Within this context, the aim of this study is to measure and compare the financial performance of Borsa İstanbul (BIST) tourism companies with the use of cash flow based ratios. Ten tourism companies listed on BIST were evaluated by the Entropy-MAIRCA hybrid model. To achieve this, cash flow based eleven ratios were calculated within the indicators of liquidity, efficiency, profitability, and solvency (leverage). To calculate ratios a-year balance sheet, additionally, income statement and cash flow statement table gathered from Public Disclosure Platform. Findings of the Entropy method showed that the most important criteria were cash ratio, cash to sales, and cash to long term debts. According to the ranking results obtained by the MAIRCA method, the best tourism company is E. It was followed by G and D.

Doi: https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.742022

1. Introduction

Financial performance analysis helps companies in effective decision-making, planning and auditing functions. With financial performance analysis, a holistic perspective can actually be provided on companies' performance (Coşkun 2007; Aydeniz 2009; Ecer, 2013; Ecer and Günay, 2014; Ulutagay et al., 2015; Deo, 2016). Income statement provides information about a company's operating results. The measurement of income is one of the important functions of financial accounting. Stakeholders such as investors, managers, lenders, bankers are interested in companies' income statement and financial results. The earnings and cash flows would lead to consistent decisions if it were not for the fact that earnings are affected by many accounting conventions, such as expense versus capitalization decisions and the choice of a depreciation method (Bierman, 2010: 85).

Likely actual cash flow of the firm is the most important item. Cash flow statement explain the change in accounting cash and equivalents (Ross, Westerfield and Jaffe, 2008: 29). The Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) described the primary purpose of cash flow statement as providing relevant information about a company's cash receipts and payments during a period. The statement of cash flow used by stakeholders to assess a company's ability to generate future net cash flows, to meet its obligations and pay dividends, and its needs for external financing. Cash flow statement also prove the reasons for difference between net income and related cash receipts and payments. On the other side, by statement of cash flows if used with related disclosures and other financial statements information it is possible to assess the effects on a company's financial position not only of its cash but also noncash investing and financing transactions during a fiscal period. (FASB, 1987).

**Corresponding Author*

Fatih Günay: Dr., Mersin University Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, Email: fgunay@mersin.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0003-0892-514X

Fatih Ecer Assoc. Prof. Dr., Afyon Kocatepe University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Email: fecer@aku.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-6174-3241

Research Paper

The cash flows of a company are received from three activities. Cash flows such as net income, and changes in current assets and liabilities (other than financing activities), etc. related to operating activities are called as Cash Flows from Operating Activities or Operating Cash Flows. Net capital expenditure which is the sum of inflows from sales of fixed assets and outflows from acquisition of fixed assets is called as Cash Flows from Investing Activities or Investing Cash Flows. Changes in equity and debt is the third classification of cash flows called as Cash Flows from Financing Activities (FASB, 1987; Ross et al., 2008: 33-34).

A decision may be characterized by its effect on accounting earnings as well as by its incremental cash flows (Bierman, 2010: 5). Barua and Saha (2015) showed that economic crises in Bangladesh as well as abnormal condition of stock market are caused due to the manipulation of accounting data for consecutive financial year. The study also indicated that cash flow ratios are providing the better predictive power rather than traditional ratios, and accurate picture of companies. Fawzi, Kamaluddin and Sanusi (2015: 143) suggest that cash flow ratios are reliable tools for predicting financial distress. Cash flow statement ratios also provide a better picture of a company's financial strength and profitability (Carslaw and Mills, 1991: 63). Traditionally many auditors take into account balance sheet and income statement but cash flow statement and cash flow based ratios should be used for an effective auditing (Mills and Yamamura, 1998: 53). Studies that use cash flow ratios put forth the importance and more sensitive tool and method is that the cash flow statement analysis (e.g. Carslaw and Mills, 1991; Mills and Yamamura, 1998; Barua and Saha, 2015; Fawzi et al., 2015; Deo, 2016; Das, 2018).

The aim of the study is to measure and compare Turkish tourism companies' cash flow based financial performance by using Entropy-MAIRCA hybrid model. For this purpose, the study is organized into five section. The following section encapsulate the review of the relevant literature. The third section covers the research methodology, and section four includes findings. The last section provides the general evaluation of study findings.

2. Literature Review

Studies in the sample of tourism companies mostly realized by using traditional ratios for the financial performance in different countries and sub-sectors (e.g. Kim, 2006; Ecer and Günay, 2014; Erdoğan, 2018). Some researches which outlined below revealed the importance of cash flow ratios and analyzing the cash flow statements. Although the number of studies based on cash flow ratios is limited, no study in the tourism sector example has been encountered. Under this constraint, some studies are summarized below.

Largay and Stickney (1980) examined what if used by investors cash flow information of companies are beneficial. In a company example it was investigated if cash flows provide an early signals to investors about the problems. It was proved that inability to generate operating cash flows warns investors about problems. This means if an investor needs any information about a company's performance should analyze company cash flows.

In the study conducted by Carslaw and Mill (1991), which is one of the pioneering studies, they had been suggested ratios to analyze and evaluate corporate cash flows. Giocomino and Mielke (1993) suggested cash flow ratios to analyze financial statements in the context of performance evaluation. They argued that the cash flow ratios can be used in terms of sufficiency and efficiency of companies. Besides traditional ratios, they proposed the cash flow based ratios can be used for relative performance evaluation. Mills and Yamamura (1998) argued that for an effective audit the use of cash flow statement and ratios based on cash flows should be taken into account by auditors.

Ryu and Jang (2014) examined the performance of commercial hotel and casino hotel companies by using both cash flow ratios and traditional financial ratios. Five ratios have been calculated within the liquidity, solvency, and operational efficiency as financial performance indicators. The study covers five years, the period from 1998 to 2002. Findings of the study put forth that traditional ratios generated different results from cash flow based ratios in liquidity.

Barua and Saha (2015) compared the traditional and cash flow ratios of Bangladeshi listed non-manufacturing companies. Income statement based and cash flow based ratios were calculated by using the data obtained from the tables. Study covers 10 years from 2001 to 2010. Results show that cash flow and accrual component of earnings can be used to predict future cash flows, and cash flows have better predictive power than income statement based ratios. They also found that cash flow ratios are sometimes providing better and accurate picture of companies. One another contribution of the study to literature is to support the potential of cash flow based ratios to serve as an early warning of financial distress and bankruptcy.

Fawzi et al. (2015) aimed to examine cash flow ratios in determining companies' financial distress. For this purpose, 52 distressed and 52 non-distressed Malaysian companies analyzed by using logistic regression analysis. The data covers the years 2009-2012. According to the study results five cash flow ratios are significant predictors of financial distress with the overall predictive accuracy of 82.1 percent. The study reveals that cash flow ratios are a reliable tool in predicting financial distress.

Başar and Azgın (2016) presented the difference of income statement and cash flow statement and analyzes the cash flow statement by using the ratios and free cash flows. The study carried out for retail companies quoted in BIST and was aimed to analyze cash flows by ratios and to find correlation between the cash flows. The examined data cover the years 2010-2014. Findings of the study showed that a small portion of the sales of retail companies returns as operating cash flows. In the study it was obtained correlations between the operating cash flow, free cash flow and sales profitability are low and negative. So this result implies that the companies seems profitable but could not create the cash flow that is needed.

Das (2018) investigated a company's financial performance in the context of liquidity, solvency, profitability and efficiency by use of cash flow ratios. He calculated fourteen ratio for the years 2004-2013. The findings of the study showed that the investigated company had problems with profitability but was good enough to maintain liquidity, solvency and sufficiency.

Güleç and Bektaş (2019) performed a study by using eight fundamental cash flow ratios and ten traditional ratios comparatively within the scope of liquidity, profitability and financial structure to demonstrate the power of cash flow statement. The study was realized in the sample of 107 non-financial companies from seven sub-sectors in manufacturing industry listed on BIST. According to results, they have revealed that examined manufacturing companies cash quality is not good enough and have problems with liquidity. The study also support literature that cash flow based ratios provide more beneficial information than traditional ratios about liquidity of a company.

Çavuş and Başar (2020) who investigated whether the cash flow ratios have the explanatory power in predicting the financial failure, examined Borsa İstanbul Manufacturing sector for 2018. In the study, logistic regression analysis method was used for predicting financial failure through cash flow ratios. To determine financial failure, the Altman-Z score was calculated for the year 2018. To explain the power of cash flow ratios to predict financial failure of 2018, fourteen cash flow ratios have used. Each ratios were examined for each year 2015, 2016 and 2017, separately. It was concluded in the study that cash flow based ratios are effective in predicting financial failure.

Dereköy (2020) aimed to reveal whether there is a difference between the traditional ratios and cash flow ratios in measuring liquidity and solvency. For the purpose of study, 22 companies were examined which are traded on Borsa İstanbul and listed in Textile, Weaving Apparel and Leather sector. The study covers the period of 2013-2017. Four ratios calculated for each method and used t-test statistic to determine difference. According to the findings of the study, accrual based traditional ratios and cash flow based ratios give statistically different results in assessment of liquidity and solvency.

3. Research Methodology

Traditional ratios have been used for many years but not enough to measure financial performance. Investors and other stakeholders need to have a beneficial information about a company's financial position. So cash flow based ratios were suggested instead of traditional ratios to measure companies' financial statement more sensitive. In light of this information, the aim of this study is to measure and compare the cash flow based financial performance of tourism companies listed on BIST in the context of cash flow based ratios by Entropy-MAIRCA hybrid model.

Data and Variables

Tourism is one of a key sector in Turkey closing the trade and foreign exchange deficit. Despite this importance of sector, there are not many companies listing in stock exchange. In Turkey twelve companies from the sector of restaurants and hotels are listed on stock exchange. The study covers the recent available year of statements. The list of tourism companies quoted in BIST was shown in Table 1.

There are twelve companies in BIST restaurants and hotels sector. Two companies in which one does not have operating activities (ULAS) and the other does not have appropriate data to analyze (METUR) have not included in the study sample.

Table 1. The list of codes and companies quoted in BIST

Code	Company Name
AYCES	Altın Yunus Çeşme Turistik Tesisler A.Ş.
AVTUR	Avrasya Petrol ve Turistik Tesisler Yatırımlar A.Ş.
ETILR	Etiler Gıda ve Ticari Yatırımlar Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş.
KSTUR	Kuştur Kuşadası Turizm Endüstri A.Ş.
MAALT	Marmaris Altınyunus Turistik Tesisler A.Ş.
MARTI	Martı Otel İşletmeleri A.Ş.
MERIT	Merit Turizm Yatırım ve İşletme A.Ş.
METUR*	Metemtur Otelcilik ve Turizm İşletmeleri A.Ş.
PKENT	Petrokent Turizm A.Ş.
TEKTU	Tek-Art İnşaat Ticaret Turizm Sanayi ve Yatırımlar A.Ş.
ULAS*	Ulaşlar Turizm Yatırımları ve Dayanıklı Tüketim Malları Ticaret Pazarlama A.Ş.
UTPYA	Utopya Turizm İnşaat İşletmecilik Ticaret A.Ş.
It has not been included in the analysis due to observation deficiencies and incompatibility.	

Source: Authors

Financial statements of the companies for 2018 were obtained from Public Disclosure Platform. Balance sheet, income statement and cash flow statement were used to generate cash flow based ratios. Although various ratios based on cash flows were suggested in literature (e.g. Carslaw and Mill, 1991; Giocomino and Mielke, 1993; etc.), we use eleven ratios compiled from literature (Mills and Yamamura, 1998; Ibarra, 2009 in Başar and Azgın, 2016; Barua and Saha, 2015; Fawzi et al., 2015; Güleç and Bektaş, 2019) in the context of four indicators to measure Turkish tourism companies performance. Table 2 shows the list and calculation method of ratios used in the study.

Data Analysis

According to FAS 95 in a statement of cash flows shall classify cashes as resulting from operating, investing and financing activities (FASB, 1987). Depending on the purpose of the statement of cash flow analysis it is possible to generate many ratios. But in this study only operating cash flow-based ratios were analysed. Other cash flow ratios can be calculated in case of the need of analysis. When fundamental operating cash flow based ratios in Table 2 are examined mostly expected to be high. With this information to determine the performance of tourism companies, we propose a novel Entropy-MAIRCA integrated model. Thus, we introduces these methods briefly in following section.

Shannon's entropy method

In this paper, Shannon's entropy method is used to calculate the weights of the criteria objectively. Thus, the steps for deciding criteria weights based on entropy method are as followings (Ecer, 2019).

Step 1: Determining of decision matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \cdots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

(i = 1, 2,..., m; j = 1, 2,..., n) is the performance value of the ith alternative to the jth criterion.

Step 2: Standardization of criteria

Table 2. The list and calculation method of cash flow ratios used in the study

Ratio	Method of calculation	Decision Criterion
Liquidity		
Operating Cash Flow Ratio (OCFR)	= CFFO / STD	40% or more
Cash Ratio (CR)	= Cash / STD	Expected to be upward trend and high
Efficiency		
Cash Return on Assets (CROA)	= CFFO/Total Assets	Expected to be upward trend and high
Cash Return on Fixed Assets (CROFA)	= CFFO/Fixed Assets	Expected to be upward trend and high
Cash Turnover (CTO)	= Cost of Sales/Cash	Expected to be upward trend and high
Profitability		
Cash to Net Profit (CNP)	= CFFO/Net Profit	Expected to be upward trend and high
Cash to Sales (CTS)	= CFFO/Sales	Expected to be upward trend and high
Cash to Equity Employed (CTEE)	= CFFO/(LTD+Equity)	Expected to be upward trend and high
Leverage		
Cash to Long Term Debts (CTLTD)	= CFFO/LTD	Expected to be upward trend and high
Cash to Equity (CTE)	= CFFO/Equity	Expected to be upward trend and high
Cash per Share (CPS)	= CFFO/Number of Shares	Expected to be upward trend and high
CFFO: Cash Flow from Operating Activities; STD: Short-Term Debt; LTD: Long-Term Debt		

Source: Authors

$$r_{ij} = x_{ij} \Big/ \max_j x_{ij} \tag{2}$$

$$r_{ij} = \min_j x_{ij} \Big/ x_{ij} \tag{3}$$

While Eq. (2) used for benefit-type criteria, Eq. (3) utilized for cost-type criteria. After standardization of criteria, the standardized criterion matrix is $R = \lfloor r_{ij} \rfloor_{mxn}$

Step 3: Calculation of entropy

$$e_j = -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} f_{ij} \ln f_{ij}}{\ln m} \tag{4}$$

wherein:

$$f_{ij} = \frac{r_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{ij}}$$

Step 4: Calculation of the weight of entropy

$$w_j = \frac{1 - e_j}{n - \sum_{j=1}^{n} e_j} \tag{5}$$

MAIRCA method

Since the MAIRCA method is utilized to rank the tourism companies in this work, we first mentioned its steps (Gigovic et al., 2016; Ecer, 2020; Hashemkhani Zolfani et al., 2020).

Step 1. Construct the initial matrix and normalization matrix. Linear normalization is preferred for normalization i.e. (Value – $\text{Value}_{\min}$)/($\text{Value}_{\max}$ – $\text{Value}_{\min}$).

