

# Jomat

## Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism **2023**

Volume: 8 Issue: 1

ISSN: 2645-9078

[www.jomat.org](http://www.jomat.org)

[www.dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/jomat](http://www.dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/jomat)

**DergiPark**  
AKADEMİK



**Year:** 2023

**Volume:** 8

**Issue:** 1

**Publisher:** Yusuf Karakuş

**Editor-in-Chief:** Bekir Bora Dedeoğlu

Neveşehir HBV University  
editor@jomat.org

**Associate Editor:** Yusuf Karakuş

Recep Tayyip Erdoğan University  
yusuf@jomat.org

**Field Editors:** Ömer Çoban

Neveşehir HBV University  
omercoban@nevesehir.edu.tr

**Erhan Boğan**

Adıyaman University  
ebogan@adiyaman.edu.tr

**André Riani Costa Perinotto**

Universidade Federal do Delta do Parnaíba  
perinotto@ufpi.edu.br

**Methodology Editors:** Kemal Gürkan Küçükergin

Atılım University  
gurkan.kucukergin@atilim.edu.tr

**Ozan Atsız**

Neveşehir HBV University  
ozanatsiz@nevesehir.edu.tr

**Assistant Editors:** Koray Çamlıca

Neveşehir HBV University  
koray@jomat.org

**Language Editors:** Celal Yılmaz

Kelsey Wick

**Social Media Editor:** Ömer Faruk Canlıoğlu

**Content Editor:** Gökhan Onat

**Abstracting** ULAKBİM TRDİZİN

**CABI**

Cabi Leisure, Hospitality & Tourism

Leisure Tourism Database

Agricultural Economics Database

Nutrition and Food Sciences Database

Rural Development Abstracts

Sociology Abstracts

Environmental Impact

**SOBİAD**

**Address:** Recep Teyyip Erdoğan Üniversitesi, Ardeşen MYO  
Fatih Mahallesi Ardeşen Kampüsü 53400  
Ardeşen / RİZE TÜRKİYE

ISSN: 2645-9078

## Aim & Scope

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

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

## Journal History

*Journal Previous Name: Disiplinlerarası Akademik Turizm Dergisi*

*eISSN : 2548-0847*

*Year: 2016-2018*

*All these contents are licensed under a Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0).*

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

<https://jomat.org>

[info@jomat.org](mailto:info@jomat.org)



## Editorial Advisory Board

Full Name	Email	Affiliation	Country
<b>Babak Taheri</b>	<i>b.taheri@hw.ac.uk</i>	<i>Heriot-Watt University</i>	<i>United Kingdom</i>
<b>Bendegül Okumus</b>	<i>bendegul.okumus@ucf.edu</i>	<i>University of Central Florida</i>	<i>USA</i>
<b>C. Michael Hall</b>	<i>michael.hall@canterbury.ac.nz</i>	<i>University of Canterbury</i>	<i>New Zealand</i>
<b>Cihan Cobanoglu</b>	<i>cihan@sar.usf.edu</i>	<i>University of South Florida Sarasota-Manatee</i>	<i>USA</i>
<b>Dogan Gursoy</b>	<i>dgursoy@wsu.edu</i>	<i>Washington State University</i>	<i>USA</i>
<b>Dora Agapito</b>	<i>dagapito@lincoln.ac.uk</i>	<i>University of Lincoln</i>	<i>United Kingdom</i>
<b>Erhan Boğan</b>	<i>ebogan@adiyaman.edu.tr</i>	<i>Adiyaman University</i>	<i>Turkey</i>
<b>İbrahim Yılmaz</b>	<i>iyilmaz@nevsehir.edu.tr</i>	<i>Neveehir HBV University</i>	<i>Turkey</i>
<b>Javier Sánchez García</b>	<i>jsanchez@uji.es</i>	<i>Jaume I University</i>	<i>Spain</i>
<b>José António C. Santos</b>	<i>jasantos@ualg.pt</i>	<i>University of Algarve</i>	<i>Portugal</i>
<b>Leung Paul</b>	<i>paulkh@vtc.edu.hk</i>	<i>Technological &amp; Higher Education Inst. of Hong Kong</i>	<i>Hong Kong</i>
<b>Mahmood A. Khan</b>	<i>mahmood@vt.edu</i>	<i>Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University</i>	<i>USA</i>
<b>Maria D. Alvarez</b>	<i>alvarezm@boun.edu.tr</i>	<i>Bogazici University</i>	<i>Turkey</i>
<b>Maria Younghee Lee</b>	<i>youngheelee@must.edu.mo</i>	<i>Macau University of Science and Technology</i>	<i>Macau</i>
<b>Marianna Sigala</b>	<i>Marianna.Sigala@unisa.edu.au</i>	<i>University of South Australia</i>	<i>Australia</i>
<b>Mark Anthony Camilleri</b>	<i>mark.a.camilleri@um.edu.mt</i>	<i>University of Malta</i>	<i>Malta</i>
<b>Mohamed Battour</b>	<i>mohamedbator@gmail.com</i>	<i>Tanta University</i>	<i>Egypt</i>
<b>Noel Scott</b>	<i>noel.scott@griffith.edu.au</i>	<i>Griffith University</i>	<i>Australia</i>
<b>Orhan Batman</b>	<i>obatman@sakarya.edu.tr</i>	<i>Sakarya University</i>	<i>Turkey</i>
<b>Osman M. Karatepe</b>	<i>osman.karatepe@emu.edu.tr</i>	<i>Sakarya University</i>	<i>Turkey</i>
<b>Piera Buonincontri</b>	<i>p.buonincontri@iriss.cnr.it</i>	<i>National Research Council-IRISS</i>	<i>Italy</i>
<b>Roberto Micera</b>	<i>r.micera@iriss.cnr.it</i>	<i>Inst. for Research in Innovation &amp; Service for Develop.</i>	<i>Italy</i>
<b>Sevil Sonmez</b>	<i>sevil.sonmez@ucf.edu</i>	<i>The University of Central Florida</i>	<i>USA</i>
<b>Shun-Chuan Lin</b>	<i>zv1@mail.stust.edu.tw</i>	<i>Southern Taiwan University of Science and Technology</i>	<i>Taiwan</i>
<b>Şule Aydın</b>	<i>suleaydin@nevsehir.edu.tr</i>	<i>Neveehir HBV University</i>	<i>Turkey</i>
<b>Thiago Duarte Pimentel</b>	<i>thiago.pimentel@ich.ufff.br</i>	<i>Universidade Federal de Juiz de Fora</i>	<i>Brazil</i>
<b>Zeynep Aslan</b>	<i>zeynep.aslan@adu.edu.tr</i>	<i>Adnan Menderes University</i>	<i>Turkey</i>
<b>Zhou Yong</b>	<i>yzhou@must.edu.mo</i>	<i>The Macau University of Science and Technology</i>	<i>Macau</i>

## Contents

### *Research Article*

1. Advertising analysis of hotel businesses in terms of digital visual culture

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-1>

*Olca Özsık Yapıcı, Tabir Büyükkaragöz*

Page: 1-11

### *Research Article*

2. Why are the cook chefs always male: Research on the cook chefs who works at hotel cuisines

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-13>

*Serdar Oktay, Nafiya Güden*

Page: 13-18

### *Research Article*

3. Chef and sommelier's share in Michelin star success: The case of Denmark

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-19>

*Sami Sonat Özdemir, Buğra Özdemir*

Page: 19-25

### *Research Article*

4. The impact of perceived cleanliness on customer satisfaction, revisiting intention and complaining behaviors: The case of restaurants by S-O-R Model

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-27>

*Hülya Taştan, Aykut Göktuğ Soylu*

Page: 27-38

### *Theoretical Article*

5. How COVID-19 Has Affected Supply and Demand Within Tourism Industry

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-39>

*Gül Şerife Hıyugüzel Kaşla, Burcu Türkcan, Meltem Ince Yenilmez*

Page: 39-49

### *Research Article*

6. The mediation effect of destination image on the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection: The case of Hatay

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-51>

*Damla Duman, Çağrı Saçlı*

Page: 51-66

### *Review*

7. The magical realistic world of the virtual recreation

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-67>

*Özlem Güncan*

Page: 67-79

### *Research Article*

8. Specialization of law enforcement for tourism security: the case of Turkish Gendarmerie

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-81>

*Yusuf DüNDAR, Cemal Ersin, Silik Erdem Özgür*

Page: 81-92

### *Theoretical Article*

9. Engaging poverty with tourism: Pro-poor tourism perspective

<https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2023-8-1-93>

*Oğuz Çolak, Vahit Oğuz Kiper, Said Kınır*

Page: 93-100

# Advertising analysis of hotel businesses in terms of digital visual culture

Olca Özişik Yapıcı\*, Tahir Büyükkaragöz

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Digital visual culture,  
Advertisement,  
Youtube,  
Hotel,  
Tourism.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the hotel advertisements broadcast on YouTube in different continents in terms of digital visual culture. The ads on the YouTube page of the hotel companies were analyzed by semiotics method. The use of technology, the quality of service and the sense of trust were prioritized as a result of semiotic analysis of the advertising films on the YouTube pages of the hotel company located in 3 countries located on different continents. According to findings, the local tastes and cultural values, as well as the outdoor attractiveness of the countries in which they are located among the common points of the commercials in terms of digital visual culture. In addition to the short duration of the commercials presented by the hotels via YouTube, there are also messages related to the selected target market. With the widespread use of information and communication technologies, hotel businesses take their place on social media and different platforms. Hotel businesses in the tourism sector should use social platforms extensively in order to compete, to increase their market share and to ensure customer satisfaction. Promotional images and commercial films prepared on social platforms should be made by considering market segmentation. Hotel businesses should not forget that the visual culture is digitalized in the commercials they use on social platforms.

### Article History:

Submitted: 05.11.2021  
Revised:05.07.2022  
Accepted: 01.09.2022  
Published Online: 05.09.2022

## 1. Introduction

Advances in technology have become faster with the transition from an agricultural society to an industrial society and have even influenced the culture of people. During the time period we are in, we are constantly faced with new products, new designs and new ideas. The widespread use of the Internet, the use of new technologies and many situations such as social media make it possible to disseminate studies that prioritize visualization. Rapid change also affects visual culture. Advertising studies that can better understand the customer, appeal to their culture and meet their expectations are carried out on social media and Internet sites at all times of daily life. Along with the developments experienced, the visual cultures of the customers also differ. The geography in which it is located is effective in the formation of the visual culture of the people and paves the way for the differentiation of the visual culture with the development of technology.


Along with the fact that tourism enterprises conduct studies on advertising activities, the areas advertised are diverse with the progress in technology. Social media accounts, digital platforms and web pages are emerging as new

channels in which these advertising works are taking place. In this study, it is emphasized whether the digital visual culture differs in the advertisements of hotel businesses in different countries with the development of technology. It is aimed to determine the similarities and differences of the advertisements shared by the hotels on their youtube accounts in terms of digital visual culture. In the study, semiotic analysis of commercial films was carried out. Semiotics is a science in which the meanings that cover the formation process of the indicators of a culture and the functioning of the indicators are explained (Cebi, 2007). It can be stated that advertising as a form of expression is related to visual culture. Visual culture can be considered as an element that shapes the advertisement. When visual culture is considered as an element that shapes the advertisement, hotel businesses should work by considering the visual culture in their advertising activities.


## 2. Visual Culture

When it comes to visual culture, the combination of visual and cultural concepts means more than researching the visual and the cultural. Visual culture is not only the cultural evaluation of visual products. Visual culture also

\*Corresponding Author

Olca Özişik Yapıcı: Dr., Ondokuz Mayıs University, Samsun, Türkiye, Email: [olca.yapici@omu.edu.tr](mailto:olca.yapici@omu.edu.tr), Orcid Id: 0000-0002-5197-5313 

Research paper

Tahir Büyükkaragöz: Lecturer, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Samsun, Türkiye, Email: [tahir.buyukkaragoz@omu.edu.tr](mailto:tahir.buyukkaragoz@omu.edu.tr), Orcid Id: 0000-0002-0825-2486 



determines how culture is determined through visuals by making use of different fields (Soyuer, 2019, pp. 14). According to Barnard (2003), visual culture is something that has been produced by human beings, has been interpreted by humans, and has meaning both functionally and communicatively. In Barnard's (2003) definition, there are four classes of the visual. The order of the classes is from the most general to the narrowest meaning: everything seen, everything produced and put forward by man, functional purpose and functional design, and aesthetic purpose.

The concept of visual culture includes the individual, the society, the culture and the images (Kazel, 2017, pp. 47). Visual culture is defined as things that are formed by the combination of visuality and culture, created by human, have a function, provide communication and have aesthetic concerns (Barnard, 1998, pp. 38). Visual culture changes people's behavior and experiences of visual elements that emerge by the effect of Technologies (Tavin, 2009, pp. 1). The important thing in visual culture is the meaning that the visual tries to express for individuals and societies, rather than what is handled. In modern societies, visuality is effective in the formation of cultural identity by influencing the daily experiences and behaviors of individuals (Kazel, 2017, pp. 47). Although the concept of visual culture was first evaluated within the discipline of fine arts, it has become a concept used in many different fields such as sociology, communication and tourism, which are related to culture today (Jenks, 1995, pp.16). Visual culture, which is an interdisciplinary concept, covers wide areas such as television, sculpture, photography, film, buildings, gardens, toys, advertisements, web pages and landscapes, but is based on human experience (Kuru, 2011).

Visual culture takes place as a research area in the transfer of visual culture application to the audience as screen culture as a result of handling, evaluating and analyzing media values. When it comes to visual culture, design and aesthetic values come to the fore. The image-generating systems that arise due to the influence of technological development ensure that the visualization undergoes changes. In particular, the media and related elements are effective in the formation, shaping, and changing of visual culture (Kazel, 2017). Today, with the spread of visuals, we can observe that the culture has changed and almost turned into visuality. The absence of visuals emerges as the songs are without clips and the information technologies and web tools are not used without taking place on the billboards of the events and activities (Barnard, 2003). In order to spread the culture through visuals, mass media and methods such as the internet, television, smart phones, and social media provide easy access to all kinds of information at the international level. Cultural products are used to create and design identities in different cultures and different societies. Different objects are used due to the differentiation of societies. A cultural structure based on visuality has started to form with the effect of technological

development. There is a decrease in reality and an increasing culture of visuality with the technological change experienced (Chasan, 2020).

The fact that technology is progressing every day affects the social environment and living spaces. With the new technology, culture is intertwined, lifestyles have changed, and differences in thoughts have occurred (İnan, 2019, pp. 69). One of the cultural structures that arise with the influence of technology is digital culture. Culture is influenced by technological developments and turns into a form in which digital structures are effective. The situation in question is called the digitalization of culture (Timisi, 2005, pp. 92). With the digitalized visual culture, communication is provided through virtual environments and communication is very fast and the concept of time has no limits. With the developments in information and communication technologies, it is a fact that there were cultural transformations in print in the 19th century, in electronic in the 20th century and in digital in the 21st century (Karagöz, 2013, pp. 139). With the developments in technology, it is necessary to use more visual elements in order to interact and make communication more effective. The frequent use of visual elements has diversified and increased, especially in advertisements. The fact that the visual elements used in advertisements can be seen and watched by the society and presented in connection with many different things have been effective in the emergence of new meanings in human life (İnan, 2019, pp. 71).

### 3. Advertising

Advertising appears in most areas of our lives, both as an effective communication and as a cultural concept. Advertising includes efforts to promote a good or service. Advertising is the process of producing messages, giving information, and activities to ensure the sale of a good or service (Mutlu, 2012, pp. 260). Advertising is a communication method in which people shape their ideals in line with their preferences (Reichert, 2004, pp. 84). Advertising covers the presentation of goods and services in the market for the purpose of informing or persuading people (Bolen, 1984, pp. 5). Advertising is defined as a tool that has the power to reach large audiences in order to create awareness about a product or service (Kotler, 2000, pp. 151). Advertising includes works aimed at publicity of goods, services, institutions or organizations, a person or an identity for a certain fee through mass media (Altunışık, et al., 2004).

The features of the advertising are as follows (Solmaz, 2019, pp. 490);

- Both individuals and institutions can use the advertisement for promotional purposes about their goods and services,
- It has a certain price,
- It covers sales activities even though it is not personal,

- Advertising has a subject such as product, service, and idea,
- Advertising businesses or advertising individuals are known
- Advertising has the ability to persuade the target audience,
- Advertising ensures the rapid dissemination of promotional efforts.

Advertising activities are one of the tools that businesses can use within the scope of their marketing activities. Hotel businesses can retain their old customers, have new customers, and maintain or increase the market share of the business through the advertisements they use. Advertising, which contributes to the brand formation of the business, is also an effective tool in reaching the determined sales (Ünüvar, 2012, pp. 59). The first purpose of advertising is to influence the emotions of individuals, which play a motivating role on their purchasing behavior. Before purchasing behavior, the individual approaches the product/service with curiosity and interest and has the chance of making comparisons. Elements such as atmosphere, environment, colors, music, and prestige are effective on touristic purchasing behavior, especially when it comes to touristic products (Teker, 2002). Research on advertising focuses on the messages, content, practices and culture to be conveyed. Advertisements with cultural messages address the topics of ideology, culture, and commodities (Dyer, 2010, pp. 111). Advertisements show their multidimensional and multi-meaning features by giving the opportunity to different readings in terms of content. The commodification of culture reveals the right of capital to exploit all life. A reputation and identity system has been created as a result of the value, symbolic values and pleasures obtained with the use of goods or services (Erdoğan, 2014, pp. 70).

#### *Advertising Activities in Hotel Enterprises*

Nowadays, when information and communication technologies are developing rapidly, businesses that can keep up with the change can gain a competitive advantage and update themselves (Liao & Wu, 2010, pp. 1095). Globalization has contributed to the increase in competition, especially among hotel businesses. Hotel businesses can survive in an intense competitive environment by ensuring the satisfaction of their customers, meeting their expectations, and keeping up with changing conditions (Sin, et al., 2005, pp. 163). The best meeting of expectations along with the services provided may not always be enough for a hotel business. At this point, it is necessary for the hotel business to inform its customers about its goods and services, to carry out informative activities, and to trigger the purchasing behavior of its customers. Advertising is the most effective marketing tool that hotel managers can use to realize purchasing behavior (Solmaz, 2019, pp. 496).

Since tourism has a structure that is affected very quickly by the differences experienced, the risk situations of hotel businesses are high. Hotel businesses are also among the businesses that can catch up with the current trend and respond to the expectations of their customers as soon as possible. It can be stated that hotel businesses always have a lively structure (Batman, 2008, pp. 27). Hotel businesses need to pay attention to some situations while performing their advertising activities. Advertising activities have an effect on creating demand and stimulating existing demand. Hotel businesses should carry out advertising activities by determining the target audience they are addressing. The primary purposes of hotel businesses when doing advertising activities are to increase the occupancy rate of the hotel and to create a positive image. Secondary purposes of hotel businesses are to destroy the negative image (İçöz, 1996, pp. 152).

When the studies on the advertising activities of hotel businesses are examined in the literature, it is seen that there are more studies on the advertisements of destinations (Johnson & Messmer, 1991; McWilliams & Crompton, 1997; MacKay & Smith, 2006; Decrop, 2007; Park et al., 2013). There are also limited studies examining the advertisements of hotel businesses (Eröz & Doğdubay, 2012; Lwin & Phau, 2013; Hsu & SooCheong, 2008; Chen & Lin, 2013; Tunçsiper & İlban, 2006; Sezgin, Ruhan & İnal, 2008; İnal, İri & Sezgin, 2010) However, it is not possible to examine the advertisements of hotel businesses in terms of digital visual culture.

## **4. Method**

### *The Purpose and The Importance of the Research*

Within the scope of the research, YouTube ads will be examined with the perspective of digital visual culture, which has emerged by being influenced by the development and digitalization process of visual culture on the axis of technology. The functional and semantic expressions of the concept of technology in advertisements broadcast over the internet, the structural meanings of technology in advertisements and the emergence of technology will be evaluated within the scope of this research. This study is important in terms of the fact that the advertisements of hotel businesses have not been examined in the context of digital visual culture before. It is thought that it will contribute to the field by examining how tourists are addressed by the help of the advertisements published on the YouTube page through the example of the Marriott International hotel and how tourists affect the world of meaning. Determining how technology is used in advertisements by the findings to be obtained is another important situation. It is important to analyze the meanings of the indicators presented within the scope of hotel advertisements and to identify the myths in terms of contributing to the literature.



### Research Method

A semiotic review will be made of the advertisements on the YouTube pages of Marriott International hotel businesses. Semiotics is a science that explains the meanings covering the formation process of the signs of a culture and the operation of the signs (Cebi, 2007). Semiotics enables to make descriptions and go beyond the content after the observation carried out in order to explore the depths of meaning (Bource & Yücel, 2012). Semiotics focuses on the analysis of meaning. It focuses on revealing abstract situations such as how meaning is formed, the creation of meaning, and the design of meaning, and everything related to meaning is evaluated within the scope of semiotics (Kurtçu, 2018). Semiotics as a theory was first put forward by the American philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce. Later, it was developed by the linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. (Josephson, Kelly & Smith, 2020, pp. 155). After Saussure, who is described as the father of semiotics (Dabner, Stewart & Vickress, 2020, pp. 21), like R. Barthes, U. Eco, J. Deely, R. Jakobson, L. Hjelmslev, C. Morris, T. Sebeok, & A. J. Greimas have appeared in this field. In the context of research, Greimas focused his studies on semantics, not linguistics like others. He developed the method; he applied it in various fields such as literary discourse, image and music (Bayav, 2006, pp. 8). Advertisements are suitable for semiotic method in terms of analysis in terms of sound, image and dynamism (Horzum, 1993). Within the scope of the study, the researchers choose the sample they think is suitable for the purpose of the study according to their own judgments and the information they have obtained. Thus, it is thought that the targeted research will find an answer to the problem (Altunışık et al., 2010, pp. 141). For this reason, Marriott International hotels, operating at a global level and leading

in 2020 in terms of number of rooms, were chosen as the sample (Turizm Data Bank, 2020). The advertisements on the YouTube page of the hotels in Latin America, Venice and Indonesia will be examined in this research.

- How is the presentation of technology represented in the YouTube advertisements of the hotels in terms of visual culture?
- How are the meanings of digitalization organized and communicated in the YouTube advertisement of the hotels?
- How is the digital dimension of visual culture categorized as imagery in the YouTube ads of the hotels?
- What cultural references do the connotative levels of the prominent indicators in the YouTube advertisements of the hotels include?
- What emphasis on the social structure do the YouTube advertisements of the hotels make to the viewers?

Advertisements not only provide commercial gain for businesses, but also offer visual viewing to the audience. Only the advertisement on the YouTube page of the hotel businesses will be analyzed within the scope of the research.

For the analysis within the scope of the research, the model prepared by İnan (2019) by scanning the literature will be used. Frames from the commercial film are given in the model and there are analysis titles related to the titles of narrative, meanings, aesthetics, structure, metaphors and images, cultural references, ideology and binary oppositions. In the title of semiotic meaning and myth, there are criteria for sign, denotation, connotation and myth. Finally, there is the analysis title.



**Figure 1. Frames from the Marriott International Latin America Commercial**

Source: Screenshots from <https://www.youtube.com/user/marriottlatam/featured>

**5. Findings**

*Narrative:* While the main characters of the movie are spending time alone indoors, the commercial begins with the doors of the wardrobe suddenly opening and a suitcase thrown out. The handle of the suitcase, which has a Marriott tag attached, clings to the mother's hand. While the surprised mother is taken out of the room by the suitcase, the suitcase holds the father and daughter's hands. The family flying with their luggage in a fantastic way arrives at the hotel. A stylishly dressed doorman greets the family at the hotel door. The family settled in the hotel room via mobile phone. They are welcomed with food and drinks prepared on the table in their rooms. The family settles into the room in a fairy-tale manner, and the comfort and tranquility of the room is shown to the viewer in the advertisement. The girl of the family and the suitcase, which is the character of the movie, play happily in the pool, then the scene moves to a winter evening. In the shadow of the fire, the dance of the girl with the suitcase is shown in the warm and peaceful family atmosphere. At that moment, the girl and the suitcase fall and the wheel of the suitcase comes off and rolls towards the hotel attendant's feet. The family is saddened by the situation they see. The thing that ends the family's sadness is the suitcase that comes with the hotel attendant, whose wheel is repaired and looks better.

*Meanings*

*Purpose:* Marriott hotels offer all the opportunities for you and your loved ones to spend a peaceful, healthy and happy holiday and they think of everything for you.

*Feedback:* People do some preliminary research before purchasing the hotel services they need for vacation or other purposes. Marriott hotels plan everything and the best for their customers in the advertisement in question. The key factor here is trust. Many people face negative situations during their vacation. Even if hotels have the power to impress their customers with their physical structure, they may not be able to meet the expectations in terms of hygiene, quality of the kitchen, comfort and opportunities to make each of their customers feel special. Marriott hotels make their customers feel that they are with them at all times and always provide a service that exceeds the expectations of their customers.

Table 1 below shows the situation assessment of the advertisement on the YouTube page of the Marriott hotel in Latin America.

Table 2 below contains the semiotic meaning and myth regarding the commercial of the Marriott International Latin America hotel.

**Table 1. Advertising Evaluation of Marriott Latin America Hotel**

Aesthetic	Duration	70 seconds
	Speed	Fast, 32 filming, Change of average camera angle is 2,20 second./1
	Voice/Off-voice	Female Soloist
	Target	Families planning a peaceful holiday
	Humor	Lacking
	Perspective	Customer satisfaction, finding solutions
	Comparison	Available
	Calling directly	Lacking
	Extremism	Available
	Music	Available
Structure	Design	Animation
	Theme	Tourism
	Searching	Service purchase and sale
	Narrator	Visual narrative and music
	Ecole	Legendary
Metaphors and Images	The Suitcase	Playmate
	The handle of the suitcase	Hand
	Dislocation of the suitcase wheel	Disease\disability
Cultural References	The use of technology	
	The unity of the family	
	Taking off/fly in the sky	
	Macarons, an Italian cookie	
Symbols	Number of characters	Five (3 adult males, 1 female, 1 girl)
	Human	Entertaining
	Life style	Modern
	Groups	Family and business owner
Ideology	Requirements	Technology, health, safety, belongings
	Motifs	Contrary to the tiring and individualized lifestyle of the modern age we live in, a unifying lifestyle that can leave permanent traces in human life is at the forefront. While providing this, the basic framework is the value given to human beings.
Binary Oppositions	Individuality	Living together
	Technological addiction	Traditional Life
	Monotony	Excitement
	Sadness	Happiness

Source: Autors

**Table 1. Advertisement of Marriott International Latin America, Semiotic Meaning and Myth**

Indicator	Reference	Connotation	Myth
Smartphone and Laptop	Technological device that makes human life easier	A tool that reduces being social	Technology and the individual
Suitcase	A tool that provides ease of travel by putting personal belongings inside	Preparation for a dream vacation and journey	Guide, Friendship
Mask	A tool that minimizes the risk of transmitting viruses or diseases to both the person and the other person.	A tool that builds trust between people in terms of health	Trust, Security

Source: Authors

*Analysis:* In the first scene of the movie, all individuals in the nuclear family consisting of mother, father and daughter welcome the audience with electronic goods in their hands. There is a situation that gives the message that the traditional family structure has changed and the use of technological products has become an ordinary event. The suitcase, which is used as a metaphor, suddenly appears and causes behaviors that will eliminate this situation. The object used as a metaphor is the Marriott hotel, which welcomes the family as the fourth member of the family who can plan and make decisions. With the fantastic transitions used in the scenes in the movie, it is aimed to explain that the hotel offers a fun, fast and enjoyable holiday without understanding how the time passes. While the healthy and clean nature of the hotel is reflected by the masks worn by the characters, the safety of the hotel is demonstrated by the use of technological tools. The hotel, which determines the target audience as families with the characters in the movie, shows that it is suitable for families with children, as can be understood from the dialogues between the suitcase and the child. The fact that the negative situation experienced in the dance scene

between the child and the suitcase is eliminated and the sadness turns into happiness again shows that the hotel's customer satisfaction is at the forefront.

*Narrative:* The film begins with adventurous images of young women looking for a way out with a torch in a cave in Indonesia. The anxious facial expressions of the young women during their trips in the cave turn into a smile when they see the light filtering from the exit path. The women leave the cave happily with their clothes suitable for the environment, backpacks and cameras in their hands. Then, they eat pieces of meat cooked on skewers called "satay", one of the famous and traditional street delicacies. After the other scenes that introduce meat dishes continue with short transitions, two young women with their elaborate hair and classic evening dresses appear as chatting at a dinner table. The male chef brings the food to the table. After the dinner, accompanied by pleasant conversation, the stage continues with popular music. The commercial ends with the city transitioning to the night view from the hotel.



**Figure 2. Frames from Marriott International Indonesia's Commercial Film**

Source: Screenshot from <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCox70g89taRr1o5i8qEwJQw>

**Table 3. Advertisement Evaluation of Marriot International Indonesia**

<b>Aesthetic</b>	<b>Duration</b>	<b>30 seconds</b>
	Speed	Fast, 15 filmings, Change of average camera angle 1,50 second./1
	Voice/Off-voice	Male Soloist
	Target	Adventure-loving, modern and free women
	Humor	Lacking
	Perspective	Libertarian
	Comparison	Lacking
	Calling directly	Lacking
	Extremism	Lacking
	Music	Available
<b>Structure</b>	Design	Science fiction, modern culture
	Theme	Tourism
	Searching	Exploring
	Narrator	Visual narrative and character
	Ecole	Original
<b>Metaphors and Images</b>	Torch	Guiding
	Skewers and leaves	Traditional culture
	Camera	The moment that will not be forgotten
<b>Cultural References</b>	Pelalangan Arosbaya district	
	Local food (sate klopom ondomohen) and the way of eating (using the leaf as a plate)	
<b>Symbols</b>	Number of characters	Five (3 males, 2 females)
	Human	Free
	Lifestyle	Synthesized
	Groups	Young girls
<b>Ideology</b>	Requirements	Women's liberation, traditional and modern culture
	Motifs	Women living in Asian countries have equal conditions with men
<b>Binary Oppositions</b>	Traditional cuisine	Global cuisine
	Sporty	Classical
	Woman	Men

Source: Authors

**Meanings**

*Purpose:* The hotel's management offers its guests the opportunity to participate in different adventures such as local food, having fun, and having a pleasant time. It is possible to have a modern life in a city with Asian culture.

*Feedback:* People want to feel special in return for the service they receive in crowded cities. However, sometimes hotels fail to meet the expectations of their customers. All services offered at the Marriott hotel are carefully presented. In addition, it is a good option for those who are looking for a free entertainment opportunity, especially for women. Table 3 below shows the evaluation status of the advertisement of the Marriott hotel in Indonesia.

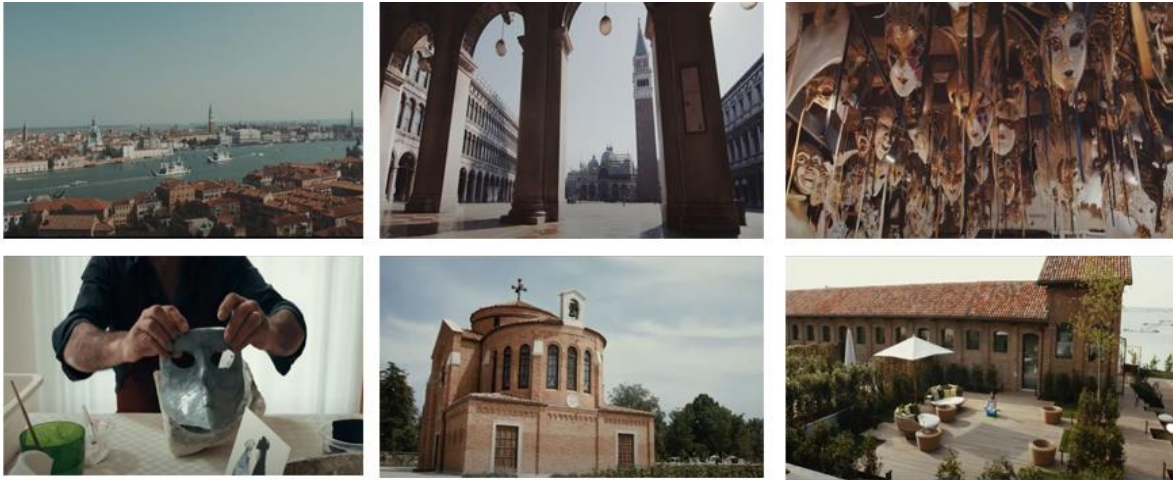
Table 4 below contains the semiotic meanings and myths of the advertisement of the Marriott hotel in Indonesia.

*Analysis:* The element featured in the advertisement of the hotel, located in Indonesia, the most populated Muslim country in the world, is the woman element. For instance, it is the male figure that serves, makes music and sings while the women eat and have fun. In addition, addressing the image of a young, attractive and modernly dressed woman who has the distinctive physical features of the region in the commercial may change the patterns in the perspectives of modern western societies towards Muslim women in Asia. It is emphasized that the hotel preferred by the modern people of the region is the Marriott hotel. In the first scenes of the movie, Pelalangan Arosbaya region, which is visited by photography enthusiasts or exotic travel lovers, is introduced. It is understood that the target audience in the commercial is tourists who love nature and cultural trips. In addition, the scene in which a local dish such as sate klopom ondomohen is discussed is a stimulant for the masses looking for difference in the field of

**Table 2. Marriott International Indonesia Advertisement, Semiotic Meaning and Myth**

<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Reference</b>	<b>Connotation</b>	<b>Myth</b>
Chef Apron	Tool that prevents clothing from getting dirty while preparing food	It is an expression that the person who prepares and serves the food is not an ordinary person but an expert.	Professionalism
Camera	Machine that records the image of an object on a film or electronic chip	To make the important moment permanent.	Remembrance, memory

Source: Authors



**Figure 3. Frames from the Marriott International Venice Commercial**

Source: Screenshots from <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCPRdWKjagTQ1KdaUoFK9EAg>

gastronomy. When examined in the context of the characteristics of the people in this scene, the synthesis of traditional phenomena with contemporary society can be seen.

*Narrative:* The movie begins with a general view of Venice. The advertisement presents the Venetian architecture, built with the influence of the Renaissance, which means rebirth. Gondolas can be seen with many examples of Venetian masks, which were used in theater

plays during the Renaissance period and have an important place in Italian culture. After the display of gondolas, the advertising scene again refers to the island of Murano, which is famous for its glass art applications, with a moving shooting angle over the architectural elements. Examples of glassblowing art are observed in the other scenes of the commercial film as remarkable details attached to the camera angles in the lobby or rooms of the hotel. The physical structure and general features of the

**Table 5. Advertising Evaluation of Marriott International Venice**

Aesthetic	Duration	308 seconds
	Speed	Slow, Medium, Fast, 105 filmings, Change of average camera angle is 4,50 second/1
	Voice/Off-voice	Lacking
	Target	Island vacation, calm and traditional people
	Humor	Lacking
	Perspective	Artistic, Romantic
	Comparison	Lacking
	Calling directly	Lacking
	Extremism	Lacking
	Music	Available
<b>Structure</b>	Design	Art and culture
	Theme	Tourism
	Searching	Living the past in the present, emotional intensity
	Narrator	Visual narrative
	Ecole	Renaissance and romance
<b>Metaphors and Images</b>	Winged Lion Sculpture	Venice symbol, mythology
	Mask	Freedom, tradition, social equality
	A person doing yoga	Resting of the soul and body, purification
<b>Cultural References</b>	Renaissance architecture and religious buildings	
	Winged lion figure in San Marco square (mythological reference)	
	Glassblowing workshops (Venetian school of glass art)	
	Masks (National Heritage)	
<b>Symbols</b>	Number of characters	Passive background characters
	Human	Free, romantic, art lover
	Lifestyle	Traditional, calm
	Groups	Lacking
<b>İdeology</b>	Requirements	Survival of culture, emotional intensity
	Motifs	Influencing human life in architectural and artistic fields with the influence of the Renaissance
<b>Binary Oppositions</b>	Old	Unmanned spaces
	New	Crowded places
	Woman	Men

Source: Authors

**Table 6. Advertisement of Marriott International Venice, Semiotic Meaning and Myth**

Indicator	Reference	Connotation	Myth
Inlaid stone buildings	Aesthetically valuable public or private property	Icons of Renaissance architecture	Cultural heritage
Winged lion statue	Artwork	It is a symbol representing the Evangelist Markos. This icon is the symbol of the city of Venice and the former Republic of Venice.	
Mask	Tool that hides the human face	Cultural symbol, Artwork	Mythology, Legend
Yoga	A form of exercise that focuses on breathing to increase physical and mental well-being	Being alone away from crowds.	Peace, Spirituality

Source: Authors

hotel can be seen after the scenes about Venice. Artistic elements such as glass, masks or paintings were frequently used in the indoor and outdoor shots of the hotel. The detailed introductory scenes of the hotel, which are shot at short and fast intervals, continue on the basis of the art phenomenon. Scenes related to music are encountered instead of visual arts. The hotel is located in the city where Vivaldi was born. Scenes again show the hotel's quiet, secluded, stylish and unassuming spaces, and the advertisement ends with a general view of the hotel from above.

#### Meanings

*Purpose:* Marriott not only offers hotel guests a vacation or stay, but also promotes the pioneering city of the arts since the Renaissance.

*Feedback:* Every person's understanding of vacation is different. The masses who want to rest their souls as well as the body may be in search of romance. Venice can be considered as a destination where these expectations can be met. The hotel, which is calm, modest and in harmony with the emotional accumulation of the city it is in, appeals to people who want to experience many emotions simultaneously. Table 5 below shows the evaluation status of the advertisement of the Marriott hotel in Venice.

*Analysis:* Marriott Venice Hotel differs from other hotels as an island hotel in terms of the geographical features of its location. However, the hotel brings the past of the city to the fore with its desire to stand out by using geographical features in its internet advertisement. While the world-changing artistic perspective and artistic practices of the Renaissance, defined as rebirth, forms the basis of the advertisement, the hotel conveys its own physical structure with shorter and faster scenes. Although almost half of the advertisement, which lasts more than five minutes, belongs to the physical structure of the hotel, the elements of the art phenomenon, which is the main element, are also frequently encountered. In addition to the culture and art phenomenon, another striking element in the scenes where the physical structure is described is the desire to emphasize the feelings of calmness, serenity and the individual's staying away from the crowds.

#### 6. Conclusion

Both the promotion and marketing activities of tourism enterprises and the purchasing behavior of tourists have begun to differ in parallel with the developments in information and communication technologies (Karakuş, 2020). It is seen that especially marketing and sales activities are in the majority in digital environments. Changes in culture are accompanied by the progress in information and communication technologies. It should be noted that information and communication technologies have an important place in the transfer of culture from generation to generation. Advertising activities, which are an important tool for the promotion and marketing of goods and services, have begun to take their place in media such as radio, television and the internet, influenced by the developments in information and communication technologies. Advertising activities have been a frequently encountered marketing tool, especially in social media such as YouTube.

Visual culture is explained by two different phenomena: digital and economic convergence. The convergence of tourism and media in recent years is an indication of the emergence of new images of production and consumption. The integration and coordination of culture within the scope of tourism has reached significant levels in recent years. Especially the four big companies in the United States, Disney, News Corp, Time Warner, and Via com have contributed to the visual culture's media content in tourism (Gonzales, 2008, pp. 56). Places that have a visual culture, have a timeless narrative, and have hosted myths and lost civilizations are given importance. There is confusion in the importance given because the local culture is at the base (Brown, 1999, pp. 300). Culture and cultural property status are increasingly integrated with information and communication technologies in research based on visual foundations. With the use of visual technologies in studies in the field of tourism, it offers new perspectives to both tourism researchers and sector applications (Feighey, 2003, pp. 82).

The Marriott hotel chain, which is one of the world's chain hotels, offers services to tourists with different cultures and different continents. Marriott hotels has not only promoted

its businesses in its advertisements, but also provided information about the geography in which it is located. They carried out advertising activities aimed at the beliefs, customs and traditions of the geography they were published in, and eating and drinking habits. As a chain hotel, they ensured the presence of various cultural codes in their advertisements. As a result of the advertisement review of 3 different regions evaluated within the scope of the research, the advertisements prepared by keeping the cultural codes of the countries in the foreground were presented to the people on YouTube. While the use of technology, service quality and sense of trust are at the forefront in the Latin American advertisement, local flavors are synthesized with modern culture in the advertisement of Indonesia. In the advertisement film of Italy, historical and natural beauties are presented by combining culture and art. In the advertisements, which were examined by selecting a sample from Asia, Europe and America and broadcasted in digital environments, the outdoor variety is mostly higher. In addition to the short duration of the advertisements in question, there are limitations in the messages to be conveyed. The concept of service is presented as an alternative in Marriott advertisements on YouTube. In the commercial film prepared for Latin America, there is a content formation by taking into account today's conditions, taking advantage of the technology, the current pandemic and the situations of security. In the advertisement of the hotel in Indonesia, the professional presentation of memories was highlighted. Cultural heritage, tradition and spiritual myths are featured in the advertisement film of the hotel in Venice, Italy.

Considering the messages that the hotel business wants to convey in advertising films, advertising films with different content have been prepared for each region. Different types of advertising have been used for each continent. In the globalizing world with each passing day, the works carried out by anticipating the wishes and needs of people will make it easier for businesses to achieve success. Making successful advertisements in virtual environments and social media, where digitalization is accepted and digital culture is formed, is one of the elements that businesses should pay attention to.

Hotel businesses on social media platforms should make a budget planning for it by determining the target audience and determining the content of the services while preparing their advertisements. The most suitable mode of transportation for the determined target audience should be selected. The colors and images in the visual content presented in the advertisements should be preferred within the scope of the purposes. Considering that the visual culture differs according to the countries in the content of the advertisement, working on it will be effective in increasing the profitability and providing a competitive advantage.

The study is the first in the literature in terms of examining the concept of digital visual culture and hotel

advertisements together. There is a limitation in the study in terms of examining digital visual culture only through a hotel business. Various studies can be conducted in the future by comparing the advertisements of different hotels.

### References

- Altunışık, R., Coskun, R., Bayraktaroglu, S., & Yildirim, E. (2010). *Research Methodologies in Social Sciences*, (6. Ed.), Sakarya Publishing, Sakarya.
- Altunışık, R., Özdemir, S., & Torlak, O. (2004). *Modern Marketing*, Değişim Publishing, İstanbul.
- Barnard, M. (1998). *Art, Design and Visual Culture*, Utopya Publishing, Ankara.
- Barnard, M. (2003). *Art, Design and Visual Culture*, Utopya Publishing, Ankara.
- Batman, O. (2008). *Hotel Establishment Management*. Degisim Publishing. İstanbul.
- Bayav, D. (2006). Semiotics in Painting, Semiotic Analysis of Children's Paintings (Elementary 8th Grade). Doctoral Thesis, Marmara University Institute of Educational Sciences, İstanbul.
- Bolen, W. (1984). *Advertising*. (2ed.), Newyork: John Wiley and Georgia Southern and Sons, Inc.
- Bource, M., & Yücel, H. (2012). *Adventure of Communication Sciences*, Ayrıntı Publishing, İstanbul.
- Brown, D. (1999). Mayas and tourists in the maya world. *Human Organization*. 58 (3) 295-304.
- Cebi, M. (2007). Construction of the others in political advertisement film. *Journal of Selcuk Communication*. 4 (4) 96-121.
- Chasan, I. (2020). Visual Culture- Visuality in Education and Shadow Game: Applications in Education – Innovative Approaches and Suggestions, Trakya University Social Sciences Institution Master Thesis: Edirne.
- Chen, C. M., & Lin, Y. C. (2013). How do advertising expenditures influence hotels' performance? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 33 490-493.
- Dabner, D., Stewart, S., & Vickress, A. (2020). *Graphic Design School: The Principles and Practice Of Graphic Design*. Canada: John Wiley and Sons.
- Decrop, A. (2007). The influence of message format on the effectiveness of print advertisements for tourism destination. *International Journal of Advertising*. 26 (4) 505-525.
- Dyer, G. (2010). *Advertising as Communication*, Beta Publishing, İstanbul.
- Erdoğan, G. M. (2014). Construction of Life Style in Tourism Advertising: Semiotic Analyse, Başkent University Social Sciences Institute Master Thesis, Ankara.
- Eröz, S. S., & Doğdubay, M. (2012). The role of social media in the choice of the tourist product and ethical relationship. *Journal of Dokuz Eylul University EASF*. 27 (1) 135-157.

- Feighey, M. (2003). Negative image? Developing the visual in tourism research. *Current Issues in Tourism*. 6 (1) 75-85.
- Gonzales, G. H. (2008). Tourism, mass media and the making of visual culture in the Greater Yucatan Peninsula, *Journal of Film and Video*, Vol: 60, No. 2, pp:50-58.
- Horzum, I. (1993). Semiotic analysing of modern myths and and greythns in advertisement. *Humanities Sciences*. 6 (1) 29-41.
- Hsu, L., & SooCheong, J. (2008). Advertising expenditure, intangible value and risk: A study of restaurant companies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 27 259-267.
- <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCox70g89taRr1o5i8qEwJQw> Access Date: 15.08.2021
- <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCPRdWKjagTQ1KdaUoFK9EAg> Access Date: 20.08.2022
- <https://www.youtube.com/user/marriottlatam/featured> Access Date: 10.08.2021
- İçöz, O. (1996). *Marketing in Tourism Operations*, Anatolia Publishing, Ankara.
- İnal, E., İri, R., & Sezgin, M. (2010). Evaluating the promotion activities employed by tourism firms in Bodrum region, *Journal of Mustafa Kemal University Social Sciences Intitute*, Vol:7(14), pp:285-208.
- İnan, N. (2019). Transformation of Advertising in New Media: Comparative Analysis of Television and Internet Advertisements in the Context of Digital Visual Culture. Ege University Social Sciences Institute Doctor thesis, İzmir.
- Jenks, C. (Ed.). (1995). *Visual Culture*, London: Routledge.
- Johnson, R. R., & Messmer, D. J. (1991). The effect of advertising on hierarchical stages in vacation destination choice. *Journal of Advertising Research*, December.
- Josephson, S., Kelly, J., & Smith, K. (2020). *Handbook of visual communication: Theory, methods, and media*. London: Routledge.
- Karagöz, K. (2013). Transforming social movements and digital activism movements in new media age. *Journal of Communication and Diplomacy*. 12 (1) 131-157.
- Karakuş, Y. (2020). Otel İşletmelerinde Mobil Teknolojilerin Kullanımı. In T. Pala & M. Tepeci (Eds.), *Otel İşletmelerinin Yönetimi - Operasyonel Süreç ve Yönetim Uygulamaları* (pp. 205–222). Detay Yayıncılık.
- Kazel, G. İ. (2017). Relationship between the visual culture and sociology. *Journal of Meric International Social and Strategic Researches*. 1 (1) 45-69.
- Kotler, P. (2000). *Kotler and Marketing*, Free Press, New York
- Kurtçu, F. (2018). Advertising imagery of in terms of brand value effects and evaluation aspects of semiological. *Journal of Art-e*. 11 (21) 14-30.
- Kuru, B. (2011). *Visual culture in art and design education*. Presentation paper of First Art and Design Education Symposium, Başkent University, 27-29 April 2011, Ankara.
- Liao, S. H., & Wu, C. C. (2010). System perspective of knowledge management, organizational learning and organizational innovation. *Expert System with Applications*. 37 1096- 1103.
- Lwin, M., & Phau, I. (2013). Effective advertising appeals for websites of small boutique hotels. *Journal of Research Interactive*. 7(1) 18-32.
- MacKay, K. J., & Smith, M. C. (2006). Destination advertising: Age and format effects on memory. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 33 (1) 7-24.
- McWilliams, E. G., & Crompton, J. L. (1997). An expanded framework for measuring the effectiveness of destination advertising. *Tourism Management*. 18 (3) 127-137.
- Mutlu, E. (2012). *Dictionary of Communication*, Bilim ve Sanat Publishing, Ankara
- Park, S., Juan, L. N., & Daniel, R. F. (2013). Assessing advertising in a hierarchical decision model. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 40 260-282.
- Reichert, T. (2004). *Erotic History of Advertisig*, Prometheus Publishing, New York.
- Sezgin, M., Ruhan, I., & İnal, M. E. (2008). A research the promotion activities five star hotels in Bodrum region. *Journal of Social Economic Research*. 8 (16) 441-460.
- Sin, L. Y. M., Alan Tse, C. B., Oliver Yau, H. M., Raymond, P. M., & Lee, J. S. Y. (2005). Market orientation, relationship market orientation and business performance: the moderating effects of economic ideology and industry type. *Journal of International Marketing*. 13 (1) 36-57.
- Solmaz, S. A. (2019). Advertising strategies in hotels: İstanbul Cases. *Journal of Safran Culture and Tourism Researches*. 2 (3) 487-507.
- Soyuer, B. (2019). New Visual Culture: A Research on the Ontology of Visual Objects Produced with New Technology, Istanbul University Social Sciences Institute Doctor Thesis, İstanbul.
- Tavin, K. (2009). Youth, Aesthetics and Visual Cultural Education, *Cultural Education, İnnovation, Creativity and Youth*, 12-13., Brussels.
- Teker, U. (2002). *Graphic Design and Advertising*, Dokuz Eylül Publishing, İzmir
- Timisi, N. (2005). Reality of virtuality: Entrance of the Internet into the social and identity domains inside Binark M. & Kılıçbay, B. (ed.), *Internet, Society and Culture*, pp:89-105. Epos Publishing.
- Tunçsiper, B., & İlban, M. O. (2006). Marketing problems in tourism operation licence hotels: A research on Balıkesir province. *Journal of Anadolu University Social Sciences*. 6 (1) 225-244.
- Turizm Data Bank. (2020). <https://www.turizmdatabank.com/dunya-ve-turkiyede-en-buyuk-otel-gruplari-kimler/> Access date: 15.07.2021
- Ünütvar, S. (2012). Determining the application level in creative strategies into tourism advertisements. *Journal of Erciyes Communication*. 2 (3) 58-76.



