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REVIEW OF MENU MANAGEMENT PROCESS MODEL WITH A CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

This study examines how the Menu Management Process Model is realized in practice. To the best of the author's knowledge, this study is the first to evaluate this model empirically by applying the case study method to a boutique café. Data were obtained from observations, document analysis, and interviews. The findings revealed which topics attracted attention during the process, the revisions made to the menu cards, and the reasons for these revisions. More drastic changes were made to the food menu than the beverage menu. Food menu revisions included making changes (17 items) and eliminating items (9 items) whereas beverage menu revisions were making only changes (17 items). While 15 new products were added to the food menu, no new products were added to the beverage menu. The process followed the cyclical path theorized in the model. Finally, suggestions were made for researchers and practitioners.

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INTRODUCTION

In its simplest terms, a menu is a list of dishes and/or beverages offered in a food and beverage business. More extensively, it represents a plan by which food service operations organize food and beverage supply products and services (Kivela, 2003). In parallel with the increasing importance of the dining experience and other developments in the food and beverage sector,

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the menu has gained additional functions to listing items. For business managers, a menu is a mean of communication between the restaurant and guests (Bowen & Morris, 1995) and lies at the heart of the restaurant's marketing activities (McCall & Lynn, 2008). It is also a critical element in forming the guests' first impressions of the restaurant (Antun & Gustafson, 2005). A well-planned menu provides effective cost control, raises consumer demand, and increases profit (Özdemir, 2012). Given these functions, the menu is regarded as an area that food and beverage businesses should prioritize to ensure the success of the restaurant (Bernstein et al., 2008). Because they have such different meanings for food and beverage businesses, menus need to be properly managed to be an effective communication tool, increase demand, provide effective cost control, and raise profits. Several studies have investigated these effects of menus, focusing on consumers, chefs, and restaurant managers, analyzing the menu-related data of food and beverage establishments, and evaluating menus conceptually.

Studies of consumers mostly examine menus within the framework of consumer opinions to evaluate their effectiveness as marketing tools (Dipietro et al., 2006; Hwang & Lorenzen, 2008; McCall & Lynn, 2008; Guéguen et al., 2012; Hou et al., 2017). Studies of chefs and restaurant managers mostly focus on the process of choosing products to include on the menu (Seyitoğlu, 2017; Aktaş Alan & Suna, 2019) or product development (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007, 2009). Studies of business data (costs, sales figures, contribution margins etc.) aim to measure menu performance (LeBruto et al., 1995; Morrison, 1996; Kwong, 2005; İyitoğlu & Nebioğlu, 2017). Conceptual studies aim to develop a holistic understanding of topics like menu analysis (Taylor & Brown, 2007) menu performance (Özdemir, 2012), and administrative aspects (Çalışkan & Özdemir, 2011; Özdemir & Çalışkan, 2014).

Menu management includes a series of steps that require various processes, such as comprehensive market research, product selection, pricing of menu items, and the creation of menu cards, with a consecutive dynamic structure (Antun & Gustafson, 2005; Choi et al., 2010). Empirical studies generally focus on specific steps whereas conceptual studies provide more holistic information about the overall process. However, the conceptual studies lack empirical data to support the process. The present study was designed to overcome the shortcomings of both empirical and conceptual studies. It approaches the issue from a wider perspective, from planning to performance measurement, while supporting this holistic approach with empirical findings. More specifically, it uses a case study to

evaluate Çalışkan and Özdemir's (2011) "Menu Management Process Model".

LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies on Menu Management

There are many studies on menu management in the literature (Özdemir & Nebioğlu, 2018), which examine menus in terms of various dimensions, such as planning, pricing, design, and analysis (Özdemir & Çalışkan, 2014). Menu planning is the first menu management research area. Such studies aim to determine how food and beverage establishments construct their menus. Kivela (2003), for example, used the menu planning qualitative variables model to identify three topics in the planning stage, namely gastronomic, financial, and marketing variables. The study developed a formal model that practitioners can use in menu planning. Glanz et al. (2007) examined the issues affecting menu planning in chain restaurants. The findings revealed that the main criterion in planning is profit, although health and nutrition are also important. Johnson et al. (2002) also reported that health-related issues are an important criterion in planning for chefs. Finally, Seyitoğlu (2017) identified five prominent topics in menu planning: predecessors, key issues, influential actors and their roles, trial and error, and problems-difficulties. The study also concluded that consumer demand is an important criterion in menu planning.

Menu planning also encompasses developing new products. Ottenbacher and Harrington (2007) showed that new product development in Michelin Star restaurants passes through seven stages. In contrast, for fast food restaurants, they identified 13 stages (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2009). They concluded that this difference occurred because, as businesses, fast food restaurants work at larger scales and with greater risks. Sezgin et al. (2008) showed that hotels are not so open to innovation in menu planning. Cho et al. (2018) revealed that supplier diversity and partnership power were important factors that encouraged new product development. Menu planning is related to menu variety as well. Bernstein et al. (2008) showed that customers prefer menus that change daily over fixed menus, while Baiomy et al. (2019) found that menu diversity increases customer satisfaction.

The second area is menu pricing, particularly regarding psychological pricing. For example, Parsa and Naipaul (2008) compared

menu pricing in fine dining and fast food restaurants. They found that fine dining restaurants used '00' after the comma in prices to emphasize quality whereas fast food restaurants used '99' to highlight price. Hançer et al. (2007) reported similar results regarding the use of '00' to suggest high quality. Raab et al. (2009) tested a model called PSM (Price Sensitivity Model) to explain consumers' price sensitivity on guests in a restaurant in Hong Kong. Findings showed that price can be determined according to customer sentiment. Yim et al. (2014) proposed the hedonic pricing model to show how food quality and atmosphere are important factors in determining menu item prices.

The third important dimension to menu management is design. Studies in this area often examine how menu cards are designed and their impact on consumers and businesses. Magnini and Kim (2016), for instance, examined the effects of font size, background color, and menu weight on consumer perceptions, reporting that italic fonts and heavy menus create perceptions of quality service, whereas background color had no effect. Kim and Lee (2020) also measured the effect of menu card background color on consumers' psychological processes (the dynamics of emotional arousal, temptation, and self-control). They found that a red background causes greater emotional arousal and temptation than blue or white. Focusing on images, Hou et al. (2017) found that customers are more likely to select menu items that are pictured in the menu and are willing to pay more money for those items. Finally, Baiomy et al. (2019) concluded that good menu design generally increases customer satisfaction.

Another area covered by the menu design is menu layout. Research shows that the positioning of menu items in certain places on the menu card can increase sales. Thus, menu designers must place the products that the restaurant wants to sell the most in these positions (Reynolds et al. 2005; Choi et al., 2010; Kim & Magnini, 2016). However, other studies have contradicted these findings. Both Bowen and Morris (1995) and Kincaid and Corsun (2003), for example, found that the positioning of menu items did not significantly change sales.

Menu labels are another area of menu design. Research suggests that menu items with evocative labels may positively affect consumer behavior. Dipietro et al. (2006) found that consumers prefer menu items labeled as 'healthy'. Hou et al. (2017) also showed that descriptive menu names make consumers more positive about the item, more willing to pay, and more likely to purchase it. Özdemir and Nebioğlu (2018) reported that such descriptive names are frequently used in menu cards. For example, 41.6%

of the restaurants they examined named some dishes in their menus as 'home cooked', 'mother's style', or 'delicious'.

Menu design also includes descriptions of the items, which can positively affect consumer attitudes, perceptions, and behavioral intentions. For example, McCall and Lynn (2008) reported that menu items with detailed descriptions increase the perception of quality, purchase intent, and expected price. Hwang and Lorenzen (2008) showed that nutritional information and declarations of healthiness make customers more positive about the items. Kim and Lee (2020) also demonstrated the importance of health-related information. Specifically, presenting calorie information about food items reduced customers' indulgent food preferences while Baiomy et al. (2019) showed that explanations about menu items increased customer satisfaction. Finally, adding various symbols next to menu items may affect consumer food choices (Guéguen et al., 2012).

Menu analysis, which is the fourth area, measures menu performance (Özdemir & Nebioğlu, 2015). It has become prominent since the 1980s. Research initially tried to determine the performance of menu items according to certain criteria. These included volume and food cost percentage (Miller, 1980), volume and contribution margin (Kasavana & Smith, 1982), and weighted contribution margin and food cost percentage (Pavesic, 1983). Later, other criteria were added to these matrix-based models. For example, LeBruto et al. (1995) added labor costs to Kasavana and Smith's model while Cohen et al. (1998) added food cost, price, labor cost, popularity, and contribution margin. Additionally, other models of menu performance were introduced, such as data envelopment analysis (Reynolds, 2004) and activity-based costing (Raab & Mayer, 2007).

In contrast, Jones and Mifli (2001) investigated menu analysis approaches in restaurant chains in the UK from the practitioners' perspective. They found that businesses applied three different strategies: minimal adjustment, menu development, and menu item development. According to Özdemir and Nebioğlu (2015), menu performance models are mostly adapted from other fields, such as accounting, finance, strategic management, and performance management. Focusing on practitioners, they found that chefs evaluated their menus in terms of plate waste analysis and customer feedback.

Thus, different studies address specific dimensions of menu management, while only a few studies have examined several dimensions together. Morrison (1996), for example, investigated menu planning and

menu analysis in upscale restaurants, revealing that the availability and personnel competencies with the products were important factors; however, restaurant practitioners did not apply formal menu analysis. Similarly, Aktaş Alan and Suna (2019) found that product features and customer requests influence menu planning while customer satisfaction affects menu analysis. Neither study addressed pricing, design, or operations. On the other hand, Antun and Gustafson (2005) focused on restaurant and club menu pricing, design, and implementation but not planning or analysis. To fill this gap, the present study uses a very comprehensive model that includes all the steps discussed above.

Menu Management Process Model

The Menu Management Process Model (Özdemir & Çalışkan, 2014) is a holistic conceptual model that covers menu creation, implementation, and evaluation in a specific order and in a comprehensive manner. According to the model, menu management forms a continuous cycle of five stages (planning, pricing, design, operation, analysis). The planning phase examines how the menu is created. The pricing phase deals with how to determine the prices of menu items. The design phase includes the formation of the menu card. The operation phase defines the use of the menu in the business. The analysis phase involves measuring the performance of menu items.

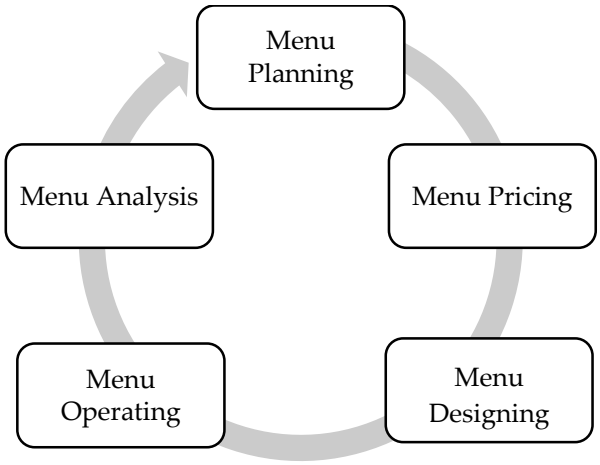

Figure 1. *Menu Management Process Model*

As seen in Figure 1, the cycle starts with menu planning and continues until the menu analysis and revisions to the menu are determined

after the analysis. The desired changes are made to planning, pricing, and design respectively before the menu is put back into practice. Thus, it is a cyclical model in which the menu is constantly developed (Çalışkan & Özdemir, 2011).

Compared to research that examines the menu itself, the Menu Management Process Model approaches the topic of menu management more comprehensively and holistically. Most of the studies reviewed earlier examined single dimensions, such as planning, pricing, design, or analysis, whereas the Menu Management Process Model considers all of them in a specific order (planning, pricing, design, implementation, and analysis) within a connected model. It thus covers all the administrative studies of menus.

However, while most studies are empirical, the present study's model is only conceptual. That is, although it provides valuable conceptual information, it is not known exactly how this model performs in practice. Accordingly, the present study aims to understand how the menu management dimensions, presented independently in the literature, work in the new model. To the best of the author's knowledge, this is the first empirical test of the Menu Management Process Model. In addition, most empirical studies of menus are made from the consumer's perspective rather than the business perspective (Özdemir & Nebioğlu, 2018). Therefore, the present study can contribute to the literature by examining the model from the perspective of operators.

Three research questions were identified regarding the issues that arise in a food and beverage business in relation to the different stages of the model.

- What are the main issues during the menu management process (planning, pricing, design, operating, and analysis) implemented in a food and beverage business?
- After the analysis phase, what revisions have been made in the food and beverage menu?
- What are the reasons for these revisions?

By answering the above questions, the study provides an opportunity to holistically examine the stages (planning, pricing, design, operating, and analysis) which were discussed as independent dimensions of menu design in the related literature. This study also shows how the conceptual model may be realized in practice, particularly whether menu management is a cyclical process or not. Academicians can gain in-depth

knowledge about the stages presented in the conceptual model and how each one of them is applied in the field. For practitioners, the model can guide future initiatives in menu management.

METHODOLOGY

In order to answer the above research questions, a qualitative case study method was selected. A case study is an approach in which the researcher collects information about real life, a situation, or multiple situations through various sources of information, and identifies status determination, description, or situation themes (Creswell, 2013). The subject is examined with a variety of lenses rather than just one in order to allow multiple subjects to be exposed and understood (Baxter & Jack, 2008). This makes the case study an appropriate research method to understand the dimensions of menu management in depth. Since the research focused on only one food and beverage business, a single instrumental case study was chosen. Case studies are a prevalent research method for academic studies on menu management, examining the effects of different aspects of a menu (LeBruto et al., 1995; Cohen et al., 2007) like menu pricing (Kelly et al., 1994), menu design (Bowen & Morris, 1995), or menu variety (Bernstein et al., 2008). The present study also identified a single food and beverage business as a research area in order to consider all stages of the Menu Management Process Model in detail without confusion.

Study Setting

A food and beverage company that was planning a new opening in Alanya in southern Turkey was chosen as the research area. The facility became operational in early 2016 as a boutique café. It is an independent food and beverage business that does not work within a chain or under a franchising agreement; hence its menu is not managed from any center. A new business was selected for the case study in order to easily examine all the stages of the Menu Management Process Model. Business owners and the food and beverage business consultant were interviewed and informed about the Menu Management Process Model. An agreement was reached to monitor the stages of the Menu Management Process Model after the café opened. The fact that the researcher knew both the operators and the consultant made the implementation of this model more convincing. The researcher

did not intervene in the process except for suggesting that the stages be implemented in the order specified in the model.

Data Collection Process and Tools

Data collection took 18 months. Creating the first menu cards after the planning, pricing, and design stages took about six months, while the operation and analysis stages from when the business became operational took 12 months. This period was long enough to observe all the steps of the Menu Management Process. Three different data collection tools were used: observations, document analysis, and interviews. After gaining permission from the operators and the consultant, the researcher took part as an observer in all the business-planning meetings (17 meetings). The essential parts of the meetings were noted without using a formal observation tool. Document review covered sales documents (15 pages), the first menu cards in the opening phase (18 pages) and revised menu cards (2 pages) after menu analysis, photos of food and beverages in the menus (77 photos), standard recipes (22 pages), and tables to calculate item costs (3 pages).

Interviews were conducted with the operators and consultants to understand how the process proceeded. A two-part, semi-structured interview form was developed based on information in the literature to obtain in-depth information from the participants. The first part had eighteen open-ended questions in six categories regarding the stages of the model. The first five questions considered the basic stages of the management process while the last question asked about changes that took place after the process. The second part covered the demographic characteristics of the participants, such as gender, age, and educational background. Expert opinions were obtained to evaluate the form before it was finalized in accordance with the necessary regulations.

One-to-one interviews were conducted with the three participants: two operators and one consultant. The interviews, which were recorded with a camera and voice recorder, lasted 144 minutes 28 seconds in total (average interview time 48 minutes). The recordings were then transcribed (33 pages, 13,958 words). The first participant was both a partner of the café and a chef. The second participant, the other operator, dealt with administrative and financial affairs. The last participant was a professional consultant advising on the opening of the café. No participants were available to provide detailed information about the process. That is, this study included all the participants who affected the process.

Data Analysis

The collected data were subjected to content analysis. Such analysis can be done either inductively or deductively (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The deductive approach was preferred here because the main dimensions of the model are known. The data (documents, observation notes, and interview recordings) were examined by two researchers experienced in qualitative research, and coded in accordance with the five main themes of the Menu Management Process Model with the help of a qualitative data analysis program. In this way, sub-categories were created. Cohen's Kappa analysis was then conducted to determine the coding reliability. The similarity ratio of the two coders was calculated as 73.3%, which indicates a good level of agreement between coders (Kılıç, 2015). Finally, the sub-categories were identified and named after a focus group meeting that included three academicians from the gastronomy and culinary arts department and one academician from the business department.

Trustworthiness

Four main issues increase trustworthiness in qualitative research: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability (Başkale, 2016). Credibility refers to the relevance of the analysis to the focus of the research (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). To increase the credibility of the present study, the research area was chosen to ensure that all stages of the model could be observed. In addition, specific techniques like prolonged involvement (taking part in all meetings, accessing all documents) and participant confirmation (member checking and peer debriefing) were used. The researcher collected the data over a long period (18 months) by attending all relevant meetings and using different data sources. The findings were discussed with both the participants and academic experts. To increase dependability, diverse data sources were used, more than one researcher carried out the analyses, and the model was examined in the finest detail. To maximize confirmability, all data (camera and sound recordings, documents, photographs, observation notes) were recorded and stored. Direct quotations by the participants were included in the findings regarding the process and the reasons for revising the menus. In addition, the menu cards before and after revisions are presented. Transferability refers to the extent to which findings can be transferred to other settings or groups. Although the results of qualitative research are not intended to be generalizable, the elements that ensure transferability should be included. In this study, as much information as possible was given

(research area, method, analysis, and findings) so that readers can get the clearest understanding of the process as possible.

FINDINGS

After the analysis, 19 sub-categories were gathered under five main themes related to the first research question. The findings are given in the order presented in the model.

Menu Planning

The first concept to be considered in menu planning is the business concept. The participants stated that they started out with a good coffee and good cheesecake motto, and designed the business based on a book café concept. This was influenced by the location on the top floor of a seven-story bookstore. The operators chose the concept of the café as a place where book lovers can have a pleasant time before or after shopping. Thus, the target audience was upper-middle-class consumers who like to read books complemented by good food and beverages.

In accordance with this concept and the target audience, the operators and the consultant aimed to offer home-made, natural products. At this stage, they developed three basic food and beverage-related criteria for the menu items: first, preparing the majority of products on site; second, achieving a balance between sweet and savory in the food menu, and between hot and cold in the beverage menu; third, including both local and international delicacies.

Accordingly, they decided that most products would be prepared in the company's kitchen, although preparation of traditional foods that required specialist skills (such as kıvrım desserts or spinach pastries) could be outsourced. Similarly, outside suppliers would provide beverages like colas, fruit juices, and cold teas, whereas all other drinks would be prepared on site. Regarding the balance of cuisines, they decided to include 22 products on the food menu and 29 products on the beverage menu.

The aim was that all products on the menu should be prepared and sold daily rather than stored. Only 3 food items were prepared by suppliers and all foods would be prepared using classical techniques and ingredients, without any industrial pastry additives. This also emphasized the

naturalness of the food. All the teas, coffees, and homemade cold beverages were prepared on site (20 products) whereas carbonated beverages (9 products) were bought from suppliers, as in other food and beverage businesses.

Planning for the food menu did not consider the sweet-savory balance as 17 products were sweet and only five products were savory because it was predicted that these sweet products would be preferred in food and beverage matches. Seventeen drinks were hot beverages and 12 were cold. For the food menu, 11 products represented local cuisine (e.g. S-shaped cookies, sadrazam delight, homemade baklava, and kıvrım dessert) while 11 were international (e.g. cheesecake, magnolia pudding, and cherry-almond cake). Sixteen drinks were local (e.g. nerdek (cranberry syrup), Alanya's local almond coffee, Turkish coffee, and Alanya-style lemonade) while 13 were widely-known international beverages (e.g. cola, cold tea, espresso, and cappuccino). Indeed, the café was named 'Nerdek' after the local drink. In addition, strategies were decided for presenting food and beverages together with names, such as 'nice couples' and 'tea-time', which were expected to make the menu distinctive.

Suppliers were also considered while choosing products. For example, only certain brands would be used for the dessert ingredients, such as dairy products, sugar, and flour. These materials are bought from a supermarket that the operators made an agreement with. Regarding fresh ingredients, such as fruit, herbs and herbal teas, should be supplied from local producers in the neighborhood market. Finally, some businesses grew cranberry fruits (for nerdek) in their own gardens. Thus, the business identified three different supply sources for the ingredients of the menu items: supermarkets, the neighborhood street market and the garden.

The next consideration in planning the menu was personnel qualifications. The operators realized it was essential to employ personnel capable of producing the planned menu items, especially preparing homemade and natural products while avoiding industrial pastry-making techniques. It was envisaged that university students studying in this field would be employed part-time for preparing and serving food and beverages.

Thus, the planning resulted in a food and beverage menu offering both local and international cuisine, sweet and savory foods, as well as hot and cold beverages. The menu was also based mostly on products that the business itself produced and partially by outsourcing. The menu placed the foods in 11 categories and the beverages in 4 categories. These findings revealed the

following decisive factors in menu planning for this case: the business concept, target audience, characteristics of menu items and recipe development, material resources and suppliers, and personnel qualifications and employment.

Menu Pricing

The second stage of the menu management process concerned calculating costs, which the operators did using objective methods. They first estimated the material costs based on the recipes. Personnel and other costs were then added to determine each menu item's total cost. Next, the operators decided on an average profit ratio of 30% for each menu item. However, the interviews revealed that there was also a subjective element to the pricing methods. That is, the participants compared similar products in the market to derive a reference price. In addition, they monitored competitors' prices and the reactions of customers as part of a reasonable pricing method. Prices were listed as '00' and '50' after the comma in order to create a perception of quality. Thus, the pricing phase began by calculating the material and other costs of making each food and beverage item. Finally, profit, competitors, consumer reactions, and business image were considered to derive the final menu prices.

Menu Design

Menu design is the stage when the menu card is created. The findings for this stage fell into four sub-categories. First, the operators decided on the physical characteristics of the menu card: a wooden board with menu items written on both sides. Both the food and beverage menu were in shades of red to reflect the color of nerdek. In addition, items were listed in both Turkish and English to cater for local people and foreign visitors. However, the operators rejected using more than two languages to avoid confusion in the menu. They also decided not to include pictures of the items due to the concern that differences between the pictures and the actual products might reduce customer satisfaction and because the menu card was too small to include pictures of every item.

Other physical properties of the menu card were the different font colors and sizes. Three different font colors were used to distinguish the menu categories, Turkish menu items, and English menu items. Four different font sizes were used, including menu item descriptions. One of the

most striking issues in the design was naming of menu items. Most items (e.g. cheesecake with lemon or Turkish coffee) were given standard names as in many food and beverage businesses. A few items, however, were given more stimulating labels, such as "Alanya-style lemonade" and "Homemade baklava". The operators decided to include descriptions for a few items. For example, the 'tea-time' item explained how many customers it was for and its content, while the granola items explained that they could be served with milk or yoghurt.

In designing the menu, the operators also paid attention to strategically positioning certain menu items. For example, products that were expected to sell well were placed at the top, while other products were framed to attract attention and increase sales, specifically 'nice couples' and 'tea time' in the food menu and fresh orange juice, nerdek and Alanya-style lemonade in the beverage menu. Figure 1 shows the menu cards as they appeared after the menu design phase. The 22 products selected in the planning stage had been transformed into a structure of 28 menu items, grouped in 11 categories, including combinations of food and beverages, such as nice couples, tea-time and mixed cookie plates. The beverage menu included all the previously chosen 29 beverage items, grouped in 4 categories.

During the first three stages of the menu management process, the operators searched for and recruited one full-time staff working in the kitchen and eight part-time staff working in the service in accordance with the concept and menu. After introducing the menu to the staff, the operators informed them about the working system of the business before the operation phase, which began in January 2016.

Picture 1. *Food and Beverage Menu Card Design*

Menu Operating

This phase refers to the stage when the food and beverage business begins to serve customers. The first operational issue is the opening hours. Since the business operated as part of the bookstore, its working hours were also 07:30-21:30. The employees were given single shifts in the kitchen and double shifts in service, taking into account the work load density of the café. As a new business, it was important to focus on promotional activities, so local media (press journalists and television broadcasters) were invited to learn about the business. In addition, the business developed itself on social media as well by creating a profile on platforms like Facebook, Instagram and Foursquare. Finally, the operators paid attention to word-of-mouth marketing, emphasizing the importance of guests' comments about the cafe and sharing on social media.

A personnel training regarding presentation and operation was conducted both before and after opening. Service staff was trained in how to serve each food and beverage item while kitchen staff were told to prepare items in a standard form. Customer feedback was another key topic mentioned in the operation phase. This was received in three different ways. The first was from customer questionnaires. The second was face-to-face. Here, the operators talked to customers to get their ideas about the operation of the business and their satisfaction with the food and beverages offered. The third source was social media reviews, as ratings and comments on these platforms make a significant contribution to the operation. In short, the operations phase focused on determining the opening hours, marketing and promotion applications, in-service training and customer relationship management. The last step of the menu management process was analysis.

Menu Analysis

The operation and menu analysis took place simultaneously between January 2016 and January 2017. Menu analysis determines to what extent the actual menu meets customer and business needs. Two different menu analysis methods are generally applied. The first is plate waste analysis, which involves monitoring what is left on the plates returned from the guests to determine which products are not consumed. Secondly, the business used a food and beverage automation program to record the sales of each food and beverage product. Measuring the popularity and profits of each product, they made decisions about revising the menu.

These findings from the 18-month data collection phase showed what strategies this food and beverage business implemented based on stages of the menu management process model. As Çalışkan and Özdemir (2011) note, the model is cyclical so the final stage of analysis serves as a catalyst for identifying the unsatisfactory or missing elements in the menu and ensures continuity of the management process.

Table 1 shows the main topics in the Menu Management Process in relation to the first research question. In menu planning, the key topics are the business concept, target audience, features of menu items and determination of recipes, material resources and suppliers, and personnel selection. Both objective and subjective pricing methods are used in determining the cost of food in the pricing process while the operating concept plays a decisive role in the price ending strategy. In menu design, the physical characteristics of the menu card, naming, descriptions, and strategic positioning of menu items are notable. In the operation phase, opening hours, promotional activities, personnel training, and customer relations are the most prominent topics. Finally, menu analysis focuses on plate waste analysis and measuring demand for products through the food and beverage automation program. This stage identifies those points that do not match with the aims of the business.

Table 1. *Key Findings from the Menu Management Process*

Menu Management Process Model Stages	Sub-Categories	Sample Quotes
Menu Planning	Business Concept	"We thought of designing this place as a book cafe concept." P1 "We thought of this place, not as an ordinary neighborhood coffee, but a little more as a concept, a different style of boutique cafe that appeals to taste." P2
	Target Audience	"We can say that we targeted the audience, which we call the middle-upper segment with a higher income level, both in terms of presentation and product variety." P2
	Features of Menu Items	"Natural and homemade products … the purpose of the cafe was that." P3 "We thought the products would be special. We do not use frozen products." P1
	Food Resources and Suppliers	"We especially use certain brands … We also bring coffee from Italy … Our fruit and vegetables come from the local bazaar; we provide products such as herbal teas from local suppliers … We also produce cranberry plants in our own orchard for the beverage (nerdek) that gave the cafe its name." P1

	Personnel Selection	"Since we aimed to use natural products in the kitchen, we selected the employees from people who did not deal with industrial pastry." P1
Menu Pricing	Determination of Food Costs	"Cost was calculated first. We made the cost calculation of the products we made and then priced." P1
	Objective Pricing	"Minimum raw material expense between 25-40%; the average monthly expense (electricity, water, internet, rent, and personnel expense) of this place corresponds to 30% In other words, the rate of profit of the cafe is approximately 30%." P2
	Subjective Pricing	"We made a price comparison in the market and evaluated accordingly and determined the prices in that way. In such cafes, it was generally the same: the price of tea was 2.5 TL, and we made it 2.5 TL." P1
	Price Ending Strategies	"Quality had to be emphasized here. We thought that numbers like 9 after the comma would not be suitable for our concept." P3
Menu Designing	Physical Characteristics of the Menu Card	"We made our menu by pasting it on a standard double-sided wooden board." P2 "The color was very pale, pinkish … in the shades of our signature beverage (Nerdek)" P3 "English is a universal language. Since Germans and Russians speak English, there is no problem. There is a lot of language confusion; we are for simplicity. An English menu is enough." P2 "We didn't thought of using food and drink photos from the beginning" P3
	Naming Menu Items	"In addition to using standard names in the menu, we gave some products some unusual names. Such as Alanya style lemonade and homemade baklava." P3
	Descriptions of Menu Items	"We have added various explanations about how many people will be offered some products or how to serve them." P1
	Strategic Location of Menu Item	"Drinks such as tea and coffee are highly preferred. People often focus their attention on the top of the menu card. That's why we put tea varieties on top." P2 "We thought that the products we wanted to be sold should be more visible and we made a placement on the menu card accordingly." P3
Menu Operating	Business Hours	"The opening and closing hours of this place are the same as the workplace (bookstore). It opens at 07:30 and closes at 21:30." P1 "The waiters work here in double shifts. We do not have overtime problems as the pastry master makes certain products. For example, she comes at eight o'clock in the morning and leaves like five or six in the evening." P2
	Promotional Activities	"we gave an invitation to the local press before." P1 "We promoted on Facebook and Instagram. Of course, the effect of social media today is much more than advertising tools. Now we are on Zomato, Foursquare." P1
	Personnel Training	"We created a standard form of presentation of each dish and we did a photographic study of it. Employees were informed about this, especially when new employees were recruited. For example, we showed how to prepare a plate. Similar training was held for the presentation." P3
	Customer Relations Management	"We provided a survey form to our incoming customers. We evaluated them" P1 "Since this is a boutique cafe, I have the opportunity to talk to the customers one by one, and I consider them for evaluation." P1 "We definitely followed the ratings and comments on social media platforms." P3

Menu Analysis	Plate Waste Analysis	"We examined the plate waste and tried to understand the reasons for this." P1
	Use of Food and Beverage Automation Program	"We are using a commercial program related to this. We learn which products have a higher profit rate and which products are sold and how much." P2

Finally, menu analysis also returns the process to a new planning phase by arranging places seen as errors or correcting deficiencies in the menu. A number of changes were made to the menu in January 2017, when the business had been operating for a year.

Revisions to the Menu

This part of the study also answers the second research question: "What revisions were made to the menu?". Various studies have classified menu changes. Jones and Mifli (2001), for example, identify five different strategies to follow after menu analysis: promotion, repositioning, retention, elimination, and making changes. Kwong (2005) suggests a similar list of strategies: keeping the menu item as it is, regulating sales prices, reducing food costs, introducing through design, personal sales, redesigning the plate, changing the position of the menu item on the menu card and removing the menu item. Since "promoting through personal sales" cannot be observed in the menu card, it differs from these strategies. Thus, five criteria for change were examined in this study: promotion, repositioning, retention, making changes and elimination. To identify these revisions more clearly, the menu items on the food menu were numbered from F1 to F28, starting at the top left while the menu items on the beverage menu card were numbered from B1 to B29.

Table 2. *Revisions to the Food Menu*

Menu Revisions	**Menu Items**	**Frequency (n)**	**Percent (%)**
Promotion	-	-	-
Repositioning	-	-	-
Retention	F9, F10	2	7.2
Making changes (Price Change)	F1, F2, F3, F6,F7, F8, F11, F12, F13, F14, F15, F16, F17, F19, F20, F21, F26	17	60.7
Elimination	F4, F5, F18, F22, F23, F24, F25, F27, F28	9	32.1
Total		28	100.0

Table 2 shows the revisions to the food menu after the first year of operations. No changes were made in positioning and promotion. However, there were significant changes in the food menu items. Only two menu items (7.2%) remained on the menu without any changes. All the other menu items (92.8%) were modified or removed from the menu. The prices of more than half of the food items (17 items) were changed while nine items (32.1%) were completely eliminated. In short, the food menu underwent extensive revisions.

Table 3. *Revisions to the Beverage Menu*

Menu Revisions	**Menu Items**	**Frequency (n)**	**Percent %**
Promotion	-	-	0.0
Repositioning	-	-	0.0
Retention	B4, B7, B19, B21, B22, B23, B24, B25, B26, B27, B28, B29	12	41.4
Make changes (Price Change)	B1, B2, B3, B5, B6, B8, B9, B10, B11, B12, B13, B14, B15, B16, B17, B18, B20	17	58.6
Elimination	-	-	0.0
Total		29	100

There were fewer changes in the beverage menu than the food menu. Table 3 shows that retention and price change were applied but not promotion, positioning, and removal. There was only one revision. That is, 12 menu items (41.4%) remained unchanged while 17 menu items (58.6%) were repriced.

Picture 2 shows the new menu cards after the rescheduling, pricing, and design. It shows more fundamental changes to the food menu than the beverage menu. The nine removed products include carrot-cinnamon, cherry almond cakes (cake category), granola (the diet products category), kıvrım dessert, homemade baklava (desserts in the syrup category), magnolia pudding, chocolate crumble (puddings category), and spinach pastry, crepe Suzette (pastries category). The two products offered in the tea-time category were retained unchanged.

Picture 2. *Revised Food and Beverage Menu Card Design after Menu Analysis*

Reasons for Revisions

The final phase of the study focuses on the third research question: What caused the menu revisions after the menu analysis?" Table 4 provides brief explanations of these revisions. The retention of food and beverages on the menu card as originally planned is explained by the exact meeting of the business objectives and customer expectations of these food and beverages. Apart from retention, there were seven revision reasons under the 3 themes: change, elimination and adding new products.

Table 4. *Reasons for Revisions after Menu Analysis*

Revision Type	**Reasons for Revision**	**Sample Quotes**
Retention	Meeting business objectives and Matching customer expectations	"All the foods and beverages remaining in the menu, which we do not change, meet the business purposes and consumer expectations." P3
Change	Increase in material costs	"We made some changes in the prices depending on the market conditions. For example, since Turkish coffee is indexed to the dollar, we had to raise the price." P1
	Willingness to generate more profits due to increased demand flexibility	"One of the drinks we sell the most is tea … The price of tea we set as 3.00 liras. Since our customers knew our service quality, they did not react to this increase." P2 "Since it is a product we like and is demanded by customers, we reduced the cheesecake prices and the portion size to prevent waste and increase demand." P2
Elimination	Increase in material costs	"The cost of cherry almond cake is quite high ... We saw that it wasn't selling." P3
	Troublesome products	"There was granola in the diet products category. We took it out because it was difficult to prepare." P3
	Reduced customer demand	"We removed the desserts in syrup from the menu. Our guests did not prefer it." P1
	Short shelf life of menu item	"Homemade baklava spoils in two or three days. This is the biggest problem." P2
Adding New Products	Meeting customer requests and expectations	"There was very serious demand for breakfast. I mean, we had many customers who said I want to come here and have breakfast." P2
	Request for balance in the menu	"Our menu consisted mostly of desserts. We wanted to balance this with savory foods. For this, we added products such as toast and salad to the menu." P1

The first reason for menu changes was increased product costs, which directly raises product prices. In addition, some products were repriced to increase profits and respond to demand flexibility. That is, raising the prices of products that are in high demand and have high-profit margins will contribute more to the business. Conversely, the prices of some products were reduced, such as cheesecakes. Reducing both the portion sizes and the price simultaneously prevented waste and increased customer demand.

The first two reasons for removing products from the menu were high costs or laborious preparation, as with cherry almond cakes and granola. The third reason was lack of demand. Fourth, some of the outsourced products rapidly spoiled particularly the homemade baklava as a crunchy and syrupy dessert. Due to the lack of demand for these products, it was decided to remove them from the menu.

New products were added to the menu for two reasons. First, customers wanted more savory items. Secondly, the operators wanted only freshly made products. Based on the menu analysis phase, several products were added in accordance with customer requests, such as toast, salads and breakfast. This improved the balance between the number of sweet and savory items.

After the first year, the company completely stopped buying outsourced ready-made products, such as spinach pastry and kıvrım desserts. Instead, the operators decided to prepare all products in house. Finally, the menu continued to offer both local and international delicacies in accordance with the criteria set during the planning phase.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study focused on understanding how the menu management process model is applied in practice. Each step of the process was followed and explained using observations, document analysis and interviews with the three participants. The findings suggest both theoretical and practical inferences about the model.

Theoretical Implications

During the planning stage, the food and beverage business operators decide which products to offer. One of the most significant factors is the business

concept because the process is deeply affecting by whether the business is a five-star hotel restaurant (Seyitoğlu, 2017), a chain restaurant (Jones & Mifli, 2001; Glanz et al., 2007), or a fine dining restaurant. For example, in a Michelin-starred restaurant business, menu planning is often shaped by the chefs' intuitions and professional experience (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007) whereas the more centralized authority in a chain restaurant business considers more rational factors, such as profitability and efficiency (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2009). This understanding of rationality also applies when consumers are at the center (Kivela, 2003) or nutrition principles (Johnson et al., 2002) are taken into account. In short, the approaches adopted in the business concept and planning determine the product choices. For a Michelin star restaurant, product quality is one of the main factors in product selection (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007), whereas low cost and efficiency may be more important in low-cost restaurant chains (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2009). Other factors include competitors (Antun & Gustafson, 2005), qualities of products (Aktaş Alan & Suna, 2019), profitability (Kwong, 2005), and diversity (Morrison, 1996; Bernstein et al., 2008).

Since the food and beverage business studied here was a small boutique cafe, they adopted a classical menu planning approach, which is more flexible in the planning stage and generally based on the operators' intuition. By the end of the process, the business reached a point where guests' requests were considered, so they preferred an approach they defined as balancing the menu. In addition, they demonstrated a rational understanding by determining in detail how to procure the products. During the pricing stage it is essential to develop an effective pricing strategy for marketing the products. Restaurant businesses can and do adopt two different kinds of pricing strategies at this point (Raab et al., 2009): objective and subjective. In objective pricing, operators prefer cost-based pricing, that Raab et al. (2009) also find in restaurant businesses. In this method, the costs of the products are determined, and pricing is made by placing a particular profit margin on these costs. In subjective pricing, both reasonable pricing and reference pricing methods are used (Rızaoğlu & Hançer, 2005). That is, operators calculate a fair price that consumers can pay or consider the pricing by competing businesses. Raab et al. (2009) and Yim et al. (2014) report similar findings to this study in that both competitors' prices and consumers' perceptions of value influence pricing. However, the loss leader pricing strategy (Cohen et al., 2007) was not used.

Apart from determining the sales price, some studies indicate that food and beverages can be sold more efficiently by developing specific

pricing strategies. More specifically, the exact numbers used for the decimals can mean various meanings, such as cheapness or quality. Thus, '.00' emphasizes quality whereas '.99' emphasizes low price or a promotion (Parsa & Naipaul, 2008). In the case studied here, except for one menu item (Turkish Tea: 2.50₺), only zeros were used. This can be explained by the fact that the restaurant also wanted to demonstrate, through pricing, its desire to offer high quality, homemade, natural products. Hançer et al. (2007) also reported that '.00' emphasizes quality. If the design phase is not done properly then even a well-planned menu can still fail (Choi et al., 2010). The vast majority of research on menu design aims to understand consumer reactions to menu card design.

Physically, the café's menu was designed as a single piece with separate cards to make foods and beverages distinct. To make the categories more understandable, the menu used different colors and font sizes for item explanations and languages. The menu's pink background color reflected the business concept rather than increasing sales, as discussed by Baiomy et al. (2019), Magnini and Kim (2016), and Kim and Lee (2020).

Although research suggests that images on menu cards increase sales (Hou et al., 2017), the café's menu cards avoided pictures in accordance with the preferences of the operators. In terms of naming menu items, some items were named in relation to place names or preparation stages to attract attention. For example, 'Alanya-style lemonade' emphasizes that the product is unique to a region while 'Homemade baklava' indicates naturalness. The use of such terminology helps the business deliver the messages it wants to convey to customers through the menu. This reflects the advice by Bowen and Morris (1995) on menu design: "Carefully chosen words in a conversation can make this conversation exciting and memorable; the same applies to menus. (p. 4)" Another highlight in the design was explanations of the menu items. Filimonau and Krivcova (2017) suggest five different topics for explanations: source, nutrients, calories, allergens, and production methods. In this study, there was a new description of food on the menu cards, specifically the contents of the so-called 'nice couples', in which food and beverages are presented together. In addition, the café's menu stated that breakfast needs to be booked and that the dessert of the day varies. Recently, several studies (Dipietro et al., 2006; Hwang & Lorenzen, 2008) have discussed the importance of health information in menu descriptions. However, there were no such explanations on the café's menu cards. Research also suggests that symbols next to menu items can increase sales. For example, Guéguen et al. (2012)

showed that water drop marks placed next to seafood items increases sales. However, the café operators did not use this strategy.

Menu design also focuses on the position of items on the menu card. The parts that consumers most focus on are called sweet spots, based on the assumption that people best remember the first and last things they read or hear (Bowen & Morris, 1995). The sweet spots of menu cards are the upper parts (Bowen & Morris, 1995) or middle parts (Choi et al., 2010). However, the café's operators paid little attention to this in positioning items on the menu card. Instead, the participants explained that they placed the products they wanted to sell most at the top, which is similar to the findings of Özdemir and Nebioğlu (2018), who examined 86 restaurant menus, and concluded that the strategic locations of the items were not consciously selected. They suggested that this was because the graphic layout of the menu was more prominent than strategic positioning.

According to Özdemir and Çalışkan (2014), the operation phase is largely neglected in the literature. The prominent issues are production and service processes, food safety practices, sales forecasts, budgeting and cost control. Rather than the above topics, marketing was more emphasized in the current case study, particularly promotional activities and customer relations. This can be considered natural for a newly opened food and beverage company.

In the analysis phase, the menu performance can be evaluated conceptually or practically in many different ways (Jones & Mifli, 2001). As Özdemir (2012) mentioned, there are four main approaches to measuring menu performance: matrix-based, improved matrix-based, profitability analyses, and multivariate analyses. Two basic menu analysis methods are used in the Menu Management Process Model: plate waste analysis, and sales and profitability, which is similar to the menu engineering approach of Kasavana and Smith (1982). The café operators did not evaluate menu items in terms of profitability and popularity. Instead, they examined plate waste and solicited feedback from customers, and then tried to make judgements by focusing on sales figures. These findings are similar to Kwong (2005), who found that Asian restaurant operators perform menu analysis based on past experience and intuition. Özdemir & Nebioğlu (2015) also reported that five-star hotel chefs used similar strategies. In short, intuitive approaches to menu analysis remain prominent.

There are four main categories of reasons for changing menus: financial issues (increase in material costs, desire to make more profit), consumer issues (lack of demand), product issues (laborious products,

products with short shelf life), and menu balance issues. Bernstein et al. (2008) suggested several different reasons for menu changes, such as seasonality, market availability, and promotional activities. In the present study, the two main reasons were customer demand and product features. Thus, although only promotional activities may be partly related to demand, it differs from the findings of Bernstein et al. (2008), which emphasized the availability of the product in general. Instead, the findings in this study are similar to those of Glanz et al. (2007), regarding the removal of menu items that increase kitchen workload and Aktaş Alan and Suna (2019) regarding the impact of customer demands. The café's menu was revised in ways specified by Taylor and Brown, (2007), mostly because of these two reasons. Some products remained the same, others were given new prices or portion sizes, and some new menu items were added. The type of revision is also significant. In relation to the strategies proposed by Jones and Mifli (2001), the café operators adopted minimal regulation and menu item development strategies.

Another issue concerning menu revision is the amount of change. The café operators changed or removed 92.8% of the menu items, which indicates a drastic revision. This can be explained in relation to the business concept. As a boutique café with only one branch, it was easier than planning, removing and adding new products in a chain restaurant with many branches. That would be a long and challenging process because the menus are determined by a central administration. As Ottenbacher and Harrington (2009), point out, changes to menus and innovation become more challenging and complex as the business grows and expands, and the number of branches increases.

Practical Implications

The study has several practical implications as well. Menu planning requires the synthesis of different factors, such as the desire to balance the menu, personnel qualifications, customer demands and product specifications. In this regard, practitioners should design products suitable for customer demands and business purposes and diversify the menu to suit the demands of a wide customer base. Pricing is made using both objective and subjective pricing methods while considering the possible customer reactions. While pricing, objective methods should be supported by subjective methods while considering consumer price sensitivities and perceptions. Although design is an important issue, design recommendations (strategic location of menu items, menu item

descriptions, etc.) are not taken into account in the literature. Instead, attention is paid to graphic design. Operators should therefore be informed about menu design issues, such as the physical properties of the menu card, the menu layout, and labeling menu items.

In operation, the highlights are promotional marketing, in-service training, and customer relationship management. Promotion efforts in a newly established business, staff training, and customer relations are natural developments. Menu implementation may be the most complex area to focus on. At this stage, operators and employees should consider customer feedback and improve the menu by finding quick solutions. Heuristic methods predominate in the analysis stage, which depends on the business concept. In a small business, it is more feasible to analyze intuitively. However, as the business grows, menu analysis may need to be done more professionally using formal methods. The menu management process is one of the most fundamental issues in restaurant management, requiring the operators' full attention. Each stage requires the use of different qualifications and skills and those responsible for menu management should consider different variables for each stage. The findings from the case study show that both rational and intuitive thinking is involved in menu management. Used in combination, these two strategies can help the business to understand the difference between planned and realized targets.

Limitations and Future Research

The findings in this study confirm that the menu management process is a cyclical model of five consecutive stages, as suggested by Çalışkan and Özdemir (2011). However, since food and beverage businesses can be designed in different sizes and according to different concepts, the strategies used in each stage may differ. This study was conducted on a boutique café. Therefore, future research should investigate different types of food and beverage businesses, such as fast-food chains, hotel restaurants, and fine dining restaurants. This will provide a more accurate idea of what is similar or different in the earlier stages of the model.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON MODELLING AND FORECASTING TOURISM REVENUES: THE CASE OF TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

Tourism revenues have important implications for tourism countries in terms of management of tourism-related policies. In order to accurately direct production planning, pricing, promotion and strategic marketing programs, labor and capital resources, accurate and reliable forecasts are needed. Forecasting the developments in tourism with scientific basis methods is an important guide for central and local public administration programs and tourism operators. When reviewing the literature, comparative studies on modeling and forecasting tourism revenues using Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) are limited and this paper aims to fill this gap. Based on the gap seen in the literature, the purpose of this study is to develop the optimal forecasting model that yields the highest accuracy when comparing the performances of three different methods namely Exponential Smoothing, Box-Jenkins and ANNs for forecasting Turkey's tourism revenues. Forecasting performances of the models were measured by MAPE statistics. As a result of the analyses performed, it was found that ANN Model with [4:5:1] architecture was the best one among the all models applied in this study.

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INTRODUCTION

Due to the globalization, increasing welfare level, increasingly safe, fast and comfortable airline transportation, increase in the number of airline companies and rapid developments in information technologies, tourism sector has been among the fastest growing and revenue generating sectors in the world. Every year, millions of people travel to different parts of the world as tourists, spending billions of dollars and causing huge economic activity throughout the world. When the global tourism flows are analysed, while the number of people participating in international tourism in 2005 was 807 million, in 2019, it reached 1.5 billion people with an increase of 3.8% compared to the previous year (UNWTO, 2020a). In a study published by the World Travel and Tourism Council, it is stated that in 2019, tourism sector provided 10.3% of global gross product with a contribution of 8.9 trillion dollars and 10% of total employment with 330 million jobs worldwide. In the same study, it is predicted that the number of people to be employed by the tourism sector will reach 425 million in 2030, and will constitute 11.3% of the global gross product. Looking at global tourism revenues, those from international tourism flows in 2019 amounted to 1.7 trillion dollars, which means 6.8% of the total exports worldwide; 28.3% of global services sector exports (WTTC, 2020). Although tourism is a concept with historical, cultural, social and economic perspectives, it is an activity that has been handled mostly with the economic aspects. The tourism sector has an important place for the economies of both developing and developed countries. Many countries see the income from international tourism as a source of foreign exchange used to cover the deficits in the balance of payments. For this reason, it can be said that many tourism countries compete in the international tourism market in order to provide the foreign currency they need for development and growth and to increase their national income.