Step 2. Determine the preferences.

$$P_{A_i} = \frac{1}{m} \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{A_i} = 1 \tag{6}$$

where m is the number of alternatives. In MAIRCA, the expert is neutral towards the alternatives. So, Eq. (7) can be written.

$$P_{A_1} = P_{A_2} = \ldots = P_{A_m} \tag{7}$$

Step 3. Calculate theoretical evaluation matrix.

$$T_p = \begin{bmatrix} w_1.t_{p11} & w_2.t_{p12} & \cdots & w_n.t_{p1n} \\ w_1.t_{p21} & w_2.t_{p22} & \cdots & w_n.t_{p2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_1.t_{pm1} & w_2.t_{pm2} & \cdots & w_n.t_{pmn} \end{bmatrix} \tag{8}$$

Step 4. Form the real evaluation matrix.

$$t_{rij} = t_{pij} \cdot \left(\frac{x_{ij} - x_i^-}{x_i^+ - x_i^-} \right) \tag{9}$$

$$t_{rij} = t_{pij} \cdot \left(\frac{x_i^+ - x_{ij}}{x_i^+ - x_i^-} \right) \tag{10}$$

Whilst Eq. (9) is handled for normalization of benefit-type criteria, Eq. (10) used for normalization of cost-type criteria.

Step 5. Construct the total gap matrix.

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} t_{p11} - t_{r11} & t_{p12} - t_{r12} & \cdots & t_{p1n} - t_{r1n} \\ t_{p21} - t_{r21} & t_{p22} - t_{r22} & \cdots & t_{p2n} - t_{r2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ t_{pm1} - t_{rm1} & t_{pm2} - t_{rm2} & \cdots & t_{pmn} - t_{rmn} \end{bmatrix} \tag{11}$$

Step 6. Calculate the criteria functions (Q_i) for the alternatives.

$$Q_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_{ij} \tag{12}$$

Alternatives are ranked from the smallest to the largest as to their Q_i values. That is, the best alternative is the one with the smallest Q_i value.

4. Findings

Results of Shannon's Entropy

As mentioned before, we used Entropy method to calculate criteria weights in this study.

Step 1. Cash flow ratios (as criteria) as to tourism companies can be seen in Table 3. This table is also called initial decision matrix.

Step 2. By using Eq. (2), we realize standardization of criteria. Table 4 presents standardized values.

Step 3. In the last step of Entropy method, we first calculate the *fij* values as shown in Table 5.

After calculations, we get the weights of criteria as shown in Table 6. As a result, CR is the most important ratio with 0.1769, followed by CTS with 0.123 and CTLTD with 0.1207, respectively.

Results of MAIRCA

Step 1. MAIRCA is also consider Table 3 as an initial matrix. Moreover, Table 7 shows the normalized matrix.

Step 2. Since we have 10 alternatives (m=10), we can get the preferences by dividing all the weights of the criteria by 10. Thus, Table 8 gives the preferences.

Step 3-4. By multiplying the preferences and normalized matrix, the real evaluation matrix is built. This matrix can be display in Table 9.

Step 5. Once we apply the steps of it, we get the total gap matrix presented by Table 10.

Step 6. Applying Eq. (12), we reached ranking order of tourism companies shown as Table 11. Therefore, E, G, and D are the most effective tourism companies, whereas C, I, and J are the worst. Fig. 1 can show the results better.

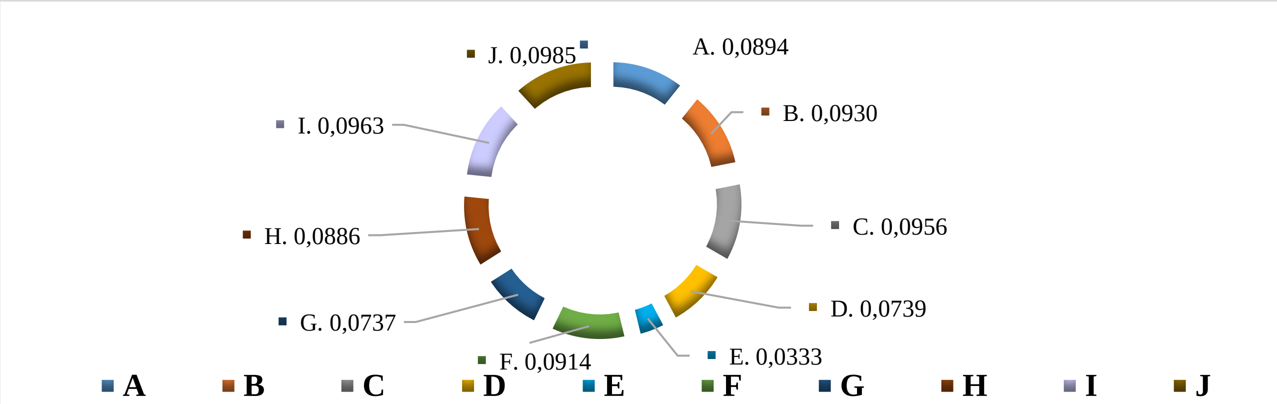

Figure 1. Qi values of firms

Source: Authors

Table 3. Initial decision matrix*

Firms	OCFR	CR	CROA	CROFA	CTO	CNP	CTS	CTEE	CTLTD	CTE	CPS
A	0.4778	0.0674	0.0509	0.0521	17.3606	20.5976	0.2623	0.0569	0.3885	0.0667	0.0058
B	0.0402	0.0007	0.0119	0.0140	297.9586	1.2615	0.2449	0.0123	0.0925	0.0142	0.0269
C	0.1165	0.0027	0.0488	0.0544	89.6254	0.2509	0.2790	0.0840	0.7221	0.0950	0.1183
D	1.4924	3.1971	0.2218	0.4827	0.5770	1.5884	0.4032	0.2606	26.6612	0.2631	0.0304
E	9.6027	15.5865	0.4685	1.9637	0.0209	6.1101	15.6739	0.4925	0.9710	0.9995	0.1286
F	0.1819	0.3897	0.0650	0.0755	0.4659	0.2855	0.5658	0.1011	0.1163	0.7727	0.7150
G	2.1027	0.0018	0.2332	0.2800	98.6466	2.2282	1.1044	0.2623	7.1548	0.2723	4.3163
H	0.0774	0.0236	0.0428	0.0920	46.1257	2.2587	0.0424	0.0958	0.8993	0.1073	3.1259
I	0.5303	0.0046	0.0328	0.0353	70.8845	0.0460	1.2405	0.0349	0.1607	0.0446	0.0015
J	0.0354	0.0157	0.0127	0.0146	28.8538	0.6804	0.0567	0.0199	0.0366	0.0435	0.1776

Table 4. Standardized values*

Firms	OCFR	CR	CROA	CROFA	CTO	CNP	CTS	CTEE	CTLTD	CTE	CPS
A	0.0498	0.0043	0.1086	0.0265	0.0583	1.0000	0.0167	0.1156	0.0146	0.0667	0.0013
B	0.0042	0.0000	0.0255	0.0071	1.0000	0.0612	0.0156	0.0250	0.0035	0.0142	0.0062
C	0.0121	0.0002	0.1041	0.0277	0.3008	0.0122	0.0178	0.1705	0.0271	0.0951	0.0274
D	0.1554	0.2051	0.4735	0.2458	0.0019	0.0771	0.0257	0.5290	1.0000	0.2633	0.0070
E	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	0.0001	0.2966	1.0000	1.0000	0.0364	1.0000	0.0298
F	0.0189	0.0250	0.1387	0.0384	0.0016	0.0139	0.0361	0.2053	0.0044	0.7731	0.1656
G	0.2190	0.0001	0.4978	0.1426	0.3311	0.1082	0.0705	0.5325	0.2684	0.2724	1.0000
H	0.0081	0.0015	0.0914	0.0469	0.1548	0.1097	0.0027	0.1946	0.0337	0.1073	0.7242
I	0.0552	0.0003	0.0700	0.0180	0.2379	0.0022	0.0791	0.0709	0.0060	0.0447	0.0004
J	0.0037	0.0010	0.0272	0.0074	0.0968	0.0330	0.0036	0.0403	0.0014	0.0435	0.0411
	1.526369	*1.237588*	*2.536668*	*1.560437*	*2.183253*	*1.714143*	*1.267916*	*2.883808*	*1.3954*	*2.680288*	*2.003152*

* **Source:** Authors

Table 5. f_{ij} values*

Firms	OCFR	CR	CROA	CROFA	CTO	CNP	CTS	CTEE	CTLTD	CTE	CPS
A	0.0326	0.0035	0.0428	0.0170	0.0267	0.5834	0.0132	0.0401	0.0104	0.0249	0.0007
B	0.0027	0.0000	0.0100	0.0046	0.4580	0.0357	0.0123	0.0087	0.0025	0.0053	0.0031
C	0.0079	0.0001	0.0411	0.0178	0.1378	0.0071	0.0140	0.0591	0.0194	0.0355	0.0137
D	0.1018	0.1657	0.1867	0.1575	0.0009	0.0450	0.0203	0.1835	0.7166	0.0982	0.0035
E	0.6552	0.8080	0.3942	0.6408	0.0000	0.1731	0.7887	0.3468	0.0261	0.3731	0.0149
F	0.0124	0.0202	0.0547	0.0246	0.0007	0.0081	0.0285	0.0712	0.0031	0.2884	0.0827
G	0.1435	0.0001	0.1962	0.0914	0.1516	0.0631	0.0556	0.1847	0.1923	0.1016	0.4992
H	0.0053	0.0012	0.0360	0.0300	0.0709	0.0640	0.0021	0.0675	0.0242	0.0400	0.3615
I	0.0362	0.0002	0.0276	0.0115	0.1090	0.0013	0.0624	0.0246	0.0043	0.0167	0.0002
J	0.0024	0.0008	0.0107	0.0048	0.0444	0.0193	0.0029	0.0140	0.0010	0.0162	0.0205

Table 6. Weights of criteria*

	OCFR	**CR**	**CROA**	**CROFA**	**CTO**	**CNP**	**CTS**	**CTEE**	**CTLTD**	**CTE**	**CPS**
$\mathbf{e_j}$	0.5087	0.1256	0.7549	0.5358	0.6917	0.6018	0.3919	0.8028	0.4032	0.7335	0.5064
$\mathbf{w_j}$	0.0994	0.1769	0.0496	0.0939	0.0624	0.0806	0.1230	0.0399	0.1207	0.0539	0.0998

Table 7. Normalized matrix*

Firms	OCFR	CR	CROA	CROFA	CTO	CNP	CTS	CTEE	CTLTD	CTE	CPS
A	0.046	0.004	0.085	0.020	0.058	1.000	0.014	0.093	0.013	0.053	0.001
B	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.059	0.013	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.006
C	0.008	0.000	0.081	0.021	0.301	0.010	0.015	0.149	0.026	0.082	0.027
D	0.152	0.205	0.460	0.240	0.002	0.075	0.023	0.517	1.000	0.253	0.007
E	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.295	1.000	1.000	0.035	1.000	0.029
F	0.015	0.025	0.116	0.032	0.001	0.012	0.033	0.185	0.003	0.770	0.165
G	0.216	0.000	0.485	0.136	0.331	0.106	0.068	0.521	0.267	0.262	1.000
H	0.004	0.001	0.068	0.040	0.155	0.108	0.000	0.174	0.032	0.094	0.724
I	0.052	0.000	0.046	0.011	0.238	0.000	0.077	0.047	0.005	0.031	0.000
J	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.097	0.031	0.001	0.016	0.000	0.030	0.041

Table 8. The preferences*

Firms	OCFR	CR	CROA	CROFA	CTO	CNP	CTS	CTEE	CTLTD	CTE	CPS
A	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
B	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
C	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
D	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
E	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
F	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
G	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
H	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
I	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
J	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010

Table 9. Real evaluation matrix*

Firms	OCFR	CR	CROA	CROFA	CTO	CNP	CTS	CTEE	CTLTD	CTE	CPS
A	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
B	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
C	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
D	0.002	0.004	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.012	0.001	0.000
E	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.000	0.002	0.012	0.004	0.000	0.005	0.000
F	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.004	0.002
G	0.002	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.010
H	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.007
I	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
J	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

***Source:** Authors

Table 10. The total gap matrix*

Firms	OCFR	CR	CROA	CROFA	CTO	CNP	CTS	CTEE	CTLTD	CTE	CPS
A	0.009	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.000	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
B	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.000	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
C	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.004	0.008	0.012	0.003	0.012	0.005	0.010
D	0.008	0.014	0.003	0.007	0.006	0.007	0.012	0.002	0.000	0.004	0.010
E	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.012	0.000	0.010
F	0.010	0.017	0.004	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.003	0.012	0.001	0.008
G	0.008	0.018	0.003	0.008	0.004	0.007	0.011	0.002	0.009	0.004	0.000
H	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.005	0.007	0.012	0.003	0.012	0.005	0.003
I	0.009	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.005	0.008	0.011	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010
J	0.010	0.018	0.005	0.009	0.006	0.008	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.005	0.010

***Source**: Authors

In Table 11 (also in figure 1) it can be seen the results of Entropy-MAIRCA integrated method. According to the method, company performance is better if Qi is low. Considering the results of MAIRCA in Table 5, we can say that company E shows better performance in liquidity, efficiency, and profitability than others. As a result of this finding, as shown in Table 11 company E has the better overall performance with 0.0333 Qi degree when compared to others.

Table 11. Ranking of firms

	Q_i	Rank
A	0.0894	5
B	0.0930	7
C	0.0956	8
D	0.0739	3
E	*0.0333*	*1*
F	0.0914	6
G	0.0737	2
H	0.0886	4
I	0.0963	9
J	0.0985	10

Source: Authors

Results of the study shows that the worst performed companies have very close Qi degree as seen in Table 11. The company J has the worst degree with 0.0985 and ranked as 10th, the company I is the 9th with 0.0963 and with 0.0914 the company F is ranked as 6th.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Tourism is one of the important sectors for Turkey's economic growth (Kaplan and Aktas, 2015: 41). As Furmolly and Kırkulak-Uludağ (2018: 19) showed that Turkey is one of the tourism-led growth economies, it can be said that financial decisions are important in the survival of tourism companies which have the important role for the country's tourism. Financial statements are an important information provider about a company's operating and financial decision results. As a result of the decisions, it will not be wrong to say one of the most important items that can be extracted from financial statements is the actual cash flow of the firm. There is an official accounting statement called the statement of cash flows, which purpose the showing the firm cash flow (Ross et al., 2008: 29).

The cash flow statement is one of the important table as part of a set of financial statements for all companies. This statement of cash flows classify cash receipts and payments according to whether they originate from operating, investing, or financing activities. To understand a company's financial position, company stakeholders should calculate ratios from the statement of cash flows in which sources and uses of cash (Mills and Yamamura, 1998: 60-61). Using traditional ratios to evaluate a company's financial performance is not the only way, but it is also necessary to use cash flow-based ratios to understand better and accurate picture of a company.

Within this context, it was aimed to evaluate financial performance of tourism companies based on cash flow ratios in the study. Eleven cash flow ratios were used to measure the performance of ten companies whose shares traded on BIST. According to the study results, it has been seen that examined companies as of 2018 have some problems to generate operating cash flows. Mostly, companies are illiquid, insufficient and unprofitable according to cash flow based ratios. Fawzi et al. (2015) revealed that CTS and CTLTD have significant relationship with financial distress additional to other three cash flow based ratios. The other important conclusion of the Fawzi et al. (2015)'s study is that the cash flow based solvency and profitability ratios signal about financial distress.