**INFO PAGE**

## Advertising analysis of hotel businesses in terms of digital visual culture

**Abstract**

The purpose of this paper is to examine the hotel advertisements broadcast on YouTube in different continents in terms of digital visual culture. The ads on the YouTube page of the hotel companies were analyzed by semiotics method. The use of technology, the quality of service and the sense of trust were prioritized as a result of semiotic analysis of the advertising films on the YouTube pages of the hotel company located in 3 countries located on different continents. According to findings, the local tastes and cultural values, as well as the outdoor attractiveness of the countries in which they are located among the common points of the commercials in terms of digital visual culture. In addition to the short duration of the commercials presented by the hotels via YouTube, there are also messages related to the selected target market. With the widespread use of information and communication technologies, hotel businesses take their place on social media and different platforms. Hotel businesses in the tourism sector should use social platforms extensively in order to compete, to increase their market share and to ensure customer satisfaction. Promotional images and commercial films prepared on social platforms should be made by considering market segmentation. Hotel businesses should not forget that the visual culture is digitalized in the commercials they use on social platforms.

**Keywords:** Digital Visual Culture, Advertisement, You Tube, Hotel, Tourism

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Olcay Özışık Yapıcı:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing	50%
<b>Tahir Büyükkaragöz:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing	50%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**This paper does not required ethics committee report**

**Justification: The methodology of this study does not require an ethics committee report.**

# Why are the cook chefs always male: Research on the cook chefs who works at hotel cuisines

Serdar Oktay\*, Nafiya Güden

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Gastronomy,  
Cook chef,  
Hotel kitchen chefs,  
Male cook chef,  
Female cook chef,  
Successful cook chefs.

### Article History:

Submitted: 29.11.2021  
Revised: 26.07.2022  
Revised: 04.08.2022  
Accepted: 27.09.2022  
Published Online: 19.10.2022

The purpose of this study is to determine the reasons; "why are chefs always male" in the kitchens of hotels. Food cultures of countries, cooking techniques, eating styles are some of the subjects in the study area of gastronomy science. Chefs are one of the primary elements that contribute to the development of food culture. Cook chefs are at the center of the present study. The scientific discipline "Workforce in Working Life" continues to do research about Cook Chefs. In this study, the gender and reasons of chefs working in the kitchens of 4 and 5 star hotels serving in the field of tourism in the world were researched demographically. Four continents, five countries from each continent, two cities from each country and ten international 4 and 5 star chain hotels in each city were selected. In the first section of the study, it was observed that most of the chefs working in hotels were male. In the second section, the reasons why most of the chefs are male were examined scientifically. As a result, it was determined that the working conditions of chefs are difficult for women hence the high number of male chefs.

## 1. Introduction

The gastronomy cultures of these civilizations have been transferred to each other for generations in the historical process and reached the present day and have also influenced the gastronomy of today's countries by spreading over the various geographies of the world. In conclusion, the science of gastronomy is the branch of science that examines the relationship between culture and food (Oktay, 2018). In this study, we examined the cooks who use the creative arts in the kitchen, one of the basic factors of gastronomy.

Professional kitchens have been male dominant nowadays and in the past. As it was stated in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries of military history, the male-dominated understanding in the kitchen was caused by the fact that military men cooked. The understanding in the past has turned into a military-style hierarchical structure in today's professional kitchens. The executive chef, who is at the top of the kitchen hierarchy, has been adapted from the military hierarchy. This "machismo" concept has kept its place nowadays in professional kitchens. Machismo was derived from the Spanish word "Macho". It describes the oppressive situation of male domination (Bilmes, 2007).

Nowadays, researchers emphasize the importance of women to take more places in social areas (Hurley, 1999). New organizational theories emphasize that men and

women are equally productive. These theories state that gender should be examined as a moderate variable and that the organizational level factors affect the results of success (Orser & Leck, 2010).

Researchers claim that unequal gender distribution in professions is caused by the fact that promotion criteria in professions are gender-sensitive (Rouhanizadeh & Kermanshachi, 2021).


It is stated that women are opposed to their rise to higher levels in the professional hierarchy and that there is a "resistance against women's leadership and there is a leadership problem for women (Eagly & Carli, 2007). In addition, it is known that women face more difficulties in managing the balance of work life and home life, and that the cultural and gender understanding of societies in national identity structures are important in the choice of profession.

It is suggested that gender relations affect the processes of projects in business life and that international works often involve the concepts of masculinity and femininity (Yuval-Davis, 1997). This opinion was introduced and discussed in many scientific women's studies (McClintock, 1991; McElroy, 2002; Nagel, 1998, 2005; Sharp, 1996). This basic idea expresses the necessity to reconstruct the definitions of the masculinity and femininity concepts which are included in the nations' ideas of gender.

\*Corresponding Author

Research paper

Serdar Oktay: Asst. Prof, Final Universitesi, Girne, TRNC, Email: [serdar.oktay@final.edu.tr](mailto:serdar.oktay@final.edu.tr), Orcid Id: 0000-0002-9438-9920 

Nafiya Güden: Asst. Prof, Final Universitesi, Girne, TRNC, Email: [nafiya.guden@final.edu.tr](mailto:nafiya.guden@final.edu.tr), Orcid Id: 0000-0002-3901-3146 



Gender is a relational structuring dictated by social practice. It is based on the institutionalized relationship between the female group and the male group (Connell, 2005). For this reason, for the institutionalization of gender, social relations and social actions should be accepted as a shared experience, implemented and should not be reduced only to a discursive position (McNay, 2004).

The general belief about the concept of gender that has existed in societies for centuries is that it is the duty of men to make money, to offer a comfortable life to the family and to contribute to economic production, while the duties of women are to care for the family, to protect the home, to give birth to and to take care of children. Structured functions such as these are important points to consider when making gender definitions in professions (McElroy, 2002).

In the concept of “traditional womanhood”, it is referred to the notion of a sexual division of labor, in which women are primarily responsible for free domestic and childcare tasks (DeVault, 1991; Hochschild, 1989). At the same time, it is stated that women are precious for evolution because of their sexuality (Gill, 2007). Nowadays, the idea of “hegemonic masculinity” corresponds to money, bread, power, control and heterosexuality characteristics for men (Connell, 2005; Kimmel, 2003).

International analyses have demonstrated that education, age, marital status, and the number of children are essential determinants of women’s participation in the labor force (Dayioğlu & Kırdar, 2010). According to the general acceptance in the literature, there is generally a negative relationship between birth rates and rates of participation in the labor force (Sundström & Stafford, 1992). Women’s participation in employment does not reduce their burden on the family and society but instead increases their burdens while not changing their positions (Onder, 2013).

Nowadays, it is stated that women enter the world of professional cooking more and that the most significant factor here is the popular cooking programs broadcast on television. It is argued that such programs increase the interest of young men and women in the kitchen (Hollows, 2003; Swinbank, 2002). Some professional researchers criticize them by stating that such television programs do not provide any benefit to gender discrimination (Naccarato & LeBesco, 2012).

However, many studies state that gender discrimination in the kitchen profession decreases, the participation of women in the working life in the kitchen increases and that this is a significant development (Cruz, 2013). Here, details should be added to the subject. While examining these studies, the increase in women’s participation in working in the kitchen in the professional sense should be proportional to the question in which types of kitchens they work. It is also understood as a result of this study that the participation of women in the labor force of professional

kitchens nowadays is realized through the small restaurants, cafes and pastry shops they own.

Female chefs are encouraged “to find ways of complying with the current occupational regulations” under nowadays’ market conditions (Harris & Giuffre, 2015). Female chefs are directed to follow workplace rules such as “working for long hours”, “managing home and work life”, “learning to avoid feminine emotive demonstrations” and to display their physical and mental strengths without being contrary to the masculine culture. However, these integration strategies generally reproduce gender inequality (Harris & Giuffre, 2015; Heilman & Haynes, 2005).

Against the intense and long working hours of male chefs, in order to achieve success in the kitchen area, female chefs have to sacrifice their social life and duties at home, to have passion for cooking, to be mentor for her family, to be ambitious, and to focus to work (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996). Interestingly, these criteria are not considered sufficient. Because it is only seen as a desire to take risks (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996).

In the studies on the dominance of males in occupation categories, it is stated that the reason for the predominance of males in professional kitchens is not gender discrimination; instead, it is that women’s working conditions are limited in inappropriate working environments (Harris & Giuffre, 2010). While studies do not address the issue of the marginalization of women in professional kitchens, they argue that women are not excluded from the professional chef status. For example, in the mapping of male and female chefs, the recognition of Lidia Bastianich, who is a highly successful female food professional, as a “homemade chef” and “a great chef”, is a point displaying that women are not excluded in this sector (Druckman, 2010).

In the area of Haute Cuisine in France, female cooks need to overcome the difficult working conditions in the kitchen to become a chef, and to balance the work and family against long and tiring working hours, which are becoming more difficult especially in Michelin-starred restaurants (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996; O’Brien, 2010). At the same time, it is stated that overcoming difficulties protects the motivations of working people and ensures that they become successful (Martin & Bernard, 2013).

In response to the hypothesis which argues that female chefs do not do household chores, delay childbirth or leave the kitchen work due to their responsibilities to the household, they have to revise the importance of their personal and professional preferences for work and family duties, in order to harmonize their dual roles (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996; Harris & Giuffre, 2010).

In order to increase female employees in professional kitchens; Promotion and incentive models are an important factor (Harris & Giuffre, 2015). At the macro level, opportunities such as the James Beard Foundation or the

Michelin Guide can be regarded as good examples of increasing the recognition of female chefs (Bartholomew & Garey, 1996; Harris & Giuffre, 2015). From another aspect, as an example of the use of recognition as an incentive in the professional kitchen area, the best female chef awards in the United States of America demonstrate the advanced social gender culture (Childers & Kryza, 2015).

## 2. Materials and Methods

In order to determine the research population, a similar sample of subjects was used, which can be summarized as a “survey”. This method is not applied to the total targeted mass, which has the desired characteristics in the population, but to the subjects selected from within the mass according to similar characteristics. This system, called sampling, is based on the fact that a whole can be represented by a smaller segment. Sampling; since the total number of rooms in the scope of the survey is nearly 105.000, it is aimed to reach at least 384 hotels in the survey so that the results can be corrected at a high rate. There are 400 hotels in the survey.

**Materials:** In order to increase the reliability of the results in this study, systematic sampling and purposeful sampling methods representing the research population of 400 5-star and 4-star hotels were collected. The segmentation of star rated hotels has a strong symmetrical structure. Particularly striking is the strong growth of the 4-star and 5-star segment, counting nearly 105,000 hotels worldwide. Worldwide 5-star hotels' count data of the global hotel industry is available on [www.delta-check.com/sc](http://www.delta-check.com/sc).

We have researched the gender and primary reasons of the chefs working in world 4- and 5-star hotels. For our study we have selected 4 continents. From each continent we have selected 5 countries and from each country we have selected two cities. From each city we have looked at 10 international 5-star chain hotels (Table 1).

**Methods:** Reliability analysis was performed before the study, and the data obtained were analyzed using the IBM SPSS Statistics 24.0 program (Statistical package for the social sciences). According to the gender, the meaning of the employees was tested through chi square. Gender is a qualitative variant of two categories that can take values as both male and female. The descriptive study researched the frequency of be of the gender variant and revealed the importance ratings of the variant. Descriptive research summarizes and presents the information contained in a data set using numerical and graphical methods. Due to the descriptive nature of this study, no hypothesis was required.

## 3. Findings and Discussion

The findings of the study consist of four parts. In the first part, the demographic characteristics of chefs revealed as a result of the study were researched (Table 2). While in the second part the gender differences of chefs were revealed (Table 3), in the third part, the gender distribution of chefs

**Table 1: Surveyed Cities and Continents**

Surveyed Cities	Continents
1 Nice, France	Europe
2 Paris, France	Europe
3 Barcelona, Spain	Europe
4 Madrid, Spain	Europe
5 Milano, Italy	Europe
6 Rome, Italy	Europe
7 London, United Kingdom	Europe
8 Birmingham, United Kingdom	Europe
9 Athens, Greece	Europe
10 Thessaloniki, Greece	Europe
19 Toronto, Canada	America
20 Montreal, Canada	America
11 Los Angeles, United States	America
12 Miami, United States	America
13 New York City, United States	America
14 Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	America
15 Havana, Cuba	America
16 Port au Prince, Haiti, Caribbean	America
17 Lima, Peru	America
18 Buenos Aires, Argentina	America
21 Tokyo, Japan	Asia
30 Seoul, South Korea	Asia
22 Bali, Indonesia	Asia
23 Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia	Asia
24 Hong Kong, People's Republic of China	Asia
29 Beijing, People's Republic of China	Asia
25 Singapore, Singapore	Asia
26 Moscow, Russia	Asia
27 New Delhi, India	Asia
28 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia	Asia
31 Istanbul, Turkey	Middle East & Africa
32 Antalya, Turkey	Middle East & Africa
33 Cairo, Egypt	Middle East & Africa
34 Sharm El Sheik, Egypt	Middle East & Africa
35 Casablanca, Morocco	Middle East & Africa
36 Marrakesh, Morocco	Middle East & Africa
37 Cape Town, Republic of South Africa	Middle East & Africa
38 Johannesburg, Republic of South Africa	Middle East & Africa
39 Dubai, United Arab Emirates	Middle East & Africa
40 Amman, Jordan	Middle East & Africa

Source: Global Accommodation Reference Database (GARD, 2021)

by the continents was presented (Table 4). In the last part of the study, the professional seniority and education levels of the participants were compared (Table 5).

### *The research population and demographic characteristics of the survey participants*

The chefs who participated in the study are chefs working in 4 and 5-star hotels on four continents. 25% of the participants were from America, 25% from the Middle East and Africa, 25.2% from Europe, and 24.8% from Asia. As a result, it was understood that 98.5% of the chefs were male, and 1.5% were female. When the ages of the chefs were examined in the table formed at the end of the study, it was observed that 14.5% of the chefs were in the 20-30 age groups, 48.5% were in the 31-40 age groups, and 37% were in the age group of 41 years and above. It is observed that 26% of the chefs in the study are primary school graduates, 42.3% are high school graduates, and 31.8%

have undergraduate and above education. When their working durations in the profession are examined, it is understood that 28% have worked for 1-19 years, 32.8% have worked for 20-29 years, and 39.3% have worked for 30 years and above (Table 2).

**Table 2: Demographic characteristics of chefs**

		Number of Chefs	%
Continent	Europe	101	25.3
	America	100	25.0
	Asia	99	24.8
	The Middle East and Africa	100	25.0
	Total	400	100.0
Gender	Male	394	98.5
	Female	6	1.5
	Total	400	100.0
Age	20-30	58	14.5
	31-40	194	48.5
	41 and above	148	37.0
	Total	400	100.0
Education	Primary school	104	26.0
	High school	169	42.3
	Undergraduate and above	127	31.8
	Total	400	100.0
Professional seniority	1-19 years	112	28.0
	20-29 years	131	32.8
	30 years and above	157	39.3
	Total	400	100.0

Source: Authors

When cooks in the chef position in 400 hotels in total were asked about the gender of their chef, it was determined that the chef was a male in 394 hotels and a female in 6 hotels. There was a significant difference between the distributions of the chefs according to their gender ( $p < 0.05$ ). It was observed that the chefs were male rather than female. The Chi-square value of the analysis was confirmed to be 376.360 (Table 3).

**Table 3: Distribution by gender**

	Observed	Chi-Square	p
Male	394	376.360	.000
Female	6		
Total	400		

Source: Authors

There was no significant difference between the gender distributions of chefs working in hotels according to the continents ( $p > 0.05$ ). On the continents researched in the study, male chefs working in hotels are higher in number than female chefs. The chefs were male in 98 of the 101 hotels on the European continent and female in 3 hotels. The chefs were male in 99 of the 100 hotels on the American continent and female in 1 hotel. The chefs were male in 98 of the 99 hotels on the Asian continent and female in 1 hotel. The chefs were male in 99 of the 100 hotels in the Middle East and Africa and female in 1 hotel. In 394 of the 400 hotels on four continents included in the study population, the chefs were male and in 6 hotels, the

chefs were female. The Chi-square value of the analysis was calculated as 1.977 (Table 4).

**Table 4: Gender distribution of chefs by continents**

		n	Continent				Total
			Europe	America	Asia	Middle East Africa	
Gender	Male	98	99	98	99	394	
	%	24.9%	25.1%	24.9%	25.1%	100.0%	
	Female	3	1	1	1	6	
	%	50.0%	16.7%	16.7%	16.7%	100.0%	
Total	n	101	100	99	100	400	
	%	25.3%	25.0%	24.8%	25.0%	100.0%	

Chi-square value=1.977 p=0.577

Source: Authors

When Table 5 is examined, it is observed that those professional working years, namely, senioritis, differ according to the education status of chefs. The Chi-square value of the analysis is 101.234. It is observed that the level of education decreases as professional seniority increases. In the same way, as the level of education increases, the duration of professional seniority decreases. It was determined that the education level of 78% of the participants with professional seniority of 30 years and above was primary school. On the other hand, it is observed that the education level of 61% of the participants who have less professional seniority (1-19 years) was undergraduate and above. According to this result, the chefs who have higher education level gain easier promotion and position, whereas the chefs with a low level of education seem to have gained competence by working overtime (Table 5).

**Table 5: Comparison of professional seniority and education**

		n	Education			Total
			Primary school	High school	Undergraduate and above	
Professional seniority	1-19 years	14	37	61	112	
	%	12.5%	33.0%	54.5%	100.0%	
	20-29 years	12	73	46	131	
	%	9.2%	55.7%	35.1%	100.0%	
	30 years and above	78	59	20	157	
	%	49.7%	37.6%	12.7%	100.0%	
Total	n	104	169	127	400	
	%	26.0%	42.3%	31.8%	100.0%	

Chi-square value=101.234 p=000

Source: Authors

#### 4. Conclusion

Many studies aim to reveal the role of women in society and the reasons for gender differences in professions. Furthermore, researchers carry out studies on the importance of gender variables and feminine approaches in social sciences.

General studies demonstrate that there is a gender-based problem in the food preparation sector. Although cooking

is related to the female profile, it is under male dominance as a profession (Cairns & Johnston, 2015; Fürst, 1997).

These gender descriptions of male and female appear in many areas of professional business life. When the subject is examined as the cooking profession in the professional kitchen, it is observed that proportionally the dominant personality is occupied by male chefs (Kimmel, 2003).

From the past to the present, a hierarchical order is still maintaining its existence in many professional kitchens. This hierarchical order reveals that workers in the kitchen are promoted over time. Since the work tempo is intense and working hours are long, chef cookery in the kitchens of hotels has been a male-dominated profession. It was revealed that women do not prefer or cannot prefer to work in environments which require high tempo and heavy work, such as professional kitchens, because of their responsibilities in society and the duties they carry. Women do not prefer this sector because they should work intensely and for long hours for many years in order to increase their position in the kitchen and reach the chef cook position, and this causes them to neglect their home and social responsibilities.

The present study was carried out in the kitchens of 4 and 5-star hotels on four continents and revealed that the majority of chefs working in this sector were male. No difference was observed in the gender distribution of the chefs working in the hotels and participating in the study between the continents. The gender ratio of chefs in hotels on each continent is approximately the same. The research supports the literature in this respect.

Another important result of the study is the significant difference between the chefs' education levels according to their age. It has been found out that young chefs have higher education levels. As the chefs' age increases, their education level decreases.

As the professional seniority of chefs in the hotels participating in the study increased, their education level decreased. This suggests that chefs, who have lower professional seniority, have higher levels of education. In particular, chefs who received education in their field were understood to be promoted more quickly in the profession.

Men and women may not have the same social qualities to develop themselves (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Similarly, another opinion defends that men can use social qualities to introduce and to improve themselves and that women cannot use them because of a male-dominated culture even if they have status and competence (Heilman & Haynes, 2005).

In order to encourage more women to join the profession, additional social policies should be adopted at the government level (Guerrina, 2002; Harris & Giuffre, 2015). Based on the findings which draw attention to the fact that male-dominated business areas have become better thanks to women by providing flexibility in socially

gender-based working environments, the increase in the presence of women in professional kitchens will lead to more rational working environments (Glauber, 2011).

The first of the ideas put forward to correct the situation in favor of women is that "female chefs should guide other female cooks". Second, "It is a change of male gender understanding in the field of gastronomy". Third; Mentors in the commercial area should play an active role in the dissolution of gender inequality. And fourth should be the change of norms and subcultures (Harris & Giuffre, 2015).

## References

- Bartholomew, P. S., & Garey, J. G. (1996). An analysis of determinants of career success for elite female executive chefs. *Journal of Hospitality Tourism*, 20 (2), 125–135. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109634809602000209>.
- Bilmes, M. (2007). *International Forum of Psychoanalysis*. 1(3):163-168. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08037069208412321>
- Cairns, K., & Johnston, J. (2015). *Food and femininity*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Childers, L., & Kryza, A. (2015). The 17 best female chefs in America. *Thrillist* <https://www.thrillist.com/eat/nation/america-s-best-female-chefs>.
- Connell, R. (2005). *Masculinities* (2 ed.). Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Cruz, A. (2013). Gettin' Down Home With the Neelys: gastro-porn and televisual performances of gender, race, and sexuality, *Women & Performance: a journal of feminist theory*, 23(3), 323-349. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0740770X.2013.853916>
- Dayıoğlu, M., & Kırdar, M. (2010). TC DPT Çalışma Raporu, Sayı: 5, Ankara.
- DeVault, M. L. (1991). *Feeding the family: The social organization of caring as gendered work*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Druckman, C. (2010). Why are there no great women chefs? *Gastronomica*, 24(1), 24-31. <https://doi.org/10.1525/gfc.2010.10.1.24>
- Eagly, A., & Carli, L. L. (2007). Women and the labyrinth of leadership. *Harv. Bus. Rev.* <https://hbr.org/2007/09/women-and-the-labyrinth-of-leadership>.
- Fürst, E. L. (1997). Cooking and femininity. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 20(3), 441-449. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-5395\(97\)00027-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-5395(97)00027-7)
- GARD. (2021). [www.delta-check.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/DC\\_GARD\\_Samples\\_DC-de\\_asof-2015.xls](http://www.delta-check.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/DC_GARD_Samples_DC-de_asof-2015.xls), web site access dated 16.05.2021
- Gill, R. (2007). Postfeminist Media Culture: Elements of a Sensibility. *European Journal of Cultural Studies*, 10(2): 147–166. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367549407075898>
- Glauber, R. (2011). Gender, occupational composition, and flexible work scheduling. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 52

- (3), 472–494. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1533-8525.2011.01215.x>
- Guerrina, R. (2002). Mothering in Europe Feminist critique of European policies on motherhood and employment. *European Journal of Women 's Studies*, 9 (1), 49–68. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1350506802009001381>.
- Harris, D. A., & Giuffre, P. (2010). The price you pay: how female professional chefs negotiate work and family. *Gender Issues* 27, 27–52. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12147-010-9086-8>.
- Harris, D. A., & Giuffre, P. A. (2015). *Taking the heat: Women chefs and gender inequality in the professional kitchen*. New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press.
- Heilman, M. E., & Haynes, M. C. (2005). No credit where credit is due: attribution rationalization of women's success in male-female teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90 (5), 905–916. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.905>.
- Hochschild, A. R. (1989). *The second shift: Working parents and the revolution at home*. New York: Viking.
- Hollows, J. (2003). Oliver's twist: Leisure, labor and domestic masculinity in *The Naked Chef*. *International Journal of Cultural Studies*, 6(2), 229-248. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13678779030062005>
- Hurley, A. E. (1999). Incorporating feminist theories into social theories of entrepreneurship. *Women Manag. Rev.* 14 (2), 54–62. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09649429910261396>.
- Kimmel, M. S. (2003). Globalization and its mal(e)contents: The gendered moral and political economy of terrorism. *International Sociology*, 18(3), 603-620. <https://doi.org/10.1177/02685809030183008>
- Martin, P., & Bernard, A. (2013). The experience of women in male-dominated occupations: a constructivist grounded theory inquiry. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. Vol 39, No 2, a1099. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i2.1099>.
- McClintock, A. (1991). No longer in a future heaven: Women and nationalism in South Africa. *Transition*, (51), 104-123.
- McElroy, R. (2002). Whose body, whose nation?: Surrogate motherhood and its representation. *European Journal of Cultural Studies*, 5(3), 325-342. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1364942002005003068>
- McNay, L. (2004). Agency and experience: Gender as a lived relation. *The Sociological Review*, 52, 173-190. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-954X.2005.00530.x>
- Naccarato, P., & LeBesco, K. (2012). *Culinary Capital*. Oxford: Berg.
- Nagel, J. (1998). Masculinity and nationalism: Gender and sexuality in the making nations. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 21(2), 242-269. <https://doi.org/10.1080/014198798330007>
- Nagel, J. (2005). Nation. In M. S. Kimmel, J. Hearn, & R. Connell (Eds.), *Handbook of studies on men and masculinities* (pp. 397-413). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- O'Brien, P. W. (2010). *The Careers of Chefs: A Study of Swiss Expatriates Working in Thailand*. Nagoya University of Foreign Studies.
- Oktay, S. (2018). Study on Gastronomic Cultures of Post Neolithic Civilizations in Anatolia. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15428052.2018.1489322>.
- Onder, N. (2013). Female Labor Force in Turkey, *Labor World*, Volume: 1, Issue: 1, July-September 2013
- Orser, B., & Leck, J. (2010). Gender influence on career success outcomes. *Gen. Manag.: Int. J.* 25 (5), 386–407. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17542411011056877>.
- Rouhanizadeh, B., & Kermanshachi, S. (2021). A gender-based analysis of workforce promotion factors in U.S. transportation agencies. *Transportation Research Interdisciplinary Perspectives*, Volume 12, December 2021, 100457. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trip.2021.100457>
- Sharp, J. R. (1996). Gendering nationhood: A feminist engagement with national identity. In N. Duncan (Ed.), *Bodyspace: Destabilizing geographies of gender and sexuality*. pp. 97-107. London: Routledge.
- Sundström, M., & Stafford, F. P. (1992). Female Labor Force Participation, Fertility and Public Policy in Sweden, *European Journal of Population*, Vol. 8, No:3
- Swinbank, V. A. (2002). The sexual politics of cooking: A feminist analysis of culinary hierarchy in western culture. *Journal of Historical Sociology*, 15(4), 464-494. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6443.00188>
- Yuval-Davis, N. (1997). *Gender & Nation*. London: SAGE Publications.

**INFO PAGE**

Why are the cook chefs always male: Research on the cook chefs who works at hotel cuisines

**Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to determine the reasons; "why are chefs always male" in the kitchens of hotels. Food cultures of countries, cooking techniques, eating styles are some of the subjects in the study area of gastronomy science. Chefs are one of the primary elements that contribute to the development of food culture. Cook chefs are at the center of the present study. The scientific discipline "Workforce in Working Life" continues to do research about Cook Chefs. In this study, the gender and reasons of chefs working in the kitchens of 4 and 5 star hotels serving in the field of tourism in the world were researched demographically. Four continents, five countries from each continent, two cities from each country and ten international 4 and 5 star chain hotels in each city were selected. In the first section of the study, it was observed that most of the chefs working in hotels were male. In the second section, the reasons why most of the chefs are male were examined scientifically. As a result, it was determined that the working conditions of chefs are difficult for women hence the high number of male chefs.

**Keywords:** Gastronomy, Cook Chef, Hotel Kitchen Chefs, Male Cook Chef, Female Cook Chef, Successful Cook Chefs

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Serdar Oktay:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Validation, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration	50%
<b>Nafiya Güden:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Validation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration	50%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**Ethics Committee Satatement:** Ethics committee report is available for this research and it has been documented to the journal.

**Ethics committee:** Final International University School of Tourism and Culinary Arts

**Date of ethics committee decision:** 10.01.2022

**Ethics committee decision number:** 10012022



# Chef and sommelier's share in Michelin star success: The case of Denmark

Sami Sonat Özdemir\*, Buğra Özdemir

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Chef,  
Sommelier,  
Michelin Star,  
Denmark.

Enjoying a meal at a Michelin restaurant is quite a satisfying experience for consumers; working at one of these prestigious restaurants is similarly satisfying for a chef and sommelier. Chefs have long been the dominant factors in restaurants. In recent years, it has been observed that the sommeliers have become the partners of chefs in this important role. This study includes executive chefs, head chefs, sommeliers, and head sommeliers working at 11 different Michelin restaurants in Denmark with 1 and 2 stars. The findings confirm the recent contribution of sommeliers, which is mentioned in the related literature. In addition, the findings of this study indicate that the success of a chef in receiving a Michelin star and keeping it is mostly affected by the physical elements such as crew, materials, and presentation. Sommeliers, on the other hand, contribute to this success through abstract service elements such as the harmony of different elements on the table, food & wine harmony, menu tasting and increasing experience quality. It has also been determined that the impact of sommeliers on restaurant management will increase soon as they are the faces, in a sense 'models' of restaurants and they make unique contributions to customer satisfaction.

### Article History:

Submitted: 30.11.2021

Revised: 02.09.2022

Accepted: 03.10.2022

Published Online: 01.11.2022

## 1. Introduction

The trend of Michelin star, which has become a significant system used for defining the qualified restaurants all around the world, was established by André Michelin in 1900. It used to be a kind of guide prepared to help travelers who travel around France with vehicles. Helping tourists to carry out the maintenance of vehicles, find comfortable places to stay and good food in France were the purposes of this guideline. There were important points that ease the life of travelers such as the places of tire stores and gas stations. Michelin Guide was started to be defined with the symbol of a star in the distinguished restaurants in 1926. Starting from the 1930s, the number of stars started to increase to two and three, and the modern form of Michelin was established (Subakti, 2013, p.292).


In general terms, a single star in Michelin system denotes a very good restaurant in its category that continuously present highly qualified food. Two stars indicate restaurants that present excellent cooking and experience that is worth a detour; three stars indicate exceptional cuisine and extraordinary experience that is worth a special journey (Michelin Travel, 2012). In the scope of these criteria, it can be said that Michelin stars are the results of a system of evaluating what is on the table such as the

quality of the products, delicacy, and craftsmanship in cooking. However, in today's ever-changing world, with the effects of globalization and new culinary movements, the vision of modern people about the culinary experience has changed. The restaurants today are not simply associated with food; they are rather social environments that present the customers' unique experiences with distinguished service and ambiance (Subakti, 2013, p.291).


Attribution of a different meaning to restaurant experiences and associating food with the concept of socialization (Walker, 2010) have also changed the meaning attributed to Michelin Guide. The restaurants that are distinguished by Michelin stars have become the symbols of prestige; they serve in the scope of many quality criteria and visitors gain prestige (Subakti, 2013, p.291). Some of these quality criteria are ambiance, physical conditions of a restaurant, service quality, quality of personnel, and richness of the menu, wide, rich, and modern wine cellar (Lane, 2010).

The elements that are evaluated in the frame of different quality criteria and rewarded with Michelin stars have been the restaurants until recently. There has been a new trend in the sector and the concept of "Michelin star chef" has become important to qualify chefs (Cousins et al., 2010, p.403). This approach is based on the understanding that

\*Corresponding Author

Sami Sonat Özdemir: Assoc. Prof., Balıkesir University, Balıkesir, Türkiye, Email: ssonatozdemir@balikesir.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0003-4796-6083 

Research paper

Buğra Özdemir: Independent Resercher, Copenhagen, Denmark, Email: bugraozdemir4@gmail.com, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-0698-8406 



the chef is the basic factor that determines the success of a restaurant. This understanding has been important since the 1970s and is based on the trend of “nouvelle cuisine” which is conceptualized as the new kitchen. This trend allows chefs to develop a personalized style and thus get the chance to shine out. On the other hand, with the new culinary trend, courses are neater, presented in small portions with creative and aesthetic styles. The prepared plates have become pieces of modern art with strong visual aesthetic elements. Food photography and design studies have become important and the meaning of food has transformed in a sense; this process has given chefs the chance to increase their reputations and become “stars” (Gillespie, 1994, p.22).

Molecular culinary trends that are based on culture, fusion, nature, and science have emerged in recent years. These trends prioritize the product and culture (Cousins et al., 2010, pp.401-405). The modern culinary understanding has a gastronomic structure with an understanding that gives importance to food and human at the same time. In this process, especially Michelin star restaurants have created a unique industry; they started functioning under the same roof, including crew members with different job definitions. These restaurants combine traditional and global factors in the product developing process and have a creative entertainment process (Miklós, 2019, p.32-38).

Along with the understanding of production embraced by this new culinary trend, the perfectionist approach of product presentation has increased the importance of sensual analysis and the rule of well-matched taste of food and drinks has become prominent. There are now sommeliers in restaurants to help chefs for ensuring this match; the customers now seek different experiences and there are changes in the industry resulting from the impacts of job definition in restaurants and effects of the new culinary trend. Sommeliers, who are wine experts, support chefs in terms of wine representation in restaurants; the importance of their position in the culinary world has been increasing every day in parallel with the increase in the role of chefs (Scander et al., 2020). The recent emergence of business owner/sommeliers similar to the business owner/chef combination can be associated with this increase in the importance of sommeliers’ role in the sector.

Although a sommelier is defined as a drinks expert, the position is usually related to wine (Parr & Mackay, 2010). In general terms, sommeliers are responsible for buying and selling drinks, managing wine stocks, and evaluating the quality of wine; they are also expected to have special skills in matching food and beverages and have knowledge about the current consumer tendencies (MacNeil, 2015; TASI, 2015). Besides, adding wine choices to the menu, educating the personnel about wine, increasing the sales of drinks by using different sales techniques are some other responsibilities of sommeliers (Manske & Cordua, 2005, p.569). On the other hand, it is expected that sommeliers

will have a wider job description in the frame of the changeable restaurant business; besides being wine experts, they are expected to widen their knowledge and domain and include alcohol-free drinks such as tea and coffee, tobacco products such as Cuban cigar and snacks such as cheese (Stelzer, 2011).

Although there have been some changes in the job definition of sommeliers in time, they have always been one of the key elements in the success of restaurants with their ability to combine drinks, specifically wine, with food and thus make a great contribution to gastronomic experience (Oliveira-Brochado, & da Silva, 2014). Sommeliers are the inseparable elements of restaurants along with chefs as they combine drink and food. The knowledge of the person that combines food and wine about the use of spices, herbs, or seasonings in a course, and the cooking process of the food plays a key role in having a holistic quality in the representation (Simon, 1996). This is why, sommeliers and chefs should have successful coordination and work together in a harmony (Green, 2003). Researches about the issue in the literature reveal that a successful food and wine combination has a positive impact on customer quality perception (Scander et al., 2020). Based on this fact, it can be said that combining food with a tasteful wine increases the value of the gastronomic experience. Because of the great importance of combining wine and food, sometimes chefs have to make some changes in the menu; they sometimes change some of the ingredients or the recipe to ensure a successful combination with a drink (Ottenbacher, & Harrington, 2007).

Another factor in restaurants that indicate the importance of the sommelier position is consumer behaviors. According to the studies in the literature about the issue, having a sommelier in a restaurant affect consumer preferences in terms of selecting high-level restaurants, including the Michelin star ones. Restaurants that have successful sommeliers are preferred more by consumers as it is believed that the gastronomic experience becomes more enjoyable with a successful food and wine combination. Studies in the literature indicate that consumer satisfaction and loyalty increases with sommeliers (Manske, & Cordua, 2005; Harrington, 2005; Dewald, 2008; Meng, & Kevin, 2008, p.575; Alonso, 2014; Johri, 2014, p.24-25; Lau et al., 2019). To make these contributions to restaurant success, besides their knowledge about drinks, sommeliers should have good social relations, cultural background, and professional skills (Scander et al., 2020).

In recent years, Scandinavian countries have become more popular with Michelin restaurants. The trend started with Noma restaurant in Denmark has formed the basis of Scandinavian success in the sector of restaurant and pioneered Michelin star restaurant success in the area (Jenkins, 2017). This study aims at evaluating the role of chefs and sommeliers in the success of Michelin stars; the

Michelin restaurants in Denmark are taken into consideration in this process of analysis and evaluation.

## 2. Methodology

The purpose of this research is to present the roles of chefs and sommeliers working at Michelin star restaurants in Denmark in the process of receiving a star and keeping it. The qualitative research method and descriptive analysis is used in this study to obtain results. Qualitative research methods, one of the methods used in social sciences studies, have become very popular in recent years. Insufficiency of a unidirectional viewpoint because of the changeable structure of humans and society and the necessity of a holistic approach to social phenomena required these newly popular research methods (Karataş, 2015, p.62).

The interview method is used in this research during the phase of data collection. The interview method is based on recording and analyzing the information obtained through conversation, question-answer, and similar communication activities with individuals or groups in the scope of the predetermined topics (Arıkan, 2012).

Interview form prepared with semi-structured interview technique is used in this study throughout the process of interviews. The semi-structured interview is based on a process in which the questions are pre-set in a way that they can be rearranged according to the feedback; it is partially a flexible data collection process allowing for a discussion with the interviewee rather than a straightforward question and answer format (Ekiz, 2013).

The interviews in the scope of this research study are carried out with chefs and sommeliers working at restaurants with 1 and 2 Michelin stars in Denmark. The country is specifically chosen as it is a pioneer in Scandinavian cuisine, home of many famous chefs and

sommeliers (Jenkins, 2017). The prepared interview form involves a total of 22 chefs and sommeliers working at 11 different Michelin restaurants. Face-to-face interviews were held by considering the workload of the participants; researchers made appointments and interviews were made when the participants were available. The interview process was between May 2021 and November 2021. The research has approved by Balıkesir University Social and Human Sciences Ethnic Committee meeting dated 15.11.2021 and numbered 2021/05.

## 3. Findings

According to the demographic information of the chefs and sommeliers who participated in this research study, the ages of the participants vary between 28 and 42. The average age of the participants is 35. 4 of the 11 chefs in the study own the restaurant they work while 5 of the 11 sommeliers own their workplace. The positions of the chefs interviewed in the scope of this study are the executive chef and head chef. The titles of sommeliers are sommelier and head sommelier. All of the participants had formal or informal training in the fields of gastronomy, cuisine, or wine except for one participant who is both sommelier and owner. When the occupational experience of the participants is analyzed, it can be seen that the average year of experience for chefs is approximately 13 years while it is 11 years for sommeliers. The demographic information of the participants is presented in Table 1.

Firstly, specific questions were prepared to obtain information from the chefs and sommeliers to receive their ideas and considerations about the impacts of their positions on the restaurants they work in and their careers. After this process, mutual assessments of chefs and sommeliers were obtained and it was targeted to reach a more comprehensive result about the contribution of these positions in the success of the restaurant and

**Table 1. Demographic information of the participants**

Code	Age	Position	Professional Education	Occupational experience
C1	32	Head Chef	Culinary Academy	10 years
C2	33	Executive Chef/ Owner	Culinary Bachelor Degree	15 years
C3	33	Executive Chef	Culinary Academy	10 years
C4	40	Executive Chef	Culinary Bachelor Degree	22 years
C5	32	Head Chef	Culinary Academy	14 years
C6	38	Executive Chef/ Owner	Culinary Academy	13 years
C7	42	Executive Chef/ Owner	Culinary Bachelor Degree	14 years
C8	29	Head Chef	Culinary Bachelor Degree	10 years
C9	29	Head Chef	Culinary Academy	8 years
C10	36	Executive Chef/ Owner	Culinary Academy	13 years
C11	38	Executive Chef	Culinary Academy	14 years
S1	36	Sommelier / Owner	Gastronomy Master Degree	16 years
S2	28	Sommelier	Sommelier Certificate	5 years
S3	38	Sommelier / Owner	Sommelier Certificate	15 years
S4	36	Sommelier / Owner	-	14 years
S5	35	Head Sommelier	Sommelier Certificate	7 years
S6	36	Sommelier / Owner	Sommelier Certificate	16 years
S7	28	Head Sommelier	Bachelor Degree / Certificate	4 years
S8	42	Head Sommelier	Sommelier Certificate	17 years
S9	30	Sommelier	Sommelier Certificate	5 years
S10	32	Sommelier	Wine Bachelor Degree	6 years
S11	42	Sommelier / Owner	Bachelor Degree	16 years

Source: Created by the authors.

receiving/keeping Michelin star. The views about the evaluations were compared to the feedback of customers obtained by chefs and sommeliers and the findings were confirmed.

### ***Views on the contribution of working at a Michelin star restaurant to the career***

All of the chefs participated in this research study mentioned that Michelin star made great contributions to their career. According to the chefs, Michelin star increased their popularity, attracted the attention of the sector, increased their prestige and popularity in social media, and served as a way of advertisement. The chef coded C4 explains these effects very clearly: "...absolutely. Having a Michelin star has a big role in increasing popularity. Some many magazines and newspapers wanted to meet and have interviews with me when I got the first Michelin star. Lots of people started to follow me on social media." Sommeliers who evaluated the contribution of working at a Michelin star restaurant to their career have a different approach to the issue. According to the sommeliers who participated in the study, working at a Michelin star restaurant increases personal development, ensures permanency and job assurance, and disciplines the worker. Besides these, sommeliers mentioned that working at these restaurants increases workload and responsibility. Participant S5 has these different viewpoints and says that: "Working at a restaurant in Michelin list is very important for self-development. The person wants to increase his/her professional knowledge and continuity efforts to meet the demands of customers; I mean the position brings serious responsibilities with it and prevents you from leaving down the discipline."

The views of participants about whether or not their position makes any contribution to the popularity or value of the restaurant vary. The chefs stated that they contributed to the popularity of their restaurant. On the other hand, 7 chefs stated that chefs and restaurants comprise a whole and make a variety of contributions to one another. C1 states that: "There is a mutual interaction in this process. This place increased my reputation, people started to recognize me, and now the popularity of the restaurant increases because of me." One of the sommeliers said that the contribution of the restaurant to his career is bigger than his contribution to the restaurant. The other 10 participants think that they contributed to the popularity of the restaurant they work. On the other hand, according to 4 sommeliers, their success at sommelier competitions contributed to the restaurant recognition. S8 states his opinions about the issue and says that: "Of course I contributed to the restaurant. This place is like a home and I want to do everything I can for this place. The award I receive from the competitions doesn't merely belong to me; it is also the restaurant's reward. These are surely plus points for a restaurant."

### ***Views on the most significant elements of success at a Michelin restaurant***

According to the chefs who participated in this study, the most important elements in Michelin success are having a great team, using quality and fresh products, and not repeating oneself. Besides these, coordination, giving importance to small details, standardization, extensive wine menu are the elements necessary for continuing Michelin success. Statements of C3 reflect the views of the participant chefs in general: "If you are doing the best you can in your job, the success will naturally follow. Chefs should make sure that they are using good products. Using the right product at the right season and having a crew that can properly and successfully process them is significant. It is also important to have a rich wine menu. Food is not enough on its own." Sommeliers on the other hand mention that factors based on harmony and combination such as wine and food combination, the harmony of the products on a plate, and coordination are important elements besides sensorial factors such as flavor. Besides, the emphasis on local, disciplined, respectful, and happy co-workers are important according to the participants. S3 mentions that food and wine combination is crucial and the flavor of the wine is very important. His statements support the idea that food isn't the only factor that determines the success of a course: "What brings success to a restaurant is the flavor of the product on a plate, local products, harmony of different elements and food and wine combination. Food on a plate isn't simply enough for the success of a restaurant. What we call a 'menu' is made of food and beverages. The menu-tasting process of sommeliers is the biggest evidence of this."

### ***Views of chefs about the roles of chefs and sommeliers in Michelin star success***

8 chefs who participated in the interview think that good food is the most important criterion in the evaluation of Michelin star; this is why having a professional, successful chef is the biggest element that contributes to the evaluation of a restaurant. 3 chefs stated that co-workers of a chef are also important. C1, one of the participants who stated that Michelin star is a result of chef success, said that: "Chef means everything in a restaurant and the most important standard of Michelin Guide is food." On the other hand, all of the chefs mentioned that wine experience is as important as food in Michelin success and sommeliers are the keys to this success. 5 of the chefs who participated in this study stated that sommeliers are the workers that carry the quality of food experience to success. C2 said that: "Wine is just as important as food in Michelin Guide. Sommeliers are the responsible ones at this point. Sommeliers make correct combinations and bring the experience to the top."

**Views of sommeliers about the roles of chefs and sommeliers in Michelin star success**

Almost all of the sommeliers in the study associated the importance of the chef in Michelin success with the concept, presentation, and creativity. On the other hand, some sommeliers emphasized the high importance of chefs as workers in the process of receiving a Michelin star and keeping it. S3, one of these sommeliers said that: *“In the scope of the Michelin Guide, innovation, quality, the harmony of products and concept creativity are all created through the hands of chefs. Both chef and his co-workers are responsible for ranking among the successful restaurants in the Michelin list and staying in it.”* Sommeliers also made some statements and associated the success of their position with receiving Michelin star and keeping it. They believe that evoking the feelings of customers, giving them the chance to have unique experiences, and ensuring customer satisfaction indicate that sommeliers make great contributions to restaurants. S2 discussed the importance of sommeliers in Michelin success and reflected the general view about the issue with these words: *“Success of a sommelier is the success of a restaurant. For example, having the title of the best sommelier increases the importance of the restaurant. Sommeliers are as important as chefs in keeping the Michelin star.”*

**Views on including the chef and sommelier in the process of menu-creation and their responsibilities in this process**

Chefs stated that they received help from sommeliers in the process of creating a menu and deciding the food to be placed in it; they also mentioned that this help is limited with determining the acid-sugar balance of the food to be placed the menu. 2 chefs, on the other hand, mentioned that the process of creating a course is the job of chefs and sommeliers should only be responsible for the wine. However, sommeliers believe that their contribution to the menu-creation process is quite big. According to these sommeliers, especially the tasting process while forming a menu is important in reaching a successful menu. Tasting is not simply a process of making food and wine combination and it has a role in determining a menu according to S2. He said these about the issue: *“... very much. In most Michelin restaurants, sommeliers are responsible for the tasting process. Deficiencies are determined and menus are created through these tastings”*

The efficiency of chefs in the wine selection process is asked of the participant chefs. 7 of 11 chefs said that they work as a team and they are a big part of the food and wine combination process. 4 chefs stated that sommeliers are responsible for this combination and it is a part of their job definition. Statements of S5 reflect this viewpoint: *“The position of sommeliers is a little more specific. Chefs cannot be expected to participate in the issue of wine*

*except for being supplementary elements. They can only have a role in cooking food that will taste good with wine.”*

**Views on the elements that are appraised and complained the most by restaurant customers throughout their visits**

8 of the 11 chefs who participated in the study process mentioned that food is the most interpreted element in the restaurant. According to the chefs, customers either complain about the food or appraise it in their restaurant. Besides, 3 chefs said that they received opinions both about food and wine. The sentences of C7 summarize the general viewpoint: *“The reasons why customers go to a restaurant are having a good meal and enjoying the time spent. At this point, customers mostly state their opinions about the food.”* 7 of the 11 sommeliers said that customers' interpretations about a restaurant are mostly based on food and wine. 4 sommeliers said that wine is a complementary element and customers mostly interpret food. On the other hand, neither chefs nor sommeliers said that they receive negative feedback. The general viewpoint of sommeliers is summarized by S3: *“I guess our customers don't make any negative interpretation as they are satisfied with the service they get from the restaurant. However, there are usually many customers who mention that they are satisfied with both food and wine at the end of the night. Most customers order food and wine together.”*

**Views on the scope of the duties and coherence of chefs and sommeliers in the functioning of a Michelin restaurant**

Based on the frequency of statements of chefs and sommeliers, it is possible to say that chef's position in a restaurant is beyond simply preparing a plate and developing a product; a chef is rather responsible for the whole functioning of the restaurant, creating program and ensuring workers follow it. Almost all of the sommeliers who participated in the study emphasized the dominance of chefs in the whole functioning. The statements of S5 exemplify this viewpoint: *“A chef is not merely responsible for the kitchen of a restaurant. We can say that chefs are in charge of the entire functionality of a restaurant and it is impossible to interpret its elements separately. Sometimes chefs describe the food that they serve to customers. They have an important role in the success and functioning of the whole restaurant. Besides they should present the food in coordination with sommeliers.”* Sommeliers, on the other hand, have many responsibilities besides selecting, buying, and serving wine, and combining food and wine; according to the participants, sommeliers are responsible for the overall functioning of service as a service manager, maximizing flavor and experience, and enriching customer satisfaction. The statements of C11 bring a different viewpoint to the duties of a sommelier in a restaurant: *“Sommeliers have a big role in terms of the impression of a restaurant on customers as they individually*

*communicate with customers; because of that they should be extra careful.”* Coordination between chefs and sommeliers in the frame of their job definition is necessary for receiving and keeping Michelin stars according to all of the participants.

***Views of chefs and sommeliers about the impact of their co-workers (chefs and sommeliers) on choosing their workplace***

10 of 11 chefs and 9 of 11 sommeliers interviewed in the scope of this study stated that chef/sommeliers with whom they work won't affect their choice while deciding on a workplace. At this point, some of the important criteria according to chefs while choosing a workplace are having an environment in which they can improve their skills, and feel comfortable while sommeliers, in general, prioritize the general success of a restaurant and a happy work environment.

Findings of the related issue are evaluated and it is determined that features such as owning a restaurant, being merely a worker at a restaurant, or professional experience, which are demographical features, didn't cause any difference in answers.