Tourism revenues are based on tourism expenditures. Tourism expenditure refers to the amount paid for the acquisition of consumer goods and services as well as valuables for own use or gift during and during tourist trips. It includes expenses paid or reimbursed by others as well as expenses incurred by the visitors themselves (United Nations, 2010). These revenues have changed hands many times within the country, reaching a total effect far above the original amount, thus contributing to the national income and the development of the country's economy. In other words, the expenditures made by tourists in the countries they visit provide income not only to businesses and individuals operating in the tourism sector, but also indirectly to various sectors. Throughout the years, tourism in Turkey

has also caused direct and indirect economic contributions, which made it one of the most significant sectors for country's economy. Among the positive economic impact of tourism regarding Turkey, its contribution to income and employment, as well as generating foreign exchange effect, which is important in reducing deficit in the balance of payments, can be observed. According to statistics published by Culture and Tourism Ministry, Turkey's tourism revenues reached 34.522 billion dollars in 2019, an increase of 16.9% compared to the previous year. 83.2 percent of this income was obtained from foreign tourists, 16.5 percent from citizens residing abroad and came to the country as tourists, and the remaining 0.4% from GSM roaming and marina services. Total revenue from GSM roaming services and marina services amounted to $ 127.1 million (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2020) The tourism sector is an important economic activity due to the results it has created worldwide. Given the economic results of tourism, it is a sector where many countries strive to benefit from these results. For this reason, many countries, regions and touristic destinations in the world desire to analyse and improve their tourism dynamics and increase their economic contributions. One of the most effective options for achieving this goal is to analyse tourism from past to present and make predictions about the future. When studies on modelling tourism revenues are reviewed, it is observed that several issues were in focus. Among these issues, studies where the relationship between tourism revenues and economic growth is tested (Gunduz & Hatemi-J, 2005; Öztürk & Acaravcı, 2009; Gökovalı, 2010; Ertugrul & Mangir, 2015: Hüseyni et al., 2017; Qin et al., 2018; Wu & Wu, 2018) stand out. Another of the study topics that the authors focus on is the determinants of tourism revenues, such as foreign visitor statistics, total investment amount, employment, number of beds, real exchange rates (Payne & Mervar, 2002; Kara et al., 2003; Aktaş et al., 2014; Kaplan & Aktas, 2016; Akay et al., 2017; Ongan et al., 2017; Çalışkan et al., 2019). As an alternative to the statistical forecasting methods commonly used in the field of tourism, use of machine learning methods for forecasting studies is evident in recent years. However, comparative studies on modelling and forecasting tourism revenues using ANNs and statistical methods are limited and this paper aims to fill this gap. According to many authors (e.g. Law & Pine, 2004; Kon & Turner, 2005; Song & Li, 2008; Peng et al., 2014; Önder, 2017; Höpken et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020) in the tourism forecasts, there is no single method that produces the best results in all cases. Many researchers working in this field have agreed that the results will vary according to the method and model to be used, the characteristics of the data set, the number of observations and the estimated period. In other words, there is no magic model or method that can produce

the best result in every situation. Based on this approach, the purpose of this study is to develop the optimal forecasting model that yields the highest accuracy when compared the forecast performances of three different methods, namely, Exponential Smoothing, Box-Jenkins and Artificial Neural Networks for forecasting Turkey's tourism revenues. Having introduced the emphasis of forecasting in tourism and research objectives, the rest of this paper is structured as follows. Next section describes the research methodology. Section 3 describes the data employed in the study as well as research design. Thereafter, forecasting performances of alternative methods and models are compared and the empirical findings are presented. In the last section, the implications and contributions of the current study and suggestions for future ones are included.

METHODS USED IN THE STUDY

In the following sub-sections, explanations about forecasting methods used in predicting and modelling of data are included.

Exponential Smoothing

The exponential smoothing method consists of different application options in which the estimates are constantly updated, considering the recent changes in the data. In the Exponential smoothing method, the weighted averages of past period values are calculated and included in the models as the estimated value of the future periods. The working principle of this method is that more recent data and observations are more important than the effect of very old observations or data. Holt-Winter's seasonal exponential smoothing method is suitable for modelling and estimating data containing trend and seasonal effects. This method uses three separate sets of equations, one used to determine the level of the series in the t period, the other to trend, that is, the third, to model the seasonal component. The equations used in the calculation of the Multiplicative-Seasonal Holt-Winter's method are given below (Makridakis et al., 1998);

Level: $L_t = \alpha(Y_t - S_{t-s}) + (1-\alpha)(L_{t-1})$

Seasonal: $S_t = \gamma_t(Y_t - L_t) + (1-\gamma)S_{t-s}$

Forecast: $F_{t+m} = L_t + S_{t-s+m}$

In the given equations;

S = Season length,
L_t = The general level of the series in the t period,
b_t = Trend component,
S_t = Seasonal component,
F_{t+m} = m forecasting value for the next period,
α (level), β (trend) and γ (season) smoothing constants.

Box-Jenkins Method

The Box-Jenkins approach is a well-established and commonly used method, especially in short and medium-term time series forecasting. It is an assumption of the method that the data set applied in this method, which provides successful results in short and medium term modelling and forecasting studies, is a discrete and stationary data set consisting of observation values with equal time intervals. The basic principle of the Box-Jenkins methodology is based on its value in any period of time series, a combination of past observations and error terms. Since Box-Jenkins models can only be used in stationary series, stationary condition is important in determining the appropriate model group (Anvari et al., 2016). Data used in practice, especially financial and economic data, often do not meet stationarity conditions. The stationarity of this type of data is disrupted by trend, season and cyclical fluctuations and random factors. In general, the expression of the ARIMA (p,d,q) model is as follows:

$$w_t = \phi_1 w_{t-1} + \phi_2 w_{t-2} + ... + \phi_p w_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t - \theta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} - \theta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} - .... - \theta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}$$

The tendency of time series, which consist of values observed in weekly, monthly or quarterly time periods, to reach the highest and lowest level in the same periods of successive years or months, indicates the presence of the seasonal component in the data. The representation of the seasonal ARIMA model is ARIMA (p,d,q)(P,D,Q)s or simply SARIMA. Here, P represents the degree of seasonal autoregression (SAR), D represents the number of seasonal differences, Q is the order of the seasonal moving average (SMA) model, and S is the seasonal period. Seasonal ARIMA model in P, D and Q orders with back shift operator is expressed as:

$$\Phi_p(B^s)\Delta_s^D y_t = \Theta_Q(B^s)\varepsilon_t$$

In this model, Δs represents the seasonal difference operator and S is the seasonal period, and S= 12 for monthly data and S= 4 for quarterly data. In

the model, the operator Δ^D specifies the degree (D) of the seasonal difference of the data. Non-stationary data is transformed into stationary data with the differencing process indicated by Δ_S^D. The term Φ_P in the model refers to the seasonal auto regression (SAR) parameter; Θ_Q is the seasonal moving average (SMA) parameter, and y_t is the non-stationary series. The Box-Jenkins method uses a four-step, and iterative process to determine a suitable model among the candidate model options. These stages are briefly; model identification, parameter estimation, diagnostic control and forecasting. The method, combines autoregressive, moving average differencing/integration procedures and finally tests the model for statistical validity. In the model selection, factors such as the fact that the data meet the conditions of stationarity and whether they are affected by the seasonal component are determinants. The basic strategy in the model building process is based on the principle of "parsimony" (Moeeni & Bonakdari, 2016). Therefore, it is essential to determine the time series characteristics of the data used first in the modelling and prediction process with the Box-Jenkins method, and to create candidate models suitable for the characteristics of the data and the most appropriate and statistically significant model among them.

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs)

Experiments and researches in the field of science, natural and engineering sciences regarding the brain structure have opened a horizon in modelling the information processing processes of the human brain and have led to the development of systems that mimic its working principles. The smallest element of the human brain is nerve cells. Nerve cells perform their information processing activities in a group, not alone. Recently, ANN-based models have been one of the most important non-parametric methods proposed for time series forecasting. ANN is defined as a structure consisting of several interconnected units or artificial nerve cells that mimic biological neural networks (Chen et al., 2007). According to another definition, ANNs are complex systems that are created in the form of artificial nerve cells (neurons), which are compared to biological neurons in the human brain, to form connections with each other at different effect levels. Artificial neurons come together to form ANN. Neurons are composed of five main elements: input connections, weights, addition function, activation function and output connections. The basic element of an ANN is the neuron as shown in Figure 1.

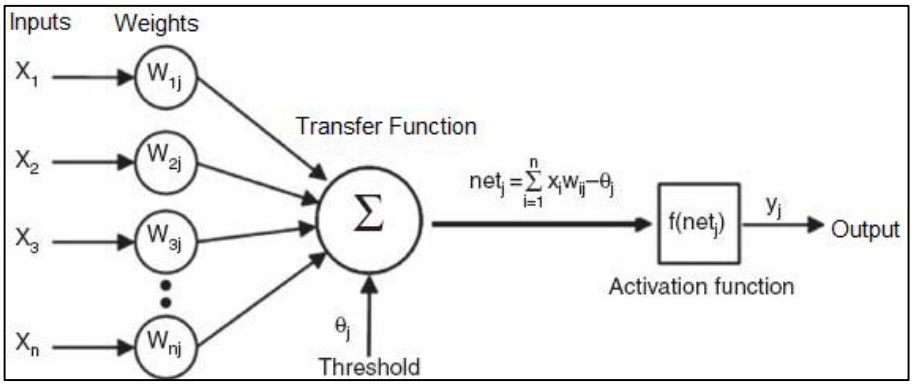

Figure 1. *Basic Elements of an Artificial Neuron*

In Figure 1, (x_i) represents inputs, (w_{ij}) weights, (θ_j) threshold value, (f) activation function and (y_j) output. In the information processing continuum, information input from the outside world to the neuron takes place first through the input connections $(x_1, x_2, \ldots . x_i)$. Information entry to a neuron from other neurons is done by multiplying by a weight $(w_{1j}, w_{2j}, \ldots \ldots, w_{ij})$ with a value between (-1) and (+1). In the next step, the information multiplied by weights is passed through an activation function (f) to obtain the output (y_j) (Golam & Hasin, 2013). The activation function is briefly the mechanism for converting input signals to output signals for each process element. There are generally three layers in an ANN: input layer with interactive neurons, output layer and hidden layer (s). The first layer in the ANN is the input (also called the input) layer, which functions to receive external data from the artificial neural network. The input layer is the first layer in ANN, and serves to network the data from the outside world. The input layer consists of data from variables that are assumed to be related to the problem being solved. Therefore, the number and quality of neurons in the input layer are shaped according to the variables that affect the problem. The last layer in the ANN is the output layer that performs the function of exporting the processed information. The layer between the input and output layers is called the hidden layer. Neurons in the hidden layer do not interact with the outside world, they take the task of receiving the signals from the input layer and transmit them to the output layer. In Figure 2, an exemplary multi-layered ANN model is presented.

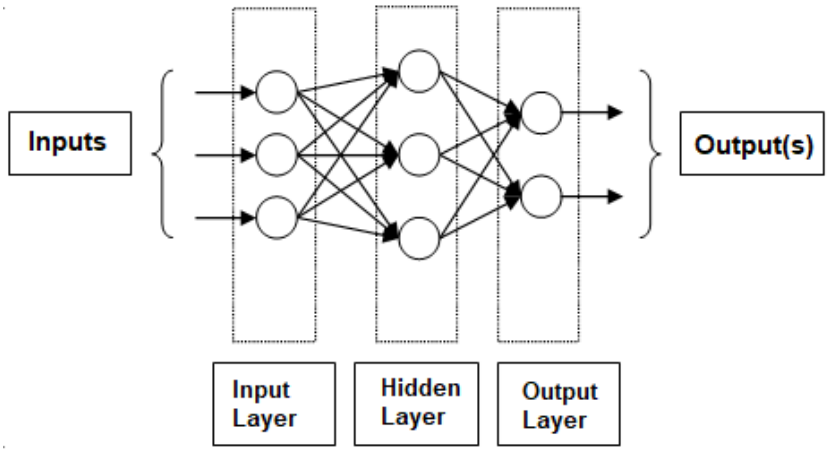

Figure 2. *A Multi-layered ANN model*

ANNs are trained by learning a problem through the datasets shown to it. Training of ANNs, in other words the learning of the network is the process of updating the connection weights to fulfil a function expected by the user. The most used method in the literature for updating ANN parameters is the "Back Propagation" algorithm. Over the years, ANN architectures and models such as MLP, RBF, Hopfield, Jordan, Elman, Kohonen SOM, which are suitable for use in different fields, have been developed. The most widely used ANN architecture for predictive purposes in the social sciences and tourism forecasting field is the back propagation-feed forward multi-layered perceptron (MLP) model (Wong et al., 2000; Zhang & Qi, 2005; Song & Li, 2008; Moreno et al., 2011; Teixeira & Fernandes, 2012; Bayramoğlu & Başarir, 2018). MLP model is very popular because it is widely applicable in solving business related problems such as prediction, classification and modelling (Smith, 2002). In the use of MLP models for forecasting, determining the network architecture is an especially important issue. In the literature, it is stated that network architectures with a single hidden layer are sufficient in estimating time series. The inputs to be presented to the network are among the lagged observations $(y_{t-1}, y_{t-3}, y_{t-12} \ldots . y_{t-n})$ of the data set used; output consists of original (y_t) observations. The relationship between the output value and the inputs is as follows:

$$y_t = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} w_j f\left(w_{0j} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_{ij} y_{t-i}\right) + e_t$$

In this equation, w_j, v_{ij} represents the weight values between neurons, p represents the number of neurons in the hidden layer and f is the activation function used in the hidden layer. The most used activation functions are sigmoid $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ and hyperbolic tangent $f(x) = \frac{e^{x}-e^{-x}}{e^{x}+e^{-x}}$ functions (Egrioglu et al., 2017).

DATA ANALYSIS

In modelling and analysis of the data, Turkey's quarterly inbound tourism revenues statistics in US dollars realized in 2003-Q1 and 2019-Q4 periods were used. Data were obtained from the TurkStat. First, the time series characteristics of the data used were analysed and the time series components that were effective on the data were determined. In the following stage, analyses were carried out to create forecasting models suitable for the structure of the data from the Exponential Smoothing, Box-Jenkins and ANN methods. In the process of determining the appropriate model, the smoothing constants that minimize the mean of error squares for exponential smoothing models, Autocorrelation (ACF) and Partial Autocorrelation functions (PACF) and Bayes Information Criteria (BIC) for Box-Jenkins models were taken into consideration. When constructing appropriate ANN models, different time delays in the input layer and the instantaneous data values are used in the output layer. For ANN models, parameters and parameter values that will minimize the prediction error produced by the model were used. Forecasting values generated by different models are compared with real tourism income values, and it is determined which method produces more successful forecasting results. Forecasting performances of the applied methods were measured by "Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)" statistic. Various statistics are available to measure the estimation performance of alternative models. Examples of these are Mean Square Error (MSE), Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), Relative Absolute Error (RAE), etc.. However, MAPE statistics have some advantages over others. First of all, it eliminates the possible disadvantages in comparing models with different unit values since it expresses the estimation errors proportionally. Secondly, it is not affected by the size or smallness of the observation values, as it gives relative measurement results. In addition, producing interpretable results can be counted among its advantages over other statistics. The mathematical expression of MAPE is as follows:

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{|e_t|}{y_t}}{n} 100(\%)$$

where including ($e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_t$)

y_t= Value of the observation at time *t*,

$\hat{y}_t$= Fitted value for the observation at time *t*,

n is the length of forecasting horizon.

In the evaluation of alternative models, if the MAPE statistic value is below 10%, it is accepted as a high accuracy, good accuracy between 10-20%, reasonable accuracy between 20-50% and an unsuccessful estimate over 50% (Lewis, 1982).

Analysis of Time Series Properties of Data

The time graph of the quarterly tourism revenues data from January 2003-Q1 to December 2019-Q4 used in the study is given in Figure 3.

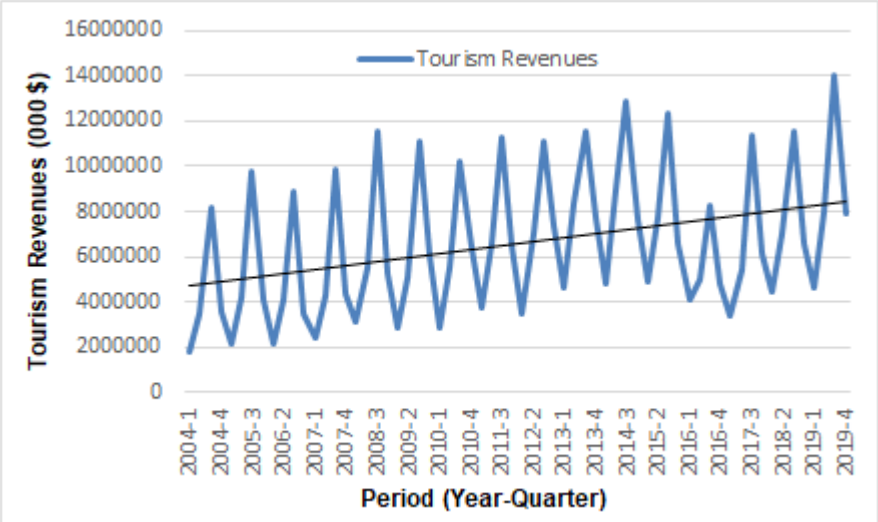

Figure 3. *Time Series Graph of Tourism Revenues Data (2003-Q1 – 2019-Q4)*

When the graph is analysed, it is observed that the data is influenced by a positive trend and seasonal component with irregular fluctuations in some years. Seasonal fluctuations start to increase in April and reach the highest value in July, August and September (3rd Quarter). It reaches the lowest values in January, February and March (1st Quarter). In order to determine the forecasting models suitable for the structure of the data used in the study, linear and non-linear trend analyses were performed. As a

result of the applied trend analysis, the data showed a positive trend. F test was performed to examine the statistical significance of trend analysis. It was observed that it was statistically significant at the level of 0.05. Model summary of the trend analysis is given in Table 1.

Table 1. *Model Summary of Trend Analysis*

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.143	11.153	1	67	0.001	4305361.802	58326.519	
Logarithmic	0.174	14.146	1	67	0.000	1682720.893	1422786.086	
Quadratic	0.178	7.161	2	66	0.002	2950057.901	172859.243	-1636.182
Compound	0.203	17.103	1	67	0.000	3689949.662	1.012	
Exponential	0.203	17.103	1	67	0.000	3689949.662	0.012	

Similarly, in order to reveal the seasonal factors in the series, the data were subjected to seasonal decomposition using the X-12 ARIMA technique. During the seasonal decomposition process, moving average weights were calculated with the interval of "Period + 1 (Endpoints Weighted by 0.5)". The seasonal factor values obtained reveal that the series is under the effect of recurrent seasonal fluctuation every four quarters. The seasonal pattern is formed by reaching the lowest value in the first quarter of each year and the highest value in the third quarter. Season factor values obtained are given in Table 2.

Table 2. *Seasonal Factor Values of the Data*

Period	Months	Seasonal Factors (%)	Period	Months	Seasonal Factors (%)
I. Quarter	January February March	53.5	III. Quarter	July August September	168.6
II. Quarter	April May June	90.7	IV. Quarter	November October December	87.2

Application of the Exponential Smoothing Method

Since the data used in the study are under the influence of trend and seasonal fluctuation and seasonal patterns have different magnitudes in periods, "Multiplicative-Seasonal" models were applied in practice, and additive models were not included in the analyses. In the model determination process, statistical significance of t-tests of parameter

estimates of the models, error squares and MAPE values of the "Simple Seasonal, Multiplicative-Seasonal Exponential Trend, Multiplicative-Seasonal, Damped Trend" and Multiplicative-Seasonal Linear Trend (Holt-Winter's) models were examined. As a result of the evaluations, it was seen that the optimum exponential smoothing model is the "Multiplicative-Seasonal Holt-Winter's" model for the series. In the model, season factor values obtained by seasonal decomposition are used as seasonal factors. Model summary is given in Table 3.

Table 3. *Exponential Smoothing Model Parameters*

Parameter	Estimate	SE	t	Sig.
Alpha (Level)	0.499	0.085	5.863	0.000
Gamma (Trend)	0.0014	0.029	2.182	0.000
Delta (Season)	1.000	0.227	4.406	0.000

Initial values of the model are calculated as follows:

3302267.57439 (Level)
80724.47668 (Trend)

Application of the Box-Jenkins Method

In the application of the Box-Jenkins method, the stationarity analysis of the data was carried out with the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test. As a result of the ADF analysis, it was determined that there is a high association between neighbouring seasonal observations in the series and the series is out of stationary. As a result of the analysis, the trend stationarity has been provided by taking the first-order seasonal (D=1) difference. The orders of model processes were determined by analysing the autocorrelation (ACF) and partial autocorrelation (PACF) functions calculated from the data. As a result of the attempts to establish various models, it was determined that the Box-Jenkins model suitable for the series is "Multiplicative-Seasonal $(1,0,0)(1,1,1)_4$" model. The final parameter estimates and the general summary of the determined model are given in Table 4.

When Table 4 is examined, it is seen that the t-statistics of the parameter estimates in the determined SARIMA model are significant at the 0.05 significance level.

Table 4. *Model Summary of SARIMA (1,0,0)(1,1,1)$_4$ Model*

Variable	Estimate	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Constant	336967.061	85054.148	3.962	0.000
AR(1)	0.605	0.093	6.477	0.000
SAR(1)	0.670	0.121	5.522	0.000
SMA(1)	0.999	0.184	5.436	0.000
Innovational Q2-2016	-2346399,710	637883.106	-3.678	0.001
Additive Q3-2016	-2150002,488	431506.184	-4.983	0.000
R-squared	0.961	**Schwarz Bayes Criterion**		27.087
Seasonal Differencing: 1	Non-Seasonal Differencing: 0		Transformation: No Transformation	

After determination and parameter estimates, residues of the model were analysed. The Ljung-Box (Q^*) statistics were computed for checking residuals. The Ljung-Box statistics, for the seasonal series calculating as follows:

$$Q^* = n(n+2)\sum \frac{r_k^2}{n-k} \sim \chi^2(k-p-q-P-Q)$$

It is a diagnostic measure of white noise for a time series, assessing whether there are patterns in a group of autocorrelations under the hypotheses;

H_0: ACFs are not significantly different than white noise ACFs (i.e., ACFs = 0).

H_1: ACFs are statistically different than white noise ACFs (i.e., ACFs ≠ 0).

Table 5. *Ljung-Box Statistics and X^2 Values of the Model Residues Series*

Lag	Autocorrelation	Std. Error[a]	Ljung-Box Statistic		
			Value	df	Sig.[b]
4	-0.016	0.119	4.033	4	0.402
8	0.041	0.115	5.176	8	0.739
12	0.132	0.111	9.070	12	0.697
16	-0.025	0.107	11.643	16	0.768
20	-0.052	0.102	12.626	20	0.893
24	0.093	0.097	14.426	24	0.936

a. The underlying process assumed is independence (white noise).

b. Based on the asymptotic chi-square approximation.

The Ljung-Box (Q^*) statistics and X^2 values of the model for the varied lags of the residue series are given in Table 5. In the calculations

made for the varied delays of the model's series of residuals, it was found to be $Q^* < X^2$, therefore, null hypothesis of 0.05 significance level was accepted. The calculated Q^* statistics show that there is no significant autocorrelation between the model's residuals; confirms that the series has a random process and therefore the suitability of the determined SARIMA model.

Application of the ANN Method

In modelling the data with ANN, the forecasting performances of alternative ANN architectures created using different data sets were analysed. 16 observations of the current 69 quarter-year data are grouped as training, and 53 observations are grouped as test data. In the input layer of each network established for trial purposes, 3 lagged observation values ($y_{t-3}, y_{t-6}, y_{t-9}, y_{t-12}$) recommended for the prediction of quarterly series, and the original observation values (y_t) were used in the output layer. The data was normalized in the range [0:1] before keying into the computer using the equation below,

$$x_n = \frac{x_0 - x_{\min}}{x_{\max} - x_{\min}}$$

where:

x_0 = = original values,
x_n = normalized values,
x_{min} = the lowest number included in the data, and
x_{max} = the biggest number included in the data.

Within the scope of the study, model alternatives created with 3, 4 and 5 layer architectures were tried. The learning process of MLP network was realized by presenting the training data to the network. The implementation of the method was carried out with the Neural Network Toolbox of the "MATLAB – Simulink (version: r2019a)" computer program. The stop limit of the training process of the established networks was determined as 30.000 iterations for each trial. In the ANN application performed, the predictive performances of candidate ANN models with 3 observations lagged datasets in the input layer and various number of neurons (1-7) in the hidden layer were examined. Since there is no generally accepted rule in the literature to determine the number of neurons in hidden

layers, the network has been trained with different neuron number alternatives. In the process of modelling the data with alternative multi-layered ANN structures, all the different ANN architectures were tested using the data determined subsequently for this purpose. The forecasting performances of ANN models for different architectures were examined by comparing the forecasted values found as a result of the test process with real values.

As a consequence of several attempts, it has been observed that 3 observations lagged MLP model which has [4-5-1] architecture performed best in forecasting competition. During the training of the ANN model, the connection weights were updated with the "back propagation" method. The "Logarithmic Sigmoid" algorithm was used as the activation function and the "Levenberg-Marquardt" algorithm was used as the training function. Figure 4 represents the ANN model created.

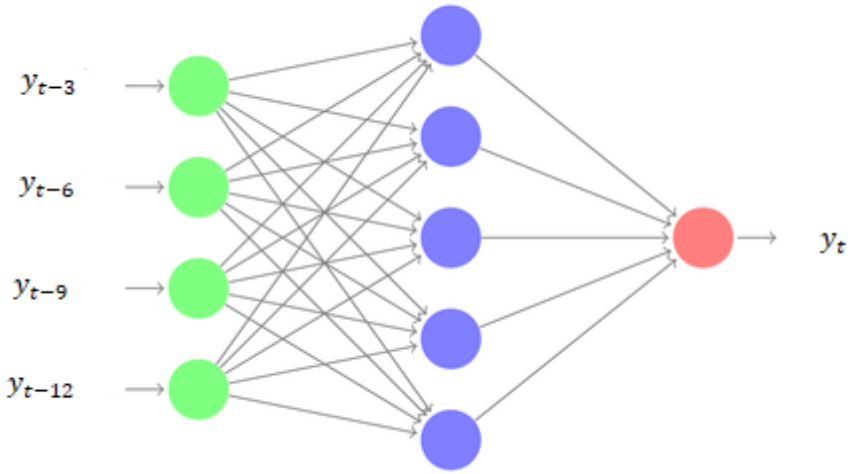

Figure 4. *Developed ANN Model as a Result of Experiments*

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The empirical results of the examined forecasting performances of ANN, exponential smoothing and Box-Jenkins (SARIMA) models are given in Table 6. According to the criteria proposed by Lewis (1982), it can be said that all applied models successfully produce high accuracy estimates, since the MAPE values of each model are less than 10%. Low MAPE indicates that the deviations between the predicted values obtained from the model and the actual values are very small. Among the alternative forecasting models obtained, the model that provides the lowest MAPE value is the

ANN model. The ex-post forecasting performances of three different models indicated that constructed MLP-ANN model outperforms the other models with the smallest MAPE of 8.06.

Table 6. *Accuracy Comparisons of Forecasting Models*

Forecast Model	**MAPE (%)**
MLP-ANN [4-5-1] Model	8.06
Box-Jenkins $(1,0,0)(1,1,1)_4$ Model	8.1
Holt-Winter's Multiplicative-Seasonal	9.34

When the results of the forecasting accuracy of each model tested are examined, it is possible to say that all the applied models produce highly successful forecasting results. As stated earlier, in the classification in the prediction modelling literature, models with 50% MAPE statistic value are misidentified models, models with 20% margin of error are models with acceptable accuracy, and models with 10% or less error margin are classified as highly accurate models.

The Box-Jenkins method has been successfully applied in time series forecasting studies due to its advantages, such as, following a gradual path in achieving the most appropriate solution, controlling the candidate model studied at all levels, providing the opportunity to model according to the characteristics of the data and especially the short and medium term prediction successes. Similarly, Holt-Winter's seasonal exponential smoothing method has also been successfully applied to modelling data under the influence of the trend and seasonal component. However, the model with the lowest margin of error among all tested models is the (MLP) ANN model. ANNs can learn and generalize the nonlinear patterns in the data and thus create solutions with a reasonable margin of error for the problems that they have not encountered before. These findings reveal the ability of ANNs, a machine learning technique, to learn complex and nonlinear models effectively, which is a clear advantage over linear models. For this reason, ANN is also known as a successful method in forecasting time series. Considering both the empirical findings obtained from this study and previous studies on tourism forecasting, it can be seen that ANN models that do not have any negativities (such as over-training, faulty architecture etc.) produce successful forecasting results when compared with models generated by conventional statistical methods.

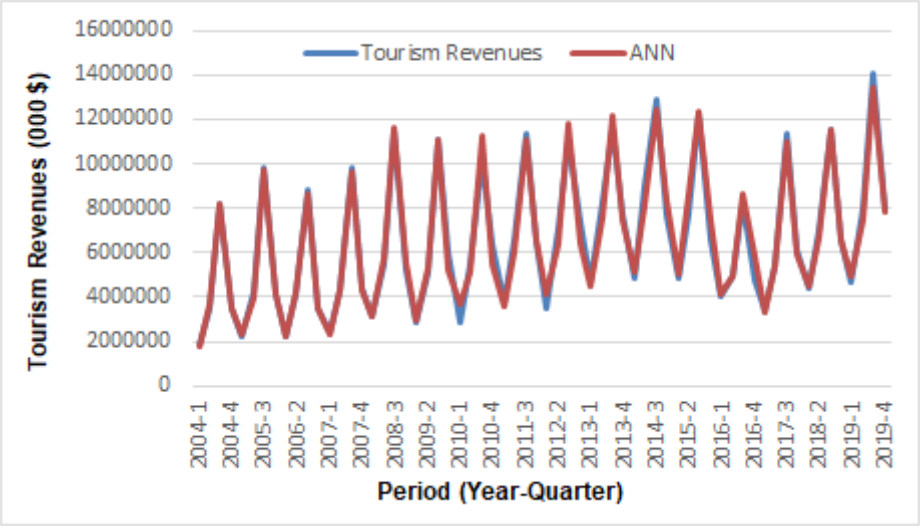

Figure 5. *Time Graph of Tourism Revenues Series and ANN Forecasts*

The time graph of the original tourism revenues series with the forecast values generated by MLP-ANN model is given in Figure 5. When the graph is examined, it is seen that the generated forecasting values series is in harmony with the real values series and the deviations remain at a very small level. These results demonstrate that constructed [4:5:1] MLP-ANN model can be successfully applied in forecasting future (ex-ante) tourism revenues in Turkey.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

International tourist arrivals to a country increase its foreign currency supply. As a result, the balance of payments deficits diminish, the value of the national currency increases, leading to a revival of other sectors, as tourism revenues change hands within the economy. Tourism sector is one of the most important sectors in countries with high revenue potential. Despite the various crises and adversities experienced, tourism is among the sectors that have been growing rapidly all over the world in recent years. Today, many developed or developing countries are in a fierce competition in order to attract international visitors, gain foreign currency, increase international tourism revenues and open new business opportunities in an increasing global competitive environment. As in many developing countries, the tourism industry in Turkey is one of the leading sectors of the economy. Tourism as a source of foreign exchange in Turkey is important in terms of being both direct and indirect employment provider. Therefore, the need for accurate tourism revenue forecasting is

particularly important due to the industry's contribution to the economy. Estimates of the tourism market and revenues with scientific methods play a guiding role in the decision-making processes of managers at all levels related to tourism. In fact, forecasting is a significant part of the whole planning process in the tourism sector. Accurate forecasting of tourism revenues is also important for the tourism industry because it can help reduce risk and uncertainty as well as effectively provide basic information for better tourism planning. In this study it is aimed to develop optimal forecasting model that yields the highest accuracy when compared the forecast performances of various models. Due to the perishable nature of tourism services, accurate and reliable forecasts are of great importance for stakeholders and decision makers in the tourism industry. However, forecasting is often carried out under uncertain conditions, so modelling and forecasting developments in tourism is a difficult task for both practitioners and academics.

The epidemic of "New Type Coronary Virus (Covid-19)", which emerged in China and spread throughout the world, started to have profound effects on the tourism sector. 209 countries in the world imposed travel restrictions as a precaution against the epidemic between January 2020 and 6 April 2020, this number corresponds to 96% of all destinations in the world (UNWTO, 2020b). Travel restrictions have brought tourism and related transportation activities to a halt. In the press release of the UNWTO on 7 May 2020, it was stated that the number of tourists in the world decreased by 22 percent in the first three months of 2020 compared to the same period of the previous year, and this decline may vary between 60 and 80% by the end of 2020. Tourism sector, which started hopefully in 2020, is one of the sectors that are most affected by the epidemic of COVID-19, which emerged in China and spread all over the world in a short time. The tourism sector has a critical importance in terms of both the employment it provides and the increase in foreign exchange reserves needed. Managers operating in tourism sector are in a difficult period in terms of determining the operational strategies for the next period, as well as cancellations, personnel management and financing configurations. The impact of COVID-19 on both revenues and supply chains is enormous and immeasurable. Considering that the share of tourism revenues in the national income in 2019 is 4% on average, it is likely that negative developments in tourism will have a direct impact on growth. Therefore, future tourism forecasts can be revised and used by experts in the light of possible scenarios envisaged by UNWTO.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has some limitations that allow further research. First, in the tourism demand forecasting models constructed, only monthly tourism income data and its lagged values were used without considering other important factors affecting tourism demand. Therefore, subsequent studies can examine the factors that affect tourism revenues and whether integrating internet-based Big Data into the forecasting models will improve forecast accuracy. Second, as with most tourism demand forecasting and modeling studies, the research is based on a case study for a single country. Therefore, the findings of this study should not be generalized. The aim of the study is to show the potential benefit of using Artificial Neural Networks in tourism revenue estimates comparatively. The study is explorative by its nature. More research needs to be done by including more than one case in order to obtain a more generalizable result.

It is possible to say that the results of the study have practical contribution, but some areas are open for future research. Prospectively, comparative studies in which various methods of Artificial Intelligence such as Adaptive Neural Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS), Support Vector Machines (SVMs), Rough Sets, Fuzzy Logic and Genetic Algorithms together with the methods used in this study can be proposed to researchers. Additionally, comparing forecasting accuracy with other forecasting techniques and other accuracy measurement dimensions can yield beneficial results. Considering the limited number of studies on modelling and forecasting tourism revenues, it can be said that the proposed studies will form the basis for the planning activities of the practitioners and public administrators operating in tourism sector and will contribute to filling the gap in this field.

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EXPLORING THE COLLABORATIVE CONSUMPTION JOURNEY: THE CASE OF ACCESS-BASED CONSUMPTION

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the collaborative consumption journey in purchase funnel, covering both the pre-accommodation and during/post-accommodation stages, and extends knowledge toward the intersection of customer experience and the field of shared economics. Firstly, we identify all potential touchpoints in multiple stages of the collaborative consumption journey through in-depth interviews and then we investigate experiential dimensions of the collaborative consumption journey by means of a qualitative study and the prioritization of dimensions of customer experience through the Analytical Hierarchical Process methodology by analysing two different types of access-based consumption: the renting platform Airbnb and the lending platform Couchsurfing. Touchpoints were framed under four groups: (a) brand-owned, (b) partner-owned, (c) customer-owned and (d) social/external. The results demonstrate that sensory, affective and cognitive dominant experiences act as the primary roles for both collaborative consumption platforms in the pre-accommodation stage, whereas the collaborative consumption experience is enriched with distinct experiences in the during/post-accommodation stage. The cognitive experience is relatively more important for Airbnb, while sensory experience plays

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a more critical role in the Couchsurfing journey in the pre-accommodation stage. These experiences then shift into affective and relational experiences during/post-accommodation stage.

INTRODUCTION

Providing superior value to customers in the form of experience creates a competitive advantage in today's business environment, and managers have become progressively more enthusiastic about the experience concept (Berry et al., 2002; Verhoef et al., 2009). The customer experience has become a new competitive battleground. It is a critical antecedent of favourable business outcomes (customer retention and profitability) and a source of sustainable differentiation beyond traditional physical elements such as product features, price, delivery, and lead times (Bolton et al., 2014)

Technological developments are transforming the customer experience, and the nature of interactions between customers and organizations are changing considerably (Van Doorn et al., 2017). Today, customers face and interact with companies through various touchpoints in the digital, physical, and social realms (Bolton et al., 2018), which together make the customer journey more complicated. Scrutinizing these touchpoints during customers' journeys through myriad interactions in the different stages of purchase such as pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase is critically important for companies that intend to create and deliver augmented customer experiences (Baxendale et al., 2015; Bolton et al., 2014; Verhoef et al., 2009). Moreover, elaborating the journey with its details across every touchpoint creates multiple effects on customers (Bolton et al., 2014). In this sense, since creating a magnificent customer experiences is paramount for companies, most multinational companies now have chief customer experience officers working on managing their customers' experiences in an organized manner (Verhoef et al., 2015).

Customer experience has been studied in several research areas, including online marketing (e.g., Novak et al., 2000), brand management (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009), retail marketing (e.g., Bagdare & Jain, 2013) and service marketing (e.g., Voorhees et al., 2017), while analyses of the collaborative consumption journey remains unexamined in the literature. In addition, many researchers do not explicitly differentiate the various forms of collaborative consumption platforms (Möhlmann, 2015). The new "sharing economy" phenomenon, which has directly changed the mindsets of consumers over recent decades, has received a

great deal of attention among entrepreneurs, policy-makers, the media and academic scholars (Lamberton & Rose, 2012). While traditional economic perspectives advocate the "transfer of ownership" for the exchange of goods and services, the sharing-based economy introduced a new concept, "access over ownership", involving activities such as borrowing, lending and renting instead of purchasing and owning (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). In this framework, individuals' increased attention toward environmental, societal and economic concerns in recent years has made the "collaborative consumption" model an inevitable alternative for consumers (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). In addition, access-based consumption may also differ with respect to market mediation, implying that some modes of exchange are triggered by prosocial and altruistic motives (i.e., Couchsurfing), while others can be underlined by economic and reciprocal desires (i.e., Airbnb) (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012); such motives should be expected to alter consumers' preferences and experiences in their collaborative consumption journeys in the future.

On the other hand, despite widespread studies of customer journeys in recent literature, scant attention has been given to the formalization of the methodology through examining the customer journey (Halvorsrud et al., 2016). As the pertinent literature mainly concentrates on the conceptualization of the construct (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009; Verhoef et al., 2009), it is also important to investigate the customer journey itself in various stages of the purchasing process by focusing on multiple touchpoints. The literature also remains silent on the affective, cognitive, emotional, relational and behavioural dimensions of experience (Bolton et al., 2014) that exist in the pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase stages of the journey (Kranzbühler et al., 2018). Although there exist several studies investigating the subject of sharing in sociology and anthropology, limited attention has been given to the concept in the fields of consumer behaviour and consumption (Hellwig et al., 2015), which is especially promising in customer experience field (Paulauskaite et al., 2017).

Motivated by the abovementioned factors, the overall objective of this study is to explore the collaborative consumption journey in purchase funnel. This study offers a twofold contribution to the existing research through its objective: the first will be to shed light on the collaborative consumption journey in monetary and nonmonetary contexts by associating touchpoints with various dimensions of experiences in different stages of the journey. Secondly, this study is designed to bridge consumers' and practitioners' perspectives on how to enrich the collaborative consumption experience, overcome barriers for it and the painful points of

the collaborative consumption journey. In doing so, this paper addresses the following questions:

(1) What are the touchpoints in purchase funnel for customer journey at the collaborative consumption platforms Couchsurfing and Airbnb?

(2) What are the experiential aspects in different stages of the collaborative consumption journey for Airbnb and Couchsurfing? What are the weights of those different experiential aspects?

(3) What are the differences in journey between renting (i.e., Airbnb) and lending (i.e., Couchsurfing) as forms of collaborative consumption?

(4) What can scholars and practitioners suggest in order to enrich the collaborative consumption journey in the context of renting (i.e., Airbnb) and lending (i.e., Couchsurfing)?

To answer these questions, this paper proceeds with a literature review comprising both the customer journey and sharing economy. Following an overview of the literature, the collaborative consumption journeys of Airbnb and Couchsurfing customers were investigated using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. In Study 1, semi-structured interviews were used to identify key brand touchpoints in the pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase stages for customers. Study 2 explored the experiential dimensions of the collaborative consumption journey through a qualitative study and then prioritized these dimensions of customer experience with the help of an analytical hierarchical process methodology. Finally, a general discussion and managerial implications for collaborative consumption platforms are provided, along with considerations for future research.

THE CUSTOMER JOURNEY

The concept of the customer experience was first uttered in the 1980s; this new experiential view focused on the symbolic, hedonic and aesthetic nature of consumption, and progressed beyond conventional consumer behaviour literature which had previously examined consumption as a rational decision-making process (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). According to Meyer and Schwager (2007), the customer experience as a holistic concept incorporates all aspects of a company's offerings, such as quality of customer care, product and service features. It also denotes the internal and subjective responses of customers as they come into direct or

indirect contact with a company. Namely, the customer experience is derived from interactions between a customer and a company, a product, or partners of a company (Gentile et al., 2007). These interactions extend to customer-to-customer interactions, though it is often difficult to distinguish how they affect purchase decisions (Davies et al., 1999). Managing customer experiences is multifaceted for services which are often co-produced by several service providers for multiple customers (Bolton et al., 2014). Contrary to the goods-centred view of marketing, Vargo and Lusch (2004) indicated that customer experience is not *designed*; rather it is *co-created* through customer interactions with numerous service elements.

Customer experience in a journey can be examined theoretically through five different dimensions (Schmitt, 1999): (1) sensory experience (sense); (2) cognitive experience (think); (3) affective experience (feel); (4) behavioural experience (act); and (5) social-identity experience (relate). Sensory experience is related to the five human senses (sight, sound, smell, taste and touch) and, though it is often neglected in the marketing literature, arouses aesthetical pleasure, excitement, satisfaction, beauty perception, memory and emotion (Hultén, 2011). In terms of the cognitive dimension, an experience acts as a personal trial which transforms individuals or allows them to develop certain philosophical, sociological and psychological perspectives (Carù & Cova, 2003). In this framework, cognitive experiences refer to thinking, conscious mental processes and creatively examining mental assumptions held by marketers (Gentile et al., 2007). Brakus et al. (2009) posit that cognitive experiences include convergent/analytical and divergent/imaginative thinking. While convergent thinking is focused on deriving the single best or correct answer, divergent thinking (e.g. creative thinking, shifting perspectives and seeing new possibilities), by contrast, involves producing unconventional answers from existing information (Cropley, 2006). Besides providing cognitive experiences, marketers trigger customers' internal feelings and emotions with the objective of creating worthy affective experiences (Schmitt, 1999). In the literature, previous studies highlight the importance of affective experiences. For instance, Schmitt et al. (2015) suggest that experience is a mediator between consumption and the hedonic path (pleasure), and also the eudamonic path (the fulfilment of meaningful goals) of happiness. Berry et al. (2002) reveal that organizations must take into account the emotional component of experiences with the same rigor as product management and service functionality. The fourth dimension, the behavioural experience, refers to motor actions and acts of doing (Gentile et al., 2007). Finally, the social

identity experience refers to social experiences, such as relating to a reference group (Brakus et al., 2009)

Consumer and marketing research has shown that experiences constitute key markers in all stages of the customer purchase journey—from need recognition to post-purchase stages (Brakus et al., 2009; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). From a holistic perspective, all stages should be taken into consideration in the journey, and as Voorhees et al. (2017) suggest, researchers must expand their views beyond core experiences. In this context, customer experience can be conceptualized as "a customer's journey with a firm over time during the purchase cycle across multiple touchpoints" (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016, p. 74). According to Homburg et al. (2017), who worked with 52 managers on questions of customer experience management, creating and managing a consistent experiential response across different touchpoints is essential for companies. Touchpoints need not be linked directly to a company or go beyond channels; rather, they may consist of any interaction, such as word-of-mouth or reviews in which the firm is not directly involved (Baxendale et al., 2015). Existing studies propose various classifications of customer touchpoints within the customer journey (e.g., Anderl et al., 2016; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). For example, digital channels were categorized as paid channels (e.g. TV, radio), owned channels (e.g. a company's website) and earned channels (e.g. consumer reviews on blogs) (Stephen & Galak, 2012). Furthermore, Anderl et al. (2016) focused on question of who instigates the interaction, and in so doing, grouped touchpoints as both firm-initiated and customer-initiated. Straker et al. (2015) classified touchpoints under four categories: functional touchpoints (e.g. websites, email), social touchpoints (e.g. Facebook, Instagram), community touchpoints (e.g. discussion forums, blogs) and corporate touchpoints (e.g. FAQs). Finally, Lemon and Verhoef (2016) categorized touchpoints managed by the firm and existing under the firm's control (e.g. advertising, websites) as brand-owned touchpoints. According to their typology, while partner-owned touchpoints are designed and managed by one or more of the company's partners, customer-owned touchpoints exist under the control of customers. Last but not least, social/external touchpoints refer to third-party information sources (e.g. review sites). The increasing number and complexity of potential customer touchpoints, under the effect of accelerated technological development, render the understanding of the customer journey increasingly difficult owing to the reduced control firms have over the customer experience and journey (e.g., Edelman & Singer, 2015).

COLLABORATIVE CONSUMPTION

Sharing is one of the most fundamental patterns of human economic behaviour, and its presence as a form of exchange in humankind has been dated back several thousand years (Price, 1975). Among today's consumers, sharing as a form of consumption has recently become, in some respects, more attractive than buying, particularly in the course of heightened interest in public and academic bodies for more sustainable models of consumption (Belk, 2014; Hellwig et al., 2015; Lamberton & Rose, 2012). A wealth of conceptions of the sharing economy exist in the pertinent literature (Richardson, 2015), and there appears to be different terms employed interchangeably with "sharing economy" (Dredge & Gyimóthy, 2015), including "peer-to-peer economy" (Nielsen, 2014), "collaborative consumption" (Botsman & Rogers, 2010), "social sharing" (Benkler, 2004) and "access economy" (Rifkin, 2000).

According to Belk (2014, p. 1597), however, sharing can be defined as "people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a source for a fee or other compensation", referring to the involvement of both monetary and non-monetary compensations. On the other hand, Hamari et al. (2016) describes sharing as the consumption of goods and services through activities such as renting, swapping, or trading; their definition points to different modes of sharing, such as new and second-hand purchases, donating, lending, renting and borrowing. The concept may also refer to "systems of organized sharing, bartering, lending, trading, renting, gifting, and swapping" (Botsman & Rogers, 2010, p. 30). Further, access of ownership refers to the sharing of goods and services with other individuals for a limited time period through peer-to-peer sharing activities such as renting and lending (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). In line with these definitions, commercial sharing business models allow individuals to share their own resources with other people in new and creative platforms (Cohen & Kietzmann 2014). For instance, people are empowered to provide access to flats (e.g., AirBnB, Couchsurfing), cars and bicycles (e.g., Sidecar, Byke.mobi), clothes (e.g., Poshmark) and taxi services (e.g., Uber, blablacar) (Malhotra & Van Alstyne, 2014). However, access-based consumption platforms are different from each other depending on the level of market mediation, from for-profit to not-for-profit. For instance, while not-for-profit access-based consumption platforms rely heavily on peer-to-peer sharing and consumers gain temporary access to goods/services owned by other people for free (i.e., Couchsurfing), some access-based consumption platforms are contingent on market mediation, stimulated by the profit-motives of economic exchange (i.e., Airbnb) (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). In

this sense, consumers' perceptions, values and desires differ with regard to the mode of consumption, and consumers may have different preferences for distinct types of access-based consumption (Chen, 2012; Rifkin, 2000).

The aspects of the sharing economy are fourfold: (1) collaboration online, which covers issues such as content creation by sharing knowledge or collaborative facilities among users online— such as consumer to consumer exchanges like file sharing (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010); (2) social commerce, which refers to peer-to-peer cooperation as a form of commerce through social media (Wang & Zhang, 2012); (3) sharing online, which refers to the sharing of goods and services with the help of information technologies such as collaborative consumption platforms like Couchsurfing and Blablacar (Galbreth et al., 2012); and finally, (4) ideological considerations, which are attached to collective actions or campaigns via open sources such as social media (Oh et al., 2013).

Since it allows for the sharing of goods and services in exchange for monetary and nonmonetary benefits and reconceptualises the notions of "ownership" and "employment" (Belk, 2014), "sharing rather than purchasing" has gained increased popularity among today's consumers owing to its three main premises for the economy (i.e., generating new revenue models for individuals), society (i.e., increased social interactions) and the environment (i.e., communal consumption) (Hellwig et al., 2015; Madran & Yakın, 2018). With regard to its economic impacts, PwC has estimated that the five main industries in the context of sharing-based economies (i.e., travel, car sharing, staffing, music and video streaming) generate $15 billion in global annual revenue today, and forecasters suggest a market potential of up to $335 billion by 2025 (PwC, 2016). On the other hand, both companies and individuals have begun to consider the option of sharing as an environmentally-friendly and more profitable alternative to purchasing goods and services (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). In this context, the sharing economy is considered an umbrella concept incorporating the concept of "collaborative consumption", which encourages the sharing and consumption of goods and services via online platforms (Hamari et al., 2016).