The study has some important limitations and the findings should be handled under these constraints. First of all, the study was realized by using a year observations to evaluate cash flow based performance. In this respect, the study can be seen as a case study and the results cannot be generalized. Second, in the study just a few ratios were used instead of using a wide set of ratio, and only operating cash flows was analyzed excluding cash flows from investing and financing activities. Last but not least, just limited number of tourism companies in a country level have been evaluated. On the other hand, it makes the study important to be one of the limited cash flow based studies in the tourism sector. One another importance of the study is to be one of the pioneering study using multi-criteria decision-making process in the context of cash flow based ratio analysis.

6. References

Aydeniz, A. S. (2009). Makroekonomik göstergelerin firmaların finansal performans ölçütleri üzerindeki etkisinin ölçülmesine yönelik bir araştırma: İMKB'ye kote gıda ve içecek şirketleri üzerine bir uygulama, *Marmara Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi,* 27(2), 263-277.

Barua, S. & Saha, A. K. (2015). Traditional ratios vs. cash flow based ratios: which one is better performance indicator?, *Advances in Economics and Businesses*, 3(6), 232-251.

Başar, A. B. & Azgın, N. (2016). İşletme performansının ölçülmesinde nakit akış analizlerinin esasları ve Borsa İstanbul perakende sektöründe bir araştırma, *Adıyaman Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 8(23), 779-804. https://doi.org/10.14520/adyusbd.53637

Bierman, H. (2010). *An Introduction to Accounting and Managerial Finance, A Merger of Equals,* Singapore: World Scientific Publishing Co. https://doi.org/10.1142/7318

Carslaw, C. A. & Mills, J. A. (1991). Developing ratios for effective cash flow statement analysis, *Journal of Accountancy*, 172(5), 63-70.

Coşkun, A. (2007). *Stratejik Performans Yönetimi ve Performans Karnesi,* İstanbul: Literatür Yayıncılık.

Çavuş, G. & Başar, A.B. (2020). Finansal başarısızlık durumunun öngörülmesinde nakit akış bilgilerinin rolü, *Muhasebe Bilim Dünyası Dergisi,* 22(Özel Sayı), 292-318. https://doi.org/10.31460/mbdd.647542

Das, S. (2018). Analysis of cash flow ratios: a study on CMC, *Accounting,* (4), 41-52. https://doi.org/10.5267/j.ac.2017.3.001

Deo, P. (2016). Evaluating a cash flow statement, *International Journal of Business, Accounting, and Finance,* 10(1), 22-42.

Dereköy, F. (2020). Borç ödeme gücünün ölçülmesinde geleneksel oranlar ile nakit akış oranlarının karşılaştırılması: İmalat sektörü örneği, *Uluslararası Ekonomi, İşletme ve Politika Dergisi,* 4(1). 151-168. https://doi.org/10.29216/ueip.670565

Ecer, F. (2013). Artificial neural networks in predicting financial performance: an application for Turkey's Top 500 companies, *Economic Computation and Economic Cybernetics Studies and Research*, 47(2), 103-114.

Ecer, F. (2019). Özel sermayeli bankaların kurumsal sürdürülebilirlik performanslarının değerlendirilmesine yönelik çok kriterli bir yaklaşım: Entropi-ARAS bütünleşik modeli, *Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi İİBF Dergisi,* 14(2), 365-390. https://doi.org/10.17153/oguiibf.470336

Ecer, F. (2020). *Çok Kriterli Karar Verme Geçmişten Günümüze Kapsamlı Bir Yaklaşım.* Ankara: Seçkin Yayınevi.

Ecer, F. & Günay, F. (2014). Borsa İstanbul'da işlem gören turizm şirketlerinin finansal performanslarının gri ilişkisel analiz yöntemiyle ölçülmesi. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 25(1), 35-48. https://doi.org/10.17123/atad.vol25iss195016

Erdoğan, M. (2018). Turizm işletmelerinin finansal performanslarını etkileyen firmaya özgü, sektörel ve makroekonomik belirleyiciler, *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 15(41), 101-127.

FASB (1987). *Financial Accounting Standards 95: Statement of Cash Flows,* https://www.fasb.org/jsp/FASB/Document_C/DocumentPage?cid=1218220128261&acceptedDisclaimer=true, (22.02.2020).

Fawzi, N. S., Kamaluddin, A. & Sanusi, Z. M. (2015). Monitoring distressed companies through cash flow analysis, 7th International Conference on Financial Criminology 2015, United Kingdom, *Procedia Economics and Finance* (28), 136-144. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(15)01092-8

Furmolly, A.W. & Kırkulak-Uludağ, B. (2018). Turizmin Türkiye Ekonomisi Üzerindeki Etkisi (1963-2015), *Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism,* 3(1), 19-22. https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.364321

Giacomino, D.E., Mielke, D.E. (1993). Cash flows: another approach to ratio analysis, *Journal of Accountancy,* 175(3), 55-58.

Gigovic, L., Pamucar, D., Bajic, Z., & Milicevic, M. (2016). The combination of expert judgment and GIS-MAIRCA analysis for the selection of sites for ammunition depots. *Sustainability,* 8(4), 372. https://doi.org/10.3390/su8040372

Güleç, Ö.F. & Bektaş, T. (2019). Cash flow ratio analysis: the case of Turkey, *Muhasebe ve Finansman Dergisi* (Ağustos 2019 Özel Sayı), 247-262. https://doi.org/10.25095/mufad.606022

Hashemkhani Zolfani, S., Ecer, F., Pamučar, D., & Raslanas, S. (2020). Neighborhood selection for a newcomer via a novel BWM-based revised MAIRCA integrated model: a case from the Coquimbo-La Serena conurbation, Chile. *International Journal of Strategic Property Management*, 24(2), 102-118.

Ibarra, V.C. (2009). Cash flow ratios: tools for financial analysis, *Journal of International Business Research*, 8(1), 91-107.

Kaplan, F. & Aktas, A. R. (2015). A causality analysis of tourism revenues and economic growth on selected Mediterranean countries, *Actual Problems of Economics,* 3(165), 33-42.

Kim, D.J. (2006). A comparative study of financial ratios between hotels and restaurants, *International Journal of Tourism Sciences,* 6(1), 95-106.

Largay, J.A. & Stickney, C. P. (1980). Cash flows, ratio analysis and the W.T. Grant company bankruptcy, *Financial Analysts Journal*, 36(4). 51-54.

Mills, J.R. & Yamamura, J.H. (1998). The power of cash flow ratios, *Journal of Accountancy*, 186(4), 53-61.

Ross, S.A., Westerfield, R.W., & Jaffe, J. (2008). *Corporate Finance*, *(8th Edt.),* McGraw-Hill/Irwin, USA.

Ryu, K. & Jang, S. (2004). Performance measurement through cash flow ratios and traditional ratios: A comparison of commercial and casino hotel companies, *The Journal of Hospitality Financial Management,* 12(1), 15-25. https://doi.org/10.1080/10913211.2004.10653783

Ulutagay, G., Ecer, F. & Nasibov, E. (2015). Performance evaluation of industrial enterprises via fuzzy inference system approach: a case study. *Soft Computing,* 19(2), 449-458. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00500-014-1263-3

Jomat

Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism
2020, 5 (1): 39-54
www.jomat.org

ISSN: 2645-9078
OLD ISSN: 2548-0847

Relationship between Destination Image Change and Behavioral Intention: A Study on Cappadocia Hot Air Balloon Experience[1]

İbrahim Akın Özen, Ebru Güneren Özdemir*

Keywords:
Experience value, Image change, Destination image, Image formation, Hot-air balloon tour, Cappadocia

ABSTRACT

This study aims to determine the effect of tourists' experiences on the change in the image of Cappadocia and the intention of suggesting it to others by the impact of experiences of tourists participating in hot air balloon tours in Cappadocia region. The Study universe consists of local and foreign visitors coming to Cappadocia Region. The easy sampling method from non-incidental sampling methods was preferred in the study. The sample consisted of 406 visitors who visited Cappadocia Region and attended hot air balloon tours. According to empirical research findings, it was determined that the value of the hot air balloon experience and dimensions of memory, entertainment, aesthetics and education have a meaningful and powerful effect on the change of the image of Cappadocia. This change in the image of Cappadocia has the same effects on behavioral intentions. With reference to research findings, it can be said that Cappadocia has a strategic role in the promotion of the hot air ballooning destination, image formation and even positive change of such image. It is recommended that the stakeholders responsible for destination marketing use this role of hot air ballooning to create a competitive advantage.

Article History:
Submitted:05.12.2019
Accepted: 14.07.2020

Doi: https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.709096

1. Introduction

In today's world, where change is taking place in every field, there are also changes in travel culture. These changes in the world and in tourists' profiles have also brought about a change in needs of tourists and therefore in concepts of tourist consumption (Güneren & Karakuş 2015). Tourists now want to gain experiential value from the touristic product components they use in a destination they visit. With reference to this point on and under the assumption of postmodernism, it is necessary to enrich current tourist products in the context of fantasy, emotion and entertainment (Holbrook, Hirschman, 1982) nowadays. In addition, it is also recommended to design tourist products which aesthetically affect tourists, entertain them, teach new things, make them escape from everyday life and give them unforgettable memories (Pine and Gilmore, 1999) in a way to contain extraordinary experiences.

The aim of this study is to determine the impact of the experience of tourists participating in hot air balloon tours in Cappadocia, which is one of Turkey's most important tourist destinations, on the image of this destination in terms of hot air ballooning (Kül Avan & Güçer, 2019), which is thought to have changed with this experience; and to what extent this impact affects behavioral intentions regarding the destination.

For these specified purposes, in the first part of the three-part study, the literature on experience and the concept of experience value has been discussed with a view to establishing basically the arguments of the theoretical framework to form interdependent variables while taking into account the hot air balloon experience.

In the second part of the study, the literature on image concept in destinations, image change, effects of touristic experiences on destination image and behavioral outcomes, which are dependent variables of the study, have been included. The relevant literature discusses post-travel destination image and change issues in terms of gained experiences throughout the entire

*Corresponding Author
Research Paper

İbrahim Akın Özen: *Assist. Prof. Dr., Nevşehir HBV University Department of Tourism Guidance, Email: akinozen@gmail.com, Orcid Id: 0000-0003-1172-5448*

Ebru Güneren Özdemir *Assoc. Prof. Dr., Nevşehir HBV University Department of Tourism Management, Email: ebruguneren@gmail.com, Orcid Id: 0000-0003-2669-4402*

[1] This study was completed in 2017, "The Relationship Between Experimental Consumption, Destination Image Account and Behavioral Results: Cappadocia Hot Air Balloon Experience" derived from doctoral dissertation.

destination. However, this research assessed the effects of a single tourist product experienced in a destination (hot air balloon experience) on an image change related to the entire destination. The research has an authentic perspective in this respect.

In the third part of the study, the application model of quantitative research has been presented, and research hypotheses have been proposed within the framework of this model. After the application model, method and hypotheses have been explained; the research findings have been interpreted by applying necessary analyses for testing hypotheses.

Finally, in the conclusion and recommendations part, suggestions have been made to destination management organizations, balloon operators and managers, and scientific studies that are likely to be done in the future.

2. Experience and Experience Value

Although there are many definitions on the concept of experience in the literature on tourism discipline, a generally accepted definition by the academic environment is not yet available (Jurowski, 2009). Discussions on the definition of the concept are given in the following:

From a consumer perspective, experiences are “entertaining, attractive and unforgettable memories of consumption” (Oh, Fiore, Jeoung, 2007). Experience is a concept that affects consumer emotionally, physically, intellectually and spiritually as a result of the combination of many elements (Mossberg, 2007). Experience emerges at the very moment when production and consumption come together (Andersson, 2007). Touristic experience is a complex phenomenon that occurs mostly individually (Uriely, 2005). Experience is the formation of all the information while a consumer collects during the purchase process (Berry, Carbone, Haeckel, 2002). Experience is a combination of environment, product and service that arise in the consumer (Robert, Chambers, 2000). Experiences do not occur spontaneously but occur as a result of a prepared situation, and take hold of the general (Schmitt, 1999). As a result of consuming products and services offered by companies, experience occurs with the emergence of knowledge and emotion in the customer (Gupta, Vajic, 1999). The purpose of the experience is to manage functional, meaningful, attractive, effective and memorable experiences (McLellan, 2000). Successful experiences are those that are considered unique, memorable and sustainable by customers and that can be enthusiastically promoted by them from mouth-to-mouth (Pine, Gilmore, 1999). In the case of consumption, experience occurs when the individual is physically, logically, emotionally, socially and spiritually involved in the situation after his/her certain participation (O’Sullivan, Spangler, 1998). Experience is the continuous flow of thoughts and the collection of emotions that occur during the use of touristic products (Carlson, 1997). Experiences create a high level of emotional intensity (Arnold and Price, 1993). Experiences are extraordinary memories that make changes in a person’s life (Denzin, 1992). Experience includes personalized life events in which quality is more important than quantity (Mannell, 1984). Although there is not an experiential consumption model, the way to understand consumers in the tourism sector is through experiential consumption (Titz, 2008).

Experiential value refers to customers’ perceptions of the product or service through direct use of it or indirect observation of it (Mathwick, Malhotra, Rigdon, 2001). In terms of touristic products, experience value is a total result of the experiences gained by tourists before, during and after the use of touristic products (Oral and Çelik, 2014).

Experience occurs with consumer’s use of the product, and consumer gains experiential value. The concept of experiential value is addressed by many authors in the literature. This part of the study will focus on Pine and Gilmore (1999) experiential value model.

Pine and Gilmore Experiential Value Model

Pine and Gilmore (1999) experimental value model, which will form the basis of field research in this study, is also referred to as 4E Model in the literature. Experience areas proposed by the model are educational, escapist, esthetic, entertainment; all of which first letters give the model its name. According to the model seen in Figure 1, experiences are located in a coordinate plane. According to the authors, while the effect of experience in fields of experience, that is the situation a person lives during an experience (absorption and immersion), is shown on the Y-axis; the degree of participation in the experience (passive and active) is expressed on the X-axis. Each region between the X and Y axes refers to realms of experience (Entertainment, Educational, Esthetic, Escapist).

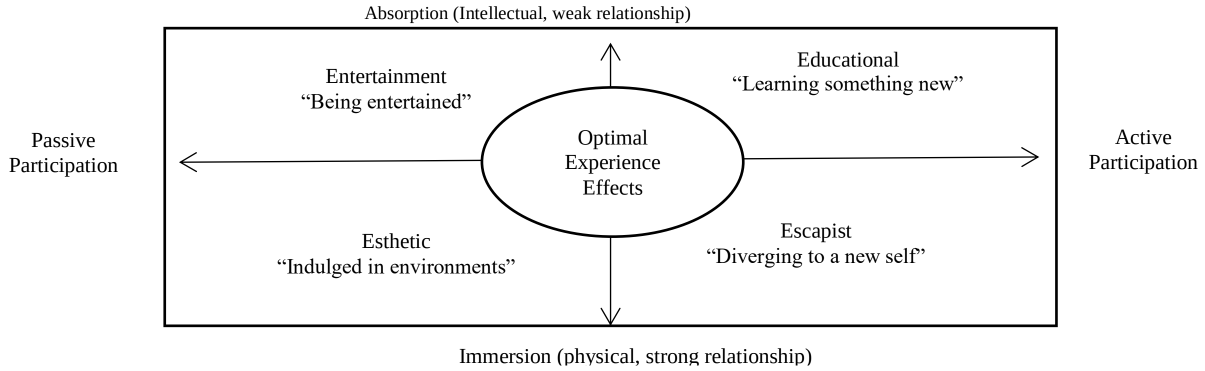

Figure 1: Four realms of experience

Source: Pine and Gilmore, 1999, p.41

While the extent to which customers are affected by performance of the activity they experience is determined by whether they have passive or active participation; absorption and immersion refer to the degree of willingness to experience. In this respect, excessive absorption refers only to customers who receive certain information or stimuli; immersion means that customers are fully involved in an experience.