#### **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

It is seen that chefs and sommeliers working at Michelin star restaurants in Denmark are mostly directors. On the other hand, approximately half of them own the business they work for. Chefs are generally graduated from the undergraduate programs about their profession while sommeliers are mostly trained in certificate programs. It is observed that all of the participants have an average of 12 years of professional experience in the sector. This indicates that individuals who received education about food or beverage can be placed in important positions such as executive chef, head chef, or head sommelier in Michelin restaurants. This finding is important as it can be a reference for individuals who want to work at Michelin restaurants in their careers.

According to the findings obtained in the scope of this study, working at a Michelin restaurant has contributed to the career of chef and sommeliers; all of the participants accepted that the restaurants they work for contributed to their career. Chefs adopted a personal approach to the issue and specifically mentioned that the restaurant they work for especially contributed to their popularity. The increase in the number of followers on social media is an important contribution to their career. Sommeliers on the other hand stated that working at a Michelin restaurant supported their personal development, ensured continuity and work security, and gave them the skill of being disciplined. These findings indicate that when compared to sommeliers, chefs' expectations about professional development decreased when they received Michelin stars and they focused more on personal prestige. Besides, chefs focused on gaining popularity while sommeliers focused on the

reflection of their success in competitions on the restaurant they work; this difference in viewpoints confirms these findings.

Another finding indicates that chefs at Michelin restaurants are mostly responsible for physical elements that bring success to restaurants such as plates, crew, and materials while sommeliers usually focus on food and wine combination, the combination of products, flavor and happiness of workers. Based on these findings, it can be said that sommeliers who focus on sensual elements in a restaurant feature abstract elements and prepare the factors that create the soul of service in a restaurant. This finding shows that the harmony between chefs and sommeliers is crucial and necessary for the success of a restaurant.

One other finding obtained from this study is about the importance of chefs and sommeliers in the business. Chefs believe that they are the most important factors that determine the success of a restaurant; on the other hand, they think that sommeliers are responsible for increasing the food and beverage experience to an upper level. Sommeliers on the other hand accept the dominance of chefs in restaurants, however, they mention that the success of a restaurant is related to the success of the sommelier. Sommeliers also emphasize that while chefs work behind closed doors, their role is unique as they communicate with customers face-to-face. This finding indicates that chefs or sommeliers aren't superior to one another, they are rather important elements and contribute to the overall success in the scope of their domain.

In terms of deciding the place to work, chefs mentioned sommelier with whom they will work isn't important while similarly, sommeliers said that the chef with whom they will work isn't significant. It can be said that Michelin restaurants, which are the highest representatives of the food and beverage sector, naturally have workers that are highly professional because of their organizational structure; this is why chefs and sommeliers don't necessarily worry about their co-workers in general. Besides, chefs and sommeliers want to know the personnel who work for them. This situation indicates that two positions don't meet often because of the different positions they have and there is little chance of conflict.

Based on the research findings, it can be said that the most important point at which chef and sommeliers' paths cross in a Michelin restaurant is the phases of creating a menu and tasting. It can be said that this is the most important activity which might oppose chefs and sommeliers in terms of their responsibilities in a restaurant. Chefs clearly stated that they don't want anybody to interfere in their business while creating menu and sommeliers contribution to meals is limited with some specific elements such as acid and sugar balance. Sommeliers stated that the food tasting process is mostly carried out and controlled by them and they have great contributions in this respect. In addition to this, chefs said that they aren't involved in the wine selection process and sommeliers agreed to this statement.

Based on the obtained findings, it can be said that involving sommeliers who are responsible for the sensual elements and values in a restaurant into the process of menu creation might support the success of the menu. Similarly, the limited contribution of chefs, who are usually associated with the physical aspects of restaurants, to wine selection is natural.

As a result, findings obtained from the research explain the reasons why there is an increase in the importance given to the position of sommeliers and the reasons behind the attitude of chefs to this fact. In this respect, the study makes an important contribution to the literature. When the findings are interpreted, it is seen that chefs expect to dominate the functioning of the restaurant they work. On the other hand, it is seen that sommeliers are almost the sole dominants of restaurants in terms of harmony, aesthetics, sensual ability and social relations. These important elements are today essential parts of restaurants as they increase the quality of customer experience and ensure their satisfaction; it can thus be said that sommeliers will certainly share the role of chefs in terms of the dominance in restaurant functioning which has started with nouvelle cuisine movement. It is determined that the owners of the Michelin restaurants analyzed in the scope of this study are mostly sommeliers; this situation indicated that this hypothesis might be approved in short term. Future research focus on similar research in other destinations with a strong culinary industry, will be effective in supporting the findings.

### References

- Alonso, A. (2014). Wine cellar experiences in the southeastern United States: Educating the winery visitor on muscadine wines. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 17(1), 1-18.
- Arikan, R. (2012). *Araştırma Yöntem ve Teknikleri* (2nd. ed.). Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Cousins, J., O'Gorman, K., & Stierand, M. (2010). Molecular gastronomy: Cuisine innovation or modern day alchemy?. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(3), 399-415.
- Dewald, B. (2008). The role of the sommeliers and their influence on US restaurant wine sales. *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, 20(2), 111-123.
- Ekiz, D. (2013). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri*, (3rd. ed.). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Gillespie, J. H. (1994). *The Causes of Molecular Evolution*. Oxford University Press.
- Green, K. (2003). You're a what? Wine steward. *Occupational Outlook Quarterly*, 202, 30-1.
- Harrington, R. J. (2005). *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*. Canada: The Haworth Press.
- Jenkins, A. (2017). "Nadine Levy Redzepi: What do you cook for the world's best chef?" <https://www.theguardian.com/lifeand-style/2017/sep/17/nadine-levy-redzepi-noma-what-to-cook-for-the-worlds-best-chef> The Guardian Online [accessed 10/3/2021]
- Johri, F. (2014). *Stress in Michelin restaurants*. University of Applied Sciences.
- Karataş, Z. (2015). Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri. *Manevi Temelli Sosyal Hizmet Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 1(1), 62-80.
- Lane, C. (2010). The Michelin-starred restaurant sector as a cultural industry: A cross-national comparison of restaurants in the UK and Germany. *Food, Culture & Society*, 13(4), 493-519.
- Lau, T., Cheung, M. L., Pires, G. D., & Chan, C. (2019). Customer satisfaction with sommelier services of upscale Chinese restaurants in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, 31(4), 532-554.
- MacNeil, K. (2015). *The wine bible*. Workman Publishing.
- Manske, M., & Cordua, G. (2005). Understanding the sommelier effect. *International journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(7), 569-576.
- Meng, J. G., & Kevin, M. (2008). Predictors of relationship quality for luxury restaurants. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* 15(6), 509-515.
- Michelin Travel. (2012). <http://www.michelintravel.com> [accessed 11/3/2021]
- Miklós, I. (2019). A fault in our stars: Competitiveness among Michelin-star restaurants. *Marketing & Menedzsment*, 53(1), 31-41.
- Oliveira-Brochado, A., & da Silva, R. V. (2014). The wine list design by upscale restaurants. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 8(4), 1052-1056
- Ottenbacher, M., & Harrington, R. J. (2007). The culinary innovation process: A study of Michelin-starred chefs. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 5(4), 9-35.
- Parr, R., & Mackay, J. (2010). *Secrets of the Sommeliers: How to Think and Drink like The World's Top Wine Professionals* (1st ed.). New York: Ten Speed Press.
- Scander, H., Neuman, N., Tellström, R., & Yngve, A. (2020). Acquiring competence: Sommeliers on 'good' food and beverage combinations. *International Journal of Gastronomy and Food Science*, 20, 100199.
- Simon, J. (1996). *Wine with Food*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Stelzer, C. (2011). *Dinner with Churchill: Policy Making at the Dinner Table*. Hachette UK.
- Subakti, A. G. (2013). Overview Michelin star reputation restaurant in hospitality industry. *Binus Business Review*, 4(1), 290-299.
- TASI. (2015). Sommelier (The Association de la Sommellerie Internationale), available at: [www.sommellerie-internationale.com/en/about\\_asi/](http://www.sommellerie-internationale.com/en/about_asi/) (accessed 30 June 2015).
- Walker, J. R. (2010). *The Restaurant: From Concept to Operation*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

**INFO PAGE**Chef and sommelier's share in Michelin star success:  
The case of Denmark**Abstract**

Enjoying a meal at a Michelin restaurant is quite a satisfying experience for consumers; working at one of these prestigious restaurants is similarly satisfying for a chef and sommelier. Chefs have long been the dominant factors in restaurants. In recent years, it has been observed that the sommeliers have become the partners of chefs in this important role. This study includes executive chefs, head chefs, sommeliers, and head sommeliers working at 11 different Michelin restaurants in Denmark with 1 and 2 stars. The findings confirm the recent contribution of sommeliers, which is mentioned in the related literature. In addition, the findings of this study indicate that the success of a chef in receiving a Michelin star and keeping it is mostly affected by the physical elements such as crew, materials, and presentation. Sommeliers, on the other hand, contribute to this success through abstract service elements such as the harmony of different elements on the table, food & wine harmony, menu tasting and increasing experience quality. It has also been determined that the impact of sommeliers on restaurant management will increase soon as they are the faces, in a sense 'models' of restaurants and they make unique contributions to customer satisfaction.

**Keywords:** Chef, Sommelier, Michelin Star, Denmark

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Sami Sonat Özdemir:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing	50%
<b>Buğra Özdemir:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Supervision	50%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**Ethics Committee Satatement:** Ethics committee report is available for this research and it has been documented to the journal.

**Ethics committee:** Balikesir University Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee

**Date of ethics committee decision:** 44515

**Ethics committee decision number:** 2021/05



# The impact of perceived cleanliness on customer satisfaction, revisiting intention and complaining behaviors: The case of restaurants by S-O-R Model

Hülya Taştan, Aykut Göktuğ Soylu\*

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

S-O-R model,  
Restaurant,  
Cleanliness,  
Satisfaction,  
Revisiting intention.

Food and beverage sector is a challenging sector which is growing and changing fast and including severe competition. Restaurants are an important part of the sector and in today's conditions it is vital them to be nourishing and satisfying and also free of problems in terms of cleanliness. In this respect the aim of this study is to understand how satisfaction/dissatisfaction feeling affects the intentions of complaining a restaurant or revisiting it by determining to what extent cleanliness factors affect customers' satisfaction level in the scope of S-O-R Model. In accordance with the given purpose, the data collected via the questionnaires from 384 customers of a restaurant in the United States of America have been analysed. According to the results, participants evaluate restaurant cleanliness in six aspects and it has been established that these six aspects clarify 42 % of restaurant satisfaction. Also, it has been found that restaurant satisfaction affects the intention of revisiting but does not affect the intention of complaint. In the study suggestions for theoretical and practical areas have been presented.

### Article History:

Submitted: 14.03.2022

Revised:30.06.2022

Revised:30.10.2022

Accepted: 03.11.2022

Published Online: 08.11.2022


## 1. Introduction


Restaurant cleanliness is seen as one of the key factors in the restaurant quality assessment of customers by researchers (Becker *et al.*, 1999; Barber & Scarcelli, 2009; Liu & Jang, 2009). Restaurant cleanliness in terms of both atmosphere and service quality is vital to ensure a competitive advantage and a sustainable income. That's why the managers in food and beverage sector should give importance to provide a qualified service to gain new customers and build loyalty of existing customers (Walter *et al.*, 2010, p. 238). Thus, new customers are always in interaction with the staff, the environment and the products of a restaurant during service. Therefore, not only the quality of food and beverage but also the quality of service and environment is also under evaluation. As a result of this evaluation, satisfaction or dissatisfaction feeling occurs. The approach of customers to food and beverage businesses changes depending on their satisfaction levels. In the case that satisfaction level increases, customers may tend to revisit a food and beverage business and they may enable more people to visit by word-of-mouth marketing. On the other hand, when dissatisfaction level increases, customers' intention of complaint may also increase, they may decide not to revisit and by word-of mouth they may prevent other people to visit.

When the literature is examined, it is seen that restaurant cleanliness is examined in two different ways. The first of these is the static form of restaurant cleanliness, which customers see or sense in the restaurant atmosphere. What is mentioned here is the cleanliness situation that is done before the arrival of the customer and is mostly related to the objects. The second is the reflection of the cleaning performance in the restaurant. Here, the concept of service quality comes into play. Restaurant cleanliness can be expressed as an output of the cleaning performance of the employees in the restaurant in the context of service quality. As a matter of fact, studies in the context of restaurant atmosphere and service quality are handled separately in the literature. It can be said that studies emphasizing the static and variable aspects of restaurant cleanliness are limited. The research also deals with the possible consequences of restaurant cleanliness. No other study has been found that deals with the process of evaluating restaurant cleanliness and restaurant cleaning performance from the customer's point of view, thus turning it into re-visiting or complaining behavior. In this way, it is aimed to bring a new perspective to the literature on the occasion of the study. The aim of this study made in the scope of S-O-R Model, which is also known as "Environmental Psychology Model", is to determine whether the customers' interactions regarding restaurant

\*Corresponding Author

Research paper

Hülya Taştan: Asst.Prof, Mersin University, Mersin, Türkiye, Email: hulyatastan@yahoo.com, Orcid Id: 0000-0003-1190-2758 

Aykut Göktuğ Soylu: Res. Asst., Mersin University, Mersin, Türkiye, Email: aykutsoylu93@mersin.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-7402-2291 



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution (CC-BY) 4.0 License

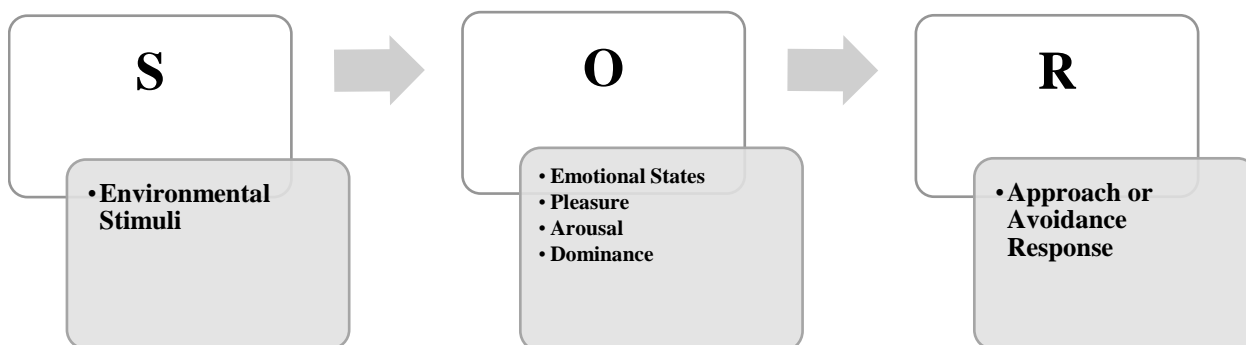


Figure 1. S-O-R Model of Mehrabian and Russel

Source: (Mehrabian & Russel, 1974, p. 8).

cleanliness factors create customer satisfaction or not by surveying these interactions of those restaurant customers living in The United States of America. Secondly it has been researched whether the satisfaction feeling from restaurant cleanliness affects customers’ revisiting or complaining intentions. The discussion of restaurant cleanliness from the aspects of both restaurant atmosphere and service quality and the research of its direct effect on customer satisfaction and indirect effect on customers’ revisiting or complaining intentions are important for food and beverage businesses which aim to provide a competitive advantage in the market.

**Environmental Psychology Model of Mehrabian and Russel (S-O-R Model)**

S-O-R model is a marketing model which affirms that environmental conditions cause approach or avoidance response in customers by triggering inner stimuli (Mehrabian & Russel, 1974). In other words, it is a model which analyses the impact of physical environment on response (Özer *et al.*, 2016, p. 30). When the model is analysed “S” is (stimulus/stimuli) all stimulants in environment, “O” is (Organism) all individuals (consumers/customers) responding to stimuli, “R” (reaction/response) is all behaviours shown by organism to environment. According to the model consumers or staff stimulated by environmental factors will respond differently depending on their interactions with the environment (Zeithaml *et al.*, 2013, p. 288). S-O-R model and its dimensions are shown in the Figure 1.

According the model; environmental factors (S) affect organisms’ (O) responses (R) during the process so approach/avoidance responses are shown by the organisms. In the model; stimuli may correspond to the factors which can cause changes in the emotional states of an individual. In this respect; restaurant cleanliness factors can be accepted as stimuli which can cause changes in the emotional states of customers (Eroğlu *et al.*, 2001, p. 179; Yoo, 2012). In the model emotional responses are clarified in three dimensions as pleasure, arousal and dominance

(Hetherie *et al.*, 2019, p. 2830). Emotional states, appearing as a result of environmental factors are to opposite responses named as approach and avoidance (Jang & Namkung, 2009, p. 451). In this study; revisiting will be emphasized as approach response and complaining will be emphasized as avoidance response.

**Restaurant Cleanliness**

Meeting customer requirement of cleanliness standards plays an important role in customers’ satisfaction (Yoo, 2012, p. 7). For example; in a study made by Brewer and Rojas (2008) 47 % of consumers stated that eating and drinking in a clean environment is too important. Also 42,6 % think that the food served in a restaurant may cause infections and 60 % have stated that they hesitate from restaurant cleanliness. Restaurant cleanliness plays an important role in service quality. For example Bienstock, DeMoranville and Smith analysed food and beverage safety and sanitation applications by correlating them with customers’ cleanliness perception, under the factors of eating area cleanliness, WC cleanliness and food safety in the study they made in 2003. According to the results of the study they have concluded that the more customers trust food and beverage safety and cleanliness, the more their service quality perception increases. In addition to this restaurant restrooms’ cleanliness takes an important place in general service quality perception (Barber & Scarcelli, 2009, p. 317).

When the literature is reviewed, it has been found that restaurant cleanliness elements are addressed within the context of atmosphere and service quality and they have a positive effect on providing customer satisfaction (Becker *et al.*, 1999; Berry *et al.*, 2006; Barber & Scarcelli, 2009; Liu & Jang, 2009; Barber & Scarcelli, 2010; Vilnai-Yavetz & Gilboa, 2010; Yoo, 2012; Soylu & Taştan, 2020).

According to the study results; it has been found that consumers pay attention to toilet cleanliness. It is seen that staff performance and clean restrooms have a positive effect on customer satisfaction. Also restrooms are

important for consumers' perception of restaurant cleanliness. In the study of Barber and Scarcelli (2010) the impact of education and gender parameters within the context of service quality and restaurant cleanliness have been investigated. According to the results of the study it has been established that participants consider cleanliness as the main factor for choosing that business, visiting and spending time there. In addition to this, it has been stated that the parameters of education and gender cause a change in individuals' perception of cleanliness.

In the study made by Vilnai-Yavetz and Gilboa in 2010, the impact of service area cleanliness on customer behavior has been researched. According to this study; service areas' being clean ensures customer behaviours' being positive. Also a positive relation has been found between cleanliness and pleasure and trust. One of the important arguments of the study is that restaurant cleanliness can be used as a marketing tool. In the study made in 2012 Yoo aimed to determine perceived restaurant cleanliness within the context of intercultural differences. As a result it has been established that general cleanliness in restrooms, restroom outlook and service staff behaviors have a role in consumers' evaluation of service quality. In addition to this, it has been seen that Asian consumers give more importance to general cleanliness in restaurants comparing with Western consumers.

### Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is about a consumer's expectations from a product or service and meeting of these expectations. The difference between the levels of expectations and their meeting causes satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2004, p. 514). According to Tayfun and Kara (2007); customer satisfaction has been stated as a pleasure feeling which involves the state of being satisfied or dissatisfied and related with a part or whole of a product or service. In terms of food and beverage sector; customer satisfaction is an emotional state as a result of integrated ideas caused by the experiences after attending a gastronomy event and the expectations before it (Truong & Foster, 2006, p. 842).

Thanks to the follow up of customer satisfaction levels, some clues on revisiting or non-revisiting intentions of customers can be obtained. A satisfied customer revisiting possibility increases. In addition to this customer satisfaction affects business image positively (Küçükergin, 2012, p. 23). To ensure customer satisfaction, restaurant cleanliness factors and satisfaction factors are needed to be fulfilled. Customer dissatisfaction occurs when restaurant cleanliness factors are not fulfilled. In that case cleanliness factors are stated as vital factors in terms of meeting customer satisfaction (Coşkun, 2007, p. 7).

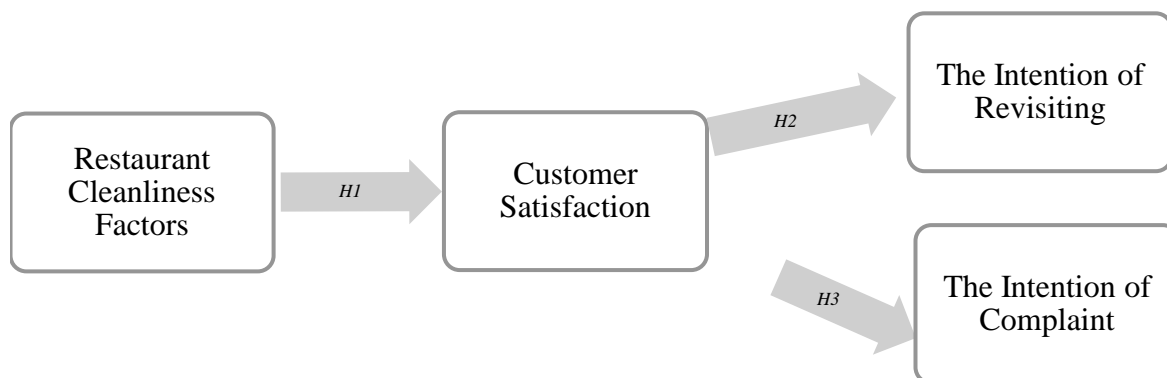
### Revisiting and Complaining in Terms of Behavioural Intention

There are three situations which consumers experience after using a product or service. In the first situation, customers are satisfied with the product and service they have received and possible to receive again. In the second situation, customers are partially satisfied with the product and service they have received so they may be in a cognitive contradiction and they may be indecisive about receiving the product or the service again. In the third situation, customers are not satisfied with the product and service they have received so complaining response occurs (Odabaşı & Barış, 2002, p. 387-388). In this respect ensuring consumer satisfaction and revisiting intention is very important for food and beverage businesses. Thus Wang (2004) stated that the quantity of revisiting consumers is higher than the half of total visitors. Revisitor customers play an important role in economical sustainability and providing information to potential customers (Çetinsöz, 2011, p. 42).

When the literature is reviewed (Seçilmiş, 2012; Karpuz, 2017; Keskin, Solunoğlu & Aktaş, 2020; Keskin, Sezen & Dağ, 2020; Oğuz & Timur, 2020; Artuğer & Kılınç-Şahin, 2020; Çetin & Şahin-Perçin, 2021) it has been established that within the context of tourism, customer satisfaction affects revisiting intention in a positive way. For example in the studies made by Artuğer and Kılınç-Şahin (2020), it has been concluded that hotel customers' satisfaction feelings have an impact on customers' revisiting intentions. Keskin, Sezen and Dağ (2020) have found that customer satisfaction from visits made to Cappadocia Region affects revisiting intentions. In the thesis study of Karpuz (2017), he has established that the satisfaction level of customers attending adventure tourism has an impact on their revisiting intentions. In this respect it can be stated that tourists' satisfaction is effective on revisiting intentions in all areas of tourism. That's why it can be foreseen that this argument is also available for gastronomy tourism or food and beverage experiences.

When there is a dispute between customer expectations and given service, customers tend to complain to resolve the dispute. Complaining presents dissatisfaction in general terms (Sujithamrak & Lam, 2005, p. 291). In other words, complaint can be expressed as negative feedback of customers (Bell *et al.*, 2004, p. 114). The customers who think that they could not get enough from the service or product they have received can express their dissatisfaction as stating verbally, not revisiting, complaining or disregarding (Akan & Kaynak, 2008, p. 3).

When the literature is reviewed (Kim & Lynn, 2007; Kitapçı, 2008; Chang, Khan & Tsai, 2012; Güven & Sarıışık, 2014; Ünal, Akkuş & Akkuş, 2014; Özdemir, Yılmaz & Çalışkan, 2015; Tosun & Söyük, 2019; Chan, Hsiao & Lee, 2016; Özbay & Sarıca, 2020), it can be stated that restaurant complaints in terms of behavioural intention are analysed in two different aspects. In the first aspect, the



**Figure 2. Research Model**

Source: By authors.

transition of dissatisfaction feeling caused by atmospheric elements to complaining is discussed. In the second aspect; the transition of experienced inconveniences, deficient practices and mistakes in terms of service quality to complaining is discussed. For example in a study they made, Özbay and Sarıca (2020) have reviewed reasons of complaining by analysing customer online complaints from food and beverage businesses. According to the results of the research, it has been found that 53 % of the complaints are about service quality. Ünal *et al.* (2014) searched about the impact of atmosphere on emotions and the impact of emotions on satisfaction. According to the study results; it has been stated that restaurant atmosphere affects customer emotions, emotions affect customer satisfaction and customer satisfaction affects behavioral loyalty.

## 2. Method

The aim of the study is to determine the impact of restaurant cleanliness factors on customer satisfaction and to establish the relationship between customer revisiting intention and complaining intention in this respect. In accordance with this purpose S-O-R Model of Mehrabian and Russell has been used. In this regard, firstly the impact of restaurant cleanliness factors on customer satisfaction has been analysed. The transition of satisfaction or dissatisfaction occurring as a result of restaurant cleanliness factors to revisiting or complaining intentions within the context of behavioural intention has been emphasized. The model of the study and hypotheses developed within this context are as seen in Figure 2.

To develop the Model, it has been benefited from the studies made by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) and Hetherington *et al.* (2019). In this respect; (a) stimulus/environmental stimuli corresponds to restaurant cleanliness factors, (b) organism corresponds to restaurant customers' satisfaction feelings and (c) response/approach or avoidance corresponds to revisiting/ complaining intentions. Hypotheses developed in accordance with the model are stated as below;

*H1: The importance customers give to restaurant cleanliness factors has a significant positive impact on customer satisfaction.*

*H2: Customer satisfaction from restaurant cleanliness has a significant positive impact on customers' revisiting intentions.*

*H3: Customer satisfaction from restaurant cleanliness has a significant negative impact on customers' complaining intentions.*

The questionnaire form used in the study consists of three parts. In the first part 45 statements are available to determine restaurant cleanliness factors. The statements are arranged as appropriate for 5 point likert scale (1=Not important, 5=Very important). In the second part there are 8 statements to determine general ideas of the customers about restaurant cleanliness. The statements are arranged as appropriate for 5 point likert scale (1= Strongly agree, 5= Strongly disagree). In the last part demographical questions are available.

The Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale which has been used in the first part of the questionnaire form was developed by Barber and Scarcelli (2010). With the scale developed as a result of the studies made by Barber and Scarcelli, it has been developed a scale of 26 items regarding four factors of restaurant cleanliness which are restaurant exterior, restroom appearance, restaurant interior, and personal cleanliness. The related scale has been improved by Yoo (2012); a scale including 29 items of the seven factors as food, restaurant interior, restaurant exterior, restroom, waiter appearance, waiter behaviour, and signage. In accordance with expert opinion, the different items in these two scales have been decided to add to the scale of this study. In this respect the scale has been developed as 44 items. 6 items include restaurant exterior cleanliness factors, 12 items include restroom cleanliness factors, 9 items include service staff cleanliness factors and 5 items include food related cleanliness factors.

In the second part of the questionnaire form, General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale is available. In this scale there are items measuring customers' revisiting and complaining intentions and statements measuring

customer satisfaction. The scale developed as 3 factors by Barber and Scarcelli (2010) has become 7 factors by the additions of the items regarding cleanliness expectation and customer satisfaction by Yoo (2012).

In the third part of the form there are questions regarding personal information of the participants. In this part there are 12 open ended and multiple-choice questions to learn about participants' age, gender, educational status, marital status, jobs, incomes, with whom they frequently go to a restaurant, in which restaurant they frequently eat for a month, which restaurant type they prefer, how much they pay in average in a restaurant, which factor is important for them while evaluating restaurant quality and whether they have ever worked as a waiter/waitress in a restaurant. The related scales have been conveyed to the participants via a questionnaire form in English.

For the preliminary test of the scales; reliability analysis has been conducted on the data of 94 valid questionnaires received face to face from 62 participants who are academic staff in Mersin University and declare they know English in 10-13 November of 2019 and from 32 participants in the United States of America, Cornell University. Cronbach Alpha statistics establishing internal consistency has been calculated separately for each scale (Şencan, 2005, p. 168-170). Reliability analysis results on the basis of the scales are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1. Pilot Research Reliability Analysis Results on the basis of the Scales**

Scales	Item number	Cronbach Alpha Value	Corrected Item Total Correlation Value
Restaurant Cleanliness Items	44	0.964	0.382-0.783
General Opinions Regading Restaurant Cleanliness	7	0.853	0.671-0.750

Source: By authors.

Scale reliability coefficient must be above 60 or 70 minimum Şencan (2005) so it can be stated that both scales are reliable. The fact that total item correlation value is not negative and is bigger than the value of 250 is important in terms of additivity feature's being intact (Kalaycı, 2016, p. 412). That's why the item of "Age of the building where the restaurant locating" with 161 total correlation and the item of "Having warm water in the restroom" with 261 correlation in Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale have been excluded from the scale. There has not been found any item which needs to be excluded from the General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale.

In the study it has been benefited from quantitative data, in this respect questionnaire technique which is one of the quantitative data collection techniques has been used. The questionnaires have been converted to online forms and delivered to the participants. The research population consists of the restaurant customers in The United States of

America. Since it was not possible to reach whole population, sampling has been used. For sampling type selection, convenience sampling method from random sampling methods has been found appropriate to use. In this way it has been made possible to include all participants answering to the questionnaire in sampling (Altunışık, Coşkun, Bayraktaroğlu & Yıldırım, 2012, p. 140). It has been stated that when population size is 10.000 or above, sample size is supposed to be 384 individuals (Sekaran, 2003, p. 194). That's why formula for infinite population ( $n = \frac{P \cdot Q \cdot Z^2 \alpha / H^2}{}$ ) has been used (Ergin, 1992, p. 88). The rate maximising sample size has been adopted as (p: 0,50) .5 % as significance level and 5 % as sampling error and 384 people as sample size.

400 questionnaires collected and found appropriate for analysis in 04-11 December 2019 in The United States of America via online form have been transferred to statistical software. As a result of data loss analysis, it has not been found any scale which needs to be excluded. Using the average of the related items, the data lost has been completed (Kalaycı, 2016, pp. 21-27). Before starting the analysis of data, multivariate analysis of outlier cases and multivariate analysis of normal distribution have been applied. As a result of the multivariate analysis of outlier cases, 16 survey data set where outlier cases were found have been excluded from the data set. Consequently the analysis has been started with 384 valid questionnaires. The significance of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity obtained in factor analysis has been analysed to test the conformity of the data for multivariate normal distribution. It has been stated that if the test is 5 % significant, the data come from multivariate normal distribution (Çokluk *et al.*, 2012, p. 213). Both scales are 5% significant on the basis of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity so it can be mentioned that the data is appropriate for multivariate normal distribution.

### 3. Findings

When the data collected within the study have been analysed, it is seen that gender and marital status questions have not been answered by one participant and job question has not been answered by 13 participants. In addition to this, it has been found that 52.6 % of the participants are woman, 47.1 % of the participants are man, 58.1 % of the participants are 22 - 36 years old, 32 % of the participants are 37 - 52 years old, 9.9 % of the participants are 53 or above years old. 31.2 % of the participants are single, 68.8 % married. 66.9% of the participants have at least one child, 33.1 % without child. When the educational status of participants has been analysed, it has been seen that 0.3 % primary school, 0.8% secondary school, 12.5 % high school, 22.4 % bachelor and 64.1 % graduate or post graduate level. 20.1 % of the participants are public servant, 64.3 % of the participants are private sector employee, 3.1 % of the participants are student and 9.1 % of the participants are unemployed. Monthly income data of the participants is as following; \$0-1200 for 12.2% , \$1201-2200 for 12.2 % , \$2201-3200 for 18.8 % , \$3201-

**Table 2. The Range of Participants According to Demographic Characteristics**

Variant	N	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Variant	N	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	383			Education	384		
Woman		202	52.6	Primary School		1	0.3
Man		181	47.1	Secondary School		3	0.8
Age	384			High School		48	12.5
22-36		223	58.1	Bachelor		86	22.4
37-52		123	32	Graduate/Postgraduate		246	64.1
53 or more		38	9.9	Profession	371		
Marital Status	383			Public servant		77	20.1
Single		119	31.2	Private sector		247	64.3
Married		264	68.8	Student		12	3.1
Do you have children?	384			Unemployed		35	9.1
Yes		257	66.9	Income	384		
No		127	33.1	\$ 0-1200		47	12.2
				\$1201-2200		47	12.2
				\$2201-3200		72	18.8
				\$3201-4200		55	14.3
				\$4201-5200		68	17.7
				\$5201 or more		95	24.7

Source: By authors.

4200 for 14.3 %, \$4201-5200 for 17.5 %, \$5201 or more for 24.7 %. Analysis results are shown in Table 2.

When the answers of 397 participants asked questions regarding their restaurant experiences are analysed, it has been found that 18 % go alone, 32.6 % go with their friends, 62.2 % go with their family. 398 participants have been asked about their frequency of going to a restaurant for a month, it has been found that 15.9 % never go, 25 % go once or twice, 39.6 % go 3-4 times, 14.1 % go 5-6 times, 3.6 % go 7-8 times and 1.8 % go 9 or more times. 398 participants have answered to what kind of restaurant they go and it has been found that 27.1% go to A la carte restaurants, 18.5 % go to Cafeteria restaurants, 20.3 % go to Self- service restaurants, 31.5 % go to Fast-food restaurants. 397 participants have answered to how much

they pay for a meal and it has been seen that 21.1 % pay \$ 0-20, 41.4 % pay \$ 21-30 , 24.7 % pay \$ 31-40 , 10.4 % pay \$ 41-50 and 2.3 % pay \$ 51 or more. 53.9% of participants answered yes, 46.1 % of the participants answered no to the question “Have you ever worked as a waiter or a cook in your life?”.

To multiple choice question of “What is important to you when evaluating restaurant quality?”, 32% answered as food taste, 28.3 % answered as cleanliness, 22.6 % answered as price, 9.4 % answered as ambiance and 7.5% answered as waiters. Cleanliness being ranked as number two after food taste in the evaluation of restaurant quality is very important in terms of the aim of the study. Findings regarding participants’ restaurant experiences are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3. Findings Regarding Participants’ Restaurant Experiences**

Variant	N	F	Percentage (%)	Variant	N	F	Percentage (%)
Who do you often go to the restaurant with?	382			How much do you personally pay for a meal in the restaurant?	384		
Alone		18	4.7	\$0-20		81	21.1
With friends		125	32.6	\$21-30		159	41.4
With family		239	62.2	\$31-40		95	24.7
In the last month, how many times have you eaten in any restaurant?	384			\$41-50		40	10.4
Never ate		61	15.9	51\$ or more		9	2.3
1-2		96	25	Have you ever worked as a waiter or a cook in your life?	384		
3-4		152	39.6	Yes		207	53.9
5-6		54	14.1	No		177	46.1
7-8		14	3.6	What is important to you when evaluating restaurant quality?	1006		
9 or more		7	1.8	Taste of food		322	32
Which type of restaurant do you often prefer according to the type of service?	374			Cleanliness		285	28.3
A la carte		104	27.1	Price		228	22.6
Cafeteria		71	18.5	Ambiance		95	9.4
Self- service restaurant		78	20.3	Waiters		76	7.5
Fast-food restaurant		121	31.5				

Source: By authors.

Firstly a reliability analysis has been conducted for the whole restaurant cleanliness items scale of 42 items in the study. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient has been found 0,962 for the whole scale. According to this, the scale is highly reliable (Kalaycı, 2016, p. 405; Alpar, 2016, p. 513). In addition to this the reliability of the scale has been tested by bisection method. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient has been found 0.931 for the first half of the scale and again 0.931 for the second half. Item total correlation values should be expected to be higher than +0.250 (Kalaycı, 2016, p. 412). In this respect, Item-Total Correlation Values of The Scale of the Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale is 0.357-0.724. That's why no item has been excluded from the scale. Reliability analysis results are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4. Reliability Analysis Regarding Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale**

Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale	ALPHA
Total Cronbach's Alpha Value for The Scale	0.962
Cronbach's Alpha Value for the First Half of The Scale	0.931
Cronbach's Alpha Value for the Second Half of The Scale	0.931
Item-Total Correlation Values of The Scale	0.357-0.724

Source: By authors.

A reliability analysis has been conducted on General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale of 7 Items. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient has been found 0.831 for the whole scale. According to this, the scale is highly reliable (Kalaycı, 2016, p. 405; Alpar, 2016, p. 513). After then the reliability of the scale has been tested by bisection method. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient has been found 0.835 for the first half of the scale and 0.630 for the second half. Item total correlation values should be expected to be higher than +0.250 (Kalaycı, 2016, p. 412). In this respect, Item-Total Correlation Values of The Scale of the Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale is 0.635-0.720. As a result no item has been excluded from the scale. Reliability analysis results are shown in Table 5.

**Table 5. Reliability Analysis Regarding General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale**

General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale	ALPHA
Total Cronbach's Alpha Value for The Scale	0.831
Cronbach's Alpha Value for the First Half of The Scale	0.835
Cronbach's Alpha Value for the Second Half of The Scale	0.630
Item-Total Correlation Values of The Scale	0.635-0.720

Source: By authors.

An exploratory factor analysis has been used to test construct validation of restaurant cleanliness items scale. Within the scope of the study, principal component analysis and Varimax rotation method in factor analysis have been conducted to reduce the number of variants and to research the structure of the relations between variants. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity has been conducted to understand whether the data has a multivariate structure. In addition to this, the items without overlapping

subproblems of eigenvalue are over 1 and cross-loading differences between items more than 0.100 in the factor analysis are included to the study. Since the sample size over 200, factor loading has been determined as 0.40 (Mayers, 2013, p. 546). Also KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy is supposed to be over 0.500. The rate's being high shows that data set is high for factor analysis (Kalaycı, 2016, pp. 321-322).

Factor analysis has been conducted on Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale of 42 items. From the analysis 12 items have been excluded in the factor analyses made on Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale. After excluding related items, a factor analysis has been conducted on remaining 30 items. As a result of that scale has been grouped under 6 factors and explains 61.229 % of total variant. KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy of these 30 items which are included to the analysis within Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale has been found as 91.1 %. For Bartlett's Test of Sphericity  $\chi^2$  is 8267.773 and it is significant at the level of 0.0001. In that case it is possible to say that there is no objection to continue to the factor analysis (Mayers, 2013, p. 552). Also since there is no correlation among the items, it can be asserted that the data is appropriate for multivariate normal distribution (Çokluk *et al.*, 2012, p. 219). Results of Exploratory factor analysis on Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale are shown in Table 6.

As a result of the factor analysis, the first factor consists of 8 items and explains 14,754 % of total variant. The second factor consists of 5 items and explains 12,944 % of total variant. The third factor consists of 5 items and explains 10,457 % of total variant. The fourth factor consists of 4 items and explains 8,643 % of total variant. The fifth factor consists of 4 items and explains 8,302 % of total variant. The sixth factor consists of 3 items and explains 6,128 % of total variant. Factor names are established as "restaurant interior", "restroom", "food", "waiter behaviour", "restaurant exterior" and "waiter appearance" in conformity with the Literature.

Factor analysis has been conducted on General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale of 7 items. As a result of the factor analysis, the scale has been grouped under 1 factor and explains 55.691 % of total variant. KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy of 5 items which are included to the analysis within General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale has been found as 88.1 %. For Bartlett's Test of Sphericity,  $\chi^2$  is 1182.801 and it is significant at the level of 0.0001. In that case it is possible to say that there is no objection to continue to the factor analysis (Mayers, 2013, p. 552). Also since there is no correlation among the items, once more it can be asserted that the data is appropriate for multivariate normal distribution (Çokluk, Şekercioglu and Büyüköztürk, 2012, p. 219). Results of Exploratory factor analysis on General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale are shown in Table 7.

**Table 6. Restaurant Cleanliness Items Scale Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Restaurant Cleanliness Items	Loading	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Averae	Alpha
<b>1. Factor: Restaurant interior (8 Items)</b>		4.367	14.754	4.238	0.880
Cleanliness of restaurant carpet	0.785				
Cleanliness of restaurant armchair	0.770				
Cleanliness of restaurant wall	0.761				
Cleanliness of restaurant floor	0.755				
Cleanliness of restaurant furniture	0.752				
Cleanliness of restaurant table cloths	0.749				
Cleanliness of restaurant window	0.695				
Cleanliness of restaurant ceiling	0.631				
<b>2. Factor: Restroom (6 Items)</b>		3.273	12.944	4.146	0.856
Cleanliness of restroom floor	0.751				
The restroom does not smell bad	0.749				
Having restroom paper	0.743				
Clean trash at restroom	0.736				
The restroom smell good	0.728				
No trash in the restroom	0.725				
<b>3. Factor: Food (5 Items)</b>		2.937	10.457	4.236	0.823
Cleanliness of unprotected food (eg open-top flavors / spices on the table)	0.784				
Freshness of salads and garnishes	0.770				
Temperature of the dish	0.768				
Cleanliness of food contact surfaces (eg plates, glassware / glassware)	0.766				
The appearance of the meal	0.743				
<b>4. Factor: Waiter behaviour (4 Items)</b>		2.329	8.643	3.976	0.792
The waiter not touching food with bare hands	0.817				
The waiter does not smell bad	0.800				
The waiter coughing and sneezing	0.760				
The waiter not smoking	0.667				
<b>5. Factor: Restaurant exterior (4 Items)</b>		2.051	8.302	4.111	0.679
Cleanliness of restaurant garden	0.825				
Restaurant exterior	0.797				
Cleanliness of restaurant driveway	0.738				
Cleanliness of restaurant car park	0.434				
<b>6. Factor: Waiter appearance (3 Items)</b>		1.833	6.128	3.980	0.664
Cleanliness of waiter uniform	0.833				
The waiter's hands and nails are clean / well-groomed	0.813				
Waiter's hair style (for example; combed, hair net used)	0.691				

Varimax Rotation Principal Components Analysis; Total Variance Explained: % 61.228  
 KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy: .911 – Bartlett's Test of Sphericity:  $\chi^2$ : 8267.773 s.d.: 435  $p < 0.001$   
 – Alpha for The Whole Scale: 0.962  
 Answer Categories : 1: Strongly Disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neither Agree Nor Diasagree  
 4: Agree, 5: Strongly Agree

Source: By authors.

**Table 7. Exploratory Factor Analysis on General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale**

General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness	Loading	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Averae	Alpha
<b>1. Factor: General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness (7 Items)</b>		3.898	55.691	4.103	0.846
Restaurant cleanliness is important to me when evaluating overall restaurant quality.	0.829				
Restaurant cleanliness is important to me when I decide whether I will return to a restaurant or not.	0.820				
Restaurant cleanliness is important to me.	0.803				
A dirty restaurant will decrease my overall level of satisfaction.	0.799				
A clean restaurant will increase my overall level of satisfaction.	0.794				
I have high expectations of cleanliness for high-budget restaurants.	0.772				
I tend to complain to restaurant employees if I perceive that a restaurant is dirty.	0.829				

Varimax Rotation Principal Components Analysis – Total Variance Explained: % 55.691  
 KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy: .881 – Bartlett's Test of Sphericity:  $\chi^2$ : 1182.801 s.d.: 21  $p < 0.001$   
 – Alpha for The Whole Scale: 0.831  
 Answer Categories : 1: Strongly Disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neither Agree Nor Diasagree  
 4: Agree, 5: Strongly Agree

Source: By authors.



As a result of the conducted factor analysis, single factor structure has been obtained and it consists of 7 items. The single factor explains 55.691 % of total variant. Since the items composing this factor represent general statements about restaurant cleanliness, it has been named as General perceptions of restaurant cleanliness”.

Simple correlation analysis has been conducted to determine the direction and the degree of the relation between restaurant cleanliness items and participants satisfaction from the restaurant. According to the analysis there is a positive, medium level and significant relation between restaurant cleanliness items and restaurant satisfaction ( $r=0.650$ ;  $p<0,01$ ) (Alpar, 2016, p. 419). In this respect it can be stated that the more participants give importance to restaurant cleanliness items, the more their general satisfaction from restaurant increases. Analysis results are shown in Table 8.

**Table 8. The Results of Correlation Analysis between Restaurant Cleanliness Items and Restaurant Satisfaction of Participants**

	Satisfaction
Restoran Cleanliness Factors	0.650*
Significance	0.000
N	384

Correlation is significant at the level of 0.01 (bidirectional)

Source: By authors.

Simple linear regression has ben conducted to explain the result relations between restaurant cleanliness items and restaurant satisfaction of participants via a mathematical model. According to the analysis results, it has been seen that the model is significant ( $F=260.286$ ).

Explaining rate of restaurant cleanliness items which is an independent variable’s for participants’ restaurant satisfaction which is a dependent variable is R2 and has been found as 0.421. According to this 42.1% of the participants’restaurant satisfaction is explained by restaurant cleanliness items. In addition to this 1 increase in restaurant cleanliness perception causes 0.650 of increase in restaurant satisfaction. In this respect, it can be stated that H1 hypothesis proposed basing on S-O-R model is supported. Analysis results are shown in Table 9.

**Table 9. The Analysis Results of the Regression between Restaurant Cleanliness Factors and Participants’ Satisfaction**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	P
	B	Std. Mistake	Beta		
(Invariant)	4.190	0.035		118.398	0.000
Restaurant Cleanliness Items	0.648	0.040	0.650	16.133	0.000

Dependent Variable: Restaurant Satisfaction

R: 0.650; R<sup>2</sup>: 0.423; Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>: 0.421; for Model F: 260.286;

p=0.000; s.d.: 1

Source: By authors.

Simple correlation analysis has been conducted to data set to determine the direction and the degree of the relation between participants’ satisfaction and their revisiting

intentions. According to the analysis there is a positive, medium level significant relation between participants’ satisfaction and their revisiting intentions ( $r=0.580$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) (Alpar, 2016, p. 419). In this respect it can be stated that the more participants are satisfied, the more their revisiting intentions increase. Analysis results are shown in Table 10.

**Table 10. The Analysis Results of the Correlation between Customer Satisfaction and Their Revisiting Intentions**

	Revisiting Intention
Satisfaction	0.580*
Significance	0.000
N	384

\* Correlation is significant at the level of 0.01 (bidirectional)

Source: By authors.

Simple linear regression has ben conducted to explain the result relations between satisfaction levels of participants and their revisiting intentons via a mathematical model. According to the analysis results, it has been seen that the model is significant ( $F=193.537$ ).

Explaining rate of the satisfaction level which is an independent variable for participants’ revisiting intentions which is a dependent variable is R2 and has been found as 0.335. According to this 33.5% of the participants’ revisiting intentions is explained by the level of satisfaction from a restauant. In addition to this 1 increase in their satisfaction level causes 0.580 of increase in their revisiting intentions. In this respect, it can be stated that H2 hypothesis proposed basing on S-O-R model is supported. Analysis results are shown in Table 11.

**Table 11. The Analysis Results of the Regression between Customer Satisfaction and Their Revisiting Intentions**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	P
	B	Std. Mistake	Beta		
(Invariant)	1.893	0.169		11.196	0.000
Satisfaction	0.550	0.040	0.580	13.912	0.000

Dependent Variable: Revisiting Intention

R: 0.580; R<sup>2</sup>: 0.336; Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>: 0.335 ; for Model F:193.537 ;

p=0.000; s.d.: 1

Source: By authors.

Simple correlation analysis has been conducted to data set to determine the direction and the degree of the relation between participants’ satisfaction and their complaining intentions. According to the analysis there is no relation between participants’ satisfaction and their complaining intentions ( $p=0.541$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). In this respect, it can be stated that H3 hypothesis proposed basing on S-O-R model is not supported. Analysis results are shown in Table 12.

**Table 12. The Analysis Results of the Correlation between Customer Satisfaction and Their Complaining Intentions**

	Complaining Intention
Satisfaction	0.146
Significance	0.541
N	384

\* Correlation is significant at the level of 0.01 (bidirectional)

Source: By authors.

#### 4. Discussion

In the study customers' restaurant cleanliness items, customer satisfaction, revisiting and complaining intentions have been examined within the scope of S-O-R Model. In this respect firstly factor analysis has been made to understand construct validation of scales. As a result of the factor analysis it is seen that "Restaurant Cleanliness Items" Scale is grouped under 6 factors. It has been found that explaining rate of these factors for total variant is 61.228 %. 6 factors which establishing explained total variant are "restaurant interior, restroom, food, waiter behaviour, restaurant exterior and waiter appearance" respectively. With this form, the scale supports the studies of Barber and Scarcelli (2010) and Yoo (2012). Human factor was absent in the original scale used in the study of Barber and Scarcelli (2010). That's why Yoo (2012) has improved the scale and a structure of 7 factors has emerged. The items of "Signage" factor which is available in the study of Yoo (2012) have been excluded from this study. In the study made by Soylu and Taştan (2020) a structure of 6 factors has emerged. In this respect while these two studies show similarities, there are differences in the orders of factors. For example while "restaurant exterior" takes place as the fourth factor in the first study made on restaurant customers living in Mersin city center, the fourth factor of this study has been found as "waiter behaviour". In this respect different sampling type, different sampling size and different items can be shown as the reason for the difference of factor loadings and factor sizes.

As a result of the factor analysis conducted on General Perceptions of Restaurant Cleanliness Scale, participant customers' thoughts are grouped under 1 factor. That 1 factor which has been obtained explains 55.691 % of total variant. As a result of the analysis it can be stated that restaurant customers attending to the study consider restaurant cleanliness as an important evaluation instrument in their evaluations of revisiting the restaurant, satisfaction, complaining intention and service quality.