METHODOLOGY

In this research, the process of exploring the collaborative consumption journey consisted of two studies. In Study 1, in-depth interviews were conducted with the aim of identifying and classifying all potential

touchpoints in multiple stages of the collaborative consumption journey. Study 2 is designed with the intent to: (1) explore the sensory, affective, cognitive, behavioural and relational experience dimensions of the collaborative consumption journey; (2) prioritize dimensions of the customer experience for two different collaborative consumption platforms (Airbnb and Couchsurfing); and (3) determine critical touchpoints for customers in the collaborative consumption journey by focusing on the pre/during/post accommodation stages of the journey.

Selection of collaborative consumption category and platform

To comprehend the differences between renting and lending, two platforms of collaborative consumption were considered for the research: (1) Airbnb and (2) Couchsurfing, both of which reside in the apartment-sharing ecosystem (Botsman & Rogers, 2010) as peer-to-peer accommodation platforms. While the former offers a monetary-based application and online website that coordinates individuals looking to rent a room or apartment for a short-term accommodation (Benoit et al., 2017), the latter as a non-commodified form provides an online platform that intends to gather people seeking a free living space with other people who share an underutilized place in their residence (Hellwig et al., 2014). The authors consider peer-to-peer accommodation sharing platforms to be compatible with the intent of the study, as consumers encounter authentic and customized experiences during their travels owing to interactions among guests, hosts and the local community (Paulauskaite et al., 2017).

Data collection methods

As this work is of an exploratory nature, in Study 1 and 2, face-to-face and semi-structured interviews were conducted in Turkey with Turkish consumers who have previous Airbnb and Couchsurfing travel experiences. Marshall (1996) claims that in qualitative studies, understanding complicated human-based issues is more critical than the generalizability of the results. In this context, respondents were selected via judgmental sampling in order to discover information-rich cases and respondent variety (Emmel, 2013). In both Study 1 and Study 2, respondents were selected with a non-probability technique of judgmental sampling which includes the choice of participants: (a) who have at least one Airbnb or Couchsurfing experience; (b) who are in the most suitable position to give the information required; (c) whose experiences distinguish in terms of the number of experiences they had; and (d) who differ in terms of age,

gender, and income. In this sense, judgmental sampling data provides the assurance that respondents will be expected to provide rich knowledge to the researcher by the virtue of having gone through different number of experiences. The sample size was determined with respect to the reach of the saturation point about verbatim gathered from the interviews (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In this sense, data collection was completed when the researchers reached the saturation point, which clarifies a status when a few distinct data were uncovered from each new interview. All interviews were recorded and transcribed for content analysis.

In Study 1, 11 semi-structured interviews were conducted as an initial study. The interview procedure involved three sections. At the beginning of the interview, respondents were asked to consider their collaborative consumption journeys for 20 minutes and write the entire story on paper by the help of short statements or bullet points, considering several points to remind their customer journey: (i) general viewpoints throughout their accommodation experience with regard to different phases of the journey (i.e., pre-accommodation, during/post accommodation); (ii) writing down all important points that come to their mind in the accommodation experience; and (iii) remind all satisfactory and unsatisfactory experiences they had in both pre-accommodation, and during/post-accommodation phases. In the second section, respondents were asked to describe their entire collaborative consumption journeys by concentrating on each experience separately and on each phase (pre-purchase/purchase/post-purchase) one by one. The in-depth interviews lasted between 75 and 90 minutes.

In Study 2, 19 respondents took part in semi-structured interviews. Each interview lasted from 30-60 minutes depending on number of experiences. In total, 67 distinct collaborative consumption experiences (30 Airbnb and 37 Couchsurfing experiences) were derived from 19 in-depth interviews (see Table 1). According to insights gathered from the interview process of Study 1, it became clear that considering the purchasing process in two stages (pre-accommodation and during/post-accommodation) was a norm for respondents. In this framework, in Study 2, respondents were asked to describe their sensory, affective, cognitive, behavioural and relational experiences based on pre-accommodation and during/post-accommodation periods. Interview questions were prepared in light of the related literature concerning customer experience (Schmitt, 1999; Triantafillidou & Siomkos, 2014).

Table 1. *Respondents in Study 2*

AIRBNB				COUCHSURFING			
	Gender	**Age**	**Number of Experiences**		**Gender**	**Age**	**Number of Experiences**
AR1	Male	33	2	**CR1**	Male	28	3
AR2	Female	21	8	**CR2**	Female	34	1
AR3	Female	48	6	**CR3**	Female	37	5
AR4	Male	22	3	**CR4**	Female	26	1
AR5	Female	27	2	**CR5**	Female	23	4
AR6	Female	25	1	**CR6**	Male	26	20
AR7	Male	24	2	**CR7**	Female	29	2
AR8	Female	23	1	**CR8**	Female	23	1
AR9	Female	23	2				
AR10	Male	36	2				
AR11	Female	33	1				

Notes: AR: Airbnb Respondent; CR: Couchsurfing Respondent

At the end of the interviews, respondents were also asked to identify the most important touchpoints they had encountered in their journeys via a questionnaire, with the understanding that each touchpoint would not have equal priority for customers. In the questionnaire, participants were asked to respond to questions designed to prioritize the distinct dimensions of experience according to their relative importance via the Analytical Hierarchy Procedure. In the last section of questionnaire, respondents were asked to address questions related to how frequently they use Airbnb/Couchsurfing, their familiarity with Couchsurfing/Airbnb and their demographic backgrounds.

Data analysis methods

The data of the first and second study were coded and analysed via qualitative content analysis as described in the literature (Kassarjian, 1977). In this respect, themes and categories were selected as units of measurement, and coded verbatims were classified under themes, categories, and sub-categories according to coding framework. Themes and categories were identified with predominantly a concept-driven way and directed content analysis, which uses predetermined themes/categories dictated by a theory or prior research findings, was applied. In Study 1, touchpoints were classified according to the framework offered by Lemon and Verhoef (2016). In Study 2, themes, categories ad sub-categories were identified as described in the literature (Brakus et al., 2009; Richins, 1997; Schmitt, 1999; Triantafillidou & Siomkos, 2014). Additionally, as analysis of

the data progressed, new categories and sub-categories also emerged from verbatims with a data-driven way. Two authors of this study who have extensive knowledge about the study objectives and coding protocol conducted the coding and categorizing process independently from each other. After the completion of coding process, two authors met in order to discuss and solve any discrepancies together. In this sense, the inter-coder reliability was 92% for Study 1 and 87% for Study 2, both of which are above the standard satisfactory level of 85% agreement (Kassarjian, 1977).

To analyse the data gathered from the questionnaire in Study 2, the Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) was used for understanding the relative importance of each experience dimension for respondents. The AHP is a multiple criteria decision-making tool which was developed by Saaty (1980). It works through a pair-wise comparison technique, and the concluding weight is based on comparing the significance of one choice alternative to another. Recently, the AHP has been used in marketing and other fields that prioritize factors influencing consumers' decisions when selecting wealth management services (e.g., Yu & Ting, 2011); targets, origins and root causes of boycotting behaviour (e.g., Hendarto et al., 2018); customer engagement parameters (e.g., Kujur & Singh, 2018); and applications involving trade-off models (Davies, 2001). The AHP method used in this study involves three steps. First, the input data related to each dimension of experience is generated by pair-wise comparisons based on a five-point weighting scale. In the second step, the degree of inconsistency is measured by an inconsistency index before the weights are computed and consistent results appear (Consistency Index (CI) ≤ 0.1 is acceptable). Finally, the weight of each experience type is computed using the eigenvalue method. These experience comparisons were aimed at prioritizing categories of experiences according to their relative importance rather than judging their absolute importance.

RESULTS

Results of Study 1

Study 1 explored all possible touchpoints in multiple stages of the collaborative consumption journey. Customer journey was classified under two purchasing stages: pre-accommodation and during/post-accommodation. Empirical evidence was categorized into four distinct customer experience touchpoint categories based upon the framework offered by Lemon and Verhoef (2016): (a) brand-owned touchpoints; (b)

customer-owned touchpoints; (c) partner-owned touchpoints; and (d) social/external touchpoints (Figure 1). Although the touchpoints encountered by Airbnb and Couchsurfing consumers were the same, the more frequently- mentioned touchpoints based on experience dimensions and purchase stages differed.

Brand-owned touchpoints

Regarding brand-owned touchpoints, respondents noted their interactions with points falling under the firm's control in the pre-accommodation stage as "Website", "Mobile Application", "E-Mail", "Published Material of Company", "TV/Radio/Podcasts", "Community Meetings" and "Help Centre", while their interactive touchpoints in the during/after stages of their customer experience consisted of "Website", "Mobile "Application", "E-mail" and "Help Centre". A great deal of research, including recent studies, has emphasized the important role websites and e-mail play in the customer experience, as they often represent the first point of interaction with the company and trigger customers to engage further by extending the conversation with reminders and newsletters (Straker et al., 2015).

Partner-owned touchpoints

Respondents' highest acknowledgment of partner-owned touchpoints (those designed and controlled with the help of a firm and its partners) in the pre-accommodation period included "Search Engines", "Online Maps", "Website of Other Service Providers", "Affiliated Websites", "Print/Online Media", "TV/Radio Channels", "Profile Pages of Host", "Mobile Communication Accounts of Host" and "Website/Mobile Application System of Financial Intermediaries". In the during/post-accommodation period, respondents most often acknowledged "House of Host", "Host", "Mobile Communication Accounts of Host", "Instructions Prepared by Host" and "Treats Given by Host". As a wealth of studies reveal that the main factor driving individuals to be a part of a sharing economy is social interaction (Tussyadiah, 2015), instructions and treats given by the host come to prominence among key touchpoints in the collaborative consumption journey. As one respondent mentioned:

> *"When we enter the room, we recognized that the host left some treats like snacks for breakfast and instructions related to the transportation for us. It created positive feelings"* (AR1).

Customer-owned touchpoints

In terms of customer-owned touchpoints, respondents' most frequently-referenced touchpoints including "Profile Pages of Guest", "E-mail Account" "Social Media and Mobile Communication Accounts of Guest" in the pre-accommodation stage, while in during/post accommodation one there are touchpoints such as "Phone", "Mobile Communication Accounts of Guest", "Profile Page of Guest". Here we note that social media takes central stage and is regarded as an augmented product feature in the context of collaborative consumption, as customers highly emphasize social media as a valuable source of information (Yannopoulou et al., 2013). As one of the participants described:

> *"After finding the potential host on the website, I start to search this person from all distinct social media platforms in order to understand what kind of personality this person has before making the final decision"* (CR5).

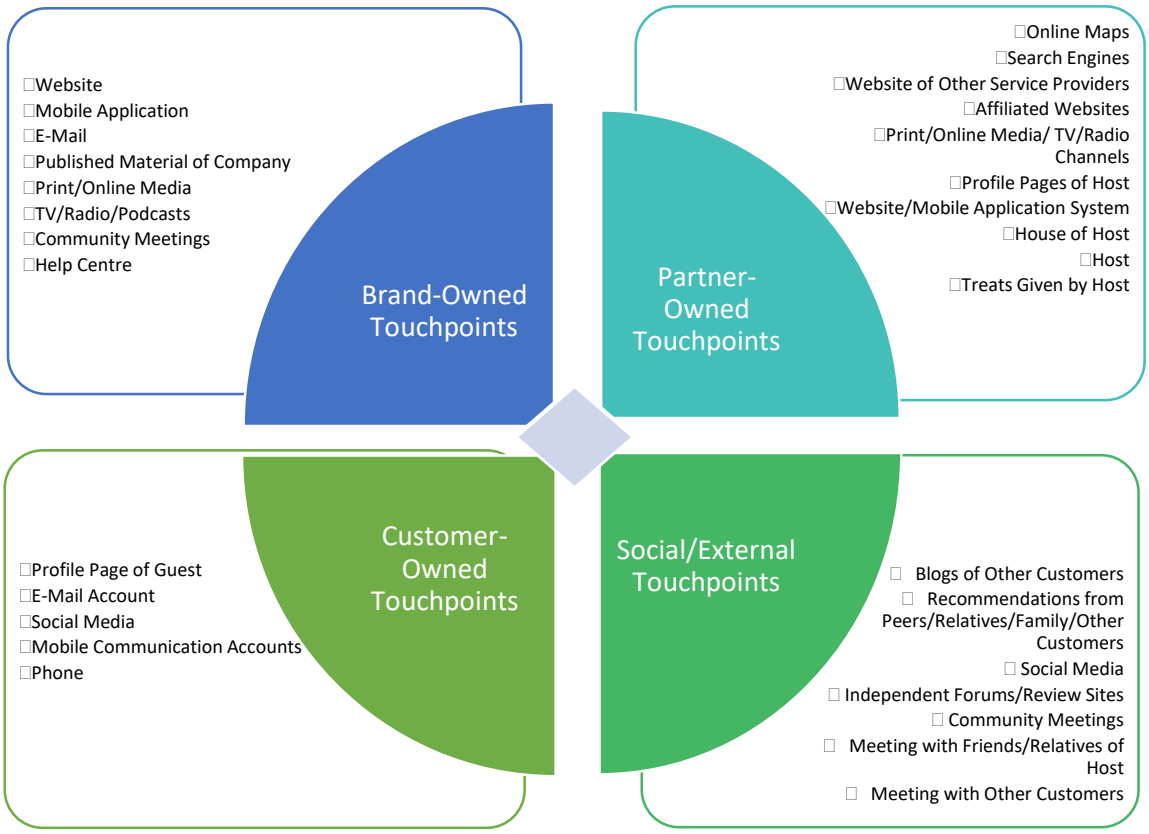

Figure 1. *Classification of Touchpoints*

Social/external touchpoints

With respect to social/external touchpoints, respondents most often noted "Blogs of Other Customers", "Recommendations from Peers/Relatives/Family/Other Customers", "Social Media Accounts of Guest/Host", "Independent Forums/Review Sites" and "Community Meetings" in the pre-accommodation stage, whereas in during/post accommodation, touchpoints such as "Social Media Accounts of Guest/Host", "Meeting with Friends/Relatives of Host or Other Customers" and "Community Meetings" were prominent. In the extant literature, there is evidence suggesting that peer conversations and peer observations crucially influence the decision-making process of customers (Baxendale et al., 2015).

Results of Study 2

In the first phase of Study 2, the authors investigated the distinct experiential dimensions of the collaborative consumption journey by comparing the renting platform Airbnb with the lending platform Couchsurfing. Also, customer journey was examined with respect to the two purchasing phases involving both pre-accommodation and during/post-accommodation. The findings were aggregated under five discrete experiential dimensions building upon the scheme of Schmitt (1999): (a) sensory experience; (b) affective experience; (c) cognitive experience; (d) behavioural experience and (e) relational experience.

In general, sensory, affective and cognitive dominant experiences come into prominence for both collaborative consumption platforms in the pre-accommodation stage, whereas the collaborative consumption experience has been diversified into distinct experiences, augmenting the collaborative consumption journey with the engagement of other experiential dimensions in the during/post-accommodation stage. In the second phase, the AHP was applied to main dimensions of experience to measure the relative importance of them to each other, and results were presented in Table 2. Table 2 shows that the cognitive experience is relatively more important for Airbnb (38.4%) in the pre-accommodation stage than it is for Couchsurfing. On the other hand, sensory experience, which has a weight of 38.4%, plays a more central role for Couchsurfing in the same stage. Among the experience dimensions, affective experience is the primary concern (27.8%), followed by behavioural experience (19.8%) and sensory experience (19.3%) for the Airbnb journey in the during/post-

accommodation stage. However, in the Couchsurfing journey, relational experience (29.4%) and behavioural experience (22.7%) are considered much more important than other experience dimensions.

Table 2. *Priority weights of experience dimensions in collaborative consumption journey*

	Pre-Accommodation				During/Post-Accommodation					
	CI	Sensory Experience	Affective Experience	Cognitive Experience	CI	Sensory Experience	Affective Experience	Cognitive Experience	Behavioural Experience	Relational Experience
Airbnb	0.084	0.307	0.309	0.384	0.090	0.193	0.278	0.169	0.198	0.161
Couchsurfing	0.085	0.384	0.297	0.319	0.095	0.074	0.209	0.197	0.227	0.294
Consistency Index (CI)<0.10										

Sensory experience

The first experiential dimension is sensory experience and five types of sensory experiences appear throughout the interviews: sight, sound, taste, touch and smell (see Table 3). With regard to the pre-accommodation stage, the most frequently-indicated experiential notions for both platforms are related to the sense of sight, which is the most powerful for discovering differences in the environment, and the most common in perceiving goods and services (Hultén, 2011). Frequently-inferred key sight appeals, that influence the pre-accommodation stage for Airbnb consumers involve "Photos of exteriors and interiors", "Location", "The features of accommodation" and "Photos of host", whereas for Couchsurfers they include "Photos of host", "Features of Website/mobile application" and "Photos of exteriors and interiors". It should be noted that "Photos of Exteriors and Interiors" are more important for Airbnb consumers, while "Photos of Host" are more notable for Couchsurfers. In fact, this finding can be explained by the term "visual-based trust" in the pertinent literature (e.g., Deng & Ravichandran, 2017). Ert et al. (2016) have indicated the substantial role of a host's website photos in terms of enhancing trust-building and reducing uncertainty, both of which increase interactions and foment positive attitudes for customers. In this sense, typical statements made by the respondents are as follows:

> *"When I check the photos of the host, I have to have an impression that she/he is trustful."* (CR6).

> *"The houses in photos have to be clean and neat. And, kitchen photos among others have a positive effect on me because it gives me more home feeling."* (AR2).

Table 3. *Sensory Experience in Collaborative Consumption Journey (Airbnb vs. Couchsurfing)*

Themes	Categories	Sub-Categories	Themes	Categories	Sub-Categories
AIRBNB (Pre-Accommodation)			**AIRBNB (During/Post-Accommodation)**		
Sensory Experience (32)	Sight (32)	Photos of exteriors and interiors (16) Location (7) Features of Accommodation (5) Photos of host (4)	Sensory Experience (29)	Smell (14)	Smell of room (6) Smell of food (5) Hygienic smell (3)
				Sight (9)	Features of Accommodation (6) Culture specific interiors (2) Instructions (1)
				Taste (3)	Treats of host (3)
				Touch (3)	Features of accommodation (3)
Highlighted Touchpoints Online maps Website of Airbnb			House of host		
COUCHSURFING (Pre-Accommodation)			**COUCHSURFING (During/Post-Accommodation)**		
Sensory Experience (19)	Sight (19)	Photos of host (14) Features of Website / Mobile application (4) Photos of exteriors and interiors (1)	Sensory Experience (24)	Taste (9)	Treats (9)
				Sight (6)	Features of accommodation (4) Culture specific interiors (2)
				Smell (4)	Smell of room (3) Smell of food (1)
				Touch (3)	Hygiene (3)
				Sound (2)	Listening music (2)
Highlighted Touchpoints Profile page of host Website of Couchsurfing Social media accounts of host			House of host Host		
* **Numbers are representing the frequencies of themes**					

The sense module diversifies into various sensations, enriching the collaborative consumption journey with the engagement of other senses (smell, taste, touch, sound and sight) in the during/post accommodation stage. While most respondents acknowledged the sense of smell and sight for the Airbnb platform, the most frequently-indicated expressions under the sensory experience were taste and sight for the Couchsurfing platform. In this context, the sense of smell, considered a strong stimulus in the experiential marketing literature, evokes consumer emotions and plays an instrumental role in the decision-making process by influencing consumer thinking (Vinitzky & Mazursky, 2011). Furthermore, sensory experience becomes deeper and more meaningful if combined with sensorial taste—when consumers are exposed to different tastes and taste compositions in their experiences (Hultén, 2011). For instance:

> *"Smell in the house is very important. When I entered the house, I felt the smell of cleanliness, it affected me positively."* (AR10).

> *"She was from Thailand and cooked for me something from Thailand cuisine. Our conversation was good, and I also tasted good and different meals."* (CR5).

Additionally, highlighted touchpoints mentioned by Airbnb consumers included "Online Maps" and "Website of Airbnb" in pre-accommodation. Couchsurfers' responses emphasized the "Profile Page of Host" and "Social Media Accounts of Host" as different touchpoints not mentioned by Airbnb customers. For example, one interviewee stated that *"I am making a search like a stalker from social media platforms to understand what kind of person is"* (CR2). In the during/post-accommodation stage, "House of host" represents a key touchpoint which may create a noteworthy sensory experience; "Host" encompasses a multifaceted set of sensory experiences for Couchsurfers.

Affective experience

Affective experiences, which constitute a large spectrum, emerged from the interviews and were divided into two main categories: positive emotions and negative emotions, each involving sub-emotions based on the framework offered by Richins (1997) in the field of consumption experience (see Table 4). Respondents stated that their affective experiences carried feelings related to flow and escapism; their statements were consistent with Triantafillidou and Siomkos's (2014) study. In the pre-accommodation stage, a significant number of respondents provided evidence of "Negative emotions" in the journey of Airbnb in the framework of "Worry" and "Fear". On the other hand, respondents expressed positive feelings (i.e., excitement, peacefulness, optimism and surprise) relatively more frequently for the Couchsurfing platform during the pre-accommodation stage. This discrepancy probably stems from differences between perceived risk and fear in the two different contexts, for Olson (2013) declared that perceived fears serve as the main barrier in collaborative consumption, especially concerns about trust, quality and the value of the service provided. Besides, Airbnb, which is a monetary platform, is more subject to guests' performance expectations than Couchsurfing, a non-commodified accommodation alternative (e.g., Guttentag & Smith, 2017). For example, regarding negative and positive emotions, the following responses were noted:

"There were many questions in my mind. That's why, I had worry and excitement. Would we take the key at the right time, would the house be clean, would we feel ourselves relax when we slept, how is the district, is it secure or not?" (AR11).

"Before going there, my emotions were positive. I had scrutinized her profile and I had a feeling that she was a good person" (CR2).

Table 4. *Affective Experience in Collaborative Consumption Journey (Airbnb vs. Couchsurfing)*

Themes	**Categories**	**Sub-Categories**	**Themes**	**Categories**	**Sub-Categories**
AIRBNB (Pre-Accommodation)			**AIRBNB (During/Post-Accommodation)**		
Affective Experience (32)	Negative Emotions (23)	Worry (16) Fear (7)	Affective Experience (62)	Positive emotions (32)	Joy (15) Peacefulness (11) Love (3) Excitement (2) Surprise (1)
	Positive Emotions (9)	Excitement (5) Joy (3) Peacefulness (1)		Negative emotions (12)	Worry (7) Anger (4) Envy (1)
				Feeling in flow (6)	
				Feeling in escape (6)	
				Not feeling flow or escape (6)	
Highlighted Touchpoints					
-			House of Host		
COUCHSURFING (Pre-Accommodation)			**COUCHSURFING (During/Post-Accommodation)**		
Affective Experience (18)	Positive emotions (12)	Excitement (5) Peacefulness (4) Optimism (2) Surprise (1)	Affective Experience (46)	Positive emotions (23)	Joy (14) Peacefulness (3) Love (2) Surprise (2) Contentment (1) Excitement (1)
	Negative emotions (6)	Worry (6)		Negative emotions (8)	Discontent (4) Anger (2) Sadness (2)
				Feeling in escape (6)	
				Feeling in flow (5)	
				Not feeling flow or escape (4)	
Highlighted Touchpoints					
-			Host Meeting with Friends/Relatives of Host		

*** Numbers are representing the frequencies of themes**

Findings related to the feel module demonstrated the same affective stimuli: "Positive emotions" consisting of "Joy", "Peacefulness", "Excitement", "Love" and "Surprise" for both platforms in the during/post-accommodation stage. Since consumption itself embodies hedonic motivations related to the need for enjoyment, fun and amusement (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), several scholars have suggested that collaborative consumption activities present enjoyable experiences to customers through hedonic benefits such as having fun, entertainment and amusement (Yang & Ahn, 2016). Furthermore, while the interactions between "House of host" and Airbnb users trigger feelings, a host's contact with Couchsurfing consumers stood as the determinant touchpoint for affective experience. Some respondents expressed the situation as follows:

> *"I felt happy. We were like at our own home and neighbourhood. We lived there like locals"* (AR1).

> *"During the trip, there was happiness, fun, joy and friendship"* (CR2).

Although several respondents associated flow and escape with traveling itself, some indicated that they felt themselves in flow or escape with Airbnb and Couchsurfing even during the post-accommodation period. This is supported by following statement:

> *"It was a bit of a getaway from the borders in society"* (CR7).

Cognitive experience

The module of think implies that experiences aid customers to be both creative and analytical (Schmitt, 1999). Within the theme of cognitive experience, convergent/analytical thinking and divergent/imaginary thinking were identified as categories throughout several interviews; these identifications were consistent with the work of Brakus et al. (2009), who posited that cognitive experience consists of convergent/analytical thinking (focused on deriving the single best or correct answer) and divergent/imaginative thinking (which produces unconventional answers from existing information) (Cropley, 2006). In this sense, consumers, both in Airbnb and Couchsurfing, believe that convergent thinking is critical during the period of pre-accommodation, with emphases on "Problem-solving", "Searching", "Planning" and "Comparing" (see Table 5). This is also evident in the extant literature, as pre-accommodation requires customers to engage in activities such as information searches, evaluation of alternatives and decision-making, all of which comprise a fundamental

basis for the customer experience within the context of travel (Xiang et al., 2015). For example:

> *"Our searching skills have improved greatly due to the process of finding the right house"* (AR8).

> *"Before the trip, I'm doing some search about what I can talk to the guy. I'm looking at profile of him and I'm investigating what he likes like preparing a short assignment"* (CR6).

Table 5. *Cognitive Experience in Collaborative Consumption Journey (Airbnb vs. Couchsurfing)*

Themes	Categories	Sub-Categories	Themes	Categories	Sub-Categories
AIRBNB (Pre-Accommodation)			**AIRBNB (During/Post-Accommodation)**		
Cognitive Experience (19)	Convergent / analytical thinking (18)	Problem-solving (11) Searching (4) Planning (2) Comparing (1)	Cognitive Experience (25)	Divergent / imaginary thinking (16)	Exploring new things (Hedonic based) (9) Creativity (4) Shifting perspective (3)
				Convergent / analytical thinking (9)	Problem-solving (8) Exploring new things (Hedonic based) (1)
	Divergent / imaginary thinking (1)	Shifting perspective (1)			
Highlighted Touchpoints					
Website of Airbnb Search engines			Notes or instructions prepared by host Host		
COUCHSURFING (Pre-Accommodation)			**COUCHSURFING (During/Post-Accommodation)**		
Cognitive Experience (15)	Convergent / analytical thinking (14)	Searching (8) Problem-solving (4) Planning (2)	Cognitive Experience (24)	Divergent / imaginary thinking (21)	Shifting perspective (9) Exploring new cultures (5) Exploring new things (Hedonic based) (4) Seeing new possibilities (3)
	Divergent / imaginary thinking (1)	Exploring new things (Hedonic based) (1)		Convergent / analytical thinking (3)	Exploring new things (Utilitarian based) (3)
Highlighted Touchpoints					
Search engines Profile page of host Website of Couchsurfing			Host Meeting with friends/relatives of host		
*** Numbers are representing the frequencies of themes**					

In the during/post-accommodation stage, however, divergent thinking appeared as the most frequently indicated cognition point under the scheme of the think module, which implies that imaginary thinking triggers customer engagement in various cognitions. For instance, while

think perception stimulations were often mentioned as "Exploring new things (Hedonic-based)" and "Creativity" in Airbnb, these involved "Shifting perspective" and "Exploring new cultures" for Couchsurfers. In fact, this distinction derives from the essence of the two platforms owing to their monetary and non-commodified nature. While the primary sharing resource for Couchsurfing is human interaction (i.e., friendship and social experience) and the secondary asset is house (i.e., bed, sofa and financial gains), the opposite is true for Airbnb (Jung et al., 2016), which directs customers toward local and multi-cultural interactions that may shift their perspectives (Yannopoulou et al., 2013). The following quote illustrates "Divergent / imaginary thinking" category for Airbnb and Couchsurfing.

> *"Once, I was staying in the apartment of a homosexual person in Amsterdam. It was like a culture shock for me. But that changed my perspective on life. I removed my prejudices."* (CR6).

As part of cognitive experience, "Search engines" are becoming important touchpoints for respondents in the pre-accommodation stage. In the during/post-accommodation stage, "Notes or instructions prepared by host" helps participants solve problems related to finding good places to eat, shop and see. Additionally, interactions with "Host" and "Friends/relatives of host" provide respondents an opportunity to explore new cultures and things, see new possibilities and change perspectives.

Behavioural experience

For both platforms, the act module emerges as a dominant theme when consumers begin to interact with the accommodation place and hosts at the during/post-accommodation stage (see Table 6). With regard to Airbnb, the majority of respondents identified their behavioural experiences as: "Guiding", "Treating" and "Accommodation", as Guttentag (2015) highlighted; for example, the importance of staying in a home-like atmosphere and getting tips from local people, which contribute to the authentic local experience for Airbnb customers. In this context, respondents mentioned "Instructions prepared by host", "Meeting with other customers" and "House of host" as important touchpoints for Airbnb. On other hand, respondents expressed their bodily experiences in Couchsurfing as "Traveling around together", "Eating together" and "Guiding", which are in line with the study offered by Chen (2012), a work that emphasized the social appeal motivation of Couchsurfing—namely, the cross-cultural interactions that occur between host and guest towards the development of enduring and meaningful social relationships.

Moreover, "Host" and "Meeting with friends/relatives of host" are critical touchpoints which shape the behavioural experience in Couchsurfing. Regarding behavioural experience, respondents stated the following:

> *"Just we make a short conversation and he gave us some tips about the touristic places and transportation. We did not do any activity together*" (AR2).

> *"In Spain we went to a local party together at night"* (CR3).

Table 6. *Behavioural Experience in Collaborative Consumption Journey (Airbnb vs. Couchsurfing)*

Themes	Sub-Categories
AIRBNB (During/Post-Accommodation [a])	
Behavioural Experience (24)	Guiding (6)
	Treating (4)
	Accommodation (3)
	Chat with other customers (3)
	Eating together (3)
	Cooking (2)
	Gift Giving (1)
	Teaching (1)
	Traveling around together (1)
Highlighted Touchpoints	
Instructions Prepared by Host	
Meeting with Other Customers	
House of Host	
COUCHSURFING (During/Post-Accommodation [a])	
Behavioural Experience (34)	Traveling around together (13)
	Eating together (8)
	Guiding (5)
	Night out together (3)
	Doing activity together (2)
	Meeting with friends/relatives of host (2)
	Accommodation (1)
Highlighted Touchpoints	
Host	
Meeting with friends/relatives of host	
Instructions prepared by host	
[a] Behavioural experience in collaborative consumption journey for pre-accommodation stage was not mentioned by respondents	
[*] Numbers are representing the frequencies of themes	

Relational experience

In Airbnb and Couchsurfing journeys, the relational experience occurs only at the during/post-accommodation stage (see Table 7). However, the relational module diversifies into several relations, enhancing the collaborative consumption journey with the involvement of other relational interactions. The most frequently-encountered statements pertaining to

Airbnb resulted in various categories such as "Positive interaction with host", "Being part of community", "Social experience", "Interaction with friends/relatives of host" and "Interaction with other customers". These relationships are mostly positive and occur at simple involvement levels for Airbnb. The present finding supports Möhlmann's (2015) study, which concluded that no causal relationship exists between community belonging and satisfaction for Airbnb case. On the other hand, for Couchsurfers, the most frequently-mentioned relational experiences were aggregated under two categories: "Social experience" and "Being part of a community". In line with this finding, Hellwig et al. (2014) indicated that jointly-produced and consumed experiences exist at the heart of sharing in Couchsurfing. The reciprocal nature of the Couchsurfing experience depends on the exchange of ideas and thus accounts for sharing as a key point, which implies that feelings of gratitude evoke in consumers a moral obligation, pushing them to develop more intense social relationships and intimate interactions with hosts and their friends and relatives (Chen, 2012).

> *"We're not having a friendly relationship; I'm looking at it like a business relationship* (AR3).

Table 7. *Relational Experience in Collaborative Consumption Journey (Airbnb vs. Couchsurfing)*

Themes	Categories	Sub-Categories
AIRBNB (During/Post-Accommodation[a])		
Relational Experience (34)	Interaction with host (19)	Positive interaction with host (12) Effortless interaction with host (6) Negative interaction with host (1)
	Being part of community (5)	
	Social experience (3)	
	Interaction with friends/relatives of host (2)	
	No interaction (2)	
	Interaction with other customers (3)	
Highlighted Touchpoints Host Meeting with other customers		
COUCHSURFING (During/Post-Accommodation[a])		
Relational Experience (30)	Social experience (20)	Friendship with host (20)
	Being part of community (10)	
Highlighted Touchpoints Host Social media accounts of host Community meetings		
[a] Relational experience in collaborative consumption journey for pre-accommodation stage was not mentioned by participants **[*] Numbers are representing the frequencies of themes**		

Regarding the relational experience, the highlighted touchpoints are "Host" and "Meeting with other customers" for Airbnb, and "Host", "Social media accounts of host" and "Community meetings" for Couchsurfing. Particularly, "Social media accounts of host" was used to describe ongoing friendship and communication in the Couchsurfing journey. For instance, one respondent noted that *"After that, we were friends. We are communicating via Instagram. I hope he will visit me in the near future"* (CR8).

DISCUSSION

To elaborate the phenomenon of the collaborative consumption journey in the context of Airbnb and Couchsurfing, this study explored touchpoints and experience dimensions for both pre-accommodation and during/post-accommodation stages. This study sheds lights on key touchpoints in the collaborative consumption journey by emphasizing website and mobile application as brand-owned; search engines, online maps, house of host, profile page of host, instructions/notes and the host himself/herself as partner-owned; and social media and meeting with friends/relatives of host as social/external touchpoints, all of which require marketers' attention. The findings indicate that monetary and non-commodified collaborative consumption platforms may have similar touchpoints, but the customer journey is significantly different in terms of experience. For that reason, experiences in collaborative consumption journeys should be analysed according to the categories of collaborative consumption, and distinct strategies for different categories should be generated. With better understanding of the experience dimensions for various types of collaborative consumption such as lending, renting, bartering and donating, marketers may generate utilitarian or hedonic incentives to support collaborative consumption. Today, many people engage in collaborative consumption, yet still many are reluctant to participate (Möhlmann, 2015). To increase numbers, marketers should work to understand all dimensions of experience in the collaborative consumption journey to ease barriers against it.

Customers make great efforts to determine the best host with a combination of the right house and right location, which leads them through intensive problem-solving processes. Their cognitive experiences are relatively more important for Airbnb than for Couchsurfing in the pre-accommodation stage. Potential consumers attach importance to certain touchpoints such as websites, online maps and search engines, which

facilitates the problem-solving process. As Rosen and Purinton (2004) pointed out, websites full of descriptive text, pictures, graphics, layouts, sounds and motions influence consumers' perceptions and experiences through cognitive psychology. In addition, Pink and Mackley (2012) have indicated how the sensory aesthetics of home-like comfort affect individuals' everyday thoughts and perceptions. In this framework, it can be suggested that Airbnb should improve its website context to provide more and better photographical/video-based information concerning residences.

In the pre-accommodation stage, sensory experience is crucial for Couchsurfers owing to their desire to find the right host with whom they may experience a worthwhile stay. As such, a host's profile page and social media accounts gain importance. According to Tussyadiah (2015), "mistrust between strangers" stands as the critical deterrent to collaborative consumption in the accommodation sector, and marketers should modify touchpoints to deal with the issue of trust. Additionally, Schreiner et al. (2018) found that reduced social distance increases individuals' willingness to share. In this framework, sharing more information about the host and confirming the reliability of that information will be critically important for the Couchsurfing platform in the future. The experience offered by the platform should make guests feel close to hosts by enriching sensory information. For instance, stories shared on the host's profile page or mobile application may create a more favourable sensory experience for consumers.

Negative emotions are also worthy for Couchsurfers and do not affect the overall attitude towards journey unfavourably. However, negative emotions such as "fear and worry" under the affective experience dimension should be contemplated, especially for Airbnb. Managers of monetary-based collaborative consumption platforms should adapt their marketing strategies to generate trust-building activities to respond to fear and worry in pre-accommodation stage. Moreover, in the during/post accommodation stage, Airbnb customers also give great importance to the affective experience. Primarily, the host's residence provokes various emotions. Providing "before and after" accommodation expectations would aid consumers. Airbnb should also prevent misleading sharing about residences on its website. Different from the case of Airbnb, in the Couchsurfing journey behavioural and relational interactions experienced between host and guest make the journey invaluable. This experience also triggers divergent and imaginary thinking that may result in new perspectives, the exploration of new cultures and things, and new

possibilities. Especially in the during/post-accommodation stage, social-external touchpoints make greater sense for the cognitive, behavioural and relational experiences of Couchsurfers.

Finally, the present study is dedicated to developing suggestions that are grounded upon insights from the interviews and are intended to present fruitful research avenues for further studies in the field of the collaborative consumption journey. In this sense, the results of the study form a basis for further studies which may concentrate on causal links between touchpoints and experiential dimensions in the collaborative consumption context.

LIMITATIONS AND AVENUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There were several limitations to the present study; outlining them may help provide recommendations for future research. First, the results of the present study are limited to the country of Turkey, a lack which undermines the generalizability of the findings. Future research should be performed in different contexts with an aim to increase the external validity of the findings, as perceptions of collaborative consumption consumers can differ among cultures (Molz, 2012). Second, this study solely focused on access over ownership in the sense of mode of exchange; further studies should address other modes of exchange (i.e., the transfer of ownership) such as donating, swapping and purchasing used goods under the premise of collaborative consumption. Third, this study targeted Airbnb and Couchsurfing customers regardless of their length of stay or first-time usage. Future studies may chronicle the experiences of consumers more familiar with these platforms and thus may examine responses that go beyond the first-time experience. In addition, customer attitudes may also differ regarding different lengths of stay. Fourth, this study approached the demand-side (i.e., guests) in their customer journey; future studies should also investigate the supply side (i.e., hosts). In addition, another fruitful area calling for future research is cross-cultural difference in both the sharing economy and customer journey, which has not yet been addressed in the extant literature. As one aim of this study was to initiate new research areas for further quantitative studies, future researchers should concentrate on causality among the variables explored in this study. In line with this path, future studies should empirically test relationships between touchpoints and experiential dimensions, thus providing a richer understanding of the subject matter.

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DOES MUSEUM MARKETING MEET POSTMODERN CONDITIONS?

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to explore how museum marketing meets postmodern conditions. Based on a sample of 12 museums in Istanbul, Turkey, a qualitative study was conducted to evaluate whether museum marketing meets the five conditions of postmodernism, namely decentered subject, reversal of production and consumption, fragmentation, juxtaposition of opposites and hyperreality. The findings of this study reveal that the marketing practices of museums meet all conditions of postmodernism except that of the decentered subject. They also demonstrate that museum managers hold negative attitudes towards the decentered subject, mainly due to their resistance to intermediaries between the exhibition and the audience.

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INTRODUCTION

Museums originate from the need to acquire, conserve, research, communicate and exhibit material evidence of human beings and the environment for the benefit of the public. Their mission has been explained in detail by the International Council of Museums (ICOM):

> Museums are democratizing, inclusive and polyphonic spaces for critical dialogue about the pasts and the futures. Acknowledging and addressing the conflicts and challenges of the present, they hold artefacts and specimens in trust for society, safeguard diverse memories for future generations and guarantee equal rights and equal access to heritage for all people. Museums are not for profit. They are participatory and transparent, and work in active partnership with and for diverse communities to collect, preserve, research, interpret, exhibit, and enhance understandings of the world, aiming to contribute to human dignity and social justice, global equality and planetary wellbeing (2019).

In accordance with this definition, it has been suggested that museums exist to provide an authentic experience rather than act as agents of conservation, as in other contemporary cultural institutions. Over the course of time, the role of museums has expanded from uncovering our past to providing a space for a variety of learning, engagement and entertainment experiences (Chhabra, 2008). This restructuring of museums raises important questions about not only the traditional public mandate of museums but their ability to enhance consumption experiences and tourism products as well (Tufts & Milne, 1999). Therefore, contemporary museums serve increasingly complex institutional missions and diverse audiences through their programs.

One of the drivers of changes in the role and mission of museums is postmodernism's position as a battlefield of contradictory ideas. In an era that necessitates alterations in the construction and formation of museums, many debates surround the physical space of museums, museum collections, accessibility and audience development (Barrett, 2011). As they re-evaluate themselves within this framework, museums have begun to redesign their objectives, philosophies, applications and performance in light of cultural and social developments (Hooper-Greenhill, 2007). As such, museums influenced by postmodernism are labelled as postmodern museums (Huyssen, 1995). Postmodern museums are malleable, plastic spaces that can easily be reshaped (Kahraman, 2015). Similarly, Urry (2002) suggests that the age of absolute silence in museums is over, and 'dead' museums are transformed into living places by eliminating windows

between exhibits and museums. Foucault and Miskowiec (1986) claim that museums are heterotopias that colligate and exhibit various cultures in real spaces, unlike utopias of the modern era. Postmodern museums revolve around notions of populism, communication, interaction, democratisation, cultural diversity, participation and accessibility, abandoning traditional displays while focusing on active visitor participation and offering simulations rather than unique authenticity (Brown, 1995, p. 74; Stanbridge, 2005, p. 162; Barrett, 2011, p.109).

Museums have attracted the interest of academics, with previous studies having examined their development (Schubert, 2004; Barrett, 2011), their evolving functions in society (Glaser & Zenetou, 1996), their place as cultural spaces (Message, 2006), their marketing (McLean, 1995; Tobelem, 1997; Kotler et al., 2008) and their visitor management strategies (Scoffield & Liu, 2014). Studies have also scrutinised the financial problems they have faced (Rentschler, 1998) and their efforts to compete with the leisure and entertainment industries (Davidson & Simbley, 2011). These studies identify museums as places that can be visited for recreation, shopping, dining and entertainment in addition to education and viewing the collections. Focusing on the variety of resources available to museums, Rentschler and Gilmore (2002) suggest that even the architecture of a museum can be regarded as a product offering. In a similar vein, Giebelhausen (2006) claims that several museums market themselves via their deconstructivist architectural forms and the architects who design them, one example being the Guggenheim Museum Bilbao by Frank Gehry (Kotler et al., 2008, p. 311).

As noted by Tobelem (1997), the increasing involvement of museums in all types of market mechanisms has resulted in an escalating struggle to achieve greater visibility, expand offerings, reach a broader audience and raise income in order to survive and surpass the competition (Kotler & Kotler, 2000), not only with other museums but with alternative providers of leisure and educational activities as well. In addition, rapid changes in society and the surrounding environment have also forced museums to define their positions accordingly and adapt to changes in the marketplace (Prentice, 2001).

In the contemporary era, consumers emphasise form and style when determining the meaning of life and navigating disorder and chaos (Firat & Schultz, 1997). These tendencies of postmodern consumers require postmodern museums to develop more effective ways of reaching their audiences. Consequently, museums have evaluated their audiences and

employed strategies to meet their changing expectations, such as creating active roles for audience members (Pulh et al., 2008), displaying innovative and entertaining exhibits (Heath & VomLehn, 2008) that are socially interactive (Jafari et al., 2013) and encouraging the use of digital technologies (Drotner & Schrøder, 2013). Although postmodern conditions have the potential to enrich the museum experience, there has been little research as to whether museums use these conditions in order to tailor their offerings towards meeting the changing consumer expectations and demand (Taheri et al., 2016). Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to holistically explore how museum marketing meets postmodern conditions in the case of Istanbul, Turkey.

The findings of this study are likely to contribute significantly to museum theory and practice by furthering our understanding of postmodern museums and their marketing. While a large number of studies have examined museum marketing and postmodern marketing separately (e.g. Heath & VomLehn, 2008; Pulh & Mencarelli, 2015), museum marketing through the lens of postmodern conditions has not received much attention. Although the postmodern conditions are handled separately, a holistic perspective could not be presented (Taheri et al., 2016). This study will fill this research gap primarily by focusing on the postmodern conditions employed by or influencing museums. Examining the postmodern marketing of museums will enable us to better comprehend the postmodern museum experience. Furthermore, the results of the study are expected to help museums navigate postmodern conditions in order to gain a competitive edge in the marketplace.

POSTMODERN CONDITIONS IN MARKETING

Postmodernism is an important concept that has been examined in the humanities, architecture, literature and related areas (Brown, 1993; Van Raaij, 1993; Amine & Smith, 2009). As postmodern ideas and conceptions have been applied to a variety of disciplines, interpretations and conceptualisations of postmodernism have also diversified (Featherstone, 2007; Ward, 2014). In this regard, postmodernism is an umbrella term describing a set of ideas that can be used to define and explain trends in society (Ward, 2014). As such, it is recommended to posit postmodernism as a series of concepts and debates rather than simplifying it to a single, reductive, universal definition.

Within the literature, there are two main perspectives on postmodernism (Rosenau, 1991; Firat & Venkatesh, 1996; Odabasi, 2014): as a chronological, historical period and as a temporary trend or psychological state. Moreover, debate persists as to whether postmodernism is the result of a rupture from an earlier epoch in an eternal cycle of change or simply another dimension of the modern era (Harvey, 1991; Ward, 2014). Therefore, postmodernism can be examined in several ways, including as a counter-stance to the modernist world – a movement that questions the modern – an ideology against ideologies, a way of thought, an art movement or art phenomenon and a trend apart from postmodernism itself (Doltas, 2003).

Postmodernism has also been applied in business, especially in marketing throughout the 1980s and 1990s (Venkatesh et al., 1993; Venkatesh, 1999; Amine & Smith, 2009). Because postmodernism underlies the frameworks of several marketing models and theories, marketers gain the opportunity to understand the dynamic structures of the market and adapt themselves to its confines (Nooteboom, 1992; Brown, 1993). Hence, postmodern trends in marketing can only be understood via knowledge of postmodern conditions. Initial efforts to identify these conditions were spearheaded by Van Raaij (1993), Brown (1995) and Firat and Venkatesh (1993). Over the course of time, these conditions have been expanded upon and interpreted in different ways. For example, Van Raaij (1993, p. 562) groups these conditions into four dimensions: fragmentation of markets and experiences, hyperreality of products and services, value realisation and paradoxical juxtapositions of opposites. However, leading postmodernism scholars such as Firat, Venkatesh, Dholakia and Shultz focus on five important conditions: hyperreality, fragmentation, reversal of production and consumption, decentered subject and juxtaposition of opposites (Firat, 1991; Firat et al., 1995; Firat & Venkatesh, 1996; Firat & Shultz, 1997, 2001; Venkatesh, 1999; Firat & Dholakia, 2006).

Firat and Shultz (1997) highlight the impacts of postmodern conditions on marketing and formulate suitable marketing strategies for emerging markets. For example, they identify the use of thematisation and simulations in the marketplace as a facet of hyperreality. Theme parks such as Jurassic World and Disneyland, as well as attractions and locations such as Las Vegas, IMAX, the artificial archipelago of Palm Jumeirah in Dubai and themed hotels, are manufactured spaces designed to meet the expectations and preferences of consumers (Firat & Venkatesh, 1993; Firat & Shultz, 1997). Fragmentation, on the other hand, is the breaking into parts of a complete, singular reality into multiple realities of life, experience,

society and, most importantly, meta narratives (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995; Lyotard, 2013). Firat and Venkatesh (1993) exemplify fragmentation with the case of shopping malls that offer fragmented experiences such as entertainment and interaction alongside shopping opportunities.

Reversal of production and consumption refers to the abandonment of the notion that production creates value and consumers destroy it. Instead, production and consumption occur simultaneously, and suppliers and customers are no longer on opposite sides. An act of production is also an act of consumption and vice versa, which can be termed co-creation (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995; Ritzer, 2014). Postmodernism views consumers as active producers of the symbols and signs of consumption and casts them as objects in the marketing process, while products become active agents (Ritzer, 2010). Process marketing is recommended in individualised markets as a result of the reversal of production and consumption. Modular smartphones produced by Google's Project Ara are good examples of this condition. Consumers are supplied with cameras, batteries, processors and several other modules based on their needs and wants after buying the case and Wi-Fi receivers at a convenient price. Thus, production becomes an everlasting process that continues even after consumption. Similarly, the decentered subject suggests that consumers with multiple identities can be reached through the continuous recreation of images. For example, in the online game *Second Life*, consumers compose their own three-dimensional characters. By choosing their nicknames and distinct physical appearances, players inhabit a fictional self that is detached from their real, physical self (Hemp, 2006).

The condition juxtapositions of opposites denote that consumption experiences are not meant to reconcile differences and paradoxes but rather allow them to exist freely together. Postmodernism affirms and supports all oppositions (Firat & Venkatesh, 1993, p. 237–239; Firat & Dholakia, 2006, p. 130–132), as opposing ideas, styles and cases allow new ideas to flourish. In other words, the concepts of 'order and control' are gradually replaced by the concepts of 'ambiguity and indeterminacy', leading to the creation of irony, ambiguity and, finally, pastiche (Brown, 1993, p. 22).