3. Destination Image, Its Structure and Formation

Destination image is a visual or mental impression of an experience gained by a tourist in a destination (Milman and Pizam, 1995) or beliefs, ideas and impressions about a destination (Crompton, 1979).

According to Fakeye and Crompton (1991), the first stage of the formation of the destination image is expressed as "organic image". Organic image is defined as tourist's impressions about a destination through non-commercial sources of information (training/education that tourists receive in school life, television programs that they encounter in their daily life, newspapers, cinema, magazines, articles, friend recommendations). Over time, this organic image owned by a person is transformed into an induced image through commercial activities such as advertising campaigns and travel brochures carried out within the framework of promotional activities of tourism organizations. When the desired destination image is formed with induced image, it is thought that the perceived destination image will be formed in tourist's mind. At this stage, the tourist will become a potential destination customer and will make the choice of destination. The tourists' impressions of the destination will change via the trip to the destination and the new knowledge and experience gathered at the destination with this trip, and he/she will have a more detailed and clearer (destination) image. The image formed at this stage is called a complex image. This comprehensive, complex and realistic image of the tourist will be effective in the re-selection of that destination.

Beerli and Martín (2004) suggested that factors affecting the perceived destination image should be examined in two main categories: "sources of information" and "personal" factors. They indicated that these categories may affect emotional and cognitive image of a particular destination. They also stated that the emotional and cognitive images interact with each other to create a general (total) destination image. sources of information consist of secondary information (organic, autonomous, directed) and primary information (destination visit).

According to the image formation models in the destinations, destination image can be handled in different ways, including organic (natural), induced (oriented) and the modified image. The first two were first introduced by Gunn in 1972 with his research, and the concept of modified image was included by the same author in 1988. In some sources, it is also referred to as an induced image or complex image (Tasci and Gartner, 2007).

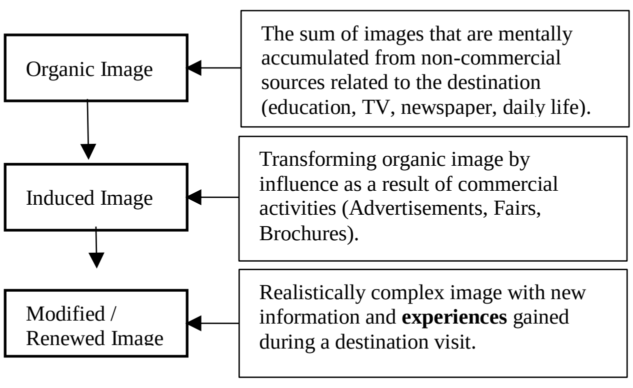

Figure 2: Types of destination image according to formation patterns

Source: Pektaş, F. (2012)

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) also proposed a new model with the same concepts. In Figure 2, the types of the destination image are included according to their formation.

In light of these findings from Gunn, (1972) and Fakeye and Crompton (1991), it can be said that the autonomous image is shaped within the framework of information and experiences that tourists acquire in the area they travel in, and the image is gained a more realistic structure.

Image Change in Destinations

As it is known, the positive image of destinations leads to an increase in visitors (Hunt, 1975; Mayo, 1973). However, creating a positive image or changing a negative image into positive ones requires a long process (Crompton, 1979; Gartner and Hunt, 1987; Kotler, 1982). Hamidizadeh et all. (2016) argues that the perceived destination image of a destination, in particular, can change over time, especially when tourists visit another destination.

Chon, (1991) examined that the destination image is related to the pleasure of the characteristics of the products in the destination. According to another view, the image may be affected and altered by the evaluation of stereotyped expectations prior to a visit compared to the experiences gathered in a destination (Chon, 1991; Echtner, Ritchie, 1991; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). Therefore, there is a two-way relationship between the image and the satisfaction that tourists have gained from their experiences. In understanding this two-way relationship, the need to define, measure and give more attention to customer satisfaction and perceptions is emphasized to position a tourism product (Ibrahim and Gill, 2005). According to Gartner (1994), the image of a hosting region can change due to the influence of many interrelated factors (media mediation, mouth-to-mouth communication, et cetera).

Many studies in the literature have focused on measuring the image of a destination that occurs over a period of time. However, Gallarza, Saura, and García (2002) argue that the image is not static and tends to change over time. In most cases, tourists do not create a completely new destination image of a place, they evaluate the information they derive from image factors based on their current perceptions in the destination. As this pointed out by Tapachai and Waryszak, (2000), it is accepted that one person does not look at every new stimulus in the destination as something completely new. Tourists compare the data obtained after their experience in the destination with the patterns previously stored information or knowledge in the memory. That is why it is so important to understand the image change mechanism, monitor it and develop marketing strategies in response to changing conditions. In addition, destinations should not accept their image as fixed at a given moment and should take various actions to improve their weaknesses (Gartner, 1994).

The complex nature of the destination image and its formation has led to the emergence of different perspectives in determining factors that affect image change, renewal or formation.

The Relationship between Destination Image Perception and Behavioral Intention

Image is of great importance in destination marketing because the image of a destination represents the preliminary information that is generated in tourists' minds about the destination (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). As a decision-maker, since tourists have very limited personal experience with the destination, they will respond to the image, destination beliefs and perceptions of the destination rather than objective reality (Hunt, 1975). Similarly, Gartner, (1994) points out that "since it is not possible to pre-test the tourist product, touristic images will often be based on perceptions rather than facts." In addition, Crompton (1979), suggests that "remarkable image characteristics" that are going to emerge as behavioral intentions are factors that should be given importance by the destination administrations by emphasizing the role of image in destination selection when it comes to limited personal experience. Marketers' understanding of the image of a destination in the tourism market will ensure them to affect potential tourists to decide (Crompton, 1979; Jenkins, 1999; Woodside et al., 2004; Çelik et al., 2017). In this regard, it is thought that a positive image will have an important effect on the formation of behavioral intentions after a destination visit.

4. Method

Purpose and Importance of the Research

Cappadocia is a destination where nature, history and cultures integrate in to harmony. The unique feature that makes this area special is the rock structures called "Fairy Chimneys" which were created by the erosion of active volcanoes by rain and wind for millions of years about 60 million years ago. At the same time, traditional Cappadocia houses carved into the rock from the nineteenth century express the uniqueness of the region. The value of the region was also appreciated by international organizations, and the Goreme National Park in Cappadocia was added to UNESCO's World Heritage List in 1985 (Özel and Kozak, 2016).

Cappadocia is one of the most favorable regions where adventure and nature tourism can be made with its unique natural beauties as well as its cultural heritage. In the last 20 years, successful hot air balloon investments have been made in Cappadocia, and it has managed to stand out both in Turkey and in the world. It is no exaggeration to say that Cappadocia is the most important balloon flight center in Turkey and the world today.

This study aims to determine the effect of tourists' experience on the change of image of Cappadocia and the intention of suggesting it to others by the impact of experiences of tourists participating in hot air balloon tours in this region. In addition, by identifying the dimensions that stand out in the formation of the experiential value of the hot air balloon experience, it will guide the values to be emphasized in the services offered by balloon operators in the region.

Research Population and Sample

The research population consists of local and foreign visitors who come to Cappadocia Region. One of non-probability sampling methods, convenience sampling, has been conducted in the study. The sample consisted of 406 visitors who visited Cappadocia Region and attended hot air balloon tours.

To reach tourists coming to the region, it was determined that Erkilet Airport, the departure point of Cappadocia tour, was the most suitable time and place after the interviews made with tour operators, managers, guides and balloon companies. Therefore, the questionnaire created within the scope of the research was applied to tourists waiting for a flight at the domestic departure terminal of Erkilet Airport. In addition, questionnaires created for tourists of Turkish and other nationalities (English, Turkish, Chinese and Japanese) were applied in 4-5-star hotels and balloon organizations in Goreme, Urgup, Avanos.

Research Model and Hypotheses

The research model includes experiential value dimensions, change in the destination image, intention to revisit, and intention to recommend it to others. Experiential value dimensions in research consist of esthetics, entertainment, educational, escape, memory and security values. Dimensions of the experience in the model created have been adapted by taking into account the characteristics of the hot air balloon product in the field literature. Reviewing the literature, it is seen that approach and measuring tools developed by Pine and Gilmore (1999), Schmitt (1999), Sheth, Newman, Gross, (1991) are frequently used in measuring touristic experiences.

According to the research model in Figure 3, the dimensions of the hot air balloon experience are assumed to have an impact on the change of destination image and future behavioral intentions (intention to revisit and intention to recommend it to others). In the model that reveals the cause-effect relationship, dependent variables of the research are the change in the destination image, the intention to revisit and the intention to recommend it to others. The Independent variable in the model is the value of the hot air balloon experience.

Within the framework of the model in Figure 3, hypotheses containing hot air balloon experience value, behavioral intentions towards the destination, and change of destination image have been proposed. The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

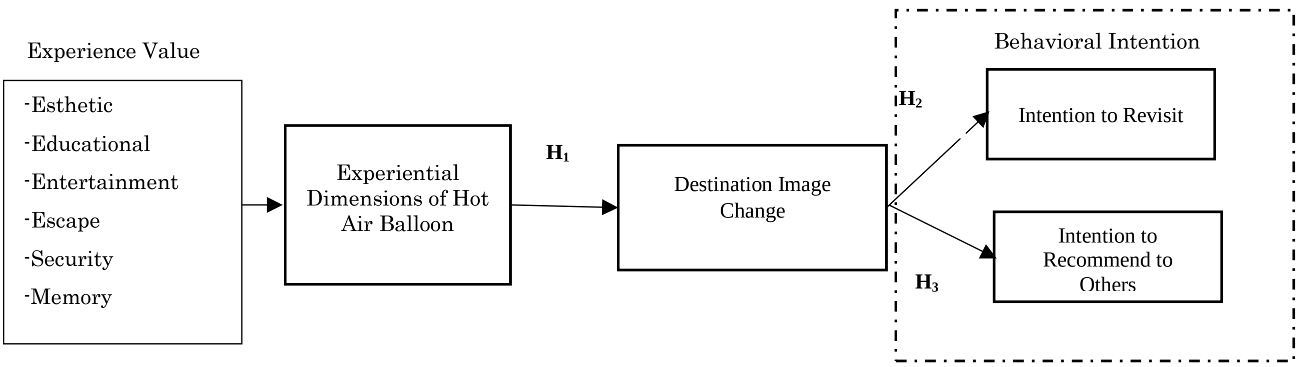

Figure 3: Research model

Source: Authors

- H1: Hot air balloon experience dimensions have an impact on the change of destination image.
- H2: The change in the image of the destination has an effect on the intention to re-visit the destination.
- H3: The destination has an effect on the intention to recommend the image change destination to others.

Data Collection

Questionnaire technique was used for data collection purposes.

The survey form consists of four sections. In the first chapter, the experiential value scale of the experiential value perceived by tourists experiencing the hot air balloon experience was adapted to the experiential value scale consisting of 20 items aimed at measuring the aesthetic, entertainment, education, escape, souvenir and security dimensions. In the experimental value scale, studies from the field literature conducted by Holbrook, (1996), Pine and Gilmore (1999), Schmitt (1999), Mathwick et al., (2001), Hosany, Witham, (2010), Oh et al., (2007) were used in the adaptation of items in dimensions of entertainment, escape, education, aesthetics, and commemorative dimensions. Gallarza, Gil, (2006) study was used to adapt items of the security dimension of the experience. (Table 3)

Tourists experiencing HAB experience in the second part of the questionnaire were asked about the following item, "After my balloon experience, my image about Cappadocia was changed more positively", and they were asked to evaluate whether their overall image of Cappadocia were changed. Considering the literature, it is possible to see that there are studies in which the total image is measured with a single question. Prayag, (2008, p. 212) stated that there are two ways to measure the general image, while the 1st way is to average all the characteristics of the destination (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991), while the 2nd way is to determine whether the overall image perception is positive or negative. Indeed, Baloglu and Mccleary, (1999), Beerli and Martín, (2004), Li, Vogelson, (2006), Kim, Morrsion, (2005), Wang and Hsu, (2010) measured the overall image with a single item in their studies.

In the third part, the questionnaire consisted of 2 statements aimed at measuring behavioral intentions towards the Cappadocia region. The item "I would like to visit Cappadocia again in the future" related to intention of revisiting and the item "I recommend vacations in Cappadocia to other people around me." the intention to recommend it to others were adapted. Williams, Soutar, (2009) study was used to adapt items for measuring behavioral intentions. The variables of the study were measured using the five-point Likert-type scale. The last chapter contains demographic information about visitors.

Findings of the Study

In this part of the study, findings of demographic characteristics of local and foreign visitors participating in the study and hypotheses represented by the conceptual model of the research have been included. SPSS software was used for statistical analysis. Factor analysis has been applied for the structure validity of the experience value scale; Cronbach Alpha has been applied for the reliability of scales; correlation analysis and regression analysis have been performed to test hypotheses of the study.

- *Demographic Characteristics of Visitors Participated in the Research*

Within the scope of the research, 406 visitors were reached who had participated in the hot air balloon tour in Cappadocia Region. Demographic characteristics of participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of visitors participating in the research

Gender	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**	**Marital Status**	**Frequency**	**Percentage %**
Female	198	48.8	Single	182	44.8
Male	208	51.2	Married	224	55.2
Nationality			**Monthly Income**		
Chinese	164	40.4	Low	54	13.3
Turkish	184	45.3	Moderate	280	69.0
Other	58	14.3	High	72	17.7
Education			**Age**		
Primary School	3	0.7	Under 25	100	24.6
Secondary School	9	2.2	25-45	223	54.9
High School	94	23.2	Older than 46	83	20.4
Associate degree	84	20.7			
Bachelor's Degree	150	36.9			
Postgraduate	66	16.3			
N=406					

Source: Authors

Considering the gender distribution of the participants, 48.8% of them were female, and 51.2% of them were men. Considering the marital status, it was observed that 44.8% of participants were single, and 55.2% of them were married. According to the distribution of the nationality of the participant visitors, it was observed that 40.4% of them were Chinese, 45.3% of them were Turkish, and 14.3% of them were from other nationalities. In terms of monthly income, it was seen that participant tourists were divided into three groups, 13.3% of them were in low-income group, 69% of them were in middle-income group, and 17.7% of them were in high income group. It was observed that, in terms of the level of education, 0.7% of participants were primary school graduates; 2.2% of them were secondary school graduates; 23.2% of them were high school graduates; 20.7% of them were associate degree graduates; 36.9% of them were bachelor's degree graduates; and 16.3% of them were postgraduate degree graduates. Age distribution of visitors was as follows: 24.6% of them were under 25 years of age; 54.95 of them were between 25-45 years of age; and 20.4% of them were older than 46.