#### 5. Results and Suggestions

Within the scope of the study the data collected from the questionnaires ...ed with restaurant customers living in The United States Hypotheses have been analysed and the hypotheses proposed in accordance with the model have been tested. As a result of the analysis the H<sub>1</sub> hypothesis asserting that "The importance customers give to restaurant cleanliness factors has a significant positive impact on customer satisfaction" has been supported. When the literature has been reviewed, many studies supporting this finding can be seen. In the related studies restaurant cleanliness has been analysed separately both as performance oriented in terms of service quality and as a part of atmosphere. For example while restaurant cleanliness has been discussed as a variant of service quality in the study of Barber and Scarcelli (2010), it has been seen as a variant of restaurant atmosphere by Vilnai-

Yavetz and Gilboa (2010). On the other hand in this study restaurant cleanliness has been considered as both as a variant of service quality and as a variant of restaurant atmosphere. When considered this point of view, the facts that restaurant cleanliness explains almost half of the satisfaction from restaurant and there is a positive, medium level and significant relation between restaurant cleanliness items and restaurant satisfaction reveal how much restaurant cleanliness is important for customers. This is supported by the fact that "cleanliness" is the second chosen answer to the question "What is important to you when evaluating restaurant quality?". Although people go to restaurants to eat a good food, the definition of "a good food" does not mean only "delicious" but the fact that "good and clean" food is becoming important for restaurants comes forwards as a reality. In this respect the study shows similarities with the study made in Mersin City by Soylu and Taştan (2020). In their study it has been stated that in restaurants taste factor is at the forefront for customer satisfaction but it should be supported with cleanliness. Starting from this point of view and considering the studies made with different sampling groups it can be said that restaurant cleanliness takes an important place to provide customer satisfaction in a restaurant.

In the study H<sub>2</sub> hypothesis asserting that "Customer satisfaction from restaurant cleanliness has a significant positive impact on customers' revisiting intentions has been supported. In this respect one third of the revisiting intentions of customers have been explained by customer satisfaction. Also there is a positive, medium level and significant relation between satisfaction from restaurant and revisiting intentions. This result has been supported by the studies made in different areas of tourism. It has been stated that in hotels (Artuğer & Kılınc-Şahin, 2020), in different destinations (Keskin, Sezen & Dağ, 2020), in joining different tourism types (Karpuz, 2017), satisfying customers has an important role in revisiting intentions.

In this respect it is seen that as a part of tourism, satisfying customers in food and beverage businesses plays a critical role in obtaining revisiting intentions. It should be considered that restaurant cleanliness is not an appealing factor for only available customers but also for potential customers. Many restaurants enhance and diversify their products to obtain competitive advantage and restaurant cleanliness also should be considered as one of the way of these kinds of enhancements and diversification. Awareness of the points which customers give importance in restaurant cleanliness is becoming significant in this respect.

In the study H<sub>3</sub> hypothesis asserting that "Customer satisfaction from restaurant cleanliness has a significant negative impact on customers complaining intentions" has not been supported. In this respect findings of this study do not correspond with related literature. In the studies made on complaining process, the transition of dissatisfaction to

complaining is frequently being discussed. But when the literature has been reviewed, it can be seen that the ways of expressing complaints may change. For example in the study made by Akan and Kaynak (2008) it has been stated that complaining can be expressed as verbal expression, not revisiting the business, making complaint, applying to third parties or related organisations and/or disregard. In another study made by Dalgıç *et al.* (2016), the complaints from Mersin restaurants have been emphasized. In the study it has been stated that factors such as interior design, décor, scent, waiters wearing clean and neat, environmental cleanliness are also important but businesses should put more emphasis on “taste” factor. Starting from the analysis results it can be stated that restaurant cleanliness is also a factor, when customer satisfaction is made, visiting intentions increase but when the customer satisfaction is not enough or dissatisfaction occurs, it is easier to eliminate this.

Considering the findings of this study, it is possible to develop this study with new points of views by proposing new hypotheses via different models for theoretical area. The transition process of revisiting and complaining intentions which are reviewed within the scope of behavioural intention to action can be analysed. Using the scale, new studies can be made by comparing the data gathered from different countries or cities. Considering that this study has been limited to restaurant customers, hospitality businesses can be included in further studies.

## References

- Akan, Y., & Kaynak, S. (2008). Tüketicilerin şikayet düşüncesini etkileyen faktörler. *Ankara Üniversitesi SBF Dergisi*, 62(2), 1-19.
- Alpar, R. (2016). *Spor, sağlık ve eğitim bilimlerinden örneklerle uygulamalı istatistik ve geçerlik-güvenirlilik*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Altunışık, R., Coşkun, R., Bayraktaroğlu, S., & Yıldırım, E. (2012). *Sosyal bilimlerde araştırma yöntemleri (SPSS) uygulamalı*. Sakarya: Sakarya Yayıncılık.
- Artuğer, S., & Kılınç-Şahin, S. (2020). Hizmet ortamı, müşteri memnuniyeti ve tekrar ziyaret etme niyeti ilişkisi: resort otellerde bir araştırma. *Türk Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 4(3), 2441-2455.
- Barber, N., & Scarcelli, J. M. (2009). Clean restrooms: how important are they to restaurant consumers? *Journal Of Foodservice*, 20, 309-320.
- Barber, N., & Scarcelli, J. M. (2010). Enhancing the assessment of tangible service quality through the creation of a cleanliness measurement scale. *Managing Service Quality*, 20(1), 70-88.
- Becker, C., Murrmann, S., Murrmann, K. F., & Cheung, G. W. (1999). A pancultural study of restaurant service expectations in the United States and Hong Kong. *Journal Of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 23(3), 235-255.
- Bell, S. J., Mengüç, B., & Stefani, S. J. (2004). When Customers Disappoint: A model of relational internal marketing and customer complaints. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32(2), 112-126.
- Bennett, R., & Rundle-Thiele, S. (2004). Customer satisfaction should not be the only goal. *Journal Of Services Marketing*, 18(7), 514-523.
- Berry, L. L., Wall, E. A., & Carbone, L. P. (2006). Service clues and customer assessment of the service experience: Lessons from marketing. *Academy Of Management Perspectives*, 20(2), 43-57.
- Bienstock, C. C., DeMoranville, C. W., & Smith, R. K. (2003). Organizational citizenship behavior and service quality. *Journal Of Services Marketing*, 17(4), 357-378.
- Brewer, M. S., & Rojas, M. (2008). Consumer attitudes toward issues in food safety. *Journal Of Food Safety*, 28, 1-22.
- Chan, G. S. H., Hsiao, A. C. H., & Lee, A. L. Y. (2016). Exploration of Customer Compliant Behavior toward Asian Full-Service Restaurants. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*. 8(2), 46-58.
- Chang, J., Khan, M. A., & Tsai, C. T. (2012). Dining Occasions, Service Failures and Customer Complaint Behaviors: An Empirical Assessment. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 14, 601-615.
- Coşkun, İ. (2007). *Müşteri tatmini ve müşteri değerinin müşteri sadakati üzerine etkisi: süpermarket ve bankacılık sektöründe bir araştırma*. Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi, Eskişehir.
- Çetin, B., & Şahin-Perçin, N. (2021). Japon turistlerin seyahat motivasyonlarının turist memnuniyeti ve tekrar ziyaret etme niyeti üzerine etkisi: Kapadokya örneği. *Iğdır Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 25, 598-623.
- Çetinsöz, B. C. (2011). *Uluslararası seyahatlerde turistlerin çekim yerinde algıladıkları risklerin tekrar ziyaret etme niyetlerine etkileri*. Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi, Aydın.
- Çokluk, O., Şekercioğlu, G., & Büyüköztürk, S. (2012). *Sosyal bilimler için çok değişkenli istatistik: SPSS ve Lisrel Uygulamaları*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Dalgıç, A., Güler, O., & Birdir, K. (2016). Tripadvisor. com’da yer alan restoran şikâyetlerinin analizi: Mersin ve Hatay’da yöresel yiyecek sunan restoranlara yönelik bir araştırma. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, 4(1), 153-173.
- Ergin, D. Y. (1992). Örneklemin temsil ediciliği. *Atatürk Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 73-95.
- Eroğlu, S., Machleit, K., & Davis, L. (2001). Atmospheric qualities of online retailing: A conceptual model and implications, *Journal of Business Research*, 54(2), 177-184.
- Güven, E. O., & Sarıışık, M. (2014). Konaklama hizmetlerinde davranışsal niyeti etkileyen hizmet kalitesi boyutları, *İşletme Bilimi Dergisi*, 2(2), 21-51.
- Hetharie, J. A., Hussein, A. S., & Puspaningrum, A. (2019). SOR (Stimulus-Organism-Response) Model Application in Observing the Influence of Impulsive Buying on

- Consumer's Post-Purchase Regret. *International Journal of Scientific and Technology Research*, 8(11), 2829-2841.
- Jang, S. S., & Namkung, Y. (2009). Perceived quality, emotions, and behavioral intentions: Application of an extended Mehrabian–Russell model to restaurants. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(4), 451–460.
- Kalaycı, S. (2016). *SPSS uygulamalı çok değişkenli istatistik teknikleri*. Ankara: Asil Yayın Dağıtım.
- Karpuz, M. (2017). *Macera turizm faaliyetlerine katılan turistlerin memnuniyetinin tekrar ziyaret etme niyeti ile ilişkisi: Fethiye örneği*. Yayınlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Balıkesir Üniversitesi, Balıkesir.
- Keskin, E., Sezen, N., & Dağ, T. (2020). Unutulmaz turizm deneyimi, müşteri memnuniyeti, tekrar ziyaret ve tavsiye etme niyeti arasındaki ilişkiler: Kapadokya bölgesini ziyaret eden turistlere yönelik bir araştırma. *Journal of Recreation and Tourism Research*, 7(2), 239-264.
- Keskin, E., Solunoğlu, A., & Aktaş, F. (2020). Yiyecek içecek işletmelerinde memnuniyetin tekrar ziyaret niyeti üzerindeki etkisinde atmosfer ve sadakatin aracı ve düzenleyici rolü; Kapadokya örneği. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, 8(2), 1222-1246.
- Kim, J. H., & Lynn, J. (2007). Classification of Asian Complainers in Restaurant Services. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(4), 366-375.
- Kitapçı, O. (2008). Restoran hizmetlerinde müşteri şikayeti davranışları: Sivas ilinde bir uygulama. *Erciyes Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 31), 111-120.
- Küçükergin, K. G. (2012). *Müşteri sadakatinin oluşum sürecine müşteri tatmini ve ataletinin etkisi: yiyecek içecek işletmelerine yönelik bir uygulama*. Yayınlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Liu, Y., & Jang, S. (2009). Perceptions of chinese restaurants in the U.S.: What affects customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28, 338-348.
- Mayers, A. (2013). *Introduction to statistics and SPSS in psychology*. London: Pearson.
- Mehrabian, A., & Russel, J. A. (1974). *An Approach to Environmental Psychology*, Cambridge, Mass: MIT press.
- Odabaşı, Y., & Barış, G. (2002). *Tüketici davranışı*. İstanbul: Media Cat Yayınları.
- Oğuz, Y. E., & Timur, B. (2020). Temalı parklarda müşteri deneyimi, memnuniyet ve tekrar ziyaret niyeti: Sazova bilim, sanat ve kültür parkı üzerine bir çalışma. *International Social Mentality and Researcher Thinkers Journal*, 6(30), 419-430.
- Özbay, G., & Sarıca, V. (2020). Yiyecek içecek işletmelerinde şikayet yönetimi uygulamaları: Sakarya örneği. *Türk Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 4(2), 856-880.
- Özdemir, B., Yılmaz, G., & Çalışkan, O. (2015). Bireysel ve davranışsal faktörlerin restoran müşterilerinin şikayet etme niyetlerine etkisi, *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 26(1), 61-79.
- Özer, L., Kazancı, S., Yılmazel, S. E., Küpeli, T. S., Demiray, D. K., Ozanözü, A. M., Yaylaci, A., & Onuklu, N. N. (2016). *Hizmet pazarlaması: Güncel konular ve Yaklaşımlar*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Seçilmiş, C. (2012). Termal turizm destinasyonlarından duyulan memnuniyet düzeyinin tekrar ziyaret niyetine etkisi: Sakarılıca örneği. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 11(39), 231-250.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: a skill-building approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Soylu, A. G., & Taştan, H. (2020). Algılanan restoran temizliğinin müşteri tatminine etkisi. *Gastroia: Journal of Gastronomy And Travel Research*, 4 (1), 86-105.
- Sujithamrak, S., & Lam, T. (2005). Relationship between customer complaint behavior and demographic characteristics: A study of hotel restaurants' patrons. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(3), 289-307.
- Şencan, H. (2005). Sosyal ve davranışsal ölçümlerde geçerlilik-güvenirlilik. Ankara: Seçkin Yayın.
- Tayfun, A., & Kara, D. (2007). Turizm işletme belgeli restoranlardan hizmet alan müşterilerin memnuniyet düzeyleri. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 6(21), 273-292.
- Tosun, N., & Söyük, S. (2019). Şikayet yönetimi perspektifinden müşteri memnuniyeti ve davranışsal niyet üzerine kavramsal bir model önerisi. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 23(Özel Sayı), 1873-1887.
- Truong, T.-H., & Foster, D. (2006). Using HOLSAT to evaluate tourist satisfaction at destinations: The case of Australian holidaymakers in Vietnam. *Tourism Management*, 27, 842-855.
- Ünal, S., Akkuş, G., & Akkuş, Ç. (2014). Yiyecek içecek işletmelerinde atmosfer, duygu, memnuniyet ve davranışsal sadakat ilişkisi. *Gazi Üniversitesi Turizm Fakültesi Dergisi*, 1, 23-29.
- Vilnai-Yavetz, I., & Gilboa, S. (2010). The effect of servicescape cleanliness on customer reactions. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 31(2), 213-234.
- Walter, U., Edvardsson, B., & Öström, Å. (2010). Drivers of customers' service experiences: a study in the restaurant industry. *Managing Service Quality*, 20(3), 236-258.
- Wang, D. (2004). Tourist behaviour and repeat visitation to Hong Kong. *Tourism Geographies*, 6 (1): 99-118.
- Yoo, S. A. (2012). *Customer perceptions of restaurant cleanliness: a cross cultural study*. Unpublished master's thesis, Virginia State University, Virginia.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J., & Gremler, D. D. (2013). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm*. (6th ed.) New York: McGraw-Hill.

**INFO PAGE**

The impact of perceived cleanliness on customer satisfaction, revisiting intention and complaining behaviors: The case of restaurants by S-O-R Model

**Abstract**

Food and beverage sector is a challenging sector which is growing and changing fast and including severe competition. Restaurants are an important part of the sector and in today's conditions it is vital them to be nourishing and satisfying and also free of problems in terms of cleanliness. In this respect the aim of this study is to understand how satisfaction/dissatisfaction feeling affects the intentions of complaining a restaurant or revisiting it by determining to what extent cleanliness factors affect customers' satisfaction level in the scope of S-O-R Model. In accordance with the given purpose, the data collected via the questionnaires from 384 customers of a restaurant in the United States of America have been analysed. According to the results, participants evaluate restaurant cleanliness in six aspects and it has been established that these six aspects clarify 42 % of restaurant satisfaction. Also, it has been found that restaurant satisfaction affects the intention of revisiting but does not affect the intention of complaint. In the study suggestions for theoretical and practical areas have been presented.

**Keywords:** S-O-R model, restaurant, cleanliness, satisfaction, Revisiting intention.

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Hülya Taştan:</b>	Investigation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration	50%
<b>Aykut Göktuğ Soylu:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal Analysis, Resources, Data Curation, Visualization	50%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**This paper does not required ethics committee report**

**Justification:** This research was conducted before January 1, 2020. For this reason, it is exempt from "ULAKBIM TRDizin" criterion.

# How covid-19 has affected supply and demand within tourism industry?

Gül Şerife Huyugüzel Kışla, Burcu Türkcan, Meltem İnce Yenilmez\*

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Crisis,  
Resilience,  
Recovery,  
Socioeconomic impacts,  
Covid-19.

There is no doubt that coronavirus has succeeded in crippling businesses and people worldwide. It has led to unprecedented economic crisis in countries around the world. The tourism sector isn't an exception to its devastating impacts. The virus has succeeded in affecting not just the economy. In addition to such, job opportunities, and regional developments in local communities have been greatly affected. Tourism throughout the world has been stagnant since the month of April 2020 due to the advent of COVID-19. Given this temporary problem, economies and employment rates have been affected to a great extent. Also, local communities around the world are struggling to survive. In most countries, 50% the revenue generated from exports is contributed by tourism. This means it is a major contributor of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) as well as employment. The major aim of this paper is to carry out an objective review that can enable researchers and experts understand as well as manage the impacts of COVID-19 on tourism. For this to be achieved, this paper discussed the transformational opportunities presented by COVID-19 including questions that it raises. The paper attempts to identify pre-assumptions, institutions, and fundamental values which the tourism industry including other academia need to challenge for development to be achieved. Furthermore, the paper discusses the major impacts, experiences and behaviors being experienced by the 3 stakeholders in the tourism industry – social cost, supply, and demand. Just as measures have been adopted by countries to ameliorate the situation, recommendations have been put forward to ensure speedy recovery of the sector.

### Article History:

Submitted: 11.05.2022

Revised: 13.08.2022

Revised: 17.10.2022

Revised: 01.11.2022

Accepted: 11.11.2022

Published Online: 19.11.2022

## 1. Introduction

Traveling is one of the most entertaining activities. It gives people the rare chance of meeting new faces and discovering new practices. However, this is only possible when such route is free of catastrophes, illnesses and crimes. The good part is that these risks can be dealt with or managed in the most effective manner. The major nightmares that every traveler fears are pandemics and epidemics. In cases like these, avoiding the disease is almost impossible. Apart from the travelers, the lives of people they will encounter during such journey are also at great risk. When it comes to transfer of pandemics and epidemics between locations, passengers tend to play a very serious role (Hollingsworth et al., 2006). As a result of coronavirus, the world seems to be more focused on dealing with epidemics.

Through the emergence of more coronaviruses, new pandemics and epidemics are being triggered. The pathogens seem to be mutating very fast. Due to this, new strains are expected to suddenly emerge from any location. The origin of coronavirus is animals. This will then be transmitted to humans. In 2002, the popular


SARS (severe acute respiratory syndrome) virus was transmitted to humans from birds. Camels were the source of MERS which was also known as Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (Al-Tawfiq et al., 2014).


The SARS which infected people in 2003 originated from Asia. Also, it was the first epidemic to affect lives in the world of internet and globalization. Within a period of 8 months (November 2002-June 2003), it succeeded in getting about 8000 people infected. Around two-third of this population were people living in China, one-fifth were people living in Hong Kong according to Mackey and Liang (2012). Other locations where people became very ill were Canada, Singapore, and Taiwan. Deaths were also recorded in these countries. It is important to note that SARS had very minimal effect on productivity and economies around the world. This is because the number of people infected was low. It had some noticeable effects though. To avoid getting infected, tourists had to stay away from the region of Southeast Asia for some time.


Wuhan was the first place where people got infected from an unknown lung disease in 2019 (December). This was

\*Corresponding Author

Research paper

Gül Şerife Huyugüzel Kışla: Assist. Prof. Dr., Ege University, İzmir, Türkiye, Email: gul.kisla@ege.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-0901-2038 

Burcu Türkcan: Assoc. Prof. Dr., Ege University, İzmir, Türkiye, Email: burcu.turkcan@ege.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-7494-5897 

Meltem İnce Yenilmez: Prof. Dr., İzmir Democracy University, İzmir, Türkiye, Email: meltem.inceyenilmez@idu.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-4689-3196 



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution (CC-BY) 4.0 License

discovered in a market that allowed the trading of live animals. Another strain of coronavirus was discovered in patients who were suffering from pneumonia. Given the way it has been spreading globally, there is every reason to believe that the entire world has been held to a standstill (Backer et al., 2020; WHO, 2020a). This virus is now referred to as COVID-19. COVID is an acronym for Corona Virus Disease. Its epicenter remains Wuhan (Hubei Province). Trains and flights that are traveling from major cities into the locations have been put on hold. The roads remain closed, and people are expected to put on their facemasks while walking on the streets (WHO, 2020a). While all these were happening in China, the virus had spread into some parts of Europe. The media were reporting increase in numbers of infected persons and deaths. Due to the situation on ground, WHO (2020b) had to announce that the world had been hit by another pandemic on the month of January 2020.

The numbers of infections worldwide were 10,000 as of January (ending). Over 95% of these people were in China. around three-quarters of these infected people were in Hubei province. As the days were going by, the number of infections increased. For instance, it got to 3,000/day. Other countries also experience an increase in their numbers of infection. As explained by WHO (2020a), COVID-19 had spread to more than 100 countries. Within a period of 60 days, deaths recorded were about 4,300. On the 11th of march, WHO (2020b) referred to COVID-19 as a “pandemic”.

Apart from humans being affected, economies are greatly crippled by these infections to a great extent. For instance, people who are sick won't be present at work. When deaths are recorded, production activities will be further affected. There are also some indirect effects. A typical example is when parents not being able to work because of schools where children are taken care of being closed. When exit and entries are restricted, economic activities are affected. Another example of an indirect effect is when travelers begin to avoid affected regions due to fear of getting infected with such virus (McKibbin & Fernando, 2020). It is obvious that coronavirus has affected global travel traffic. Countries are closing their borders in a bid to prevent foreigners from entering their lands.

Travel and tourism activities contribute to the world's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by creating jobs and income. In 2019, tourism activities created 330 million jobs and 8.9 trillion US dollars global GDP. However, 2020 has been the crisis year for the tourism industry and still is faces with strong challenges due to Covid-19 pandemic. Approximately 197 million jobs and 5.5 trillion US dollars have been lost in tourism as of 2020 (WTTC, 2020). Global unemployment has risen and labor income has experienced a sharp decline (ILO, 2021). Moreover, global GDP has declined during 2020 and it's expected that it will return its pre-pandemic level at the

end of 2021 (OECD, 2020a). World real GDP growth has been -4.2% in 2020 and all economic indicators underline that humankind has been experiencing a brand-new global economic crisis. What is more is that the main actors of this new crisis have been trade and tourism activities (OECD, 2020a pp.13). International tourist arrivals fell by 72% between January – October 2020 compared to the same period of the previous year (Brouder, 2020). This decline in first ten months of 2020 exhibited 935 billion US\$ in global export revenues. The most critical explanation of this indicator is that this decline corresponds more than 10 times loss experienced in 2009 after the global financial crisis. This expresses the importance of tourism industry in global economy during COVID-19. However, COVID-19 has a specific importance for tourism industry, too. World Tourism Organization indicates that the downturn in international tourist arrivals makes an important point to the emerging situation in tourism industry. Current decline in tourist arrivals indicates that international tourism has returned to its level in 30 years ago and this is quite critical for the future of travel and tourism activities. (UNWTO, 2020a, 1-3).

There are some important researches conducted to analyze the impacts of COVID-19 on tourism industry. Baba et al. (2020) applied a survey in Romania and the results of the survey indicated that tourists' attitudes and purchasing behaviors express differences for pre-pandemic and post-pandemic periods. As another study, Williams (2020) conducted an empirical analysis for 28 European countries and the results expressed that declared (registered) tourism businesses and workers have been better off during pandemic since they were able to get governmental financial supports. This result is remarkable since it underlines the negative impacts of unregistered economy on the European tourism industry during COVID-19. As another important research, UNWTO (2020b) indicates that international tourist arrivals fell significantly in 2020. This study develops three different scenarios for 2021-2024 period and all of them shows that international tourism recovery will be slow. This report also underlines those countries should implement true policy mix in order to restart the tourism industry. Yeh (2021) uses a qualitative research method to analyze the impact of COVID-19 on the tourism industry. In-depth interviews are conducted for getting opinions of the experts in tourism industry for Taiwan. According to the results of the analysis, most of the tourism-related businesses are badly affected from COVID-19 by facing stagnation, implementation of unpaid vacation and the downsizing of their business. Yang et al. (2020) proposed a Dynamic Stochastic General Equilibrium (DSGE) model for examining the impact of the coronavirus outbreak on tourism. In this study, impulse responses after a health disaster risk shocks are presented. The result of the analysis reveals that the risk of the health disasters makes the tourism sector and the economy in a very bad

situation. Santos and Moreira (2021) conducted a case study in which Portugal is selected for the tourist destination. The effect of the pandemic on the travel and tourism sector is analyzed through domestic international tourism arrivals and revenues, accommodation establishments, overnight stays and export of goods and services. The findings present that there is a sharp decrease in all tourism activities. For example, nearly half of the hotels were closed in December 2020.

The findings of some studies and the recent developments indicate that the tourism recovery will be on the forefront of the global actions in post-COVID era and hence new discussions have been emerging. WTTC (2020) underlines those four main trends will be in turn in post-COVID era as follows: health & hygiene, demand evolution, innovation & digitization, and sustainability. Consequently, tourism industry will experience strong transformations in new era. In this sense, the main aims of this study are twofold. The first one is analyzing the new facets of tourism activities during and beyond COVID-19. And the second one is developing a comprehensive discussion of the policy implications for the future of tourism in post-COVID era. In this context, this study is expected to contribute to the related literature by developing a policy discussion with the lens of sustainability in tourism industry.

For Parady et al. (2020), in the context of Japan, to measure the impact of variables that influence behavioral changes in reaction to the COVID-19 pandemic. To accomplish so, we use data from an original panel survey of Kanto inhabitants, namely the Tokyo Metropolis and the prefectures of Chiba, Saitama, and Kanagawa, as well as the prefectures of Ibaraki, Gunma, and Utsunomiya. The frequent decreases in activities like dining out and leisure time remained, as evidenced by the proportions of "no change (from zero)" and "drop" in the bottom figure. Developments in the supply side have also contributed to these changes. In contrast to other businesses, numerous restaurants and recreational venues shuttered or curtailed their business hours in response to the government's non-binding request. In contrast to most shopping centers, which supplied more vital services, many eating-out and recreation enterprises shuttered or limited their business hours in response to the government's non-binding request.

The COVID-19 tourist employment implications have increased the need of tourism education. It has had a significant impact on employment creation opportunities throughout the world. Students in the tourist industry must cope with training interruptions, recruiting, and insecure employment chances because of virtual learning and teaching. Reduced new student enrolment, marketing and government backing, and research funding are all challenges for tourism programs, initiatives, and academic universities. To evaluate organizational distance, tourism academics should investigate novel methodologies and

research possibilities, considering the mental health and privacy concerns of stakeholders affected by COVID-19. Similarly, teaching issues must be investigated, such as the development of students with transferable and practical skills in other business sectors and the creation and implementation of more "sustainable," adaptable, and flexible tourist teaching techniques (Abbas et al., 2021).

For these needs to be addressed, past as well as emerging literature are reviewed in this paper. This is to help researchers and professionals understand and effectively manage the impacts of COVID-19 on tourism. For such feat to be achieved, the paper suggested research areas as well as theoretical lenses that can be used in resetting and advancing industry practices. After a detailed introduction, the first section is devoted to social cost of tourism. Then, second section is attributed to Coronavirus as a crisis of tourism industry and tourism demand and tourism supply are both discussed under the context of the pandemic. Following these sections, sustainable tourism as a contemporary hot topic is discussed. Lastly, conclusion gives a brief synthesis of all these analyses. In this context, the purposes of this article are twofold. First of all, it exhibits a detailed literature analysis shedding light on the developments about a hot topic of the current tourism researches. Secondly, it gives conceptual and theoretical backgrounds for researchers and policy makers. Hence, this article can be remarked as distinctive and exceptional. It provides an alternative perception of the economic downturn's impact on tourism sector while raising awareness on the need to rethink what is already known about tourism management issues regionally. Therefore, it aims to contribute to the related literature by clarifying contemporary tourism issues and facts following by the pandemic. In this sense, policymakers, organizations, and tourism scholars will find this article informative, highly relevant, and rewarding to their needs. Authors and readers of global publications and graduate research can also view this article as a credible source of information for tourism studies across diverse geographic regions.

## **2. Social cost of tourism**

Tourism can impact the economy both directly and indirectly. It can also affect the society at large (Khan et al., 1990). This means that it has some economic and social implications. These tend to vary to a great extent amongst stakeholders according to Mayer (2014). The problem is that most studies carried out have only focused on the economic costs/benefits of tourism as pointed out by Lindberg and Johnson (1997). Its societal costs as well as benefits haven't been paid attention to. Rather, the conceptual level is where it has been discussed (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Liu & Var, 1986). Now, there are studies to find out more about social cost/benefits of tourism. Their areas of focus have been public services as well as traffic congestion with regards to public facilities according to Garau-Vadell et al. (2018). Rozmiarek et al. (2022) and, Freytag and Bauder



(2018) discuss the impacts of touristification and overtourism on urban traffic. Touristification and gentrification risk is being documented by more literature. In this case, environmental cost for tourism is being analyzed (González-Pérez, 2020; Gurran et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2019). Furthermore, researchers who are investigating the impact of tourism from an economic perspective have started analyzing its social costs as well as benefits in specific communities (Torre & Scarborough, 2017; Bella, 2018).

Measuring tourism societal impact is quite possible. These could be in the form of increased real estate cost (Etxezarreta-Etxarri et al., 2020), crime rate (Smith & Krannich, 1998), land and housing availability, cultural and heritage presentation (Barrera-Fernandez et al., 2019), employment within the tourism as well as hospitality industry (Stephenson & Ali-Knight, 2010), pressure on present infrastructure (Gonzalez et al., 2018), and the general well-being of individual residents (Jordan et al., 2019). It should however be noted that getting measurements like these isn't easy. This is due to the indirect as well as chronic nature of societal impacts (Milman & Pizam, 1988; Liu & Var, 1986). Based on communal values, people will have different perceptions about these (Fredline & Faulkner, 2001).

In line with findings from other studies on how crises have affected tourism, this paper suggests that negative events like such can provide a reference point through which social costs can be evaluated. According to Weaver and Lawton (2013), there has been a clear demonstration of how complicated it can be to assess social costs/benefits in such crises. It is possible for crisis to make residents have negative perceptions about tourism. According to Garau-Vadell et al. (2018), residents are more willing to support tourism during an economic crisis. This is due to how it tends to decrease their perception about tourism costs. They will begin to tolerate tourism and activities that are related to it during a period of economic crisis by attaching great value to economic development (Lindberg & Johnson, 1997). There is likely to be some variations between resident groups, engagement levels of residents with tourism (Andereck et al., 2005). On the other hand, crisis can amplify tourism's negative impact. Specifically speaking, there is likely to be increasing safety concerns when infected persons begin to visit a particular tourist destination (Epstein et al., 2007; Bajardi et al., 2011).

Weaver and Lawton (2013) recently carried out an examination of variations in the assessment of cost-benefit. This was in response to events that are contentious. There were suggestions that the perceptions of residents on tourism and its negative impact could be influenced by the media. Other factors that can influence their perceptions are ethnic backgrounds and social circles. These can also make them develop negative attitudes towards such crises. According to Rittichainuwat

and Chakraborty (2009), it is important for the negative impact of tourism to be measured especially during a period of crisis. This will help in minimizing damage caused due to negative perceptions.

### 3. Coronavirus is a crisis of tourism industry

COVID-19 is a crisis that has affected lives in various ways. Furthermore, it has brought about a global crisis. This has succeeded in affecting the tourism industry. It simply means businesses, places and people have been affected in various countries. This is mostly obvious in locations where tourism activities used to be very active. Tourism doesn't just generate foreign exchange. It is also a major source of development for countries. It has also supported different forms of job opportunities as well as businesses. In a nutshell, there are lots of economic activities connected to tourism. These have all felt the devastating impact of COVID-19. About 4.4% of GDP is contributed by tourism. In OECD countries, service exports are around 21.5% as pointed out by OECD (2020a). For some OECD nations, the shares tend to be higher. For instance, the GDP contributed by Spain is around 11.8%. Travel makes up around 52.3% of aggregate service exports. 8.7% and 78.3% are the figures in Mexico. In Iceland, they are 8.6% and 47.7%. 8.0% and 51.1% are those recorded in Portugal while France figures are 7.4% and 22.2% according to OECD (2020b). The tourism sector is labor extensive. Its average contribution towards employment is 6.9% in OECD nations. It is one of the major sources of employment and job creation. For instance, it has managed to help low-skilled workers gain employment. The same can also be said of workers who are highly skilled. It is a sector which has managed to employ different categories of workers – temporary, part-time, and seasonal workers. While COVID-19 and its effects continue to be felt, it is expected that most of these jobs will be adversely affected. Normally, tourism sector can ensure that diverse employment opportunities are provided. These could be for older workers, women, migrants, students, and others. Furthermore, these are in different locations like remote areas, cities, and towns. For instance, it was discovered that tourism contributes about 15.7% of the employment in Thailand. In countries like Spain, Ireland, Greece, and Portugal, its contribution rates are 13.5%, 10.3%, 10.0%, and 9.8% respectively. In the present crisis that the world is currently facing, tourism has been one of the worse-hit sectors. The aviation industry hasn't been active since March 2020 according to IATA (2020). Tourist attraction centers have been closed. Also, there have been postponement and cancellation of festivals and events around the world. In many countries, public gatherings have been greatly restricted. Based on all these, it is fair enough to conclude that COVID-19 has really impacted tourism in the most negative way. Although the sector seems to have survived other crises in the past by showing great resilience, the impact it has experienced due to COVID-19 may not go away early enough. In other

words, it may likely not recover quickly. The situation's critical nature led to the meeting of Tourism Ministers (G20 Tourism Ministers Statement, 2020) in the month of April. It was a move aimed at welcoming national efforts that would help to improve the situation of tourism. The ministers had a goal to ensure that the pandemic had minimal impact on tourism sector. Table 1 includes percentage changes in aviation industry passenger revenues with the introduction of the pandemic. The first line of the table is devoted to January 2020 figures to be able to compare the direct effect of COVID-19.

**Table 1: Change in Passenger Revenues in Aviation Industry (by Region and Approximate Values)**

	Africa	Asia/Pacific	Europe	Middle East	North America	World Total
January 2020	6%	3%	1%	5%	3%	2%
March 2020	-50%	-70%	-58%	-65%	-40%	-55%

Source: Check Point Certified Security Administrator (CCSA), 2020, pp. 18.

Values prove the huge impact of the pandemic on one of the fundamental industries of tourism. Although volumes are differentiated as to macro regions, huge plummets are relevant for all of them. It seems from the figures that the mostly affected macro region is Asia/Pacific in which travel and tourism activities are fundamental the regional economy. Table 2 summarizes the change in international tourist arrivals in 2020 and 2021.

**Table 2: International Tourist Arrivals (Change by Region, %)**

	Africa	Americas	Asia/Pacific	Europe	Middle East
2020	-69%	-68%	-84%	-69%	-74%
2021	-74%	-62%	-94%	-63%	-79%

Source: (UNWTO, 2022a).

The figures in Table 2 indicate that sharp declines in international tourist arrivals continued in 2021, too. Even some regions have experienced worse rates in 2021 –such as Africa and Asia/Pacific. This exhibits that the impacts of pandemic are still in charge. 15 million more international tourist arrivals have been experienced globally in 2021 compared to 2020 but it would be wrong to count this rate as a recovery (UNWTO, 2022a, 7). UNWTO (2022c) reports that 4% increase has been experienced in global international tourist arrivals in 2021 but the volume is still far below the pre-pandemic levels. Recovery seems slow and uneven. However, it's also observed that economic contribution of tourism in 2021 (measured in tourism direct GDP) is approximately US\$1.9 trillion. This rate is higher than the rate of US\$1.6 trillion in 2020. However, it's still below the pre-pandemic level of US\$3.5 trillion.

UNWTO (2022b) has two different scenarios about the international tourist arrivals during 2022. The first scenario expects approximately 30% increase in international tourist arrivals at the end of 2022 compared to the end of 2021 but it will be still 50% behind the pre-

pandemic level of 2019. Moreover, the second scenario expects a slower recovery with approximately 15% increase by the end of 2022 (compared to the end of 2021). It corresponds to the 63% less than 2019 volume. In both cases, recovery seems slow.

#### 4. Tourism demand

Over the years, tourists have had lots of experiences during their trips to other locations around the world. These could be facing health risks and experiencing major disruptions. Of course, their experiences can greatly influence their attitudes towards traveling. In other words, there is a direct and positive relationship between both. The same can also be said of their future behavior and intentions. Psychiatric studies carried out to find out how traumatic experiences in the life of people have affected their behavior (Baxter & Diehl, 1998). They have been able to provide a platform for which to understand how and why tourists are responding to the COVID-19 trauma.

Yet, COVID-19 pandemic has transforming tourists' attitudes and behaviors. Recent developments show that domestic vacations and outdoor activities have become more popular. Recent trends express that traveler prefer rural areas and their average length of stay increased. They prefer to make their vacations close to their homes and long-haul travel is still perceived as dangerous. Moreover, younger tourists seem to have the greatest flexibility to travel around since they have low fear of COVID-related serious illness. However, it is evident that even young tourists began to prefer nature and outdoor activities to avoid crowds. In this sense, lesser-known destinations have become more popular (WTTC, 2020, pp. 9-10). These are the basic results of a global survey. However, there are some other researches underlining transformations in tourism demand. Polyzos et al. (2020) conducted an analysis on arrivals of Chinese tourists to the USA and Australia. They investigated that tourism demand changed significantly and recovery will take some time between 6 to 12 months. As another study, Gallego and Font (2020) used a big data of Skyscanner on air passenger searches. They investigated that desire to long-haul travel decreased significantly in all around the world. As time passes during 2020, optimism about travelling turned to pessimism. These results are remarkable since they show changing travelling behavior from long-haul to short haul. Another important study about tourism demand is the study of Nazneen et al. (2020). They investigated tourists' travelling behaviors and they underlined that pandemic affected travel decisions by decreasing long-haul travelling rates and it changed tourists' perceptions about hygiene and safety. As another recent study, Sanchez-Perez et al. (2021) conducted a survey with a large sample size in Spain and they investigated that pandemic changed tourists' preferences. They underline that conventional tourism will be less popular in tourism array and more local holidays, less use of vendors, more insurance contracting

and lower use of public transport will be in turn. All the studies and reports indicate that pandemic changed tourists' demand behaviors. What is more important is that this transformation seems permanent after pandemic and hence emerging trends will push the industry to change the tourism supply.

#### 4. Tourism supply

Tourism supply seems to be heterogeneous. Its transformations have been caused by the pandemic. Also, the impacts tend to vary according to market segments. Business trips like sales, events, meetings, exhibitions, and conferences are expected to be reduced. To respond swiftly to the restrictions due to COVID-19, businesses have had to come up with other ways to ensure costs are minimized. The idea of remote working has been embraced by most businesses via team working, conferences, virtual meeting, and others. Also, companies have had to review their travel plans to remove non-essential traveling activities.

There is every reason to believe that business traveling will not remain as it once was in the past years. However, leisure travel will experience a major boom after restrictions have been lifted for COVID-19. This is expected to take place within regions. It will be in another way though as compared to what we were used to. Given that COVID-19 is still in our midst, there are lots of factors that will likely influence the location people will decide to travel to. These could be active social distancing measures, social/public gathering restrictions, and mobility tracing. This will influence the travel experiences of most tourists.

Companies in the tourism sector are fighting to survive now. They are struggling to ensure employees and customers are safe. There is also the need for brand image to be protected. Cash liquidity is also another issue. Companies in the sector are also trying to ensure that safety procedures are followed to prevent any spread of coronavirus. For instance, cleaning procedures have been upgraded through the adoption of new standards. There has also been restraining of staff. Majority of companies tend to promote hygiene certifications accredited by reputable associations. In a bid to stop the spread of coronavirus, companies are training their staff. This is to enable them to develop the ability to identify cases related to the virus. Airports, hotels, restaurants, and others are trying to have their workplaces re-engineered. This is to ensure they are contact-free (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). Mobile applications are developed for check-out, check-in, mobile payments, room keys, making bookings/purchases, and many more. There are in-room technologies for e-shopping and entertainment. Websites now have chatting features for easy communication with customers. It is typically an industry where artificial intelligence is expected to be dominant for years to come.

Also, new business environments have been created via the emergence of COVID-19. Companies are now beginning to think of how to carry out their activities differently without the need to come in physical contact with customers. For instance, new technologies have been adopted. Also, applications have been developed to help manage crowds effectively. This could be in places like shopping malls, hotels, restaurants, museums, and airports. There is health equipment on ground like hand sanitizer and face masks to help in reducing how the virus spreads (Gössling et al., 2020).

Through studies, it will be very possible to find out how tourism operators are strategizing to bounce back from this setback. They can also help to make recommendations on how such strategies will be implemented. Studies like these may prove to be very useful. However, they may not offer much when it comes to how the tourism industry can recover back to its normal state. Research on COVID-19 is meant to enable the industry to reimagine as well as implement an enabling environment where business activities can thrive. These strategies should consider well-being values, and sustainability. Also, they should be human-centered.

#### 5. Sustainable tourism

This is the right time when sustainable as well as equitable tourism can be promoted (Gonia & Jeziarska-Thöle, 2022; Grube, 2022; Benjamin et al., 2020;). According to Carr (2020), genuine cultural sites usually denote conventional ecological information, environmental responsibility, physical condition, and happiness. These sites have a very crucial role to play in cultural sustainability and its future. For the economy to develop, they have to be properly managed. There is need for reorganization of the tourism industry in the post COVID-19 era. This shouldn't be based on paperwork but actual planning. Awareness is supposed to be created on racial healing, social justice, environmental justice, and education. Measures like these will benefit all the stakeholders of the tourism industry (Stankov et al., 2020). These could be government, SMEs, local communities, and tourists. According to (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020), weak and harmful tourism should be encouraged by the market players. This is very important to ensure a tourism industry that is sustainable is setup. There is a huge difference between the campaigns of World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and what is being exercised in terms of growth expansion. It is important that these are aligned for long term growth and progress to be achieved. These are very important for the industry's future (Brouder, 2020; Nepal, 2020). Sustainability can be recreated in the tourism industry due to the ongoing deglobalization process. This will be done by overcoming the setbacks that have been experienced in previous years like congestion, economic abuse, and environmental deprivation (Niewiadomski, 2020). The process of sustainability is continuous for positive outcomes to be attained. It is explained by changing of

beliefs, skills, information, wishes, and beliefs (Galvani et al., 2020). For sustainable tourism to become a reality, experience and knowledge will have to play a very crucial role (Chang et al., 2020; Prideaux et al., 2020). Cruise tourism industry needs to consider the possibility of approving a local model as explained by Renaud (2020). This implies that activities of large cruise ships should be discouraged. However, smaller ships need to be given more opportunities. Self-sacrifice, social unity, and compassionate attitude are very crucial just like the practice of wearing facemasks which people are using to protect themselves. The post-COVID-19 era is going to give people the opportunity to come up with new ideas and thoughts that will help revamp the tourism industry. For instance, many activities will be adjusted to favor local communities. This may sound much better to people who love the idea of short distance travels. For the sector to be transformed, it is important to have a much better understanding of challenges remote communities are facing (Tremblay-Huet, 2020). There are studies which claim that periods like these can help to reset the industry (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). Domestic tourism has been the most preferred option for developed countries.

## **6. Conclusion**

COVID-19 is altering tourism researchers' study agendas (Sharma et al., 2021). The epidemic has raised awareness of the importance of travel experiences and consumption for individuals (Saarinen & Wall-Reinius, 2021). Furthermore, the pandemic is still having a large influence on the tourist industry and is expected to have a significant impact on future landscapes (Gössling et al., 2020). There is already significant international evidence of global shifts in both consumer demand and the patterns of domestic tourism.

Wen et al. (2020) contend that COVID-19 may be predicted to have in depth effects on domestic visitors' consumption behavior, while acknowledging cultural variations. Regardless of the possibility of vaccinations, the residual effects of the pandemic on the human psyche will guarantee that a restoration to pre-COVID-19 normalcy should not be assumed (Zenker & Kock, 2020). According to Sigala (2020) tourism demand is very heterogeneous, hence the repercussions and alterations generated by the COVID-19 vary across different tourism markets. Butler (2020) emphasizes the significance of distinguishing between business and leisure tourism when examining the potential short-term consequences of COVID-19. If COVID-19 is not eliminated, the measures of some important facts such as social distance, avoidance of mass gatherings will impact tourism experiences of tourists (Jeon & Yang, 2021). However, business tourism is the category most likely to revert to the previous standards (Rwigema, 2020).

This study emphasized the overall effects of the COVID-19 epidemic on several sectors of the tourist business. Throughout the many COVID-19 waves, there were

disparities in the amounts of influence on local tourism locations. The pandemic's impact on local destinations has generally resulted in a wide range of negative effects, including significant losses in tourism revenues, decreases in tourist arrivals, inadequacy of destination exploitation capacity, the closure of tourism-related services, and increase in the unemployment rate. In terms of influence, the pandemic has affected all tourism firms, ranging from serious to extremely serious.

As Arlı and Bayırhan (2021) stated in their paper, the epidemic began to alter corporate practices, personal priorities, and behaviors. In nations with several sub-areas for maritime tourism, such as Turkey, the yachting industry sector has seen a considerable drop in recent years. They discovered that if COVID-19 remains in effect, entrepreneur boat operators will be able to retire from entrepreneurship, sell their boats, and transition to another line of business. On the other side, Atsız (2021) discusses an alternate technology instrument for moving while considering physical distance in such a crisis. Given that visitors would not travel to every destination or choose places with less human connection, tourism firms might alter their products and services with VR technology. Continuous, dependable, and touchless travel and instructional tools will be applied to VR technology in the hospitality and tourist industries, and this technology is considered as the primary tool for travelers and service providers in terms of tourism revival. Furthermore, this minimal human involvement technology allows them to boost their experience quality, service offers, and human capabilities. So, the tourist and hospitality industries should employ this technology to build awareness, advertise, solidify their brands, and acquire the confidence of potential clients through targeted marketing. In addition to the above studies, Hoque et al. (2020) investigate the influence of the corona virus outbreak on the Chinese tourist business. The findings of the study reveal that the presence of Coronavirus in China has far-reaching consequences throughout the world. Because of the viral threat, outsiders are afraid to visit China. What is more is that Chinese tourists are barred from visiting other countries. The rapid spread of the Corona virus in China has disrupted people's everyday lives. This anxiety has had an influence on the country's tourist economy both locally and abroad. This has had a significant impact on the country's economy. The intensification of the Coronavirus is expected to have a long-term impact on China's tourism economy.

Importantly, the volume of future domestic tourist demand will be intimately tied to the success of the national economy. Under situations of poor or no economic development, which are compounded by COVID-19 economywide repercussions, the possibility for expanding demand for any tourism products may be restricted. With this essential proviso in mind, the findings of this study inquiry lay the groundwork for the

Ministry of Tourism to shape the tourism sector's supply and demand to fulfill the needs and changing wants of the world's domestic visitors in the COVID-19 environment.

Therefore, the COVID-19 pandemic brought some new ideas into tourism sector as well. According to Gössling et al. (2020), global tourism system may be oriented towards the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) more and more. Acting compatible with the SDGs will also induce the tourism and travel sector. Within the decreasing number of flights, and the increasing videoconferences or online meeting, the need for transportation may reduce. However, the income effect of this shrinking tourism activities may be eliminated with an effective government subsidy or supports directly to the tourism and travel sector. In this respect, travel and tourism companies may also propose new or updated products concerning the customers' expectations and needs. Within this new era with living with the fear of coronavirus, the safety and the health of the customers and the workers should be carefully considered with the adoption of the effective precautions (Orîndaru et al., 2021).