POSTMODERN MUSEUMS AND THEIR MARKETING

Given the increasing hegemony of postmodernist thinking over the course of time, twentieth-century debates surrounding museums have concentrated on the physical space of the museum and museum collections,

access to museums and ways to increase the number of museum visitors (Barrett, 2011). Emerging ideas about culture and society as well as new policy initiatives have challenged museums to rethink their purposes, account for their performance and reformulate their pedagogies (Hooper-Greenhill, 2007). Scholars attribute these changes to the postmodern era, labelling these museums as 'postmodern museums' (Duclos, 1994; Brown, 1995; Huyssen, 1995; Keene, 2005; Russo & Watkins, 2005). Although it is difficult to examine postmodern museums within the confines of a single definition (Stanbridge, 2005), postmodern museums are marked by communication, interaction, democratisation, cultural diversity and accessibility; they abandon traditional displays, prioritise active visitor participation and implement simulations (Brown, 1995; Barrett, 2011). More broadly, postmodern museums differ in terms of the types of objects, displays and visitors they cultivate (Urry, 2002).

Museums embraced management culture in the 1980s (Wu, 2014). During the 1990s, marketing thought was introduced to museum planning and strategy development (Rentschler, 1998; Scoffiel & Liu, 2014). According to McLean (1995), only a small number of museums initially adopted marketing strategies, but this number later increased. Tobelem (1997) explains that this increase was due to the necessity of museum development, difficulties in finding funds, intensifying competition within the entertainment sector and museums' willingness to better understand their visitors. Consequently, the idea of museum marketing emerged, and several studies have since examined the marketing practices of museums (Kotler, 2001; Gilmore & Rentschler, 2002; Belenioti & Vassiliadis, 2017).

Based on studies by Kotler and Kotler (2000) and Rentschler and Gilmore (2002), one can see that postmodern museum marketing has distinct characteristics. The market segmentation of museum visitors differs from that of traditional marketing. In this regard, Scoffield and Liu (2014) highlight the importance of museum visitors' changing expectations and attitudes and point to the complexity of predicting visitor attitudes in the postmodern era. Efforts to group postmodern individuals under one umbrella may distort marketing targets and strategies for museums (Dawson & Jensen, 2011). Instead, postmodern museums strive to gather more in-depth intelligence about their visitors and their behaviours (Vicente-Mariño, 2014). Accordingly, most marketing research regarding museums focuses on their visitors (Kasim et al., 2014; Packer & Ballantyne, 2016). However, researchers of postmodern museums employ different methods when examining visitors' behaviours compared to those of modern museums. In fact, Cerquetti (2016) claims that over the last decade,

museum visitor studies have increasingly resembled qualitative research. Therefore, postmodern marketers concentrate on the parts of the whole rather than shallow analysis of the impacts that visitors or the group have on the others (Cova & Cova, 2001).

Postmodern museums are hardly mere spaces housing objects and collections. They have diversified their offerings and market segments via their shopping venues, restaurants and outlets. Consequently, they have become places for both learning and entertainment. Rentschler and Gilmore (2002) also suggest that architecture offers a way for museums to distinguish themselves from others, and it also represents the differentiation of their distribution efforts. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, Giebelhausen (2006) notes that postmodern museums may be able to promote themselves via their deconstructivist architecture and the architects who design them.

Postmodern museum marketing also differs in its use of marketing strategies. In this regard, Komarac et al. (2017) suggest that museums indirectly compete with entertainment businesses such as theme parks, sports, theatres and cinemas. In order to gain a competitive edge, postmodern museums seek to enrich the experiences they offer while surprising their visitors. This can be explicitly observed in *flash mob* marketing strategies of postmodern museums. Flash mob marketing is defined by Grant et al. (2012, p. 244) as 'groups of people who pre-organize, typically on a social media platform, then assemble in a public place, do something performance oriented, and quickly disperse'. The Rijksmuseum offers a vivid example of flash mob marketing: a group of people in 17th century costumes who appear from different places in a shopping mall, walk through outlets and form Rembrandt's *The Night Watch* by meeting at a specific point (Artan, 2014). Strategies and practices such as this exemplify the differentiation of postmodern museums' promotional efforts.

Finally, the importance of integrated marketing communication in postmodern museums must be noted as well. Creating a social media presence and posting photos of collections is no longer sufficient for postmodern museums. Similarly, since event lists, reminders and announcements are forms of one-way communication, which has been proved to be ineffective, museums must find ways to construct a platform that offers interactive communication with the public. Therefore, marketing communication experts who are familiar with museum collections are necessary, and attractive, interesting content must be offered via social

media communications that synthesise collections and actual developments (Baker, 2017).

In order to explain the radical changes occurring in museums, new museology has developed, and thus, museology has become increasingly interdisciplinary. Marketing is only one of the disciplines involved in museology. Marketing practices of modern museums that have adopted business culture have been investigated in literature (Yorke & Jones, 1984; Rentschler, 1998; Scoffiel & Liu, 2014). However, the differentiation of marketing practices between modern and postmodern museums has not received the attention it deserves in either the fields of museology or marketing. Therefore, this study investigates whether museums meet the conditions of postmodernism in their marketing, using the case of museums in Istanbul, Turkey as an example.

METHOD

Qualitative research methods incorporate the systematic collection, organisation and interpretation of textual material derived from interviews and observation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Therefore, an exploratory approach adopting a qualitative research method using in-depth interviews was decided to be most suitable for the purposes of this study. Private museums were included in the study under the assumption that they behave more independently than state museums in terms of management and marketing. In Turkey, there are 279 private museums, 61 (almost a quarter) of which are in Istanbul. Therefore, Istanbul was selected as the study site due to its rich variety of private museums, collections and services.

This study employed purposive sampling, and postmodern museums in Istanbul were selected as the study sample based on experts' opinions. These experts included researchers who have published research articles on the topics of postmodern marketing, museums and museum professionals. In order to collect their opinions, a link to an online form accessed via Google Forms was sent to the experts between the 3rd and 10th of May 2016. A total of six responses were collected during this period. Experts evaluated museums in Istanbul based on the following features (Cova & Cova, 2001; Lumley, 2003; Lepouras & Vassikalis, 2004; Schubert, 2004; Bruce, 2006; Prior, 2006; Rectanus, 2006; Featherstone, 2007):

- Additional spaces (places such as cafés, restaurants, museum stores, libraries, movie theatres, etc.)
- Organisation of special events (income-generating activities that align with the concepts and spatial characteristics of the museum)
- Fulfilment of diverse visitor expectations (such as allowing visitors to participate in activities, offering entertainment and fiction, carrying out projects that encourage social interaction, etc.)
- Different exhibition techniques and spaces (including chronological as well as thematic exhibitions, digital exhibition techniques, flexible use of exhibition spaces, etc.)
- Differentiating collections (including objects that allow for visitor interaction and that are not only related to the past but the present and future as well)
- Acceptance of sponsorships
- Existence of branches
- Professional use of social media

This evaluation process resulted in a total of 12 museums identified as having postmodern characteristics: *Museum of the Princes' Islands, Sadberk Hanım Museum, Yapi Kredi Vedat Nedim Tor Museum, Istanbul Toy Museum, Turkey Isbank Museum, Pera Museum, The Museum of Santral Energy and Modern Arts, the Museum of Innocence, Miniatürk Mini Park of Turkey, Rahmi M. Koc Museum, Sakip Sabanci Museum* and *Istanbul Museum of Modern Art.*

Data collection

This study used a standardised interview guide and employed semi-structured interviews to collect data. In order to finalise the data collection instrument, four experts and a researcher specialised in qualitative research were approached, and the question form was re-evaluated. Finally, five questions about postmodern conditions in museums' marketing practices were included along with four questions about the respondents. The first question asked respondents what they thought about museum practices that cause an instantaneous rupture in visitors' relationship with reality, moving them to another dimension in time and space. The second question asked what they thought about juxtapositions of opposites in the interior and exterior architectures, exhibition spaces or collections of museums. The third question asked them about their views on museum practices that turn audiences into active participants by acting as an intermediary between visitors and the experience. The fourth question aimed to uncover respondents' thoughts about museum practices that transform visitors from

consumers to prosumers. Finally, the interviewees were asked what they think about museum practices that allow visitors to participate in multiple types of activities (i.e. social, recreational, educational) at the same time. Necessary follow-up questions were also administered during the interviews.

An appointment list containing interviewees' names and contact information was formed. In order to create this list, a letter explaining the study was mailed electronically to potential participants. Each participant was also telephoned, and the participants who voluntarily agreed to participate in the study were included. The interview time and places were determined by the participants. For two of the museums, two respondents participated, and two interviews were conducted. Thus, a total of 14 interviews were conducted face-to-face in Turkish between 12th July and 19th August 2016, lasting anywhere from 45 minutes to 1 hour 32 minutes. Interviews were conducted in museum facilities such as cafés, restaurants, libraries, gardens and offices, and they were recorded with the permission of interviewees. Anonymity was ensured by assigning each participant a respondent number (R1 to R14).

Data analysis

A deductive approach was used to develop categories based on similar themes, patterns, concepts and features that appeared among responses (Neuman, 2006), and the data were analysed descriptively. Descriptive analysis helps researchers to develop a framework for the organisation and interpretation of the data. This analysis is comprised of three steps: data processing according to a thematic framework, identification of findings and interpretation of findings. Computer-aided qualitative data analysis software NVivo 11 was used to code all interview transcripts. Each postmodern condition that influences the marketing of postmodern museums – *decentered subject*, *reversal of production and consumption*, *fragmentation*, *juxtaposition of opposites* and *hyperreality* – was considered a theme and analysed separately.

In order to prepare the data for analysis, recordings were first transcribed by the researchers, helping them to develop a comprehensive understanding of the data (Patton, 2002). These transcriptions were sent to and verified by the interviewees. Macro-analysis was conducted to ascertain the general structure of the data set. Strategies suggested by Creswell (2013) were adopted to ensure the reliability of data. Creswell (2013) recommends that the data should undergo at least two procedures

out of the eight he outlines. First, this study used participant approval or *member checking*. The transcripts were sent back to each participant to ensure that their thoughts were represented correctly and accurately. Analyses were then conducted on the basis of the controlled texts. Second, *peer review* or *debriefing* was used as a second reliability control. This required an external check of the research process – especially of its methods – by the peer debriefer (Creswell, 2013, p. 251). The data were thus analysed by two researchers experienced in the field of qualitative research. Randomly selected codes from two interviewees' responses were sent to experts who were asked to code the data and determine the themes and categories. Their results were then cross-checked with the researchers' results. The discrepancies between the experts' and researchers' analyses were solved, and, where necessary, researchers used the codes provided by the experts. In this vein, the data were controlled by participating experts as well.

RESULTS

The number of female respondents in this sample was relatively high (12 interviewees). Analysis of the respondents' professions clearly showed that they occupied mostly managerial positions. Furthermore, some respondents were found to be responsible for programming and marketing. Only one respondent had a degree in museology (see Appendix 1). Although some respondents had worked in museums for up to 33 years, most had 1–2 years of experience in their current workplace.

Decentered subject

The subject in the postmodern era has lost control of the environment in which he or she lives and seeks alternate experiences. Thus, the subject is relegated to the periphery of his or her experience and occupies a passive position, as commodities appear to become the producers of benefits for individuals who follow instructions correctly (Van Raaij, 1993). One of the best examples of the decentred subject in a postmodern museum is the After Dark project initiated by the Tate Britain museum in 2014. This project offered a unique, distinctive virtual experience for visitors; robots in the museum replaced the visitors at night, allowing subjects to tour the museum after dark through their eyes (After Dark, 2014).

When respondents were asked whether their museum implemented any approaches or applications intended to change consumers' attitudes

towards their reality via the museum offerings, most of them expressed that they offered digital applications with which to enrich visitors' experiences. One of the participants (R11) underlined the importance and impact of information technologies, noting that:

> *"We have virtual visitors interested in our museum. The use of such technologies would be great for the museums."*

R1 commented on the accessibility of museum experts and underlined the importance of information technologies in this regard:

> *"Indeed, scientists or researchers may wish to see an artwork, or examine it, and they may not always have the time to visit. Or, they may not see the artwork in the depot. Therefore, such a chance can be offered to them."*

The participants agreed that the use of technologies diminishes the limitations of geographic distance, as in the case of the After Dark project. However, apart from the cited advantages, R1 underscored the importance of visiting the physical museum site:

> *"For example, in the Google Art Project (…) they have a technology called gigapixel. You can zoom right in and examine the details that you could never see in the museum. However, digital display does not offer you the possibility of being in the same space and atmosphere with the artwork. Being there and feeling the atmosphere is something unique that you cannot experience otherwise."*

Advocating for the uniqueness of the museum experience, R8 claimed that:

> *"Naturally, we expect people to visit the museum personally. You can offer an experience with technology, cameras or surveillance, but they do not guarantee visitor satisfaction. In museums, you can touch, see and live it directly. Virtually, we offer that option, but you cannot feel the same excitement."*

The responses of participants showed that some museums opposed the decentered subject. However, R7 postulated that these technologies and robots actually promote increased museum visitation:

> *"… seeing the artwork[s] on the net and experiencing them personally by visiting the museum are different things. Lately, we were talking about the Van Gogh Museum in Amsterdam. People can see the artwork of Van Gogh in every detail, in high resolution, through the Google Cultural Institute Project. But the museum is one of the busiest, with long lines at the gate –because people want to go and visit the museum."*

Study results showed that participants generally held negative attitudes towards the decentered subject and still attached importance to subjects physically visiting museums. Furthermore, they did not appreciate any intermediaries between the artworks and the visitors.

Reversal of production and consumption

Postmodernism argues that production and consumption cannot be considered separate from one another. Neither production nor consumption is superior to the other, as production continues throughout the consumption process. Consequently, postmodern consumers adhere to a cyclical process in which each act of consumption is considered an act of production and vice versa (Firat & Venkatesh, 1993). For example, virtual visitors to the Rijksmuseum can create their own individual collections after responding to a few questionnaires on the Master Matcherpage when they become members of the Rijks studio section of the museum's website. They can then share this collection on social media. Visitors' collections include t-shirt prints, mobile phone covers, wallpaper patterns and so on (Rijks Museum, 2020). Museum managers were asked whether they implemented similar practices or projects to those of the Rijksmuseum. Noting that they practised similar operations in their museum, R4 stated:

> *"For example, we have notebooks with the boxes (in the museum) on their covers. It may be an enjoyable experience for the visitors to design their own notebooks with the covers they choose. … People also discovered an incredible number of visuals from different angles and many other discoveries. Offering them the possibility to produce something special makes them more active and willing."*

Providing another example from a different museum, R14 explained:

> "*They produce embroidery of a painting – buying the fabric, needle and thread and stitching the picture onto the fabric at home.*"

However, she warned that this can become tricky and noted that it should be handled with caution. In a similar vein, R3 tried to explain their understanding of production:

> *"…it can be degenerated. It may be something lowering. But, for example, there is the* Venus *of Boticelli. It is a beautiful female figurine. I have seen it in London, England. They organised an exhibition:* Inspirations of Venus*. They have collected all the imitations inspired by Botticelli's* Venus*. Those artworks were reproduced, but the artists also included their own interpretation, not like the original one. (…) On the other hand, museum production is just for personal use, including no labour, no creativity, something industrial…"*

Here, R3 stressed the importance of practices that require visitors' creativity and labour as opposed to the simple reproduction of the artefact. She advocated for processes whereby visitors are converted into productive consumers.

Fragmentation

The condition of fragmentation focuses on fragmented experiences, such as social, recreational and educational experiences and the combinations thereof. Postmodern consumers desire fluid movements between these experiences (Firat & Schultz, 1997; Davidson & Sibley, 2011). One of the distinctions between modern and postmodern museums is the hosting of special events in postmodern museums, as well as the presence of additional spaces that emphasise the fragmentation of the museum. Participants exemplified several cases of special events in their museums. For example, R11 reported that:

> *"… Yoga and Dance classes were organised in the garden of the museum, and these classes continued for years. Some concerts were also organised. The Island Chorus, for example… or the Büyükada [the biggest of the Princes' Islands in Istanbul] Chorus… bands, musicians, and jazz concerts are among the popular events that take place in museum programs."*

Noting the existence of similar events in their museum, R10 supplied the example below:

> *"We have book-reading days, hope you have heard. … Every Tuesday, book enthusiasts gather here, and they discuss a book that they chose earlier, as well as having hot drinks and biscuits. Besides this, we organise an interactive museum and workshops for kids."*

R14 described how their museum offers open-air film shows for its visitors. She recounted a detailed account of the program they organised:

> *"We wanted to organise something different, an open-air film night, for example. We will show old films –old-fashioned ones. We will start with Frank Sinatra and Grace Kelly's* High Society*. The show will be over at 23:00. The museum will be open between 23:00 and 00:00. People will visit the museum at night."*

Another example R14 supplied related to nature and spanned a variety of activities:

> *"In our summer school, we use the garden, which is an extension of Emirgan Grove. Art and nature, together… Kids first set up their own tents and then meet each other. They learn how to make knots. They learn about trees. Then, they read*

tales. After reading tales and stories, they start drawing and painting pictures. Nature, tales and pictures – they learn to act together. Then, the kids go to the museum and see the exhibition. They leave the museum creating something of their own."

As the findings suggest, several postmodern museums offer a wide array of opportunities for dining, music, film shows, sports, dancing, reading, camping and more, as well as combinations of these activities. Certainly, all these events or activities basically cover museum visits.

Juxtaposition of opposites

Postmodernism posits that oppositions such as global versus local, past versus present and culture versus trade constitute interpenetrations that postmodern consumers accept willingly (Firat & Venkatesh, 1993; Firat & Dholakia, 2006). Thus, postmodern museums endorse the unrestricted existence of oppositions rather than attempting to reconcile them. Accordingly, R3 expressed that these oppositions are desirable when it comes to displays:

"Side-by-side display of remnants of daily life from an ancient civilisation and artworks produced by contemporary artists' inspiration and perception reveals a continuity. For example, we tried to narrate the perception of Anatolian goddesses in the Mysterious Women of the Bronze Age *exhibition via modern artworks that we ordered from contemporary artists, and we also gathered the artists at the exhibition. It was the continuity of one into another, as well as contemporary reflections."*

Similarly, R5 explained another example of a display in which the lives of the past were portrayed through the lens of the contemporary era:

"Coffee Break: The Adventure of Coffee in Kütahya Tiles and Ceramics exhibition… We positioned traditional teahouses as the preliminary social media of the Ottoman period. We presented those teahouses as places that belong to daily life in which people meet, chat and socialise. As Kütahya tiles and ceramics seem to be old-fashioned objects for our generation, this exhibition approximates them to daily life via coffee flavour and the voices of teahouses."

Along this line of thinking, R10 attributed the reciprocity of the past and present to the use of technology and explained her thoughts:

"Similar things do happen in all museums. In fact, an intensive opposition does exist; for example, over there we see anancestor of film projectors, the Laterna Magica, and when you glance left, you see a DVD player and a screen. For me, this also represents opposition, but museums should have such opposites together."

Among the participants, R13 believed that their museum's architectural structure was a good example of juxtaposition of opposites and claimed that this juxtaposition was created by the dichotomy of past and present. She explained her argument:

> *"When you look inside, everything original is in its own colour. And the new buildings are in the brownish painted areas. Why? To specifically show that they are new. None of the buildings in this complex is coincidentally grey or brown. I mean, opposites were planned as old and new buildings."*

These findings suggest that juxtaposition of opposites may vary from museum to museum, but the most prominent contradiction museums present is the dichotomy between the past and present.

Hyperreality

Over time, hyperreality transforms objects into signs. With the shift in value from use and exchange value to sign value, the commodity has lost all necessary cohesion with the real. Initially, the real object becomes a sign; this is the simulation stage. In subsequent stages, the sign becomes an object again, but not a real object – an object even further removed from the real than the sign itself. In other words, postmodern objects are conceived with their reproducibility in mind (Koch & Elmore, 2006).

Hyperreality is expressed as the blurring of distinctions between reality and fiction. Postmodern consumers often prefer replicas to originals, place importance on nostalgic experiences and feel happier within manufactured worlds (Firat & Shultz, 1997). Therefore, whether the museum experience is based on reality or fiction is unimportant, as individuals' experiences are the priority. The participants were asked whether their museums offer an instantaneous rupture in visitors' relationships with reality and moved them to another dimension in time and space. R8 described an application in their museum, a helicopter simulation, in detail:

> *"We guide people to Istanbul; they board a helicopter and start seeing the city from the air. They then land at the Blue Mosque and enter it via the ablution fountains. They also see the interior of the mosque. After leaving the mosque, they go to Hagia Sophia, then to the Topkapi Palace. In this way, you see the historical heritage of Istanbul from the air, and you also visit interiors. Here, we offer people something they cannot achieve in their real lives. All this is condensed into a 13–14-minute film."*

The researchers personally tested this helicopter simulation, experiencing ascents, descents and horizontal shifts as if in the actual vehicle. When the helicopter dives into a cave, visitors see three-dimensional bats while water is sprayed onto their feet. Similarly, water is sprayed on visitors' heads when the helicopter descends below clouds. In this way, visitors enter a new dimension of time and space.

R14 recalled a visit she made to a museum in which she saw a film of a primitive man running on snow. To achieve a feeling of reality, the temperature of the room was reduced. According to R14, this kind of hyperreality was also created in an exhibition:

> *"There was an exhibition titled* Across. *There was a full-scale ship in the exhibit area. The exhibit was about the relations between Asia Minor and the Cyclades Islands. A replica of a ship, then the only vehicle for transportation, was built in the exhibition."*

In the ship, there was a dark room in which visitors experienced a simulated storm at sea. In this way, visitors were transported from the real world.

These results suggest that digital technologies in museums often emerge as an easy solution for the realisation of hyperreality. Aside from digital technologies, hyperreality was also created by the provision of fiction in the museum.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed to explore the ways in which museum marketing meets postmodern conditions. The dynamic structures of the market and the limitations of existing marketing theories justify the need for the current study (Brown, 1993). Specifically, the findings of the study provide evidence that museums have acquired postmodern qualities in the postmodern era. Consequently, the marketing of postmodern museums differs from that of modern museums. Theories suggest that postmodern marketing consists of five basic conditions (Firat, 1991; Firat et al., 1995; Firat & Venkatesh, 1996; Firat & Shultz, 1997, 2001; Venkatesh, 1999; Firat & Dholakia, 2006): decentered subject, reversal of production and consumption, fragmentation, juxtaposition of opposites and hyperreality.

The findings of this study show that museums oppose the idea of the decentered subject, claiming that it pacifies the visitors. Museum staff

members, staunchly underscoring the importance of visitors' physical presence in the museum, oppose any and all applications that could obstruct interactions between a museum and its visitors. This finding aligns with the findings of a study by Antón et al. (2018), which demonstrates the importance of onsite museum experience. The current study's findings suggest that visitor experience is unique and that subject should actively participate in the experience in order to maximise their rewards. Potential customers who are unable to visit a museum due to geographic distance, as well as those who want to experience the museum in an alternative way, cannot be ignored, and the needs of this market must not be neglected. However, museum managers should also consider the risks that hindrances to visitors' participation in onsite experiences and co-production pose.

Additionally, this study finds that museums should focus on specific issues in order to transform museum visitors into producing consumers. As such, production should not be limited to reproductions of artwork, which may damage the image of the museum. Rather, production should allow visitors to employ their creativity, imagination and labour. Even the most perfect reproduction of a museum object lacks temporal and spatial context. This study's findings reveal the importance of the incorporation of visitors' labour and creativity into production as opposed to the more aesthetic concerns of modern-era production. With this in mind, criticisms of the culture industry must be considered in the reversal of production and consumption in order to impede kitsch production and meta-fetishism (Koch & Elmore, 2006; Benjamin, 2008; Ward, 2014). Moreover, museum managers should strive to find creative ways for their guests to involve themselves in production and consumption simultaneously.

Findings also reveal that most of the museums sampled offer visitors a variety of experiences, such as dining, music shows, film screenings, sports, dance lessons, reading, camping and several others. Postmodern museum visitors want to do more than just attend cultural events and institutions. They enjoy and become accustomed to participatory learning and entertainment experiences – the exact reverse of the traditional spectacle (Bennett, 1994; Simon, 2010). Additional spaces and the allocation of special events are evidence of fragmentation within the postmodern museum. It is widely accepted that visitors to postmodern museums are searching for fragmented moments in liquid time. This fact also highlights visitors' desire to experience a combination of social, recreational and educational activities at once, as suggested by Davidson and Sibley (2011). For this reason, museums offer a combination of events and activities to their visitors in their additional spaces. However, it is vital for the museums

to focus on the quality of these events and activities in order to achieve a competitive edge in the market.

Findings also identify several juxtapositions of opposites in museums. These opposites occur in various forms, such as the architectural structures of the buildings, the contents of museums' collections and the ways in which these collections are displayed. The juxtaposition of past and present is the most common juxtaposition found in museums, a finding that is supported by previous research (Schubert, 2004). One-third of the participating museums in this study use the Google Cultural Institute Project, which offers museum visitors the opportunity to choose artworks freely and make their own collections. Furthermore, this opportunity signifies eclecticism, which is the most prominent consequence of the juxtaposition of events (Caines, 2013; Kahraman, 2015). Moreover, participation in the Google Cultural Institute Project offers an opportunity for both modern and postmodern museums to be perceived by visitors as appreciative of the juxtaposition of opposites. Positioning the architecture or the objects in their collection in a way that highlights these oppositions may inspire curiosity among visitors and motivate them to visit the museum repeatedly. Postmodern museums can also use opposites in architecture, exhibition spaces and collections to surprise and even shock their visitors.

Finally, this study's findings underline the dominance of digitalisation in the context of generating hyperreality. Digitalisation encapsulates experiences of augmented reality, virtual reality, simulations and similar digital elements, thus providing visitors with an experience detached from time and space. In fact, hyperreality is a term that denotes objects or experiences that appear more real than reality. The use of virtual reality and the alteration of perceptions via sensors and similar technologies in real space (Schweibenz, 2004; Rancati et al., 2016) indicate the existence of hyperreality in museums. In fact, all assets of museums (e.g. architecture, collections, exhibitions and displays) that provide a rupture from reality can be regarded as hyperreality. However, it should be noted that a modern museum cannot be considered postmodern based on the presence of digitalisation and provision of hyperreality alone.

Limitations

The results of the present study should be evaluated in light of certain limitations. The primary limitation of the study is that only 12 museums exhibiting postmodern characteristics in Istanbul, Turkey were examined.

Several museums in other parts of the country may have postmodern characteristics or at least occasionally display postmodern attitudes and practices. It is possible that inclusion of other museums in other parts of the country may strengthen the findings of this study. Although qualitative studies allow researchers to understand the attitudes, behaviours and perceptions of museum managers, the need for comprehensive studies is apparent. Therefore, future research should develop and validate a mixed data collection method with which to enrich our understanding of postmodern museums.

Moreover, this study is limited to museum managers as participants, and their accounts of museum practices serve merely as a starting point for further research into the effects of postmodern conditions on museum marketing. However, understanding how visitors evaluate these practices and how they position the museums they visit is essential. Therefore, continued examination of visitors' perspectives regarding postmodern museum practices has the potential to deepen our understanding of postmodern museums.

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Appendix 1. *Profile of the respondents*

Respondent	Gender	Position	Undergraduate	Postgraduate	Experience in museums (years)	Total experience in museum business (years)
R1	Female	Museum expert	History of art	History of art	22	22
R2	Female	Marketing communication manager	Sociology	European studies	1	6
R3	Female	Museum director	Turkish and Islamic arts	-	30	33
R4	Male	Museum director	Sociology	Theatre	2	2
R5	Female	Communication and events manager	International affairs and politics	-	1	1
R6	Female	Education and events manager	History	Museology	1	11
R7	Female	Digital and social media manager	Visual arts	-	1	1
R8	Male	Operation manager	International affairs	-	13	13
R9	Female	Assistant manager	Communication sciences	Republican history	9	9
R10	Female	Public relations expert	Classical archaeology	-	7	7
R11	Female	Curator	History	-	3	11
R12	Female	Marketing and public relations manager	History	Communication strategies and public relations	11	11
R13	Female	Museum manager	Visual arts	-	12	12
R14	Female	Marketing and public relations manager	Communication sciences	Advertising and promotion	2	8

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THE MEDIATING ROLE OF MEANING IN LIFE IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

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ABSTRACT

Due to varying tourist motivations and needs, involvement in new experiences has different individual consequences. This paper examines the predictive relationship between memorable tourism experience (MTE), meaning in life (MIL) and subjective well-being (SWB). It further investigates whether meaning in life mediates memorable tourism experience's influence on subjective well-being. The study design was cross-sectional, with data collected from 283 tourists visiting Cappadocia, Turkey. Although all variables were positively correlated, SEM analyses revealed that meaning in life mediated the association of memorable tourism experience with life satisfaction but not positive affect. These findings are discussed considering the role of meaning in life in the link between dimensions of MTE and SWB.

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INTRODUCTION

Tourist experience is frequently addressed in interdisciplinary studies, such as marketing, sociology and psychology (Cohen, 1979; Uriely, 2005; Larsen, 2007). By acting as a bridge between tourist's self-identities and the real

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world, this experience enables individuals to meet their both affective and cognitive inquiries (Handler & Saxton, 1988; Pine & Gilmore, 2011). The desire to experience something different than the typical tourism product or service, such as seeking more meaningful experiences, has led to new trends in tourism behavior. Recent research shows a transition towards extraordinary, extroverted tourist typologies rather than organized mass tourist typologies (Uriely et al., 2002; Cornelisse, 2014). The basis of this change in tourist motivation is a search for unique and memorable tourism experiences, through which individuals can find deeper meaning about themselves and the environment, and feel themselves physically, mentally, and intellectually immersed within them (Uriely et al., 2002; Cornelisse, 2014). With the changing demand for tourism, the factors that make an experience unique and memorable, and the effects of experiences on individuals have become a focus of recent studies (Kim et al. 2012; Chandralal et al., 2015; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018).

Memorable tourist experience (MTE) depends on the individual's expectations, positive affect during or after the event, and the extent that those memories are remembered. Three factors play a significant role: individual discovery, intellectual development, and social relations (Tung & Ritchie, 2011a). What makes an experience memorable are factors that appeal to an individual's senses of taste, hearing, sight, touch and smell, feelings about the event and the environment, as well as changing thoughts and behaviors during events (Ballantyne et al., 2011). The memorable tourism experience is used as an escape, problem-solver, supplier of strength and new life blood. It has positive effects on happiness (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004) and individual well-being and life satisfaction (Sirgy et al., 2000; Boswijk et al., 2007; Tung & Ritchie, 2011a; Dolnicar et al., 2012; de Freitas Coelho et al., 2018).

Thus, MTE goes far beyond a basic sense of pleasure by providing rich personal exploration wherein individuals enjoy the geography they travel through, participate in the culture of a local community, develop intellectual capacities through new experiences, stay in the moment, and focus on themselves and their life (Chandralal et al., 2015; Loureiro et al., 2019). Considering the changing tourist expectations and typologies, experiencing meaningful activities and events can develop other awareness beyond positive outcomes, such as feeling good and satisfaction. Individuals temporarily suspend the norms and values that govern their lives so as to approach their own lives and the society from a different perspective (Turner & Ash, 1975). Similarly, individuals participating in tourism activities can question their own existence by feeling themselves to

be more authentic (Wang, 1999), while cultural heritage sites, like museums, can be seen as centers of interpretation where individuals come to understand themselves and their lives (Uzzell, 1998).

Therefore, it is thought that an experience in which individuals move away from daily life and norms and return to their inner world and question the meaning of life will remain memorable even after a long time. Moreover, it is predicted that a tourism experience in which they have the opportunity to question their lives and life meanings will affect the well-being and life satisfaction of individuals in a positive way. However, when the literature on MTE is examined, it is seen that the concept of MTE is not adequately associated with the meaning of life, self-discovery, and existential interpretation. This article aims to contribute to the relevant gap in the literature by exploring what effect it will have on life satisfaction. In this context, visit to the UNESCO-listed and one of Turkey's most important cultural heritage sites, Cappadocia National Park can be considered as memorable tourism experience. Aim of the current study is to contribute to the literature by examining relationship between subjective well-being and this experiences, as well as mediating effect of the meaning of life, Thus, research questions of the study are as follows;

1. Does an MTE significantly influence meaning in life?
2. Does an MTE significantly influence subjective well-being?
3. Does meaning in life mediate the relationship between an MTE and subjective wellbeing?

By using quantitative methods, the study contributes to the literature on subjective well-being by examining its association with MTEs and meaning in life.

In the following section, based on the literature review, a conceptual framework is proposed with research hypotheses that specify the direction of the relationships among the constructs.

MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCE & SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

The stress and mental fatigue of daily life that prevents people from satisfying their personal and interpersonal needs is one of the main reasons for interest in tourism and leisure experiences (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Many studies demonstrate that positive tourism experiences increase positive mood, contribute to life satisfaction, support relaxation and personal development, and thereby increase well-being (Andrew & Withey, 1976;

Campbell, 1976). Meanwhile, advances in technology provide experiences within everyday life that were once only accessible through tourism. For instance, cultural sites and interesting areas can be easily explored at home through virtual reality screens enabling tourism-related experiences without travelling (Uriely, 2005).

According to Filep (2012, p. 268), "*A fulfilling tourist experience is arguably one that is characterized not just by pleasure but also by how personally meaningful tourists found their holiday activities.*" This raises the question of changing tourist demand. Similarly, it is seen that current studies on tourism and travel focus on memorable tourism experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011a), tourist happiness (Nawijn, 2011), meaningful tourism (Noy, 2004), transformative tourism (Lean, 2012), spiritual experiences (Sharpley & Jepson, 2011), existential experiences (Wang, 1999), recovery experiences of tourism and travel trends (Chen et al., 2016) and the tourist moment (Cary, 2004), rather than just pleasure and entertainment provided by standard tourism activities. It is considered that in understanding current tourist behavior and motivation, memorable tourism experiences that touch the lives of individuals, are of critical importance as they enable them to question their existence and meaning in life, improve their personal development and well-being.

It is stated that if a tourism experience is felt physically, spiritually and intellectually, it will be remembered long after it ends creating a memorable tourism experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011a; Kim et al., 2012). Similarly, Ooi (2005), who emphasizes the subjective aspect of memorable experiences, claims that tourists' indications of enjoying the experience do not mean all individuals have memorable experiences at the same level. Different moods, personal emotions, interests, and perspectives mean that touristic products and experiences are interpreted differently. The literature shows that emotional dimensions are frequently associated with memorability (Boswijk et al., 2007; Tung & Ritchie, 2011b; Slatten et al., 2011; Chandralal et al., 2015; de Freitas Coelho et al., 2018). Individuals collect impressions from the environment through their senses. These impressions later turn into emotional reactions, such as pleasure, fear, or happiness. Emotional reactions in the memories of individuals become important parts of MTEs because these will be remembered. Thus, every remarkable emotion experienced by individuals, whether positive or negative, can provide important mental cues for potentially achieving memorable experience (Boswijk et al., 2007; Slatten et al., 2011; de Freitas Coelho et al., 2018).

In addition to emotions, the memorability of the experience can be ensured by observation, identification, dialogue, and physical contact enabling tourists to communicate with local people, experience their lives and meet different cultures. Dialogue and physical contact meet various touristic expectations and needs, such as intellectual development and personal change, which foster the memorability of the experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011a; Chandralal et al., 2015). Tung and Ritchie (2011a) identified five factors that characterize memorable experiences: identity formation, family milestones, relationship development, nostalgia re-enactment, and freedom pursuits.

Focusing on memory and memorability, Kim et al. (2010) argue that memory of an event is affected by affective feelings, cognitive evaluations and new events. They developed the 24-item Memorable Tourism Experience Scale, with 7 subscales of hedonism, refreshment, local culture, meaningfulness, knowledge, involvement and novelty. They argue that these dimensions are important features of the tourism experience that affect memories. The dimensions are also complementary. For example, emotion is an important aspect of the tourism experience (Kim & Ritchie, 2014), involved in every stage of the tourism experience. Individuals basically consume tourism and leisure-related products to have feelings such as pleasure and enjoyment (Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Tung & Ritchie, 2011a; Kim & Ritchie, 2014).

Tourism products and services, which are very rich in terms of hedonic purposes, allow individuals to escape from daily life, satisfy their psychological needs and gain a feeling of refreshment (Kim, 2013). They also contribute to intellectual development, expertise, and awareness by giving tourists new geographical, cultural, and historical knowledge (Pearce, 1987). Individuals aim to gain global citizenship, seeking a certain meaning and novelty, especially by choosing destinations that are different to or contrast with their own countries and cultures. These individuals can enrich their experiences by learning the region's local culture, meeting local people, thereby creating valuable and long-lasting memories from their experiences (Manfredo, 1989; Arnould & Price, 1993; Tung & Ritchie, 2011a; Cheng & Lu, 2013; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Chandralal et al., 2015).

The literature on memorable tourism experience mostly focuses on behavioral intention (Kim et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2016; Tsai, 2016; Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Huang & van der Veen, 2019; Sharma & Nayak, 2019), destination image (Dagustani et al., 2018; Kim, 2018), destination loyalty (Chen & Rahman, 2018), perceived image

and intention to recommend (Prayag et al., 2017), and destination branding (Tukamushaba et al., 2016). Leisure studies within positive psychology show that holidays improve subjective well-being (SWB) and quality of life (QoL) (McConkey & Adams, 2000; Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Neal et al., 2004). SWB and QoL shapes individuals' long-term general experiences by having positive reactions to life (Sirgy et al., 2000; Diener, 2009).

In the memorable tourism experience and extraordinary experience literature, which are considered with the recent tourist typologies and demands, as a result of the tourism experience, well-being is discussed in more detail on a hedonism and eudaimonism basis and an answer is sought for the question of how the well-being of individuals is affected in these contexts (Sirgyet al., 2000; Filep & Higham, 2014; Knobloch et al., 2017; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018; Vada et al., 2019). Well-being considered as eudaimonia focuses on personal development and functioning, whereas hedonism concerns positive emotions, happiness, and satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Psychological well-being, which falls within the eudaimonia tradition, reflects a deep emotional state that is evaluated over a longer time frame rather than as positive emotions during or immediately after the tourism experience (Vada et al., 2019). Subjective well-being, which has been associated with the hedonistic approach to well-being, is a multi-faceted concept of various cognitive and affective structures. Its cognitive aspect is associated with life satisfaction, while affective one reflects positive and negative emotions (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Positive and negative emotions enable individuals to evaluate their experiences affectively (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Ortony and Turner (1990) describe fun, happiness, and love as positive emotions, whereas sadness, irritability, anxiety and stress are negative emotions. It is argued that tourists experience positive emotions from forming positive relationships with local people, participating in pleasant activities at the destination, and experiencing local culture and their knowledge. Because individuals attribute their positive feelings to their experiences, the destination becomes a "home of the heart", thereby making their experiences memorable (Keller, 2003). Therefore, the present study hypothesizes that MTEs increase well-being by stimulating positive emotions.

H1: There is a positive relationship between MTEs and positive and negative emotions.

Satisfaction is traditionally considered to result from service performance that meets the expectations of individuals. Life satisfaction, which represents the cognitive aspect of subjective well-being, is defined as

a cognitive process in which individuals evaluate all living conditions, such as social relationships, occupation, education, and family, as a whole (Diener et al., 1999). According to Westbrook and Oliver (1991), satisfaction varies according to underlying emotional dimensions. High satisfaction occurs with high-level positive emotions, such as pleasure, surprise, and happiness, whereas low satisfaction occurs in non-emotional situations or with negative emotions. Given that positive emotions are included in the hedonism dimension, MTEs increase life satisfaction (Zhong et al., 2017). The experiential aspects of tourism, such as awareness, participation, peace of mind, and hedonism, provide a different satisfaction beyond service quality (Otto & Ritchie, 1996). An individual who considers an experience as memorable one, in many ways experiences strong positive emotions. This in turn increases life satisfaction and improves subjective well-being. This leads to the second hypothesis:

H2: There is a positive relationship between MTEs and life satisfaction.

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF MEANING IN LIFE

A fulfilling tourism experience is characterized not only by pleasure but also by how tourists personally find holiday activities meaningful. Although subjective well-being sheds light on the tourist experience and focuses on whether the individual feels good or bad, tourists not only focus on pleasure but also evaluate what is good or bad and meaningful about their lives (Filep, 2012). This may be related to Maslow's (1943) concept of self-actualization in terms of encountering a deeper meaning beyond material existence and to finding a sense of value (Cornelisse, 2014; Uriely, 2005). For example, Noy (2004) claims that backpackers seek self-change, while adventure and authenticity often characterize their self-change experiences. For Wilson and Harris (2006), meaningful travel includes themes of self and identity, self-empowerment and commitment to others (global citizenship). That is, individuals focus more on the nature of existence than pleasure, seeking a unique and memorable tourism experience to question or find a certain meaning of their lives.

From a qualitative study on the factors that make people's tourism experiences memorable, Chandralal and Valenzuela (2013) concluded that important personal outcomes, such as self-development, relationship development, and developing family well-being, depend on the perceived significance of the experience. Through new experiences, individuals improve their intellectual capacities, expand their perspective on life,

change their self-identity and discover new talents. These experiences all increase their sense of meaning in life. Similarly, relations developed with local people in the region of travel play an important role in an individual's acquisition of a universal citizen self-identity (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013).

Emphasizing the catalytic effect of meaningfulness in personal development and change, Kim et al. (2012) argue that the meaningfulness of memorable experiences contributes significantly to individuals' personal lives. Therefore, the meaning of life plays an important role in the positive effects of MTEs on positive affect and life satisfaction. Because previous studies addressing tourist happiness in terms of subjective well-being are incomplete, further research strengthened with other psychometric scales is needed (Filep, 2012). Accordingly, the present study investigates the relationship between MTEs and life satisfaction by determining the mediating role of meaning in life. This leads to the following three hypotheses:

H3: There is a positive relationship between MTEs and meaning in life.
H4: Meaning in life mediates the effect of MTEs on positive affect.
H5: Meaning in life mediates the effect of MTEs on life satisfaction.

METHODOLOGY

Participants and Procedure

Individuals wishing to encounter deep meanings beyond a standard product and service experience, find themselves, understand life and see cultural heritage areas as original experiences that speak to the cultural elements of their life (Uzzell, 1998; Uriely, 2005; Cornelisse, 2014). In addition to the personal aspects of authenticity, such as the true self and being loyal to the essence, the concrete and abstract aspects of the originality and reality of cultural artefacts and events become prominent (Steiner & Reisinger, 2006). Similarly, in addition to the criteria that constitute the outstanding universal values of the UNESCO World Heritage List, there are various concrete and abstract originality criteria, such as form and design, materials and substance, location and environment, tradition and techniques, spirit and feeling.

To test mediating role of meaning in life between MTEs and well-being relationships, a survey instrument was designed to gather data in Göreme, a UNESCO World Heritage Site, located in Cappadocia, Turkey.

The area is a popular tourist destination with cultural attractions. Cappadocia provides a significant combination of abstract and tangible authenticity – the latter formed as a result of wind and water erosion, such as fairy chimneys and tall natural columns topped by balanced rocks. The area also has steep valleys bearing the traces of ancient civilizations, underground cities, churches, and houses carved into rocks, fine wineries and local pottery (Yolal & Karacaoglu, 2017). Hot air ballooning, trekking, cycling, and horseback riding are also prime tourism experiences in the area (Erdogan & Tosun, 2009). By offering such varied experiences in a unique atmosphere, Cappadocia creates an opportunity for tourists to seek deeper meaning by removing them from their routine lives. It also creates MTEs that can improve tourists' well-being through examining their self and life meaning.

Using convenience sampling, surveys in both English and Turkish were handed out to tourists who had either completed or were about to complete their visit to Cappadocia. Data were collected voluntarily through one-on-one communication with the participants. Although 657 responses were collected, 374 forms were eliminated due to missing values, outliers, or non-normality and non-linearity. Of the 283 participants providing usable data, 59.1% (N=166) were female and 40.9% were male (N=115). Regarding age, 10.1% (N=28) were 20 years old or younger, 40.6% (N=113) were between 21 and 30, 22.3% (N=62) were between 31 and 40, 11.2% (N=31) between 41 and 50 and 15.8% (N=44) were at least 51 years old. The majority had a monthly income of 350$ or less. Finally, 4% (N=11) were primary school graduates, 23.8% were high school graduates (N=65), 34.8% were university graduates (N=95) and 37.4% (N=102) had a post-graduate education.

Table 1. *Demographic Characteristics*

	N	%	Total		N	%	Total
Age			278	**Education**			273
20 and younger	28	10.1		Primary school	11	4	
21-30	113	40.6		High school	65	23.8	
31-40	62	22.3		Undergraduate	95	34.8	
41-50	31	11.2		Graduate	102	37.4	
51 and older	44	15.8		**Income**			244
Gender			281	350$ or less	81	33.2	
Female	166	59.1		350-500	47	19.3	
Male	115	40.9		501-600	41	16.8	
				601$ or more	75	30.7	

As Table 1 shows, the majority of participants were female, high education graduates, with a monthly income level of 350$ or less, aged between 21 and 30.

Instruments

The questionnaire had three sections. The first section provided information on the research aims, data confidentiality and participant anonymity. It also stated that the questions had no correct or incorrect answers, while participants were asked to answer questions as honestly as possible. Because bias can occur if respondents' answers are influenced by lenience and social desirability, respondents were reassured about anonymity and possible concerns about being evaluated to reduce common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

The second section included four scales to assess the research variables: Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTES), Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS), Meaning in Life Scale (MLQ), and Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). Except for MTES, the scales had been validated in the Turkish literature. The Turkish validation of the MTES questionnaire was administered by two bilingual professionals following back-translation. One translated the scales from English to Turkish, while the other did the same from Turkish to English. A pilot test for the Turkish MTES was then conducted after semantic equivalence had been established between the translations. The final section of the questionnaire asked about participants' demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, education and income.

Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTES). This was developed by Kim et al. (2010) to evaluate a recalled tourism experience. The 24 items are measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Kim et al. (2010) argue that a memorable tourism experience has seven dimensions: hedonism (e.g. "I was thrilled about having a new experience in Cappadocia"), refreshment (e.g. "I felt free from daily routine during the trip"), involvement (e.g. "I was interested in the main activities offered"), local culture (e.g. "I had a chance to closely experience the local culture"), meaningfulness (e.g. "I felt that I did something meaningful"), knowledge (e.g. "I gained a lot of information during the trip"), and novelty (e.g. "I had a once-in a lifetime experience"). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .91 (Kim et al., 2010).

The Turkish version of the MTES was validated by piloting it with 163 participants. SPSS was used to perform an exploratory factor analysis

(EFA) using principal component analysis to determine the questionnaire's factor structure, followed by confirmatory factor analysis using varimax rotation. Items with factor loadings less than .40 (Hinkin, 1998) and factors with factor loadings higher than .40 but loading onto more than one factor were excluded from the final questionnaire. Specifically, all items for knowledge ("I gained a lot of information during the trip", "I gained a new skill(s) from the trip", "I experienced new culture(s)"), and one item from refreshment ("I had a refreshing experience") were removed from further analyses. After re-running the EFA, a five-factor solution emerged. However, based on Kim et al. (2010) and the Scree plot to clarify the factor structure, the researchers were able to retain the 6-factor scale structure. The reliability coefficient of the new 20-item scale was .92 with a 6-factor structure (refreshment, local culture, involvement, meaningfulness, novelty, hedonism). This structure explained 84% of the total variance in the scale.

LISREL was then used to perform confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the factor structure and finalize the measurement scale. The results supported the 6-factor model. The model fit index values are shown in Table 2 and it was observed that variables were significant (χ^2=473.79, sd=150, χ^2/sd=3.15, p=0.000, RMSEA=0.087, CFI=0.91, NFI=0.87, RFI=0.84). The factor loadings ranged from .55 to .92 while t-values ranged from 9.44 to 18.91 (p<0.001). Thus, the CFA justified use of the 20-item, 6-dimensional scale, with all items fitting the measurement model.

Table 2. *Summary of Goodness-of-fit Statistics for MTES*

Model	χ^2	χ^2/sd	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RFI	NFI
6 factors	473.79	3.15	0.087	0.86	0.81	0.91	0.84	0.87

Positive Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). This scale, developed by Watson et al. (1988), measures positive and negative affect with 10 items each, using a 7-point Likert-type scale. Positive affect (PA) items are attentive, active, alert, enthusiastic, determined, excited, proud, interested, inspired and strong, while negative affect (NA) items are afraid, ashamed, distressed, guilty, nervous, scared, jittery, irritable, upset and hostile. Watson et al. (1988) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of .88 and .85 for PA and NA, respectively. The scale was translated into Turkish by Gençöz (2000), who reported similar internal consistency coefficients of .86 and .83 for PA and NA, respectively. The internal consistency of items in this study were .80 and .89 for PA and NA, respectively. As suggested by Kim and

Hatfield (2004), the negative emotion scores of the PANAS score for each participant are reversed and then positive emotions are added to these scores. Thus, positive and negative emotion scores were combined into one dimension to reflect the overall emotional impact of the experience.