•*Descriptive Statistics of the Scales Used in the Research*

Averages, standard deviation and values for experience dimensions, destination image change and behavioral intention sub-scales are given in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of the research scale

Scales	**Arithmetic Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Experience Value	4.29	0.50
Esthetic	4.65	0.42
Educational	4.20	0.69
Entertainment	4.32	0.67
Escapee	4.02	0.84
Security	4.18	0.85
Memory	4.39	0.69
Image Change	4.30	0.96
Behavioral Intention	4.33	0.77
Intention to Revisit	4.21	0.98
Intention to Recommend to Others	4.45	0.77
Scale: 1=absolutely disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree, 5=absolutely agree N=406		

Source: Authors

Examining the average values in Table 2, it is seen that visitors are significantly affected by all aspects of the hot air balloon experience. It is observed that the Hot Air Balloon (HAB) experience with an average of 4.02% is the escape dimension with the lowest rate among the averages. With the highest rate of 4.65%, it is observed that the HAB experience is due to its esthetic dimension. It is thought that the unique natural beauties of the Cappadocia region during the HAB experience create a remarkable landscape in the sky accompanied by colorful balloons.

•*Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Experience Dimensions Scale*

A scale of 20 items was adapted from literature studies and interviews to measure the entertainment, escape, educational, esthetics, memory and security sub-dimensions of the hot air balloon experience value.

Descriptive factor analysis was applied using principal component analysis and "varimax" axis rotation methods in the SPSS 24.0 program to determine the structural validity of the scale and to observe the accumulation of similar items under the same dimension.

As a result of factor analysis, since factor loads of the 4th item measuring the esthetic dimension of the experience, "I felt the taste of untouched nature during the balloon tour" and the 19th item measuring the size of the memory "This cruise will be among my most beautiful memories." were below 0.40 and they demonstrated cross-loading trend, the two items are excluded from the evaluation.

As a result of the re-applied factor analysis after the items extracted to reach a meaningful factor structure, it was observed that 20 items were collected under 6 factors. As a result of descriptive factor analysis, it was determined that the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) sample proficiency value was 0.881 and the sample size was sufficient for factor analysis. Altunışık, et al., (2007) have indicated that the KMO ratio should be above 0,5; otherwise, the data set will not be suitable for factor analysis. The fact that Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant [x2 (190) =3775.108 p<0.001] indicates that correlation relationship among items is suitable for factor analysis (Gürbüz, Şahin, 2014). In descriptive factor analysis, it is expected that eigenvalues be greater than 1. Of the 6 factors that had been formed as a result of the analysis, while 5 of them were valued more than 1, 6th factor was seen to have a value very close to 1 (0.955). It was determined that the adapted scale consisting of 20 items was in a 6-factor structure, factors explained 70,148% of the total variance, and the factor load of the items was above 0,6. Adapted scale items and loads, values, described variance percentages of items in factors, and explanatory factor analysis results for Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Factor analysis results of the research scale

Factors	Factor Loads	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance %	Alpha
Factor1: Hot Air Balloon Entertainment Value				
The balloon activities were amusing.	0.777	7.242	14.573	0.824
The activities on the balloon tour were entertaining.	0.759			
The entertainment was captivating.	0.754			
During the balloon tour witnessing the other participants was entertaining.	0.604			
Factor2: Hot Air Balloon Escape Value				
I completely escaped from reality.	0.827	2.111	13.940	0.848
The experience here let me imagine being someone else.	0.755			
I felt like I was in a different time or place.	0.710			
I felt like I was living in a different time or place.	0.662			
Factor3: Hot Air Balloon Educational Value				
I had information about how balloon flies.	0.775	1.434	12.037	0.798
I learnt a lot during this hot air balloon tour.	0.739			
I received personal security training before the tour.	0.655			
It stimulated my curiosity to learn new things.	0.598			
Factor4: Hot Air Balloon Memory Value				
I will remember this balloon tour as a positive travel experience.	0.801	1.207	11.076	0.795
I had desire to take photos to remember this balloon experience.	0.796			
I won't forget my experience on this cruise.	0.784			
Factor5: Hot Air Balloon Esthetic Value				
Multicolored balloons in the sky were astonishing.	0.804	1.081	9.706	0.705
Viewing the harmony of unique natural Cappadocia landscape from the sky was very beautiful.	0.737			
Flying among other balloons was a unique view.	0.709			
Factor6: Hot Air Balloon Security Value				
I realized that all necessary measures were taken for a safe flight.	0.862	0.955	8.815	0.836
I felt safe during the balloon tour.	0.813			
Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin sample adequacy measure = 0.881 Bartlett's test of sphericity Chi-square value = 3775.108 df=190 p=0.00<0.05 Total variance explained (%) = 70.148				

Source: Authors

As shown in Table 3, the first factor that constitutes the entertainment dimension of the HAB experience after the rotation process explains the variance by 14.573%; the second factor that constitutes the escape dimension explains the variance by 13.940%; the third factor that constitutes the educational dimension explains the variance by 13.037%; the fourth factor that constitutes the memory dimension factor explains the variance by 11.076%; the fifth factor that constitutes the esthetic dimension explains the variance by 9.706%; and the sixth factor that constitutes the security dimension explains the variance by 8.815%.

•*Reliability Analysis of Items for Scales used in Research*

While the structural validity of the scale is determined by descriptive factor analysis, it is also necessary to determine simultaneously whether scale items are measuring consistently, or whether there is consistency between scale items. The most common analysis used in this context is reliability analysis (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2014, p. 323). The statistical method to be used to determine measurement reliability is discussed by statisticians where the problem varies according to the type of problem. However, the examination of the Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient has become general in measuring the reliability of the Likert type scale (Bademci, 2006). For this reason, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to determine scale reliability. Cronbach alpha coefficients obtained as a result of reliability analysis performed are given in Table 4.

Table 4: Reliability analysis results of research scale

Scales	Number of items	α
Experience Dimensions		
Esthetic	3	0.705
Educational	4	0.798
Entertainment	4	0.824
Escape	4	0.848
Security	2	0.836
Memory	3	0.795
Behavioral Intention	2	0.689
Total Items	23	

Source: Authors

According to the results of the reliability analysis applied to each sub-scale in Table 4, reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) was determined as follows: esthetic value (0.705), educational value

(0.798), entertainment value (0.824), escape value (0.848), security value (0.836), commemorative value (0.795), behavioral intention (0.689). If the alpha reliability coefficient value is between 0.60-0.80, the scale is considered highly reliable (Özdamar, 1999, p. 522). According to these criteria, the scale can be said to be highly reliable.

•*Correlation Analysis for Model Variables*

Before testing the research hypotheses, the degree of relation between the dependent and independent variables in the model was examined. Therefore, the results of the multiple correlation analysis are given in Table 5.

Table 5: Research variables and multiple correlation analysis results

	1	2	3
1. Hot Air Balloon Experience Value	1		
2. Behavioral Intention	.576**	1	
3. Image Change	.565**	.645**	1
Pearson (two-way) correlation coefficients shown as marked with ** are significant at p< 0.01 level.			

Source: Authors

According to Table 5; as result of correlation analysis, there is a significant and positive relationship 1% ($p<0.01$) among HAB experience value, behavioral intention, and destination image change variables. According to the findings, there is a significant and positive relationship between the experience value of the hot air balloon and the behavioral intention ($r_{(466)} = 0.576$, $p<0.001$). There is a significant and positive relationship between the hot air balloon experience and the change in destination image ($r_{(466)} = 0.576$, $p<0.001$). There is also a significant and positive relationship between destination image change and behavioral intention ($r_{(466)} = 0.645$, $p<0.001$). The existence of a positive relationship among variables indicates that the two variables change together. In other words, the "hot air balloon experience value" and "behavioral intention" and "destination image change" are increasing or decreasing together. The fact that existing variables have relationships with one another does not mean that there is a cause-and-effect among them. In other words, correlation analysis does not indicate causality. When correlation analysis examines the relationship between variables, variables are not treated as a dependent and independent variables. Therefore, regression analysis will be performed to examine the direction and degree of the relationship by addressing dependent and independent variables.

•*Impact of Hot Air Balloon Experience Value Dimensions on Change in Destination Image*

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the impact of entertainment, escape, educational, memory, esthetics and security value dimensions within the hot air balloon experience on the change of destination image. Results of multiple regression analysis are provided in Table 6. According to Table 6, the R^{-} value showing multiple relationships is 0.602. The Value R^2 indicates how much of the changes in dependent variable (destination image change) are explained by independent variables (HAB experience value dimensions such as esthetics, educational, entertainment, escape, memory, security). Accordingly, it can be said that the 36% variance in the change of the destination image depends on independent variables. Table 6 contains Anova results showing the result of multiple regression

Table 6: Results of multiple linear regression analyses conducted to determine the impact of hot air balloon experience value dimensions on destination image change

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Estimated Standard Error	
1	0.602	0.362	0.353	0.776	1.726

Anova						
Model	R	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	136.552	6	22.759	37.775	0.000

Coefficients								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Standard error	Beta (β)	t	Sig. (p)	Tolerance Value	VIF
Independent Variables	Constant	-1.222	0.449		-2.720	0.007		
	Esthetic	0.333	0.106	0.144	3.131	0.002*	0.753	1.329
	Educational	0.126	0.077	0.090	1.629	0.104	0.523	1.912
	Entertainment	0.265	0.078	0.184	3.413	0.001*	0.549	1.822
	Escape	0.067	0.063	0.058	1.063	0.288	0.535	1.868
	Security	0.067	0.055	0.059	1.208	0.228	0.678	1.474
	Memory	0.399	0.067	0.285	5.971	0.000*	0.701	1.426
Dependent variable: Destination image change *Significant at p<0.05 level*								

Source: Authors

significance. According to the Anova result, p=0.000 indicates that it is significant at $p<0.01$ level. Examining β coefficients according to Table 6, when all dependent variables are analyzed with regression model, a positive significant contribution of HAB experience are found in dimensions such as memory (β=0.285, $p<0.05$), entertainment (β=0.184, $p<0.05$), esthetics (β=0.144, $p<0.05$) in explaining destination image change/renewal.

Although there were no multiple connection problems observed when looking at VIF values as a result of analysis, it was observed in determining the problem of multiple connections that other validity, i.e. the significance levels of independent variables, did not fulfill the condition of $p<0.05$, and that there was a multi-connection problem in the model in dimensions such as educational (β=0.090, $p>0.05$), escape (β=0.058, $p>0.05$), security (β=0.059, $p>0.05$). In this case, to eliminate the problem of multiple connections, stepwise regression analysis will be applied to recreate the regression model.

Hierarchical regression Stepwise regression analysis (stepwise) method consisting of independent variables consisting of esthetic, entertainment, educational, escape, security and memory dimensions of the HAB experience and variables dependent on destination image change was applied, and the analysis results are given in Table 7.

The final regression model obtained by applying the stepwise regression method resulted in as in Model 4. Therefore, Model 4 will be interpreted. According to Model 4; to resolve the problem of multi-connections, independent variables for escape and security dimension were extracted. Memory, entertainment, esthetics and educational variables included in the model can be said to explain 35.7% of the total variance. The Durbin Watson value is 1.740, and it can be said that there is no autocorrelation in stepwise regression

Table 7: Results of multiple linear hierarchical regression Stepwise regression analyses conducted to determine the impact of hot air balloon experience value dimensions on destination image change

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Estimated Standard Error	Durbin Watson
1	.495[a]	0.245	0.243	0.839	
2	.572[b]	0.327	0.324	0.793	
3	.587[c]	0.345	0.340	0.784	
4	.598[d]	0.357	0.351	0.777	1.740

Anova

Model	R	Sum Of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
1	**Regression**	92.285	1	92.285	130.977	.000[b]
2	**Regression**	123.266	2	61.633	97.914	.000[c]
3	**Regression**	129.896	3	43.299	70.458	.000[d]
4	**Regression**	134.614	4	33.654	55.690	.000[e]

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Standard error	Beta (β)	t	Sig. (p)	Tolerance Value	VIF
1	**Constant**	1.259	0.269		4.685	0.000		
	Memory	0.692	0.060	0.495	11.445	0.000	1.000	1.000
2	**Constant**	0.132	0.301		0.440	0.661		
	Memory	0.496	0.064	0.355	7.808	0.000	0.808	1.238
	Entertainment	0.459	0.065	0.319	7.016	0.000	0.808	1.238
3	**Constant**	-0.953	0.444		-2.146	0.032		
	Memory	0.435	0.066	0.311	6.630	0.000	0.742	1.349
	Entertainment	0.396	0.068	0.275	5.860	0.000	0.741	1.349
	Esthetic	0.351	0.107	0.152	3.285	0.001	0.758	1.319
4	**Constant**	-1.202	0.450		-2.675	0.008		
	Memory	0.426	0.065	0.304	6.539	0.000	0.740	1.352
	Entertainment	0.297	0.076	0.206	3.928	0.000	0.581	1.722
	Esthetic	0.335	0.106	0.145	3.153	0.002	0.756	1.323
	Educational	0.188	0.067	0.135	2.794	0.005	0.691	1.447

Dependent variable: Destination image change
*Significant at $p<0.05$ level

Source: Authors

Table 8: Results of linear regression analysis on the impact of image change of destination on intention to revisit the destination

Model Summary				
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Estimated Standard Error**
1	0.571	0.326	0.324	0.807

Anova						
Model	**R**	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p**
1	Regression	127.321	1	127.321	195.554	0.000

Coefficients						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**		
		B	**Standard error**	**Beta (β)**	**t**	**Sig. (p)**
Independent Variable	**Constant**	1.716	0.183		9.376	0.000
	Destination image change	0.581	0.042	0.571	13.984	0.000*

Dependent variable: Intention to Revisit
*Significant at $p<0.05$ level

Source: Authors

analysis. In the new model, we can say that multi-connections problems are eliminated considering the VIF value and p-value of variables in the model ($p<0.05$). Considering regression coefficients (ß), the relative importance of independent variables in the model on the change in destination image is at following levels: memory (ß=0.304), entertainment (ß=0.206), esthetics (ß=0.145) and educational (ß=0.135) respectively.

According to this conclusion; memory, entertainment, esthetic and educational dimensions of hot air balloon experience are effective on changing the image of the destination.

H1: Hot air balloon experience dimensions have an impact on the change of destination image. H1 hypothesis was accepted.

•*Effect of the Change in Image of Destination on Intention to Revisit Destination*

Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to examine the impact of the destination image change on the intention of revisiting. Results of multiple regression analysis are provided in Table 8. According to Table 8, the R-value showing multiple relationships is 0.571. R2 value, on the other hand, indicates how much of the changes in dependent variable (intention to visit again) are explained by the independent variable (destination image change). Accordingly, it can be said that the 32% change in the intention of revisiting depends on the change in image of the destination, which is the independent variable. Table 8 contains Anova results showing the result of multiple regression significance. According to the Anova result, p=0.000 indicates that it is significant at $p<0.01$ level.

Regression analysis was applied with a view to determining the impact of image change of destination on intention to revisit the destination When Table 8 is examined, it is seen that independent variable, destination image change (ß= 0.571, $p<0.05$), has a positive significant contribution on the dependent variable, intention to revisit.

H2: The change in the image of destination has an effect on the intention to revisit the destination. H2 Hypothesis was accepted.

•*The Impact of Destination's Image Change on the Intention to Recommend it to Others*

Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to examine the impact of the destination image change/renewal on the intention of recommending it to others. The results of multiple regression analyses are provided in Table 9. According to Table 9, the R value showing multiple relationship is 0.563. R2 value, on the other hand, indicates how much of the changes in dependent variable (intention to recommend it to others) are explained by the independent variable (destination image change). Accordingly, it can be said that the 31% change in the intention of revisiting depends on the change in image of the destination, which is the independent variable. Table 9 contains Anova results showing the result of multiple regression significance. According to the Anova result, p=0.000 indicates that it is significant at $p<0.01$ level.