## References

- Abbas, J., Mubeen, R., Iorember, P. T., Raza, S., & Mamirkulova, G. (2021). Exploring the impact of COVID-19 on tourism: transformational potential and implications for a sustainable recovery of the travel and leisure industry. *Current Research in Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 100033. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crbeha.2021.100033>
- Al-Tawfiq, J. A., Zumla, A., & Memish, Z. A. (2014). Travel implications of emerging coronaviruses: SARS and MERS-CoV. *Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease*, 12(5), 422–428. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmaid.2014.06.007>
- Andereck, K. L., Valentine, K. M., Knopf, R. C., & Vogt, C. A. (2005). Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 1056–1076. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2005.03.001>
- Arlı, E., & Bayırhan, İ. (2021). The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic process on yacht operators: Application on a marina in Antalya. *Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism*, 6(2), 81–88. <https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.2021-6-2-81>
- Atsız, O. (2021). Virtual reality technology and physical distancing: A review on limiting human interaction in tourism. *Journal of multidisciplinary academic tourism*, 6(1), 27–35. <https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.834448>
- Baba, C. A., Stancioiu, A. F., Gabor, M. R., Alexe, F. A., Oltean, F. D., & Dinu, A. C. (2020). Considerations Regarding the Effects of Covid-19 on the Tourism Market. *Theoretical and Applied Economics*, 3(624), 271 – 284. <http://store.ectap.ro/articole/1489.pdf>
- Backer, J. A., Klinkenberg, D., & Wallinga, J. (2020). Incubation period of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) infections among travellers from Wuhan, China, 20–28 January 2020. *Euro Surveill*, 25(5): 2000062. <https://www.eurosurveillance.org/content/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.5.2000062;jsessionid>
- Bajardi, P., Poletto, C., Ramasco, J. J., Tizzoni, M., Colizza, V., & Vespignani, A. (2011). Human mobility networks, travel restrictions, and the global spread of 2009 H1N1 pandemic. *PLoS One*, 6(1). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0016591>
- Barrera-Fernandez, D., Bujalance, S. G., & Scalici, M. (2019). Touristification in historic cities: Reflections on Malaga. *Revista de Turismo Contemporaneo*, 7(1), 93 – 115. <https://doi.org/10.21680/2357-8211.2019v7n1ID16169>
- Baxter, E. A., & Diehl, S. (1998). Emotional stages: Consumers and family members recovering from the trauma of mental illness. *Psychiatric Rehabilitation Journal*, 21(4), 349. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0095289>
- Bella, G. (2018). Estimating the tourism induced environmental Kuznets curve in France. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(12), 2043–2052. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2018.1529768>
- Benjamin, S., Dillette, A., & Alderman, D. H. (2020). “We can’t return to normal”: Committing to tourism equity in the post-pandemic age. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1759130>
- Brouder, P. (2020). Reset redux: Possible evolutionary pathways towards the transformation of tourism in a COVID-19 world. *Tourism Geographies*. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1760928
- Butler, G. (2020). Changing leisure mobilities in COVID-19 Australia: Framing the value of self-drive tourism in a time of crisis. Unpublished paper, Flinders University, Adelaide, Australia.
- Carr, A. (2020). COVID-19, indigenous peoples and tourism: A view from New Zealand. *Tourism Geographies*, 0(0):1–12. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1768433
- CCSA. (2020). How COVID-19 is changing the world: a statistical perspective. <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/ccsa/documents/covid19-report-ccsa.pdf>
- Chang, C. L., McAleer, M., & Ramos, V. (2020). A charter for sustainable tourism after COVID-19. *Sustainability (Switzerland)* 12(9). Doi: 10.3390/su12093671.
- Epstein, J. M., Goedecke, D. M., Yu, F., Morris, R. J., Wagener, D. K., & Bobashev, G. V. (2007). Controlling pandemic flu: The value of international air travel restrictions. *PLoS One*, 2(5). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0000401>
- Etxezarreta-Etxarri, A., Izagirre-Olaizola, J., Morandeira-Arca, J., & Carollo, I. M. (2020). Urban touristification in Spanish cities: consequences for the rentalhousing sector in San Sebastian. *Economic Research-Ekonomiska Istraživanja*, 33(1), 1294–1310. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2020.1755878>
- Fredline, E., & Faulkner, B. (2001). Variations in residents' reactions to major motorsport events: Why residents perceive the impacts of events differently. *Event Management*, 7(2), 115–125. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599501108751524>

- Freytag, T., & Bauder, M. (2018). Bottom-Up touristification and urban transformations in Paris. *Tourism Geographies*, 20(3), 443 – 460. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2018.1454504>
- G20 Tourism Ministers Statement. (2020). Ministerial Statement Virtual Meeting – April 24, 2020. Retrieved from <http://www.g20.utoronto.ca/2020/2020-g20-tourism-0424.html>
- Gallego, I., & Font, X. (2020). Changes in air passenger demand as a result of the COVID-19 crisis: using big data to inform tourism policy. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. 29 (9). <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1773476>
- Galvani, A., Lew, A. A., & Perez, M. S. (2020). COVID-19 is expanding global consciousness and the sustainability of travel and tourism. *Tourism Geographies*. 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1760924>
- Garau-Vadell, J. B., Gutierrez-Taño, D., & Diaz-Armas, R. (2018). Economic crisis and residents' perception of the impacts of tourism in mass tourism destinations. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*. 7, 68–75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2016.08.008>
- Gonia, A., & Jezierska-Thôle, A. (2022). Sustainable tourism in cities-nature reserves as a 'new' city space for nature-based tourism. *Sustainability*. 14(1581). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14031581>
- Gonzalez, V. M., Coromina, L., & Galí, N. (2018). Overtourism: residents' perceptions of tourism impact as an indicator of resident social carrying capacity. Case study of a Spanish heritage town. *Tourism Review*. 73(3), 277–296. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-08-2017-0138>
- González-Pérez, J. M. (2020). The dispute over tourist cities. Tourism gentrification in the historic Centre of Palma (Majorca, Spain). *Tourism Geographies*. 22(1), 171–191. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2019.1586986>
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism and global change: A rapid assessment of COVID-19. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. 29(1), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1758708>
- Grube, N. (2022). Seeking pathways for sustainable urban tourism: a critical deconstruction of Berlin's approach for city-compatible tourism. *European Planning Studies*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09654313.2022.2094199>
- Gurran, N., Zhang, Y., & Shrestha, P. (2020). 'Pop-up' tourism or 'invasion'? Airbnb in coastal Australia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 81. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2019.102845.
- Haralambopoulos, N., & Pizam, A. (1996). Perceived impacts of tourism: The case of Samos. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 23(3), 503–526. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(95\)00075-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(95)00075-5)
- Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2020). Socialising tourism for social and ecological justice after COVID-19. *Tourism Geographies*. 22:3, 610-623. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1757748
- Hollingsworth, T. D., Ferguson, N. M., & Anderson, R. M. (2006). Will travel restrictions control the international spread of pandemic influenza? *Nature Medicine*. 12(5), 497–499. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nm0506-497>
- Hoque, A., Shikha, F. A., Hasanat, M. W., Arif, I., & Hamid, A. B. A. (2020). The effect of Coronavirus (COVID-19) in the tourism industry in China. *Asian Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*, 3(1), 52-58. <https://asianjournal.org/online/index.php/ajms/article/view/213>
- IATA. (2020). Air Cargo Essential to Fight Against COVID-19. 16 March 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.iata.org/en/pressroom/pr/2020-03-16-01/>
- ILO. (2021). ILO Monitor: COVID-19 and the world of work. Seventh edition Updated estimates and analysis. 25 January 2021. Retrieved from [https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/documents/briefingnote/wcms\\_767028.pdf](https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/documents/briefingnote/wcms_767028.pdf)
- Jeon, C. Y., & Yang, H. W. (2021). The structural changes of a local tourism network: Comparison of before and after Covid-19. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-15. doi: 10.1080/13683500.2021.1874890
- Jordan, E. J., Moran, C., & Godwyll, J. M. (2019). Does tourism really cause stress? A natural experiment utilizing ArcGIS survey123. *Current Issues in Tourism*. Doi: 10.1080/13683500.2019.1702001.
- Khan, H., Seng, C. F., & Cheong, W. K. (1990). Tourism multiplier impacts on Singapore. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 17(3), 408–418. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(90\)90006-D](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(90)90006-D)
- Lindberg, K., & Johnson, R. L. (1997). The economic values of tourism's social impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 24(1), 90–116. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(96\)00033-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(96)00033-3)
- Liu, J. C., & Var, T. (1986). Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts in Hawaii. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 13(2), 193–214. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(86\)90037-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(86)90037-X)
- Mackey, T. K., & Liang, B. A. (2012). Lessons from SARS and H1N1/A: Employing a WHO–WTO forum to promote optimal economic-public health pandemic response. *Journal of Public Health Policy*. 33(1), 119–130. <https://doi.org/10.1057/jphp.2011.51>
- Mayer, M. (2014). Can nature-based tourism benefits compensate for the costs of national parks? A study of the Bavarian Forest National Park, Germany. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. 22(4), 561–583. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2013.871020>
- McKibbin, W. J., & Fernando, R. (2020). The global macroeconomic impacts of COVID-19: Seven scenarios. *CAMA Working Paper No. 19/2020*. Retrieved from: [https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\\_id=3547729](https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3547729)
- Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1988). Social impacts of tourism on central Florida. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 15(2), 191–204. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(88\)90082-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(88)90082-5)
- Nazneen, S., Hong, X., & Did, N. U. (2020). COVID-19 Crises and Tourist Travel Risk Perceptions. Available at

- SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3592321> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3592321>
- Nepal, S. K. (2020). Travel and tourism after COVID-19 – Business as usual or opportunity to reset? *Tourism Geographies*, 1–5. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1760926
- Niewiadomski, P. (2020). COVID-19: From temporary de-globalisation to a re-discovery of tourism? *Tourism Geographies*. doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1757749
- OECD. (2020a). OECD Economic Outlook. No 108. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org>.
- OECD. (2020b). OECD Tourism Trends and Policies 2020, OECD Publishing, Paris <https://doi.org/10.1787/6b47b985-en>.
- Orindaru, A., Popescu, M. F., Alexoaei, A. P., Căescu, Ş. C., Florescu, M. S., & Orzan, A. O. (2021). Tourism in a Post-COVID-19 Era: Sustainable Strategies for Industry's Recovery. *Sustainability*, 13(12), pp.6781. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13126781>
- Parady, G., Taniguchi, A., & Takami, K. (2020). Travel behavior changes during the COVID-19 pandemic in Japan: Analyzing the effects of risk perception and social influence on going-out self-restriction. *Transportation Research Interdisciplinary Perspectives*, 7(100181), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trip.2020.100181>
- Polyzos, S., Samitas, A., & Spyridou, A. E. (2020). Tourism demand and the COVID-19 pandemic: An LSTM approach. *Tourism Recreation Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2020.1777053>
- Prideaux, B., Thompson, M., & Pabel, A. (2020). Lessons from COVID-19 can prepare global tourism for the economic transformation needed to combat climate change. *Tourism Geographies*, 1–12. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1762117.
- Renaud, L. (2020). Reconsidering global mobility–distancing from mass cruise tourism in the aftermath of COVID-19. *Tourism Geographies*. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1762116.
- Rittichainuwat, B. N., & Chakraborty, G. (2009). Perceived travel risks regarding terrorism and disease: The case of Thailand. *Tourism Management*, 30(3),410–418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.08.001>
- Rozmiarek, M., Malchrowicz-Moško, E., & Kazimierczak, M. (2022). Overtourism and the impact of tourist traffic on the daily life of city residents: a case study of Poznan. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2022.2029463>
- Rwigema, P. C. (2020). Impact of Covid-19 pandemic to Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions tourism in Rwanda. *The Strategic Journal of Business & Change Management*, 7 (3), 395409
- Saarinen, J., & Wall-Reinius, S. (Eds.). (2021). *Tourism Enclaves: Geographies of Exclusive Spaces in Tourism*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Sanchez-Perez, M., Teran-Yepe, E., Marin-Carrillo, M. B., Marin-Carrillo, G. M., & Illescas-Manzano, M. D. (2021). The Impact of the COVID-19 Health Crisis on Tourist Evaluation and Behavioural Intentions in Spain: Implications for Market Segmentation Analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(7). <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2021.1889481>.
- Santos, N., & Moreira, C. O. (2021). Uncertainty and expectations in Portugal's tourism activities. Impacts of COVID-19. *Research in Globalization*, 3, 100071. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resglo.2021.100071>
- Sharma, G. D., Thomas, A., & Paul, J. (2021). Reviving tourism industry post-COVID-19: A resilience-based framework. *Tourism management perspectives*, 37, 100786. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100786>
- Sigala, M. (2020). Going Back to Places but No Going Back: Why the Opening of Regional Tourism Can Give us a Pre-taste of the Next Normal for Tourism. Adelaide: University of South Australia.
- Smith, M. K., Sziva, I. P., & Olt, G. (2019). Over tourism and resident resistance in Budapest. *Tourism Planning and Development*. 16(4), pp.376–392.
- Smith, M. D., & Krannich, R. S. (1998). Tourism dependence and resident attitudes. *Annals of Tourism Research*. 25(4), 783–802. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(98\)00040-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(98)00040-1)
- Stankov, U., Filimonau, V., & Vujičić, M. D. (2020). A mindful shift: An opportunity for mindfulness-driven tourism in a post-pandemic world. *Tourism Geographies*, 1–10. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1768432.
- Stephenson, M. L., & Ali-Knight, J. (2010). Dubai's tourism industry and its societal impact: Social implications and sustainable challenges. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 8(4), 278–292. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2010.521248>
- Torre, A., & Scarborough, H. (2017). Reconsidering the estimation of the economic impact of cultural tourism. *Tourism Management*, 59:621–629. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.09.018>
- Tremblay-Huet, S. (2020). COVID-19 leads to a new context for the “right to tourism: A reset of tourists’ perspectives on space appropriation is needed. *Tourism Geographies*. Doi: 10.1080/14616688.2020.1759136.
- UNWTO. (2020a). World Tourism Barometer. 18(6), 1-36. <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/wtobarometereng.2020.18.1.7> (24.12.2020).
- UNWTO. (2020b). How Are Countries Supporting Tourism Recovery? [https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-06/BFN\\_V4.pdf](https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-06/BFN_V4.pdf).
- UNWTO. (2022a). <https://www.unwto.org/international-tourism-and-covid-19>.
- UNWTO. (2022b). UNWTO World Tourism Barometer – January 2022. [https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2022-01/220118-Barometersmall.pdf?\\_PBIQdr4u\\_qM0w56.l0NpfGPzylGu6Md](https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2022-01/220118-Barometersmall.pdf?_PBIQdr4u_qM0w56.l0NpfGPzylGu6Md).

- UNWTO. (2022c). <https://www.unwto.org/news/tourism-grows-4-in-2021-but-remains-far-below-pre-pandemic-levels>.
- Weaver, D. B., & Lawton, L. J. (2013). Resident perceptions of a contentious tourism event. *Tourism Management*, 37, 165–175. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.01.017>
- Wen, J., Kozak, M., Yang, S., & Liu, F. (2020). COVID-19: Potential effects on Chinese citizens' lifestyle and travel. *Tourism Review*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-03-2020-0110>
- WHO. (2020a). Statement on the second meeting of the International Health Regulations (2005) Emergency Committee regarding the outbreak of novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV). Retrieved from: [https://www.who.int/news-room/detail/30-01-2020-statement-on-the-second-meeting-of-the-international-health-regulations-\(2005\)-emergency-committee-regarding-the-outbreak-of-novel-coronavirus-\(2019-ncov\)](https://www.who.int/news-room/detail/30-01-2020-statement-on-the-second-meeting-of-the-international-health-regulations-(2005)-emergency-committee-regarding-the-outbreak-of-novel-coronavirus-(2019-ncov)).
- WHO. (2020b). WHO Director-General's opening remarks at the media briefing on COVID-19 - 11 March 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.who.int/director-general/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-media-briefing-on-covid-19---11-march-2020>.
- Williams, C. C. (2020). Impacts of the Coronavirus Pandemic on Europe's Tourism Industry: Addressing Tourism Enterprises and Workers in the Undeclared Economy. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Doi: 10.1002/jtr.2395
- WTTC. (2020). To Recovery and Beyond: The Future of Travel and Tourism in the Wake of COVID-19. Oliver Wyman. <https://wttc.org>. (24.01.2020).
- Yang, Y., Zhang, H., & Chen, X. (2020). Coronavirus pandemic and tourism: Dynamic stochastic general equilibrium modeling of infectious disease outbreak. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 83, 102913. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2020.102913
- Yeh, S. (2021). Tourism recovery strategy against COVID-19 pandemic. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 46:2, 188-194, DOI: 10.1080/02508281.2020.1805933
- Zenker, S., & Kock, F. (2020). The coronavirus pandemic – A critical discussion of a tourism research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 81, 104164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104164>



**INFO PAGE**

How covid-19 has affected supply and demand within tourism industry?

**Abstract**

There is no doubt that coronavirus has succeeded in crippling businesses and people worldwide. It has led to unprecedented economic crisis in countries around the world. The tourism sector isn't an exception to its devastating impacts. The virus has succeeded in affecting not just the economy. In addition to such, job opportunities, and regional developments in local communities have been greatly affected. Tourism throughout the world has been stagnant since the month of April 2020 due to the advent of COVID-19. Given this temporary problem, economies and employment rates have been affected to a great extent. Also, local communities around the world are struggling to survive. In most countries, 50% the revenue generated from exports is contributed by tourism. This means it is a major contributor of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) as well as employment. The major aim of this paper is to carry out an objective review that can enable researchers and experts understand as well as manage the impacts of COVID-19 on tourism. For this to be achieved, this paper discussed the transformational opportunities presented by COVID-19 including questions that it raises. The paper attempts to identify pre-assumptions, institutions, and fundamental values which the tourism industry including other academia need to challenge for development to be achieved. Furthermore, the paper discusses the major impacts, experiences and behaviors being experienced by the 3 stakeholders in the tourism industry – social cost, supply, and demand. Just as measures have been adopted by countries to ameliorate the situation, recommendations have been put forward to ensure speedy recovery of the sector.

**Keywords:** Crisis, Resilience, Recovery, Socioeconomic impacts, Covid-19

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Gül Şerife Huyugüzel</b> <i>Conceptualism, Methodology, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review &amp; Editing</i> <i>Kişla:</i>		34%
<b>Burcu Türkcan:</b> <i>Conceptualism, Resources, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review &amp; Editing</i>		33%
<b>Meltem Ince Yenilmez:</b> <i>Conceptualism, Methodology, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review &amp; Editing</i>		33%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**This paper does not required ethics committee report**

**Justification: The methodology of this study does not require an ethics committee report.**

# The mediation effect of destination image on the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection: The case of Hatay\*\*

Damla Duman\*, Çağrı Saçlı

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Local cuisine,  
Destination image,  
Destination selection,  
Hatay.

This study aims to empirically test a model linking destination image, destination selection, and local cuisine elements. The study also analyzes the mediating effect of destination image on the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection. The research data were collected from domestic tourists using a survey from the UNESCO Gastronomy City of Hatay of Türkiye. All four hypotheses suggested within the scope of the study were supported. Local cuisine elements and destination image significantly influence destination selection; herein, local cuisine elements affect destination selection more. Similarly, local cuisine elements significantly influence destination image. This study also reveals that destination image partially mediates the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection. The study results are expected to help the researchers and managers understand the roles of local cuisine elements and destination image in destination selection in the tourism industry. The study is the first to explore the mediating relationship in link between local cuisine and destination selection in the tourism industry.

### Article History:

Submitted: 21.03.2022

Revised: 17.10.2022

Accepted: 13.11.2022

Published Online: 23.11.2022

## 1. Introduction

Meals consumed to address physiological needs are also helpful in meeting needs such as enjoyment, entertainment, and socialization; therefore, they play a significant part in destination selection (Henderson, 2009). The presentation of culinary traditions to tourists, along with local products, contributes to shaping the destination image in the minds (Halkier, 2012, pp.1). Favorable perceptions of regional cuisines are suggested to affect the destination image and selection in this context positively. On the other hand, tourists formulate an image in their minds through the information they obtain from various sources for destinations they have never traveled to. In line with these images, they choose among alternative destinations. Therefore, the destination image is a key component in the destination selection process (Khongrat, 2021, pp. 4). The literature on research variables infers that many studies examine the binary combinations of the concepts of local cuisine, destination image, and destination selection (Chi & Qu, 2008; Alderighi *et al.*, 2016; Fernández, Mogollón, & Duarte, 2017; Benli & Yenipinar, 2018; Choe & Kim, 2018; Çakır, 2020). However, there is no study identified to investigate the three variables together.

Based on the studies mentioned above, this study aims to look into the effect of the destination image on the


destination selection of local cuisine items. The research is anticipated to be significant in terms of filling a gap in the literature. Furthermore, it is expected that those interested in promoting Hatay as a tourist destination contribute to developing their marketing plans.


## 2. Literature Review

### Local Cuisine Elements

The act of nutrition as a vital necessity since the existence of humanity has led to the creation of various rules on eating and drinking over time. With the emergence of social life, these rules have been shaped around the lifestyles, customs, and traditions of the societies and provided the formation of culinary culture (Cigirim, 2001; Halıcı, 1999, pp.9). Murcott (1983), one of the pioneers of researchers examining the relationship between food and culture, argued that the answers to questions such as what, how, and why societies eat, how food is cooked, and how it is presented could be given by looking at the material situation, social relations, and hierarchical structures of the society. The culinary tourist, who occupies the higher end of the food tourism interest continuum, is a special interest traveler whose passion for food is the main factor determining his way of life. The culinary tourist is likewise

\*Corresponding Author

**Damla Duman:** Res. Assist., İskenderun Technical University, Hatay/ Türkiye, Email: damla.mulazimoglu@iste.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0001-6667-3214 

**Çağrı Saçlı:** Assist. Prof., Mersin University, Hatay/ Türkiye, Email: cagri.sacli@mersin.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0001-7771-8190 

Research paper



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution (CC-BY) 4.0 License

\*\*This research paper was produced from the Master's thesis (Id: 660121) prepared by Damla DUMAN in July, 2021.

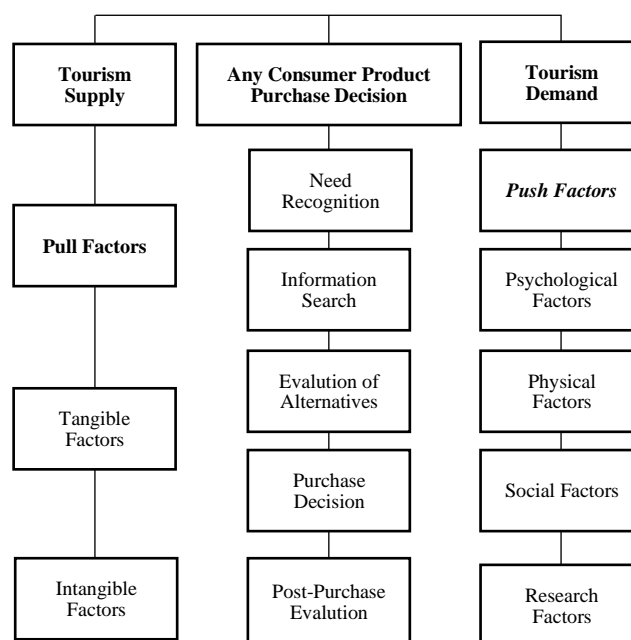
a cultural tourist, as eating and drinking are ultimately cultural activities. Therefore, the culinary tourist may be both a special interest tourist and a cultural tourist due to the evident overlap between food as a special interest component and a component of culture (Ashok, 2019, pp.124). Other scholars agree with this notion and propose that there is a strong link between cuisine and culture (Nadalipour *et al.*, 2022; Balıkçioğlu Dedeoğlu *et al.*, 2019, pp.110; Berno *et al.*, 2019, pp.19; Boutaud *et al.*, 2016, pp.1). In this sense, local dishes, which are thought to be discussed under the roof of culture, are the elements that bring intercultural differences to the fore the most (Hornig & Tsai, 2011, pp.289).

Local cuisine involves the customs, values, and ways of eating, drinking, and preparing food associated with a particular location (Sabbag, 2022). It is also recognized as a significant part of the implementation of sustainable development principles for destinations, as well as an enriching element of the visitor experience (Boyne & Hall, 2003, pp.133). Besides, the term is defined as a tourist attraction, which can create a wide range of marketing opportunities as well as increase the value of destinations (Du Rand & Heath, 2006, pp.206-207). Furthermore, local cuisines have a crucial place in destination recognition and branding, as well as in enhancing the destination’s image. In this context, local cuisines can serve as a promotional channel for destinations (Ashok, 2019; Alderighi *et al.*, 2016, pp. 324; Choe & Kim, 2018, pp.1). The tendency of tourists to pay more for local cuisine products is another important element of local cuisine (Ceritoğlu & Kalemci Schneider, 2010, pp.46). Additionally, buying local cuisine products as gifts is another notable factor (Buczowska, 2014). All of the aspects above make it possible to include local cuisines as a significant variable in choosing destinations and creating the destination image.

**Destination Selection**

Destinations are places that have the potential to attract travelers for tourism purposes (Cohen *et al.*, 2014; Yüksek, 2014, pp.2; Moscardo, 2009). Based on the literature, it is clear that various researchers classify destinations in different ways (macro, micro, near, far, weekend, summer, winter, etc.). (Buhalis, 2000, pp.101; Kotler *et al.*, 2009, pp.648; Güripek, 2013, pp.51). These classifications are mainly based on the “geographical and political location” of the destinations (countries, regions, continents, small settlements or cities, places with ethnic elements, states, or cities) and “attractiveness” (urban, rural, seaside, mountain, authentic third world, unique-exotic destinations). It is crucial to categorize tourist destinations into several sorts to make tourist travel easier. Besides, the physical appearance of the destinations, attraction centers, transportation facilities, accommodation facilities, food and beverage businesses, architectural features, infrastructure and superstructure conditions, location, culture, trends, and service quality affect destination selection (Buhalis, 2000; Grangsjö, 2003; Giritlioğlu &

Avcıkurt, 2010; Çakır & Küçükçakmak, 2016; Sanyal & Hisam, 2019). As in the classification of destinations, some researchers consider the selection of destinations from different perspectives. Kotler *et al.* (2009, pp.219) compare the destination selection decision process to any consumer purchasing decision process in marketing science, while Rızaoğlu (2012) finds this view insufficient. According to Rızaoğlu, while more information is needed to purchase touristic products, more labor and time are spent. On the other hand, Mathieson and Wall (1982) examined destination selection in four dimensions; tourist profile, information about travel, destination characteristics, destination distance, and duration of the visit. In addition, researchers examine this process within the framework of tourism supply and demand (Huzeima & Salia, 2020). In line with the opinions of the researchers above, the conceptual framework of the factors affecting destination selection is presented in Figure 1.



**Figure 1. Factors affecting destination selection**  
Source: Authors

In light of this background information, the choice of destination has a complex structure. Therefore, it is thought to be more beneficial to benefit from the theory of the push-pull factors (Baloğlu & Uysal, 1996, pp.32), which is one of the most accepted theories in examining the travel motivations and behaviors of tourists. In addition to all these, the flexible structure of tourism demand and the inelastic structure of tourism supply may pave the way for the formation of many factors that may affect the selection of a destination.

**Destination Image**

Before the term “image” was generally accepted in tourism research, it had been investigated for decades in disciplines including social and environmental psychology,

marketing, and consumer behavior (Fridgen, 1987; Assael, 1984; Boulding, 1956). To this end, Hunt (1975), Gunn (1972), and Mayo (1973) introduced the idea of destination image into the field of tourist studies. Since then, it has grown to become one of the most extensively studied domains in the field. Motivation, interest, culture, emotion, personality, and a host of other factors play a fundamental role in how consumers choose where to travel, and they are closely linked to how people perceive a particular destination image (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010, pp.576). Hunt (1975) defines destination image as possible visitors' impressions of a destination in this context.

Gartner (1994, pp.191) discussed the three-dimensional destination image, which are cognitive, affective, and behavioral images. While the cognitive image is formed in light of the beliefs and knowledge that people have developed about the concrete features of the destination, the affective image expresses the abstract feelings felt about the destination. On the other hand, the behavioral (general) image is a more advanced dimension created when cognitive and affective images are combined. "Baloğlu and McCleary (1999) also examined the destination image in three dimensions within the framework of cognitive, affective, and general/behavioral image. Santos *et al.* (2013) define the cognitive image as the knowledge and beliefs people have about destination attractiveness, while Yaraşlı (2007) attributes the affective image as the individual's feelings about the destination as a result of emotional evaluations. In this regard, the general/behavioral image is related to how tourists behave due to the cognitive image formed by the information emitted by a destination and the affective image based on emotions (Michaelidou *et al.*, 2013, pp.790).

Destination image is relativistic and flexible; images vary from person to person, across time, in relation to other destinations, and concerning how close a destination is to a possible traveler (Gallarza *et al.*, 2002; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Yaraşlı, 2007, pp.24-27).

### Relationships Between Variables

Several researchers have looked into the relationship between local cuisine and destination choice. According to past research, some travelers perceive food as a "pull" factor and a reason to select a particular location (Su *et al.*, 2018). Morris *et al.* (2020) investigated tourists' attitudes towards local food on destination choice, travel motivation, satisfaction, and authenticity. The study concluded a clear and effective relationship between tourists' attitudes towards local food and their travel behaviors. In a similar vein, Şengül and Türkay (2016) discovered a substantial correlation between visitors' visit decisions and local cuisine elements. On the other hand, Stankov *et al.* (2019) found that destination selection is influenced by many factors as the local cuisine (88%), natural and historical resources of the country (76%), and cultural heritage (52%). Polat (2020) reported that the image of local food

has a positive and significant effect on the choice of destination in his study aiming to measure the regional culinary image of Kahramanmaraş province. Besides, food lovers may consider the local cuisine a traditional and genuine aspect of a destination's culture and heritage (Sims, 2009). The H1 hypothesis developed based on these studies is as follows:

H1: Local cuisine elements have a statistically significant positive effect on destination selection.

Local cuisine is an essential aspect of the marketing process of destinations, according to Du Rand and Heath (2006), and this factor has a substantial impact on the destination image. The effect of local foods on destination image and destination loyalty was investigated in a study conducted by Benli and Yenipinar (2018) on domestic tourists visiting Mersin. According to the study findings, local cuisine experiences positively impact destination image and loyalty. Moreover, Zain *et al.* (2018) researched the mediating role of local food consumption in the relationship between food and destination image. They focused on the local cuisine consumed by tourists and tried to figure out what aspects influence the destination image. According to their findings, local food intake acts as a mediating factor in the relationship between local food perception and destination image. The H2 hypothesis developed in light of this information is as follows:

H2: Local cuisine elements have a statistically significant positive effect on the destination image.

According to Nadeau *et al.* (2008), the perception of a destination changes when it has an image, which also impacts the decision-making process while choosing a destination. Rahman *et al.* (2017) found that when the destination loyalty variable has a significant mediating role, destination brand image is significantly related to destination selection. In a research of 460 Russian, British, and Turkish visitors visiting Marmaris, researchers found that the destination image had a significant positive impact on destination selection (Yüksel & Kılıç, 2016). Similarly, Ünal (2020), in his study to determine the factors affecting young people's destination choices, suggested that transportation, nightlife, entertainment, accommodation opportunities, and alternative touristic places positively affect young people's destination choices.

Based on these findings, the H3 hypothesis of the research was developed as follows:

H3: Destination image has a statistically significant positive effect on destination selection.

The H4 hypothesis, which considers the mediating role of destination image in the impact of local cuisine elements on destination selection (Baron & Kenny, 1986), was established using the following circumstances, and the study model is shown in Figure 2.

- Local cuisine elements must have an effect on the destination selection.

- Local cuisine elements must have an effect on the destination image.
- Destination image must have an effect on the destination selection.
- When the destination image is controlled, the effect of the local cuisine elements on the destination selection should be reduced or zeroed.

H4: The effect of local cuisine elements on destination selection is mediated by destination image.

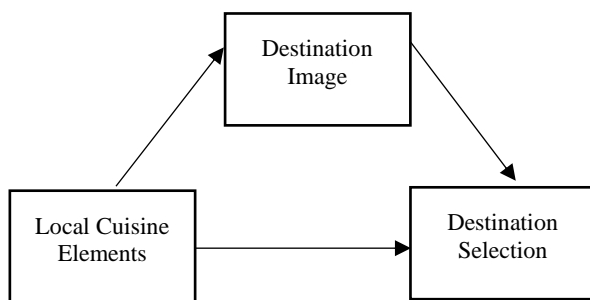


Figure 2. Research model

Source: Authors

### 3. Methodology

This study aims to research if the destination image influences destination selection by mediating the effect of local cuisine elements. The relational scanning model, one of the general scanning models, was used to construct the study in this context. The study population consists of domestic tourists visiting the Hatay destination of Türkiye between 2017-2021. Hatay was chosen as the research area because it is one of the provinces reviewed under the Ministry of Culture and Tourism’s Brand City Project in Turkey, and it was designated as a Gastronomy City under the UNESCO Creative Cities Network in 2017. The research sample consists of domestic tourists reached in numbers representing the population. According to data acquired from the Hatay Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, over 100.000 tourists visited Hatay annually between 2014 and 2019. However, according to the statistics of 2020, this number reduced to 39.976 (Hatay KTB, 2021). This decrease may have occurred due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Even in this case, the number of visitors was over 10.000, making it necessary to use the unlimited population sampling formula to determine the sample size. Considering the ratio maximizing the variance value ( $p: 0.50$ ), 5% significance level, and 5% margin of error, the sample size was found to be 384 people ( $n = pqz \cdot 2 \cdot a/e^2 = 1.962 \times 0.5 \times 0,5/0.052 = 3.8416 \times 0.25/0.0025 = 384$ ) (Ural & Kılıç, 2006, pp.47). Considering that questionnaires may not be used during the analysis phase, a total of 393 sample sizes were reached. Purposive sampling was selected as one of the non-probability sampling techniques in the sampling selection due to the

impossibility of reaching the entire population. In this method, the sample cross-section is determined by the judgments of the researcher (Coşkun *et al.*, 2015, pp.149).

In the research, the scale developed by Şengül and Türkay (2016) was used in the measurement of local cuisine elements, the scale designed by Chi and Qu (2008) and adapted by Benli and Yenipinar (2018) in the measurement of the destination image, the destination selection scale developed by Hsu *et al.* (2009) and translated into Turkish by Ustasüleyman and Çelik (2015) was used in this study. In the questionnaire designed in this context, there are 12 items for local cuisine elements, 26 for destination image, and 21 for destination selection. On a 5-point Likert scale, participants were asked to respond to the questionnaire items.

According to the Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee of Iskenderun Technical University, approval for collecting research data was acquired, dated 26/01/2021, numbered 2187. The data was collected between January and March 2021 through online surveys, as the relevant period coincided with the “lockdowns” caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. The surveys were shared with local tourists visiting Hatay on various social media platforms that are thought to be members of some groups on these platforms and well-known people in the field of travel, and their participation and support were requested.

Separate missing data analyses were conducted on the scales to identify whether there was missing data in the 393 surveys collected. The missing data was determined to have a random distribution and be in a modest amount as a result of this research (below 5%) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Following this procedure, new values were allocated to the missing data based on the series mean of the remaining data.

Multiple sling analysis was required since the data would be evaluated using multivariate statistical techniques. To that end, multiple sling analysis was performed for all three scales. Çokluk *et al.* (2012, pp.15) expressed that Mahalanobis distance values can be used to eliminate extreme values and provide the assumption of multivariate normality. The t-test approach was used to detect multiple outlier observations. In this approach, Mahalanobis values with a parameter number greater than the t-value at %01 are considered as the deviating unit (Kalaycı, 2010, pp.212). As a result of the analysis in question, 7 observations from the scale of local cuisine elements, 1 observation from the scale of destination image, and 3 observations from the scale of destination selection were removed. Following the multiple sling analysis, a multiple normal distribution analysis was conducted, and the data was confirmed for normal distribution. According to this analysis, the data were found to have normal distributions. Consequently, 382 observations were used to conduct subsequent analyses within the scope of the study.

#### 4. Findings

The demographics of the 393 domestic tourists who participated in the study indicate that women account for 52.7 percent of the total, while males account for 47.3 percent. Singles make up 60.1%, and married 39.9%. The age variable shows that 51.4% of the participants are aged 28-39, while the education variable suggests that 51.7% have undergraduate education. Based on the participants' occupations, it was discovered that 34.9 percent work in the public sector, 27.2 percent in the private sector, and 38.4 percent earn between twice and three times the Turkish minimum salary (2324 TL) in 2020 (CSGB, 2020).

##### *Reliability and Validity Analysis of Local Cuisine Elements, Destination Image Perception, and Destination Selection Scales*

The internal consistency method was employed to assess measurement reliability, and exploratory factor analysis was used to assess the validity of the study. Therefore, the results of the exploratory factor analysis and the reliability analysis are merged under this title.

The standardized use of a scale and its capacity to produce accurate information necessitate it to have two important features, which are "reliability" and "validity" (Huck, 2007; Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). Reliability refers to the degree to which a measurement of a phenomenon yields a stable and consistent result (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). In circumstances when the answers to the scale items are not labeled as "right" or "false," that is, 1-3, 1-4, 1-5, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient approach is one of the most commonly used methods to measure internal consistency (Whitley, 2002). It is advised that dependability should be at least 0.60 for an exploratory or pilot study (Straub *et al.*, 2004). Excellent reliability (0.70-0.90), high reliability (0.70-0.90), moderate reliability (0.50-0.70), and low reliability (0.50 and below) are the four reliability cut-off values proposed by Hinton *et al.* (2004). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all the scales and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients obtained using the split-half technique were utilized to analyze reliability levels for the scales used in this study. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.894 for the entire "Local Cuisine Elements" scale (12 items). The scale can be regarded to be highly reliable based on this conclusion. Besides, the scale's reliability was tested using the split-half technique, and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was found to be 0.887 for the first half and 0.749 for the second half. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was found to be 0.814 for the complete "Destination Image Perception" scale (26 items). From this point of view, the scale is regarded as highly reliable. The split-half technique was also used, and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as 0.802 for the first half of the scale and 0.789 for the second half. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the whole (21 items) of the "Destination Selection" scale, which is the second scale, is 0.839. According to this result, this scale is described as highly reliable. The Cronbach's

alpha coefficient of the first half of the scale was 0.775, and the second half was 0.811, as a result of applying the split-half technique. Moreover, since it was determined that there was no increase in Cronbach's Alpha coefficients in case of deletion of one of the items in the scales, item inference was not made.

The simplest definition of validity is "measuring what is intended to be measured" (Field, 2005). In the social sciences, factor analysis is one of the most extensively used approaches for determining construct validity (Watkins, 2018, pp.219; Henson & Roberts, 2006). According to Brown (2015, pp. 10), "*A factor is an unobservable variable that influences more than one observed measure and that accounts for the correlations among these observed measures. In other words, the observed measures are interrelated because they share a common cause (i.e., they are influenced by the same underlying construct); if the latent construct was partitioned out, the intercorrelations among the observed measures will be zero.*"

To establish how many components of the local cuisine elements, destination image, and destination selection scale items were collected in this study, exploratory factor analysis was used to verify the construct validity. Exploratory factor analysis is based on establishing factors as a result of combining related variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The literature emphasizes that some prerequisites should be met in order to perform exploratory factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Kozak, 2018; Büyüköztürk, 2018).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient and the Bartlett sphericity test can be utilized to determine whether factor analysis can be performed on the collected data (Büyüköztürk, 2018, pp.136). The KMO coefficient indicates if the sample size is sufficient for factor analysis, and it ranges from 0 to 1. This value is expected to exceed .50. Value ranges used in the interpretation of the KMO coefficient are expressed as ".50-.70 moderate," ".70-.80 good," ".80-.90 very good," ".90+ excellent" (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is another test used to determine whether the data are suitable for factor analysis. Based on partial correlations, Bartlett's Test evaluates the existence or lack of a relationship between the variables (Büyüköztürk, 2018, pp.136).

In the factor analysis stage, factor extraction processes can be performed with many techniques (Çokluk *et al.*, 2012). Principal component analysis and the Varimax rotation approach were used in this study for factor extraction and factor analysis. If the same item is loaded on multiple factors (convergence) and the communality value is less than .40, the items with these characteristics should be reanalyzed without being included in the scale (Büyüköztürk, 2018; Kozak, 2018). In addition, the condition that a factor consists of at least three items should not be ignored (Kalaycı, 2010). Based on these conditions, factor analysis was performed on items with an eigenvalue

**Table 1. Exploratory factor analysis of local cuisine elements**

	Load	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Mean	$\alpha$
<b>Local Cuisine Elements</b>				<b>3.912</b>	
5. Local cuisine products are an important part of the region’s branding.	.853			4.144	
4. Local cuisine products are among the cultural elements of the region.	.850			4.175	
2. I prefer local food in places I visit.	.822			4.139	
1. Local cuisine products are a tool for getting to know societies and regions.	.818			4.018	
6. I prefer local foods more than other foods.	.814	5.382	59.794	3.890	0,910
7. Before I travel, I do research on the local cuisine products of my preferred holiday destination.	.755			3.783	
11. I buy local products as gifts in places I visit.	.727			3.863	
8. I prefer local products that I have knowledge about.	.689			3.874	
3. Local dishes are effective in my choice of holiday destination.	.590			3.322	
<b><math>\alpha</math> Coefficient for the Entire Scale: 0.910</b>					
<b>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Sampling Adequacy: %93</b>					
<b>Total Variance Explained: (%): 59.794</b>					
<b>For Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity;</b>					
<b>Chi-Square: 2034.029</b>					
<b>sd: 36</b>					
<b>p&lt;0.0001</b>					

Source: Authors

above 1 and a factor load acceptance level, not below 0.45 (Straub *et al.*, 2004; Büyüköztürk, 2018).

The scale of local culinary elements was factored in the initial step. During the analysis, “9-I prefer local products that I have no knowledge about.” The communality of the item (0.273) was low and did not give a load value in the table. Considering that each factor should consist of at least three items, it was determined that the items “10-I can pay more for products called local food.” and “12-The money I spend on local products represents the largest part of my holiday expenses.” formed a factor together. Hence, excluding the relevant items from the analysis was deemed appropriate. The analysis process was carried out by excluding these three items of the scale. The results of the factor analysis regarding the local cuisine elements are presented in Table 1.

The fact that the explained variance exceeds 50% of the total variance is an important criterion of factor analysis (Yaşlıoğlu, 2017, pp.77). The total explained variance value of the single-factor local cuisine elements scale with 9 items is 59.794 percent, as shown in Table 1. The KMO value used in examining sample adequacy was determined as 93%. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity value is 2034.029, which is a significant value at the 0.0001 level, and the  $\alpha$  coefficient for the whole scale is 0.910.

The destination image perception scale was subjected to exploratory factor analysis in the second step. The analysis

was repeated four times. The reasons for repetition are that some of the items overlap and the communality value is below .40. Some of them have a factor structure consisting of two items, take negative values, and do not give a load value in the table. The items that cause this situation in the first stage are the items “1-Safety” and “4-Climate”, which do not give a load value in the table. In the second stage, the item “9-Attractiveness of cultural activities (0.354) took a value below 0.40 of the communality value and did not load any factor in the table. It was also found that the items “10-Night life” and “11-Entertainment variety” created a factor consisting of two items. In the third stage, the items “15-Restaurant variety” and “24-Conformity of food and beverage prices” did not give a load value in the table, and in the fourth stage, the item “16-Diversity of cuisine culture” gave a negative value. As a result, eight items were removed from the scale. Table 2 contains information about the analysis.

The fact that the explained variance exceeds 50% of the total variance is an important criterion of factor analysis (Yaşlıoğlu, 2017, pp.77). The total explained variance value of the single-factor local cuisine elements scale with 9 items is 59.794 percent, as shown in Table 1. The KMO value used in examining sample adequacy was determined as 93%. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity value is 2034.029,

**Table 2: Exploratory factor analysis of perceptions of destination images**

	Load	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Mean	$\alpha$
<b>Price and Facilities (6 items)</b>				<b>3.465</b>	
18. Variety of accommodation	.749	3.171	17.616	3.463	0.754
25. Availability of accommodation prices	.622			2.995	
20. Ease of transportation within the city	.612			3.312	
12. Benevolence of local people	.612			4.275	
26. Availability of prices from other activities	.575			3.152	
17. Variety of shopping opportunities	.535			3.594	
<b>Natural and Historical Attractions (5 items)</b>				<b>4.170</b>	
5. Natural beauties	.757	2.621	14.562	4.390	0.748
8. The impressiveness of the landscapes	.746			4.042	
7. Water resources (waterfall, stream)	.714			3.623	
13. Distinctive history	.569			4.599	
14. Classical (old) structures-buildings	.488			4.195	
<b>Outdoor Activities (3 items)</b>				<b>1.893</b>	
22. Variety of extreme sports	.899	2.429	13.494	1.686	0.789
21. Variety of water sports	.881			1.479	
23. Variety of recreational activities	.544			2.513	
<b>Environment (4 items)</b>				<b>3.376</b>	
2. Environmental Cleaning	.768	2.062	11.455	3.063	0.653
3. Calmness	.671			3.257	
6. Parks, gardens and green spaces	.575			3.342	
19. Ease of access to the city from outside	.513			3.743	

$\alpha$  Coefficient for the Entire Scale: 0.827

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Sampling Adequacy: %80

Total Variance Explained (%): 57.127

For Bartlett's Test of Sphericity;

Chi-Square: 2484.061

sd: 153

p<0.0001

Source: Authors

which is a significant value at the 0.0001 level, and the  $\alpha$  coefficient for the whole scale is 0.910.

The destination image perception scale was subjected to exploratory factor analysis in the second step. The analysis was repeated four times. The reasons for repetition are that some of the items overlap and the communality value is below .40. Some of them have a factor structure consisting of two items, take negative values, and do not give a load value in the table. The items that cause this situation in the first stage are the items "1-Safety" and "4-Climate", which do not give a load value in the table. In the second stage, the item "9-Attractiveness of cultural activities (0.354) took a value below 0.40 of the communality value and did not load any factor in the table. It was also found that the items "10-Night life" and "11-Entertainment variety" created a factor consisting of two items. In the third stage, the items "15-Restaurant variety" and "24-Conformity of food and beverage prices" did not give a load value in the table, and in the fourth stage, the item "16-Diversity of cuisine culture" gave a negative value. As a result, eight

items were removed from the scale. Table 2 contains information about the analysis.

The four factors in the analysis explain 57.127% of the total variance. The KMO sample adequacy was found to be 80%, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was determined as 2484.061, which is significant at the 0.0001 level. The  $\alpha$  coefficient for the whole scale was calculated as 0.827. When the factors on which the items are distributed are considered, the items show parallelism with the factors discussed in the literature. In this context, "Price and Facilities," "Natural and Historical Attractions," "Outdoor Activities," and "Environment" factors are thought to be exploratory in expressing the perception of Hatay's destination image.

The destination selection scale was subjected to exploratory factor analysis in the third step. The analysis was repeated twice. The overlapping of the items, the homogeneity value being below .40, and the factor structure consisting of two items caused the repetition of the analysis. In the first stage of the analysis, the



**Table 3. Exploratory factor analysis for destination selection**

	Load	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Mean	$\alpha$
<b>Tangible and Intangible Factors (9 items)</b>				<b>4.157</b>	
15. Accommodation	.748			4.215	
14. Food quality and variety	.699			4.209	
21. Expectations	.666			4.215	
20. Benefit	.663			4.199	
17. Price	.657	4.224	26.401	4.178	0.848
13. Accessibility	.638			4.120	
18. Shopping opportunity	.613			3.725	
16. Personal security	.606			4.589	
19. Image of the destination	.595			3.969	
<b>Research Factor (4 items)</b>				<b>3.636</b>	
8. Meeting new people	.802			3.592	
11. Adventure quest	.703	2.166	13.536	3.757	0.655
2. Revealing talents	.583			3.233	
10. Cultural research	.551			3.963	
<b>Psychological Factors (3 items)</b>				<b>4.017</b>	
3. Seeking change	.688			4.089	
4. Relaxation	.678	1.878	11.740	4.194	0.669
1. Become distant	.673			3.77	
<b><math>\alpha</math> Coefficient for the Entire Scale: 0.846</b>					
<b>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Sampling Adequacy: %88</b>					
<b>Total Variance Explained (%): 51.677</b>					
<b>For Bartlett's Test of Sphericity;</b>					
<b>Chi-Square: 1861.926</b>					
<b>sd: 120</b>					
<b>p&lt;0.0001</b>					

Source: Authors

homogeneity value of the item “7-Visiting a friend (0.381)” was below .40, and the items of “9-Persuasion ability of tour guides” and “12-Night life and entertainment” overloaded more than one factor. Hence, the relevant items were excluded from the scale. Since the items “5-Medical treatment” and “6-Health and fitness” generated a two-item factor in the second stage, it was decided to delete all five items from the scale. Information on the analysis is given in Table 3.

Three factors in the analysis explain 51.677% of the total variance. As a result of the analysis, the KMO sample adequacy for a total of 16 items was 88%, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity value was determined as 1861.926, which is significant at the 0.0001 level. The  $\alpha$  coefficient for the entire scale is 0.846. When the factors on which the items are distributed are considered, the items show parallelism with the factors reported in the literature. In this context, the dimensions of “Tangible and Intangible Factors,”

“Research Factor,” and “Psychological Factors” are thought to be exploratory in expressing destination selection.

#### Correlation Analysis between Variables

The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine and predict the degree of association between the variables. Pearson correlation coefficient denoted by “r” is 1.00, a perfect positive relationship; -1.00, a perfect negative relationship, and a value of 0.00 indicates no relationship. Besides, 0.70-1.00 indicates a high level, 0.70-0.30 a medium level, and a 0.30-0.00 low-level relationship (Büyüköztürk, 2018, pp.32). In this study, the correlation analysis was carried out by considering the local cuisine elements, destination image, and destination selection scores. The values for the relevant analysis are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4. Correlation values between variables**

	Local Cuisine Elements	Destination Image	Destination Selection	Mean	Standard Deviation
<b>Local Cuisine Elements</b>	1.000			3.9122	.67388
<b>Destination Image</b>	.138**	1.000		3.6401	.70944
<b>Destination Selection</b>	.315**	.136**	1.000	4.0015	.39198

Source: Authors

**Table 5. The effect of local cuisine elements on destination selection**

Model 1	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-value	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
	B	Standard Error	Beta				
Constant*	3.284	.112		29.216	.000		
Local Cuisine Elements	.183	.028	.315	6.474	.000	1.000	1.000

\*Destination Selection- (Dependent Variable) Constant; R: .315; R<sup>2</sup>: .099; Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>: .097; For Model F: 41.910; p: .000; DW: 1.805

Source: Authors

Table 4 shows that the level of correlation between variables ranges from .136 to .315. Considering the relationships between local cuisine elements, destination image, and destination selection, it was determined that there were positive relations between the bilateral relations of these three variables and for all coefficients  $p < 0.01$ . Additionally, the highest correlation is realized between the local cuisine elements and the destination selection ( $r = .315$ ;  $p < .01$ ) at a moderately positive level. The second highest correlation is between the destination image and the local cuisine elements ( $r = .138$ ;  $p < .01$ ) at a positive low level. When compared among themselves, it is inferred that the lowest relationship between the variables is between destination image and destination selection ( $r = .136$ ;  $p < .01$ ). Table 4 shows that these two variables have a positive and weak association.

#### Regression Analyzes between Variables

Regression analysis is a group of statistical methods that can be used to infer relationships between variables that are related to one another (Golberg & Cho, 2010, pp.1). The correlation between the independent and dependent variables is expressed with “R” in regression analysis. The symbol expressing the regression model’s true exploratory power is “Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>”. The adjusted R<sup>2</sup> tends to be smaller than the R<sup>2</sup> value (Coşkun *et al.*, 2015, pp.245).

The significance of the regression model is assessed with ANOVA. The “F” value’s magnitude indicates the model’s significance. On the other hand, the significance value indicates the probability that it may have arisen by chance or by mistake when the calculated F value is zero (Golberg & Cho, 2010).