Meaning in Life Questionnaire (MLQ). Developed by Steger et al. (2006), this scale measures two dimensions with 5 items each using a 5-point Likert-type scale: Presence of Meaning (MLQ-P) and Search for Meaning (MLQ-S). MLQ-P evaluates the participant's subjective view of meaning in life with items such as "My life has a clear sense of purpose" or "I understand my life's meaning". MLQ-S evaluates the participant's efforts to find meaning in life with items such as "I am always searching for something that makes my life feel significant" or "I am always looking to find my life's purpose". Steger et al. (2006) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of .86 and .87 for MLQ-P and MLQ-S, respectively. Dursun (2012), who translated the scale into Turkish, reported internal consistency coefficients of .83 and .87, respectively. In the present study, responses to one item ("My life has no clear purpose") were reverse coded to preserve its meaning. The internal consistency coefficients were .89 for MLQ- S and .79 for MLQ-P.

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). This scale measures differences in individuals' cognitive assessments of life (Diener, 1984). Diener (1984) argued that it is possible to assess whether individuals are satisfied with their life based on their own subjective criteria as assessed by the questionnaire. The scale has 5 items assessed on a 7-point Likert-type scale, such as "So far I have gotten the important things I want in life" or "In most ways my life is close to my ideal". Diener (1984) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .87. The scale was translated into Turkish by Köker (1991), who reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .89. In the present study, the internal consistency coefficient was .84.

Data analysis

Consistent with the goals of the current study, mediation analysis within a structural equation modeling (SEM) framework was employed to uncover the associations between MTE, meaning in life and subjective wellbeing. The model was tested by path analysis in LISREL 9.30 (Jöreskog & Sörbom 1993). SEM was used because it provides researchers with tools to test the fit of the model to the data and directly test the significance of mediation effects (Shrout & Bolger 2002; Kline 2005).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Before testing the research hypotheses, the mean and standard deviations of the variables were examined and the correlation coefficients between the variables were calculated (Table 3). The sub-scales of refreshment (r =.278, p<.01), local culture (r =.276, p<.01), involvement (r = .194, p<.01), meaningfulness (r = .379, p<.01), novelty (r =.324, p<.01), and hedonism (r=.197, p<.01) had weak positive correlations with meaning in life.

Regarding the relationship between positive affect and MTE sub-scales, there were weak positive correlations between refreshment (r =.375, p<.01), local culture (r =.168, p<.01), meaningfulness (r =.229, p<.01), novelty (r =.268, p<.01), and hedonism (r =.265, p<.01) while a moderate positive correlation was found with the involvement (r =.414, p<.01). Regarding the relationship between life satisfaction and MTE subscales, there were weak positive correlations with refreshment (r =.183, p<.01), local culture (r =.134, p<.05), involvement (r =.260, p<.01), and meaningfulness (r =.216, p<.01), novelty (r =.225, p<.05) and hedonism (r =.172, p<.05). There were weak positive correlations between meaning in life and the refreshment (r =.278, p<.01), local culture (r =.276, p<.05), involvement (r =.194, p<.01), meaningfulness (r =.379, p<.01), novelty (r =.324, p<.05) and hedonism (r=.197, p<.05). Regarding the dependent variables, meaning in life positively correlated with positive affect (r =.214, p<.01) and life satisfaction (r =.261, p<.01). This result supported H1, H2 and H3.

Table 3. *Means, Standard Deviations, and the Correlation Matrix of Study Variables*

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Refreshment	6.05	.839	-								
2. Local Culture	5.61	1.178	.492**	-							
3. Involvement	6.15	.753	.532**	.320**	-						
4. Meaningfulness	5.67	.963	.639**	.404**	.509**	-					
5. Novelty	5.91	.938	.641**	.549**	.535**	.535**	-				
6. Hedonism	6.15	.730	.514**	.451**	.575**	.452**	.614**	-			
7. MLQ	4.91	.928	.278**	.276**	.194**	.379**	.324**	.197**	-		
8. PANAS	8.41	.902	.375**	.168**	.414**	.329**	.268**	.265**	.214**	-	
9. SWLS	5.18	1.007	.183**	.134*	.260**	.216**	.225**	.172**	.261**	.157**	-

SD = Standard Deviation, * p <.05, ** p <.01

Testing the mediation model

The second stage of the study was carried out after determining significant relationships between all the study variables. To examine the relationships between MTES, PANAS, and MLQ, a mediation test with structural equation modelling was applied. Path analysis was performed using LISREL 9.30 to test the relevance of the research model to the data and examine the influence of the mediating variable effects (Kline, 2005).

First, the mediating role of meaning in life in the effect of MTE on subjective well-being was examined. The path analysis showed that there was no significant relationship between meaning in life and positive affect ($t = 1.51$, $p>.05$).

The model was retested after removing the relationship between meaning in life and positive affect. This model produced a non-significant chi-square test result ($\chi2$ (2) =3.04, p=.37) and perfect fit index results (GFI = .99, AGFI = .97, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .03, CFI = 1.00). The beta coefficients and t values showing the significance of the relationships between the variables in brackets are presented (Figure 1.). MTE positively predicted meaning in life ($\beta = .36$, $t = 6.51$, $p<.05$) and PANAS, which measures overall affect to explain subjective well-being ($\beta = .38$, $t = 6.92$, $p<.05$). Life satisfaction (SWL), which measures the cognitive aspect of subjective well-being, was predicted positively by both meaning in life ($\beta = .20$, $t = 3.23$, $p<.05$) and MTE ($\beta = .18$, $t = 2.99$, $p<.05$).

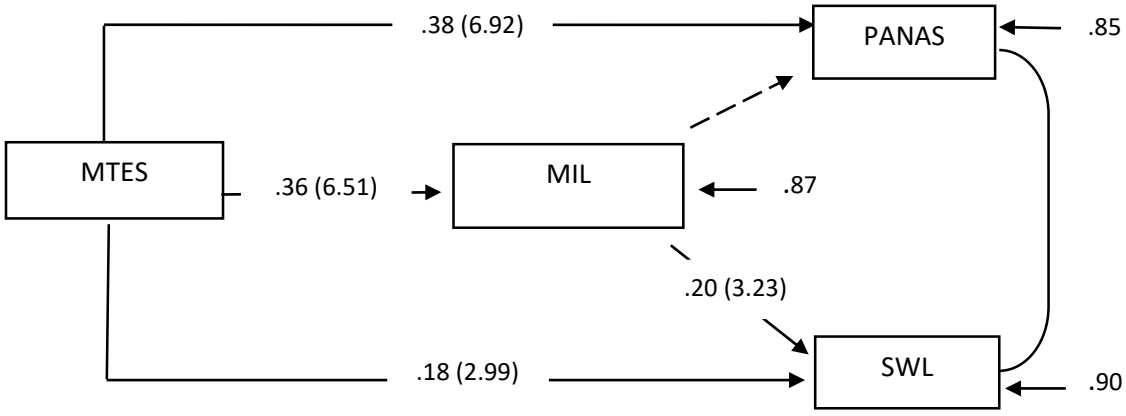

Figure 1. *Path Model of Meditation Role of Meaning in Life Between MTE and Subjective Well-Being* (Note: the insignificant relationship is indicated by the dashed line.)

In this study, the recalled MTE directly explained 13% of the variance in meaning in life and 15% of positive affect. Taken together, MTE and meaning in life explain 10% of the variance in life satisfaction. These

findings indicate that meaning in life partially mediates the effect of a memorable tourism experience on life satisfaction (indirect effect=.10, t=2.89, p<.05).

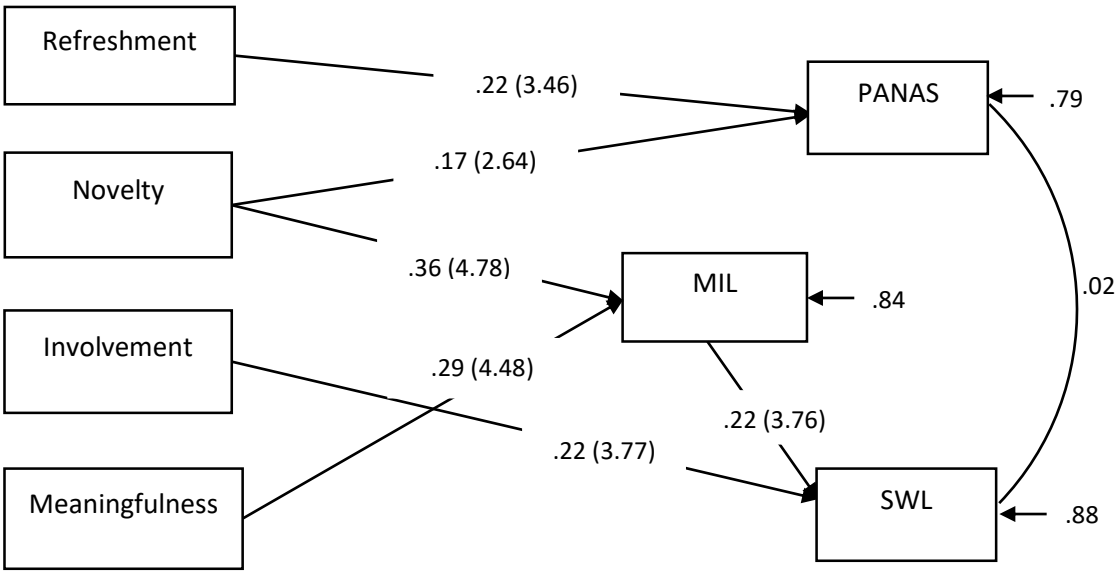

Figure 2. *Path Model for the Mediating Role of Meaning in Life between MLES dimensions and Subjective Well-Being*

In the second phase, another path analysis was conducted to determine the mediating role of meaning in life in the effect of the MTE sub-scales on life satisfaction. The first model test showed no significant relationships between the local culture and meaning in life (β = .11, t = 1.65 <1.96), positive affect (β = -.06, t = -0.89 <1.96), or life satisfaction (β = -. 02, t = -0.22 <1.96), as well as between hedonism and meaning in life (β = -.06, t = -0.83 <1.96), positive affect (β = -.01, t = -0.38 <1.96), and life satisfaction (β = -.02, t = -0.26 <1.96). The model was then re-tested by removing the following as there was an insignificant relationship between refreshment and meaning in life (β = -.04, t = 0.46 <1.96) and life satisfaction (β = -.03, t = -0.36 <1.96): novelty and positive affect (β = -.03, t = -0.32 <1.96) and life satisfaction(β = .08, t = 0.91 <1.96); involvement and meaning in life (β = -.04, t = -0.56 <1.96); meaningfulness and positive affect (β = .05, t = 1.06 <1.96) and life satisfaction (β = .03, t = 0.45 <1.96); meaning of life and positive affect (β = .11, t = 1.55 < 1.96). The chi-square test result for the model with only significant relationships was insignificant ($\chi^2(8) = 6.46$, p=.59) with perfect fit index results (GFI=.99, AGFI=.98, RMSEA=.00, SRMR=.02, CFI=1.00). There was a significant relationship between refreshment and positive affect (t = 3.46, p<.05), novelty and meaning in life (t = 2.64, p<.05), positive affect and involvement (t = 4.78, p<.05) and life satisfaction (t = 3.77,

p<.05), and between meaningfulness and meaning in life (t = 4.48, p<.05). The beta coefficients of the model and t values in brackets are shown in Figure 2.

In the model in Figure 2, the effect of the novelty subscale on life satisfaction and the effect of meaning in life on life satisfaction (β = .06, t = 2.88, p<.05) had a full mediating role (indirect effect coefficient. = .04, t = 2.16, p<.05). This model explained 21% of positive/negative emotions, which is related to the affective aspect of subjective well-being, 12% of life satisfaction explaining the cognitive aspect of subjective well-being, and 16% of meaning in life. Therefore, H4 and H5 are partial accepted.

DISCUSSION

Research into the tourism experience shows how memorable ones affect subjective and psychological well-being (Knobloch et al., 2017; Sthapit, 2018). It also reveals what comprises these memorable experiences (Kim et al., 2012; Chandralal et al., 2015; de Freitas Coelho et al. 2018) and how individual well-being is affected (Sthapit, 2018). Authenticity, meaningfulness, spirituality and transformation, which indicate changing tourist demand, are also associated with the affect and well-being of tourists (Uriely, 2005; Cornelisse, 2014). Therefore, meaningfulness and the self are prominent in extraordinary and memorable tourism experiences. The current study went further than previous research to determine whether meaning in life mediates between the MTE of tourists visiting Cappadocia at Turkey and their SWB. It also investigated the mediating role of meaning in life on the relationships between SWB and MTE dimensions to understand in detail the structure of MTEs of visitors to Cappadocia.

This study first examined the effects of MTES on life meaning and subjective well-being dimensions. This showed that MTES positively affects life satisfaction (representing the cognitive aspect of subjective well-being), positive and negative emotions (representing the affective aspect), and meaning in life. Considering the mediating role of meaning in life, which was the main focus of the study, the findings showed that meaning in life mediated the effect of MTES on life satisfaction but had no mediating role in its effect on positive and negative affect. When considering affective and cognitive processes people had during their experience positive and negative affect, such as pleasure, happiness, anxiety, and stress felt during the experience, are immediate reactions. In contrast, life satisfaction, which treats life as a whole, involves a deeper process (Diener, 2009).

An individual who considers an experience as memorable will have feelings like happiness, fun, and pleasure without questioning meaning in life and the multifaceted positive/negative situations. The literature on positive and negative affect and MTES show that individuals who have a memorable experience frequently express positive affect, such as happiness, pleasure and excitement (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013). Furthermore, there are significant relationships between positive emotions, memory and MTES (Brewer 1988; Kim, 2010). This study also showed that an individual, who is in search of self, identity and meaning in life, not only considers the experience as memorable, but develops a sense of satisfaction by stimulating meaning in life. The literature also demonstrates that individuals searching for what is good or bad about their lives, need self-actualization to encounter deeper meaning, by going beyond material existence and developing a certain sense of value and satisfaction about life (Maslow, 1943; Uriely, 2005; Filep, 2012; Cornelisse, 2014).

For example, individuals visiting Cappadociacan realize themselves in different ways through the region's unique geography, trekking routes, cultural heritage areas and varied recreational activities. They feel a certain sense of satisfaction with their lives by gaining something from the activities they participate in, while their life meaning is improved.

The second aim of this study was to explore whether meaning in life mediates the effect of MTES subscales on subjective well-being. The results show that the novelty and meaningfulness subscales within life satisfaction fully mediate meaning in life. Considering the area where the research was carried out, recreational activities could include hot air balloon tours, pottery making, or visiting unique cultural heritage sites, such as Cappadocia National Park, Göreme, Zelve, and Pasha vineyards, which are included in the UNESCO Heritage List. Tourists could also participate in gastronomic experiences, such as wine tasting, to meet their needs and quest for novelty.

Similarly, new cultures enable individuals to question their self-identity and meaning in life through authentic activities. Tourists think they have an MTE by having the opportunity to look at life from a different perspective, which improves their life satisfaction. The literature shows that novelty is the factor defining the multidimensional aspect of human motivation (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Individuals will reward themselves psychologically as a result of traveling to a new, unfamiliar environment (Berlyne, 1950). Discovering a new destination and culture will help them perceive their experiences in a meaningful way (Iso-Ahola, 1982).

Moreover, individuals searching for meaning in their lives (Frank, 1985) seek unique experiences that provide a sense of completion rather than just authenticity or escape (Noy, 2004; Novelli & Robinson, 2005). The emphasis on the fact that finding a certain meaning in life will create a sense of life satisfaction in individuals (Noy, 2004; Novelli & Robinson, 2005) echoes the findings in the literature.

Moreover, the stress and negative conditions that individuals encounter in their daily lives can damage their life balance. Therefore, a pleasant trip is essential for finding a balance in one's life and escaping from the daily routine (Crompton, 1979). Therefore, individuals who had a memorable experience in Cappadocia escaped from their routine lives and felt good because of their positive emotions and refreshment. By participating in various regionally specific activities, individuals increased positive affective feelings, such as happiness, surprise and entertainment. These positive feelings in turn increased life satisfaction. Similarly, the literature frequently emphasizes that participating in various activities in tourism experiences strongly determines emotions (Pine & Gilmore, 2011; Slattenet al., 2011; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Changing tourist typologies and tourist demands have pushed purchasing motivations and tourism experience outcomes far beyond the pleasure factor. They aim to create valuable experiences in which individuals move away from their daily environment in search of their true self and life purpose. By travelling to new destinations and participating in different activities, individuals gain different perspectives as they engage with the local culture and local people they meet. In addition to a sense of pleasure in their experiences, their participation in various activities allow them to discover new atmospheres, different local cultures and feel revitalized. Likewise, research on memorable experiences shows that these are an important factor in understanding changing motivations and managing demand.

Regarding the study's theoretical contribution, firstly, it explored meaning in life as an important mediator of the effect of MTE on subjective well-being. Secondly, individuals who are in search of meaning and identity do not gain life satisfaction directly through memorable experiences and they experience a certain sense of satisfaction as stimulation of the subscales of meaning in life and the meaningfulness interact with one another. Finally, the mediating role of participation between affective and cognitive processes in an MTE allows individuals to experience a holistic sense of well-being.

The research has several limitations. First, there was a language barrier to data collection because Cappadocia mainly hosts tourists from Asian and Latin countries but the questionnaires were only prepared in English and Turkish. Surveys in other languages to address the tourist profiles who frequently visit the region could provide more comprehensive data. Another limitation specific to the region is time since the average stay is just 2-3 days. The data was collected from participants who had either just completed their vacation or were about to complete it. Thus, they may have been feeling intense emotions about their vacation. Therefore, future studies could consider a more effective time period for data collection to obtain a more objective perspective on recalled touristic experiences.

Regarding the limitations of content of the study, MTES developed by Kim et al. (2010) was used for data collection. However, when the items of scale were examined, it is understood that only the positive side of memorable experiences is taken into consideration. The feedback obtained from the participants during the data collection phase revealed that the positive emotions encountered are not the only factor that makes an experience memorable, but also the negative ones are very important. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies focus on addressing both positive and negative memorable experiences. At this point, the MTE scale revised by Kim et al. (2012), which includes positive and negative feelings, can be suggested to researchers. It is also thought that new measurement tools to be developed regarding the memorable tourism experience will enable a better understanding of the concept. In addition, researching other dimensions that mediate the effects of MTEs on subjective well-being could significantly contribute to increasing the depth of understanding of MTEs. Similarly, individuals are searching for self-identity, as well as meaning in life. This raises the question of what effects memorable experiences have on the search for relevant identity. Examining this problem in terms of identity theory and social identity theory is highly recommended for future studies.

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COULD HAPPINESS BE AN ASSESSMENT TOOL IN SUSTAINABLE TOURISM MANAGEMENT?

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ABSTRACT

The continuous commitment of companies from different sectors to demonstrate ethical demeanor of their business activities and bring about development of the respective economy, while maintaining the society's wellbeing, has seen enormous activism in the last years. This has been very much evident in the tourism sector where the responsibility towards the society takes many forms, ranging from initiatives to promote activities for cleaner environment to programs for supporting quality of life and fair payment for employees and their families. Given this shift in policy making and execution of tourism market players, this paper aims to critically evaluate the extant sources of literature in the field of sustainable management of tourism, happiness concept in sustainable development and tourism, and on this premise – to blueprint a conceptual model that can serve entities in the industry for effective running of their sustainability courses of action. Happiness was accepted as one of the important goals of Sustainable Development with some United Nations resolutions. In this relation, happiness became an up-to-date topic in the Sustainable Development agenda as a way for holistic measure of success on the national and international levels. So, the authors would like

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to propose Business Gross Happiness as an indicator for companies in the sustainable tourism industry to measure their success in their course to sustainable development goals.

INTRODUCTION

In our days, the issues of sustainable development (SD) and sustainable tourism (ST) became a reality for 21st century`s society together with the big number of challenges, including the unprecedented economic growth of the 20-th century, poverty, exhaustion of natural resources, urbanization, climate change, the rapid population growth, innovations in technologies, etc. (Martin & Schouten, 2012, p. 6–8). Scientists warned that if the economic growth continues at the same pace, the limited environmental resources will be exhausted within the next 100 years (Precup & Hellendoorn, 2011). In this regard, the concept of SD arises as a result of the realization of the need for constructive ideas to overcome the negative phenomena in modern society (as carbon footprint, lack of regulation, overconsumption of some resources, pandemics, etc.). In this sense and the scope of authors' paper, SD appears to be a kind of opposition to the norms existing in society and the patterns of behavior in them. At the same time, it embodies new values and principles of regulation of economic, social, and environmental processes. During the 66-th Session of the United Nations (UN) General Assembly in 2012, the international conference "Defining a New Economic Paradigm: The Report of the High-Level Meeting on Wellbeing and Happiness" was held with the aim of incorporating the goal of societal happiness into the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Tideman, 2016). Happiness becomes an up-to-date issue in SD agenda after its acceptance as one of the important goals with UN resolution 65/309 (Happiness: towards a holistic approach to development (NDP Steering Committee and Secretariat, 2013) and resolution 66/281 which accepted March 20-th as International Day of Happiness (UN, n.d.; UN, 2012). The issues of new economic paradigm, based on the parity and indivisibility of the three pillars of SD - social, economic, and environmental wellbeing - together defining gross global happiness, was broadly discussed (Roshina & Artyukhova, 2016).

In the context of SD, the tourism industry could have multifaceted negative impacts including, but not limited to quality of life in highly visited tourist destinations (Gil-Saura & Ruiz-Molina, 2019), local ecology (Sezerel & Kaymaz, 2019), climate change (Panwar & Singh Rautela, 2019)

environmental hazards causing death of local residents (Jhamb, 2019) and disruption of coastal areas (Reineman & Ardoin, 2018). These negative impacts could be seen as prerequisites for the emergence of the sustainable tourism concept. This concept has been advancing for over 30 years, becoming increasingly relevant in national and international agendas. In 1999 tourism was included as a strategic sector for SD from the UN commission for SD, but the key role played by sustainable tourism was not established until the Rio+10 and Rio+20 Earth Summit (Aall, 2014). Today there is no doubt about the importance of Sustainable Tourism, especially since the UN declared 2017 year for International year of Sustainable Tourism for development, *thus highlighting the potential of tourism to contribute to sustainability and help achieve the goals of the 2030 Agenda*. The UN general assembly has adopted several resolutions acknowledging its importance as a tool for development and environmental protection (UNWTO, 2017). In light of this, sustainable tourism development (STD) is a widely argued topic in academic literature. Given its complex nature, tourism continues to play a significant role in the presence of ever-increasing challenges related to the environment and society (Kaushal & Sharma, 2016). The debate for employing sustainable practices in tourism emerges as most stakeholders in the field deem this can enhance the reputation both of tourism entities/destinations and the stakeholder groups. At the same time, much doubt is casted over the potential economic efficiency of STD. Although many sources of existing literature in the field have delved into drafting proposals, singling out strategies, outlining impacts, etc., a major body of academic work revolves increasingly around the application of working models into practice (in specific regions of the world). The scope of this paper covers review of existing literature in the field of STD, happiness in the context of SD and tourism, and based on this analysis, the authors want to propose a model of an assessment framework for companies' in the tourism sector adopting sustainable tourism management.

THE NEXUS BETWEEN SD, ST AND HAPPINESS: PREMISES FOR CHANGE OF THE CURRENT (NOT SO SUSTAINABLE) MODEL OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT

"Sustainable development" is viewed as a complex concept that consolidates traditional perceptions of the relationship between humanity and nature, giving them a new meaning consistent with modern social theory and practice. The authors' analysis of the theoretical studies shows

that more than 50 definitions are given for the concept of sustainable development. Most of them are in the context of global and regional sustainable development or cover only individual aspects like economic or social. The modern meaning of the term "sustainability" is used for the first time in 1972 in the documents of the Stockholm conference on environmental issues and the first official definition of "sustainable development" is set out in the Brundtland Report where it is defined as "development that enables us to meet the needs of today's generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs" (Keeble, 1988, p. 45). Further, the concept was developed with the introduction of the definition of the "three pillars (Triple bottom line- 3BL or people, profit, planet-3Ps)", which refers to the harmonious interaction between economic prosperity, social justice and the preserved environment (see Figure 1).

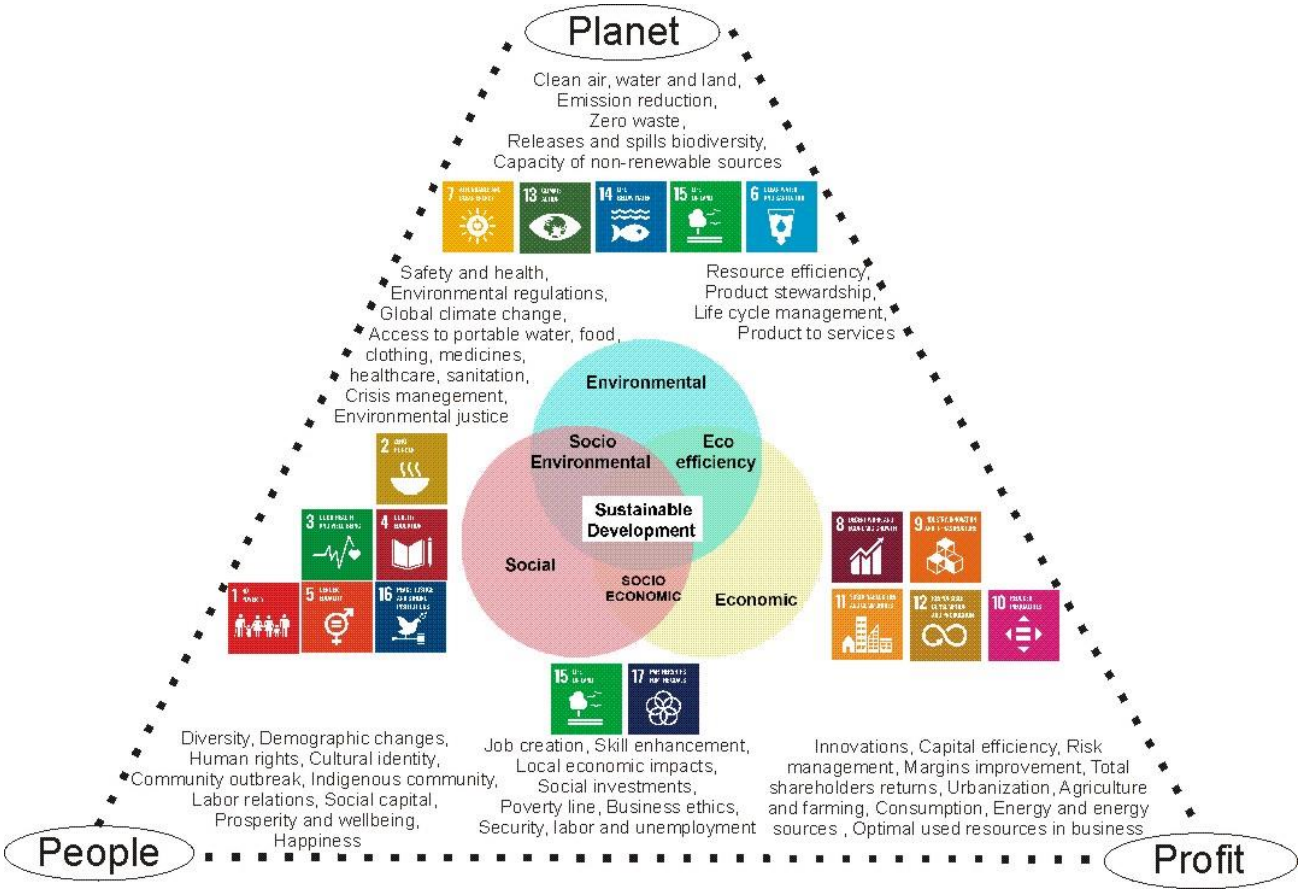

Figure 1. *Graphic representation and interpretation of sustainability (economic, social, and environmental), sustainable development and distribution of SDGs.* (Source: Authors)

Figure 1 attempts to visualize the 3 main pillars of SD and the relationships between each of them with SDGs. Modern theories of SD assume that there are three dimensions of the concept: ecological, social and economic (Adams, 2006). In this paper, the researchers review happiness in its SD aspect (Figure 1 places happiness in the social sustainability pillar). In the authors' view, social sustainability could be defined as the long-standing ability of societies to secure the well-being of their members and in particular, their happiness and prosperity.

In recent years some concerns have been aroused about the fact that the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) do not provide a sufficiently detailed picture of social progress, which is related to improving the well-being of people and households. In this regard, the researchers see that in the scientific papers from last 12 years, alternative concept of measuring the quality of life and social progress in a society is becoming increasingly popular, which defines GDP as an insufficiently objective indicator (Copley, 2011; Stiglitz, 2019; Stiglitz et al., 2009). After series of UN Resolutions and visible changes in the consumers' behavior, it is necessary to understand that the notion of progress goes well beyond the income or consumption (Lukina et al., 2020) and that now it is a time for researchers to include other non-monetary aspects, such as weak social connections, psychological costs of alienation, etc., to see the whole picture. They marked that there is a need for a new and transformational approach for defining and measuring wellbeing. This need is felt with articulating of SDGs, which resonate deeply with "development with values" (Verma, 2017; Zhong, 2015). Unfortunately, the SDGs have a lack of coherence with wellbeing, leaving out culture, relationships, and even the work-life balance. These are the signals for change and emergence of alternative approaches. The change could begin with a change, from the pursuit of profit to the pursuit of wellbeing in all its levels (including happiness). In this regard, Gross National Happiness (GNH) is broadly accepted as measure of success instead of already mentioned GDP. From the GNH standpoint business is a central and vital pillar of the society that shares equal responsibilities from improving people's lives and contributing to their wellbeing and happiness. Businesses have to explore fostering happiness and wellbeing as an alternative business purpose (Niyazieva, 2020). Such focus requires a paradigm shift in managers thinking about the purpose of business (including personal and societal success).

Throughout the last few years, researches in the tourism industry have witnessed increased recognition of the intersection points between happiness and SD (Croes et al., 2017; Rivera et al., 2016). The extant

literature in the field of tourism and those concerning the happiness of different stakeholders, in particular, is seeing increasing interest. There is plenty of evidence that happy people are healthier, more productive and creative (Fisher, 2010; Nokelainen, 2015; Sulakhe & Bakre, 2019). Also, happiness is strongly linked to a destination's sustainability in terms of integrating economic, social and environmental objectives (Bimonte & Faralla, 2016; Pratt et al., 2016; Rivera et al., 2016). The pursuit of a corporate objective (economic) to the detriment of another objective (social) may negatively affect human well-being, and may even endanger its survival. So, a holistic tourism management approach is needed. The shift from a commitment to action could only be achieved if SD moves from the periphery to the core of decision making in both public and private domains in tourism. It has significant potential to drive socio-economic development, environmental conservation and is mentioned in 3 of the 17-th SDGs (relating to sustainable economic growth and decent employment, sustainable production and consumption and the conservation and sustainable use of oceans). Indeed, SDGs embody a worldwide commitment towards SD trough more holistic and integrated approaches and the SDGs on a Universal 2030 Agenda, are becoming more and more relevant in the tourism context. All these facts address for changes towards a more sustainable model of tourism management.

More specifically, the dynamic evolution of the tourism industry generates economic growth and creates employment opportunities (Hatipoglu et al., 2016) but at the same time, this growth causes tourists to consume more and more of finite resources, disposable products during their vacations and thus cause significant pollution and environmental problems. Moreover, the raw materials that are obtained for the creation of tourism products or services and the disposal of used products have also harmed the natural environment (He et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019). Sustainable management of tourism with different sustainable activities could be an option to prevent these problems. Shift to sustainable tourism activities primarily cover the environmental, economic, social, and cultural aspects of development, which are the main pillars of the Gross National Happiness concept (GNH). The relations and connections between ST, GNH, SD and sustainability aspects for tourism can be observed in Figure 2. Since natural resources may be intensively exploited in the tourism business, tourism activities would sometimes pose major impacts on the environment, ecosystems, economy, society and culture.

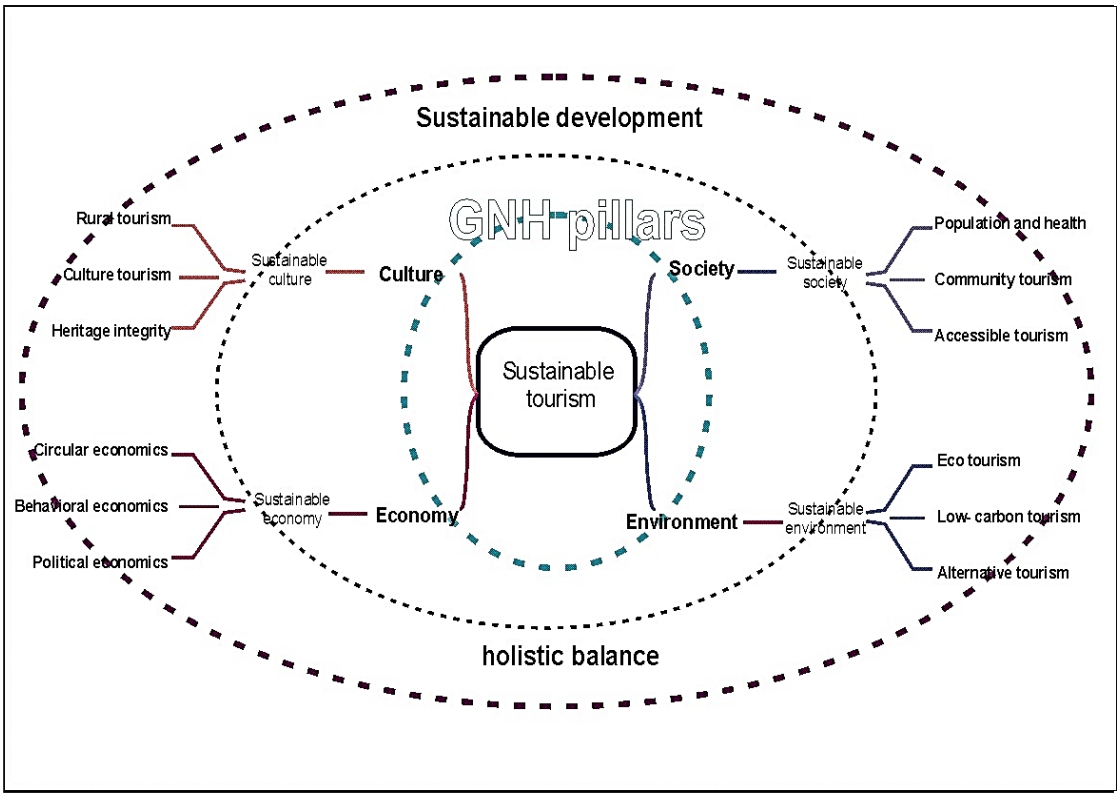

Figure 2. *Connection and relation between ST, SD and GNH pillars*
(Source: Adapted and amended from Pan et al., 2018)

The rise of the sector requires special attention, new methods for management and tools for assessment are urgently needed in the industry to meet the requirements of 21-st century and the challenges of sustainable tourism (Firoiu et al., 2019; Zolfani et al., 2015). Therefore, a holistic balance among these main four pillars should be considered to guarantee the short and long-term development of sustainability for the tourism sector. Recent studies not only provide strategies to reduce negative environmental impacts but also generate working opportunities to increase social expectations and awareness. In this regard, and due to increasing interest in SD, and issues connected with it, the authors attempt to propose a framework for Sustainable Tourism Management (STM) through adopting the concept of Gross National Happiness. Today aspects of happiness become so important that some countries such as Bhutan, have a tourism policy fully guided by the doctrine of GNH, which gains increasing importance over other policies, thus enabling the country to gain a special reputation on the tourism map. The importance of these policies lies in the fact that there have been significant investments in socio-ecological development, conservation, promotion of culture and good governance. The happiness of the country's population is very important because they

could transmit that feeling to the people who visit that country (Aureliano-Silva et al., 2017; Coffey et al., 2015). Some studies describe the transformation of the tourism industry and for the organizations aiming at the satisfaction of employees is important to go beyond serving to be able to anticipate the situations and thus meeting the needs of the visitors.

The development of GNH witnesses a time that the world is in front of the threat of ecological collapse due to climate change, ecosystem loss and rapidly depleting natural resources, while concerns about persistent social issues such as poverty, inequality, exclusion, corruption, human rights abuses and pandemics are rising. In this context, since the introduction of the concept of SD, there are attempts to capture the performance of nations and companies in new frames, models, and indicators, starting with concepts such as the UN Development Index, the Triple Bottom Line, Corporate Social Responsibilities (CSR), etc. (Elkington, 1997; Epstein & Buhovac, 2014). These frameworks in common go beyond measuring economic performance in confined financial terms, but instead advocate assessing a broader concept of value, generally comprising of the social, ecological, and economic dimension (Helliwell et al., 2018). On a global scale, this trend is expressed in objectives such as UN SDGs (See Fig.1). Alternatively, the triple value concept corresponds largely to the concept of GNH. The GNH pillars of socio-economic development, environmental conservation, and cultural preservation could be covered by definitions of economic, environmental, and societal value, respectively. GNH is based on the recognition that all stakeholders that make up the economy, society, and eco-system (the first three pillars of GNH) have specific needs that could be met. It is in the serving and balancing of those needs that sustainable value is generated.

Significant attention has been given to happiness at national level – with the release of 1-st World happiness report (Helliwell et al., 2018). After that, GNH has been operationalized at governmental level but not at the business level (even in Bhutan, the birthplace of the concept). The idea for incorporating GNH values into business was first proposed by Dasho Tobgay, at the 6-th International Conference on GNH (Zangmo et al., 2017). He described the current business model of overemphasizing profit maximization and increasing shareholder value at the cost of environment and community as unsustainable. Many businesses today rely only on financial indicators to measure their performance. But the authors should note that the financial reports fail to clarify the degree to which businesses impact the environment and communities. For example, tourism, a business, which often pollutes and destroys habitats, (by building of more

hotels in the coastal areas to accommodate an increasing number of tourists, often increase the sewage runoff and sedimentation (Habibullah et al., 2016), another example- an average golf resort, uses as much water as 60,000 rural villagers and at the same time also uses 1500 kilos of chemical fertilizers, pesticides, and herbicides per year, etc. (The World Counts, 2019), is seen to rank at the top due to the mere presentation of financial statements with higher returns, but it rarely reveals its repercussions on local residents and the environment. This example demonstrates the need for recognizing and managing these costs and risks and could be accepted as a prerequisite for integrating GNH values into business organizations. Essentially, the model that we propose intends to measure the success of a business in the sector by its ability to serve, facilitate, and engage with its stakeholders in line with the GNH, SDGs and STM concept. This requires rethinking business indicators used for measuring the success or the failure in the sustainable tourism sector. Businesses have to realize that prosperity at the expense of the environment and community is not sustainable. Integrating GNH would essentially require businesses to value societal wellbeing over profit and concentrate on responsible behavior. This would coherently represent the core values of GNH.

As the authors already discussed, the gaps, premises and the negative impacts of tourism have led to a movement for reinstating the idea of social responsibility in business. Social responsibility redirected the business towards a stakeholder theory that suggests that the purpose of business should be to consider all who have an interest in or are affected by an organization's activity. The theory resonates with the values of GNH as integrating it requires businesses to sustain the competing interests of stakeholders. In the context of SD, happiness is broadly accepted as a measure of success and countries' prosperity. On a global level happiness is related to social sustainability (see Fig.1), on a business level social sustainability is represented by Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) of the company. With the changes in the global policies and broad acceptance of SDGs and the program of UN in last years, we have seen a transition from classic indicators of success as Gross National Product/GDP to more holistic measures that include all three main aspects of sustainability - economic, social and environmental aspects.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Sustainability in policy making of various entities in the field of tourism has been tackled hard by the respective management teams. At the same time, the tendency of having ethical norms and values available on the corporate webpage has been fading out since customers are no longer looking at promises but are rather concerned about results. So instead of resting on past laurels, tourism has started to be geared against the long-lasting impact on the society, its employees, and more particularly – the customer well-being.

Multiple benefits could be traced down to the application of SD practices (Crabtree & Gasper, 2020; Sharpley, 2020; Tien et al., 2020) in:

- Better relationships with employees,
- Retention of employees,
- Good media reputation,
- Differential advantage,
- Cost efficiency,
- Easy entry into new businesses, among others.

Taking a broader perspective of sustainability, the researchers see some up-to-date tendencies that are likely to steer the development of businesses in the near future. On the one hand, companies are very sensitive to investments in sustainability because of concerns with such initiatives' ability to pay off (Santos, 2020; Sweeney, 2020). On the other hand, despite the fact that customers are regularly encouraged to consume more, a growing number of them are inclined to make more ethical choices and diminish their environmental influence (Kraleva & Ivanov, 2018; Zhechev, & Zhecheva, 2019). At the same time, the feeling of individuals being incapable of generating a sensible change to the environment limits their empowerment to engage in sustainable actions. According to The Guardian (Baker, 2015), customers are requiring transparency as they take an increasing interest in the ethical practices of businesses.

More closely examined, tourism has received significant amount of attention from scholars striving to explore the precedents, impacts, key actors, performance indicators, climate effects, among other factors originating from engaging actively in sustainable tourism development. In particular, sustainable tourism has witnessed a considerable shift towards empirically tested papers, as opposed to conceptual papers (Ruhanen et al., 2015). Another interesting finding is claimed by Buckley (2012) who

concludes that sustainable tourism is marked by four major fields: (1) responsible tourism, (2) ecotourism, (3) community tourism, and (4) conservation tourism. Despite the range of approaches to the study of sustainable tourism in different contextual settings, the field requires special attention to subfields given the geographical, ecological, political and customer-centric specificities involved.

While some authors focus their attention exclusively on the economic importance of sustainable tourism, others delineate sustainability in the context of the support provided by different stakeholders. This is evident in Table 1, which presents a synopsis of some studies in the area by looking at: (1) the aspect(s) of sustainable tourism studied, (2) country of study, and (3) critical considerations pertaining to every individual paper included.

Table 1. *Review of existing literature in the field of sustainable tourism*

Source(s)	**Aspects of sustainable tourism studied**	**Country of study**	**Critical considerations**
Moscardo G. (2008)	Discusses possible synergies between tourism and economic activities that can create premises for sustainability		Build upon the assumption that tourism cannot be considered sustainable by definition
Sims, R. (2009)	The influence of local food on sustainable tourism experience	UK	Focuses on the visitor's desire for authenticity within the holiday experience but disregards other elements that can alter the customer experience
Choi, H. C., & Murray, I., (2010)	Long-term planning, full community participation and environmental sustainability within tourism, are critically related to support for tourism, and to the positive and negative impacts of tourism	US	Suggested implications for local governments for policy making in tourism
Erkuş-Öztürk, H., & Eraydın, A. (2010)	The importance of governance networks in sustainable tourism development, the importance of different scales of collaborative governance networks, and the role of organization building for environmentally sustainable tourism	Turkey	Accentuates on networking governance practices for sustainable tourism development
Scott, D. (2011)	Addressing climate change is considered a prerequisite to sustainable development		Focuses on climate change mainly
Weaver, D. B. (2012)	Discusses incremental, organic, and induced paths as an evolutionary trajectory of destinations in their pursue of sustainability (which is viewed as a societal norm)		Emphasizes on sustainable mass tourism of destinations and converge towards environmental expediency
Lee, T. H. (2013)	Sustainable tourism indicators used: community attachment, community involvement, perceived benefits, perceived costs, and support for sustainable tourism development	Taiwan	The support of community residents for sustainable tourism is only considered from the viewpoint of residents in southwest Taiwan

Juvan, E., & Dolnicar, S. (2014)	Reviews the attitude–behavior gap between environmental consciousness at home and during holidays		It studies an important aspect of cognition related to sustainability commitment. The motivation of tourist to reduce their negative impact limits the scope of the study both geographically and behaviorally
Pulido- Fernández, J. I., Andrades- Caldito, L., & Sánchez- Rivero, M. (2015)	The study demonstrates that tourism sustainability does not exert influence on countries' major tourism indicators in the short run, and does not hamper profitability and competitiveness. The findings are diametrically opposed to the assumption by many practitioners that sustainability in tourism can impede profitability.	International (82 countries)	The paper relies on already available data from the World Economic Forum and the World Travel & Tourism Council.
Hatipoglu, B., Alvarez, M. D., & Ertuna, B. (2016)	Analyzes barriers to the involvement of stakeholders in the process of planning for the development of sustainable tourism. Highlights financial interests and short-sighted orientation as prevailing over sustainable tourism initiatives.	Turkey	Uses 3 dimensions of stakeholder involvement in the planning of sustainable tourism development: awareness, knowledge, and vision. Local community planning is opposed to stakeholders' intentions.
Boley, B. B., McGehee, N. G., & Hammett, A. T. (2017)	Applies IPA (importance-performance analysis) to study resident attitudes towards sustainable tourism initiatives.	USA	The study has interdisciplinary character as it situates IPA with expectancy confirmation theory. Performance evaluations are measured against sustainable tourism being an integral part of the planning of the studied area units.
Hardy, A., & Pearson, L. J. (2018)	Researches stakeholders' attitudes and underlines the misalignment between individual stakeholders and stakeholder groups in the process of development of sustainable tourism.	Australia	Group specificity of stakeholders and individual attitudes represents an interesting area of study. The paper only focuses on attitudes and propositions for involvement which does not guarantee sustainability performance.
Oliveira, E. (2018)	The article investigates the main perceptions of residents as of the role of entrepreneurs for the development of sustainable tourism	Portugal	The involvement of residents can reinforce the development of sustainable tourism. The paper drafts on residents' perceptions mainly to sketch possible development strategies.
Kisi, N. (2019)	The aim of this article is to present a strategic approach that can help to develop sustainable tourism at touristic destinations and author was chosen a province of Zonguldak, Turkey, as research area.	Turkey	The paper ventures into strategy building for a specific region in Turkey. It elaborates on product diversification from a cultural point of view, reduction of environmental impacts, implementation of sustainable practices by local authorities (among others). Mitigating the negative impact of the tourism industry on social life, nature, and culture is put into critical discussion.

Table 1 presents some of the highly cited papers related to sustainable tourism development (STD) spanning over a period of 2008-2019. The authors do not purport for the inclusion of the full spectrum of academic papers building upon sustainability in tourism. Instead, the table attempts to illustrate some of the aims and orientations of the extant

literature in the field alongside with critical considerations from the viewpoint of the authors of this paper.

In particular, it can be observed that multiple papers compartmentalize the causes for the initiation of sustainable tourism development and pay significant attention to community involvement. Another cluster of authors accentuates on policy-making and networking as determinants of steering positive change in view of sustainability. Yet another group of authors underlines the economic importance of sustainable tourism. Last, but not least a body of literature is also devoted to the perceptions and attitudes of various stakeholders and on this premise – several strategic alternatives are proposed that are geared towards sustainable tourism performance. In this regard, in the text below, the researchers try to propose a new model of an assessment tool for companies in the tourism sector and their management.

BUSINESS GROSS HAPPINESS (BGH): AN ASSESSMENT TOOL FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF COMPANIES PRACTICING STM

A framework could be developed through adopting sustainable indicators for different companies, territories, or destinations depending on company characteristics. It would be able to give information on diverse implications of business operations and meanwhile could be used as a decision-making tool from business organizations in sustainable tourism to enhance desirable impacts on society and to mitigate adverse impacts. In the context of STM, the aim of the BGH framework could be an assessment of the overall functioning of the business organization, as per the GNH framework proposed by former prime minister of Bhutan Togbay (Dendup et al., 2018), and help the management to identify areas (domains and indicators) that require improvement in the company.

If business organizations in the tourism sector decided to make this move towards GNH, it will require from them a mindset shift and the company have to incorporate a non-economic indicators encompassing aspects such as job satisfaction, contribution to the community, and environmental considerations (Cloutier & Pfeiffer, 2015; Hadi et al., 2018; Olesen & Wiking, 2017), in addition to economic indicators. The businesses in the tourism sector have the opportunity to include GNH principles as one of their primary goals, so it could contribute to creating sustainable socio-economic conditions. Integrating these principles could allow companies to use a holistic approach for running their business and

managers will assure that their business is running at full potential. Thereby, increasing employee's happiness and improving organizational conditions for happiness could support management to make an easy and smooth shift towards STM. Nowadays, consumers are more informed than ever and now they are looking for more than a product or quality of services when choosing a tourism destination. Supportive facts for these statements are the results of a research conducted in Spain that shows that consumers willing to pay more to visit a more sustainable tourism destination (Pulido-Fernández & López-Sánchez, 2016). Another parallel research shows that 81% of global consumers seek responsibly produced products whenever possible (Chophel & Ura, 2018; Nielson, 2018). Based on the recent studies mentioned above, the authors can summarize that consumers expect from them not only to make a profit, but they also expect companies to operate responsibly, addressing different social and environmental issues. Last but not least, the BGH could be considered as a branding process and it could help businesses to become profitable in the long run, if it gets established on core values.