Table 9: Results of linear regression analysis on the impact of image change of destination on intention to recommend it to other

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Estimated Standard Error
1	0.563	0.317	0.315	0.638

Anova

Model	R	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
1	Regression	76.185	1	76.185	187.297	0.000

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Standard error	Beta (β)	t	Sig. (p)
Independent Variable	Constant	2.518	0.145		17.405	0.000
	Destination image change	0.450	0.033	0.563	13.686	0.000*

Dependent variable: Intention to recommend to others
*Significant at p<0.05 level

Source: Authors

Regression analysis was applied to determine the impact of image change of destination on the intention to recommend it to others. When Table 9 is examined, it is seen that the independent variable, destination image change (ß= 0.563, p<0.05), has a positive significant contribution to the on the dependent variable, intention to recommend it to others.

H3: The destination has an effect on the intention to recommend the image change destination to others. H3 hypothesis was accepted.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

Cappadocia Region is an important destination where the value of natural and cultural tourism assets is accepted worldwide and is visited by a significant number of tourists every year. However, to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage in the tourism market, Cappadocia Region, like all destinations, must adapt to the change in tourist profile (Karakuş & Çoban, 2017).

In this context, hot air balloon tours, in which action marketing and experiences were emphasized in Cappadocia region, have been investigated as the main point of this study

According to empirical research findings, the value of the hot air balloon experience, and dimensions of memory, entertainment, esthetics and educational have a significant and powerful effect on the change of the image of Cappadocia. This change in the image of Cappadocia has the same effect on behavioral intentions. Therefore, it can be said that Cappadocia has a strategic role in the promotion of the hot air ballooning destination, image formation and even positive change of such image. It is recommended that the stakeholders responsible for destination marketing use this role of hot air ballooning to create a competitive advantage.

It is emphasized by various researchers in the literature that the image of the destination has a dynamic structure (Galarza et al., 2002) and can change in a positive or negative way as a result of experiences in the destination (Chon, 1992; Beerli and Martin, 2004; Kim et al., 2012; Rodríguez et al.,2012; Vitouladiti, 2014; Yeh, Chen, Liu, 2012). However, as some researchers have pointed out, the image of the destination is highly fragile and easily weakened (Li and Vogelson, 2006). When tourists visit another destination, the image of the previous destination weakens over time and may even lose its influence (Hamidizadeh, et al.,2016). To create a sustainable positive image in this respect, the primary goal of destination marketing should be to enrich their destination experience and to establish a commitment to the destination (King, Chen and Funk, 2015).

Having the meteorological flight conditions required for hot air balloon tours of the region and providing visitors with a visual experience of Cappadocia's natural beauties during balloon flights make people think that these tours are a value-added product for Cappadocia. Indeed, according to Bahar and Kozak (2005), destination competition is the ability of a destination to create value-added products in a way that maintains its market share against its competitors and ensures the continuity of resources. So hot air balloon tours are a value-added product that will enable Cappadocia destination to gain a competitive advantage and maintain it. On the other hand, in destinations, touristic experiences are economic offers (Furmolly & Kırkulak Uludağ, 2018) that add value to products and services, and which are difficult to copy for businesses remembered by visitors. From this point of view, hot air balloon tours add value to Cappadocia's destination and increase their competitiveness, especially in terms of their adventure experience and their highly difficult qualities to copy.

The visitor experience is a multidimensional phenomenon that can occur between visitor and destination at every point of interaction and affect the tendency to revisit and recommend to others. In this respect, the fact that the hot air balloon experience will affect revisiting and recommending trends for Cappadocia destination reveals the economic value of this experience.

In terms of the hot air balloon experience and in light of the findings of this study, hot air balloon operators should analyze the balloon experience value for existing and target customers. In this way, important data can be obtained on which experience dimension has a stronger value, which dimension should be strengthened, and marketing strategies can be based on this data.

The significant effect of memory value in the HAB experience indicates that tourists experience a memorable experience. In terms of this result obtained in the study, especially the purpose of touristic experiences should not be related only to the moment in which it occurs, it is important to live in the memories of tourists after a positive experience and to arouse the tourist's desire to recommend to others. The value of experiences should continue to exist in the memory of tourists (Pine and Gilmore, 1999).

Taking this example of this study on the determination of experience values of hot air balloon tours offered as an important tourist product in Cappadocia and the renewal/change of the image of Cappadocia, adventure tourism in the region Equestrian safaris and ATV tours offered within the scope can be examined in terms of experience values. These reviews can make an important contribution in terms of diversification and development of tourism in the region by enabling the development of dimensions that will add value to experience in the products offered. This can strengthen the image of Cappadocia and induce the behavioral intentions of current and potential visitors.

In the future, it is suggested for researchers and operators to examine in detail the changes in experience dimensions and types of experience, thereby tailoring product designs and marketing communications to ever-changing consumer behavior strategies. In addition, by measuring the image of balloon experience in future studies, the effect of the Cappadocia image can be investigated. In other words, the issue can be looked at in terms of image transfer.

Conducting and analyzing such research in certain periods would be beneficial for tourism businesses and destinations. In terms of the studies to be carried out, it would be useful to conduct similar research for different regions in terms of determining the dimensions that constitute tourist experiences throughout Turkey and studying these aspects.

6. References

Altunışık R, Coşkun R, Bayraktaroğlu S, Yildirim E. (2007). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Araştırma Yöntemleri. Sakarya Yayıncılık* (Vol. 226). Sakarya.

Andersson T D. (2007). The Tourist in the Experience Economy. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, *7*(1), 46–58. https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250701224035

Bademci V. (2006). Tartışmayı Sonlandırmak: Cronbach'ın Alfa Katsayısı, İki Değerli [0, 1] Ölçümlenmiş Maddeler ile Kullanılabilir. *Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *13*, 438–446.

Bahar O, Kozak M. (2005). Türkiye Turizminin Akdeniz Ülkeleri ile Rekabet Gücü Açısından Karşılaştırılması. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, *4220*, 139–152.

Baloglu S, Mccleary K W. (1999). A Model of Destination Image Formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *26*(4), 868–897. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00030-4

Beerli A, Martín J D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(3), 657–681. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.01.010

Berry L L, Carbone L P, Haeckel S H. (2002). Managing the total customer experience. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *43*(3), 85.

Carlson R A. (1997). *Experienced cognition*. Psychology Press.

Chon Kye-Sung. (1992). The role of destination image in tourism: An extension. *The Tourist Review*, *47*(1), 2–8. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb058086

Chon Kyesung. (1991). Tourism destination image modification process: Marketing implications. *Tourism Management*, *12*(1), 68–72.

Crompton J L. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image. *Journal of Travel Research*, *17*(4), 18–23.

Çelik, P., Yüzbaşioğlu, N., & Topsakal, Y. (2017). The impact of tourists' perceptions on revisit intention. In *International Tourism Congress* (pp. 29-30).

Denzin N K. (1992). *Symbolic interactionism and cultural studies: The politics of interpretation*. John Wiley & Sons.

Echtner C M, Ritchie J R B. (1991). The Meaning and Measurement of Destination Image. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, *2*(2), 2–12. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759303100402

Fakeye P C, Crompton J L. (1991). Image Differences between Prospective, First-Time, and Repeat Visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, *30*(2), 10–16. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759103000202

Furmolly, A , Kırkulak Uludağ, B . (2018). Turizmin Türkiye Ekonomisi Üzerindeki Etkisi (1963-2015) . *Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism* , 3 (1) , 11-22 . DOI: 10.31822/jomat.364321

Gallarza M G, Gil I. (2006). Value dimensions , perceived value , satisfaction and loyalty : an investigation of university students ' travel behaviour, *27*, 437–452. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2004.12.002

Gallarza M G, Saura I G, García H C. (2002). Destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(1), 56–78. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00031-7

Gartner W C. (1994). Image formation process. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, (2–3), 191–216.

Gartner W C, Hunt J D. (1987). An Analysis of State Image Change Over a Twelve-Year Period (1971-1983. *Journal of Travel Research*, *26*(2), 15–19. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728758702600204

Gunn C A. (1972). Designing tourist regions. *New York: Von Nostrand Reinhold*.

Gupta S, Vajic M. (1999). The contextual and dialectical nature of experiences. *New Service Development: Creating Memorable Experiences*, 33–51.

Güneren, E., & Karakuş, Y. (2015). Turizmde Postmodern Pazarlama. In B. Kılıç ve Z. Öter (Eds.), *Turizm Pazarlamasında Güncel Yaklaşımla*. Beta Yayım Dağıtım

Gürbüz S, Şahin F. (2014). *Sosyal bilimlerde araştırma yöntemleri. Seçkin Yayıncılık*. Ankara.

Hamidizadeh M R, Cheh M G, Moghadam A H, Salimipour S. (2016). Proposing a Model of the Effect of Word of Mouth on Destination Image of Tourists and Travel Intention. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, *6*(2), 108–119. https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.1/2016.6.2/1.2.108.119

Holbrook M B. (1996). Special session summary customer value C a framework for analysis and research. *NA-Advances in Consumer Research Volume 23*.

Holbrook M B, Hirschman E C. (1982). The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings, and Fun. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *9*(2), 132. https://doi.org/10.1086/208906

Hosany S, Witham M. (2010). Dimensions of Cruisers' Experiences, Satisfaction, and Intention to Recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(3), 351–364. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509346859

Hunt J D. (1975). Image as a factor in tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, *13*(3), 1–7.

Ibrahim E E, Gill J. (2005). A positioning strategy for a tourist destination, based on analysis of customers' perceptions and satisfactions. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, *23*(2), 172–188. https://doi.org/10.1108/02634500510589921

Jenkins O. (1999). Understanding and Measuring Tourist Destination Images. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *1*(1), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1522-1970(199901/02)1:1<1::AID-JTR143>3.3.CO;2-C

Jurowski C. (2009). An examination of the four realms of tourism experience theory. *International CHRIE Conference-Refereed Track*, Paper 23. https://doi.org/ISBN#0-9746470-8-X

Karakuş, Y., & Çoban, S. (2018). Evaluation Of Stakeholders' Expectations Towards Congress Tourism By Kano Model: Case Of Nevşehir. *Anais Brasileiros de Estudos Turísticos - ABET*, *8* (2), 8–20. Retrieved from https://abet.ufjf.emnuvens.com.br/abet/article/view/3027

Kim K, Hallab Z, Kim J N. (2012). The moderating effect of travel experience in a destination on the relationship between the destination image and the Intention to revisit. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *21*(5), 486–505. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2012.626745

Kim S S, Morrsion A M. (2005). Change of images of South Korea among foreign tourists after the 2002 FIFA World Cup. *Tourism Management*, *26*(2), 233–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.11.003

King C, Chen N, Funk D C. (2015). Explorıng Destınatıon Image Decay : A Study of Sport Tourısts ' Destınatıon Image Change After Event Partıcıpatıon, *39*(1), 3–31. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348012461547

Kotler P. (1982). Marketing for nonprofit organizations.

Kül Avan, S., & Güçer, E. (2019). Determining the Leisure Satisfaction Levels of Individuals Having

Hot Air Balloon Ride as an Adventurous Recreational Activity. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism*, 63–69. https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.618715

Li X, Vogelson H. (2006). Comparing Methods of Measuring Image Change: a Case Study of a Small-Scale Community Festival. *Tourism Analysis*, *10*(4), 349–360. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354206776162769

Mannell R C. (1984). A psychology for leisure research. *Loisir et Société/Society and Leisure*, *7*(1), 11–21.

Mathwick C, Malhotra N, Rigdon E. (2001). Experiential value: Conceptualization, measurement and application in the catalog and Internet shopping environment. *Journal of Retailing*, *77*(1), 39–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4359(00)00045-2

Mayo E J. (1973). Regional images and regional travel behavior. In *The Travel Research Association Fourth Annual Conference Proceedings* (pp. 211–218).

McLellan H. (2000). Experience design. *Cyberpsychology and Behavior*, *3*(1), 59–69.

Milman A, Pizam A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: The central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, *33*(3), 21–27.

Mossberg L. (2007). A Marketing Approach to the Tourist Experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, *7*(1), 59–74. https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250701231915

O'Sullivan E L, Spangler K J. (1998). *Experience marketing: strategies for the new Millennium.* Venture Publishing Inc.

Oh H, Fiore a. M, Jeoung M. (2007). Measuring Experience Economy Concepts: Tourism Applications. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*(2), 119–132. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507304039

Oral S, Çelik A. (2014). Deneyimsel Değer, Tüketici Tatmini Ve Tüketici Sadakati Arasındaki İlişkinin Belirlenmesine Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, *16*(3), 469–497.

Özdamar K. (1999). Paket programlar ile istatistiksel veri analizi. *Kaan Kitabevi, Eskişehir*, *2*(s 257).

Özel Ç H, Kozak N. (2016). An exploratory study of resident perceptions toward the tourism industry in Cappadocia: A Social Exchange Theory approach. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *0*(0), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2016.1236826

Pektaş F. (2012). Destinasyon İmajının Tatil Satın Alma Kararı Üzerine Etkisi, (Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans tezi). Aksaray Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Aksaray.

Pine B J, Gilmore J H. (1999). *The experience economy: work is theatre & every business a stage.* Harvard Business Press.

Prayag G. (2008). Image , Satisfaction and Loyalty — The Case of Cape. *An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *19*(2), 205–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2008.9687069

Robert L, Chambers R. (2000). Marketing Leadership in Hospitality. *New York*.

Rodríguez Molina M Á, Frías-Jamilena D-M, Castañeda-García J A. (2012). The moderating role of past experience in the formation of a tourist destination's image and in tourists' behavioural intentions. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *3500*(May 2013), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2012.665045

Schmitt B. (1999). Experiential Marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *15*, 53–67. https://doi.org/10.1362/026725799784870496

Sheth J N, Newman B I, Gross B L. (1991). Why we buy what we buy: A theory of consumption values. *Journal of Business Research*, *22*(2), 159–170.

Tapachai N, Waryszak R. (2000). An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. *Journal of Travel Research*, *39*(1), 37–44.

Tasci A, Gartner W C. (2007). Destination Image and Its Functional Relationships. *Journal of Travel Research*, *45 VN-r*(4), 413–425. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507299569

Titz K. (2008). Experiential consumption: Affect-emotions-hedonism. *Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management*, 324–352.

Uriely N. (2005). The tourist experience. Conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *32*(1), 199–216. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.07.008

Vitouladiti O. (2014). Combining Primary Destination Image With Acquired Experience for Effective Marketing. *South-Eastern Europe Journal of Economics*, *1*, 107–133.

Wang C, Hsu M. (2010). The relationships of destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: An integrated model. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *27*(8), 829–843. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2010.527249

Williams P, Soutar G. (2009). Value, Satisfaction and Behavioral Intentions in an Adventure Tourism Context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *36*(3), 413–438. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.02.002

Woodside A G, Caldwell M, Albers-Miller N D. (2004). Broadening the study of tourism: Introduction to the special issue on the consumer psychology of travel/tourism behavior. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *17*(1), 1–6.