Durbin-Watson (DW) Coefficient was used to test whether there is autocorrelation in the regression. The DW coefficient is expected to be valued between 1.5 and 2.5 (Maxwell & David, 1995; White, 1992). It is possible to encounter the multicollinearity problem in regression analysis. The multicollinearity problem is that there is a high level of correlation between the independent variables (Büyüköztürk, 2018, pp.100). VIF is a statistical approach that tests whether such a problem exists. A VIF=1 means that there is no multicollinearity problem, while a value between  $1 < VIF \leq 5$  indicates a moderate multicollinearity problem (Hair *et al.*, 2016). Another value considered in

this regard is the tolerance value. The tolerance value is expected to be  $> .10$  (Alpar, 2017; Daoud, 2017).

#### The Effects of Local Cuisine Elements on Destination Selection

Regression analysis was carried out to determine the effects of local cuisine elements on destination selection. The findings of the regression analysis regarding the related variables are presented in Table 5.

In Table 5, univariate regression analysis was used to statistically express to what extent the independent variable of local cuisine affects the dependent variable of destination selection. ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) test is performed to get an idea about the significance of the regression model. According to the ANOVA test results, the significance level of the F value gives an idea about whether the model is appropriate. The fact that the value of F (41.910;  $p = .000$ ) is significant (less than 0.05 at the 5% level) suggests that the model contributes significantly to explaining the dependent variable of destination selection. The fact that the R value is .315 indicates that there is a positive and moderate relationship between destination selection and local cuisine elements. The R<sup>2</sup> value indicates what percentage of the variance (change) of the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable. The R<sup>2</sup> value in Model 1 was calculated as .099. This means that local cuisine elements explain 9.9% of the variation in destination selection. In other words, knowing the local cuisine elements in estimating the destination selection allows estimation with an accuracy of 9.9%. DW coefficient (1.805) between 1.5 and 2.5 means no autocorrelation between the relevant variables. Since the tolerance and VIF values are 1, there is no multicollinearity problem.

Based on this information, the first hypothesis of the study, “H1: Local cuisine elements have a statistically significant effect on destination selection,” is supported.

#### The Effect of Local Cuisine Elements on the Destination Image

Regression analysis was carried out to determine the effects of local cuisine elements on the perception of the

**Table 6. The effect of local cuisine elements on the destination image**

Model 2	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-value	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
	B	Standard Error	Beta				
Constant*	3.070	.212		14.460	.000		
Local Cuisine Elements	.146	0.53	.138	2.724	.007	1.000	1.000

\* Destination Image -(Dependent Variable) Constant;  
R: .138; R<sup>2</sup>: .019; Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>: .017; For Model F: 7.420; p: .007; DW: 1.753

Source: Authors

destination image. The regression analysis findings regarding the related variables are presented in Table 6.

The fact that the value of F (7.420; p=.007) is significant (less than 0.05 at the 5% level) concludes that the model contributes significantly to explaining the dependent variable, the perception of the destination image. The fact that the R value is .138 indicates a positive and low-level relationship between the destination image and local cuisine elements. The R2 value in Model 2 was calculated as .019, which means that local cuisine elements can explain 1.9% of the change in the destination image. In other words, knowing the local cuisine elements in estimating the destination image allows estimation with an accuracy of 1.9%. DW coefficient (1.753), valued between 1.5 and 2.5, means no autocorrelation between these variables. Since the tolerance value is 1 and the VIF value is 1, there is no multicollinearity problem. This result supports that local cuisine elements affect the destination image.

In light of this information, the second hypothesis of the study, “H2: Local cuisine elements have a statistically significant effect on the destination image,” is supported.

***The Effect of Destination Image Perception on Destination Selection***

Regression analysis was carried out to determine the effects of destination image perception on destination selection. The findings of the regression analysis regarding the related variables are presented in Table 7.

**Table 7. The effect of destination image on destination selection**

Model 3	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-value	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
	B	Standard Error	Beta				
Constant*	3.728	0.104		35.799	0.000		
Destination Image	0.175	0.28	.136	2.678	0.008	1.000	1.000

\*Destination Selection-(Dependent Variable) Constant;  
R: .136; R<sup>2</sup>: .019; Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>: .016; For Model F: 7.172; p: .008; DW: 1.779

Source: Authors

The fact that the value of F (7.172; p=.008) is significant (less than 0.05 at the 5% level) suggests that the model contributes significantly to explaining the dependent variable of destination selection. The R value of .136 indicates a positive and low-level relationship between destination image perception and destination selection. The R2 value in Model 3 was calculated as .019. This means that destination image perception can explain 1.9% of the variation in destination selection. In other words, knowing the destination image perception in estimating the destination selection allows estimation with an accuracy of 1.9%. DW coefficient (1.779) between 1.5 and 2.5 means no autocorrelation between the variables in question. Since the tolerance value is 1 and the VIF value is 1, there is no multicollinearity problem. This result supports the effect of destination image perception on destination selection.

With regard to this information, the third hypothesis of the study, “H3: Destination image has a statistically significant effect on destination selection,” is supported.

***The Mediating Effect of Destination Image in the Effect of Local Cuisine Elements on Destination Selection***

The causality mechanism underlying the relationship between two other variables is explained and determined by a mediating variable. The mediating variable effect is referred to as the mediated or indirect effect when it is quantified. As it depicts an influence of X on Y that is transmitted indirectly through the mediating variable, it is known as the “indirect effect.” A direct effect of X on Y still persists even after accounting for the mediator;

**Table 8. The mediation effect of destination image**

Model 4	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-value	Sig.	ANOVA		R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Tolerance	VIF	DW
	Beta	SD.	Beta			F	Sig.					
	<b>Constant*</b>	3.124	.139		22.402	0.000						
<b>Destination Image</b>	.152	.027	.094	1.925	0.000	22.957	0.000	.108	.103	.981	1.000	1.832
<b>Local Cuisine Elements</b>	.176	.028	.302	6.168	0.002					.981	1.000	

\*Destination Selection-(Dependent variable) Constant;

Source: Authors

therefore, if some but not all of the effect of X on Y is communicated through M, the effect is only partially mediated (MacKinnon, 2001 pp.9503-9504). If the mediation effect is detected, whether this effect is significant or not is determined by using the Sobel test. The fact that the z value of the Sobel test is more than ±1.96 indicates that the mediation effect is strong enough to be statistically significant (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Özoğul, 2017). Table 8 shows the regression analysis results regarding the mediating effect of the destination image on the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection.

In determining the mediation effect in the research, multivariate regression analysis was performed, and it was determined that the conditions stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were met. According to these conditions, the effect of local cuisine elements (independent variable) on destination selection (dependent variable) in the first step (F=41.910; p=.000) was found to be statistically significant. In the second step, the effect (F=7.420; p=.007) of the local cuisine elements (independent variable) on the destination image perception (intermediate variable) was also found to be statistically significant. In the third step, the effect of destination image perception (mediating variable) on destination selection (dependent variable) (F=7.172; p=.008) was found to be statistically significant. In the fourth step, the mediation effect (F=22.957; p=.000) of the perception of destination image included in the model (mediating variable) in the effect of local cuisine elements (independent variable) on destination selection (dependent variable) was found to be statistically significant.

While the analysis is carried out between local cuisine elements and destination selection, destination image perception is included in the model, and the interpretation of the mediation effect according to the non-standardized coefficients (β) for the variables is given below.

Since the tolerance value was >.10 (.981) and the VIF value was 1, there was no multicollinearity problem between the variables in the model. Based on this data, tolerance and VIF values support the partial mediation effect of the perception of destination image in the destination selection of local cuisine elements.

When the destination image perception variable is included in the model in Table 8, it is seen that the non-standardized coefficient (β) value of the local cuisine variable decreases from .183 to .176. Besides, the significance of the effect of local cuisine elements on the selection of destination (p=0.002) does not disappear. Therefore, the perception of destination image partially mediates the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection. The Sobel test was used to determine whether the mediating effect was significant (Soper, 2021). The significance of the Sobel test carried out means that there is a partial mediation effect in the relationship between destination image, local cuisine elements, and destination selection (z=2.47 p <.05).

The fourth hypothesis of the study, “H4: Destination image has a mediating role in the effect of local cuisine elements on destination selection,” is supported in light of this finding.

## 5. Discussions and Conclusions

The utility of destination selection is considered an important platform that both practitioners and academicians have highlighted. Recently, it has been determined that researchers work on destination selection by focusing on issues such as technology (Ghaderi *et al.*, 2018; Ghosh & Mukherjee, 2022; Salanzadeh *et al.*, 2022; Lin & Chen, 2022), congress tourism (Jo *et al.*, 2019) medical tourism (Zolfagharian *et al.*, 2018; Mantas, 2020) and climate change (Ngxongo, 2021). In line with these studies, previous research on destination selection found many strategic suggestions and findings. However, limited consideration was given to how destination image mediates the link between local cuisine elements and destination selection.

The impacts of local cuisine elements and destination image on destination selection were investigated in this study. Although previous studies, including Morris *et al.* (2020), Stankov *et al.* (2019), and Şengül & Türkay (2016), examined the relationship between local cuisine and destination selection, the destination image is not included as a mediator.

The study contributes to the consumer behavior literature by clarifying the mediating role of destination image in the

relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection. Although there are results in the past literature that local cuisine elements affect destination selection (Polat, 2020; Demir, 2011), it provides scant confirmation about how destination image affects destination selection. Furthermore, Björk and Kauppinen-Räsänen (2013) determined that destination choices are affected by gastronomy and local cuisine elements. On the other hand, Zağralı and Akbaba (2015) concluded that local foods do not have a decisive role in the destination selection of tourists visiting these places in their study specific to local and foreign tourists in the districts that attract the most tourists (Urla, Karaburun, Çeşme, Seferihisar districts of Türkiye). This difference can be attributed to the regional cuisine diversity and destination-specific attractions that have different characteristics depending on the cultural characteristics of the regions.

Benli and Yenipınar (2018) concluded that the local food experience positively affects the destination image. Also, Zain *et al.* (2018) examined the local food consumption effect on destination image. They obtained a positive relationship between local food and destination image. A similar study was conducted by Fernández *et al.* (2017) to determine the effect of tourists' food experiences on the destination image. According to study results, food-related experiences have a positive effect on the image of the destination. To this end, the findings of this study support previous studies.

Özersin (2019) examined the destination selection of tourists and the perception of the destination image of the district in his study of foreign tourists visiting the Çeşme district of İzmir. The study concluded that tourists' positive destination image perceptions positively affect destination selection. Another researcher focused on Baku of Azarbaijan within the scope of destination marketing and evaluated the effect of destination image on destination selection (Ilyasov, 2015) and concluded that the image of the destination influences a tourist's choice of destination. The findings of this study support the studies by Özersin (2019) and Ilyasov (2015). Moreover, this paper contributes to the existing theories in the context of tourism, marketing as well as gastronomy literature. The conceptual framework furthers the existing theory by depicting the relationships among local cuisine, destination image, and destination selection.

#### Recommendations for Tourism Industry Practitioners

The effects of local cuisine elements on destination selection were discovered within the scope of this study. Based on the results, promoting Hatay within the context of local cuisine elements can help the city distinguish itself from other Turkish tourist sites and gain a competitive edge. Another key finding of the study is that characteristics of local cuisine have an impact on the destination's image. Hatay's destination image can be strengthened by focusing marketing efforts on local food

products. Understanding the impact of destination image perception on destination selection could help Hatay become more appealing to potential tourists by improving the destination image. Given all of this information, it is believed that undertaking market strategies concentrating on both local cuisine aspects and Hatay's destination image could boost the destination's selectability, increase tourism revenue, and contribute to the local people's welfare.

#### Recommendations for Future Researchers

The data collection process in this research coincided with the COVID-19 epidemic in 2021; therefore, it was collected via the online questionnaire technique, one of the study's weaknesses. It is suggested that the data to be collected for future studies should be obtained using techniques such as face-to-face interview during the holidays. Besides, another limitation is that this study was carried out only for domestic tourists. This research can be applied to foreign tourists by using similar variables in the future. Because of the application, a comprehensive touristic picture of Hatay can be drawn from the perspectives of both local and foreign tourists within the context of the necessary variables, while differences between domestic and foreign tourists can also be highlighted. Another suggestion is conducting a similar study in UNESCO gastronomy cities outside Türkiye. Such a study could allow various comparisons to be made.

#### References

- Alderighi, M., Bianchi, C., & Lorenzini, E. (2016). The Impact of Local Food Specialities on The Decision to (Re)Visit A Tourist Destination: Market-Expanding or Business-Stealing? *Tourism Management*, 57, 323-333. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.06.016>
- Alpar, R. (2017). *Uygulamalı Çok Değişkenli İstatistiksel Yöntemler*. (5.Bas). Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Ashok, M. B. (2019). Local Cuisine-A Tool to Promote Destination, *Journal of Emerging Technologies and Innovative Research*, 6(1), 124-131.
- Assael, H. (1984). *Consumer Behavior And Marketing Action*. Boston, MA: Kent.
- Bahkçioğlu Dedeoğlu, S., Aydın, Ş., & Onat, G. (2019). A General Overview on the Far East Cuisine: Cuisines of Thailand, Korea and China . *Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism*, 4 (2), 109-121.: <https://doi.org/10.31822/jomat.642619>
- Baloğlu, Ş., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A Model of Destination Image Formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 868-897. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(99\)00030-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00030-4)
- Baloğlu, S., & Uysal, M. (1996). Market Segments of Push and Pull Motivations: A Canonical Correlation Approach. International, *Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 8(3), 32-38. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596119610115989>

- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, And Statistical Considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173>
- Benli, S., & Yenipinar, U. (2018). Yerel Yiyecek Deneyiminin Destinasyon İmajı ve Destinasyon Sadakati Üzerine Etkisi: Mersin'i Ziyaret Eden Yerli Turistler Üzerinde Bir Araştırma, *Akademik Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 6(82),658-685. <https://doi.org/10.16992/ASOS.14348>
- Berno, T., Dentice, G., & Wisansing, J. J. (2019). Kin kao laeu reu young ('Have You Eaten Rice Yet')?: A New Perspective on Food and Tourism in Thailand. In *Food Tourism in Asia* (pp. 17-30). Springer, Singapore.
- Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räsänen, H. (2013). Culinary-Gastronomic Tourism-A Search for Local Food Experiences. *Nutrition & Food Science*, 44(4): 294-309. <https://doi.org/10.1108/NFS-12-2013-0142>
- Boulding, K. E. (1956). *The Image*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Boutaud, J. J., Becuț, A., & Marinescu, A. (2016). Food and Culture. Cultural Patterns and Practices Related to Food in Everyday Life. *International Review of Social Research*, 6(1), 1-3. <https://doi.org/10.1515/irsr-2016-0001>
- Boyne, S., & Hall, D. (2003). Managing Food and Tourism Developments: Issues for Planning and Opportunities to Add Value. In C. M. Hall, L. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis & B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets* (Pp. 285-295). Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-7506-5503-3.50019-1>
- Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory Factor Analysis For Applied Research* (2nd ed.). New York: Guilford Press
- Buczowska, K. (2014). Local Food and Beverage Products As Important Tourist Souvenirs, *Turystyka Kulturowa*, 1, 47-58.
- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing The Competitive Destination of the Future, *Tourism Management*, 21, (97-116). [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(99\)00095-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(99)00095-3)
- Büyükoztürk, Ş. (2018). *Sosyal Bilimler İçin Veri Analizi El Kitabı*, PEGEM Akademi: Ankara.
- Çakır, F., & Küçükkambak, S. E. (2016). Destinasyon Pazarlaması ve Fethiye Yöresinin Algılanan İmajının Ölçümü Üzerine Ampirik Bir Araştırma, *Gazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 18(2), 400-425.
- Çakır, H. A. (2020). Gastronomik Deneyimsel Değer, Destinasyon İmajı ve Davranışsal Niyet İlişkisi: Unesco Gastronomi Şehirlerinde Bir Araştırma, (Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi), Muğla Sıtkı Koçman Üniversitesi, Muğla.
- Carmines, E. G., & Zeller, R. A. (1979). *Reliability And Validity Assessment*. Newbury Park: Ca, Sage.
- Ceritoğlu, A. B., & Kalemci Schneider, G. (2010). Yöresel Ürün İmajının Tüketici Satın Alma Davranışı ve Yüksek Fiyat Ödeme Eğilimi Üzerindeki Etkisi-İstanbul İlinde Bir Uygulama, *Pazarlama ve Pazarlama Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 06, 29-52.
- Chi, C. G. Q., & Qu, H. (2008). Examining The Structural Relationships of Destination Image, Tourist Satisfaction And Destination Loyalty: An Integrated Approach. *Tourism Management*, 29 (4), 624-636. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.06.007>
- Choe, J. Y., & Kim, S. (2018). Effects of Tourists' Local Food Consumption Value On Attitude, Food Destination Image, And Behavioral intention. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 71, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.11.007>
- Çiğirim, N. (2001). Batı ve Türk Mutfağının Gelişimi, Etkileşimi ve Yiyecek-İçecek Hizmetlerinde Türk Mutfağının Yerine Bir Bakış, (İçinde, *Türk Mutfak Kültürü Üzerine Araştırmalar*, Ankara: Türk Halk Kültürü Araştırma ve Tanıtma Vakfı Yayınları.
- Cohen, S. A., Prayag, G., & Moital, M. (2014). Consumer Behaviour In Tourism: Concepts, Influences And Opportunities. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 17(10), 872-909. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.850064>
- Çokluk, Ö., Şekercioğlu, G., & Büyükoztürk, Ş. (2012). *Sosyal Bilimler İçin Çok Değişkenli İstatistik Spss ve Lisrel Uygulamaları*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Coşkun, R., Altunışık, R., Bayraktaroğlu, S., & Yıldırım, E. (2015). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Araştırma Yöntemleri*, (8. Baskı), Sakarya Kitabevi: Sakarya.
- csgb (2020). Asgari Ücretin Net Hesabı ve İşverene Maliyeti, [https://www.csgb.gov.tr/media/64962/2020\\_onikiyay.pdf](https://www.csgb.gov.tr/media/64962/2020_onikiyay.pdf) Retrieved from
- Daoud, J. I. (2017). Multicollinearity and Regression Analysis. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/949/1/012009>
- Demir, C. (2011). Mutfak Turizminin Destinasyon Pazarlamasındaki Önemi, (Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi), Gazi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Du Rand, G. E., & Heath, E. (2006). Towards a framework for food tourism as an element of destination marketing. *Current issues in tourism*, 9(3), 206-234. <https://doi.org/10.2164/cit/226.0>
- Fernández, J. A. F., Mogollón, I. M. H., & Duarte, P. (2017). Destination Image and Loyalty Development: The Impact of Tourists Food Experiences at Gastronomic Events, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 17:1, 92-110. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2016.1221181>
- Field, A. P. (2005). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. Sage Publications Inc.
- Fridgen, J. D. (1987). Use of Cognitive Maps To Determine Perceived Tourism Region. *Leisure Sciences*, 9, 101-117. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01490408709512150>
- Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G., & Garcia, H. C. (2002). Destination Image Towards a Conceptual Framework, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 56-78. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(01\)00031-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00031-7)

- Gartner, W. C. (1994). Image Formation Process, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2-3), 191-216. [https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v02n02\\_12](https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v02n02_12)
- Ghaderi, Z., Hatamifar, P., & Henderson, J. C. (2018). Destination Selection By Smart Tourists: The Case Of Isfahan, Iran. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 23(4), 385-394.
- Ghauri, P., & Gronhaug, K. (2005). *Research Methods in Business Studies*. Harlow: FT/Prentice Hall.
- Ghosh, P., & Mukherjee, S. (2022). Understanding Tourist Behaviour Towards Destination Selection Based On Social Media Information: An Evaluation Using Unsupervised Clustering Algorithms. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, (ahead-of-print).
- Giritlioğlu, İ., & Avcıkurt, C. (2010). Şehirlerin Turistik Bir Ürün Olarak Pazarlanması, Örnek Şehirler ve Türkiye'deki Şehirler Üzerine Öneriler, *Adıyaman Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 4, 74-89.
- Golberg, M. A., & Cho, H. A. (2010). *Introduction to Regression Analysis*. WITpress: Boston.
- Grangsjö, Y. V. F. (2003). Destination Networking: Coopetition in Peripheral Surroundings, *International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*, 33(5), 427- 448. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09600030310481997>
- Gunn, C. A. (1972). *Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions*. Austin, TX: Bureau of Business Research, University of Texas. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728757301100306>
- Gürüpek, E. (2013). Turizm Destinasyonlarının Rekabet Gücünün Artırılmasında Stratejik Destinasyon Yönetimi: Çeşme Alaçatı Destinasyonu Üzerine Bir Uygulama, (Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi). Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İzmir.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). *A Primer On Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*: Sage Publications.
- Halıcı, N. (1999). *Siniden Tepsiyeye, Klasik Türk Mutfağı*. İstanbul: Numune Matbaacılık Ltd.Şti.
- Halkier, H. (2012). Local Food for International Tourists: Explorative Studies of Perceptions of Networking and Interactions in two Holiday Home Destinations in North Jutland, Denmark. *Institut for Kultur og Globale Studies*, Aalborg Universitet.
- hatay.ktb. (2021). Hatay İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, Turizm İstatistikleri. Retrieved from <https://hatay.ktb.gov.tr/TR-60901/turizm-istatistikleri.html>,
- Henderson, J. C. (2009). Food Tourism Reviewed. *British Food Journal*, 111(4), 317-326. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00070700910951470>
- Henson, R. K., & Roberts, J. K. (2006). Use of Exploratory Factor Analysis in Published Research. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66, 393-416. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164405282485>
- Hinton, P. R., Brownlow, C., McMurray, I., & Cozens, B. (2004). *SPSS Explained*. East Sussex, England: Routledge Inc
- Hong, J. S., & Tsai, C. T. (2011). Exploring Marketing Strategies for Culinary Tourism in Hong Kong And Singapore. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 277- 300. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2011.625432>
- Hsu, T. K., Tsai, Y. F., & Wu, H. H. (2009). The Preference Analysis for Tourist Choice of Destination: A Case Study of Taiwan, *Tourism Management*, 30, 288-297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.07.011>
- Huck, S. W. (2007). *Reading Statistics and Research*. United States of America: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hunt, J. D. (1975). Image As A Factor in Tourism Development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 13(3), 1-7.
- Hutcheson, G. D., & Sofroniou, N. (1999). *The Multivariate Social Scientist*, SAGE Publications Ltd: California. <https://doi.org/10.4135/97808057028075>
- Huzeima, M., & Salia, A. (2020). Influence of Tourism Supply and Demand Elements in Destination Attractiveness: The Case of The West Gonja District. *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality*, 9:435. <https://doi.org/10.35248/2167-0269.20.9.435>
- Ilyasov, I. (2015). Marka Olarak Bakü'nün Destinasyon İmajı ve Destinasyon İmajının Destinasyon Seçimine Etkisi, (Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi), Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul.
- Jo, D., Park, H. Y., Choe, Y., & Kim, D. K. (2019). Destination-Selection Attributes For International Association Meetings: A Mixed-Methods Study. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 13, 61-72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2019.05.005>
- Kalaycı, Ş. (2010). *SPSS Uygulamalı Çok Değişkenli İstatistik Teknikleri*. Ankara: Asil Yayın Dağıtım.
- Khongrat, E. (2021). Destination Branding, Destination Image and Influenced by Destination Selection of Meeting Planners Existing Destination, *Journal of Event, Travel and Tour Management*, 1 (1), 1-6.
- Kotler, P., Bowen, J., & Makens, J. (2009). *Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism*. Third Edition, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, USA.
- Kozak, M. (2018). *Bilimsel Araştırma: Tasarım, Yazım ve Yayımlama Teknikleri*, Detay Yayıncılık: Ankara.
- Lin, Y. C., & Chen, T. C. T. (2022). Type-II Fuzzy Approach With Explainable Artificial Intelligence For Nature-Based Leisure Travel Destination Selection Amid The COVID-19 Pandemic. *Digital Health*, 8, <https://doi.org/10.1177/20552076221106322>
- MacKinnon, D. (2001). Mediating Variable, *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*, <https://doi.org/9503-9507>. 10.1016/B0-08-043076-7/00732-4
- Mantas, J. (2020). Factors Affecting Medical Tourism Destination Selection in Greece. *The Importance Of Health Informatics In Public Health During A Pandemic*, (272-314). IOS Press BV: Amsterdam.
- Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. Harlow: Longman Scientific & Technical.

- Maxwell, L. K., & David, C. H. (1995). The Application of the Durbin-Watson Test to the Dynamic Regression Model Under Normal and Non-Normal Errors, *Econometric Reviews*, 14(4), 487-510. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07474939508800333>
- Mayo, E. J. (1973). Regional Images And Regional Travel Behavior. *The Travel Research Association Fourth Annual Conference Proceedings* (pp. 211–218). Sun Valley, ID.
- Michaelidou, N., Siamagka, N. T., Moraes, C., & Micevski, M. (2013). Do Marketers Use Visual Representations of Destinations That Tourists Value? Comparing Visitors' Image of a Destination with Marketer-Controlled Images Online. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(6), 789-804. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513481272>
- Morris, S., Dwyer, T., & Mulligan, J. (2020). Destination Management: The Influence of Local Food, *Irish Journal of Management*, 39 (2), 99-112.
- Moscardo, G. (2009). Understanding Tourist Experience Through Mindfulness Theory. In M. Kozak, & A. Decrop (Eds.), *Handbook Of Tourist Behavior* (pp. 99–115). London: Routledge.
- Murcott, A. (1983). *The Sociology and Food and Eating, Essays on the Sociological Significance of Food*. Aldershot, Hants, England: Gower Pub Co.
- Nadalipour, Z., Hassan Rathore, A., & Fazeli Tabar, S. (2022). To Promote Traditional Cuisine as a Cultural Tourism Product: A Local Community's Involvement Approach. *International Journal of Tourism, Culture & Spirituality*.
- Nadeau, J., Heslop, L., O'Reilly, N., & Luk, P. (2008). Destination in a country image context. *Annals of tourism Research*, 35(1), 84-106.
- Ngxongo, N. A. (2021). The Impact of Climate Change On Visitor Destination Selection: A Case Study Of The Central Drakensberg Region in Kwazulu-Natal. *Jamba: Journal of Disaster Risk Studies*, 13 (1). <https://doi.org/10.4102/jamba.v13i1.1161>
- Özersin, U. (2019). Gastronomi Turizminin Destinasyon İmajı ve Destinasyon Seçimine Etkisi: Çeşme Örneği. (Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi). Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İzmir.
- Özoğul, G. (2017). Profesyonel Turist Rehberlerinin Kişilik Özellikleri ile Mesleki Bağlılık Arasındaki İlişki Üzerine Psikolojik Sermayenin Aracılık Etkisi. (Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi), Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi, Aydın.
- Polat, M. (2020). Yöresel Yemek İmajının Destinasyon Tercihine Etkisi: Kahramanmaraş Örneği. *Doğu Coğrafya Dergisi*, 25(43), 183-194. <https://doi.org/10.17295/ataunidd.712430>
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS Procedures For Estimating Indirect Effects In Simple Mediation Models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 36(4), 717-731. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03206553>
- Rahman, M. S., Osman-Gani, A. M., & Raman, M. (2017). Destination Selection For Education Tourism: Service Quality, Destination Image And Perceived Spirituality Embedded Model. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*. 8(3), 373- 392.
- Rızaoğlu, B. (2012). *Turizm Davranışı*, (3. Baskı), Detay Yayıncılık: Ankara.
- Sabbag, Ç. (2022). *Gastronomy, Hospitality, and the Future of the Restaurant Industry: Post-COVID-19 Perspectives*, IGI Global: USA.
- Salamzadeh, A., Tajpour, M., & Hosseini, E. (2022). The Impact of Tourism Events On Destination Selection: The Mediating Role Of Social Media. *Media Management Review*, 1(1), 30-52.
- Santos, R. M. C., González-Fernández, A. M., & Cervantes-Blanco, M. (2013). Weak Cognitive Image of Cultural Tourism Destinations. *Quality & Quantity International Journal of Methodology*, 47(2), 881- 895. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-011-9571-5>
- Sanyal, S., & Hisam, M. W. (2019). Factors Affecting Tourists Choice of Destination- A Study in Sultanate Of Oman, *International Journal of Innovative Research & Growth*, 8(9), 94-105. <https://doi.org/10.26671/IJIRG.2019.9.8.102>
- Şengül, S., & Türkay, O. (2016). Yöresel Mutfak Unsurlarının Turizm Destinasyonu Seçimindeki Rolü (Mudurnu Örneği), *Uluslararası Yönetim İktisat ve İşletme Dergisi*, 12(29). <https://doi.org/10.17130/ijmeh.20162922023>
- Sims, R. (2009). Food, Place and Authenticity: Local Food and The Sustainable Tourism Experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 321-336.
- Soper, D. S. (2021). Sobel Test Calculator for the Significance of Mediation [Software]. Retrieved from <https://www.danielsoper.com/statcalc>,
- Stankov, S., Fidan, H., Toskov, G., Dimitrova, E., & Nikovska, K. (2019). Traditional Bulgarian Foods in The Horeca Sector As A Factor of Choice For The Tourist Destination. *Bulgarian Journal of Agricultural Science*, 25(4), 654–660.
- Stepchenkova, S., & Mills, J. E. (2010). Destination Image: A MetaAnalysis of 2000–2007 Research, *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 19(6), 575-609. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2010.493071>
- Straub, D., Boudreau, M. C., & Gefen, D. (2004). Validation Guidelines For is Positivist Research. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 13, 380-427.
- Su, D. N., Johnson, L. W., & O'Mahony, B. (2018). Analysis of Push and Pull Factors In Food Travel Motivation. *Current Issues in Tourism*, Nov. 30,1-15.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Tapachai, N., & Waryszak, R. (2000). An Examination of The Role of Beneficial Image in Tourist Destination Selection, *Journal of Travel Research*, 39 (1), 37-44. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728750003900105>
- Ünal, A. (2020). Gençlerin Destinasyon Seçimlerini Etkileyen Faktörlerin Belirlenmesine Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *Journal of Gastronomy Hospitality and Travel* 3(1): 42-50. <https://doi.org/10.33083/joghat.2020.29>



- Ural, A., & Kılıç, İ. (2006). *Bilimsel Araştırma Süreci ve Spss İle Veri Analizi*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Ustasüleyman, T., & Çelik, P. (2015). Ahs ve Bulanık Promethee Yöntemleriyle Destinasyon Seçimini Etkileyen Faktörlerin Önem Derecesinin Belirlenmesi ve En Uygun Destinasyon Seçimi. *Uluslararası İktisadi ve İdari İncelemeler Dergisi*, (14): 85-102. <https://doi.org/10.18092/ijeas.88090>
- Watkins, M. W. (2018). Exploratory Factor Analysis: A Guide to Best Practice, *Journal of Black Psychology*, 44(3) 219–246. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798418771807>
- White, K. (1992). The Durbin-Watson Test for Autocorrelation in Nonlinear Models. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 74(2), 370-373.
- Whitley, B. E. (2002). *Principals of Research and Behavioural Science*, Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Yaraşlı, G. Y. (2007). Destinasyon İmajı ve Trabzon Yöresine Dönük Bir Çalışma. (Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi) Başkent Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Yaşhoğlu, M. M. (2017). Sosyal Bilimlerde Faktör Analizi ve Geçerlilik: Keşfedici ve Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizlerinin Kullanılması, *Istanbul University Journal of the School of Business*, 46, 74-85.
- Yüksek, G. (2014). *Turizm Destinasyonları*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Yüksel, F., & Kılıç, B. (2016). Elektronik Ağızdan Kulağa İletişimin (E-Wom) Turistik Destinasyon Seçimi Üzerine Etkisi. *Uluslararası Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 9(46), 893-903. <https://doi.org/10.17719/jisr.20164622653>
- Zağralı, E., & Akbaba, A. (2015). Turistlerin Destinasyon Seçiminde Yöresel Yemeklerin Rolü: İzmir Yarımadası'nı Ziyaret Eden Turistlerin Görüşleri Üzerine Bir Araştırma, *Journal of Yasar University* 10(40), 6633-6644. <https://doi.org/10.19168/jyu.45921>
- Zain, N. A., Zahari, M. S. M., & Hanafiah, M. H. (2018). Food and Tourism Destination Image: Moderating Effect of Local Food Consumption, *e-Review of Tourism Research*, 15 (1), 21-36.
- Zolfagharian, M., Rajamma, R. K., Naderi, I., & Torkzadeh, S. (2018). Determinants of Medical Tourism Destination Selection Process. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 27(7), 775-794. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2018.1444527>

**INFO PAGE**

The mediation effect of destination image on the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection: The case of Hatay

**Abstract**

This study aims to empirically test a model linking destination image, destination selection, and local cuisine elements. The study also analyzes the mediating effect of destination image on the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection. The research data were collected from domestic tourists using a survey from the UNESCO Gastronomy City of Hatay of Türkiye. All four hypotheses suggested within the scope of the study were supported. Local cuisine elements and destination image significantly influence destination selection; herein, local cuisine elements affect destination selection more. Similarly, local cuisine elements significantly influence destination image. This study also reveals that destination image partially mediates the relationship between local cuisine elements and destination selection. The study results are expected to help the researchers and managers understand the roles of local cuisine elements and destination image in destination selection in the tourism industry. The study is the first to explore the mediating relationship in link between local cuisine and destination selection in the tourism industry.

**Keywords:** Local cuisine, Destination image, Destination selection, Hatay

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Damla Duman:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Validation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Resources, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization	70%
<b>Çağrı Saçlı:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Supervision	30%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**Ethics Committee Statement:** Ethics committee report is available for this research and it has been documented to the journal.

**Ethics committee:** İskenderun Technical University Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee

**Date of ethics committee decision:** 26.01.2021

**Ethics committee decision number:** 2187

# The magical realistic world of the virtual recreation

Özlem Güncan

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Virtual reality,  
Virtual recreation,  
Magical realism.

### Article History:

Submitted: 13.02.2022  
Revised:06.10.2022  
Accepted: 26.12.2022  
Published Online: 29.10.2022

The aim of the study is to seek an answer to the question of whether the concept of virtual recreation can be considered in the context of the magical realism. The study prepared for this purpose has been carried out from a conceptual point of the view. The data required for the research have been obtained by reviewing the relevant literature. The reviewing process has been carried out in the context of the concepts of "virtual recreation" and "magical realism" and the study has been limited to these concepts. The data obtained as a result of the reviewing the literature have been analyzed conceptually. The analyzes have been made by first evaluating the concepts of virtual recreation and magical realism, and then comparatively examining the findings obtained from these evaluations. After the evaluations, it has been concluded that the magical realism approach is compatible with the structure of the virtual recreation and it is possible to evaluate the virtual recreation experience in the context of magical realism approach.


## 1. Introduction

With the development of the digital technologies and the introduction of the virtual reality technology into daily life, many changes have occurred in the lives of societies (Aylan & Aylan, 2020). With these changes, the perception of time and space that individuals have has completely changed. This change took place in individual lives at first has reached a level that will affect the social life later on (Atar, 2019). This situation has also transformed the leisure habits of individuals (Aytaç, 2004). Thus, computer and video games, virtual tours and electronic activities have become a part of the leisure time of individuals in daily life (Nimrod & Adoni, 2012). Today, individuals whose lives are shaped around these new practices have been focused on living surreal experiences and have started to do this with virtual activities created in electronic environments (Williams & Hobson, 1995). Over time, these applications have become a means of entertainments, relaxation and pleasure for individuals (Özkeroğlu & Akyıldız Munusturlar, 2020). It is observed that this change has transformed the phenomenon of recreation as well as in other areas concerning social life. It is also seen that this change in the leisure time preferences of the society and the forms of participation in recreation has carried the recreation preferences of individuals from the physical environment to the virtual environment, and brought the concept of "virtual recreation" to the agenda.

It is known that virtual recreation requires the experience of the virtual reality technology, and gives the participant

a surreal activity experience. Considering this situation, it is seen that virtual recreation has some unique features and it is thought that these features are similar to the magical realism approach. In line with this idea, it is assumed that it will be possible to evaluate the virtual reality experience in the context of magical realism. However, it is seen that magical realism has been used in the fields of philosophy, painting and literature until today. Studies in these fields have been carried out in the context of defining magical realism, investigating its past from the painting to the literature, and examining the works considered as magical realism texts (Ulusoy Aranyosi, 2011). Considering the use of magical realism in other fields, it is seen that this concept is reflected in the literature with a very limited number of studies. So magical realism is discussed in augmented reality and virtual reality applications in several studies (Kelley, 1992; Klonowska, 2010; Reynolds et al., 2020). Since virtual recreation applications require the experience of the virtual reality technology, it is thought that magical realism is suitable for the structure of the virtual recreation and the virtual recreation should be considered and evaluated in the context of the magical realism. The aim of this study prepared in line with this idea has been determined as seeking an answer to the question of "can magical realism be used to explain the virtual recreation experience?" Therefore, the study will be conducted in the context of the virtual recreation and the magical realism concepts and some inferences will be made for the magical realistic world of the virtual recreation based on the findings to be obtained from the analyzes. At the end of the

Research paper

Özlem Güncan: Asst. Prof., Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur, Türkiye, Email: ozlemozkeroğlu@mehmetakif.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-8974-9100 



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution (CC-BY) 4.0 License

study, it is expected to find an answer to the research question and to clarify whether virtual recreation can be considered in the context of the magical realism.

## 2. Conceptual Framework

### *Virtual Reality*

Postmodernism, which started to be used primarily to express new trends in art and architecture in the 1960s, has significantly affected the culture of period since then. Thus, with the postmodern period, society has entered a new period that differed from other periods in history. In particular, this period has separated from the modern era that preceded it and has made people feel that their times was unique (Ward, 2014). In this period, relations between people has turned into relations between things in capitalism. Although this expresses an objective phenomenon, there is a human reality behind it (Horkheimer, 1998). Therefore, in the society created by postmodernism, imitations, as models that prioritize “truth”, have begun to dominate the social order and form the society as “hyperreality” (Akkaya & Usman, 2012). Along with hyperreality, the indicators between “representation” and “reality” have gained importance (Pretes, 1995). In hyperreality, everything is a copy and most of the time, the imitation is perceived as more real than the real one (Urry, 2009). In this context, the expression “disappearance of reality” is accepted as a basic expression for hyperreality. The main factor behind this statement is that with the developing technology, the real and the unreal have become indistinguishable from each other (Aktaş Polat, 2015). Therefore, in this period when reality is lost, there are hyperrealities and the border between the real and the imaginary has disappeared (Akman, 2017b).

Hyperreality is used to represent the power of simulation in determining the reality, and it refers to the realization of deception, simulation or the dream of the real (Fırat, 1991). There are four stages to the transition to the world of hyperreality. In the first stage, signs, that is, words and images, are developed as reflections of reality. In the second stage, the signs begin to embellish, exaggerate and even distort reality, but there is no break with reality. Thus, signs continue to reflect and symbolize reality. In the third and fourth stages, signs and simulation replace reality, and the only reality that can be captured at this point is hyperreality (Güzel, 2015). The individual, who has passed through these stages and reached the world of hyperreality, is not even aware that what he/she perceives as real reality is actually simulation, although he/she is surrounded by simulations (Akman, 2017b). Baudrillard (2011) defined the concept of simulation mentioned here as the artificial reproduction of a device, a machine, a system, a phenomenon-specific way of working, through a model or a computer program, for the purpose of examining, showing or explaining. What Baudrillard means by

simulation here is to try to show something unreal as real, that is, to simulate what is real (Aktaş Polat, 2015).

In hyperreality and simulation, particular emphasis is placed on technology. The reason for this is that the act of simulating requires a certain technological infrastructure (Güneş, 2016). With the rapid development of digital technologies and their effective use in all areas of life, there has been as unprecedented progress throughout history (Brynjolfsson & Hitt, 2000). For example, after 1965, modern computer production started, communication channels in the digital environment increased and information sharing expanded (Özen & Gürel, 2020). Towards the end of the 1990s, the internet was introduced to the world culture and the computer became a necessary tool for the use of the internet. With the integration of computer and mobile technologies, the limitation of space for access via the internet has been removed. This situation has been accepted by the society in a short time and people’s use of social networks has increased rapidly (Onat & Aşman Alikılıç, 2008). By the 2000s, learning machines and smart devices were included in people’s lives (Göçoğlu, 2020) and artificial intelligence technology developed in this period. The developments in artificial intelligence, autonomous robots, driverless vehicles, internet of things, cyber security and new generation smart sensor technologies have led to the digital transformation revolution. In this period, one of the benefits of digitalization has been “virtual reality” (Zhou et al., 2015).

The word “virtual” in the concept of virtual reality comes from the Latin word *virtualis*, which means creation of the perception that it exists even though it doesn’t exist (Kuruüzümcü, 2007). This word has passed into English language as *virtual* and has been used to describe applications that are shown “as if it exists” using computer software (OLD, 2021). The word *virtual* has started to be used in Turkish language as well and this concept has been defined in the Turkish dictionary as designed in the mind without a place in reality (Dictionaries of the Turkish Language Institution, 2021). When looked at the use of the concept of *virtual* in the literature, it is seen that this concept was brought to the literature by Licklider in 1950 and is defined as virtual memory used as if it exists (Çavuşoğlu, 2004). According to Freud, reality is the individual’s learning that the world is independent of his/her own phantasies by recognizing the objectivity and resistance of the external world and adapting himself/herself to it (Horkheimer, 1998). The word *virtual* has been combined with the word *reality* and has created a new concept in the form of “virtual reality”. Some definitions have been made in the literature for the concept of the virtual reality. For example, Stone has defined virtual reality as a multimedia environment developed to increase communication between the human and the machine and appealing to human emotions. Oppenheim has defined virtual reality as the experience of a technology that is not only limited to the visual and the auditory communication, but also tries to increase the human-

machine interaction through feeling (Kurbanoglu, 1996). Guttentag has described virtual reality as the experience of a computer-generated three-dimensional environment that can result in a real time simulation of the participant's five senses, and that the participant can navigate and possibly interact with (Guttentag, 2010). On the other hand, Walser has stated that virtual reality is an emerging paradigm that redefines the relationship between the humans and the computers. According to Walser, this paradigm shows people that there are fictional spaces that provide virtual experiences in the three-dimensional worlds and offers them new experiences in these spaces. These fictional spaces are created with a combination of the visual, auditory and motion effects, where the virtual reality participant can see, hear and touch the images created in these spaces. These effects created in the fictional worlds make the participant believe in the reality of the images here (Williams & Hobson, 1995). Virtual reality offers participants a three-dimensional world where they can see, hear, change, interact with the virtual environment and feel the power fed by the background using computers and multimedia equipment such as video, audio and touch devices (Xiong et al., 2006). It includes hardware that allows participants to navigate this world, immerse themselves in the objects in these environments and interact with these objects (Greenleaf, 1996). This hardware is an advanced human-computer hardware that simulates a real environment, and the participants can act in the virtual world thanks to this hardware (Zheng, 1998). Therefore, it is understood that a participant experiencing virtual reality believes that the virtual images created in the fictional worlds are real and experiences "as if they were real" in his/her mind. In the virtual reality, the indicators between "representation" and "reality" gain importance and there are trips in the hyperreality in the world of these indicators. Therefore, the copy represents the real and the imitation is perceived as "real" in this world. Thus, physical reality ceases to be necessary (Pretes, 1995; Urry, 2009) and the border between the real and imaginary disappears (Akman, 2017a).

Regarding the subject, Milgram and Kishino (1994) have developed a model that they call "virtually continuum" by classifying the relationships between reality and virtuality. According to this model, the world in which the user interacts is placed on a continuum, developing on the amount of computer generated. While the real world is at one end of this continuum, the virtual world completely computerized is at the other end. As we move from the real world to the virtual world, the amount of virtual images increases and the connection with reality weakens (Billinghurst et al., 2001; Öztürk Göçmen, 2018). This continuum takes places in four stages. The first stage represents the real world, the second stage represents augmented reality, the third stage represents augmented virtuality, and the fourth stage represents virtual reality (Öngider, 2019). The real world refers to the world perceived by the naked eye without using any hardware

(Cankül et al., 2018). Augmented reality provides real-time interaction by combining real and virtual (Azuma, 1997). In augmented reality, the real environment is more dominant than the virtual environment, and the user perceives the virtual objects as integrated into the real world in the augmented reality environment (Öztürk Göçmen, 2018). Augmented virtuality refers to the transfer of the virtual world with real world artifacts, that is, the addition of real world components into the virtual world (Kılıç, 2017). There are no real objects in virtual reality, but virtual indicators represent real objects (Iriqat, 2020). In this context, it is possible to explain virtual reality with "reflection theory". Human senses form the basis of reflection theory. Horkheimer thinks that the reflection theory is the acceptance of what is given in sensory experience as real (Horkheimer, 1998). According to this, this is possible by creating a three-dimensional fictional environment in which the participant can interact with the virtual environment by using computers and various technological equipment (Xiong et al., 2006). With the creation of such an environment, the user is provided to immerse in the fictional world created on the computer, and interact with the artificial objects in this world (Greenleaf, 1996). Thus, the participant can act in the virtual world, and see this world from different angles (Zheng, 1998). This experience is created by the "virtual environment model", "software" and "hardware" components that make up the virtual reality. The virtual environment model creates the attributes, properties and interactions between the environment and the objects that make up the environment. The software defines the boundaries and nature of the interaction. The hardware determines the form of the relationship between the participant and the environment. The quality of creation and presentation of the fictional space created in the virtual environment depends on the software used in this process to allow this and the hardware owned to support this software (Kayapa, 2010; Kuruüzümcü, 2007). With the combination of these components, a degree of "reality" is created in the virtual experience and the higher the quality of each component the more realistic this immersion event in the virtual world becomes. With this perception of the reality created in the human mind, the participant is "deceived" and "believed" that this fictional world is real with this experience (Williams & Hobson, 1995).

The virtual reality experience can be explained with some theories and approaches in the literature (Güncan, 2021a). Accordingly, simulation theory is first mentioned for the virtual reality. This theory is used to explain the phenomenon that creates an artificial reality environment in people's minds and perceptions (Shanton & Goldman, 2010) by eliminating the difference between the real and the fake (Öz, 2009), and enabling them to believe in this artificial reality (Kılıç, 2017). On the other hand, immersion requires being "in" a virtual experience (Hudson et al., 2019), and enables the participant to get rid of the real world perception and to experience emotions

related to the virtual reality experience. The perception of presence enables the participant to believe that he/she “exists” in the environment in which he/she is immersed in the virtual world (Mestre, 2006), and explains the experience of “being there” (Bowman & McMahan, 2007). According to Csikszentmihalyi, flow theory refers to the participant’s involvement in an activity to such an extent that he/she cannot think of anything else (Liao, 2006). It is understood that each theory mentioned here deals with the reflections of the virtual reality experience in the mind of the participant. Thanks to the virtual reality, the participant leaves the real world perception and transitions to another world in his/her mind. In this world he/she lives surreal experiences that appeal to the world of dreams. It is thought that these theories used to explain the virtual reality also explain the virtual recreation, which requires experiencing activities related to the virtual reality. Accordingly, it is understood that the virtual recreation is experienced by going through the mental process of the participant, drags him/her into an imaginary world, makes him/her believe in the reality of this world, and gives him/her an imaginary experience with the virtual activities created in this world. The reality created in this world is so real that the participant immerses himself/herself in this reality, believes in it, navigates through the magical world of this reality, and experiences a mental virtual recreation.

#### *Virtual Recreation*

The concept of recreation is derived from the latin word “recreatio”, which means “recovery of health, renewal, refreshment” (Çakır, 2017). In English, the word “recreation”, which has the same meaning, is used for this concept (Sağcan, 1986), and there are various definitions for this concept in the literature. For example, Kraus, in his definition in 1966, defined recreation as activities or experiences that are voluntarily chosen by the participant in order to obtain direct satisfaction or to realize some personal or social values through recreation, generally entertaining and enjoyable, performed in leisure time (Ardahan et al., 2016). In his 1986 definition, Sağcan stated that recreation is the activities that people voluntarily participate in their leisure time with the impulses of entertainment and satisfaction (Sağcan, 1986). From this, it is understood that recreation is related to the activities that people participate in their leisure time outside of working hours and that they should experience these activities freely and voluntarily. Accordingly, activities such as reading a book, watching TV, going to an aquapark and having a hobby garden can be given as examples of recreation (Çakır, 2017).