What could be the advantages for companies in the sector, if they adopt GNH principles in business organizations and happiness as one of their end goals was discussed in previous sections of this paper. The authors also touched on the two central frameworks in the context of sustainable development: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Triple Bottom Line. CSR was discussed as an assessment tool and the authors have attempted to link it to SD. Now, the researchers will take a closer look at CSR as a framework for companies in the tourism industry. However, it should be noticed that some authors considered it as an inadequate, and perhaps detrimental, representation of 'organizational sustainability' (Malindretos, 2013). In this regard, CSR and 3BL are too specific, but they do not consider happiness as one of the business's end goals (Zangmo et al., 2017).

The increasing numbers of academic studies on happiness over the last 12 years, could be considered and perceived as one of the most important stimulating innovations in the economy. These studies provide experts with tools to test the "old hypotheses" in a new way and allow them to combine subjective researches with objective data (such as life expectancy, income and education) that allow them to be processed with logical models. In recent years, the recognition of happiness and prosperity as a global goals of the UN has been initiated by Bhutan, which used happiness (GNH) as a measure of its national well-being instead of GDP (United Nations, 2012; Verma, 2017) since 1972.

Referring to the resilient features of ST, SD and the shortcomings of existing instruments, the authors propose the BGH framework as a tool that could adopt the basic GNH principles and could be used to measure the happiness of companies in the tourism industry. In the last 8 years sustainable tourism researchers' and practitioners' attention has been dedicated to the relationship between tourism and subjective well-being, however, studies have mainly focused on the tourist side (Chen, 2016; Liu, 2013; Lohmann & De Bloom, 2015; McCabe & Johnson, 2013; Ram et al., 2013; Ramgulam et al., 2013; Schroeder, 2015). Few studies were focused on residents happiness (Bimonte & Faralla, 2016; Croes et al., 2017; Rivera et al., 2016; Séraphin et al., 2018) and only 3 studies adopted some indicators of the GNH index in their researches (Chen, 2016; Croes, et al., 2017; Pratt, et al., 2016). According to the above mentioned, the authors can recap that happiness and GNH are not new to the tourism industry. There are enough empirical studies that show the correlation between happiness and tourism. Even though happiness is of paramount importance for the tourism industry, existing academic papers in the field do not review it from companies' viewpoints. The authors of this paper try to underline the importance of the tourism organizations' adoption and application of the GNH principles and behaviors in their relations with all stakeholders (Rosengren, 2018). In this regard, the Business Gross Happiness framework could be used as a tool to bring rational and responsible behavior in the tourism sector.

STRUCTURE OF BGH FRAMEWORK

BGH framework is constructed maintaining as base the GNH Index with its 9 domains and 33 indicators (Ura et al., 2012). It is developed by utilizing and adopting the 9-domain based framework, and these main domains are grouped under 2 main sub-groups of assessment components: Employees' happiness that contains 29 indicators with 115 variables, and Organizational condition for happiness that contains 21 indicators with 108 variables. Employees' happiness construct is dependent on collection of primary data via structured interviews. The second construct Organization condition for happiness is dependent on both: primary and secondary data. The primary data for it could be collected via structured interviews and the secondary data could be collected via official published company documents and reports. The researchers would like to clarify that the whole methodology utilized and adopted for this assessment tool is like this that is used for the GNH Index (Ura et al., 2012). This methodology has 3 steps:

identifying and applying sufficiency threshold, determination of weight scheme, and aggregating and scoring. But in this paper, the researchers show only the main framework of BGH and the identification of two main sub-groups of the assessment tool, the main domains, and indicators that could be used in the future when the Business Gross Happiness Index will be designed. So, researchers' work in this paper could be defined as identification step of the above-mentioned methodology.

In the text below the authors try briefly to describe the influence and roles of the 9 main domains of BGH on companies in the tourism sector and the advantages and positives of practices of adopting Sustainable tourism management.

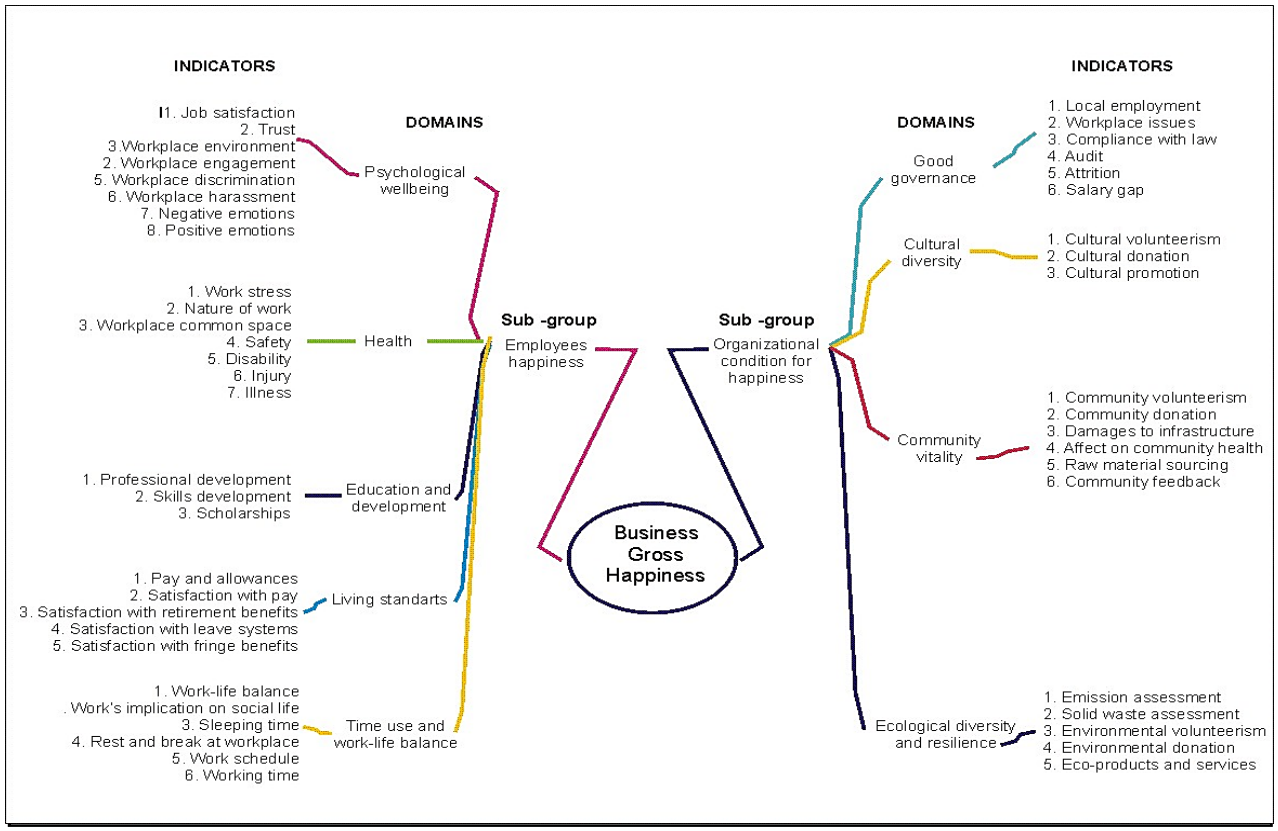

Figure 3. *Business Gross Happiness framework*
(Source: Utilized and adapted from Ura et al., 2012 and Verma, 2017)

Today`s worker happiness is associated with better productivity, while managers have new perspective on wellbeing and happiness as leading indicators of performance (De Neve et al., 2013; De Neve & Ward, 2017; Sgroi et al., 2017). And based on the above mentioned approach, it could be inferred that when the concept of wellbeing merges with business,

money paid on initiatives for increasing workers' wellbeing is often accepted as an investment to increase productivity (Bryson et al., 2015). Thus, it might dominate as the core concept of GNH, which considers workers' happiness as one of the end goals rather than using happy workers to yield profit. In the strictest sense, the businesses that choose to integrate the GNH concept have to avoid viewing everything in terms of economic value and start considering their societal value (Zangmo et al., 2017). In this line of thought, managers can invest and encourage employees to seek and experience happiness at the workplace. As happiness is one of the most basic human pursuits (Graham, 2014), employees' happiness is a vital component to be integrated into the tool. There are a lot of work-related factors that could affect employee happiness. Some of them could be grouped as physical components such as good pay, benefits and training opportunities that can lead to a strong sense of happiness (Jobstreet, 2017; Joo & Lee, 2017). Other unseen subjective components, such as the relationship with colleagues (Říha et al., 2017), supervisors, work-life balance, etc., can provide additional insights on the workforce happiness (Fisher, 2010; Keser, 2016; Sousa & Porto, 2015). Due to these reasons, employees' happiness is the first sub-group in the BGH framework that the authors discuss and draw the importance of it. The construct could be conceptualized and measured through a set of tangible and intangible factors across the five domains of *psychological wellbeing, health, time use, education and living standards.*

The psychological wellbeing domain contains indicators for the mental and physical experience at the workplace. It captures cognitive judgments and affective feelings of the employees and could be measured through 8 indicators: *job satisfaction, trust, workplace environment, workplace engagement, discrimination and harassment, positive and negative emotions*. Business management can treat company members like a family and this could help for improving the psychological wellbeing of employees (Bryson et al., 2015). Employee-oriented STM could consult, include, and listen to the organization members when they take important decisions. This kind of close relationship strengthens trust and increases the level of satisfaction among members of the teams and employees at companies (Pai & Krishnan, 2015; Rosengren, 2018; Sulakhe & Bakre, 2019). The advantage of members' regular interactions ensures better communication, networking and trust among teams and colleagues. So this kind of close-knit platform can contribute to reducing workplace discrimination (Prasad, 2017; Singh & Aggarwal, 2018). Sustainable tourism management could minimize stress related to unemployment and also enhance employees' job satisfaction

(Bakotić, 2016). As per the results of studies conducted in the UK and Australia, by Robert Half company, feelings appreciated are one of the top drivers of happiness, alongside being treated with fairness and respect at the workplace. Feeling appreciated is particularly important to employees and it is the strongest determinant of happiness for workers, as per the above-mentioned studies in both countries (Henry & Pink, 2016, 2017).

Above mentioned papers and studies show us the important role that STM could play at the Business organization level in improving employee's psychological wellbeing, which is one of the main domains of the BGH framework. The second domain in employees' happiness sub-group that could be discussed is health.

Health domain could be measured trough 7 indicators (see Fig.3). Some authors discussed that STM at the organization level could improve employees' physical and mental health, thereby the authors could address „health" as a dimension of the BGH framework. Good STM could redound to reducing the mental stress of employees with frequent interactions among colleagues (Keser, 2016). One of the possible arguments for it is that members discuss solutions to their problems like a family, so this sense of belonging among the colleges have a positive influence on their (perceived in some instances) health (Rego et al., 2010; Şahin, 2018). STM has an opportunity to create awareness on health issues during gathering among employees (Esmail & Shili, 2018), to improve the public health, and boost household income by creating employment opportunities (Pratt et al., 2016; Şahin, 2018; Sulakhe & Bakre, 2019). Reviewed studies show the potentials of STM to improve health and on this basis have an important role in optimizing GNH as health determines the happiness of employees (Centre for Bhutan Studies & GNH, 2017).

Time use and work-life balance domain could be measured via 6 indicators. Different studies show the correlation between working hours and employees' jobs satisfaction (Chophel & Ura, 2018; Oswald et al., 2014). In this regards business organizations could have flexible working hours so this would allow employees to have more time for meeting family, education, leisure, social commitments (De Neve & Ward, 2017; Fisher, 2010) and allow workers to have a good work-life balance.

Education domain. STM could educate their employees and at the same time give them opportunities to improve other sides of their life necessary for happiness, but they could vary depending on different personalities because every person has his/her definition and

understanding of happiness. This domain could be measured via 3 indicators as visible on fig.3

Living standards domain could be measured trough 5 indicators. STM has the potential to improve people's standard of living, therefore, different countries promote tourism as the main driver of the nation's development. Sustainable tourism can generate employment opportunities in the community, enabling people to earn decent incomes (European Commission, 2016; Wu et al., 2019), reduce poverty and improve people's standard of living (UNWTO, 2018).

Overall, the authors could recap the following:

a) Employees' happiness construct includes 5 domains and 29 indicators that provide insights on workplace commitment and opportunities to improve the working conditions.

b) Worker happiness is aimed at instilling a duty of care for worker's welfare. A significant association has been observed between workplace happiness and overall life quality (Schulte et al., 2015).

c) Worker happiness is an essential component for integrating GNH into business for several reasons. First, the conventional wisdom for an economy to disregard worker's emotional, social and spiritual needs does not hold any longer (Demircioglu, 2014; Fisher, 2010), and second, there is a need to integrate ecological and social values into business to capture the full range of human values and needs at the workplace (Green et al., 2016; Mendlewicz, 2019). People spend a long time at work, especially in the tourism sector, so the balance between workplace and personal life is very important and events experienced at workplace influence events in non-work life (De Neve & Ward, 2017). Meanwhile, the working environment could evolve and this changing environment could bring the drive to align employees' personal and professional life.

Depending on the above-discussed issues, it is objective to review and discuss what could be the organizational conditions for happiness. They are accepted as a second sub-group of domains in BGH. This construct includes *good governance, cultural diversity, community vitality and ecological diversity domains*.

Good governance domain in this context includes the ST values and principles which go together with other national and international specific laws regarding the tourism industry. Individuals that take leadership responsibilities have the opportunity to learn specific skills, knowledge and

behavior necessary for governing groups and organizations (Demircioglu, 2014; Southworth, 2013; Tideman, 2016). Education and training programs provided by the company, such as leadership, office management and others, could also enhance their governing skills. STM can make policy recommendations for the benefit of wider communities (Alfaro Navarro et al., 2019; Blancas et al., 2015; UNWTO, 2017). STM guided by principles of GNH could optimize and promote good governance at organizational, local and national levels. This domain could be measured via 6 indicators (Figure 3).

Cultural diversity domain. In the tourism sector employees are very different in their ethnicity, language, nationality, religion and gender (Fisher, 2010; Mujtaba et al., 2016). The management of the sustainable tourism companies has opportunity to work with different ethnic groups and the interaction of employees with different culture during tourist stay, team building/training, and other learning activities promote cultural diversity in the organization. In this regard, the researchers claim that ST plays a significant role in the preservation and promotion of culture (He, et al., 2018; Nezakati & Hosseinpour, 2014; Pratt, et al., 2016). Similarly, there are other forms of sustainable tourism dealing with conventional local products preserving and promoting culture (Goni & Yustika, 2019). Such community-friendly organizations can develop traditional knowledge through trial and error (Schroeder, 2015). Further, ST can preserve and pass traditional knowledge to future generations. These social capitals through cultural participation are more stable and help to develop strong relations across differences in the communities. The cultural diversities among employees of ST strengthen the social relationship, which is vital for optimizing sustainability and BGH, and this domain could be measured trough 3 indicators.

Community vitality domain could be measured via 6 indicators. Important indicators of community vitality are social support, community relationship and community security (Musikanski et al., 2017; Vikash, 2019). ST shares resources, ensures access to markets and prevents discrimination in the market (Kisi, 2019). The interactive environment, necessitated by interdependence at all levels of ST companies, fosters the sense of belonging among people (Schinzel, 2013). The community-based engagement of people through ST implies a peaceful society based on the principles of interdependence, reciprocity, mutual benefit and peaceful coexistence (Dangi & Jamal, 2016). "Concern for the community" could be accepted as one of the ST principles. Employees and teams that often engage in voluntary activities contributes to improving people's well-being. The

vibrancy and vitality of community life are indispensable in optimizing GNH. Last but not least, the authors have to review the ecological diversity domain.

Ecological diversity domain. ST incorporates a wide range of activities, including ecotourism, green tourism, rural and agro-tourism, community tourism, solidarity and responsible tourism, all these opposing to the traditional, mass tourism (He et al., 2018; Nezakati & Hosseinpour, 2014). Thus, ST attempts to harmonize the human-environment interactions by adopting the Triple Bottom Line that considers people, planet and profit (Wu et al., 2019). STM could also enable people to find innovative solutions to environmental changes by allowing them to diversify their economic activities and embrace more green and innovative practices (Fernando et al., 2019; Marcon et al., 2016; Nezakati & Hosseinpour, 2014). The emerging importance of using renewable energy in ST is highlighted in some papers (Petit, 2019; Union for the Mediterranean, n.d.), by enabling the world societies to move forward in the global quest to curtail the carbon emission and use of fossil fuels. In socio-political respects (Lee et al., 2015), STM facilitates environmental policy formulation, endorsement and achievement of the policy goals through diligent implementation of these policies in their activities and localities (Drius et al., 2018; Kisi, 2019; Kraleva et al., 2020). These examples allow us to address STM to BGH domain of ecological diversity and resilience, and this domain could be measured trough 6 indicators (see Figure 3).

The proposed framework allows managers to see organizational conditions for happiness, the level of penetration of GNH values in their corporate philosophy, allow them to see what is the level of acceptance and adaptation of GNH principles, and show the advantages of the GNH on the business culture. This could lead to a strong business culture- that attracts customers and employees, in a way that any advertising cannot. A strong culture is resistant, agile, and able to survive in difficult times. BGH could be a sign of the cultural health of the company. It could also help managers to reinforce happiness skills and prepare a strategic plan in accordance with them. It could be a barometer for employees' motivation for work and could allow them to do their job sustainably. In order to have a happy organization, we have to measure the right thing and to strive to have happy employees as happiness could be sustainable.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Tourism is a complex sector by nature, consisting of multiple actors with diverse interests. Companies met different challenges in resource consumption, environmental pollution, policymaking and implementation in connection with SD. One of the main obstacles to achieving SD is the difficulty of measuring the level of sustainability achieved by companies in the sector, destinations, etc. Although there are no universally-accepted lists of indicators, the usage of discussed tools as a measure of sustainability has become widespread in recent years. However, the application of these tools in the tourism sector is not effortless given the lack of a clear definition of the concept of sustainable tourism. It plays a big role in environmental conservation and driving to socioeconomic development which is mentioned in several of the SDGs. STD guidelines and management practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations. Sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development, and an appropriate balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability. In this regard and based on UNWTO definition for ST the researchers could summarize: STM could optimally use the environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity. Another very important topic regarding STM is that the companies in the sector have to respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, to conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and to contribute to intercultural understanding, tolerance and happiness. STM has to do its best to ensure sustainable long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation. STD requires informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus-building. Achieving ST is an endless process and it requires monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary.

Referring to above-discussed issues and intersection between SD, ST, the wellbeing of the community, GNH and BGH (that is summarized by the authors in Table 3.), the authors could say all of them have same cross points of three main pillars – social, environmental and economic. Based on that

inference, the Table 3 visualizes the relations of the proposed BGH framework and its domains to the ST, SD, the wellbeing of the community and the GNH.

Table 2. *The relations among SD, ST, Wellbeing of community sustainability, GNH and BGH*

Sustainable development	**Sustainable tourism**	**Wellbeing of community sustainability**	**GNH pillars**	**BGH framework**	
				Domains of BGH	**Sub-groups**
Social progress	Socio- cultural sustainability	Cultural	Culture (preservation of culture)	Time use and work-life balance	Employee happiness
				Community vitality	Organizational conditions for happiness
				Cultural resilience	Organizational condition for happiness
				Wellbeing (psychological wellbeing)	Employee happiness
		Social	Society (good governance)	Good governance	Organizational conditions for happiness
Economic development	Economic sustainability	Economic	Economy (sustainable, equitable economic development)	Health	Employee happiness
				Education and development	Employee happiness
				Living standards	Employee happiness
Environmental responsibility	Environmental sustainability	Environmental	Environment (conservation of environment)	Ecological diversity	Organizational conditions for happiness

Largely, ST plays a significant role in delivering solutions to problematic issues through the framework of all 17 SDGs. Based on the connection with SDGs and General assembly resolution 70/193, 2017 year was declared as the "International Year of Sustainable tourism development". Based on the above-discussed issues, Figure 1, Figure 2 and Table 3 relations between the pillars of sustainability, ST, happiness and distribution of SDGs could clearly be seen. Happiness and wellbeing are related to the social sustainability pillar and with increased interest in happiness as a global measure of success on a national and international level, it could be used as an appropriate concept for STM. In this paper, the authors discussed the conceptual framework of STD and tried to propose a holistic approach for STM following SDGs, the GNH concept and covering all aspects of sustainability. Referring to discussed matters regarding ST and assessment tools, the proposed adaptation of GNH values in business organizations in the sector will help them to change the current

unsustainable model of business management in a holistic way. The proposed BGH framework could help managers oversee what are organizational conditions and issues which contribute to employees' happiness and happiness of the organization as a whole and to help them to do their best in the achievement of the SDGs of Agenda 2030 for SD. Based on reviewed studies, the authors could also assert that STM has the potential to improve and optimize its business by using BGH framework, by improving workers' happiness and organizational conditions for happiness. Unlike other profit-driven business models, companies that would adopt BGH will have the ability to achieve not only economic benefits, but also such for the environment, socio-culture and good governance.

This research, based on previous studies, allows authors to see the positive impacts of the GNH concept on STM, but there is a need for further empirical studies to test the above-mentioned discussions. This study could inspire researchers in the future to study STM empirically through the lens of GNH by the BGH framework proposed in this study in the context of business organizations in tourism. Adoption GNH values in the company's goals will help them to go through completing SDGs of Agenda 2030 and will help them to achieve profits sustainably and holistically.

As a conclusion of this paper, the researchers can summarize that the current unsustainable business practices of tourism firms have conflicts between balancing economic growth and environmental impacts. There are inconsistencies between academics' researches and their findings, and implementations in the sector, which reflect the need for collaboration between researchers and businesses in order to realize researchers' recommendations and study results in STM. The authors hope that this work will inspire other colleagues to use the proposed BGH framework for empirical tests in order to examine the gap between scholarly works and real application into the business. In this regard, the authors could recommend the BGH framework to be adopted for Bulgarian companies and to be used as an assessment tool that will help the management to apply STM on the local and regional levels.

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ANALYSIS OF FACTORS AFFECTING HEALTH TOURISM PERFORMANCE USING FUZZY DEMATEL METHOD

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ABSTRACT

In health tourism, an important sub-branch of the tourism sector, the increase in the number of organizations in the service industry in response to increasing demand has led institutions to transform in line with global standards to gain a competitive advantage. Today, due to the steady increase in its share in the sector, it is necessary to establish an assessment infrastructure to measure health tourism performance. This study suggests an infrastructure for determining the factors affecting health tourism. There is no widely accepted standard assessment methodology in determining criteria affecting tourism performance in the literature. However, with a standard assessment structure, it can be possible to rank the achievement of the organizations serving health tourism. Therefore, the Fuzzy DEMATEL method is used as a multi-criteria decision-making approach based on fuzzy logic to determine the factors affecting health tourism performance. This study contributes to the literature in terms of presenting the criteria for the assessment of the health tourism performance in a standard structure for researchers, and in which dimensions the organizations should consider their performance.

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INTRODUCTION

The tourism sector in Turkey, and in the world, is rapidly developing and transforming into a big market, with alternative tourism types also emerging. Creating new jobs, increasing revenues, and making new investments in this sector is considered a way for the development of the regional and national economy. This requires the knowledge of what the main factors affecting tourism performance are (İlban & Yıldırım, 2017). Based on the general performance definition, tourism performance (Croes, 2005; Nair, 2013; Benito et al., 2014; Aissa & Goaied, 2017) is defined as the evaluation of all efforts made in the realization of the sector's objectives. There is an increase in health-based goals among the most common tourist travels. Tourists in health tourism activities tend to participate in many of the general touristic activities, in addition to the medical services they receive. The increase in the popularity of health tourism reflects on the economic value created by the industry, which highlights it among other alternative types in terms of return on tourism (Bookman & Bookman, 2007). Reducing the individual and public burden of health care costs in developed countries also creates opportunities for developing countries in the understanding of health tourism (Turner, 2007). This study aims to demonstrate the relationship between the criteria affecting health tourism performance. A performance criterion is a measure that can generate quantitative value by considering single and multiple aspects to indicate the level of performance (Parida & Kumar, 2006). In the literature, many researchers emphasize the need for a study that defines tourism performance criteria and ranks their relative importance (Assaf & Josiassen, 2012).

Health tourism includes taking advantage of different holiday opportunities in parallel with travel to tourist destinations, as well as receiving a specific health service. Health tourism around the world is recognized as one of the earliest forms of tourism, practiced since antiquity (Ross, 2001; Bookman & Bookman, 2007; Draghici et al., 2016). The idea that vacation enhances physical and emotional well-being, together with the accessibility of international health services, as an important component of the modern industry, continues to support the emergence of health tourism as a well-designed concept (Goodrich & Goodrich, 1987; Heung et al., 2010).

Under the concept of health tourism, four tourism sub-markets are examined, including accessible tourism, medical tourism, thermal tourism and senior tourism. Each sub-market has its own characteristics. However, basically, within the scope of health tourism, the expectations of the tourists

differ from other mass tourists since they need special and qualified tourist products (Tontus, 2016). Therefore, the motivations of travelers for health tourism are based on individual wellness. The product of health tourism is multifaceted, and tourists traveling for health are demanding to benefit from a wide range of services in terms of the conditions and benefits. Underlying factors of general trends are their interest in healthy lifestyles and willingness to spend on health.

For many years, people have been traveling to developing countries to get high quality health care at affordable prices from developed countries. Another purpose of medical tourists in destinations such as Turkey, India, Hungary, and Thailand is to benefit from health services and treatment in the major tourist centers, while combining it with participation in tourism activities (Saleh et al., 2015). Deloitte (2014) also emphasizes that one of the biggest reasons for choosing a foreign country for healthcare is cost. Turkey, in terms of the price of health care, has a number of competitive advantages compared with the US and Europe. Although there is a lot of literature on the competitiveness of medical tourism, it does not describe the framework of international competitiveness (Kılavuz, 2018). However, as discussed, countries with positive destination characteristics such as cultural and historical areas, beaches, political and economic stability, hospitality, service quality, are more likely to stand out in this race. Turkey is one of the most attractive countries in the world considering its destination image characteristics. For this reason, Turkey has a strategic advantage in terms of attractiveness as a tourist destination and health services, compared to other destinations.

When health tourism is analyzed in terms of service delivery, it is divided into two groups: medical and wellness (Reed, 2008; Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Loh, 2014; Smith & Puczko, 2014). Medical tourism includes travel across international borders, especially for the purpose of receiving medical care. The overall motivation of those participating in this type of tourism is based on reasons such as cost savings and/or treatment taking less time at medical tourism destination than the waiting time for treatment in their origin country (Snyder et al., 2011). The increase in technological accessibility has also led to the emergence of new companies (i.e., medical travel agencies) that mediate and provide assistance between international patients and hospital networks, thereby further facilitating growth. As the popularity and reputation of health tourism continue to grow, opportunities for both hospitality and the health sector increase (Hume & De Micco, 2007).

This article is organized as follows: firstly, the theoretical framework is explained in the introduction. The second chapter reviews the literature about the tourism performance. The third chapter explains the fuzzy DEMATEL method, while the fourth chapter suggests the method applied for the prioritization of the criterion that will assess the tourism performance. Finally, the fourth chapter provides conclusions and suggestions regarding this study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Decision making is the study of identifying and selecting alternatives for the judgments of decision-makers. Prioritizing factors and sub-factors affecting tourism performance effectiveness is regarded as a multi-criteria decision-making problem (Do & Chen, 2013). Multi-Criteria Decision-Making studies and other research related to tourism performance reviewed in the literature are summarized below.

Zopounidis et al. (2010) used PROMETHEE II, one of the multi-criteria decision-making methods for a comparative analysis of tourism performance in the Mediterranean region. In their study, 13 different criteria containing qualitative and quantitative information were discussed. Wadongo et al. (2010) focused on the managerial characteristics by concentrating on the importance and usage levels of performance indicators in the hospitality industry in Kenya. Performance indicators were listed as competitiveness, financial performance, service quality, flexibility, resource utilization, supplier performance and environmental perspective.

Wang et al. (2016) used the Fuzzy DELPHI and Fuzzy Analytic Hierarchy Process to create a performance indicator framework for the evaluation of sustainable tourism in the Taiwan coastal area. The criteria covered in the study were environment and ecology, economy and development, society and culture, value creation in tourism, management and policy, and climate. Diaz and Rodriguez (2016) conducted a statistical study to determine the performance and sustainability factors of tourism destinations in Spain. Competitiveness, quality, tourist satisfaction, expenses, profit sector, the annual occupancy rate, tourists' extra expenditures, employee satisfaction, the effect on the economy, stability and employment growth, cooperation among agencies, customer loyalty, emotional experience, and image were indicated in terms of performance and customer criteria to measure tourism destination.

Han et al. (2018) used statistical methods in their study on the role of wellness spa tourism performance in establishing destination loyalty in Thailand. Performance factors emerged as the quality of treatment, variety of service options, therapist and assistant personnel and resources. İlban and Yıldırım (2017) analyzed the tourism performance of 15 countries, which are the most popular global tourism destinations, using TOPSIS method in order to determine tourism activities in the world's best tourism destinations. In their studies, they determined international tourism expenditures, revenues, arrival numbers, and departure numbers as the main criteria. Seraphin et al. (2018) utilized a multi-criteria decision-making method for the selection of destinations in Cuba based on tourism performance in their study. They cited criteria for the destination as supporting factors and resources, policy planning and development, management, as well as qualifier and explanatory factors.

Lakicevic and Durkalic (2018) used PROMETHEE, one of the multi-criteria decision-making methods, to measure tourism market performance in European Union countries. The number of foreign tourists, the number of domestic tourists, the number of hotels, pollution, population density, railway lines, airline terminals, and cost of living were revealed as performance criteria. Niavis and Tsiotas (2019) used data envelopment analysis to assess the tourism performance of Mediterranean coastal destinations in terms of effectiveness and efficiency. In their study, performance dimensions, location, bed, shore, and labor capacity as input and total demand as output were determined.

As highlighted in the literature, tourism performance criteria are handled together with sustainability factors under the umbrella of market potential and destination (Wadongo et al., 2010; Pnevmatikoudi & Stavrinoudis, 2016; Ribeiro et al., 2019). This shows that there is a gap in terms of health tourism. As a result of a detailed literature review and expert opinions, the criteria for measuring health tourism performance, considered as a gap in the related literature, were derived. These criteria are listed as follows: service quality, customer satisfaction, safety, innovation, resource utilization, social perspective, time, financial performance, price, supplier performance, flexibility, environmental perspective, employee satisfaction, and competition.

- Service Quality: Maintaining the 5-star hotel classification, evaluating the attitudes and behaviors of the guests, evaluating the services such as recreation for the guests,

- Customer Satisfaction: Customers' satisfaction with the service they receive,
- Security: Degree of the building ensures personal safety,
- Innovation: Number of innovative product and service,
- Resource Utilization (machinery, equipment, labor, etc.): Frequency of equipment failure,
- Social Perspective: Number of community service projects, number of corporate sponsorships,
- Time: Meeting customer needs on time, delivering products and services of guests on time,
- Financial Performance: Net profit, gross profit, turnover, total income, food and beverage sales,
- Price: Average room rate per day,
- Supplier Performance (Agent Performance): Timely delivery of hotel suppliers, meeting standard purchase specifications,
- Flexibility: Adapting to guests' wishes and needs,
- Environmental Perspective: Number of environmental projects undertaken by the hotel, participation in environmental protection programs,
- Employee Satisfaction: Employee job satisfaction,
- Competition: Monitoring competitors' performance by questioning market share, growth in sales, and occupancy levels.

Based on the literature reviewed above, it was concluded that the Multi-Criteria Decision-Making Method that would relate to the tourism performance criteria could be DEMATEL and that fuzzy logic should be used to eliminate uncertainty that would arise from expert opinions. In the original DEMATEL, the relationship between decision factors is evaluated through clear values, thereby building a structural model. However, in many practical applications, people's judgments are often unclear, and the exact value is not enough to estimate the ambiguous interdependence between standards (Sheng-Li et al., 2018). It is important to use a measurement method that will allow critical evaluation beyond a structural evaluation, especially in a study on performance. Therefore, the concept of fuzzy sets has been applied to the DEMATEL method by many researchers.

METHODOLOGY

DEMATEL is a multi-criteria decision-making technique that establishes a causality relationship between complex factors in a structural model, enabling classification through the interactions of these factors (Tzeng et al., 2007; Wu & Lee, 2007). The Decision-Making Trial and Evaluation Laboratory Method (DEMATEL) method was first developed by the Geneva Battelle Memorial Institute in Geneva between 1972 and 1976 (Tzeng et al., 2007; Wu, 2008). DEMATEL method turns the relationship into an understandable structural model to analyze interdependent relationships between factors in a complex system and to rank them in determining the scope of long-term strategic decision making and improvement. With DEMATEL, factors can be listed according to their importance, and the level of influence between them can be determined. Recently, researchers have indicated suitability of combining with fuzzy theory-based approaches in order to eliminate the complexity of meaning created by the quantitative expression of the degree of interaction between factors (Liu et al., 2012; Baykaşoğlu et al., 2013; Organ, 2013; Altuntaş & Yılmaz, 2016; GökKısa & Perçin, 2017; Nilashi et al., 2019). Fuzzy theory is very useful for dealing with the ambiguity of human thought and language when making decisions. Decision-makers tend to make assessments based on their experience and knowledge and express their ideas often in linguistic language terms. Therefore, the need to use fuzzy logic in decision-making problems became apparent (Kaufmann & Gupta, 1991). The Fuzzy DEMATEL method integrates classical DEMATEL approach with the Fuzzy Set Theory (Zadeh, 1965) and develops solutions based on fuzzy numbers. Thus, the relationship between relative concepts and criteria based on linguistic descriptions can be determined instead of crisp numerical descriptions. The procedure of the Fuzzy DEMATEL technique is listed below (Lin & Wu, 2008).

Step 1: Set the decision goal and set up a committee

The first step in decision-making process is selection of the participants who will form an expert committee in which the intended targets are determined, and the necessary information about the problem is collected.

Step 2: Develop the evaluation criteria and design the fuzzy linguistic scale

In this step, the criteria must be determined for evaluation. Significant relationships between these factors should be established by experts to

determine cause and effect factors. After these relationships are established, pairwise comparisons between the criteria must be made. In comparison, fuzzy scale applied to determine to what extent one factor affects another was used. According to this scale, there are five linguistic terms, which are defined as "*very high, high, low, very low, no*," as one factor affects another factor as linguistic value. Triangular fuzzy numbers corresponding to these linguistic terms are presented in Table 1 and Figure 1 (Li, 1999).

Table 1. *Fuzzy Linguistic Scale*

Linguistic Terms	Fuzzy Values
Very high influence (VH)	(0.75; 1.00; 1.00)
High influence (H)	(0.50; 0.75; 1.00)
Low influence (L)	(0.25; 0.50; 0.75)
Very low influence (VL)	(0.00; 0.25; 0.50)
No influence (No)	(0.00; 0.00; 0.25)

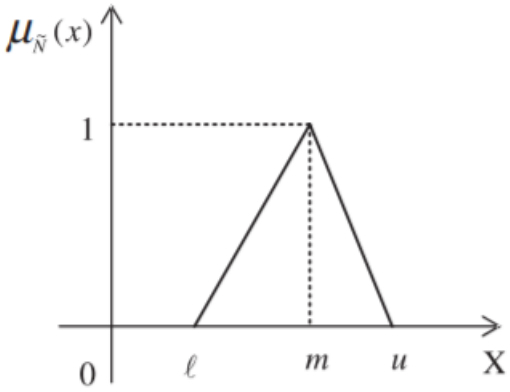

Figure 1. *Triangular Fuzzy Numbers*

Step 3: Create a direct relationship matrix with data acquired from decision-makers

In this step, the pairwise comparison matrix is created using the linguistic scale where decision-makers determine the level of relations between the specified C={C1, C2 …. Cn} n number of criteria. The decision matrix (p) as many as the number of experts in the decision group is acquired. $\tilde{Z}$ is obtained as a fuzzy direct relation matrix. The $\tilde{z}_{ij}$ value indicates the degree to which *i* criterion influences the *j* criterion.

$$\tilde{Z}^{(k)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & \tilde{z}_{1n}^{k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{z}_{n1}^{k} & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \; k = 1,2,3..,p,$$

$$\tilde{z}_{ij} = (l_{ij} \; , m_{ij} \; , u_{ij} \;) \tag{1}$$

Step 4: Acquire the normalized direct-relation fuzzy matrix

Following equation formulas obtain the normalized direct relation matrix. The values of u in each criterion representing the last of the triangular fuzzy numbers are collected in columns, and a single value is obtained for each column. The biggest of these obtained values is selected, and this value is defined as r.

$$r^{(k)} = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} u_{ij}^{k} \right) \tag{2}$$

Then the whole matrix is divided into r, and a normalized direct relation matrix is obtained. The normalized direct relation matrix is denoted by $\tilde{X}$. $\tilde{X}$ is obtained from the average of the normalized direct relationship matrices of all participants.

$$\tilde{X}^{(k)} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}_{11}^{(k)} & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{1n}^{k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{x}_{n1}^{(k)} & \cdots & \tilde{x}_{nn}^{k} \end{bmatrix}; \; k = 1,2,3..,p,$$

$$\tilde{X}_{ij}^{(k)} = \frac{\tilde{z}_{ij}^{(k)}}{r^{(k)}} = \left(\frac{l_{ij}}{r^{(k)}}, \frac{m_{ij}}{r^{(k)}}, \frac{u_{ij}}{r^{(k)}} \right)$$

$$\tilde{X} = \left(\frac{\tilde{X}^{(1)} + \tilde{X}^{(2)} + \cdots + \tilde{X}^{(p)}}{p} \right) \tag{3}$$

Step 5: Establish the structural model showing the importance and cause-effect relationships between the criteria

After the normalized relationship matrix is obtained, the $\tilde{T}$ total relationship matrix is created using the equations below. After the total relation matrix $\tilde{T}$ is obtained, $\tilde{D}_i$+ $\tilde{R}_i$ and $\tilde{D}_i$ −$\tilde{R}_i$values are calculated to give the sum of the row elements in the matrix $\tilde{D}_i$, and the sum of the line elements in the matrix is $\tilde{R}_i$.

$$\tilde{T} = \lim_{k \to \infty} (X + \; X^2 + \cdots + X^k = X(1 - X)^{-1}$$

$$\widetilde{D}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} t_{ij}\ (i = 1,2,..,n)\tilde{R}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{ij}\ \ (j = 1,2,\dots,n) \quad (4)$$

Clarification is applied to turn the obtained D + R and D - R values into a single value. The abbreviation "def" on the formulas means the word "defuzzifying," which means clarification. Clarification is conducted with the formula mentioned below.

$$D_i^{def} + R_i^{def} = {}^{1}/_{4}\,(1 + 2m + u)$$

$$D_i^{def} - R_i^{def} = {}^{1}/_{4}\,(1 + 2m + u) \quad (5)$$

Using the D + R and D - R values obtained after the clarification process, the effect and relationship level of each criterion with other criteria are determined. In the causal relationship matrix, D + R is on the horizontal axis, and D-R is on the vertical axis. The criteria in which the D - R value is negative have a lower effect and priority over other criteria and are referred to as the receiver criteria. D + R values indicate the level of the relationship between the criteria. Criteria with high D + R value are more correlated with the other criteria. Criteria with low D + R value are less correlated with the other criteria.

Step 6: Determination of weights

The weights of the criteria are determined by using the following formula:

$$w_i = \sqrt{\left(D_i^{def} + R_i^{def}\right)^2 + \ \left(D_i^{def} - R_i^{def}\right)^2}$$

$$W_i = \frac{w_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i} \quad (6)$$

FINDINGS

Tourism is an important sector in Antalya as well as Turkey that has developed and expanded rapidly in recent years and is used as a tool for regional and national development, both as well as the growth potential of the sector and many other industries (Çımat & Bahar, 2003). In the implementation of this study, the evaluation of criteria to determine performance of health tourism was carried out. Aim of the study is to determine the cause and effect criteria by revealing the extent of the relationship between the fuzzy DEMATEL method and performance criteria to address the complexity. During the implementation, evaluations of an expert group of decision-makers in health tourism of the tourism sector were taken as a basis. Thus, the first step of setting the study goal and determining the decision-makers is completed.

Table 2. *Factors Influencing Health Tourism Performance*

Criteria
C1 Service Quality
C2 Customer Satisfaction
C3 Safety
C4 Innovation
C5 Resource Utilization
C6 Social Perspective
C7 Time
C8 Financial Performance
C9 Price
C10 Supplier Performance
C11 Flexibility
C12 Environmental Perspective
C13 Employee Satisfaction
C14 Competition

In the second step, criteria were acquired from the literature and reviewed by a team of experts in order to apply them to health tourism, and necessary additions were made. Study was held with 3 experts within the scope of the research. One of the experts interviewed has been a manager in the tourism sector for many years. The second expert is a manager in a medical tourism company. The third is a professor who works in the field of tourism. All the criteria obtained are seen in Table 2. The relationships among criteria were prepared as Table 2 according to the linguistic evaluations of decision-makers according to linguistic terms in Table 1. The assessment of the expert group was combined and evaluated. In the Table 3, mutual interaction is presented in the light of the opinions of the expert

group. For example, the effect size of C1 criterion on C2 is presented in the C2-C1 column, and the effect of C2 criterion on C1 is presented in the C1-C2 column.

Table 3. *Comparing the Criteria with Linguistic Terms of Decision-Makers*

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11	C12	C13	C14
C1	0	4	3	3	4	3	5	5	5	3	4	2	2	4
C2	5	0	3	4	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	2	2	4
C3	2	2	0	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	3
C4	2	3	2	0	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	2	1	3
C5	3	3	3	2	0	1	2	3	2	2	3	1	2	4
C6	2	2	1	1	1	0	1	2	2	2	3	1	2	3
C7	4	4	4	3	2	1	0	3	4	3	5	1	2	5
C8	5	5	3	5	2	1	4	0	5	4	4	1	2	4
C9	5	3	2	5	4	2	5	5	0	4	5	1	3	5
C10	3	4	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	0	3	1	2	3
C11	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	5	5	5	0	2	2	5
C12	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	0	2	3
C13	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	0	1
C14	4	4	4	2	3	1	4	4	5	2	5	1	1	0

(5: very high, 4: high, 3: low, 2: very low, 1: no)

In the second step, by using triangular fuzzy number values corresponding to linguistic terms in Table 4, a direct relation matrix is obtained.

Table 4. *Direct Relationship Matrix*

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7
	C8	C9	C10	C11	C12	C13	C14
C1	(0,0,0)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.75,1,1)
	(0.75,1,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.5,0.75,1)
C2	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,0)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.75,1,1)
	(0.75,1,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.5,0.75,1)
C3	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,0)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,025)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)
	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)
C4	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,0)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)
	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)
C5	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,0)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)
	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.5,0.75,1)
C6	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,0)	(0,0,025)
	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)
C7	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,0)
	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.75,1,1)
C8	(0.75,1,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0.5,0.75,1)
	(0,0,0)	(0.75,1,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.5,0.75,1)
C9	(0.75,1,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.75,1,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.75,1,1)
	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,0)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,025)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.75,1,1)
C10	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)
	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,0)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)
C11	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0.5,0.75,1)
	(0.75,1,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,0)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.75,1,1)
C12	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)
	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,0)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)
C13	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)
	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,25,05)	(0,0,0)	(0,0,025)
C14	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.25,0.5,0.75)	(0,0,025)	(0.5,0.75,1)
	(0.5,0.75,1)	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,25,05)	(0.75,1,1)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,025)	(0,0,0)

In the third step, using equations 1 and 2, normalized direct relationship matrix is prepared. The data is as seen in Table 5 as the matrix.

Table 5. *Normalized Direct Relationship Matrix*

	L	m	U
C1	(0.000,0.068,0.000,0.000,0.000.023,0,0.045, 0,068,0.068,0,023,0.045,0.000,0.000,0.045)	(0.000,0.091,0.023,0.023,0.045,0.023,0.068, 0.091,0,045,0.068,0,023,0.023,0.000,0.068)	(0.000,0.091,0.045,0.045,0.045,0.045,0.091, 0.091,0.091,0.068,0.091,0.045,0.023,0.091)
C2	(0.045,0.000,0.000,0.023,0.023,0.000,0.045 0.068,0.023,0.045,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.045)	(0.068,0.000,0.023,0.045,0.045,0.023,0.068, 0.091,0.045,0.068,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.068)	(0.091,0.000,0.045,0.068,0.068,0.045,0.091, 0.091,0.068,0.091,0.068,0.045,0.045,0.091)
C3	(0.023,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.045, 0.000,0.000,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.045)	(0.045,0.045,0.000,0.023,0.045,0.000,0.068, 0.023,0.023,0.023,0.045,0.000,0.000,0.068)	(0.068,0.068,0.000,0.045,0.068,0.023,0.091, 0.045,0.045,0.045,0.068,0.023,0.023,0.091)
C4	(0.023,0.045,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.023, 0.068,0.068,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000)	(0.045,0.068,0.023,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.045, 0.091,0.091,0.000,0.045,0.023,0.000,0.0023)	(0.068,0.091,0.045,0.000,0.045,0.023,0.068, 0.091,0.091,0.023,0.068,0.045,0.023,0.045)
C5	(0.045,0.068,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000, 0.000,0.045,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.023)	(0.068,0.091,0.045,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.023, 0.023,0.068,0.023,0.045,0.000,0.000,0.045,)	(0.091,0.091,0.068,0.045,0.000,0.023,0.045, 0.045,0.091,0.045,0.068,0.023,0.023,0.068)
C6	(0.023,0.045,0.000,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.000, 0.000,0.000,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000)	(0.045,0.068,0.000,0.000,0.045,0.000,0.000, 0.000,0.023,0.000,0.045,0.000,0.023,0.000,)	(0.068,0.091,0.023,0.023,0.068,0.000,0.023, 0.023,0.045,0.023,0.068,0.023,0.045,0.023)
C7	(0.068,0.068,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000, 0.045,0.068,0.045,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.045)	(0.091,0.091,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.000,0.000, 0.068,0.091,0.023,0.068,0.023,0.000,0.068)	(0.091,0.091,0.068,0.045,0.045,0.023,0.000, 0.091,0.091,0.045,0.091,0.045,0.000,0.0091)
C8	(0.068,0.068,0.023,0.023,0.000,0.023,0.000, 0.068,0.000,0.068,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.045)	(0.091,0.091,0.045,0.023,0.045,0.023,0.045, 0.000,0.091,0.023,0.091,0.000,0.000,0.068)	(0.091,0.091,0.068,0.045,0.068,0.045,0.068, 0.000,0.091,0.045,0.091,0.023,0.023,0.091)
C9	(0.068,0.068,0.023,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.045, 0.068,0.000,0.000,0.068,0.000,0.0000.068)	(0.091,0.091,0.045,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.068, 0.091,0.000,0.000,0.091,0.023,0.000,0.091)	(0.091,0.091,0.068,0.068,0.045,0.045,0.091, 0.091,0.000,0.023,0.091,0.045,0.023,0.091)
C10	(0.023,0.045,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.023, 0.045,0.045,0.000,0.068,0.000,0.000,0.000)	(0.045,0.068,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.023,0.045, 0.068,0.068,0.091,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000)	(0.068,0.091,0.068,0.045,0.045,0.045,0.068, 0.091,0.091,0.000,0.091,0.045,0.045,0.045)
C11	(0.045,0.068,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.023,0.068, 0.045,0.068,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.068	(0.068,0.091,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.045,0.091, 0.068,0.091,0.045,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.091)	(0.091,0.091,0.068,0.045,0.045,0.068,0.091, 0.091,0.091,0.068,0.000,0.045,0.023,0.091)
C12	(0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000, 0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,)	(0.023,0.023,0.000,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.000, 0.000,0.000,0.023,0.023,0.000,0.023,0.000)	(0.045,0.045,0.023,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.023, 0.023,0.023,0.045,0.045,0.000,0.023,0.045)
C13	(0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000, 0,023,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000)	(0.023,0.023,0.000,0.000,0.023,0.023,0.023, 0.045,0.023,0.023,0.023,0.023,0.000,0.000)	(0.045,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.045,0.045,0.045, 0.068,0.045,0.045,0.045,0.045,0.000,0.0023)
C14	(0.045,0.045,0.023,0.023,0.045,0.023,0.068, 0.045,0.068,0.023,0.023,0.023,0.000,0.000)	(0.068,0.068,0.045,0.045,0.068,0.045,0.091, 0.068,0.091,0.45,0.091,0.045,0.000,0.000)	(0.091,0.091,0.068,0.068,0.091,0.068,0.091, 0.091,0.091,0.068,0.091,0.068,0.023,0.000)

In the fourth step, total relation matrix is obtained with help of equation 3, as seen in Table 6.