Yeh S-S, Chen C, Liu Y-C. (2012). *Nostalgic emotion, experiential value, destination image, and place attachment of cultural tourists. Advances in Hospitality and Leisure* (Vol. 8). Emerald Group Publishing Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1745-3542(2012)0000008013

Jomat

Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism
2020, 5 (1): 55-62
www.jomat.org

ISSN: 2645-9078
OLD ISSN: 2548-0847

Problematic of Tourism in Adıyaman: Multidimensional Barriers with a Community Perspective

Caner Çalışkan, Hülya Yeşilyurt*

ABSTRACT

Tourism success is an important parameter of regional development. The way a society perceives tourism and existing issues and the rate of participation in political decisions are also important factors, particularly for developing regions. In this sense, the perspective of the locals provides a significant clue for researchers and policy makers. In this study, the tourism development of Adıyaman, one of the potential tourism destination of Turkey, has been analyzed through a societal perspective. 187 people have been selected through convenience sampling method under the scope of the study and they have been posed open-ended questions. The acquired data have been categorized under three sections as socio-cultural, socio-economic and geographic barriers. As a result of the study, the most significant barriers for tourism are defined as the local administration, investment, transport and promotion

Keywords:
Tourism,
Community,
Socio-Culture,
Socio-Economy,
Geography,
Adıyaman

Article History:
Submitted:09.03.2020
Accepted: 18.07.2020

Doi: https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.749304

1. Introduction

The interaction between social structure and tourism development is important in any region. However, this interaction can turn into a social issue due to the complicated structure and mechanism of tourism (Kim, Chen and Jang, 2006; Lee and Chang, 2008). As such, tourism becomes the multi-dimensional outcome of relations formed within a community or with other communities (Avcıkurt, 2009). In a similar description, tourism is a system that is formed by local dynamics in economic and socio-cultural terms and reflects local characteristics (Rızaoğlu, 2003; Kim, Uysal and Sirgy, 2013). Therefore, community is the most important stakeholder of tourism (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005; Homsud and Promsaard, 2015). On the other hand, existing values are highly effective in a society's perception of tourism (Matthews and Richter, 1991; Liu, 2006; Eshliki and Kaboudi, 2012). At this point, social structure, which is the sum of existing values, becomes a factor that defines the level of social awareness, trust and partnership (Gulati, 1995). In other words, in a community's approach towards tourism (Stylidis, et al. 2014; Lee, 2013), the way tourism has positioned itself within social structure (García, Vázquez and Macías, 2015), the way it penetrates social life (Tucker and Boonabaana, 2012) and benefit-cost ratio (Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; Yoon, Gursoy and Chen, 2001; Gursoy, Jurowski and Uysal, 2002) are determinant factors.

As can be understood from the statements, the multiple and variable interaction between human and place (Giddens, 2013; Urry, 2015) is similar to the tourism and human interaction in that place (Bjeljac and Ćurčić, 2006). This interaction becomes even more distinctive particularly in developing places (Morton, 2003), because the effects of tourism-based transition in these areas penetrate all areas of social life from physical infrastructure to living standards (Kim, Uysal and Sirgy, 2013). From this point of view, the subject of research was handled on the basis of Adıyaman. As a developing region, Adıyaman failed to gain the anticipated tourism development momentum despite its potential and tourism has rather become a multi-dimensional issue (Yılmaz and

*Corresponding Author

Caner Çalışkan: *Asst. Prof. Dr., Adıyaman University Faculty of Tourism, Email: ccaliskan@adiyaman.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-7774-1769*

Hülya Yeşilyurt: *PhD. Research Assist., Adıyaman University Faculty of Tourism, Email: hyesilyurt@adiyaman.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-9991-2557*

Research Paper

Çalışkan, 2015). At this point, Franklin and Crang (2001) emphasize the need to interpret tourism in different aspects (environment, economy and socio-culture) and from a social perspective. Therefore, in order to solve the dilemmas faced in tourism-development phase in Adıyaman (Çalışkan and Dedeoğlu, 2018), the first thing to do is to understand the community (Reisinger and Turner, 2003). Understanding the community could also become a functional data source for long-term planning and implementation practises (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004). At this point, the perception of the locals towards tourism within the social structure (Chandralal, 2010) can become a significant reference point in the development of tourism (Andereck and Vogt 2000). In this sense, the purpose of this current study is to analyse barriers of tourism development in Adıyaman through the local perspective and within the context of various dimensions.

2. Literature

Regional Tourism Development

Tourism is a strategic driver (Usta, 2009; Kim, Uysal and Sirgy, 2013) of regional development (Budeanu, 2005) and it is an important interaction factor that generates outputs in social and economic dimensions (Ahmad, 2013) and affects social life (Haley, Snaith and Miller, 2005). The actual expectation from tourism development is contribution to living standards in economic, socio-cultural and environmental manner (McCool and Martin, 1994). With this aspect, regional tourism development is a complicated issue involving social, political and economic aspects (Grandpré and Py, 2007) and the literature on the subject includes various studies addressing the issue from different angles and different disciplines (Dowling, 1993; Telfer, 2002; Romão, Guerreiro and Rodrigues, 2013; Liang and Chan, 2018). A majority of these studies are on the time-wise and spatial transitions of regions, their development policies, planning difficulties, marketing difficulties and strategy development (Henderson, 2006). A more detailed analysis of the subject indicates that the barriers of regional tourism development consist of several factors such as indifference, institutional weaknesses, lack of investment and insufficient participation in decision-making processes (Aref, 2010; Karakuş, 2019). According to Jansen (2003), the main barriers are the lack of investors acting on a voluntary basis, expectation of revenues in short-term, ignoring population structure in planning, indefinite development limits geographically and resistance towards change. On the other hand, James (1998) emphasizes that bureaucratic and politic factors are significant dilemmas, while Waligo, Clarke and Hawkins (2013) believe one of the greatest barrier is the fact that stakeholders are failing to provide sufficient contribution for tourism development. On this bases, Walmsley (2002) emphasize the need to have a strong communication between stakeholders. The actual problem in here is that tourism is generally considered from an economic perspective (Furmolly & Kırkulak Uludağ, 2018). This approach, in a way, is actually ignoring the social aspects of tourism, which offers more than economic contribution in regional development. The reality is that community factor must be included in the process as an integral part of regional development strategy (Macbeth, Carson and Northcote, 2004). Therefore, it should be noted that the social, environmental and economic aspects of the issue should be equally treated (Hancock, 2001) and they need to be addressed through a social perspective.

Community Perspective in Regional Tourism Development

Social perspective is highly important in regional tourism development. The approaches of local people towards tourism can also provide clues about the development and transition capability of a region. According to Urry (2015), the main dimensions in tourism approach are economic, social and geographical factors. Accordingly, it is possible to say that the main factors affecting the perception of a community towards tourism are geography, socio-economy and socio-culture (Akama and Kieti, 2007; Çalışkan, 2015; Wu and Chen, 2015; Çalışkan and Dedeoğlu, 2018).

- *Geography*

Geography defines the quality of life (Knox and Pinch, 2014). According to Rentfrow, Jokela and Lamb (2015), interpretation of geography is important to understand and make sense of the connection between the place and lifecycle. Stoltman (1997) describes geography as a local's adaptation tool for change. Farole, Rodriguez-Pose and Storper (2011) associated a region's development potential with the interaction between human and geography, further to the socio-politic and economic factors. Furthermore, place–tourism interaction is another important issue (Harrill, 2004) and the perception of this interaction by the local community can vary depending on time, place and geography (García, Vázquez and Macías, 2015). It should be emphasized that geography is also a way of communication between regions (Giddens, 2013).

This is no different when it comes to tourism. For instance, accessibility and distance are two important factors for the formation of a connection between a visitor and the visited area and these two factors are directly related to geography (Akdağ and Öter, 2011; Joo et.al., 2017). Hence, geography accommodates deep-rooted meanings for the formation of tourism perception.

- *Socio-economy*

Socio-economy is a multi-dimensional concept building bridges between different disciplines (Jakobsen, 2017) and it covers different overlapping subjects (Jiang et.al., 2016). When reviewed in terms of economy and community, it becomes clear that the concept is an important variable for tourism. Economy forms the basis of tourism and depending on human mobility, tourism creates new revenue items in different fields (Sanmargaraja and Wee, 2013), hence it becomes influential on a wide area (Akinboade and Braimoh, 2010). To be more precise, this has deep-rooted effects on the social lives of individuals (Ghanian, Ghoochani and Crott, 2014), from new employment opportunities to income growth (Archer, Cooper and Ruhanen, 2005). Hence, the relation of tourism with socio-economy can turn into a significant parameter in terms of social perspective.

- *Socio-Culture*

Socio-culture is a phenomena that is reflected through several variables such as values, norms, beliefs, education, social stratification, profession, behavioural patterns and traditions (Mutsikiwa and Basera, 2012: 115). Therefore, the attitude that occurs within a socio-cultural structure is the starting point of regional development and transition (Larsen, 2008). And tourism is being shaped within this structure. According to Dinu (2018), tourism is a socio-cultural experience that help people to satisfy their needs to relax, travel, discover or socialise with other people (Dinu, 2018: 183). At this point, socio-culture also becomes a factor that illustrate the geography an individual is in (Robinson, 1999; Lin, Li and Hong, 2012) and can influence the social perspective in any given subject. As expressed by Doğan (2004), tourism is a social fact and the most important dynamics that influence the development process of tourism are the changes observed in social life. In this sense, social perspective towards the development of tourism can possibly reflect the existing culture. In other words, socio-culture is not only an interpretation tool of a community but it can also become the way of interpretation of the same community.

3. Methodology

Qualitative method has been used in the study and this method has made it possible to collect data realistically and without being manipulated (Yüksel and Yüksel, 2004). Hence, data has been collected from 187 people selected through convenience sampling method in central Adıyaman. An open-ended question form has been used as data collection tool. Open-ended question form has provided advantage in collecting more detailed data related to the subject of the study and reaching a greater number of people. Asking too many questions in interviews makes the participants get bored. Therefore, participants have been posed with three questions only, all of which cover the purpose of the study (Kozak, 2015). These questions were: The “socio-cultural”; “socio-economic” and “geographical” barriers preventing tourism development. Demographic data were the first to be reviewed during the analysis process. The second stage consisted of categorizing the responses as per the number of recurring responses (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011). Then descriptive analysis method has been used in the final stage to categorize user comments under certain themes and turned into statements by keeping loyal to the original (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

4. Findings

Data acquired in the study have been categorized into three groups. The first group includes demographic data; second group includes data acquired through content analysis; while the third group includes data acquired through descriptive analysis.

<u>*First Group Data*</u>

As indicated by demographic data (see, Table 1), male and married participants constitute the majority. In terms of employment status, public workers are in first place. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that a great majority of the participants are native. Age groups had similar distributions. In addition, individuals with a bachelor’s degree ranked first in the education category, while the number of people in age and income variables were similar.

Table 1. Demographic Data

Age	N	%	Gender	N	%
18-25	35	18 .7	Female	83	44 .4
26-35	53	28 .3	Male	104	55 .6
36-45	44	23 .5	**Income**		
≥ 46	55	29 .5	≤ 237$	27	14 .4
Marital status			238-385	74	39 .5
Married	113	61 .4	386-533	29	15 .7
Single	74	38 .6	534-681	24	12 .8
Profession			≥ 682$	33	17 .6
Unemployed	42	22 .4	**Education**		
Private sector	61	32 .6	Primary education	24	12 .8
Public sector	84	45 .0	Secondary education	29	15 .5
Birthplace			Associate degree	30	16 .1
Adıyaman	135	72 .1	Bachelor's degree	83	44 .4
Other	52	27 .9	Postgraduate	21	11 .2
Total	**187**	**100**	**Total**	**187**	**100**

Source:

Second Group Data

The first question posed to participants was the socio-cultural barriers preventing development in tourism. Their responses and percentage distributions are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Socio-Cultural Barriers

Theme	N	%
Style of operation of local authorities	139	26 .5
lack of advertisement	121	23 .1
Lack of development consciousness among community	94	17 .9
Political and bureaucratic problems	63	12 .0
Dereliction	35	6 .7
Lack of tourism consciousness among community	34	6 .5
Natural and cultural environmental destruction	28	5 .3
Negative perception towards Adıyaman	9	2 .0
Total	**523**	**100**

Source:

In terms of socio-cultural barriers preventing tourism development, the main issues pointed out by participants were the style of operation of local authorities, lack of advertisement and a lack of development awareness among community.

In the second part, participants were asked about the socio-economic barriers preventing tourism development. Their responses and percentage distributions are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Socio-Economic Barriers

Theme	N	%
Lack of investment	98	55 .5
Insufficient quality in touristic infrastructure and service	25	14 .2
Local economy	22	12 .4
Lack of tourism-related investment	18	10 .2
Unplanned physical environment	16	7 .7
Total	**176**	**100**

Source:

In terms of socio-economic barriers, one of the important issues pointed out was the lack of tourism-related investment, not only in Adıyaman but as a general issue in tourism. Furthermore, insufficient quality in touristic infrastructure and service is being perceived as another barriers.

Participants have been finally asked about the geographical barriers preventing tourism development. Their responses and percentage distributions are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Geographical Barriers

Theme	N	%
Transportation problem	34	55 .6
Geographical location	13	21 .2
Terror perception	8	13 .1
Proximity to provinces with touristic varieties	6	10 .1
Total	**61**	**100**

Source:

According to Table 4, the issue of transport has been perceived as the most important geographical problem. In addition, the location of the problem, perception of terror and proximity to provinces with touristic varieties have been listed as other barriers.

Third Group Data

Issues related to the activities of local authorities have been listed as an important barrier by the participants, who also believe that lack of regional investments creates a dilemma in tourism development. Local authorities bear important responsibilities during the regional development process (Cavaye and Cavaye, 2000), therefore it is important that they prioritize all types of investments related to tourism (Tosun, Okumuş and Fyall, 2008). Related to this point, the following expression has been stated by one of the participants:

> *"...Local authorities do not perform strong and credible projects."*

Furthermore, another participant made an assessment of the local authority in terms of investments and stated:

> *"…Unfortunately, public and private sector instruments are not being used sufficiently to make tourism better."*

Similarly, another participant stated:

"Local administrators should pay attention to tourism as much as other areas."

Failing to make sufficient amount of advertisement, issue of transportation and lack of development -awareness among the community have been listed by the participants as the noteworthy barriers. A study by Yılmaz and Çalışkan (2015) listed transport, lack of marketing and lack of local interest towards tourism as structural issues in tourism development. Participants have stated the following on this subject:

"Transport is difficult in Adıyaman to go sightseeing…"

"The connection to neighbouring provinces is not sufficient."

"…No large-scale festivals are being organized… Adıyaman should not be a forgotten city."

"Most of the locals spent their leisure time by doing traditional activities, such as visiting their families, and they do not have any intention to seek any new social or cultural activity… Indeed, people of Adıyaman are indifferent towards tourism being developed"

5. Conclusion and Discussion

Despite a potential to become a tourism destination, Adıyaman cannot fulfil this potential and it is understood that this issue has a social aspect (Yılmaz and Çalışkan, 2015). As such, the above listed barriers have been analyzed from a social perspective thanks to this foresight.

Analysis of the demographic structure of participants indicate two main points. The first one is the young-population potential and the second is the fact that majority of the participants are from Adıyaman. It must be emphasized that the acquired results tally with the actual demographic structure of the province (see TUIK, 2020). On the other hand, it is believed that these two elements are offering great opportunities for Adıyaman. As such, it can be said that both of these two elements are important factors to help achieve dynamism (Paksoy and Aydoğu, 2010) and the sense of ownership/belonging (Çalışkan, 2015).