In the literature, flow theory is used to explain leisure and recreation behavior (Munusturlar et al., 2017). Flow theory is a theory developed by Csikszentmihalyi and is defined as a situation in which people are so intensely involved in an activity that they consider nothing else important. According to the flow theory, the experience itself is so enjoyable that the individual incurs a great cost for this

experience (Liao, 2006), gets lost in this experience and doesn’t think about anything other than the experience (Akyol & Aksatan, 2013). In the flow experience, individuals enter an optimal state of thinking and act when they concentrate. While they are in the flow, they participate in the activity intensely and immerse themselves in the activity they are doing (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988). There are five basic elements in the flow experience: clarity, centering, choice, commitment and challenge. These elements are necessary to create flow and meaning in one’s experience. Creating meaning involves bringing order to the mind’s content by integrating the individual’s actions into a unified flow experience. People who find their lives meaningful often have a purpose that is compelling enough to take all their energy and add meaning to their lives. This is called “reaching the goal”. However, it is not enough to find a goal, it is necessary to overcome its difficulties. It is also called “stability”. When an important goal is pursued with determination and one’s various activities fit into a unified flow experience, the result is “harmony”. In the flow theory, goal, stability and harmony unite and give meaning to the experience of activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

In the postmodern era, digital culture has dominated people’s leisure time (Silk et al., 2016; Valtchanov & Parry, 2017) and developing technology has transformed leisure activities (Lopez-Sintas et al., 2017). This has led to some changes in the recreation phenomenon, as in many areas (Aylan & Aylan, 2020). Accordingly, in today’s world, people are frequently exposed to electronic environments and digital applications, and they have started to spend their leisure time using electronic devices such as game consoles, virtual reality glasses, computers, tablets and mobile phones in their daily lives at home or outside the home (Nimrod & Adoni, 2012). In this context, many activities such as electronic sports activities, virtual tours, digital games and watching movies on the internet have become a form of leisure for people (Akoğlan Kozak & Özkeroğlu, 2018). This change in the ways of making use of leisure time has led to the transfer of many recreational activities performed in physical areas to the electronic environment (Aylan & Aylan, 2020). Accordingly, people have started to spend most of their time with electronic applications that they find more economical and enjoyable (Özkeroğlu & Akyıldız Munusturlar, 2020). These applications have become a part of daily life (Güncan, 2021c) and have revealed the concept of “electronic leisure”. This concept has been used in the literature as “cyber leisure”, “virtual leisure” (Nimrod & Adoni, 2012), “online leisure” (Green & Adam, 2009) and “digital leisure” (Bae, 2013; Chiribuca & Teodorescu, 2020; Grimley, 2012; Lehman, 2020; Lopez-Sintas et al., 2017; Rangaswamy & Arora, 2016; Redhead, 2016; Schultz & McKeown, 2018; Sharaievska & Hodge, 2018; Silk et al., 2016; Tham, 2019; Valtchanov & Parry, 2017; Wood et al., 2019). It is seen that the concept of

“metaleisure” (Bayram, 2022) has also entered the literature regarding the subject.

The concept of virtual recreation has emerged as individuals participate in and experience electronic leisure activities in their leisure time (Günca, 2021b). It is seen that the terms “online recreation” (Whitty & McLaughlin, 2007) and “digital recreation” (Aylan & Aylan, 2020) are also used for this concept in the literature. The concept of virtual recreation is a new subject that has been reflected in the literature in recent years and studies have been started on this subject. When the literature is examined, it is seen that there are several studies describing virtual recreation. In this regard, the study of Akoğlan Kozak and Özkeroğlu (2018) draws attention. In the study, the authors discussed whether today’s virtual world activities should be evaluated in terms of tourism or recreation. At the end of the study, they concluded that these activities should be considered in the context of the virtual recreation. The authors also tried a definition of virtual recreation. Accordingly, the authors defined virtual recreation as all of the experiences that can be realized voluntarily and without the obligation to pay a fee, without the dependence of time and place, providing extraordinary experiences by creating a real feeling in people. On the other hand, it is seen that another study investigating the types of virtual recreation is reflected in the literature and the authors introduced a new definition to the concept of virtual recreation in the study. So the authors stated that virtual recreation is the activities that people participate the activities such as doing sports, competition, traveling or sightseeing, reading books, playing games and artistic activities with technologic tools such as computers, smartphones, VR-BOX 3D glasses, game consoles and joysticks for various purposes such as making use of free time, resting, rejuvenating physically and mentally and spending quality time in the virtual environments or on platforms where real environments and virtual applications are combined (Aylan & Aylan, 2020). According to these definitions, virtual recreation affects the participants mentally thanks to the activities created in fictional spaces, takes them away from the real world for a certain period of time and draws them into a virtual experience. Therefore, it is understood that the reality phenomenon has been changed in the virtual recreation activities and the participants experience the virtual reality and a surreal activity in their minds thanks to these activities.

Özkeroğlu and Akyıldız Munusturlar (2020) have indicated the diversity of virtual recreation applications and gathered these applications under three categories. The authors have made these categories in the form of online electronic leisure applications, digital games and virtual reality applications. According to this categorization, all activities such as online shopping, reading books online, sending e-mail, watching movies online, downloading music and using social networks are shown as examples of online electronic leisure activities. In the category of digital games, there are target shooting games, arcade games,

action/adventure games, racing games, social media games, simulation games and computer games, and console games such as Playstation, Nintendo Wii and Xbox Kinect. Virtual reality applications consist of wearable smart devices, head mounted display systems, virtual reality glasses, virtual reality applications that can be downloaded from PlayStore and AppStore, Cardboard glasses developed by Google, virtual reality realized with state-of-the-art devices such as Jump camera setup and various digital games and virtual activities created in virtual environments.

From the explanations made so far regarding the virtual recreation, it is understood that the virtual recreation has some unique features because it requires virtual reality experience and provides surreal experiences to the participants. Günca’s study on this subject draws attention. In her study, Günca (2021b) tried to determine what the basic elements that make up the virtual recreation and the unique features of this concept are. At the end of her study, the author revealed that virtual recreation has some elements such synchronous and asynchronous participation, temporal and spatial infinity, virtual reality experience, internet interaction and invisibility. Depending on these factors, she stated that virtual recreation provides the participant with a virtual reality experience, allows simultaneous in the virtual activities, and is carried out independently of the perception of time and space. On the other hand, she also stated that virtual recreation allows the participant to interact with the others through electronic media and provides an invisibility to the participant while doing this. From this, it is understood that virtual recreation has some features related to the virtual reality technology. In addition, thanks to these features, it is seen that the participant has an extraordinary experience by creating a perception that is different from the real world, but as if it were real.

### *Magical Realism*

The concept of the magical realism was first used in 1798 by the German romantic poet and philosopher Novalis (Warnes, 2005) by writing about the “magical idealist” and the “magical realist” in the philosophy (Asayesh & Arargüç, 2017). This concept was later seen in the title of the German art critic Franz Roh’s work *Magischer Realismus*, in which he analyzed the history of art, in 1925 (Reeds, 2006; Zamora, 2002), and re-emerged with this work (Warnes, 2005). Roh used this concept to show the arrival of post-expressionist German aesthetics in the visual arts (De La Campa, 1999). The most important representative of the concept of the magical realism in the field of the literature was the Italian writer and critic Massimo Bontempelli. Bontempelli, in his journal published in 1926, suggested a style of expression, which found miracles in the middle of ordinary and daily life, and called this style of expression “magical realism” (Warnes, 2005). However, the first person to name this concept was Cuban novelist Alejo Carpentier (Toyman, 2006). In his

article published in 1955, Carpentier used the concept of “marvelous reality” for the first time, and tried to distinguish this concept clearly from the surrealist meaning (De La Campa, 1999). According to Carpentier, the magical realism is not only a literary fabrication, but is also used to express a concept that represents the belief of people in Latin America in supernatural, miracles and ghosts even today (Hart, 2004). So the magical realism has typically been seen as the drive to create a fictional world that can somehow compete with the “insatiable fount of creation”, which is the real history of Latin America (Conniff, 1990). This concept has been used to describe the works of authors such as Jorge Luis in Argentina, Gabriel Garcia Marquez in Colombia, Isabel Allende in Chile, Günter Grass in Germany, Italo Calvino in Italy and John Fowles in England (Mouileno, 2006). Today, in the wide geography of the world literature, many writers such as Paul Auster, Haruki Murakami, Juan Rulfo and Salman Rushdie continue to use the magical realist narrative style in their works (Başer Çoban, 2011). Therefore, it is understood that the magical realism is a concept belonging to the postmodern period and represents a trend that has been seen especially in the field of the painting and the literature until today.

The concept of the magical realism is used with names such as “magical realism”, “magic realism” and “marvelous realism” in the literature. It is seen that the word magic, which gives the meaning of this concept, expresses the unknown and the mysterious. On the other hand, the word realism in the concept is used to express the existing and the usual. When these two words are combined, they form the concept of the magical realism, which has a more holistic and new meaning (Kalemci, 2021; Tanrıtanır & Çalışkan, 2017). There are some definition studies developed for this new concept in the literature. For example, Angel Flores has argued that the magical realism consists of the fusion of the real and the fantastic. A. Valbuena Briones has claimed that the magical realism is a universal phenomenon that presupposes a vision of the reality in which fantasy and myth world coexist with the real world (Merrel, 1975). In addition, the magical realism has been basically seen as a narrative style that naturalized the supernatural. In other words, the magical realism has been expressed as a narrative style in which the real and the fantastic, the natural and the supernatural are consistently represented (Warnes, 2005). Therefore, the magical realism states that miracles and extraordinary events are perceived as ordinary events. It also states that people are endowed with imaginary features beyond the valid laws of the real world. Elements with this feature show situations, events or heroes that are impossible to happen in life as if they were normal in the real life, and present everything naturally by combining the reality and the fantasy. Everything that takes place in this fictional world is accepted as a habitual life by the characters in this world. No matter how extraordinary the events taking place here are, this situation is presented as normal. It is this feature

that makes fictional worlds magical (Toyman, 2006). For this reason, it is accepted that the most important feature of the magical realism is the meeting of the real and the unreal in a certain balance and harmony (Türkmenoğlu, 2015). Accordingly, real and unreal elements mix, and can be located on the same place (Ergeç, 2020). Thus, the reader believes that these magical elements in the magical realism actually have no problems with the real thing and that they are “real” (Akman, 2017b). Thus, illogical and unbelievable events in the magical realism are depicted without questioning their accuracy and without any explanation, and the events described in the text are accepted as they are (Onay, 2011). From this, it is understood that the magical realism combines the real and the unreal, creates a harmonious fictional world, and makes him/her believe in the reality of this fictional world by creating the perception of the real in the reader.

The explanations made so far regarding the concept of the magical realism and the definition of this concept show that the magical realism has some features. It is also seen that some features related to this concept are stated in the literature. For example, the famous critic Ronald Walter has stated that the first condition of the magical realism is to combine the real with the surreal, and put the real into a magical form (Emir & Diler, 2011). According to this, it is understood that the magical element in the literary texts is described in amazement as if the ordinary object were seen for the first time and that it is the presentation of the unreal as if it were a normal event (Kekeç, 2011). Although ghosts, disappearances and surreal scenes are included, magic is not encountered in this narrative style. On the other hand, the existing realism universe should have some surreal elements of the scene of the surreal events. These surreal elements or events should be placed in the text so well that the reader should see it not as an unreality but as a magical and natural part of the reality (Başer Çoban, 2011). Therefore, these elements are perceived as a part of the reality although the universe in the magical realism has some surreal elements. That is, the relationship of unreal elements with the reality is not questioned and the author approaches the events in a way that does not harm the harmonious integrity of the real and the unreal (Bars, 2012). This indicates the silence of the author, which is another important feature of the magical realism. According to this feature, the narrator only tells the events and the actions of the characters, doesn't add his/her own interpretation to the event, and doesn't make any explanation. Otherwise, the reader will begin to question the surreal and other rules of the magical realism will be violated (Emir & Diler, 2011). Therefore, the events and the heroes described in the text should not make the reader question the relationship surrealism and reality and the reader shouldn't doubt the reality of the event narrated by reading both the realistic and the magical elements in the text at a common truth level. Cuddon and Preston have stated that another of the main features of the magical realism is the shifts in time, the existence of intertwined



stories, fairy-tale events and surrealistic depictions (Başer Çoban, 2011). So there is no real time perception normally known in the magical realism. In other words, time in the magical realism isn't linear and chronological and there is a timeless fluidity. That is, there are going back, going forward and getting lost in time in the magical realism (Önder, 2013). All these explanations about the magical realism show that this concept has its own features. From this, it is understood that the magical realism is a concept that mostly incorporates unreal events into the reality without drawing attention to their unreality. In addition, it is seen that this concept hosts a fictional place and fictional events, and the events in this fictional space create a different perception of time independent of the real time perception.

### **3. Related Studies**

When the literature on the magical realism is examined, it is seen that the studies on this concept have been carried out in the context of defining magical realism, investigating its past from the painting to the literature, and examining the magical realism texts so far (Ulusoy Aranyosi, 2011). A very limited number of studies have been found in the literature regarding the subject of this study. The first of these studies was Kelley's doctoral thesis in 1992. In this study, the author investigated the factors that affect the viewer's perception of what constitutes reality, and focused on the closeness between the virtual reality and the magical realism (Kelley, 1992). The magical realism was investigated in Polish films in another study published in 2010 (Klonowska, 2010). In another study, the authors tried to explore whether augmented reality could improve young people's interaction with archives and literature. For this, they used augmented reality technology and magical realism writings in the study (Reynolds et al., 2020). These studies show that the magical realism can be used to explain the experience of augmented reality and virtual reality applications. Since the phenomenon of the virtual recreation is based on the virtual reality technology and requires the virtual reality to be experienced, it is thought that this phenomenon can be explained in the context of the magical realism approach. However, when looked at the literature, it is noteworthy that there is no study that discusses and evaluates the subject of the virtual recreation in the context of the magical realism. The fact that such a subject hasn't yet been examined is seen as an important gap in the relevant literature. So this study is prepared to fill this gap identified in the literature. It is aimed to bring the magical realism approach to the recreation literature with this study. Thus, the magical realism approach will be used to explain the imaginary effect of the fictional worlds created in the virtual recreation applications and the surreal experiences in these worlds.

## **4. Methodology**

### *Purpose, Scope and Importance of The Study*

In the study, the question of "can the magical realism approach be used to explain the mental effect of the surreal experiences in the fictional world of the virtual recreation on the participant?" has been asked, and seeking an answer to this question has been adopted as the aim of this study. The study prepared for this purpose has been limited to the concepts of the virtual recreation and the magical realism, and has been carried out within the framework of these two concepts. The study is considered important in terms of explaining the effect of the virtual recreation applications on the participant in the context of the magical realism approach. In addition, the study is also considered important in terms of bringing the magical realism approach used in the fields of painting and literature to the recreation literature.

Marx clearly defined the conditions that allow a relationship to be established between theory and practice. According to this, it is not enough for the thought to strive for self-realization, and the reality has to strive towards the thought. When consciousness is in such a relationships with reality, it is possible to combine theory and practice (Horkheimer, 1998). Therefore, in this study, virtual reality applications are tried to be explained in the context of magical reality and it is thought that this study will contribute to the literature in terms of theory. With the connection to be established between virtual recreation and the concept of magical reality, magical realistic elements in virtual recreation applications will be determined. Thus, it will be possible to focus on issues such as to what extent magical realistic elements will be included in new applications on virtual recreation and to what extent these elements can be expanded.

### *Data Collection*

A conceptual point of the view has been adopted, and the study has been carried out in line with this point of the view in the study. The data necessary for the conduct of the research have been obtained through literature review, so the needed sources have been reached by reviewing the literature. The literature review is the synthesis of the findings and results of the studies on a particular subject (Snyder, 2019), and aims to summarize the latest situation on the subject (Rowley & Slack, 2004). Thus, it provides the researcher with the opportunity to make inferences from the previous studies about the researched subject according to the chronological order (Akoğlan Kozak & Özkeroğlu, 2020). Thanks to these advantages that it provides to the researcher, the literature review constitutes one of the most widely used data collection techniques in research design in the field of the social sciences (Neuman, 2016). In this context, the advantages of this technique for the researcher have been taken into consideration while

creating the research design of this study. Therefore, the literature review has been used as the data collection technique and secondary sources have been used for this in the study. The literature on the conceptual framework was reviewed by the researcher herself between April 1 and September 15, 2021. Secondary sources, both national and international, was included in the review and the reviewing was carried out through the electronic sources on the internet and the printed sources. The reviewing process has continued until an adequate background was provided for the research, and has been terminated when the obtained data were deemed sufficient.

### Data Analysis

After the data collection process was completed, the data analysis process has been started. The analyzes have been made in the context of the concepts of “the virtual recreation” and “the magical realism”, which are explained in detail in the conceptual framework of the study. The analyzes have been carried out by following a number of stages. In the first stage, the concept of the virtual recreation has been evaluated, and the virtual reality experience forms the basis for virtual recreation applications has been explained. In the second stage, the concept of the magical realism has been discussed and the basic features of this concept have been tried to be determined based on the relevant literature. In the last stage, the findings obtained from these evaluations have been evaluated with a holistic perspective. At the end of this evaluation, the mental effect of the virtual recreation experiences on the participant has been tried to be explained in the context of the magical realism approach. In this way, some inferences have been made about the surreal experiences in the virtual recreation applications.

### 5. Findings

After the concepts given in the study were analyzed from a conceptual point of the view, some findings related to these concepts have been obtained and these findings have been included under this title. The findings have been classified based on the explanations given about the concept of the virtual recreation and the magical realism approach in the study. So this classification has been made in two stages as firstly findings related to the concept of the virtual recreation and secondly findings related to the magical realism approach.

In the first stage, the findings obtained from the evaluations related to the concept of the virtual recreation are included. As a result of the evaluations, it has been found that the concept of the virtual recreation has some unique features. Accordingly, the virtual recreation allows the participant in the virtual activity synchronously and asynchronously and to interact with other participants through electronic media, and provides the invisibility. In addition, it is among the findings that the virtual recreation experience is realized independently from the perception of time and space. However, it has been seen that the most prominent finding

regarding the features of the virtual recreation is that the virtual recreation applications provide a “virtual reality experience” to the participant (Güncan, 2021b). When these features of the virtual recreation are examined, it is understood that all of these features are based on the virtual reality technology. So, at this point, the features of the virtual reality experience also gain importance. Accordingly, it is found that the virtual reality is realized in fictional spaces created in three-dimensional worlds, and that the participant has surreal experiences in these fictional spaces. One of the findings is that the images created in these fictional spaces make the participant believe in the “reality” of the experience. Thus, the participant experiences the events in his/her mind as if they were real (Williams & Hobson, 1995). These findings show that the participant has an experience beyond the reality in functional worlds with the virtual recreation. It is also obtained from here that the participant mentally performed this experience, and believed in the reality of this experience.

In the second stage of the findings, the findings obtained from the evaluation of the magical realism approach are presented. Evaluations of this approach has revealed that there are some features that form the basis for the magical realism. For example, it has been found that the magical realism is created in the fictional worlds that appeal to the minds (Emir & Diler, 2011), makes the person perceive the surreal as real (Warnes, 2005), and makes him/her believe in the “reality” of the unreal elements in these worlds (Akman, 2017b). It is also among the other findings that the fictional world should have some surreal and fantastic elements, but the elements that would completely contradict reality are not included in the magical realism (Başer Çoban, 2011). On the other hand, another finding at the end of the study is that the magical realism creates a fluid time perception independent of the real time perception (Önder, 2013). These findings regarding the magical realism approach reveal that this approach hosts surreal events created in the fictional worlds, and creates a perception of the reality for these fictional events in the people’s minds. Accordingly, it is also learned that the magical realism presents unreal elements to individuals as if they were real, and makes them believe in the reality of these elements.

### 6. Discussion and Conclusion

Both the concept of the virtual recreation and the magical realism approach have been subjected to conceptual analysis in this study, in which the virtual recreation is discussed in the context of the magical realism. While analyzing the data, an analytical approach has been adopted in order to reach the correct findings and the analysis of the data has been carried out by following some stages. The first of these stages has been the evaluation of the concept of the virtual recreation, and the determination of the basic features of this concept. In the second stage, the magical realism approach has been conceptually examined and the elements formed the basis of this

approach have been determined. As a result of these evaluations, some findings regarding these two concepts have been reached. In the next stage, the findings obtained from the evaluation of these two concepts have been examined comparatively. With this evaluation, the concept of the virtual recreation has been interpreted in the context of the magical realism approach and some inferences have been made for the magical realistic world of the virtual recreation.

From the explanation given in the framework of the study, it has been learned that the virtual recreation activities are created in the electronic environments by simulating the real world objects and/or events, and provide a virtual reality experience to the participant. It has been seen that the magical realism approach first emerged in the field of philosophy, and then began to be used in the fields of painting and literature in the form of examining the surreal elements revealed in painting and literary works. As a result of the evaluations, it has been found that the virtual recreation takes the participant mentally to the “fictional worlds” created in three-dimensional digital environments. It has also been learned that the virtual recreation enables the participant to be involved in “surreal” activities in these fictional worlds, gives him/her “as if it were real” an activity experience in his/her mind, and makes him/her “believe” in the reality of these activities. It has been found that the magical realism is created in the “fictional worlds”, hosts “surreal” events in these worlds, creates the perception of “reality” in one’s mind, and “convinces” him/her to believe in the reality of these events, as well. In addition, it is another remarkable finding that the virtual recreation experience is carried out independently of real time perception, and that the participant experiences the activity without being limited to a certain time. In the same way, it is learned that the magical realism creates a different perception of time from the real time perception, and makes the person experience the events in the fictional world in a time period other than real time. However, another feature that should be emphasized in relation to the subject of the magical realism is the fact that fantastic elements are included in the magical realism and an event has a magical feature thanks to these fantastic elements. Therefore, it is understood that one of the main features that makes an event magically realistic is that it should be enriched with the fantastic elements in the event.

When the concept of the virtual recreation and the magical realism approach are evaluated together, it is seen that both the concept and the approach have common features. It is revealed that these common features are “fictional worlds, surreal events, perception of reality, credibility of events and independence from real time perception”. From this, it is concluded that the virtual recreation experience has the same features as the magical realism elements. Based on this result, it is thought that it is possible to evaluate the virtual recreation in the context of the magical realism approach. Although the magical realism approach has taken its place in the fields of painting and literature, it

is assumed that the use of this approach will not be limited to these fields, and will be adopted by different fields. Some studies on the virtual reality and the augmented reality in the literature (Kelley, 1992; Klonowska, 2010; Reynolds et al., 2020) also support this assumption. As a result of the study, which has been prepared based on this assumption, it is argued that the magical realism approach is compatible with the structure of the virtual recreation, and that this approach can be used to explain the virtual recreation experiences. However, while making such an argument, the fact that there are fantastic elements in the magical realism should not be ignored. Thus, in order to explain the virtual recreation experience in the context of the magical realism approach, it is necessary to search for the fantastic elements in this experience, and to determine what the fantastic elements that make up this experience are. It is thought that these elements will add a magical feature to the virtual recreation experience and thus it will be possible to explain this experience in the context of the magical realism approach. Movies like Avatar and Lord of the Rings, TV series like Game of Thrones, digital games of these movies and TV series, and digital games like World of Warcraft can be given as examples of the virtual recreation activities that contain magical realism elements. Fantastic characters such as giants, dwarves, elves, creatures, fire-breathing dragons and the walking dead are featured, and a world where these characters come to life and which has surreal elements is shown in these movies, series and games. According to the result obtained from the study, these and similar applications are experienced “independent of real time perception” in “fictional worlds” created in electronic environments, and host “surreal” events. The surreal events in these worlds contain “fantastic elements”. When these activities enriched with fantastic elements are experienced, the participant perceives the surreal events in these activities as “real”, “believes” in their reality and does not question this reality. The fantastic elements add a “magical” feature to this activity. Thus, the participant has a virtual recreation experience that contains fantastic elements, yet is in harmony with the real world perception and does not contradict the existing perception of the reality in his/her mind in a fictional world created in the electronic media. Such an experience opens the doors to the magical realistic world of the virtual recreation for the participant. At this point, there is an answer to the research question posed at the beginning of the study. Accordingly, it is concluded that “it is possible to benefit from the magical realism approach in explaining the surreal experiences have in the virtual recreation activities.”

It has been seen that there are studies that focus on the affinity between virtual reality and magical realism (Kelley, 1992), examine magical realism in the context of film (Klonowska, 2010), and examine augmented reality and magical realism writings (Reynolds et al., 2020). These studies have shown that magical realism can be used to describe the experience of augmented reality and virtual

reality applications. Since virtual recreation is also based on virtual reality technology and requires virtual reality to be experienced, the idea that virtual recreation can be explained in the context of magical realism has been put forward in this study. However, when the relevant literature is examined, it is noted that there is no study that provides an explanation for virtual recreation in the context of magical realism. Therefore, this study differs from the existing literature in this respect and is original in terms of bringing the magical realism approach to the recreation literature. Accordingly, at the end of the study, it is suggested to use the magical realism approach to explain the imaginary effect of virtual recreation applications created with fantastic elements and the surreal experiences in these worlds. If this suggestion is taken into account in future studies on virtual recreation and future studies are carried out in this direction, it is expected that the concept of magical realism will be brought to the recreation literature.

### References

- Akkaya, D. H., & Usman, E. (2012). Temalı Otel: Yok-mekanla Var Edilmeye Çalışılan 'Kurmaca Mekan'. *Tasarım + Kuram Dergisi*, 11-12, 67-80.
- Akman, İ. (2017a). Postmodern Dönemde Gerçekliğin Yitimi ve Bilge Karasu'nun Eserleri. *International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 12(22), 27-42.
- Akman, İ. (2017b). Halk Anlatıları, Halk İnanışları, Toplumsal Ritüeller ve Büyülü Gerçekçilik Ekseninde Borçlu (Deynar) Romanı. *Uluslararası Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 10(51), 5-10.
- Akoğlan Kozak, M., & Özkeroğlu, Ö. (2018). Turizm ve Rekreasyon Kavramları: Sanal Bakış ile Değerlendirme, II. Uluslararası Sürdürülebilir Turizm Kongresi, Gümüşhane, Turkey, 399-409.
- Akoğlan Kozak, M., & Özkeroğlu, Ö. (2020). Çocuk Oyunlarının Çocuk Rekreasyonu Bağlamında Değerlendirilmesi, World Children Conference, Ankara, Turkey, 314-322.
- Aktaş Polat, S. (2015). Üstgerçeklik ve Turizmin Sonu. *CBÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 13(1), 120-137.
- Akyol, B., & Aksatan, M. (2013). Akış Teorisinin Müze Ziyaretlerine Uygulanabilirliğine Dair Kavramsal Bir Model ve Araştırma Önerileri. *Pazarlama ve Pazarlama Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 12(Temmuz), 69-90.
- Ardahan, F., Turgut, T., & Kaplan Kalkan, A. (2016). Serbest Zaman ve Rekreasyon, F. Ardahan (Ed.). In *Her Yönüyle Rekreasyon* (pp. 1-118). Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Asayesh, M. E., & Arargüç, M. F. (2017). Magical Realism and Its European Essence. *Journal of History Culture and Art Research*, 6(2), 25-35.
- Atar, A. (2019). Dijital Dönüşüm ve Turizme Etkileri, M. Sezgin, S. Özdemir Akgül ve A. Atar (Ed.). In *Turizm 4.0 Dijital Dönüşüm* (pp. 99-114). Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Aylan, F. K., & Aylan, S. (2020). Sanal Gerçeklik ve Artırılmış Gerçeklik Uygulamaalarının Rekreatif Faaliyetlere Yansımaları: Dijital Rekreasyon. *Türk Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 4(3), 2746-2760.
- Aytaç, Ö. (2004). Kapitalizm ve Hegemonya İlişkileri Bağlamında Boş Zaman, C.Ü. *Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 28(2), 115-138.
- Azuma, R. T. (1997). A Survey of Augmented Reality. *Presence: Teleoperators and Virtual Environments*, 6(4), 355-385.
- Bae, Y. (2013). Chaotic Phenomena in Addiction Model for Digital Leisure. *International Journal of Fuzzy Logic and Intelligent Systems*, 19(1), 7-16.
- Bars, M. E. (2012). Ferhat ile Şirin Hikayesi'nde Büyülü Gerçekçilik. *Turkish Studies International Periodical For The Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 7/4(Fall), 995-1008.
- Başer Çoban, S. (2011). Dede Korkut Kitabı ve Büyülü Gerçekçilik. *Milli Folklor Dergisi*, 23(91), 195-203.
- Baudrillard, J. (2011). *Simülakrlar ve Simülasyon* (3rd Edition) (Trans. O. Adanır). Ankara: Doğu Batı Yayınları.
- Bayram, A. (2022). Metaleisure: Leisure Time Habits to be Changed with Metaverse. *Journal of Metaverse*, 2(1), 1-7.
- Billinghurst, M., Kato, H., & Poupyrev, I. (2001). MagicBook: Transitioning Between Reality and Virtuality. In *CHI'01 Extended Abstracts on Human Factors in Computing Systems* (pp. 25-26). ACM.
- Bowman, D. A., & McMahan, R. P. (2007). Virtual Reality: How Much Immersion is Enough? *IEEE Computer Society*, July(2007), 36-43.
- Brynjolfsson, E., & Hitt, L. M. (2000). Beyond Computation: Information Technology, Organizational Transformation and Business Performance. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 14(4), 23-48.
- Cankül, D., Doğan, A., & Sönmez, B. (2018). Yiyecek-İçecek İşletmelerinde İnovasyon ve Artırılmış Gerçeklik Uygulamaları. *İşletme Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 10(3), 576-591.
- Chiribuca, D., & Teodorescu, A. (2020). Digital Leisure in Later Life: Facebook Use among Romanian Citizens. *Revista de Cercetare si Interventie Sociala*, 69, 156-175.
- Conniff, B. (1990). The Dark Side of Magical Realism: Science, Oppression, and Apocalypse in One Hundred Years of Slitude. *Modern Fiction Studies*, 36(2), 167-179.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1988). The Flow Experience and Its Significance for Human Psychology. M. Csikszentmihalyi (Ed.). In *Optimal Experience: Psychological Studies of Flow in Consciousness* (pp. 15-35). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *FLOW: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*, [https://mktgsensei.com/AMAE/Consumer%20Behavior/flow\\_the\\_psychology\\_of\\_optimal\\_experience.pdf](https://mktgsensei.com/AMAE/Consumer%20Behavior/flow_the_psychology_of_optimal_experience.pdf), [Accessed Date: 23.08.2022].
- Çakır, O. (2017). Boş Zaman ve Boş Zaman Teorileri, M. Akoğlan Kozak (Ed.). In *Rekreasyonel Liderlik ve Turist Rehberliği* (pp. 4-33). Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.

- Çavuşoğlu, M. (2004). Sanal Organizasyonlar ve Elektronik Ticaret. *T.C. Marmara Üniversitesi İ.İ.B.F. Dergisi*, XIX(1), 317-334.
- De La Campa, R. (1999). Magical Realism and World Literature: A Genre for the Times? *Revista Canadiense de Estudios Hispánicos*, 23(2), 205-219.
- Dictionaries of the Turkish Language Institution. (2021). *Genel Türkçe Sözlük*. <https://sozluk.gov.tr/>, [Accessed Date: 16.04.2021].
- Emir, D., & Diler, H. E. (2011). Büyülü Gerçekçilik: Latife Tekin'in Sevgili Arsız Ölüm ve Angela Carter'ın Büyülü Oyuncakçı Dükkanı İsimli Eserlerinin Karşılaştırması. *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 30, 51-62.
- Ergeç, Z. (2020). Hasan Ali Toptaş'ın "Beni Kör Kuyularda" Adlı Romanında Büyülü Gerçekçiliğin İzleri, 7. Uluslararası Kültür ve Medeniyet Kongresi, Şanlıurfa, Turkey, 460-466.
- Fırat, A. F. (1991). *The Consumer in Postmodernity*. <https://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/7141/volumes/v18/NA-18>, [Accessed Date: 04.11.2020].
- Göçoğlu, V. (2020). Kamu Hizmetlerinin Sunumunda Dijital Dönüşüm: Nesnelerin İnterneti Üzerine Bir İnceleme. *MANAS Journal of Social Studies*, 9(1), 615-628.
- Green, E., & Adam, A. (2009). On-Line Leisure Gender, and ICTs in the Home. *Information Communication & Society*, 1(3), 291-312.
- Greenleaf, W. J. (1996). Developing the Tools for Practical VR Applications. *IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology*, 15(2), 23-30.
- Grimley, M. (2012). Digital Leisure-Time Activities, Cognition, Learning Behaviour and Information Literacy: What are Our Children Learning? *E-Learning and Digital Media*, 9(1), 13-28.
- Guttentag, D. A. (2010). Virtual Reality: Applications and Implications for Tourism. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 637-651.
- Günçan, Ö. (2021a). Sanal Gerçeklik Deneyimi İçin Teorik Bir Model Önerisi. *Euroasia Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities*, 8(6), 1-16.
- Günçan, Ö. (2021b). Sanal Rekreasyon Kavramının Özellik ve Temel Unsurlarını Belirlemeye Yönelik Bir Çalışma. *Tourism & Recreation*, 3(1), 66-76.
- Günçan, Ö. (2021c). Elektronik Boş Zaman Uygulamaları "Sanal Rekreasyon" mudur yoksa "Dijital Rekreasyon" mu? *Sosyal, Beşeri ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, 4(2), 163-181.
- Güneş, V. (2016). Postmodern Pazarlama Unsurlarının Sanal Oyunlar Üzerinden Tüketicide Braktığı Etki: Pokemon Go Örneği. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, CİEP Özel Sayısı, 347-358.
- Güzel, M. (2015). Gerçeklik İlkesinin Yitimi: Baudrillard'ın Simülasyon Teorisinin Temel Kavramları. *FLSF (Felsefe ve Sosyal Bilimler) Dergisi*, 19, 65-84.
- Hart, S. M. (2004). Cultural Hybridity, Magical Realism, and the Language of Magic in Paulo Coelho's The Alchemist. *Romance Quarterly*, 51(4), 304-312.
- Horkheimer, M. (1998). *Akıl Tutulması* (Trans. O. Koçak). İstanbul: Metis Yayınları.
- Hudson, S., Matson-Barkat, S., Pallamin, N., & Jegou, G. (2019). With or Without Your? Interaction and Immersion in a Virtual Reality Experience. *Journal of Business Research*, 100(2019), 459-468.
- Iriqat, S. (2020). *Elektronik Devreler İçin Artırılmış Gerçeklik Tabanlı Platform Geliştirilmesi*. (Unpublished Master Dissertation). Bursa: Bursa Uludağ University Institute of Science.
- Kalemci, M. (2021). *Barış Müstecaplıoğlu'nun Gerçekler Kırıldı ve Şamanlar Diyarı Adlı Eserlerinde Büyülü Gerçekçilik*. (Unpublished Master Dissertation). Karabük: Karabük University Institute of Graduate Studies.
- Kayapa, N. (2010). *Gerçek ve Sanal Gerçeklik Ortamları Arasındaki Algısal Farklılıklarda Görselleştirmeye İlişkin Özelliklerin Araştırılması*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). İstanbul: Yıldız Teknik University Institute of Natural and Applied Sciences.
- Kekeç, N. (2011). Karnavaldan Büyülü Gerçekçiliğe: Berci Kristin Çöp Masalları. *Milli Folklor Dergisi*, 23(91), 210-220.
- Kelley, R. T. (1992). *Virtual Realism: Virtual Reality, Magical Realism, and Late Twentieth-Century Technologies of Representation*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Indiana: Indiana University The Department of English.
- Kılıç, N. P. (2017). Artırılmış Gerçeklik Uygulamalarının Halkla İlişkiler Açısından Olanak ve Sınırlılıkları. *İletişim: Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 15(1), 87-118.
- Klonowska, B. (2010). Far Away From The Present: Magical Realism in Polish Film. *Studies in Eastern European Cinema*, 1(2), 183-196.
- Kurbanoğlu, S. S. (1996). Sanal Gerçeklik: Gerçek mi, Değil mi? *Türk Kütüphaneciliği*, 10(1), 21-31.
- Kuruüzümcü, R. (2007). Bir Dijital Ortam ve Sanat Formu Olarak Sanal Gerçeklik. *Sanat Dergisi*, <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/28936>, [Accessed Date: 16.04.2021].
- Lehman, E. T. (2020). "Washing Hands, Reaching Out" – Popular Music, Digital Leisure and Touch during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Leisure Sciences*, Doi: 10.1080/01490400.2020.1774013.
- Liao, L. F. (2006). A Flow Theory Perspective on Learner Motivation and Behavior in Distance Education. *Distance Education*, 27(1), 45-62.
- Lopez-Sintas, J., Francisco, L. R., & Garcia-Alvarez, E. (2017). Home-Based Digital Leisure. *World Leisure Journal*, 59(1), 86-92.
- Merrel, F. (1975). The Ideal World In Search of Its Reference: An Inquiry Into The Underlying Mature of Magical Realism. *Chasqui*, 4(2), 5-17.

- Mestre, D. R. (2006). *Immersion and Presence*, <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.96.1276&rep=rep1&type=pdf>, [Accessed Date: 01.05.2021].
- Milgram, P., & Kishino, F. (1994). A Taxonomy of Mixed Reality Visual Displays. *IEICE Transactions on Information Systems*, E77-D(12), 1-15.
- Mouileno, L. (2006). Magical Realism: "Arme miraculeuse" for the African Novel? *Research in African Literatures*, 37(1), 28-41.
- Munusturlar, S., Kurnaz, B., Yavuz, G., Özcan, Ö., & Karaş, B. (2017). Boş Zaman Davranışını Açıklamaya Işık Tutan Kuramsal Yaklaşımlar. *Ulusal Spor Bilimleri Dergisi*, 1(1), 1-19.
- Neuman, W. L. (2016). *Toplumsal Araştırma Yöntemleri Nitel ve Nicel Yaklaşımlar 2* (Trans. S. Özge) (8th Edition). Ankara: Yayın Odası.
- Nimrod, G., & Adoni, H. (2012). Conceptualizing E-Leisure. *Society and Leisure*, 35(1), 31-56.
- Onat, F., & Aşman Alikılıç, Ö. (2008). Sosyal Ağ Sitelerinin Reklam ve Halkla İlişkiler Ortamları Olarak Değerlendirilmesi. *Journal of Yaşar University*, 3(9), 1111-1143.
- Onay, E. (2011). Gölgesizler'de Masal, Efsane ve Büyülü Gerçekçilik. *Milli Folklor Dergisi*, 23(91), 221-225.
- Oxford Learners Dictionaries. (2021). *Virtual*. <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/virtual?q=virtual>, [Accessed Date: 16.04.2021].
- Önder, Ş. (2013). *Yüzyıllık Yalnızlık Romanından Esinlenerek Yazılan "100" Oyununun Reji Denemesi*. (Unpublished Master Dissertation). İstanbul: Kadir Has University Institute of Social Sciences.
- Öngider, M. U. (2019). *Sanal Gerçeklik Gözlüğü Deneyiminin Seyahat Motivasyonuna ve Satın Alma Davranışına Etkisi*. (Unpublished Master Dissertation). Muğla: Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University Institute of Social Sciences.
- Öz, Ç. (2009). *Simülasyon Kuramının Güncel Sanal Pratiği İçerisinde Çözümlemesi*. (Unpublished Master Dissertation). İstanbul: Marmara Üniversitesi Institute of Fine Arts.
- Özen, A., & Gürel, F. N. (2020). Kamu Denetiminde Dijital Dönüşüm: Dijital İki Yöntemi. *İzmir Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(1), 16-23.
- Özkeroğlu, Ö., & Akyıldız Munusturlar, M. (2020). Elektronik Boş Zaman, M. Akyıldız Munusturlar (Ed.). In *Boş Zamanda Yeni Yönelimler* (pp. 1-30). Ankara: Gazi Kitabevi.
- Öztürk Göçmen, P. (2018). Artırılmış Gerçeklik Uygulamaları ile Yeni Medya Reklam Tasarımı. *Sanat ve Tasarım Dergisi*, Aralık, 175-191.
- Pretes, M. (1995). Postmodern Tourism: The Santa Claus Industry. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 1-15.
- Rangaswamy, N., & Arora, P. (2016). The Mobile Internet in the Wild and Every Day: Digital Leisure in the Slum of Urban India. *International Journal of Cultural Studies*, 19(6), 611-626.
- Redhead, S. (2016). Afterword: A New Digital Leisure Studies for Theoretical Times. *Leisure Studies*, 35(6), 827-834.
- Reeds, K. (2006). Magical Realism: A Problem of Definition. *Neophilologus*, 90, 175-196.
- Reynolds, K., Schofield, T., & Trujillo-Pisanty, D. (2020). Children's Magical Realism for New Spatial Interactions: Augmented Reality and the David Almond Archives. *Children's Literature in Education*, 51, 502-518.
- Rowley, J., & Slack, F. (2004). Conducting a Literature Review. *Management Research News*, 27(6), 31-39.
- Sağcan, M. (1986). *Rekreasyon ve Turizm*. İzmir: Cumhuriyet Basımevi.
- Schultz, C. S., & McKeown, K. L. (2018). Introduction to the Special Issue: Toward "Digital Leisure Studies". *Leisure Studies*, 40(4), 223-238.
- Shanton, K., & Goldman, A. (2010). Simulation Theory. *John Wiley & Sons*, 1(July/August), 527-538.
- Sharaievska, I., & Hodge, C. J. (2018). "Hey Dad, I Just Wanna Say Hello": Digital Leisure among Nonresident Fathers. *International Journal of the Sociology of Leisure*, 1, 241-260.
- Silk, M., Millington, B., Rich, E., & Bush, A. (2016). (Re-)thinking Digital Leisure. *Leisure Studies*, 35(6), 712-723.
- Snyder, H. (2019). Literature Review as a Research Methodology: An Overview and Guidelines. *Journal of Business Research*, 104, 333-339.
- Tanrıtanır, B. C., & Çalışkan, A. M. (2017). Gabriel García Márquez'in Kırmızı Pazartesi Romanıyla Latife Tekin'in Sevgili Arsız Ölüm Romanında Büyülü Gerçekçilik. *Ç.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 26(1), 302-312.
- Tham, A. (2019). Rainbows Looming Large: Digital Leisure and Youth Innovation. *World Leisure Journal*, 61(3), 170-182.
- Toyman, Y. Ö. (2006). *Nazlı Eray'ın Roman Dünyasında Düşü ve Büyülü Gerçekliğin Kurgusu ile Fantastik Unsurlar*. (Unpublished Master Dissertation). Isparta: Süleyman Demirel University Institute of Social Sciences.
- Türkmenoğlu, S. (2015). Latife Tekin'in Sevgili Arsız Ölüm Romanında Büyülü Gerçekçilik. *A.Ü. Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 54, 417-426.
- Ulusoy Aranyosi, E. (2011). Edebiyatta Büyülü Gerçekçiliğin "Büyü"sünün Menşei Üzerine: Sosyal Adaptasyon Araçları Olarak Masallar. *Milli Folklor Dergisi*, 23(91), 189-194.
- Urry, J. (2009). *Turist Bakışı* (Trans. E. Tataroğlu & İ. Yıldız). Ankara: Bilge Su Yayıncılık.
- Valtchanov, B. L., & Parry, D. C. (2017). "I Like My Peeps": Diversifying the New Generation's Digital Leisure. *Leisure Studies*, 39(4), 336-354.
- Ward, G. (2014). *Postmodernizmi Anlamak* (Trans. T. Göbekçin). İstanbul: Optimist.

- Warnes, C. (2005). Naturalizing the Supernatural: Faith, Irreverence and Magical Realism. *Literature Compass*, 2(1), 1-16.
- Whitty, M. T., & McLaughlin, D. (2007). Online Recreation: The Relationship between Loneliness, Internet Self-Efficacy and the Use of the Internet for Entertainment Purposes. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 23(2007), 1435-1446.
- Williams, P., & Hobson, J. S. P. (1995). Virtual Reality and Tourism: Fact or Fantasy? *Tourism Management*, 16(6), 423-427.
- Wood, L., Hoerber, O., Snelgrove, R., & Hoerber, L. (2019). Computer Science Meets Digital Leisure. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 50(59), 425-437.
- Xiong, F., Zhao, X., & Zhang, Y. (2006). *3D Animasyon ve Sanal Gerçeklik* (Trans. S. Tarhan, M.M. Özgüven & A. Beyaz), <https://docplayer.biz.tr/6188913-6-6-3d-animasyon-ve-sanal-gerceklik.html>, [Accessed date: 16.04.2021].
- Zamora, L. P. (2002). *The Visualizing Capatiy of Magical Realism: Objects and Expression in the Work of Jorge Luis Borges*, <http://66.241.215.128/5-2/zamora.pdf>, [Accessed Date: 13.09.2021].
- Zheng, J. M. (1998). Virtual Reality A Real World Revies on a Somewhat Touchy Subject. *IEEE Potentials*, 17(2), 20-23.
- Zhou, K., Liu, T., & Zhou, L. (2015). Industry 4.0: Towards Future Industrial Opportunities and Challenges, IEEE, 12th International Conference, 2147-2152.

**INFO PAGE**

## The magical realistic world of the virtual recreation

**Abstract**

The aim of the study is to seek an answer to the question of whether the concept of virtual recreation can be considered in the context of the magical realism. The study prepared for this purpose has been carried out from a conceptual point of the view. The data required for the research have been obtained by reviewing the relevant literature. The reviewing process has been carried out in the context of the concepts of "virtual recreation" and "magical realism" and the study has been limited to these concepts. The data obtained as a result of the reviewing the literature have been analyzed conceptually. The analyzes have been made by first evaluating the concepts of virtual recreation and magical realism, and then comparatively examining the findings obtained from these evaluations. After the evaluations, it has been concluded that the magical realism approach is compatible with the structure of the virtual recreation and it is possible to evaluate the virtual recreation experience in the context of magical realism approach.

**Keywords:** Virtual reality, Virtual recreation, Magical realism

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Özlem Güncan:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Validation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing	100%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**This paper does not required ethics committee report**

**Justification:** The methodology of this study does not require an ethics committee report.



# Specialization of law enforcement for tourism security: the case of Turkish Gendarmerie \*\*

Yusuf Dündar, Cemal Ersin Silik\*, Erdem Özgür

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Tourism security,  
Law enforcement,  
Turkish Gendarmerie,  
Tourism security concept,  
Tourism-oriented policing.

### Article History:

Submitted: 12.09.2022  
Revised: 07.11.2022  
Accepted: 26.11.2022  
Published Online: 30.12.2022

This research was conducted to reveal how the Turkish Gendarmerie should specialize in ensuring the security of touristic destinations. From October 2020 to February 2021, the opinions of 135 participants with high authority in the field of tourism and security were received in five different provinces through an interview form created for this study. Content analysis was used in the analysis of the data. The findings obtained with this analysis were interpreted under seven themes: general security policy, uniform, equipment, awareness, duty, qualification, and training. According to the findings of the research, the Turkish Gendarmerie should serve visibly in touristic destinations with a different security concept. In the light of the findings obtained with this study, various recommendations were presented to practitioners and researchers in tourism and security field.

## 1. Introduction

Tourism is a sector whose positive economic impacts are primarily considered, especially for underdeveloped and developing countries. However, tourism is a very sensitive and fragile sector due to its hypersensitivity to security threats. Security problems that may occur or perceptions that a touristic destination is not safe could harm the tourism sector in that region. Due to its unique and fragile structure, the tourism sector and touristic destinations need specific security measures as well as standard, hard, and intensive security measures. The importance of tourism, especially for developing countries such as Türkiye, requires the development of a security concept specific to touristic regions (Aras, 2017).


To develop a security concept specific to touristic regions, the security forces and all stakeholders of the tourism sector should cooperate. The stakeholders of the tourism sector, who are always in communication with tourists, are exposed to new learning opportunities about the risk and security perceptions of tourists regarding the visited country and touristic regions, the threats and dangers that tourists may experience. In addition, gathering and evaluating the opinions of all stakeholders of the tourism sector in the development of the security concept will enable them to be more productive for tourism and thus


responsibilities could be shared with the sector stakeholders (Aras, 2017).


One of the most basic elements of the security concept is law enforcement. The ability of law enforcement officers responsible for ensuring to meet the need for tourism-specific security requires modernization and specialization. When the conditions of the sector are considered, the specialization of law enforcement officers in ensuring security in the tourism sector seems to be the very first measure to be taken (Tataroğlu & Subaşı, 2009).

Specialization in law enforcement activities in touristic regions has been examined in the literature since the 1990s. Muehsam and Tarlow (1995) and Pizam et al. (1997) conducted pioneering studies in the field and found that the provision of effective security services in touristic regions will only be possible by establishing tourism-oriented policing units in these regions. Tourism-oriented policing units have been established in many countries that are aware of this fact. The specialization activities, considering the conditions of the tourism sector in Türkiye, started with the establishment of Tourism Police in Istanbul in 2016. In addition, municipal tourism police units have been established within the municipalities in various provinces. However, there has been no special law enforcement unit specific to touristic regions within the Gendarmerie, responsible for ensuring security in touristic destinations in

\*Corresponding Author

Yusuf Dündar: Assist. Prof., Aksaray University, Aksaray, Türkiye, Email: ysfdundar42@gmail.com, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-4405-7557 

Cemal Ersin Silik: Assist. Prof., Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University, Ankara, Türkiye, Email: cemal.silik@hbv.edu.tr, Orcid Id: 0000-0001-8662-4188 

Erdem Özgür: Assist. Prof., Ministry of Interior Gendarmerie and Coast Guard Academy, Ankara, Türkiye, Email: eozgur76@hotmail.com, Orcid Id: 0000-0002-1403-4442 

Research paper



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution (CC-BY) 4.0 License

\*\* This work was supported by the TUBITAK under Grant 219K227. We would like to thank TUBITAK for their support.

Türkiye. 93% of the land area of Türkiye and 21% of its population are under the responsibility of the Gendarmerie in ensuring security (Gendarmerie General Command, 2020). Many of the coastal touristic destinations in Türkiye, as well as some of the important rural touristic attractions, are among Gendarmerie's responsibilities. During high tourism seasons, the populations of destinations increase significantly, and when tourists are counted, the capacity of the Turkish Gendarmerie could be exceeded. Considering the wide area of responsibility of the Turkish Gendarmerie, it can be seen as more important for the tourism sector compared to other law enforcement units such as the Police, the Coast Guard and the Municipal Police, especially during the high tourism season.

The staff of the Turkish Gendarmerie specializes in many areas, such as intelligence, combating smuggling and organized crime, crime scene investigation, combating terrorism, traffic. Considering the significance of tourism for the Turkish economy, characteristics and fragile structure of the tourism sector, the fact that tourism has not been designated as a specialized area in the Gendarmerie could be considered as a shortcoming. The tasks performed in the regions where there are intense touristic activities are considered within the scope of classical and standard public order tasks. Although the Turkish Gendarmerie has successfully performed its task in ensuring public order in the field of tourism, it could be more successful if it employed staff with higher awareness, adopting a different mission and security concept.