Table 6. *Total Relation Matrix*

	L	M	U
C1	(1.031,0.100,0.011,0.006,0.031,0.003,0.069, 0.095,0.097,0.031,0.070,0.002,0.000,0.071)	(1.107,0.205,0.079,0.70,0.101,0.056,0.156, 0.187,0.194,0.92,0.168,0.053,0.009,0.159)	(1.329,0.428,0.276,0.253,0.275,0.221,0.385, 0.395,0.4,0.285,0.404,0.217,0.137,0.385)
C2	(0.069,1.031,0.009,0.026,0.039,0.003,0.064, 0.091,0.051,0.052,0.046,0.001,0.000,0.065)	(0.162,1.112,0.75,0.86,0.97,0.053,0.148, 0.180,0.147,0.110,0.141,0.151,0.030,0.149)	(0.423,1.356,0.284,0.279,0.302,0.226,0.394, 0.406,0.391,0.307,0.395,0.223,0.161,0.393)
C3	(0.036,0.038,1.005,0.002,0.027,0.002,0.056, 0.013,0.016,0.005,0.032,0.001,0.000,0.056)	(0.111,0.121,1.037,0.53,0.81,0.021,0.125, 0.088,0.095,0.055,0.110,0.021,0.005,0.126)	(0.337,0.350,1.194,0.217,0.256,0.169,0.334, 0.303,0.307,0.223,0.329,0.167,0.116,0.334)
C4	(0.044,0.068,0.006,0.004,0.006,0.001,0.038, 0.087,0.086,0.005,0.041,0.000,0000,0.020)	(0.123,0.153,0.064,1.035,0.064,0.024,0.112, 0.162,0.166,0.036,0.120,0.044,0.006,0.095)	(0.342,0.374,0.209,1.177,0.238,0.171,0.138, 0.347,0.350,0.205,0.333,0.189,0.118,0.299)
C5	(0.060,0.085,0.027,0.004,1.006,0.002,0.016, 0.019,0.060,0.007,0.036,0.001,0.000,0.039)	(0.139,0.170,0.084,0.057,1.042,0.024,0.091 0.098,0.141,0.059,0.116,0.023,0.006,0.116)	(0.365,0.378,0.263,0.223,1.198,0.174,0.303, 0.311,0.354,0.229,0.337,0.171,0.120,0.323)
C6	(0.030,0.053,0.002,0.002,0.025,0.001,0.007, 0.008,0.008,0.004,0.028,0.000,0.000,0.008)	()0.081,0.109,0.020,0.017,0.065,1.013,0.034, 0.039,0.061,0.021,0.079,0.11,0.026,0.036)	(0.270,0.300,0.167.0.153,0.209,1.111,0.211, 0.218,0.241,0.160,0.263,0.131,0.117,0.211))
C7	(0.094,0.098,0.031,0.006,0.010,0.003,1.026, 0.073,0.094,0.010,0.068,0.002,0.000,0.071)	(0.185,0.198,0.097,0.068,0.077,0.033,1.090, 0.163,0.188,0.070,0.162,0.052,0.008,0.157)	(0.401,0.415,0.288,0.246,0.266,0.193,1.292, 0.384,0.388,0.252,0.392,0.210,0.111,0.376)
C8	(0.095,0.100,0.031,0.006,0.032,0.004,0.049, 1.030,0.096,0.010,0.090,0.002,0.000,0.073)	(0.189,0.203,0.099,0.069,0.101,0.056,0.137, 1.102,0.192,0.072,0.186,0.031,0.008,0.160)	(0.407,0.422,0.292,0.249,0.291,0.217,0.360, 1.305,0.394,0.256,0.397,0.193,0.134,0.380)
C9	(0.098,0.103,0.032,0.028,0.012,0.004,0.074, 0.099,1.037,0.011,0.092,0.002,0.000,0.0096)	(0.194,0.208,0.101,0.092,0.084,0.057,0.162, 0.191,1.115,0.054,0.191,0.054,0.008,0.184)	(0.411,0.426,0.294,0.272,0.274,0.219,0.384, 0.393,1.314,0.238,0.401,0.216,0.135,0.384)
C10	(0.044,0.068,0.029,0.004,0.006,0.002,0.041, 0.065,0.065,1,007,0.0084,0.000,0.000,0022)	(0.131,0.163,0.090,0.060,0.069,0.050,0.121, 0.149,0.154,1.041,0.170,0.047,0.030,0.102)	(0.378,0.412,0.285,0.243,0.264,0.212,0.351 0.381,0.384,1.206,0.389,0.208,0.153,0.331)
C11	(0.077,0.0102,0.033,0.007,0.011,0.026,0.093, 0.076,0.098,0.032,1.028,0.002,0.000,0.093)	(0.176,0.210,0.102,0.072,0.084,0.072,80.182, 0.171,0.198,0.075,1.110,0.055,0.010,0.184)	(0.425,0.442,0.305,0.260,0.284,0.247,0.396, 0.406,0.411,0.288,1.333,0.223,0.141,0.396)
C12	(0.000,0.0000.000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000, 0.000,1.000,0.0000,0.000,0.000,0.000,0.000)	(0.040,0.043,0.010,0.030,0,010,0.007,0.018, 0.021,0.021,0.032,0.040,1.006,0.025,0.016)	(0.203,0.211,0.135,0.145,0.135,0.109,0.169, 0.175,0.177,0.150,0.199,1.086,0.101,0.167)
C13	(0.002,0.002,0.001,0.000,0.001,0.000,0.001, 0.023,0.002,0.000,0.002,0.000,0.000,0.002)	(0.059,0.064,0.019,0.016,0.042,0.034,0.052 0.077,0.059,0.039,0.058,0.032,1.004,0.0032)	(0.245,0.254,0.164,0.150,0.185,0.152,0.226, 0.253,0.236,0.175,0.239,0.149,1.071,0.206)
C14	(0.075,0.081,0.032,0.027,0.053,0.024,0.089, 0.074,0.097,0.030,0.049,0.023,0.000,1.027)	(0.181,0.196,0.106,0.095,0.127,0.79,0.185, 0.175,0.205,0.096,0.198,0.077,0.010,0.104)	(0.452,0.470,0.324,0.297,0.342,0.260,0.419, 0.430,0.437,0.305,0.441,0.257,0.151,1.336)

In the fifth step, the sum of the column elements D and the sum of row elements R values are calculated in the matrix to form cause and effect group. The clarification process of these values was generated in Table 7, with the help of equation 5.

Table 7. *Clarification of Criteria Values*

Criteria	D+R	D-R
C14 Competition	6.421	0.219
C11 Flexibility	5.924	0.422
C10 Supplier Performance	5.547	0.149
C4 Innovation	4.949	0.309
C5 Resource Utilization	5.073	0.143
C3 Safety	4.938	0.074
C6 Social Perspective	4.023	0.058
C2 Customer Satisfaction	6.659	-0.581
C1 Service Quality	6.443	-0.306
C8 Financial Performance	6.202	-0.14
C7 Time	6.114	-0.164
C9 Price	6.411	-0.19
C13 Employee Satisfaction	4.202	-0.245
C12 Environmental Perspective	3.43	-0.029

Among the D+R values that express priority and total impact among the criteria, it is observed that customer satisfaction, service quality, and competition criteria are more correlated with the other criteria. When D-R values that determine direction of the relationship between the criteria are analyzed, it was found out that positive safety, innovation, resource utilization, social perspective, supplier performance, and flexibility are cause criteria, while negative service quality, customer satisfaction, time, financial performance, price, environmental perspective, and employee satisfaction are effect criteria. Besides, criterion of flexibility, innovation, competition, and resource utilization was more influenced by D-R positive values with higher impact and priority, which are called as cause group. In this step, D+R and D-R values are shown graphically, and the relationships between the criteria are seen more clearly.

When Figure 2 is analyzed, it is understood that customer satisfaction (C2) at far right of the x-axis is of high importance. Since (C14) criterion is in the positive part on the y-axis and on the right on the x-axis, it can be interpreted as the criterion that affects other performance criteria the most. In the relationship graph, the vertical axis (y) values indicate the direction of the relationship among the criteria. Criteria with positive (D -

R) value are classified as cause criteria and have an impact on effect criteria. In the relationship graph in Figure 1, criteria of C3, C4, C5, C6, C10, C11, and C14, which have positive (*D* - *R*) values, are considered as cause criteria and regarded to have an impact on effect criteria of health tourism performance. The criteria of C1, C2, C7, C8, C9, C12, and C13, which have negative (*D* - *R*) values, were determined as effect criteria.

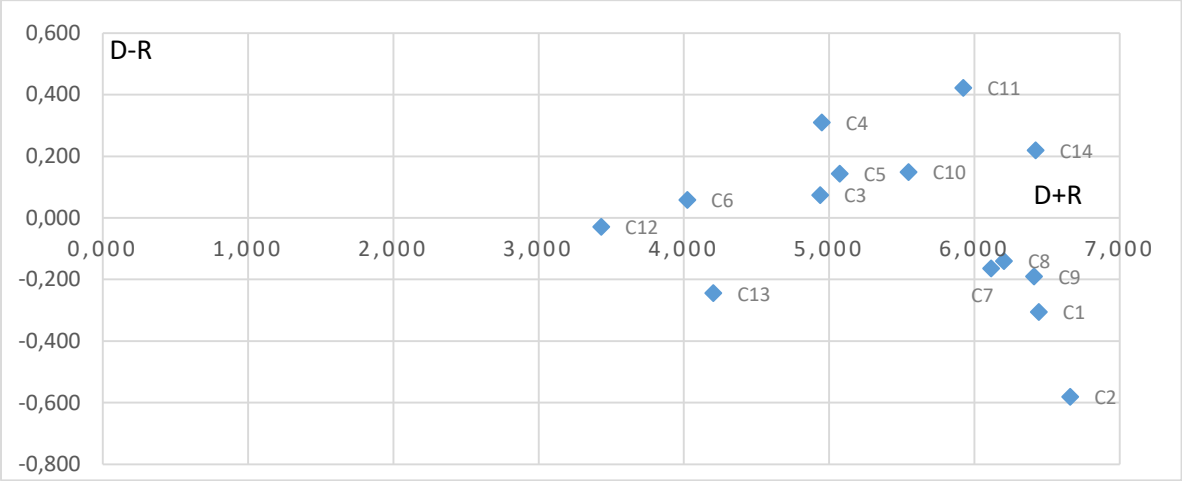

Figure 2. *Cause-Effect Relationship Graph*

Table 8. *Criterion Weights*

Criteria	w	W
C2 Customer Satisfaction	6.685	0.0875
C1 Service Quality	6.45	0.0844
C14 Competition	6.424	0.0841
C9 Price	6.414	0.0839
C8 Financial Performance	6.204	0.0812
C7 Time	6.117	0.08
C11 Flexibility	5.939	0.0777
C10 Supplier Performance	5.549	0.0726
C5 Resource Utilization	5.073	0.0664
C4 Innovation	4.959	0.0649
C3 Safety	4.939	0.0646
C13 Employee Satisfaction	4.21	0.0551
C6 Social Perspective	4.023	0.0526
C12 Environmental Perspective	3.43	0.0449

Criterion weights were calculated using equation 6. Obtained criterion weights values are shown in Table 8. When the data in Table 8 is examined, it is seen that top three most decisive criteria of health tourism performance are customer satisfaction, service quality, and competition. This ranking is followed by price, time, flexibility, supplier performance,

resource utilization, innovation, safety, employee satisfaction, social perspective and environmental perspective.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Health tourism draws attention as the highest added value activity area in the tourism sector. The main reasons for this are that participation in health tourism takes place with the desire to be involved in tourist activities as well as receiving treatment and that there is a supportive nature for all other types of alternative tourism. At the same time, seasonality is not the first prominent element in health tourism, and the fact that activities are sustainable for 12 months constitutes a significant plus value for the sector.

It is vital to contribute to continuity of the sector by establishing an assessment infrastructure and determining the essential criteria for measuring health tourism performance. This study aims to contribute to the literature by providing an opportunity to make an internal assessment for the organizations involved in health tourism.

If the service quality assessments of health tourism organizations, which are visited with the desire to feel healthy and well, are carried out regularly, both internally and based on the market, it will contribute to the organization's leadership in performance ranking. The main reason for this is that sustainability of service quality has the power of suppressing many criteria such as price and time on customer perception. The fact that the service quality is the most important factor that customers will focus more, rather than pricing, compared to other tourism activities makes it the most significant and critical criterion by representatives of the industry.

The fact that an organization, known for its service quality, provides customer satisfaction through the transfer of past customer experiences will ensure that the basic motivations of tourists go beyond the more appropriate service procurement. The fact that an organization known for its service quality will provide customer satisfaction through the transfer of past customer experiences will ensure that the basic motivations of tourists go beyond the more appropriate service procurement. It is only in this way that these organizations can compete in the sector.

The innovation criterion, which is another important criterion, ensures the performance of the organization in health tourism to be fully recognized in all aspects and the discovery of all kinds of changes and new service areas. The commitment of health tourism organizations to the innovation criteria is one of the main factors for maintaining their long-

lasting presence in the sector. The sustainable performance of businesses under competitive pressure is dependent on the fact that they are open and willing to following and implementing global developments in the field of health services they provide. In order to adapt to the market and gain global competitiveness, healthcare organizations need to adopt an innovative approach, especially in product-service.

When the current trends in the health and wellness sector are taken into consideration, it is possible that there can be an increase in the market share of the 'healthy life-oriented consumer' phenomenon. While the perception of wellness is discussed as a temporary phenomenon in other fields of activity of tourism, the mental well-being of people in health tourism has a longer-term effect in relation to physical well-being. Therefore, customer satisfaction in health tourism, which marks more permanent experiences, is among the basic criteria of sustainable performance in the market.

In Turkey, which is one of the leading countries in health tourism, it is possible for businesses to gain added value by assessing both their organizational and sectoral performance and by being aware of problems and developing solutions. Therefore, it is important to focus on qualified personnel training in order to increase the international market share, especially considering that providing quality of service is a multi-faceted process. Also, enhancing travel experiences of tourists through inclusive health tourism packages and making the destination an attractive element will contribute to increasing sustainability. Cooperation and communication networks among organizations providing services in the field of health tourism can make sure that collective decisions are made with the participation of all parties and support regional and national development in solving possible problems in the sector. The inclusion of all actors in a structure that will ensure equal participation, especially in the field of civil society, will enable both the standardization of service quality and the prevention of unequal price policies in financial arrangements among businesses.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Considering the limited amount of research on medical tourism in Turkey, it seems necessary to conduct further research. Especially for different stakeholders, the evaluation of the medical tourism industry is important in supporting the development of the sector. Research limitations include time and funding constraints. Another limitation is that the standards used

within the scope of the study are determined and used based on the literature. Since there is no existing set of evaluation standards for the field of health tourism, an attempt was made to establish a partnership by examining the performance standards of the health and tourism sectors separately, and to incorporate them into the study by seeking expert opinions. However, it may be necessary to re-evaluate existing standards with different expert groups in order to be able to assume full responsibility. The study is limited to department representatives working in institutions operating in the Antalya region. In future studies, the opinions of managers of health tourism companies operating in different regions will be used as guidance to reveal the differences between regions in the performance evaluation of the industry.

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THE ROLE OF TOURISM RELATED MIGRATIONS ON SOCIOCULTURAL CHANGE: THE CASE OF DIDYMA

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ABSTRACT

Didyma is an area which has been home to immigrants for 100 years and so experienced changes in many aspects. Immigration towards a region, alone, has the power to cause change. The development of tourism in Didyma has increased the power of migration to cause change and has turned migration into a self-acting social process. Starting from 1924, when first immigrants arrived at Didyma, if we call every movement of migration of a group of individuals with common characteristics a "stratum of migration," it will be possible to distinguish three main strata; namely, the Balkanization, dam-induced and tourism related migrations. Within this framework, the purpose of this study is to investigate the sociocultural change created by social groups distinguished according to their sociocultural characteristics and reasons for migration related tourism. The data for this study were collected through interviews conducted in person and analyzed in accordance with grounded theory approach. As a result of this study, the dimensions of change were divided into five main categories; deterioration of social values, declination of business ethics, changes in senses of identity and belonging, socio-spatial accumulation and emergence of social hegemony.

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INTRODUCTION

Anatolian territories are one of the regions where the range of migration is at its widest. It is known that whatever the manner of relocation with migration, people take with them their belongings, animals, food; in addition to their habits, values, behaviors, languages, religions, customs. In other words, everything about and around them. In order to feel a sense of belonging to their destination of emigration, they build a life in accordance with their lifestyle and habits; in short, their individual backgrounds. The effort made to socialize with people much different from themselves, to get along with them, or to adapt to them brings with it a process of interaction. On the other hand, it is inevitable for the host community to live through the same processes. While they go on with their lives in their small and isolated world, suddenly or gradually, strangers begin to arrive. Now, it is a certainty that change will happen for both communities, because migration is, with no doubt, one of the main forces of cultural change and of new cultures produced by the intermingling of different cultures (Tekeli, 2015). Migration as the cause, or result of change, forms both social change and transformation in migration receiving or emigrating societies and is also informed by the main processes of change. The reasons that trigger migration change from period to period and from community to community. Migration, as a main characteristic of societies, gain political significance when it takes place across national borders; whereas when internal migration is the case, it leads to social, cultural, and economic changes in receiving and emigrated regions.

In the history of Didyma, three main strata of migration movements can be determined which are; the *Balkan migration*, *dam-induced migration* and *tourism related migration*. In sociology, the concept of stratum is frequently used to distinguish groups which differ in terms of gender, age, religious bond, military rank, etc. among human societies (Giddens, 2008, p. 340). In this study, however, the stratum does not refer to an inequality or hierarchy. It was borrowed to categorize migrations, which are an important part of the social life of Didyma, and to emphasize the different characteristics of immigrants who migrated in different periods. The term "stratum of migration" was coined to point out the fractioning among groups in terms of causes of migration. The first stratum of migration, which is the Balkan migration, refers to the immigrants arriving from Thessalonica in 1924 and from Bulgaria in 1936 and settling in Didyma in the scope of the Lausanne Peace Treaty. The second stratum, which is the dam-induced migrations, involves the relocation of immigrants who had to leave Eastern Anatolia because of the dam projects and who were located

in Denizköy in 1986 and in Yalıköy in 1989. The third stratum of migration, which are tourism related, refers to the migration movements towards Didyma from all over Turkey in relation with the development of tourism industry after the 1985.

There are factors beyond measure, contributing to the emergence of sociocultural changes. These can be listed as migration, geographical, biological, and social disasters, economic progress, shocks and advancements, technology, new leaders and ideologies, changes in regime, student and laborer exchanges, mass media, changes in the information transfer methods, climate change, domestic and foreign tourism movements (Gürkan, 1969, p. 470; Berkes & Jolly, 2002). For example, rural-urban migration accelerates with the employment opportunities in the tourism regions. Tourism promotes migration in two ways. The first one is that getting positive experiences as a tourist in a region turns the temporary stay of the tourist into a permanent stay due to social reasons and reasons such as employment or retirement. The second is that advancing tourism sector leads immigrants to job hunting (Williams, 2012).

The purpose of this study is to examine the changes caused by migrations to Didyma within the historical process from the viewpoint of tourism. To put it all in more comprehensive terms, the changes created by the social groups from different sociocultural backgrounds that dispersed into different strata of migration depending on the reasons of migration in Didyma, which has been attracting migrants since 1924, has been studied in this research. This study revealed the changes caused by coexistence of social groups from different backgrounds, and the social processes created by migrations in Didyma, which is the tourism region that has been attracting highest number of immigrants in Turkey. The scientific studies conducted in Turkey particularly discuss the external migration, but do not correlate it with tourism and domestic migration. Within this context, it is believed that this study will make a major contribution to the literature. Thus, this study has set forth the social changes in tourism regions attracting higher numbers of immigrants within a historical context. In this study, first, the relationship of the tourism and migration phenomena as social change agents with sociocultural change has been presented and the tourism relationship has been explained; then, information regarding Didyma, which is a city of immigrants, has been given. While analyzing the social dynamics created by each migration stratum building the life in Didyma, the grounded theory approach has been adopted in order to explain events, actions and interactions that occurred in time, as a result of migration related to tourism.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Recently, temporary movements from home to a distance have attracted the attention of migration researchers (Bell & Ward, 2000). Although the concept of "mobility" occurred as a significant concept in the field of social sciences, the importance of tourism as a constituent of immigrant experience has attracted relatively less attention in the mainstream migration literature. Focusing on the certain forms of tourism and migration relationship, it is understood that subjects such as tourism and labor migration, tourism and entrepreneur migration, tourism and return migration, and tourism and retirement migration attract more attention (Hall & Williams, 2002). Studies on tourism-migration relationship have been subject of the intensive attention of the researchers, especially after the 2000s. Tourism-migration relationship was discussed in some of these studies (Williams & Hall, 2002; Hall & Williams, 2002; Williams, 2012). Some other studies (O'Reilly, 1995; King et al., 1998, 2000; Warnes & Patterson, 1998; Williams et al., 2000; Benson & O'Reilly, 2015) are about retirement and lifestyle migration. As it is seen, lifestyle migration has been discussed in the studies about tourism and migration relationship in recent years. Williams and Hall (2002) suggested that there is a weakness in the conceptualization of the differentiation between tourism and migration. Certain forms of tourism-related migrations were examined within the context of social and economic circles. Dwyer et al. (2014) stated that tourism movements prompt the migration phenomenon and these migrations occur due to visiting friends and relatives (Gössling & Schulz, 2005; Williams, 2012).

Considering this subject in terms of Turkey, it can be said that studies on tourism and migration have increased, especially after the 2000s with the transformation of Turkey from a sending country to a receiving country. Turkey sent lots of immigrants to European countries that wanted to pull themselves together economically by supporting industrialization after the Second World War in the 1960s. The transformation of Turkey from a sending country to a receiving country happened after an intensive and gradually increasing influx of tourists as a consequence of the international expansion policies applied as of the 1980s. In parallel with the advancement of tourism regions, British and Germans purchasing property in Turkey and starting to live a settled life in coastal regions may be regarded as the beginning of a new migration movement from developed countries towards Turkey. Therefore, parallelism is observed between the studies about migration to Turkey-tourism relationship and foreigners settling in Turkey by purchasing property in the 2000s. These studies conducted

especially within the context of retirement migrations focused on settled foreigners living in Turkey (Karakaya & Turan, 2005; Südaş, 2005, 2012; Nudralı, 2007; Südaş & Mutluer, 2008; Nudralı & O'Reilly, 2009; Dönmez & Birdir, 2011; Deniz, 2012; Tuna & Özbek, 2012), international migration experience of women (Gebelek, 2008), tourism-related employment migrations (Tümtaş, 2009; Türkoğlu, 2011; Ekiz Gökmen, 2011), and marriage migration (Deniz & Özgür, 2013). Considering these statements, it can be said that studies conducted on migration to Turkey and tourism generally focus on international migrations. In these studies, conducted on the international and national levels, the existence of a relationship between migration and tourism triggering each other was revealed.

The Relationship of Tourism and Migration

Besides economic reasons such as poverty, unemployment, limited employment opportunities, famine, inadequate food sources, the main reasons of migration also include racial, ethnic, religious, or lingual oppressions, ethnic cleansing, holocaust, civil wars, and associated atrocities, natural disasters and epidemics (Benhabib, 2006, p. 147). However, along with the changing world and time, the term migration is going through a semantic transformation. Although this century has witnessed various migration movements, the term began to bear a completely different meaning once it intersects with tourism. For instance, a person, who spent his/her entire life within a tiresome work environment, might dream of moving to a coastal town after retirement. An actively working individual may want to seize new business opportunities in a tourism region with increasing opportunities or may permanently leave their current residence and move to another region with encouragement and recommendations of their friends or relatives.

Hall and Williams (2002, p. 7-8) described the relationship between tourism and migration as a symbiotic relationship. They even used the Grand Tour example to objectify the fact that this symbiotic connection/relationship between tourism and migration dates back a long time. Accordingly, an economic basis was formed in order to attract immigrants from other countries in premium services provided in Northern European aristocrats' visits/travels to Southern Europe. When today's tourism-related migration types are considered, it is observed that various forms of migrations that occur due to geographical extension of social networks, resulting from friendly and consanguineous relationships, cause tourism movements. The immigrants themselves cause a tourism

movement when they travel to visit their friends or relatives. Tourism, on the other hand, may also cause a migration flow. One of the most significant epitomes is labor migration. In a study conducted by World Tourism Organization (2010), the opportunities provided by the relationship between two global phenomena, tourism and migration, are presented. This study, which discusses the relationship between tourism and migration on an international level, discusses these phenomena as significant indicators of globalization. The immigrant categories in this study are explained through their relationships with tourism. Thus, the immigrant categories associated with tourism are: immigrant labor/workers, irregular immigrants, qualified labor immigrants, immigrants who migrated for family reasons, return immigrants, permanent immigrants and ethnic-immigrants.

Strata of Migration in Didyma

The very first immigrants of Didyma, following the population exchange, were the refugees coming from the villages of Kavala, Greece in 1924. Another flow of migration to Didyma occurred from Varna, Bulgaria 12 years after the migration from Greece. The migration movements by the Greek and Bulgarian immigrants, who, after a while, had begun to be considered the locals of Didyma, constitute the "first stratum" of migrations to Didyma. Another significant flow of migration to Didyma had occurred when the citizens of Kurdish origin, whose hometowns and villages were submerged due to dam projects in Eastern Anatolian Region, were settled in this region between 1986 and 1989. The immigrants, who are referred to as dam-induced immigrants in this study, were settled in two villages named Denizköy and Yaliköy, which are relatively far from the center of Didyma. Thus, different cultural characteristics clashed between locals and immigrants. Dam-induced immigrants became part of the community and found their ways in Didyma, with the help of government assistance. Accordingly, the migration movements by the dam-induced immigrants, who came to Didyma between 1986 and 1989, constitute the "second stratum" of migrations to Didyma. Another type of migration in Didyma examined within the scope of this study is tourism-related migrations. As in most regions of Turkey, the tourism investments had gained momentum with the help of incentives for development of tourism in mid-1980s, and many other sectors related to tourism had both directly and indirectly gotten their shares. The landowners and proprietors in Didyma did not turn down the hotel investment proposals of tour operators, and dozens of new hotel constructions in various capacities had begun in record time. This

period, when the development of tourism and migration began to trigger each other, was also the period when the labor migration levels had begun to skyrocket. The 1990s, which followed this period of construction and real estate bonanza, represent the saturnian age of development of tourism in Didyma. The foundations of the developments that triggered excessive flow of upcoming migration were actually laid at this period. Tourism-led migrations became uncontrollable after the British have discovered Didyma, which had been a popular attraction for mass tourism by that time. When foreign property possession became possible in 2000s, Didyma became a popular attraction for international migration flows. Besides the British, Didyma has always been the perfect choice for Turkish citizens, who pursue better living conditions and standards. Tourism-led migrations, which began in early 1990s, in parallel with the development of tourism and still continue, constitute the "third stratum" of migrations to Didyma. Within the scope of this study, the phenomenon of social change is discussed within the frame of tourism-led migrations, which became a self-acting mechanism in time.

Tourism and migration phenomenon as agents of social change

In the tourism literature there are multiple models developed to understand the influence of tourism on culture and society, such as changes in language (White, 1974), behavioral changes of the host society (Doxey, 1975), host-guest interactions (Jafari, 1982; Knox, 1982), evolution of sociocultural influences (Kariel & Kariel, 1982), effect of strategic planning and social factors (Getz, 1983), changes in tourist arts (Graburn, 1984), demographic changes, perception of social change and host community (Ap, 1992), product change and ethnic preservation (Smith, 1996).

Due to its characteristics, tourism as a phenomenon has considerable force to alter a community's social, cultural and economic structure. On an individual level, tourism refers to the encounter of two people who have no previous knowledge of each other and their interaction for any purpose or reason. On the other hand, on the level of international social groups' encounters, tourism is a matter of these groups, which belong to different nationalities, cultures and lifestyles, coming into contact with each other, interacting with one another and establishing social relations for, at least, a brief period of time (Tuna, 2007, p. 5). The social dynamics created by tourism has considerable impact on the transformation of social and cultural characteristics of the local community where they take place. This transformation includes systems of value, traditional lifestyles, family

relations, individual behavior, or social structure. Tourists interact with the local residents throughout their stay and their relations change according to the local individualities, local community's qualities of life, systems of value, forms of labor, family relations, manners, behavioral patterns, rituals and creative expressions. The cultural and economic differences between tourists and local residents are on a more distinct and significant level (Tuna, 2012, p. 68).

Changes caused by development of tourism in a region can be positive or negative. The said changes, when considered from a sociocultural aspect, are generally mentioned to emphasize the negative impacts of tourism. What is underlined by the sociocultural environment of a region is the social climate of that area. Naturally, the social climate of the region is open to both positive and negative changes caused by tourism activities in that region. For example, local community may lose its traditional culture and identity due to the changes in the social structure and economic relations constituting the traditional system; traditional occupations may disappear; professional occupation opportunities may be limited due to the economic pressure created by tourism; occupational motivation my decrease in line with the understanding that tourism is an easier and faster way of making money; it may be the case that cultural subjugation occurs in line with the purposes of tourism industry; exterritorial authorities may have more influence on local decision making mechanism; rental costs may increase due to the competition to purchase or rent housing between local residents and tourists; as a result of the illegal or legal migration to the tourism area, some marginal groups may form or the safety of social environment may diminish (CE, 1993, p. 22). Tourism, especially within local communities, is regarded as an agent of social and cultural change. In many cases tourism is defined as a force of cultural richness and liveliness, or a loss of cultural integrity (Carter & Beeton, 2004, p. 421). Tourism has sociocultural impacts which come in different forms and within different fields. These impacts, however, are classified under ten basic subjects which are the community participation, the nature of interpersonal relations, bases of social union, the rhythm of social life, division of labor, stratification, distribution of power, customs and traditions, and migration. There is a common belief that the sociocultural effects of tourism are significant within these fields (Cohen, 1984, p. 385). In this study, change related to migration examined within the context of socio-cultural effects of tourism.

Migration, whatever may be its scope, brings with it social and cultural change (Göker, 2015). Migrants themselves are subjected to change

as much as they cause sociocultural changes where they have emigrated. As a result, migration for whatever reason entails social, cultural, economic and political shift within the social structure (Durugönül, 1996, p. 95). The notion of migration which is one of the most important factors affecting the increase or decrease of populations of countries or smaller communities informs the age and sex of the demographic involved. Population of the migration receiving area increases, and accumulations occur based on the age and sex of the immigrants. In addition, changes in the rate of literacy, education, professional qualification and in relation to these changes, fluctuations in the number of skilled laborers occur. These changes which take place in the social structure, culture, economy, environment, political etc. will be directly proportional to the scale of migration. These changes may have positive or negative impacts. For example, in relation to the causes of migration, it is clear that migration from regions with limited area of employment to those with abundance of job opportunities will have positive effects. However, housing problems due to migration, inability to fulfill local functions due to the scale of migration and problems which may stem from this, crime rates, and unemployment are some examples to the negative outcomes. From this perspective, migration is an important mechanism which initiates sociocultural change as well as having both positive and negative impacts (Akkayan, 1979, p. 20-21).

There is a multitude of sociocultural changes that occur among emigrating individuals and host societies due to migration. Cultural encounters, exchanges, and the emergence of hybrid cultures are in direct relation to the proportion of migration processes. Although, from time to time, all these changes in a community entail the emergence of a number of intermingling cultures and groups which represent these cultures, they often induce isolated, introverted, spatially and symbolically marginalized parallel social groups. This shows the tendency to veer towards strife rather than comingling and entails a number of social issues such as new forms of racism, xenophobia or discrimination (Göker, 2015, p. 45).

METHODOLOGY

The Field of Study: Didyma

Didyma is a region which qualifies for the euphemism “mosaic of Turkey”, because of its status as home to individuals and social groups from all over Turkey. The cultural diversity within its borders has virtually transformed Didyma into a “sociological laboratory.” Didyma is a region where people

from different backgrounds of language, religion, ethnicity, lifestyle and perception have been emigrating to for 100 years. Naturally, when different individuals and social groups reside in the same place, it will result in change due to interactive relations. In Didyma specifically, where population doubled in only a period of 10 years, as a result of immigrants flowing from every part of Turkey, there is a unique opportunity to understand social processes brought forth by both forced migration and tourism related migration. Because Didyma is one of the regions today where tourism related migrations come to being in the most tangible manner.

Situated on one of the two peninsulas environing Güllük Gulf and home to blue flag beaches, Didyma has tens of immaculate coves and bays on its 90-kilometer coastline, almost all of which being sandy beaches. Didyma shines out as a tourism center, with its long and sandy beaches, clear blue sea, Temple of Apollon built in 560 B.C.E. which is the largest temple of ancient period, its unique microclimate with hundreds of sunny days in a year and mild weather which allows its residents to enjoy water sports and beaches even in the winter months. It is also closely situated to some ancient cities and natural wonders such as the Bafa Lake Nature Park, Ancient City of Milenos and Ancient City of Pirene. The unique combination of nature and sea, history and culture, makes Didyma an important area of tourism.

Data Collection

In this study, depth interview method, which is one of the most common means of data acquisition in qualitative research, was employed. This method used in fields of social sciences is a tool that helps the researcher to thoroughly and profoundly comprehend the subject matter in the fieldwork (Kümbetoğlu, 2015, p. 71-72). Therefore, interview method is the most substantial way to understand others (Punch, 2011, p. 165-166). The underlying logic of in-depth interviews is to reveal the subjective comments of people regarding social realm in order to understand the meanings and experiences they construct on a daily basis (Layder, 2013, p. 95).

The experience from the previous interviews, which took place prior to this study, showed that the participants do not candidly bare their hearts to people who they see merely as researchers. In order to enter into the semantic worlds of participants and gain their recognition, the researcher contacted every participant whom she would interview with the interposition of a reference, conducted pre-interviews, and visited them in

their homes, workplaces, or social spheres where they lead their "real" lives. Once mutual connection and communication was established, the interviews commenced.

In the current study, in order to understand the changes in sociocultural structure of Didyma due to the migration movements related to the development of tourism from the individuals' point of view, two different lists of questions were prepared for the interviews with local residents of Didyma, dam-induced immigrants, and immigrants who moved to Didyma for reasons directly or indirectly related to tourism. The question sheet prepared for interviews with the local residents of Didyma constitutively included questions regarding the life history of participants, sociocultural life of the past, sociocultural relations with immigrants, development of tourism, and problems relating to migrations in Didyma. The questions sheet prepared for immigrants constitutively included questions regarding the life history of participants, individual experiences of migration, sociocultural relations with the locals, development of tourism, and questions relating to migrations in Didyma. Expert opinion was consulted to ensure the content validity of the interview questions. The questions considered to be irrelevant to the aim of this study were removed and the semi-structured interview sheet was finalized.

After the semi-structured interview questions took their final form, between the dates July 14 –August 21, 2017; January 10 – January 24, 2018; March 2 – March 16, 2018, during the 70 days spent on the field. The data were collected during in-depth face to face interviews, of which the shortest lasted 34 minutes, and the longest three hours and 19 minutes, 54 hours in total. During the interviews, in addition to the open-ended questions, the researcher frequently asked the question "how" in order to deepen the narration. The interviews were recorded on a tape recorder with the permission and consent of the participant. Along the course of the interviews, as the topics narrowed down from more general to subjective ones, the body language components such as the behavior, gesture, and facial expressions of the participants were noted down without disrupting the flow of the conversation and losing the interviewer-participant contact. Starting with the first interview, in order to initiate the analyses, on the day interviews were held they were transcribed.

The transcriptions following the first in-depth interview were thoroughly scrutinized by the researcher. Thus, the researcher opened up the path to develop a deeper point of view on the data. It is crucial for the analyses that the researcher embeds herself into the data in order to become

acquainted with the depth and span of the contents of the data. Diving into the data requires rereading the data in detail. These repetitive readings include searching for meanings, similarities, etc. in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87).

After the transcribed texts of the interviews were perused, they were imported to the professional data analysis program MAXQDA 12 to help analyze and visualize the data for qualitative research. This program helped the researcher to systematically order, evaluate, analyze, interpret, report on and manage the bulk of data. The researcher completed the analytic process in a controlled manner from top to bottom by systematically engaging with all the interview texts and notes on the 42 participants. Since the significance of encoding is obvious, the encoding processes were completed with utmost care.

In studies conducted with the grounded theory approach, a detailed and in-depth dataset is required to construct a theory. Therefore, in grounded theory it may be necessary to conduct interviews with 20 to 60 participants to reach data saturation (Creswell, 2016, p. 88). In this study, interviewing 42 participants was sufficient to reach satiety. The researcher has traversed between data collection and data analysis throughout the process (Creswell, 2012, p. 433) and when she confirmed that the data reached satiety, she completed the theoretical sampling process. The sample group constituted of 16 refugees/immigrants, eight dam-induced migrants, 12 workers/entrepreneurs relocating to Didyma to benefit from tourism related job and business establishment opportunities, six lifestyle migrants who moved to Didyma for better living standards related to climate, health, retirement, etc. Out of the participants, 5 of whom were female and 37 males, it was detected that six of the locals were primary school graduates, five high school, and five university graduates, all of the dam-induced migrants were primary school graduates, and of the tourism related migrants, one was secondary school two were high school and thirteen were university graduates. When the types of migration were inspected, it was found that the 24 participants making up the first and second stratum were a part of forced migration, the third stratum of migration represented by 18 participants were voluntary migrants to Didyma. It was determined that the participants were involved in a set of diverse economic activities. Different demographic characteristics of the participants whose ages ranged between 36 and 88 enriched the dataset by adding diversity.

FINDINGS

Sociocultural changes

When social change is considered, the development of tourism in Didyma can be acknowledged as a milestone. Migration movements taking place parallel to this development doubles the population of Didyma in the 1990s. It is possible to see migration's force of change clearly in the 2000s when Land Registry Law was enacted, and British citizens rapidly purchased immovable. As the number of real estates approached 15 thousand, British population made up a fourth of Didyma, and this situation created opportunities of all kinds. However, after the year 2012, these opportunities were pronounced "missed opportunities." As the British were targeted by profiteers and opportunists, a number of social problems ensued. Immigrants who once created added value to develop the region's economy were now referred to as unskilled deadbeats undermining tourism economy with no added value. In this context, when evaluating sociocultural effects of tourism related migration, it should be considered in what period foreigners begin to purchase property. The categories of deterioration of social values and declination of business ethics are closely related to tourism related migration. The other categories are changes in senses of belonging and identity, social-spatial aggregation and emergence of a social hegemony.

Deterioration of social values

The *deterioration of social values* was divided into subcategories such as *cultural degeneration due to British immigration, British-immigrant marriages degenerating the conjugal union* and *rapid enrichment causing inappropriate lifestyle*. One needs to understand the category of *cultural degeneration* as not caused by the British, but as immigrants turning the British opportunity into profiteering. Secondly, the subcategory *British-immigrant marriages degenerating the conjugal union* refers to the union of very young men marrying settled British women who are of an age that is deemed unacceptably old by social values and turning the institution of marriage into a marriage of finances. Finally, *rapid enrichment causing inappropriate lifestyle* subcategory is interpreted as locals acquiring wealth they cannot stomach by selling their land to investing or enterprising immigrants, and immigrants getting rich quickly from selling British construction and real estate.

The interviews show that the allure of money making has changed social codes of both the locals and immigrants, most of whom are from Eastern Turkey. This situation is categorized under cultural degeneration due to a boom in immigration flow to Didyma of those hoping to take advantage of the British residents. This resulted in the poorness of migrant quality, as well as a moral breakdown. P20-Melih states this situation as such: *"I agree that such degeneration can be seen in all communities. However, I do not see how it can be done so impertinently. I believe it is only possible in societies where individuals are socially, culturally and educationally inadequate predominate the community."*

Another reflection of the degeneration of social values appears as *British-immigrant marriages degenerating the conjugal union.* Here, the emphasis on the "immigrants" getting married to the British is due to that fact that no one from the local community was involved in these marriages. This is especially because it was frowned upon by the families of younger men to marry British women over a certain age. Therefore, this evaluation concerns the second and third stratum of migration. It can be readily admitted that these types of unions between young locals and British women, who are significantly older than them, are financially motivated marriages. P24-Melih emphasizes how this situation is normalized among young men and states: *"Most of the Kurds here got married to the British. Young men get married to British women old enough to be their mothers. The Brit thinks he loves him, little she knows it's for goods, estates, money. But the Brit doesn't know. She purchases a flat and registers the title deeds in his name."*

The final subcategory under the deterioration of social values is the *rapid enrichment causing inappropriate lifestyle* subcategory. It is possible to consider this situation from both local and immigrant aspects. The sudden shift from a life of struggle against poverty to making such amounts of money that they cannot mentally surmount, due to their previous, simple lifestyle, virtually transfigures the local villagers. P6-Korkmaz expresses the situation as such: *"The peasant of Yoran lived a simple life, keeping to themselves, then the substantial amount of cash entering their lives, they lost their composure."*.

The declination of business ethics

This category is divided into three subcategories: *defrauding the British, tarnishing occupational reputation* and *normalization of commissioning.* The degeneration of business ethics in Didyma brought forth a process which had staggering outcomes from many aspects. While Didyma was a down-to-earth tourism region until the 2000s, after the enactment of Land Registry

Law, it became a center of fraud, attracting all kinds of swindlers. The migration flow during this period led to an environment where social disintegration materialized, people became distrustful of one another and some people took advantage of legal loopholes, damaging social norms and morals.

Defrauding the British subcategory is a statement of remorse which reflects this period that every participant mentions. This is a period where the locals' *"we were remained in the background, we failed"* and the immigrants' *"we couldn't intervene, it all happened so fast"* sentiments mix in with one another and the compensation for it will perhaps take years. In a nutshell, the British beginning to buy property from 2003 onwards put the people of Didyma to the test. Unable to overcome language barriers, local community was unable to interact with the British. Sudden rise in real estate and landed property prices naturally whetted everyone's appetite and the desire to get rich quickly took precedence over many virtues. This process, which was virtually a turning point in the social life of Didyma and where ethics of commerce was at its weakest, had outcomes that were to the detriment of the whole society.

The unjust treatment of the British, which was also covered in a study on the effects of foreigners acquiring immovable in Turkey (Tanrıvermiş & Apaydın, 2013), also occupied local and national press for a long time. Since Didyma is in a military security zone, sale of properties to foreigners there required the permission of Aegean Army Commandership, which prolonged the bureaucratic process to take longer than it should. The impatience of the British who wanted to take advantage of low-cost housing and of those who wanted to benefit from the British buyers, resulted in notarized housing sales. Because there was no military permission, these contracts didn't have validity in deed transfers and paved the way for malfeasances. Those who wanted to unethically take advantage of legal loopholes sold the same immovable that were already sold and were awaiting title deed registration procedures to second and third persons using the same method. The scale of this abuse reached such magnitude that incidents, such as deluding the British and pretending to help them and registering the property they purchased on themselves, leasing out their property while awaiting the military permission to be granted, or having their houses robbed while they waited out the long bureaucratic process to end in their homeland, were common. The defrauding of the British reached its peak in 2009, and the situation was now ingloriously covered in national and international press, which lead to a smear campaign on Didyma. In addition to these, the legal struggle of the mistreated British resorting to the

jurisdiction transformed Didyma from a potential "British town" to a "town deserted by the British colony." Some statements on the topic that were underlined are as such:

> *These bar managers had learned to speak English. They could interact with them. They went and became the realtors of Didyma. Even though they had no background, they immediately entered the real estate industry. They sold buildings, flats to three different people. They were thus involved in aggravated fraud (P10-Metin).*

> *The British were unfortunately cheated out of their money by certain people. They sold the houses above their worth. Plasterers, painters, plumbers all gouged the prices, they did all sorts of things. In the entertainment venues they went, they got different prices (P14- Ergüneş).*

As mentioned before, the right to purchase property being granted to foreigners brought substantial opportunities, such as bringing market boom to the real estate industry and promoting foreign investment. The tendency to increase investment expenses in construction industry in countries experiencing recession (Kaya et al., 2013) reflect a transformation in the economic policy of Turkey, especially after the 1980s when Turkey was under the influence of free market economy. The dominance of open economy in neoliberal Turkey attracted foreign investors in a number of sectors. While the opportunities for unearned profits created by the incentives regarding land ownership in construction industry, which is seen as the most important agent of economic growth (Kaya et al., 2013), attracted the attention of global firms on a macro level, it also attracted the local and national construction companies, but also others, who had nothing to do with this industry on a micro level. At this point, considering Didyma, it is observed that this time frame, where everyone became contractors or real estate agents together with the freedom of landownership for foreigners, is also period when the foundations of distrust against real estate and construction industries were laid. In those times of distrust, this process, which had become a sub-category under the name of *damaging of professional reputation*, was the outcome of this distrust.

P11-Melih shares these insights from his own experience: *"We also had these contractors who were low-ranking officials, poor persons or people with very little capital. There are hundreds of contractors like me. In Didyma, you don't need to have money to be a contractor, anyone can become one. I'm an engineer, and I work as a contractor. Waiters are contractors. Some retiree is a contractor. A doctor here is a contractor. Everyone is a contractor."*

The last subcategory under the topic of declination of business ethics is the *normalization of commissioning*. This subcategory, which again needs to be considered along the lines of British immigration, shows that the British were deceived not only when acquiring housing, but in every process where they had to purchase any goods or services they needed to maintain their lives. In addition to this, it is revealed by the interviews that the same unjust treatment was at work in venues where they addressed their social needs. P21-Veli criticizes this situation as such: *"What I mean is, there was not a place where they weren't screwed over. They were swindled."*

Changes in senses of identity and belonging

The category of changes in senses of identity and belonging divides into three main subcategories. These categories in historical context are*: the disappearance of exchange/ "muhajir" distinction among the locals, the loss of the sense of spatial belonging in locals, and the formation of the sense of spatial belonging in immigrants.*

Even though the immigrants from Greece and Bulgaria differentiated from one another as exchanged and incomer during the first decades of migration, the sense of being "us" faced with the migration movements at different periods caused this distinction to disappear. Thus, the problems they encountered due to their differences in cultural roots, such as frowning upon intermarriage, or even transgressing the borders of one another's neighborhoods, the cultural bonding of the coming years eliminated the cultural distances between them. When the dam-induced migrations took place, the distinction of *"us"* referred to the Balkan migrants and *"them"* referring to those who arrived after them. As the tourism related migrations gained pace, the sense of solidarity grew even stronger and turns them into locals and the rest strangers. Now, according to the locals of Didyma, any outsider would be a stranger. P19-Musa sums it up as such: *"The newcomers in Didyma began to unite among themselves. As the outsiders organized and became empowered, the locals began to have this idea that 'as long as you are from Didyma, you are better than them.'"* P38-Bahattin, on the other hand, correlates the sense of being "us" to migration and states: *"The social bonding began later, when Didyma started to develop and attract strangers, and received a lot of immigrants."*

The loss of the sense of spatial belonging in the locals is especially correlated to the decrease in the rate of locals in the population of Didyma due to tourism related migrations. As the interviews with the locals grew more intense, they often express their sense of nostalgia as if they feel that

they do not belong to the Didyma of today, saying: *"In these conditions, I cannot say I am from here. Because I long for my old village, those people, that sincerity, and beauty of old. When I look at it today, Didyma looks tainted to me. It is not pleasant in any way, there is no trace of sincerity. Back in the day, everyone loved one another in my town, they all helped one another. Believe me, I feel like the only reason I stay here is because this is the land I inherited from my father and grandfather. I wouldn't stay here if I didn't have my bricks and mortar down here, because this place lost that sincerity, that beauty, that leniency, that culture."*

In the last category which is the *formation of the sense of spatial belonging in immigrants,* it is understood that the freedom to maintain their own values and habits in Didyma was effective in such formation. The liberal environment of Didyma, which is one of the reasons for migration, forms the basis of the transformation of adaptation process into a sense of belonging. P11-Melih interprets this situation as follows: *"I feel like I belong to Didyma because I love this atmosphere, this culture. Our social lives, our work, everything is in place. Despite small mishaps, we can preserve our culture. We overcame so much in Didyma. That's why we have adapted to this culture, we love the culture, atmosphere, and nature. That's why we don't want to leave here."*

Socio-spatial accumulation

It is natural for immigrants to live close to one another where they have migrated. Socio-spatial accumulation may at first seem like a necessity, in time, the desire to be in solidarity transforms it into a willing accumulation in a certain area (Ünal, 2012). When Didyma is considered specifically, it became significantly clear that immigrants with previous knowledge of each other want to live close to each other. Another example is that after the earthquake in Didyma, before the area of residence was designated in a region called Yenihisar, Romanians used to live mixed in with the rest of the locals. After the construction of living spaces, Romanians spatially separated from the rest. In this period, when hints as to the development of tourism could not yet be foreseen, the area close to Altınkum shore was allotted to the Romanians so that they would be out of sight. Immigrants of Eastern Turkey origin, who were displaced because of the construction of the dam, were settled in Denizköy and Yalıköy which had no economic value at the time, though they were near the shoreline. As migration rose in time, the desire of immigrants of different ethnic background to live closer to those they are ethnically related to, leads to the placing of Kurdish, Alawite, Romanian and other neighborhoods distinctly apart. In addition

to that, it was detected that public spaces were also prone to accumulation. Narratives regarding the said subcategory are exemplified below:

> *Everyone hangs out in their own association, own coffeehouse, own clubhouse. Today there are a few coffeehouses up there where the locals hang out. And they all gather around there, they don't go anywhere else. In short, they still can't accept one another (P3-Erdal).*

Emergence of social hegemony

The period when dam-induced migrations took place coincides with a time when internal security concerns began to sprout in Turkey. Local community put citizens of Eastern Anatolian origin, who settled in Didyma with the Denizköy and Yalıköy, on par with the terrorist groups causing unrest at the time and did not approach the dam immigrants out of fear and reservation. Unable to build lasting relations with the immigrants on a social level, or rather afraid to build such relations, locals had withdrawn into their shells. P22-Fuat states the attitude of locals of Didyma at the early stages of immigration as such: *"We came here, and the locals here said, 'they came from the East, who are they, are they PKK militants or what,' and didn't give us jobs, stayed away from us."*

Dam-induced immigrants, who were discriminated due to the prejudices of the early stages of migration, began to actively partake in fields of tourism and commerce in a couple of years. The ongoing fears of the locals lead to their exclusion from the fields where dam immigrants were active and their disappearance from economic life. P14-Kartal states regarding how the process flowed after the dam-induced migration: *"After the construction of the dam in the East, our people came to Yalıköy and Denizköy. Along the way, they adapted, but the local community had some reactions, some prejudices. Prejudice is the most dangerous. No matter how they adapt, this prejudice still partly prevails. Despite everything, they embraced Didyma. […] I also have a lot of acquaintances there, they are active in both commerce and politics."*

Since migration routes, paved by dam-induced migrants, became busier as tourism sector developed, this lead to the hegemony of second and third stratum of migration in the social life of Didyma, as they earned their place economically. Today, this hegemonic form of social order reflected on both economic and daily life practices, is acknowledged by the local community and they do not even venture to attempt entry into the fields where immigrants dominate. P24-Melih summarizes the position of local

community regarding immigrants thusly: *"And most of them feel like they have to make friends with us, they cannot order us around."*

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The diversity created by migration movements, conceptualized as stratum of migration in Didyma, provides important opportunities to understand the nature of migration. Didyma is an unmitigated *laboratory of sociology* in terms of the insights it provides on almost all aspects of the phenomenon of migration due to the forced and voluntary immigrants it received. Didyma is a region which provides numerous opportunities with regards to making sense of tourism related migrations, which have not been delved much into in theories of migration (Südaş, 2005) and managing the consequences of these migrations. To this point, the immigrants who settled in Didyma from the year 1924 and onwards were distinguished into stratum according to the social characteristics they possess and have been grouped in terms of the historical contexts they belong in. As it is known, the concept of stratification in sociology is used to express the hierarchical fractioning that takes place among groups of people for whatever reason (Giddens, 2008). However, the term was used in this study not as referring to the state of inequality in the social structure or among social groups, but to refer to the different social characteristics of immigrants migrating to Didyma in different periods. In other words, the reason for the use of *stratum* to express movements of migration is to focus on the reasons of migration of individuals who have common characteristics. Thus, social groups varying and naturally creating different social dynamics, depending on the cause of migration, were connoted as "stratum of migration." In this context, in line with the aim of this study, the relations of every stratum with one another, their manners of relating to tourism and tourism dependent sectors and the social dynamics they have created was discussed over this narrative.