According to data acquired from the study, issues such as bureaucracy, lack of investment, transport and social awareness are the main barriers preventing tourism from growing. Considering the relevant literature, it is indeed the bureaucratic dilemmas (Liu, 1994; Yüksel, Bramwell and Yüksel, 2005), insufficient investment level (Surugiu, 2012), transportation problems (Kantawateera, et. Al., 2015) and insufficient social awareness (Saarinen, 2010) are observed to be important obstacles. In fact, for the efforts aiming to develop tourism in a region to gain momentum (Singgalen, Sasongko and Wiloso, 2018) the foremost requirement is to have a fast-running bureaucratic process (Tosun, 2000). Furthermore, it is also essential to ensure that the efforts in question are society-oriented (Meppem and Gill, 1998) and socio-cultural values are taken into account (Neto, 2003). However, the perception of local communities towards tourism are influenced by ethnicity, beliefs and existing social perceptions (Liu, 2006). At this point, having administrators who are familiar with social structure and analysing tendencies would be a strategic approach (Macnaghten and Jacobs, 1997).

Another matter revealed by the study data is geography. Participants believe accessibility is a geographical dilemma. However, it is also true that an allegedly disadvantageous geographic location of a region could be turned into advantage. For instance, even though Adıyaman is ranked among developed touristic provinces, it can be turned into an area of social interaction among the other regions through an effective tourism planning (Haley, Snaith and Miller, 2005). At this point, the importance of advertising and marketing is once again revealed and it should not be forgotten that geographical uniqueness is an element of attraction (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006).

In conclusion, Adıyaman is located in a unique and rich geography and it should be able to use its social dynamics. In this sense, it is believed that increasing tourism-related social awareness, availing of the potential of young population and concentrating on cultural elements are important factors (Çalışkan and Dedeoğlu, 2018).

The findings of this current study should surely be assessed specifically for Adıyaman. With regards to future studies, comparison of different regions with similar social structures can be recommended.

6. References

Ahmad, A. (2013). The constraints of tourism development for a cultural heritage destination: the case of Kampong Ayer (Water Village) in Brunei Darussalam. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 8: 106–113.*

Akama, J. S. and Kieti, D. (2007). Tourism and socio-economic development in developing countries: A case study of Mombasa Resort in Kenya. *Journal of sustainable tourism, 15*(6), 735-748.

Akdağ, G. and Öter, Z. (2011). Assessment of world tourism from a geographical perspective and a comparative view of leading destinations in the market. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 19, 216-224.

Akinboade, O. A. and Braimoh, L. A. (2010). International tourism and economic development in South Africa: A Granger causality test. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *12*(2), 149-163.

Andereck, K. L. and Vogt, C. A. (2000). The relationship between residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development options. *Journal of Travel research*, *39*(1), 27-36.

Archer, B., Cooper, C. and Ruhanen, L. (2005). The positive and negative impacts of tourism. In W. F. Theobald (Ed.), *Global tourism* (3rd ed., p. 561). Burlington: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Aref, F. (2010). Barriers to Community Capacity Building for Tourism Development in Communities in Shiraz. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 19*(3), 347-359.

Avcıkurt, C. (2009). *Turizm Sosyolojisi, Genel ve Yapısal Yaklaşım.* Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.

Bjeljac, Ž. and Ćurčić, N. (2006). Tourism in the Serbian, Romanian and Hungarian borderline area as part of cross-border cooperation. *Geographica Pannonica*, (10), 73-77.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77-101.

Budeanu, A. (2005), Impacts and Responsibilities for Sustainable Tourism: A Tour Operator's Perspective. *Journal of Cleaner Production* (13), 89-97.

Cavaye, J. M. and Cavaye, J. (2000).*The Role of Government In Community Capacity Building.* Brisbane: Department of Primary Industries.

Chandralal, K.P.L. (2010). Impacts of tourism and community attitude towards tourism: A case study in Sri Lanka. *South Asian Journal of Tourism and Heritage*, *3*(2), 41-49.

Choi, H.C. and Sirakaya, E. (2005). Measuring residents' attitude toward sustainable tourism: Development of sustainable tourism attitude scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, *43*(4), 380-394.

Çalışkan, C. (2015). *Turizm Potansiyeli Olan Bölgelerin Kalkınma Sürecinde Toplumsal Kapasiteyi Güçlendirme Stratejileri: Adıyaman Örneği,* Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Ocak 2015, Nevşehir.

Çalışkan, C. and Dedeoğlu, B.B. (2018): Human geography and branding in small destinations: a case study of Adıyaman, Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, DOI: 10.1080/10941665.2018.1544157

Dinu, A. M. (2018). The importance of transportation to tourism development. *Academic Journal of Economic Studies*, *4*(4), 183-187.

Doğan, Z. (2004). *Turizmin Sosyo-Kültürel Temelleri*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.

Dowling, R. (1993). An environmentally-based planning model for regional tourism development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *1*(1), 17-37.

Eshliki, S. A. and Kaboudi, M. (2012). Community perception of tourism impacts and their participation in tourism planning: a case study of Ramsar, Iran. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *36*, 333-341.

Farole, T., Rodríguez-Pose, A. and Storper, M. (2011). Human geography and the institutions that underlie economic growth. *Progress in Human Geography*, *35*(1), 58-80.

Franklin, A. and Crang, M. (2001). The trouble with tourism and travel theory. *Tourist Studies*, *1*(1), 5-22.

Furmolly, A. W., & Kırkulak Uludağ, B. (2018). The impact of tourism on Turkish economy (1963-2015). *Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism*, 3(1), 11–22. https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.364321

García, F. A., Vázquez, A. B. and Macías, R. C. (2015). Resident's attitudes towards the impacts of tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *13*, 33-40.

Ghanian, M., Ghoochani, O. M. and Crotts, J. C. (2014). An application of European Performance Satisfaction Index towards rural tourism: The case of western Iran. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *11*, 77-82.

Giddens, A. (2013). *Sosyoloji* (Çev. Cemal Güzel). İstanbul: Kırmızı Yayınları.

Grandpré, F. D. and Py, B. (2007). Tourism and Territories. Tourism and Territories, Loisir et Société / Society and Leisure, 30(1), 17-21.

Gursoy, D. and Rutherford, D. G. (2004). Host attitudes toward tourism: An improved structural model. *Annals of tourism Research*, *31*(3), 495-516.

Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C. and Uysal, M. (2002). Resident attitudes: A structural modeling approach. *Annals of tourism research*, *29*(1), 79-105.

Haley, J. A., Snaith, T. and Miller, G. (2005). The social impacts of tourism a case study of Bath, UK. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*(3), 647-668.

Hancock, T. (2001). People, partnerships and human progress: building community capital. *Health promotion international*, *16*(3), 275-280.

Harrill, R. (2004). Residents' attitudes toward tourism development: A literature review with implications for tourism planning. *Journal of Planning Literature*, *18*(3), 251-266.

Henderson, J. C. (2006). Tourism in Dubai: Overcoming barriers to destination development. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *8*(2), 87-99.

Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2006). More than an industry, the forgotten power of tourism as a social force. *Tourism Management 27*(6), 1192-1208.

Homsud, N. and Promsaard, S. (2015). The effects of residents' image and perceived tourism impact to residence satisfaction and support: A case study of hua-hin prachubkirikhan. In *The 2015 WEI International Academic Conference Proceedings* (pp. 190-199).

Jakobsen, O. (2017). *Transformative Ecological Economics: Process Philosophy, Ideology and Utopia*. Routledge.

James, V.U. (Ed.). (1998). *Capacity building in developing countries: Human and environmental dimensions*. Greenwood Publishing Group.

Jansen, L.(2003). The challenge of sustainable development. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 11*(3), *231-245.*

Jiang, W. Q., Li, J. S., Chen, G. Q., Yang, Q., Alsaedi, A., Ahmad, B. and Hayat, T. (2016). Mercury emissions embodied in Beijing economy. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *129*, 134-142.

Joo, D., Woosnam, K. M., Shafer, C. S., Scott, D. and An, S. (2017). Considering Tobler's first law of geography in a tourism context. *Tourism Management*, *62*, 350-359.

Jurowski, C., Uysal, M. and Williams, D. R. (1997). A Theoretical Analysis of Host Community Resident Reactions to Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, *36*(2), 3–11.

Kantawateera, K., Naipinit, A., Sakolnakorn, T. P. N., & Kroeksakul, P. (2015). Tourist transportation problems and guidelines for developing the tourism industry in Khon Kaen, Thailand. *Asian Social Science*, *11*(12), 89-95.

Karakuş, Y. (2019). Identifying the best alternative tourism product for a destination: the case of Cappadocia. *Revista Anais Brasileiros de Estudos Turísticos* - ABET, 9(1, 2 e 3).

Kim, H. J., Chen, M. H. and Jang, S. (2006). Tourism expansion and economic development: the case of Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, *27*(5), 925-933.

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

Knox, P. and Pinch, S. (2014). *Urban social geography: an introduction*. Routledge.

Kozak, M. (2015). Bilimsel Araştırma: Tasarım: Yazım ve Yayım Teknikleri. (2. Baskı). Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.

Larsen, J. (2008). De-exoticizing tourist travel: everyday life and sociality on the move. *Leisure Studies*, *27*(1), 21-34.

Lee, C. C. and Chang, C. P. (2008). Tourism Development and Economic Growth: A Closer Look At Panels. *Tourism Management*, *29*(1), 180-192.

Liang, J. and Chan, C. S. (2018). Local cultural vicissitudes in regional tourism development: A case of Zhuhai. *Tourism management perspectives*, *25*, 80-92.

Lee, T. H. (2013). Influence analysis of community resident support for sustainable tourism development. *Tourism management*, *34*, 37-46.

Lin, D., Li, W. and Hong, X. (2012). The Research on the Soft Power of City Culture. *Studies in Sociology of Science*, *3*(2), 49.

Liu, Z.H. (1994). Tourism Development-A System Analysis. In A.V. Seaton (Ed.), *Tourism: The State of Art* (pp. 20-30). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Liu, A. (2006). Tourism In Rural Areas: Kedah, Malaysia. *Tourism Management*, *27*(5), 878-889.

Macbeth, J., Carson, D. and Northcote, J. (2004). Social capital, tourism and regional development: SPCC as a basis for innovation and sustainability. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *7*(6), 502-522.

Macnaghten, P. and Jacobs, M. (1997). Public Identification with Sustainable Development: Investigating Cultural Barriers to Participation. *Global Environmental Change*, *7*(1), 5-24.

Matthews, G. H. and Richter, K. L. (1991). Political Science and Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 18*(1), 120-135.

McCool, S. F. and Martin, S. R. (1994). Community attachment and attitudes toward tourism development. *Journal of Travel research*, *32*(3), 29-34.

Meppem, T. and Gill, R. (1998). Planning for Sustainability As A Learning Concept. *Ecological Economics 26*(2): 121-137.

Morton, W.L. (2003). Small town services and facilities: The influence of social networks and civic structure on perceptions of quality. *City & Community*, *2*(2), 102-120.

Mutsikiwa, M. and Basera, C. H. (2012). The influence of socio-cultural variables on consumers' perception of halal food products: A case of masvingo urban, zimbabwe. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *7*(20), 112.

Neto, F. (2003). A new approach to sustainable tourism development: moving beyond environmental protection. *N.Resources Forum*, *27*(3), 212-222.

Paksoy, S. and Aydoğdu, M.H. (2010). Bölgesel kalkınmada girişimciliğin geliştirilmesi: Gap-Gidem örnekleri. *Girişimcilik ve Kalkınma, 5*(1), 113-134.

Perdue, R. R., Long, P. T. and Allen, L. (1990). Resident support for tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *17*(4), 586–599.

Reisinger, Y. and Turner, L. (2003). *Cross-cultural behaviour in tourism*. Routledge.

Rentfrow, P. J., Jokela, M. and Lamb, M. E. (2015). Regional personality differences in Great Britain. Plos One, 10(3),1-20.

Rızaoğlu, B. (2003). *Turizm Davranışı*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.

Robinson, M. (1999). Collaboration and cultural consent: refocusing sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *7*(3-4), 379-397.

Romão, J., Guerreiro, J. and Rodrigues, P. (2013). Regional tourism development: culture, nature, life cycle and attractiveness. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *16*(6), 517-534.

Sanmargaraja, S. and Wee, S.T. (2013). Constraints of alternative tourism in Malaysia. *International Journal of Advances in Management, Technology & Engineering Sciences*, 2(12), 9-12.

Saarinen, J. (2010). Local tourism awareness: community views in Katutura and King Nehale conservancy, Namibia. *Development Southern Africa*, *27*(5), 713-724.

Singgalen, Y. A., Sasongko, G. and Wiloso, P. G. (2018). Tourism destination in remote area: problems and challenges of tourism development in North Halmahera as remote and border areas of Indonesia-Philippines. *Journal of Indonesian Tourism and Development Studies*, *6*(3), 175-186.

Stoltman, J. P. (1997). The International charter on geographical education: Setting the curriculum standard. *Journal of Geography*, *96*(1), 32-32.

Stylidis, D., Biran, A., Sit, J. and Szivas, E. M. (2014). Residents' support for tourism development: The role of residents' place image and perceived tourism impacts. *Tourism Management*, *45*, 260–274.

Surugiu, C., Surugiu, M. R., Dinca, A. I. and Frent, C. (2012). Labour productivity and investments as determinants of wages: a pool data analysis of the Romanian hotel and restaurant sector. *Tourism economics*, *18*(1), 219-242.

Telfer, D. J. (2002) Tourism and regional development issues, in: Sharpley, R. & D.J. Telfer (Eds) Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues, pp. 112–148. Clevedon, UK: ChannelView Publications.

Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries. *Tourism Management*, *21*(6), 613-633.

Tosun, C., Okumus, F. and Fyall, A. (2008). Marketing philosophies: evidence from Turkey. *Annals of Tourism Research, 35*(1), 127-147.

Tucker, H. and Boonabaana, B. (2012). A critical analysis of tourism, gender and poverty reduction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *20*(3), 437-455.

TUIK (2020). Adrese Dayalı Nüfus Kayıt Sistemi, www.tuik.gov.tr/PreTablo.do?alt_id=1059 (last accessed: 10.05.2020).

Urry, J. (2015). *Mekânları Tüketmek* (Çev. Rahmi G. Öğdül). İstanbul: Ayrıntı Yayınları.

Usta, Ö. (2009). *Turizm Genel ve Yapısal Yaklaşım.* Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.

Waligo, V. M., Clarke, J. and Hawkins, R. (2013). Implementing Sustainable Tourism: A multi-Stakeholder Involvement Management Framework. *Tourism Management 36,* 342-353.

Walmsley J. (Ed.) (2002). *Principles and Types of Advocacy in Advocacy and Learning Disability.* London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Wu, S. T. and Chen, Y. S. (2015). The social, economic, and environmental impacts of casino gambling on the residents of Macau and Singapore. *Tourism Management*, *48*, 285-298.

Yıldırım, A. and Şimşek, H. (2011). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri.* Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

Yılmaz, İ. and Çalışkan, C. (2015). Turizm potansiyeli olan bölgelerde toplumsal kapasite algısı: Adıyaman Örneği. *Journal of Yasar University*, *10*(39), 6555 – 6611.

Yoon, Y., Gursoy, D. and Chen, J. S. (2001). Validating a tourism development theory with structural equation modeling. *Tourism Management*, *22*(4), 363–372.

Yüksel, A. and Yüksel, F. (2004). *Turizmde Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri.* Ankara: Turhan Kitabevi.

Yüksel, F., Bramwell, B. and Yüksel, A. (2005). Centralized and decentralized tourism governance in Turkey. *Annals of tourism research*, *32*(4), 859-886.