Sociocultural changes of Didyma are the deterioration of social values, declination of business ethics, changes in senses of identity and belonging, socio-spatial accumulation and emergence of social hegemony. As the result of the field study, it was determined that the development of tourism is a turning point in Didyma's changing social structure. While growth of tourism in a developing region alone is enough to create radical change, the degree of change in a region of tourism like Didyma, where sudden flows of migration took place over a short period, are even more drastic. It was found that the enactment of Land Registry Law was a turning point in the social history of Didyma. In other words, it was determined that

the processes which had the most profound effect on the social structure of Didyma, in the context of the relation of tourism and migration, began with the Land Registry Law. This legal development, which caught the locals of Didyma off guard, had destructive outcomes for both locals and immigrants. This process led Didyma to change shells in sociocultural, economic and environmental contexts. At this point, it was discovered with this research that, when examining the different dimensions of social change, it is crucial to think of the period where foreign natural and legal persons began to purchase property as a milestone.

Migration movements of social groups, who have internally homogenous characteristics, create social stratification. First and second stratum of migrations to Didyma, which took place within national borders and were forced, and the voluntary migrations, involving national and international movements, were evaluated in the context of the dynamics they created within themselves and also the relations among one another. The results of this study show that the locals, dam-induced immigrants and tourism related immigrants, who are divided into social stratum and possess different cultural characteristics, have different social reactions and different ways of relating to tourism.

Cultural capital in the context of etymon and native land leads to hegemonic constructs among stratum of migration. As it appears in the economic life as well, the research showed that there is a social hegemony between stratum of migration. Political biases against the citizens of Eastern origin, who had been relocated during the dam-induced migrations approximately 60 years after the locals arrived in Didyma, did not allow for neither a social nor an economic relation to develop between the two strata for a long time. Dam-induced immigrants, who speedily adapted to the commercial life after the post-migration process, became the dominant merchants and pushed the locals out of the economic life. Following the development of tourism industry, the arrival of immigrants using their connections with the previous ones turned the commercial deficiency of the locals into commercial fear. Such that today, this hegemonic form of social structure, which is echoed in economic life and also practices of daily life, is acknowledged by the local community and they avoid even venturing into the fields where immigrants dominate.

In cultural structures where social assimilation processes are not analyzed, legislations, such as the one allowing foreigners to purchase immovables, have the power to alter social codes. It was found as a result of this study that development of tourism industry in the region is a turning

point in the transformation of Didyma's social structure. While the rapid growth of tourism in any developing region is a source of radical change, in a region like Didyma, where this development led to rapid and sudden immigration movements, the changes are even more sweeping. The enactment of Land Registry Law was found to be especially important turning point in the social history of Didyma. In other words, it was discovered that the processes which had the most intense effects on the social structure of Didyma in the context of tourism and migration began with the enactment of Land Registry Law. This legal development, which caught the locals of Didyma off guard, had destructive impact on both the locals and immigrants. This process led to Didyma to change shells in sociocultural, economic, and environmental contexts. At this point, it was asserted that the period in which foreign natural persons purchased property needs to be considered as a milestone when different aspects of social change in Didyma is investigated.

Along with the international tourism activities, the European Union accession period (Südaş, 2012), incentive impositions created by the economic policies of the time and the effort to catch up with the global real estate market attracted the attention of local and national firms, as well as those who had no relation to construction industry. At this point, it was found that migration of labor, investor and entrepreneur pouring towards Didyma suddenly gained momentum. However, the period of change, which had destructive impact on the social life of Didyma, was found to take place when *everyone became a contractor*.

When migration movements towards tourist areas are considered, it can be said that acquisition of property has a facilitating effect in all those areas. However, in Didyma, it was found that not only the migration process was badly managed, but it also brought with it a number of problems as well. The fact that every sphere of society in Didyma was caught off guard, and that the immigration, which was mostly from Britain, was seen as the *English Opportunity (!),* all but normalized the exploitation. It was found in the study that as a result of this, the British rapidly entered the process of returning to their home country. Property sales that first started to rise during the first ten years following property acquisition, entered a period of stagnation, and finally, the process of re-selling immovables, as the British began to depart from Didyma.

This study has distinctive significant contributions to the sociology of tourism literature in a variety of aspects and a series of managerial implications. However, there are some limitations. First, the study was

conducted in Didyma, region located in Aegean coast of Turkey. Therefore, future studies may focus on other tourism destinations attracting tourism migrants due to its high level of tourism attractiveness such as Alanya, Fethiye, Marmaris etc. In addition, the reasons undergone of return migration of British residents to their home country or other countries can be investigated in future research.

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BEYOND RURAL CONTEXTS: COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM FOR A BETTER LIFE IN THE CITY

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ABSTRACT

Community-based tourism (CBT) is most commonly practiced in rural contexts. We focus on CBT in urban areas and argue that it can be practised in poor urban settings such as slums, favelas and townships. In terms of methodology, this paper is conceptual in nature and its aim is to unpack the framing of CBT in urban settings. Literature on CBT in urban contexts is scarce and negligible. CBT which favours disadvantaged contexts has the potential to improve the quality of life of people and enhance community development. Inequality in urban contexts is growing both between and within countries in both developing and developed economies. Against this backdrop, we explore CBT in urban areas (with a nomenclature community-based urban tourism – CBUT), and is specifically meant for poor, disadvantaged, marginalised urban contexts. We suggest that in CBUT, matters of 'proximity'; infrastructure; and geography are important enablers of tourism development. We argue that universities have an important role to play through skills development for CBUT. Given the scarcity of literature on CBT in urban areas, we contribute to the notion of community in a CBUT context and to the success factors of a CBUT venture.

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INTRODUCTION

Although community-based tourism (CBT) is most commonly practiced in rural contexts, we see merit in adopting this form of tourism in the urban context as well. Cities are huge attractions for both visitors and local residents on the basis of available amenities and industries, traditions, history, cultures, buildings, artefacts, heritage and so on. Moreover, cities around the world are important tourism destinations (Rifai, 2012,). Being relevant tourism destinations make cities important in their socio-economic relationship with the tourism sector, such that the visit is extraordinary for those who either come to meet relatives and friends or for business or leisure, while creating jobs in the city and impacting the local economy (Rifai, 2012). The things that local people take for granted could turn out to be the things that tourists want to see during their visits. For instance, the vegetable markets, the fish markets, the markets for locally made arts and crafts, the music and dances, the townships steeped in brim-full of cumulative histories of both despair and happiness are part of the assortment of the attractions of modern cities which induce their vivacity.

Community-based tourism is growing and is being practised in both developing and developed countries (Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2017a). For Giampiccoli et al. (2016, p. 550) there is no obstacle "to CBT development in various settings. Such development has taken place in both developed and developing environs […] and can take place in both rural (as it often does) and more urban contexts". International literature emphasises the practice of CBT as primarily a rural phenomenon in poor countries. However, it can be practiced in both urban and rural areas (Bhartiya & Masoud, 2015; Ndlovu & Rogerson, 2004; Rogerson, 2004a). Thus, a major *raison d'etre* of this article is to expand on this possibility as Mano et al. (2017) note that the number of studies on urban tourism focusing on, for example favelas, has been small. This article intends to contribute to the literature on CBT with specific reference to urban areas or what is called community-based urban tourism (CBUT). This follows the CBT concept and definition by authors such as Leksakundilok & Hirsch, (2008), Suansri (2003), RamsaYaman & Mohd (2004), Kayat (2014) (see also community tourism definitions and principles proposed in this paper). CBUT can be defined as a form of tourism in an urban context (specifically, in poor urban settings) that is controlled, owned and managed by disadvantaged community members for their benefit and in which the visitors are able to learn about local' culture, traditions and lifestyle, through their lived experience and everyday life. CBUT should be an empowerment tool that ensures holistic development of people and their communities involved and, indirectly, to

the community at large, while prioritizing the disadvantaged members of the community. This opens up a window of opportunity for Universities to undertake engaged scholarship, which entails working with communities and the deployment of expertise and knowhow residing in both sides, in pursuit of finding solutions to pressing societal problems for the mutual benefit of the university and the community. This is linked to current trends which encourage the co-creation and co-production of knowledge.

Our aim is to explore CBT in urban areas, specifically in poor, disadvantaged, marginalised urban contexts and unpack its potential. This is because CBT is generally conceived to be a type of tourism which is related to disadvantaged contexts in pursuit of community development in 'remote, rural, impoverished, marginalized, economically depressed, undeveloped, poor, indigenous, ethnic minority, and people in small towns' (Tasci et al., 2013, p. 10). There is a need to posit a form of CBT beyond the 'usual' rural context and to explore its specificities and opportunities in poor urban contexts, given the paucity of literature on CBT in urban areas. We acknowledge that most CBT studies have been case-based and done in rural, regional or natural areas. This is a conceptual paper based on desktop study in which an array of literature was reviewed involving documents in the public domain from government and non-governmental sources, articles and books. No new primary data were collected. Through inductive reasoning, some theoretical postulations are made based on the material reviewed. In terms of structure, this article is organised as follows: a literature review follows which presents issues related to urban tourism, slums/favela/township tourism, with a transition to CBUT. Thereafter, a section provides some opportunities of CBUT in poor urban contexts. We argue that there are context-specific considerations for urban areas. In that vein, universities are mentioned as key stakeholders through their work in the communities. Thereafter, the article concludes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Urban tourism is experiencing phenomenal growth, spurred by the growth of cities. At the same time, debate on the role of cities accompanied with the growth of global tourism, as well as, the role of tourism in the protection of the environment and cultural identities of cities emerged (Rifai, 2012). For Olalekan (2014) urban areas are at the centre of the numerous environmental and economic challenges of the 21st century. Cities are important in contributing to the well-being of communities and the tourism sector is an enabler in the realisation of this outcome.

On the American continent, it is noted that a lot of research has been undertaken in the Caribbean and Latin America focusing on non-urban tourism (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012). Similarly, Dürr & Jaffe (2012) are of the view that most of the work has focused on urban inequalities, with little focus on urban tourism per se. Urbanization is a factor that influences the pace and quality of growth of cities. Too fast and unplanned urbanization results in messy and disordered urban sprawl. Both positive and negative impacts can be linked to tourism in urban areas (Galdini, 2007; Pavlic et al., 2013; Shams et al., 2015). Urban tourism is growing and becoming a major tourism sector, thus there is a need to reflect on its effects on communities as well as on local economy, cultures and society (Pavlic et al., 2013). For example, from an Australian perspective, it has been noted that Australia's major cities accounted for about 70% of the population in 2009, and constitute important tourist destinations in their own right, with both positive and negative impacts being experienced by local communities (Edwards et al., 2010).

An interesting form of urban tourism – tourism in poor urban contexts such as slums, townships, favelas – is also growing. For instance, slum tourism has been growing very fast especially in Latin America and Caribbean cities, accompanied by related research (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012) and it has remained a highly debated leisure practice (Frenzel, 2013). Therefore, urban planners in cities must take into account urban tourism given its potential to create jobs and economic opportunities for a lot of people in the tourism and related industries (Rifai, 2012). It can be concluded that rapid urbanisation has its advantages and disadvantages. We argue that urbanisation is good for cities if it is carefully planned by harnessing its advantages, reducing its disadvantages and leveraging urbanity as a tourist ingredient. Pavlic et al. (2013), observe that unplanned and uncontrolled tourism can exert undue pressure on the socio-economic environments in destination cities, thereby further threatening the tourist activities and future city development. Cities are magnets for both local people as well as tourists on the basis of the opportunities they create. These opportunities can be harnessed for the benefit of both tourists and local residents if done in a sustainable way. This implies that current attractions, for both local residents and tourists, must be enhanced (and not impaired).

We make an important digression here. Cities are growing and so are disparities. Some people live in leafy suburbs of urban cities enjoying better services and accessing greater economic opportunities while others stay in slums. Thus, "the world's one billion African, Asian and Latin American slum dwellers, are more likely to die earlier, experience more

hunger and disease, attain less education and have fewer chances of employment than those urban residents that do not reside in a slum […] Globally, the slum population is set to grow at the rate of 27 million per year in the period 2000–2020" (UNDP/UNFPA, UNICEF & WFP, 2009, p. 1). Urban poverty is also increasing faster than rural poverty as people feeding into this growth are people who cannot enter the formal labour market to the extent that unemployment and under-employment are symptomatic of the urban landscape (UNDP/UNFPA, UNICEF & WFP, 2009). Growth in urban poverty is not just a developing world matter. Urban poverty is also a growing and concerning issue in the developed world. As such, inequality and poverty are a dual problem that must be taken seriously in both developed and developing urban contexts as a 'universal concern', because a majority (66%) of the world population lives in cities where the gap between the rich and poor is widening in emerging and developing countries (United Nations Human Settlements Programme [UN-Habitat], 2016). Additionally, in developed countries, many cities are experiencing gross intra-urban inequality, accompanied by pockets of private wealth, deteriorating infrastructure and diminishing chances for social mobility, resulting in heightened tensions between ethnic, racial and religious groups, including immigrants, violence, as well as, challenges of waste management and environment (UN-Habitat, 2016). Growth of cities has come with attendant problems related to the provisioning of social services, as well as, concentrations of people, many of whom are unemployed and some are under-employed. Such a scenario gives rise to crime and other social ills associated with extemporaneous human concentrations. Inequality breeds disunity, discontinuities, continuities and unities within the communities as new people come in and some leave.

Inequality is at its peak in the last 30 years as the gap between the rich and poor is yawning in most countries (UN-Habitat, 2016). In US, for example, "New York City is a microcosm of America's rising economic inequality [and it] has become the capital of inequality" (UN-Habitat, 2016, p. 19) with poverty reaching the suburbs in the USA (Murphy & Allard, 2015). Change and restructuring of urban contexts has had its consequences in the same period to the extent that developed countries witnessed major industrial restructuring because of trade liberalization, the fall of communism and the emergence of Asian economies, coupled with de-industrialisation and the ascendance of the services sector in primate conurbations (UN-Habitat, 2016). A shift from traditional manufacturing has led to the rise of tourism as a strategy for local economic development and urban regeneration, as a consequence of global economic restructuring

(Rogerson, 2004b). Common problems of widening inequality and industrial restructuring, which urban areas in developed countries face, serve to underline the relevance of this article to both developed and developing countries. New changes, new technologies, and new 'lives', new opportunities, and new inequalities are part of the evolving and non-static landscape of experience – the human experience.

In this context, urban tourism has a lot of potential as well as challenges. For instance, it can provide the impetus to develop urban destinations which are competitive, by improving places as visiting areas which are ecologically, economically, environmentally, politically and socially sustainable (Pavlic et al., 2013). This emphasises the fact that urban tourism needs to be carefully developed and managed. As expressed by the Secretary-General of the UNWTP who said;

> *"Managing urban tourism, however, is no simple task. As metropolitan areas expand rapidly, both the public and private sector face radical changes, as well as significant opportunities. Sustainably managing increasing tourist numbers amid a constantly changing city landscape while ensuring the city is developed to respond to the needs of both visitors and local communities is key." (Rifai, 2012, p. 4)*

It is paramount to safeguard the basis upon which urban tourism is built and prevent any negative impacts by developing a tourism which is steeped in sustainable development principles (Pavlic et al., 2013). With growth of tourism and strong sentiments for urban regeneration there is an impetus towards ensuring cultural integrity, environmental sustainability and community participation to achieve a locally-grounded tourism and new management practices in such a way that, as cities get revitalised, tourism should be used as a tool for community development (Galdini, 2007).

Within urban tourism, tourism in specific poor/disadvantaged/ marginalised urban contexts such as slums, favelas, townships is taking place in many parts of the world today. For example, slum tourism operations "are executed, *inter alia*, in the poor areas of Manila (Philippines), Jakarta (Indonesia), Cairo (Egypt), Buenos Aires (Argentina), Nairobi (Kenya), Mazatl´an (Mexico), Bangkok (Thailand) and Windhoek (Namibia)" (Steinbrink, 2012, p. 214). The global reach and diversity of slum tourism is today acknowledged as important for local economic development. Marginalised urban spaces around the world are becoming commodified such that slumming has become widespread in Europe, North America as well as in cities of the Global South (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012). It is

now difficult to define a 'typical' slum tour as tour operators target premium tours as well as low-budget backpackers with limited participation of local residents – for instance, township tours in South Africa are themed around apartheid politics; and favela tours (in Brazil) have a unique erotic flavor implying that they are context specific (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012). Slum tours are part of the urban tourism industry as part of a standard repertoire in Johannesburg and Cape Town; and favelas in Rio de Janeiro representing a 'must do' in those cities, with figures showing that about 300,000 tourists participate in slum tours in Cape Town and about 40,000 in Rio de Janeiro per annum (Steinbrink, 2012). The crucial point is how CBT evolved from rural context into urban tourism form? Understanding urban dynamics and suggesting CBT as a remedy for urban poverty requires taking a closer look to context-specific conditions. We admit that favela in Brazil and township tourism in South Africa are context-specific and therefore defy generalisations. Each is unique in its own right. For instance, township tourism in Soweto, Johannesburg, relies on the pull effect of iconic names like Nelson Mandela and the Archbishop Desmond Tutu who are both Nobel Prize laureates and both lived on Vilakazi Street, around which most of its township tourism activities are clustered. This gives this area its own historic dynamic linked to South Africa's pre-independence struggles for liberation and a unique tourism flavour around the Nobel Prize laureates.

The actual value-add of slum tourism in fostering and facilitating community development and poverty alleviation is debated. On one hand, slum tourism is considered voyeuristic and bad, while on the other, it is taken as a strategy to assist in community development. Thus, Frenzel (2013) notes that some critics consider slum tourism as unhealthy, while its proponents argue that it is good for poverty alleviation. Those who view it as bad, claim that such visits to poverty-stricken townships, can be likened to watching animals in a zoo (Nxumalo, 2003). While slum tourism promoters are of the view that it provides income, jobs and other non-material benefits as a development strategy, its critics highlight the limits of tourism to alleviate poverty and as a strategy for development (Frenzel, 2013).

Tourism itself is undergoing a process of transformation. Examples of this transformation include notions of volunteer, ethical and other forms of tourism taken to represent 'responsible tourism' which are considered amenable to development and fighting global inequalities (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012). Equally, the debates continue in terms of beneficiaries and benefactors – who gets the lion's share of the spoils and financial returns

emanating from tourism. We accept that CBT in urban contexts needs to be approached with care as its impacts are harder to be observed by virtue of scale, which is the case with rural areas as a panoply of diverse factors such as (in)formality, the spatial spread of enterprises (diffused and clustered), variegated nature of the activities and regulatory frameworks at play in such setting.

CBT aligns with alternative tourism approaches which emphasise holistic community development by fundamentally dissociating itself from neoliberalism and pursuing the goals of equity, social justice, empowerment and sustainable development in disadvantaged communities (Saayman & Giampiccoli, 2016). Fairness and equity in practice and commerce, community service and all human endeavours are a compulsion that if satisfied globally, better communities and a better society are possible to achieve. They have to be engendered, learned, engrained and ignited in all societies for holistic development to take place. We define community as a group of people with a shared attachment and commitment to a common cause.

The origins of CBT can be traced back to the new participatory and empowerment development approaches that occurred in development discourses of the 1970s (Bhartiya & Masoud, 2015). In this context, CBT emerged in response to the debilitating impacts of traditional mass tourism to extend to gastronomy, local cultures and traditional handicrafts (Bhartiya & Masoud, 2015). Indeed, many models of CBT have been proposed (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016). Some features and principles of CBT are fundamental and are related to local control/ownership of the CBT venture and development process, the relationship with disadvantaged segments of society; a strong alignment to issues of empowerment, social justice, self-reliance and so on. We also embrace the idea that cultural/educational policies should be addressed in participatory urban governance involving planning and community engagements.

CBT has immense potential to bring about community development and transformation as it is an innovative institutional development approach in which control of tourism development and ventures is retained by the communities (Yong, 2016). Community-based tourism involves projects which are owned, managed and under the control of local communities (Petrovic & Bieliková, 2015). It can be facilitated by external people or agents, who should hand it over to communities after providing training and infrastructure to local people (Bhartiya & Masoud, 2015). It can be surmised that CBT can result in both community development and

empowerment as well as reconfiguring community structures to be more equitable and democratic (Kayat & Zainuddin, 2016).

CBT should be measured for effectiveness by the manner and extent to which it develops and empowers local communities and not external parties (Kaur et al., 2016). Odeku and Meyer (2014) also argue that universities have a role to play in this milieu as catalysts for socio-economic transformation, by providing the necessary skills and techniques that improve the quality of life of communities surrounding them.

The key tenets of CBT are that ventures must be controlled, owned and managed by the disadvantaged community members in order to facilitate empowerment, social justice, equity, self-reliance and so on. Revenues from these ventures must benefit the individual operator and the community with benefit streams being financial and non-financial (involving training and education on matters of the environment, management and so on) (Kayat & Zainuddin, 2016). CBT has its own drivers and challenges. Important drivers for CBT include access to markets, commercial sustainability, conducive policy frameworks and implementation support (Hussin & Kunjuraman, 2014). The other key characteristic of CBT includes the venture being an indigenous effort steeped in local culture, aimed at individual and community-wide well-being; with a long-term perspective (Saayman & Giampiccoli, 2016). The challenges which many CBT ventures face include: marketing/market access, economic viability, low community financial resources, low local capacity, lack of infrastructure (Saayman & Giampiccoli, 2016). The success of CBTs rests upon partnerships and collaborations, attractive products made in the community, a community that is coherent, with ownership and control of ventures embedded in communities, good market research, transparency and demand-driven offerings and a system of monitoring and evaluation (Kayat & Zainuddin, 2016). Other fundamental principles of CBT which are encapsulated in a CBT-related E's model include (from a host's perspective): endogenous, environment, education, empowerment, equity, evolving: enduring, entrepreneurship, ethical, externalities – and from a visitor's perspective: exclusive, experience, enjoyment, ethnic (Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2017b).

While there is rarity in CBTs in urban areas as much as there are in rural contexts, CBT in urban contexts are present such as in Brazil Favelas (de Oliveira Rezende, 2014: Frenzel, 2013; Mano et al., 2017) and in South African township (Ndlovu et al., 2017). In South Africa, the Government issued the *Operational guidelines for community-based tourism in South Africa.*

The Guidelines properly articulate how to establish and run CBT ventures in both urban and rural areas on a viable path (National Department of Tourism, 2016). Thus, CBT can be proposed in urban settings. Table 1 shows elements related to Community based Urban Tourism (CBUT) such as characteristics and common problems.

Table 1. *CBUT elements*

Rationales for and Definition of CBUT

- City consists of communities;
- The dynamics and livability of city depends very much on its communities;
- Urban Tourism should benefit urban communities;
- Urban communities provide variety of uniqueness and activities
- The sustainability of urban tourism depends very much on its communities;
- People/tourists want to live close to nature and experience an authentic way of life – deepening the meaning of life;
- CBUT would also encourage 'greater variation' and 'local flavour' of tourism industry.

Source: CBUT (n.d., p. 3).

Common Characteristics of CBUT

- Small scale;
- Utilizing local resources;
- Benefits going to individuals or households in the community;
- Collective benefits;
- Community owned and management enterprises;
- Community enterprises within a broader co-operative.

Source: CBUT (n.d., p, 7).

Problems commonly faced by CBUT

- Poor market access and poor governance;
- Weak social capital - internal conflicts within community;
- Community institutional and managerial capacity is weak;
- Competition from mass tourism industry;
- Inadequate support from government agencies and donors.

Source: CBUT (n.d, p. 11)

One of the criteria for CBUT evaluation is 'scaling up' (by increasing in quantity and quality) (CBUT, n.d.). The scaling-up is very important as a way to shift the tourism sector towards realising local control and benefit. It can be argued that, while CBUT is usually intended for disadvantaged urban areas, similar opportunities should be extended to generally poor (or less poor) urban areas in order to embed the control of tourism in the hands of local actors in local contexts.

In CBT those community members not directly involved in CBT ventures should also derive some benefits from it (Bhartiya & Masoud, 2015). While this can be achieved with ease in rural contexts, especially in small rural villages, entailing the involvement of all (or most of) the local

population (especially the disadvantaged sections), in an urban context it would be unrealistic. It is therefore, our proposition that specific urban spaces such as a specific road/street, a group of few roads/streets, or a small neighbourhood or city area, should become the unit (the 'rural small village') upon which the concepts and model of CBT should be built, thus leaning towards a community-based diffused tourism (CBDT) model (see Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2020). In this context, it is important to take into account "the stakeholders sense of place, or place attachment, i.e. how the residents feel about their community and also what they do in that community such as how they engage visitors, each other, and natural resources" (Lindström & Larson, 2016, p. 73). The link and contextualisation in the local setting is fundamental. In the case of Soweto in South Africa, the stakeholders include the owners of spaza shops (informal traders in groceries and cultural objects and artefacts); owners of Bed and Breakfast facilities, restaurants and cafes, who receive domestic visitors, foreign fully independent travellers and at times business travellers attending Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Events (MICE); the local Municipalities and the Provincial and Central Government; and banks and related financial intermediaries. Travellers are interested in the township experience and the history of the country, while owners of enterprises and Government agencies are interested in incomes, jobs and the environment.

From a study of CBT in Favela, it is noted that communities seek political empowerment in their own terms of desire and expectations to preserve the well-being of their places led by themselves (Mano et al., 2017). In the same context, the role of government is critical in terms of policies and concrete actions as this proved decisive in Rio's favelas such that "the presence of the State is still crucial and irreplaceable" (Mano et al., 2017, p. 432). Of equal importance is the active involvement of the residents themselves – without them, not much can be achieved (de Oliveira Rezende, 2014). In South Africa "Township tours are mostly offered by businesses in 'white' ownership, which also retains most of the profits" such that not much wealth is retained in the communities as most of it benefits the white owners/entrepreneurs (Frenzel, 2013, p. 123).

It is evident that CBUT is very complex. Specific poor urban locations can enhance CBUT development. An example of a CBT in a poor complicated urban area is Tepito in Mexico City. The area of Tepito, is "a cluster of some 25 streets in the heart of Mexico City, is known as a barrio bravo, a crime-ridden, low-income neighbourhood where street vendors sell stolen goods (fayuca) at bargain prices" (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012, p. 115). The touristification of Tepito:

> *"increases the tensions between state actors, who oppose the Tepito tours, and the local residents. The community-based Tepito tours challenge official policies and city planning. They can be read as a strategy of resistance: as the municipal government is incapable or unwilling to help alter Tepito's reputation, certain residents take action themselves, using tourism as a means to advance their goals by representing and performing a more favourable image to a global audience. However, tourism also entrenches previously existing conflicts between leading figures in this district as not all locals benefit in the same way from these activities" (Dürr & Jaffe, 2012, p. 116).*

In this context it can be argued that the manner in which a CBT venture is configured and implemented, can predict its chances of success (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2017). It is the methods and techniques of implementation which are at the heart of the success or failure of the ventures (Sakata & Prideaux, 2013). It is important to assure proper implementation of CBT because if "it is not properly facilitated, it can inflict profound damage on communities instead of serving as a development tool for which it is intended" (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2013, p .1). We align with Giampiccoli and Saayman (2017) that a CBT venture is successful when majority ownership and control rests with the local players in the communities and we add the following elements: a CBT venture is successful when owners can live off their venture with some degree of comfort; they can pay off their debt to external entities; pay for their day-to-day running and recurring expenses; paying themselves and their staff consistently; and being able to generate some profit/surplus funds on which to pay their taxes and levies to government and its agencies, year in, year out. In this case, success is equivalent to sustainability in which size does not matter (with a caveat that a CBT venture should not inflict harm on other human beings and the environment). A CBT should be able to self-fund, run and expand as an ongoing concern.

DISCUSSION

Enhancing CBUT for Community Development

CBT has some common underlying principles (as mentioned above), such as, indigenous control and ownership of the CBT venture, a clear CBT development process, the pre-eminence of local culture, individual and community wide well-being (involving direct and indirect beneficiaries). This article presented matters specifically related to CBUT, which it considers important as each local context has its own specific characteristics.

As such, three main categories or concepts are here proposed: 'proximity', infrastructure and geography.

In any poor urban area, whatever the level of poverty and socio-economic marginalisation, there is the advantage to be physically close, or even within the city or urban conurbation as compared to a far small rural village. Thus, a CBUT venture or project can have 'easy' spatial access (from a distance/physical perspective) to various entities and institutions such as municipal offices, universities, tourism offices, or funding institutions/organisations that could be approached for assistance. Being close to such entities is very important because CBT ventures usually need external assistance (facilitation), especially in their initial stages.

Importantly, the closeness/proximity (or being within) the city allows the CBUT venture spatial access to the tourism market. Most tourists go to or arrive at cities at first contact. Major airports, railway and bus stations are located within urban areas. Therefore, CBUT ventures need their own transport to ferry their visitors from place to place. The proximity to the main source of the tourism markets can certainly facilitate greater contact. This can be augmented by the larger network of contacts that people in urban contexts usually command. As such, living in urban areas gives a huge comparative advantage to establish expansive contacts as compared to a far-away rural village. All of this can assist the CBT venture to have more opportunities and work more independently to attract and manage visitors. While proximity provides to the CBUT business an opportunity to work independently, external assistance for it remains important especially in the initial stages of the CBUT operations. Other human and financial resources are needed to allow the execution of an independent strategy which proximity enables. We add caveat that proximity to markets does not in itself ensure access to those markets. The facilitative role of Governments and its agencies is needed to promulgate rules and regulations that support market entry by these CBUT ventures.

We argue that the second important category relates to infrastructure such as roads, internet networks, water and electricity. The absence of such infrastructures in many rural areas can be a reality. Poor urban areas usually have all or some of them in different conditions. This does not imply that slums or favelas have proper and sufficient infrastructure. They usually may not have, but their infrastructure may be better as compared to a small rural village. Infrastructure in poor urban contexts is variegated but opens up new possibilities than in marginalised rural contexts. In the urban context, the possibility to have internet, electricity and roads is high and can

facilitate operators of the CBUT ventures to network and bring tourists, as they fully establish themselves as legitimate businesses.

A third aspect to consider relates to the geographical location of the possible CBT venture. Urban space is usually vast and at times porous but remains part of the greater city or conurbation. This implies that a CBT venture should establish its own boundaries within that space. As the CBUT project grows, boundaries can change. Therefore, it is advisable to start within a specific geographical area based on social parameters or a focus on shared attachment/commitment. This implies that the complexity of the community is particularly important to consider in urban contexts. It may be difficult to properly demarcate in urban context a specific area which has its own identity, shows its own specific character, that is different from other surroundings, especially where people 'feel they belong'. While it may change based on the type of venture or project as either being accommodation or a tour service, it needs differentiated geographies to enhance its appeal. We argue that a CBUT venture should be formed around specific urban spaces such as a specific road/street, a group of few roads/streets, or small neighbourhoods or city area. Scaling-up is possible with a focus on specific urban spots which can be associated with a place's own history or other specific aspects in areas where people 'feel they belong'. The aspect of belonging engenders some connection to place which in turn strengthens the tourist proposition when offered to visitors.

These proposed aspects relevant to CBUT development suggest that it is possible to exploit 'proximity' and infrastructure to start ventures within communities. As such, external facilitation and support should be directed towards capacitating and funding CBUT projects based on context-specific needs. For example, if a slum enjoys internet connectivity, it will be ideal to enhance the capacity of people to use the internet for the benefit of the CBUT and their own personal development beyond tourism. The CBUT project becomes a space for education and learning. Technical and business skills are important for community development in the same way as they are necessary for commerce and business.

Extending Opportunities in Urban CBT Development

Many universities in the world are located in urban areas, however their relationship with the urban local context is complex and certainly a subject of debate around the role of the university regarding community engagement. This is exemplified in the book, *University Engagement with Socially Excluded Communities* (Benneworth, 2013).

A city such as London has many universities, to the extent that UNWTO notes that with 43 universities, London has the largest concentration of Higher Education Institutions in Europe (UNWTO, 2012). In the US more than half of the universities are city-based "Yet urban universities have not typically been the most agreeable neighbours. At best, their involvement with adjacent communities has been intermittent and inconsistent" (Rodin, 2007, p .3). Thus, from a US perspective – but arguably valuable to note across the globe –Universities and urban colleges should be involved in finding solutions to societal problems because these problems are also their own. These problems include crime, poverty and deteriorating infrastructure and so on (Rodin, 2007). Recently Universities are including community engagement as one of their core academic missions to the extent that their work in communities is like an extension of their campus, as they provide volunteers, assisting local schools and improving infrastructure in local communities (Smith, 2014). It is important to emphasise that university community engagement projects or university-community partnerships should not be hijacked by the elite in communities (see Boyle & Silver, 2005).

It is important for universities to be more active in poor urban contexts. The case of Chennai in India is pertinent here in which slums were found to be lacking in many amenities, with more than 2,000 termed 'notified' and several hundred considered 'objectionable' and threatened with eviction (VasanthaKumaran et al., 2012). In this context, VasanthaKumaran et al. (2012, p. 99) explain the stakeholders involved and the modes of execution of a project:

> *"The project involved a broad range of actors from the academic field (Department of Geography, University of Madras, Faculty of Environmental Studies, York University), civil society (e.g. EXNORA International) as well as the public sector (Corporation of Chennai). The project aimed at helping the community to self-organize to resolve its own problems and to assess the outcomes of the community self-organizing to resolve their own problems. We have taken a participatory pathway and public-private partnership as promising pathways in development and governance of the city slums" (VasanthaKumaran, et al., 2012, p. 99).*

The relationship between universities and tourism/CBT has been noted (Giampiccoli et al., 2014). This involvement by Universities can take various forms. For example, universities have been involved in producing manuals and handbooks for CBT such as the Tourism Planning Research Group at the Faculty of Built Environment of the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia -which prepared a CBT handbook titled: *"How to Develop and Sustain CBT" (*Hamzah & Khalifah, 2009). CBT in Vietnam has seen a joint

effort emerging between the University and local communities. The Capilano University, Hanoi Open University has partnered with Sapa's ethnic minority communities to build the capacity of small business operators, local villages, and other tourism stakeholders (CBT Vietnam, n.d.). In this context, the fact that public universities are government institutions, they can play an active role in providing support based on the skills and expertise in fields such as marketing, business management and tourism and for the mere fact that they are already located in the communities in which they operate - guaranteeing a long-term relationship (Giampiccoli et al., 2014). Just as in a context of CBT, empowerment, social justice and self-reliance, are important and there is a similarity with the role of university community engagement in pursuit of the same objectives. In this context, university community engagement must move from being charity to adopting a social justice and empowering approach, as "charity work that it is not guided by social justice values will reproduce unjust structures and fail in the long run to stem the tide of injustice. If the service activity is not empowering the recipients, it further alienates those in need by separating them from their place in society" (Marullo & Edwards, 2000, p. 910).

The involvement of universities in their immediate surroundings, their 'poor backyards', is not just desirable, but an important duty which university should pursue. Universities have a vast array of expertise and resources and should involve themselves in various ways in CBT projects to facilitate its development in disadvantaged urban contexts within their communities. This does not mean that universities should not participate in rural contexts, but this is just to emphasise that the geographical closeness/proximity of the university and the surrounding poor urban contexts can facilitate logistical access and regular contact which opens up the possibility of having a long-term, sustained and close relationship with the community. In this context, the University can be particularly important in monitoring projects in the long-term. "The process of taking regular measurements of something, normally using indicators, in order to provide a better understanding of the current situation, as well as some idea of the trends in performance" is important (Twining-Ward, 2007, p. 8) thus the *in loco* presence of the university can certainly facilitate close relationships and problem-focused collaborations.

CONCLUSION

Urban areas around the world are very important tourism destinations. This is happening against a backdrop of swelling poverty in many urban areas (in both developed and developing countries). In poor urban contexts, slums, townships and favelas are widespread. While CBT has largely been linked to rural contexts, it, as we have seen, can also be done in urban contexts. We argue that CBT development transcends locality, as it deliberately targets disadvantaged community members in pursuit of empowerment, social justice, equity and so on. This article has contributed to the notion of the success factors of a CBUT and defining a community for urban contexts. It explored available possibilities in urban areas, specifically in poor/disadvantaged/marginalised urban contexts informed by the three factors of 'proximity'; infrastructure; and geography. Generally, the presence of better infrastructure in urban areas relative to far away rural contexts, works in favour of urban contexts. The proximity of urban areas to various entities and organisations and to the tourism market are important opportunities that should be exploited. Greater complexity posed by geographical location, its boundaries and its population are important matters to consider in CBT development. All in all, we observe that CBUT is not recognised enough and not adequately promoted in city/metropolitan areas around the world. This should change as CBUT has the potential to contribute to urban regeneration and development in poor areas first as well as across the whole city to empower local people so that they take control and benefit from, the tourism sector. We suggest the following areas for further research: to investigate the implications of different factors affecting CBUT in terms of spatial, social, economic and political aspects; how can CBUT address urban poverty; to investigate the phenomenon of overtourism and its impacts on CBUT; and what other yardsticks can be used to measure the success of a CBUT venture.

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THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON TOURISM SUSTAINABILITY: EVIDENCE FROM PORTUGAL

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ABSTRACT

Portugal is a country in which the tourism sector assumes great importance, contributing around 15% of the national GDP and with more than 1 million jobs. In this sense, COVID-19 is expected to have a dramatic impact on the Portuguese economy aggravated by the existence of a reduced internal market with low purchasing power and in which there is a high dependence on the external market. This perspective study explores the challenges and opportunities that Portuguese companies in the field of tourism are facing due to the emergence of this pandemic. The challenges faced by companies are both short-term and long-term. In the short term, it is essential to ensure sufficient liquidity to reopen activities and in the long term, it is necessary to be prepared and reactive to disruptive movements that may arise in tourist demand. However, it is also important to recognize that some opportunities can be exploited, such as the quality of the health response, the exploitation of a less mass tourism supply based on the components of social and environmental sustainability, the increase of tourism among the elderly population from countries with greater purchasing power and the acceleration of the digitalization of tourism operations.

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been the engine of economic growth in Portugal in recent years. Starting from insignificant values at the end of the last century, tourism is already nowadays an important part of the national product and contributes significantly to the balance of trade, to the emergence of new infrastructures and the creation of employment. Currently, there is a consensus that tourism is a key strategic axis for the sustained development of the territory. In 2018, tourism in Portugal provided 1.047 million jobs, which is equivalent to 21.8% of total employment (PRESSTUR, 2019). Furthermore, it represents about 14.6% of the national GDP (TravelBI, 2019). According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTCC) it is the 4th country with the highest rate of wealth generation by tourism (WEF, 2018).

The increase of tourism activity in Portugal in recent years was due, among other factors, to the capacity of initiative of entrepreneurs and the natural conditions offered by the territory (Moreira, 2018). The mild climate, the sunlight, and the proximity to the sea are factors widely highlighted and associated with natural conditions. In addition to the innate capacity of the Portuguese to welcome foreigners, there is also the entrepreneurial capacity of our companies, which have strengthened the offer of accommodation and multiplied the tourist entertainment. There has been international recognition of Portugal's attractiveness as a tourist destination, notably the World Travel Awards 2019 for the third consecutive year, the 11th edition of the Marketeer Awards, or the World Golf Awards 2018 as recognition as the best world and European golf destination. In Portugal, there are three regions where tourism has experienced significant development: Lisbon, Algarve and Madeira.

The effects of the pandemic caused by COVID-19 are having impact on the development of tourism activities worldwide (Gössling et al., 2020). Although many travel and tourism companies are used to including a risk management and assessment model in their business planning, like it is stated in Ural (2015) and Ritchie and Jiang (2019), the nature of this pandemic has put these models under strong pressure as their impacts manifest themselves on a global scale. Measures to contain and restrict the mobility of citizens have resulted in a significant reduction in tourism demand, especially in international travel, with massive flight cancellations by the world's leading airlines. According to Horta (2020), Portugal is one of the European countries where a strong reduction in tourism activity is expected, with a forecast of more than 40% in the number of visitors. These values of economic contraction in tourism are only surpassed by Italy and

Spain. In this sense, this commentary intends to explore the challenges posed by COVID-19 in a country with a strong tourism component like Portugal. Additionally, this perspective also aims to identify opportunities for the development of tourism supply, which necessarily emerge, in the light of the new behavior of tourists motivated by COVID-19.

CHALLENGES POSED BY COVID-19

COVID-19 has caused a strong impact on international tourism, whose real economic and social effects are still far from being accounted for. We have seen major crashes in commercial aviation, closed hotels, and businesses. These have resulted in heavy losses and large-scale unemployment (ILO, 2020). This panorama is worrying and has an impact on all economies. However, its effect will be potentially greater in countries with a small internal market and where dependence on the outside is higher.

Tourism is extremely important for Portugal as it is indicated in the studies performed by Bento (2016) and Oliveira (2014). News in the media suggests that few are the Portuguese who are not directly or indirectly impacted by this sector of activity, both in the business and family dimensions. With the declaration of the state of emergency on 19th March 2020, motivated by the enlargement of COVID-19, limitations were imposed on the free economic initiative and movement of people. All non-essential services were suspended. In the tourism sector, this has caused the closure of hotels, restaurants, and leisure and recreational activities. Only two exceptions were visible in this area: (i) the continued opening of some hotels and hostels to receive health professionals; (ii) the operation of some takeaway restaurants. This situation caused some important paradigm changes. In the hotels, there has been an increase in the hygienic processes and the establishment of cooperation protocols with health local units. In restaurants, there was an exponential growth in collaboration with home delivery services, which grew strongly in a short period of time.

The challenges faced by companies operating in the tourism sector are complex and can be considered in the short- and long-term perspectives. In the short term, it is important for these companies to have the liquidity to meet expenses, especially with employees and suppliers. Breaking these agreements may lead to chain losses which then become unsustainable. The government has a key role to play here in finding innovative solutions to legislate and support companies financially. One of the best known and most influential measures in this field is the simplified lay-off, in which the

employee receives two-thirds of his or her gross pay up to a maximum period of three months. According to this model, the employee's renumbering in this period is guaranteed 70% by Social Security and 30% by the employer. However, this model may be unfeasible for companies that do not have sufficient liquidity to ensure this support component. Other measures have also emerged that are conceptually interesting, but in practice may prove to be ineffective. Credit lines envisaged by the government may force an excessive debt of enterprises. Moreover, these processes can be excessively bureaucratic and can reach companies too late.

In the long term, the challenges are less concrete but no less demanding. Several uncertainties remain, namely whether after the pandemic the tourist behavior will be similar, whether this activity will decrease or increase, whether a more differentiating tourist offer will be sought. All these issues must be thought through beforehand by tourist operators to anticipate and be highly reactive to market needs. A central point of this challenge is how to deal with a market that may become disruptive.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR DEVELOPMENT

Portugal has been nominated in recent weeks as a destination of choice for living in the post COVID-19 period (Responsible Tourism, 2020). This recognition is strongly related to the response given by health services in the fight against the pandemic, which makes the country seen abroad with greater confidence than some of the main competitors. Tourists are expected to bring new hygiene and sanitization demands, which causes tourism agents to have to implement clear health safety measures. This is intended to strengthen Portugal's image as a safe destination that has been able to adapt quickly to the new times.

It is expected that tourists' priorities may change and that there will be greater demand for non-mass regions, places where they can have unique experiences and where quality prevails over quantity. Places where there is a demand for social and environmental sustainability, with more nature and fewer crowds, and offered by small hotel units and resorts with a familiar approach, may become the most sought after places by tourists in the post COVID-19 era. This opens a window of opportunity for the emergence of under-exploited tourist sites, in areas like the countryside and the Alentejo. This could also be beneficial in combating the desertification

of certain regions of the country and reducing the social asymmetries between the coast and the interior of Portugal.

In recent years Portugal has seen an increase in the attraction of the elderly population of Northern and Central Europe, who seek Portugal to live the last years of their lives. According to Lopes et al. (2020), a key reason is weather conditions and the existence of a good private health system that offers good conditions for a person to retire. Considering that this segment of the population is one of the most affected by COVID-19, the incentives to move to a safe and comfortable place in the last years of life are even greater.

Another identified opportunity is the digitalization of tourist operations. The strong role of information technologies and alternative payment methods in the growth of tourism activity and in attracting new audiences is recognized (Almeida et al., 2019). Tour operators should accelerate these digitization processes and promote the establishment of distance businesses and the adoption of new digital platforms (e.g., social networks, virtual congresses, etc.) that allow the formalization of distance businesses and greater diversification of tourism promotion.

CONCLUSION

Tourism in Portugal has assumed an important role in the economic recovery that Portugal has experienced since the 2011-2014 economic crisis. In this sense, it is expected that the COVID-19 pandemic will have a strong impact on tourism and consequently on the country's economy. Unlike other crises, which allow tourism operators in Portugal to diversify markets and the profile of tourists, this pandemic has caused abrupt and sudden breaks in all activities. Immediately, the COVID-19 caused a severe drop in tourists since the beginning of March and that had an even greater impact with the declaration of the state of emergency. The major dilemma facing businesses is how they will have enough liquidity in the short term to cope with the brutal drop in revenue. In the long term, it is expected that this situation will lead to disruptive movements in the tourism market and that businesses will necessarily need to adapt.

Despite the clear challenges faced by tourism operators, some opportunities can be recognized. Four clusters of opportunities have been identified in this respect: (i) the perception of Portugal as a safe sanitary destination; (ii) the search for places with a less massive tourist offer and that combine the components of social and environmental sustainability;

(iii) the greater attractiveness of the Portuguese tourist sector to the elderly population; and (iv) the acceleration of the digitalization of tourist operations.

Although the study focuses explicitly on Portugal, the elements identified concerning the challenges and opportunities posed by COVID-19 are relevant for other small-scale economies and countries who looked at tourism as a way to sustain their economic growth. As future work, it would be desirable to perform a comparative study of the challenges posed to small economies, heavily dependent on tourism, and to analyze how the support measures defined in the national and local context have enabled the tourism industry to ensure the sustainability of its operations.

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