This research examines how Turkish Gendarmerie should be restructured into a specialised unit under the name of "Tourism Gendarmerie", considering the importance of the tourism sector and its unique structure, the necessity for developing a new concept regarding security in tourism with the contribution of all stakeholders and the need for security units that specializes in ensuring order in touristic destinations. In other words, the main purpose of the research is to reveal how the Turkish Gendarmerie should specialize in ensuring the security of touristic destinations, what should be the security concept that should be applied in touristic destinations. The research questions related to the sub-objectives created in line with this basic purpose are as follows:

- What should be the general security policy specific to touristic areas? Should the Turkish Gendarmerie provide security services in touristic destinations visibly or invisibly? Why?
- What subjects specific to the region where the Tourism Gendarmerie will be working are needed for training?
- What should be the duties of the staff who will be the Tourism Gendarmerie and what should be the qualifications to be sought in the staff?
- Is there a need for a different uniform, weapons, tools and equipment specific to the region where the Tourism Gendarmerie will serve? If any, what is it?

- What are the differences between coastal tourism and alternative tourism development regions in terms of the security concept to be developed specifically for these touristic regions?
- What differences should there be in the concept of tourism security in regions known to be more sensitive to security compared to other regions?

In this research, the opinions of law enforcement staff and stakeholders of the tourism sector who are at senior positions in the field of tourism and security were gathered through an interview form. With the opinions gathered, the original security concept that should be applied in touristic regions was determined and it was revealed how and to what extent the Turkish Gendarmerie should specialize under the name of "Tourism Gendarmerie".

No empirical research has been found in the literature to determine the tourism security needs of the Turkish Gendarmerie. In this context, this research is considered to be an original and important study and it is expected to fill an important gap in the tourism and security literature. The study consists of five parts. In the first part titled literature review, the concepts of tourism security, law enforcement, tourism-oriented policing are examined and information about the Turkish Gendarmerie is given. In the "Method" section, which is the second part of the study, the research area is introduced, and the sample and data collection process, research instruments and methods used in data analysis are explained. In the third part of the study, the findings obtained with the data analysis are presented. In the fourth part, the findings are discussed. The study is completed with the conclusion as the fifth part of the study. In this part, theoretical and practical contributions of the study, limitations and suggestions for future studies are presented.

## 2. Literature Review

### *Tourism Security*

From the point of view of tourism and tourists, security could usually be defined as the protection of one against the other who may give harm (Tarlow, 2009, 2014a). Payam (2015) defines tourism security as activities related to the protection of tourists against all risks and threats that have a criminal risk intentionally generated in touristic destinations. Policymakers in the tourism sector have become more interested in the concept of security than ever before since the terrorist attack in the United States on September 11, 2001. Many practitioners in the field of tourism did not consider that security in tourism was an important issue before this attack. After the September 11 terrorist attack, many researchers have begun to study security and safety problems, and thus these problems have become a new field of research in tourism (Kovari & Zimanyi, 2011; Tarlow, 2014a; Korstanje, 2017).

Security, which is important for ensuring quality in tourism (UNWTO, 1996), has always been very important for

travel and tourism (Kovari & Zimanyi, 2011). More than any other economic activity, the success or failure of a touristic destination has been dependent on ensuring a secure environment for visitors (UNWTO, 1996). Tourism, as an important sector, is a fragile and highly sensitive sector to security, public order problems, perceptions of danger, war, terrorism, theft, and it is also highly sensitive to social and political crises and uncertainties (Tataroğlu & Subaşı, 2009; Aksu et al., 2013; Öztürk & Şimşek, 2013; Aras, 2017). Therefore, the risk is quite high in the tourism sector (Ünlüönen et al., 2011). The causes that negatively affect the tourism sector such as crime, terrorism, corrupt public order, and all kinds of events, rhetoric, and actions that will draw tourists back are damaging the tourism economy as well as the country's economy when considered from a broad perspective (Mawby, 2014).

The perception of security regarding a region by tourists is one of the most important factors in the formation of touristic demand for that region (Seçilmiş, 2009). One of the prior factors that tourists will consider when choosing a destination to go for a vacation is security (Seçilmiş & Ünlüönen, 2009; Karaman & Polat, 2020). The perception of security and security is one of the most important factors affecting the demand for tourism (Bahar & Bilen, 2020). If a destination is not perceived secure, it may have difficulty in attracting visitors although it has attractive elements, various amenities, and low prices (Şengül et al., 2017).

The studies conducted in the field (Kekovic & Markovic, 2009; Seçilmiş & Ünlüönen, 2009; Kovari & Zimanyi, 2011; George & Booyens, 2014; Bayhan & Ünlüönen, 2016; Ghaderi et al., 2016; Santos et al., 2018) emphasized that security is an important determinant in the choice of the touristic destinations, in the countries sending tourists and the agencies in these countries, as well as tourists. In addition to the choice of destination, security also has a significant impact on the length of stay at the destination, the intention to revisit the destination, and the tendency to recommend the destination to others (Karaman & Polat, 2020; Bahar & Bilen, 2020). The increasing security problems in touristic regions directly affects the image of that region and, accordingly, a decrease occurs in the number of incoming tourists and in the contribution of tourism in that region to the economy. Therefore, relevant efforts should be made to minimize the impacts of security problems on tourists (Mawby, 2014; Bras, 2015).

#### ***Law Enforcement and Turkish Gendarmerie***

Security is one of the primary issues of societies and states. The basic structure in the field of security is law enforcement (Dündar & Özgür, 2020). The concept of law enforcement, when taken as an activity, is defined as an activity aiming to maintain the peace and order of the life of the communities and states, ensuring the prevention of personal and social actions that disturb the peace before they happen (Sayan & Özgür, 2019). In addition, when it comes to law enforcement activities, the Gendarmerie and

the Police are not the only two law enforcement units to be mentioned.

Law enforcement in Türkiye is divided into two main structures, namely administrative and judicial. Administrative law enforcement, which is the main field of study of administrative law, is divided into two, namely “general administrative law enforcement” and “special administrative law enforcement”. Although there is a distinction of judicial law enforcement agencies in the legislative dimension, in practice there is no structural separation for this task, and administrative and judicial law enforcement are carried out together. For this reason, the administrative-judicial separation of law enforcement agencies in Türkiye has clearly defined activity rather than organization or staff (Kara, 2016). The general administrative law enforcement structures (Gendarmerie, Police, and Coast Guard) within the law enforcement agencies in Türkiye differ from others. The general administrative law enforcement agency differ from others in many ways, such as the fact that they are in a general authorized position in law enforcement activities in the country, the main purpose of the organization is the law enforcement function, and in this context, the organization and its staff are specific to law enforcement services or support.

The Gendarmerie, which performs its duties in the general law enforcement structure in Türkiye, was established in 1839. The Turkish Gendarmerie is an armed general law enforcement force that ensures the protection of security and public order. This organization had a military status before and it was affiliated with the Turkish General Staff. However, its military status was abolished in 2016 and affiliated with the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The Gendarmerie is the unit responsible for security in a significant part of the touristic areas in Türkiye. The general duties and responsibilities of the Turkish Gendarmerie are out of the coverage of police duty, and these areas remain out of the provincial and district municipal boundaries, and there is not any police organization in these areas. 93% of the land area of Türkiye and 21% of its population are under the responsibility of the Gendarmerie in terms of providing security and public order services (Gendarmerie General Command, 2020).

#### ***Specialization for Tourism Security: Tourism Oriented Policing***

The development of the tourism sector has revealed some specific security problems and needs in the sector, and it has required different security approaches and practices in this field (Tataroğlu & Subaşı, 2009). Touristic regions and non-touristic regions may have structural differences in ensuring security. Any security measure applied anywhere in a country may be considered “appropriate” and “satisfactory” by residents in that region, while the same measure may be considered “inconvenient” by tourists in touristic areas. Therefore, the security measures to be taken

in touristic regions should be appropriate to the specific security needs of touristic regions (Aras, 2017). The tourism sector is a sensitive sector that can easily be damaged by intensive, harsh and standard security measures to be taken in combating the risks to tourists. To develop a security concept specific to touristic regions, security units should ensure the contribution of all stakeholders of the sector. It is important to consider every opportunity for the participation of all stakeholders in the sector in the provision of security services in tourism. There is significant evidence that cooperation between law enforcement agencies and stakeholders provides better quality tourism (Wilks, 2011). However, there may be different perspectives on tourism security between stakeholders in the field of tourism and those in the field of security. What is important for success is the harmonization of the goals of all stakeholders and the creation of an environment of cooperation. The most striking study on this subject is the research conducted by Kiliçlar et al. (2018). In this study, how terrorism can be prevented in tourism destinations has been examined from two different perspectives (security forces vs. civil authority) in Türkiye. In this context, the opinions of the provincial police chiefs and provincial culture and tourism directors in all provinces were received. Security forces and civil authorities have a common consensus on the importance of education in practices to prevent terrorism in tourism destinations. In addition, both the security forces and the civil authorities are not very keen on strengthening security measures. They consider the small security measures that can be taken for tourism employees sufficient and appropriate. However, while civil authorities consider cooperation and education important in tourism security, the same cannot be said for security forces (Kiliçlar et al., 2018).

The first component of the security concept to be created for touristic regions is to determine whether the law enforcement agency will provide security services visibly or invisibly. In other words, it is all about the determination of the general security policy. If the law enforcement agency will provide security services visibly, the uniforms and equipment that the staff will use in the touristic areas could be chosen accordingly. The tasks that the staff will perform in the touristic regions can be determined. Qualifications needed and training to be given in the selection of staff could be determined. Although some argue that law enforcement agencies should provide security services visibly in touristic areas (Bayhan & Ünlüönen, 2016), some argue that law enforcement agencies should serve invisibly (Aras, 2017; Şengül et al., 2017). If law enforcement agencies serve visibly at touristic destinations, tourists may feel safe thinking that security measures have been taken adequately. However, being visible can also create a feeling that danger is very close. There are two opposing views, and this issue is still controversial.

Security issues in touristic regions may vary. Specially trained law enforcement staff are needed in these regions. Specialized tourism law enforcement staff should be trained to prevent tourists from exposure to crime and minimize the harm of the victims (Mawby, 2014). Since the crimes committed against tourists and the crimes committed by tourists vary, law enforcement agencies need to follow the changing crime dynamics and develop relevant measures (Albuquerque & McElroy, 1999). Since touristic regions could have their unique characteristics, the staff working in touristic regions should be specially trained and they should understand the dynamics of the region and the incoming tourist groups (Bras, 2015).

It has been an increasingly accepted notion that tourists who are victims of crime should receive additional and special law enforcement services (Muehsam & Tarlow, 1995). Considering the population growth in areas where touristic activities are intense in summer and the increasing number of tourists arrivals, it could be claimed that there is a need for law enforcement that serves only tourists in such touristic areas. Many countries have established special law enforcement units to be employed in the tourism sector. Many special law enforcement agencies are working for the security of tourists (Payam, 2015). However, there is very little information on the activities of these units in the public (Wilks, 2011; Payam, 2015). The concept of a specialized tourist law enforcement agency is new in many countries where tourism is important for the economy and where tourism-related crimes are recognized. However, these developments are not universal yet (Mawby et al., 2015). Various tourism law enforcement units aim to help tourists showing them more empathy internalizing their needs, providing emotional and practical support (UNWTO, 1996; Tarlow, 2000). The most common term used to describe these units is "TOPPS", which is the acronym of "Tourism/Tourist Oriented Policing and Protection Services". This concept was introduced to the literature for the first time in the early 1990s for use in tourism security by some experts such as Tarlow, Pizam and Mansfeld (Tarlow, 2005; Tarlow, 2014a). Specially trained tourism law enforcement agencies were first established in the early 1990s in the Florida state of the USA due to the increased security problems in areas where touristic activities were intense (Tarlow, 2014a). The Metro-Dade Police Department in the city of Miami, located in the state of Florida, created in 1994 in cooperation among the police department, the Federal Aviation Administration and airlines serving at Miami International Airport, is considered the first tourism law enforcement unit (Henninger, 2001).

Tourism police, for the first time, was defined by the Miami Metro-Dade Police Department as a "law enforcement philosophy aiming to ensure the prevention of crimes through specially trained law enforcement units, to prevent a decrease in the visits to the most visited touristic destinations due to crime by working in cooperation with civilian citizens, businesses that provide the public travel

services, airport officials, business leader” (Henninger, 2001). The reason for the establishment of tourism-oriented policing units is to assist tourists, to ensure their security and to control crimes involving tourists through specially trained law enforcement staff on tourism (UNWTO, 1996). It is believed that tourism law enforcement units can help create a better destination image and market tourism as assistance and protection in the tourism sector is important (Payam, 2016). Tourism law enforcement differs from other forms of law enforcement as it takes into account the relationship between the visitor and the local economy. Therefore, simply changing uniforms or appointing someone as a tourism law enforcement officer without proper education and training can be a damaging factor (Tarlow, 2012). Tourism law enforcement units can directly help tourists bring cases to the court, contact relevant embassies as well as some other general responsibilities such as protecting cultural artefacts and the environment, providing tourist information demanded and combating drug traffic and use (Wilks, 2011). According to Payam (2015), the tourism law enforcement police should provide information and assistance to tourists and visitors about the local laws, traditions and culture. Tourism law enforcement staff should provide visitors with assistance and information, in particular, on local traditions, culture, laws and local attractions. Tourism police need to be structured based on preventive law enforcement activities to fulfil these tasks (foot patrol, bike patrol, mounted patrol, motorcycle patrol, the patrol team, marine patrol, air support, etc.). In addition, tourism law enforcement is a rather complex profession that requires knowledge in a wide variety of fields (Tarlow, 2014b). Therefore, for tourism police to perform their tourism law enforcement duties in the best way, they must necessarily undergo training on some subjects because the training of staff is quite important.

Considering that tourism is very important for the economy, and tourism creates problems of crime and disorder, specialized tourism oriented policing units have been established in parallel with the developments in law enforcement structures aiming to effectively ensure tourism security in the world. The Tourism Police in Istanbul and the Municipal Tourism Police units in various municipalities are actively continuing their duties, and although there have been some attempts to establish tourism specific units in the Gendarmerie in the past, there have been currently no specialized units focusing on tourism.

### 3. Research Methodology

#### Research Area

This research was conducted in the provinces of Antalya, Muğla, Çanakkale, Mardin and Şanlıurfa in Türkiye. When choosing the research areas, it was considered that the security concept to be applied by law enforcement agencies in coastal and alternative tourism regions could be

different. In addition, it was also considered that the security concept may also differ between security-sensitive areas and non-sensitive areas in alternative touristic destinations. In general, Turkish tourism has been developing with a focus on coastal tourism. The provinces of Antalya and Muğla, which are the two most popular touristic destinations in coastal tourism, rank in the top two every year with the number of domestic and foreign tourist arrivals. A significant part of the touristic activities in these two provinces takes place in the responsibility area of the Gendarmerie. The two most important destinations for the Gendarmerie, when considered from a tourism perspective, could be claimed to be Antalya and Muğla.

Considering the responsibility area of the Gendarmerie in the determination of other provinces, identification of regions where touristic activities are relatively intensive compared to other regions was the primary purpose. In this context, 22 provinces that can be chosen as research areas have been identified among the 79 provinces in Türkiye (except Antalya and Muğla) in coordination with the General Command of the Gendarmerie. Then pre-interviews were conducted with the deputy ministers of the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, which are the highest authorities in the fields of tourism and security as well as the crime statistics and general tourism information regarding 22 provinces, and they were explained about the research. With the interviews, the most important destination for alternative tourism in the Gendarmerie area was found to be Çanakkale province. In addition, it was also found that Mardin and Şanlıurfa, which are more sensitive provinces considered from the security perspective and have a border with Syria, were found as the destinations to be included in the study.

#### Sample

The sample of the research is composed of the stakeholders at the highest level in the field of tourism and security in the provinces of Antalya, Muğla, Çanakkale, Mardin and Şanlıurfa. The most important stakeholders of the tourism sector could be counted as accommodation establishments, travel agencies, tourist guides, local government, central government, local organizations, universities, local people and tourists. Due to the lockdown imposed due to the Covid-19 pandemic and various restrictions, residents and tourists could not be included in the study. The Turkish Hoteliers Federation is the highest authorized and responsible organization in Türkiye in the accommodation business. In various touristic regions, some associations are members of this federation. The Association of Turkish Travel Agencies is the highest authorized and responsible organization in Türkiye for travel agencies. There are regional representative boards affiliated with this union in various touristic regions. The Association of Tourist Guides is the highest authorized and responsible organization in Türkiye for tourist guides. In various touristic areas, there are chambers of this union. The

Ministry of Culture and Tourism is the highest organization responsible and authorized by the central government in the tourism sector. There are Provincial Cultural and Tourism Directorates within the Governorates in all provinces.

The most important stakeholders of the security sector are the Gendarmerie, the Police and the Municipal Police. The Ministry of Interior is the highest organization responsible and authorized by the central government in the security sector. There are Provincial Police Directorates and Provincial Gendarmerie Commands within the Governorates in all provinces.

In line with the purpose of the research, interviews were conducted with the highest authorities in the field of tourism and security in the five provincial centres such as heads of the member associations of the Turkish Hoteliers Federation, heads of regional representation boards affiliated to Association of Turkish Travel Agencies, heads of the member chambers of the Association of Tourist Guides, mayors, chiefs of units responsible for police services in municipalities, chiefs of units responsible for tourism services in municipalities, governors, deputy governors responsible for the directorate of culture and tourism, deputy governors responsible for law enforcement units, provincial directors of culture and tourism, provincial police chiefs, provincial gendarmerie commanders, deputies of the provincial gendarmerie commanders, managers of the anti-smuggling and organized crime branches, anti-terrorism branches, public security branches, and intelligence branches at the provincial gendarmerie commands, the deans of faculties of tourism.

In addition, a Gendarmerie Station Commander from each province was included in the study. In the determination of the Gendarmerie Station Commands, the records kept by the Provincial Gendarmerie Commands for crime and tourism statistics were examined in detail. The average number of visitors in the last five years (2015-2019), the number of accommodation facilities / other facilities and enterprises (bars, clubs, cafes, restaurants, etc.), the average number of five-year (2015-2019) incidents, the average number of five-year (2015-2019) incidents involving visitors in the area of responsibility of the stations and the written opinions of the Provincial Gendarmerie Commands were taken into consideration as five criteria in determining the Gendarmerie Station Commands to be included in the study. The data for 2020 were not taken into account because the date of 2020 showed significant deviations compared to previous years due to the Covid-19 pandemic.

However, the persons with the highest level of authority and responsibility in the field of tourism and security in the districts where the determined gendarmerie stations are located have also been included in the study. In this context, interviews were conducted with the district mayors of Antalya-Manavgat, Muğla-Bodrum, Çanakkale-

Eceabat, Mardin-Midyat, Şanlıurfa-Haliliye districts, unit chiefs responsible for tourism and municipal police services in these district municipalities, district governors, district police chiefs and district gendarmerie commanders in these districts. As a result, a total of 135 participants were interviewed in five provinces.

### Research Instrument

This paper was designed as qualitative research. To collect data for the research, a standardized open-ended interview approach was used out of qualitative research techniques. Stewart and Cash (1985) define an interview as a mutual and interactive communication process based on asking and answering questions, conducted for a predetermined and serious purpose. The reason for choosing this method is that it allows the researcher to get in-depth information from the interviewee about the research topic. Patton (1987) mentions three types of interview approaches; informal interview approach in chat form, interview form approach and standardized open-ended interview approach. This study used a standardized open-ended interview approach out of the interview approaches. This approach "consists of a set of questions carefully written and put in a certain order, and each interviewee is asked these questions in the same style and order". This approach was chosen because it reduces interviewer bias and subjectivity, although there are quite a few limitations to the flexibility of the interviewer.

The interview was conducted with the highest level of authorities and responsible people in tourism and security issues to determine the security concept to be applied specifically to touristic regions. The interview form was developed by the researchers for data collection by exchanging ideas after a detailed literature review and then a common consensus was reached. The interview form consists of seven questions presented below:

In terms of general security policy and practice in tourism-intensive areas, should law enforcement agencies, in particular the Gendarmerie, perform their services invisibly or visibly with an already existing concept or with a new concept to be developed? Why?

If the general security policy of the Gendarmerie in tourism-intensive areas is to serve visibly;

- Does the state need a special separate uniform for the Gendarmerie in tourism-intensive areas? If any, how should it be?
- Considering that tourism is a fragile sector, is there a need for different weapons, tools and equipment to be used in tourism-intensive areas? What should it be if any?
- Should "tourism" be emphasized on the uniforms and equipment that Gendarmerie staff will use in tourism-intensive areas? Why?
- What tasks can the Gendarmerie undertake specific to tourism in tourism-intensive areas?

- What should be the qualifications that can be considered within the scope of physical, educational and gender that should be sought in the Gendarmerie staff to be employed in tourism-intensive areas?
- Do the Gendarmerie staff to be employed in tourism-intensive areas need to be trained on some tourism-specific subjects? What subjects should the training be on, if any?

As can be seen, the questions to be asked in the interview form are based on the fact that the Gendarmerie should perform its duties in tourism-intensive regions by adopting a visible security policy. The question “How can the Gendarmerie be visible in touristic areas if it will be visible?” covers all the relevant questions.

#### **Data Collection**

The questions in the interview form were asked by a researcher in the same way as face-to-face interviews and all participants were asked in the same order. The interviews conducted by the other two researchers were recorded with paper and pencil during the interviews. During the data collection process, the average interview time for each person was 30-40 minutes.

In Çanakkale province, interviews with the participants lasted five days and were conducted between October 26-30, 2020; in Şanlıurfa province, interviews with the participants lasted three days and were conducted between December 13-15, 2020; in Mardin province, interviews with the participants lasted four days between December 16-19, 2020; in Muğla province, interviews lasted three days and were conducted between February 17-19, 2021; in Antalya province, interviews with the participants lasted five days and were conducted between February 22-26, 2021. As a result, a total of 135 people were interviewed face-to-face in 20 days. Due to the restrictions and prohibitions imposed due to the Covid-19 pandemic, since most of the participants interviewed were in senior management positions and due to the difficulties with arranging appointments for interview purposes, only 6-8 participants could be interviewed in a day. In addition, the participants who thought that the Gendarmerie should perform its services invisibly adopting a general security policy and practice in tourism-intensive areas responded to only one question.

#### **Data Analysis**

Content analysis was used in the analysis of the data. The content analysis was used to identify the data and reveal the facts that may be hidden in the data. The basic process of content analysis is to combine similar data within certain concepts and themes and interpret them in a way that the reader can understand (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). As can be understood from the questions in the interview form, a total of 7 themes (general security policy, uniform, equipment, awareness, duties, qualifications and training)

were determined for content analysis before starting the interviews. In addition, three categories of weapons, tools and equipment were identified under the “equipment” theme, and three categories of physical, educational and gender were identified under the “education” theme.

In this context, the records kept by the two researchers with paper and pencil during the interviews were transferred to the computer environment immediately after each interview. After that, the entire recorded content was carefully read and detailed information about the content was obtained. In the second round of reading, coding was performed under certain themes and categories for each interview, and a large number of similar sets of information were collected under similar themes and categories. A third and final round of reading was performed on the remaining data set and checked for missing data. At the last stage of the process, a final check was carried out to make sure that the text under each theme and category is similar to each other.

#### **4. Findings**

Evaluation of the results obtained with the analysis of the data through interviews in the provinces of Antalya and Muğla, which are the most important coastal destinations of Türkiye, are presented below under relevant themes.

##### **General Security Policy**

All of the participants interviewed think that the Gendarmerie should perform its duties in tourism-intensive areas visibly. According to the participants, the visibility of the Gendarmerie does not cause discomfort to tourists and residents, it does not create the perception that an incident will happen at any time, but on the contrary, tourists and locals will feel safe.

##### **Uniform**

The majority of respondents (87%) think that the Gendarmerie should be visible in touristic areas adopting a different concept through “soft, plain, sports, modern, stylish, aesthetic, high quality and sympathetic” clothes. 13% of the participants argue that the Gendarmerie should be visible with its standard uniform. According to the majority of participants, a different uniform should be preferred instead of the standard navy blue public order suit in touristic areas. The clothes to be worn should be “suitable for seasonal conditions, not fading quickly, not sweaty and comfortable”. Light colours should be used in the uniform. The top of the uniform should have “a safari shirt and/or polo neck/zero collar t-shirt” instead of a shirt. As for the bottom, it can be thin “canvas trousers, bermuda or shorts”. In touristic areas, “outdoor shoes” that help move more comfortably or “ankle boots” considering that it also protects the ankle should be preferred instead of black boots. Instead of a beret, “a hat with a mesh detail” should be used. “A dark blue filet-detailed hat, a light blue or turquoise polo neck t-shirt, thin navy canvas trousers and

half-boots” were the most delivered ones by the participants.

## *Equipment*

The majority of respondents (75%) think that the Gendarmerie should carry a short-barreled gun instead of a long-barreled gun in tourist-intensive areas. In this context, they think that a pistol will be sufficient. According to the findings from the interviews, security units also should use luxurious vehicles which represent the power of the state and which can also add value to tourism as well as horses, motorcycles, golf cart, gingers which are easy to use in narrow streets for security purpose, and which are considered sympathetic to local people and tourist as well as standard patrol cars. The vehicles used should not cause noise on the coastline. Instead of powerful vehicles, lighter, easy-to-use, quiet and non-disturbing electric vehicles should be preferred. All the vehicles used must be in harmony with the uniform colour.

## *Awareness*

The majority of respondents (55%) think that the emphasis should be placed on the concept of “tourism” in the uniforms and vehicles that the Gendarmerie will use in touristic areas. It is considered appropriate to write “Tourism Gendarmerie” at the back of the uniform, to emphasize “tourism” with arms to be designed, and to write “Tourism Gendarmerie” at the front and sides of vehicles in line with the same principles. Those who emphasized “tourism” in uniforms and vehicles argue that if the Gendarmerie looks like this, the discomfort of tourists will be reduced to a minimum level. If the law enforcement agency is visible in this way, tourists will think that the security forces are there for them and much importance is paid to tourism in the country, and thus they will not feel nervous. In addition, the staff on duty will also feel special and their motivation will be high. Those who defend that there should be no emphasis on “tourism” in uniforms and vehicles, on the other hand, claim that local people may be uncomfortable with this. Residents may be offended by the thought that the Gendarmerie serves only tourists rather than the local people.

## *Duties*

In line with the findings obtained from the interviews, the staff who will work in tourism-intensive areas adopting the concept of the Tourism Gendarmerie will perform its routine patrol activities to ensure security and public order, but this unit could also perform the following duties in the touristic regions; primarily to ensure the security of tourists, to ensure coordination and information exchange with other stakeholders in the tourism and security sector, to provide tourists with information and consultancy services in the uniforms and vehicles matching with the new tourism concept, to contact with embassies/consulates if any tourist is involved in an incident or crime, to provide

protocol protection services when foreign delegates or statesmen visit a touristic destination, to ensure the security of environment and forest, to ensure the field security of touristic regions including the protection of historic areas, businesses, and the control of organized tours in touristic areas, conducting data collection, recording and monitoring activities in touristic regions, to introduce the Gendarmerie for the purpose of promoting its recognition and to conduct intelligence collection activities in the touristic regions.

## *Qualifications*

According to the findings obtained from the interviews, some qualifications should be sought in the staff who will work in tourism-intensive areas. Various qualities could be counted here in this regard; however, some of them are considered to be very important; especially the staff who will work in the field of tourism should be a good representative of the host country and culture with his/her physical appearance, must be fit and have a good height-weight ratio, and clothing must be smooth, must have strong communication skills and must be highly qualified. The staff should be chosen from those who like reading with a good intellectual capacity, who can speak a foreign language fluently. They should also be honest and the number of female staff should be more than male staff.

## *Education*

With this research, it was found that the staff who will work in touristic regions should receive training in some subjects in addition to the professional knowledge they receive. In this context, education topics have been grouped under 20 headings. In particular, participants highlight the importance of knowing tourism jargon, vocabulary and sentence patterns to be used when communicating with a foreign crime victim or a suspect. In other words, they should have a basic vocabulary and sentence patterns, foreign language education, communication and behavioural sciences to effectively communicate with tourists.

When the findings obtained from the analysis of the data collected through the interviews in Çanakkale province, which is one of the important alternative tourism destinations, were compared with the data obtained from the analysis of the data collected through the interviews in Muğla and Antalya provinces, almost no significant difference was found between the concept to be developed for coastal tourism regions and alternative tourism regions. Participants in Çanakkale agree with the opinions of participants in Antalya and Muğla at almost the same rate. It is noteworthy that the use of luxury vehicles and golf carts and gingers is important in coastal tourism regions as they are perceived sympathetic, that ATVs and Jeeps could be used in alternative tourism regions as they are more compatible with the land conditions of the region, that the training of staff who will work in areas where there is



intensive alternative tourism, on the region's history and culture is very important.

When the findings obtained from the analysis of the data collected through the interviews in Mardin and Şanlıurfa provinces, which are important alternative tourism destinations, and which are very security-sensitive regions, were compared with the data obtained from the analysis of the data collected through the interviews in Çanakkale province, no significant difference was found. Participants in Mardin and Şanlıurfa agree with the opinions of participants in Çanakkale at almost the same rate.

## **5. Discussion**

The findings obtained in this research reveal that the Turkish Gendarmerie should serve as a visible force, whether in areas where coastal tourism and alternative tourism is popular, or in security-sensitive areas where tourism is intense. Due to the September 11, 2001, and July 15, 2016, terrorist attacks, the perception of tourism security has changed in the world and Türkiye radically. According to the opinions of the research participants, domestic and foreign tourists and local people want to see law enforcement units around. The findings obtained from this research also revealed that the Gendarmerie should be more visible in tourism-intensive areas adopting a different concept. According to participants, the claims that tourists feel uncomfortable with the Gendarmerie serving visibly in tourist-intensive areas do not reflect the reality. However, the Gendarmerie must nevertheless maintain a balance in the issue of visibility.

According to the opinions received from the participants, the Gendarmerie should be visible in all touristic destinations in a different uniform and with different vehicles. Staff who will be employed in the concept of the Tourism Gendarmerie should wear standard uniforms, even in security-sensitive areas. The Gendarmerie can wear a navy blue hat, a turquoise polo neck t-shirt, navy canvas pants and black ankle boots in all touristic areas. Nobody should doubt that the staff wearing the uniform are Gendarmes, and it should be clear for everyone that the staff are there for the security of tourism and tourists. When viewed from distance, they should not be confused with the Municipal Police, Private Security and Watchmen. Since the majority of other law enforcement agencies consist of residents and have poor deterrence, mixing the Gendarmerie with other law enforcement agencies may negatively affect the enforcement power of the Gendarmerie. For this reason, "Tourism Gendarmerie" should be written on the back area of the uniform, arms that will be designed to emphasize tourism and Gendarmerie should be used on the uniforms. In touristic areas, it will be sufficient for the Gendarmerie to carry only short-barreled weapons and so pistols in this context. In addition to the standard patrol vehicles that have "Tourism Gendarmerie" written on the front and sides of the vehicles that have a white colour with turquoise, navy blue stripes, softer and quieter vehicles should be used in all touristic areas. In this

context, electric motorcycles and horses come to the fore. The horses and vehicles used must be new and kept well maintained. The newest vehicles must first be sent to touristic areas.

The staff who will be employed in all touristic regions must take a written exam and oral interview and those with relevant qualifications should be selected. In particular, the height-weight ratio of the staff should be in balance, the physical ratio should be good, communication skills should be strong, foreign language should be fluent, the level of general knowledge should be good in addition to professional knowledge. In touristic areas, especially female Gendarmerie should be employed as much as possible. If possible, the number of female employees should be more than the number of male employees. If this is not possible, it should be at least equal to the number of males.

Staff who will work in all touristic areas should also receive some training before and during their duties. In particular, tourism jargon, basic foreign language skills, which include the most commonly used words and sentence patterns in daily life and in the management of incidents and crimes in which foreign tourists are involved in, communication and public relations must be covered in the training program. For the staff who will work in the regions where alternative tourism is popular, education including the history and culture of the region should be covered in the program. It will also be very useful for tourism legislation and general tourism to be covered in educational programs.

According to the opinions received from the participants, the staff who will be employed in the Tourism Gendarmerie concept can undertake routine patrol activities as well as some tasks for the development of tourism in touristic areas. The staff can perform some other tasks such as ensuring the security of tourists and tourism in the region, the protection of historic areas, coordination among the stakeholders of the tourism and security sector and information exchange, providing tourists with tourism information at fixed points to be built in line with the concept of the Tourism Gendarmerie, providing state and foreign delegations with protection services, the introduction of the tourism and Gendarmerie.

## **6. Conclusion and Implications**

In conclusion, the Turkish Gendarmerie should specialize in all touristic destinations for which it is responsible. It should perform its duties in touristic regions visibly with a different concept. To develop tourism, it should undertake various tasks with appropriate clothes, weapons, tools and equipment. It should be clear from the uniform and signs on the vehicle that it is the Tourism Gendarmerie. The staff must be qualified and trained on some issues. This study contributes to the literature in many ways. The results of this study are in line with the findings of Bayhan & Ünlüönen (2016). Bayhan & Ünlüönen (2016) support the

visibility of law enforcement in touristic destinations. The most important contribution of the study is that it fills the gap in the literature since there is no empirical study on the subject. The practical contributions of the study are seen as important. In line with the findings obtained from this research, the developed recommendations for practitioners are presented below:

- The Gendarmerie may see tourism security as an area not under its responsibility or as an additional workload. It can consider tourism stakeholders as primarily responsible for tourism security. However, the Gendarmerie should contribute to all sectors that are important in Türkiye. Tourism is also an important sector. To develop tourism and spread it to the public, all kinds of steps that will strengthen the Gendarmerie in an institutional sense should be considered positively. It will be useful to switch to the concept of Tourism Gendarmerie in touristic areas. First, law enforcement is responsible for many things in most developed countries. The Gendarmerie should be more active in the tourism sector, which is also one of the most important sectors in Türkiye. Tourism security, city and rural security are not the same things. Therefore, the view that the incidents involving foreign and domestic tourists and the incidents involving local people are the same could be very erroneous. A tourist's and a citizen's being victims or suspects are not the same things. The victimization that the tourist experiences become more serious. First, the consequences of incidents involving foreign tourists make more impact in Türkiye and around the world. The follow-up of these events and the control of their consequences require more thoroughness. Since the duration of stay of foreign tourists in Türkiye is limited, transactions should be faster. In addition, some crimes are unique to tourism and they require expertise.
- Among the most important tasks of the staff working within the concept of the Tourism Gendarmerie, which is to conduct promotional activities, could be the first to mention. Touristic areas are the ideal places for the promotion of Türkiye and the Gendarmerie. Both domestic and foreign tourists judge the visited state according to the law enforcement there. The Gendarmerie is the mirror of Türkiye in these regions. The tourist judges Türkiye according to the Gendarmerie. That is why a great mission has been imposed on the Gendarmerie in the promotion of Türkiye. For these reasons, the Gendarmerie should be much more qualified in touristic destinations. In this context, it will indirectly contribute to the increase in the number of tourists and the development of tourism in that region.
- To keep the system in continuous operation within the concept of the Tourism Gendarmerie, the inspection mechanism must also be well established. There should be a control unit from top to bottom. In addition to the task of inspection, these units should also undertake the

tasks of monitoring and coordinating activities. The inspection mechanism will be an incentive element for Tourism Gendarmes to maintain their qualifications. The staff will be constantly tested by the inspection units about whether they have lost any of their qualifications through various methods.

- Especially in popular touristic areas where security concerns are high, the Tourism Gendarmerie can provide advice so that the activities of other Gendarmerie staff do not affect tourism.
- One of the most important tasks of the Tourism Gendarmerie is to help match the interests of citizens who constantly resides in touristic areas and tourists. However, to ensure this, the staff must first have a good understanding of tourism and its importance.

This research has some limitations. First, this research was conducted in five provinces in Türkiye. Care should be taken when generalizing the research results to other countries and other provinces in Türkiye. Second, the research was focused on the Gendarmerie. Results may be different for other law enforcement agencies. Third, in this study, the findings were obtained through interviews with people who are considered responsible and authority in the field of tourism and security. The opinions of local people and tourists could not be taken due to Covid-19 measures. Although the participants made comments on behalf of the local people and tourists based on their experiences, it cannot be claimed that the findings completely reflect their views. In future studies, researchers may focus on Cappadocia, a specific place where the Gendarmerie is active. In addition, the opinions of local people and tourists should be examined in depth with more studies to be carried out in the future. In particular, whether there are differences in the opinions of residents, local and foreign tourists regarding the visibility of the Gendarmerie, and whether the opinions of foreign tourists differ based on their nationalities should be examined. Conducting further studies on the expectation of tourists from law enforcement agencies is also proposed to find out when tourists want to get to law enforcement agencies, what are the things that bother tourists in general.

### Funding

This work was supported by the TUBITAK under Grant 219K227. We would like to thank TUBITAK for their support.

### References

- Aksu, M., Aktaş, A. R., Oku, O., & Şentürk, F. K. (2013). Yabancı turistlerin güvenlik algılarının analizi: Alanya örneği. In paper for The International Conference on Eurasian Economies, 17-18 September St. Petersburg-Russia.
- Albuquerque, K. De, & McElroy, J. (1999). Tourism and crime in the Caribbean. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 968-984.

- Aras, H. (2017). Türkiye’de turizm güvenliği sorunu. *Hitit University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 10(1), 585-610. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17218/hititsosbil.330893>
- Bahar, O., & Bilen, K. (2020). Turizmde güvenlik algısının Türkiye ekonomisine etkisi. *The Journal of Security Sciences*, Special Issue of International Security Congress, 185-206.
- Bayhan, İ., & Ünlüöner, K. (2016). Turist tercihlerinde güvenliğe ilişkin tutumlarının etkisi: bir alan araştırması. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 15(56), 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.17755/esosder.17240>
- Bras, M. (2015). Tourism and crime-why tourists become victims. In paper for The Security and Tourism: Local Policies and Practices Conference, 25 June, Paris.
- Dündar, Y., & Özgür, E. (2020). Turizm Kolluğu. In Y. Dündar & O. Bahar (Eds.), *Turizm Güvenliği* (pp. 305-342). Ankara: Gazi Kitabevi.
- Gendarmerie General Command. (2020). Jandarma sorumluluk alanları ve korunan tesisler [online]. Available from: <https://www.jandarma.gov.tr/jandarma-tarafindan-korunan-tesisler> (Accessed 31 December 2020).
- George, R., & Booyens, I. (2014). Township tourism demand: tourists’ perceptions of safety and security. *Urban Forum*, 25(4), 449-467. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12132-014-9228-2>
- Ghaderi, Z., Saboori, B., & Khoshkam, M. (2016). Does security matter in tourism demand?. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(6), 552-565. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2016.1161603>
- Henninger, D. (2001). What impact will tourist oriented policing have on small sized police departments by the year 2006?. A Project Presented to California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, Sacramento, California.
- Kara, E. (2016). Devlet-kolluk ilişkisi kapsamında Jandarma ve Türk Jandarması. (Unpublished Master Thesis). Ankara University, Türkiye.
- Karaman, S., & Polat, T. (2020). Turizm ve güvenlik ilişkisi (Doğu ve Güney Doğu Anadolu Bölgelerini ziyaret eden yerli turistlere yönelik araştırma). *Kafkas University Journal of the Institute of Social Sciences*, 25, 369-397. DOI: 10.9775/kausbed.2020.021
- Kekovic, Z., & Markovic, S. (2009). Security as a factor of competitive advantage in tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 15(2), 291-303. <https://doi.org/10.20867/thm.15.2.12>
- Kiliclar, A., Usakli, A., & Tayfun, A. (2018). Terrorism prevention in tourism destinations: Security forces vs. civil authority perspectives. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 8, 232-246. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.04.006>
- Korstanje, M. E. (2017). Introduction to Tourism Security: Tourism in The Age of Terrorism. In P. Vasant & M. Kalaivanthan (Eds.), *Risk, Terrorism, and Tourism Consumption: The End of Tourism* (pp. 208-226). USA: IGI Global. <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-5225-1054-3.ch012>
- Kovari, I., & Zimanyi, K. (2011). Safety and security in the age of global tourism: the changing role and conception of safety and security in tourism. *Applied Studies in Agribusiness and Commerce*, 5(3-4), 59-61. <https://doi.org/10.19041/APSTRACT/2011/3-4/10>
- Mawby, R. I. (2014). Crime and Disorder, Security and The Tourism Industry. In M. Gill (Eds.), *The Handbook of Security* (pp. 383-403). Newyork: Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-67284-4\\_18](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-67284-4_18)
- Mawby, R. I., Boakye, K., & Jones, C. (2015). Policing tourism: the emergence of specialist units. *Policing and Society*, 25(4), 378-392. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10439463.2013.870174>
- Muehsam, M. J., & Tarlow, P. E. (1995). Involving the police in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 16(1), 9-14. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177\(94\)00002-R](https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(94)00002-R)
- Öztürk, Y., & Şimşek, E. (2013). Politik istikrarsızlıkların turistlerin destinasyon seçimine etkisi üzerine bir araştırma. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, 1(2), 15-25.
- Patton, M. Q. (1987). *How to Use Qualitative Methods in Evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Payam, M. M. (2015). Tourism Oriented Policing and Protection Services (TOPPS). In M. A. Çukurçayır, A. Başoda, Ş. Ünüvar, M. Sağır, M. Çiçekdağı & S. Büyükipekçi (Eds.), *I. Avrasya Uluslararası Turizm Kongresi Güncel Konular, Eğilimler ve Göstergeler* (pp. 1-7). Konya: Aybil Yayınevi.
- Payam, M. M. (2016). Tourists’ security: the need for tourism police in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *British Journal of Economics Management and Trade*, 12(1), 1-9. DOI: 10.9734/BJEMT/2016/23135
- Pizam, A., Tarlow, P., & Bloom, J. (1997). Making tourists feel safe: whose responsibility is it?. *Journal of Travel Research*, Summer, 23-28.
- Santos, C., Silva, D., & Amorim, E. (2018). The impact of tourism security on the image of the destination-the case of Portugal. In paper for 7th international conference on tourism and hospitality management, 06-09 June Tomar-Portugal.
- Sayan, İ. Ö., & Özgür, E. (2019). Kolluk Etiği. In T. Avaner & O. Zengin (Eds.), *Türkiye’de İç Güvenlik Yönetimi* (pp. 379-410). Ankara: Gazi Kitabevi.
- Seçilmiş, C. (2009). Turistlerin kişisel değişkenlerinin güvenlik algılamalarındaki rolü. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(30), 152-166.
- Seçilmiş, C., & Ünlüöner, K. (2009). İstanbul’u ziyaret eden turistlerin güvenlik algılamaları üzerine bir araştırma. *Journal of Business Research-Turk*, 1(1), 65-84.
- Şengül, S., Bayhan, İ., Genç, K., & Torun, M. K. (2017). Turizm destinasyonu seçiminde güvenlik algısı: Yozgat örneği. In paper for II. International Bozok Symposium, 04-06 May Yozgat-Türkiye.
- Stewart, C. J., & Cash, W. B. (1985). *Interviewing: Principles and Practices*. Dubuque, IOWA: W. C. Brown Co.

- Tarlow, P. E. (2000). Letter from America: A short history of tourism oriented policing services. *Crime Prevention and Community Safety: An International Journal*, 2(1), 55-58.
- Tarlow, P. E. (2005). The impact of community policing on tourism and tourism oriented policing/protection services (TOPs). *eReview of Tourism Research (eRTR)*, 3(1), 1-10.
- Tarlow, P. E. (2009). Tourism Safety and Security. In T. Jamal & M. Robinson (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Tourism Studies* (pp. 465-480). London: SAGE Publications. <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9780857021076.n26>
- Tarlow, P. E. (2012). How can your guests be sure they are safe?. Tourism Tidbits, Hotel Online News for the Hospitality Executive, May.
- Tarlow, P. E. (2014a). *Tourism Security: Strategies for Effectively Managing Travel Risk and Safety*. Britain: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Tarlow, P. E. (2014b). Reflective epilogue: concerns in tourism safety. *International Journal of Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage*, 2(1), 68-70. <https://doi.org/10.21427/D7R726>
- Tataroğlu, M., & Subaşı, E. (2009). Kolluk güçlerinde modernleşme: Muğla örneğinde turizm jandarması yapılanması. *Journal of Management and Economics*, 16(2), 73-93.
- United Nations World Tourism Organization [UNWTO]. (1996). *Tourist Safety and Security: Practical Measures for Destinations*. Madrid: UNWTO-Pub.
- Ünlüöner, K., Tayfun, A., & Kılıçlar, A. (2011). *Turizm Ekonomisi*. Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık.
- Wilks, J. (2011). Policing in tourism. *Travel Law Quarterly*, 3(1), 30-34.
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2013). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

**INFO PAGE**

## Specialization of law enforcement for tourism security: the case of Turkish Gendarmerie

**Abstract**

This research was conducted to reveal how the Turkish Gendarmerie should specialize in ensuring the security of touristic destinations. From October 2020 to February 2021, the opinions of 135 participants with high authority in the field of tourism and security were received in five different provinces through an interview form created for this study. Content analysis was used in the analysis of the data. The findings obtained with this analysis were interpreted under seven themes: general security policy, uniform, equipment, awareness, duty, qualification, and training. According to the findings of the research, the Turkish Gendarmerie should serve visibly in touristic destinations with a different security concept. In the light of the findings obtained with this study, various recommendations were presented to practitioners and researchers in tourism and security field.

**Keywords:** Tourism security, Law enforcement, Turkish Gendarmerie, Tourism security concept, Tourism-oriented policing

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Yusuf Dündar:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Project administration	33%
<b>Cemal Ersin Silik:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Supervision	33%
<b>Erdem Özgür:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Software, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Supervision	33%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**Ethics Committee Satatement:** Ethics committee report is available for this research and it has been documented to the journal.

**Ethics committee:** Turkish Ministry of the Interior

**Date of ethics committee decision:** 06.08.2019

**Ethics committee decision number:** 97703210

# Engaging poverty with tourism: Pro-poor tourism perspective

Oğuz Çolak, Vahit Oğuz Kiper\*, Said Kingır

## ABSTRACT

### Keywords:

Tourism,  
Poverty,  
Pro-poor tourism,  
Effects of tourism.

### Article History:

Submitted: 04.04.2022  
Revised:24.10.2022  
Revised:05.12.2022  
Accepted: 12.12.2022  
Published Online: 31.12.2022

Poverty continues to be one of the most important problems of our time. However, even if different economic measures have been taken to solve poverty, a solution has not been found yet. One of these measures is to ensure the development of tourism in poor regions. The aim of this study is to reveal the relationship between tourism and poverty and to examine whether tourism can be a cure for poverty. In order to reach the aim of the research, a theoretical analysis was carried out. As a result of the research, it was concluded that there is no consensus in the literature on the relationship between tourism and poverty. It has been concluded that there are two different approaches in the literature that tourism reduces poverty and, on the contrary, it does not.

## 1. Introduction

Poverty, which has been discussed more since the 1990s, continues to be one of the most important problems to be solved today. According to World Bank estimates, the number of extremely poor people (those living on \$1.90 a day or less) has decreased from 1,9 billion in 1990 to about 736 million in 2015 (WorldBank, 2021). As can be seen from the estimations, it is seen that this number has decreased due to the policies implemented throughout the world since the 1990s. However, considering the technological developments and the increasing social expectations of people, it is not enough to think only about absolute poverty. Relative poverty, which compares the economic situation of individuals with the general living standards of the society in which they live, is also important (Newman, 2016; Giddens & Sutton, 2018).


The methods of combating poverty are also very diverse. It has an important place in tourism among these methods of struggle. In addition, tourism is kept at the forefront in the fight against poverty by most development economists and governments. This idea is not surprising because of the economic contributions of tourism. In addition, it is seen as an attractive opportunity in undeveloped regions, since the main resource in the development of tourism is environmental factors. In terms of developing regions, tourism is seen as an opportunity and supported in order to achieve the desired economic growth. Although supporting tourism is important in these respects, the criticism that it


reduces poverty continues. As a matter of fact, a pro-poor tourism approach was developed in 1999 and it was aimed to increase the net benefits of tourism for the poor. Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) is not exactly a tourism product but rather an approach to reduce poverty in economically depressed regions (Singh, 2001). Harrison (2008) acknowledged that PPT was based on a worthwhile injunction to help the poor.


The pro-poor tourism approach has likewise been criticized (Schilcher, 2007; Spenceley & Goodwin, 2007; Zapata *et al.*, 2011 ). Similarly, there is the opinion that the pro-poor tourism approach does not provide a complete solution to poverty. For this reason, the aim of the study is to reveal the relationship between tourism and poverty and to examine whether tourism can be a cure for poverty. In this context, the research question is "Does tourism have a poverty reducing effect?" has been determined. A theoretical analysis was carried out in order to reach the aim of the research and to answer the research question. In this context, the secondary data obtained and the literature review and the research question were discussed. At the end of the study, the research question was answered and the necessary measures to make tourism pro-poor were discussed.

While poverty keeps being a global issue, current literature in tourism still discusses how to engage poverty via tourism activities. This paper offers an insight through pro-poor tourism and its effect on poverty. On this perspective,

\*Corresponding Author

**Oğuz Çolak:** Res. Asst., Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Sakarya, Türkiye, Email: [oguzcolak@subu.edu.tr](mailto:oguzcolak@subu.edu.tr), Orcid Id: 0000-0003-2917-3426 

**Vahit Oğuz Kiper:** Res. Asst., Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Sakarya, Türkiye, Email: [oguzkiper@subu.edu.tr](mailto:oguzkiper@subu.edu.tr), Orcid Id: 0000-0001-5558-2341 

**Said Kingır:** Prof. Dr., Sakarya University of Applied Sciences, Sakarya, Türkiye, Email: [saidkingir@subu.edu.tr](mailto:saidkingir@subu.edu.tr), Orcid Id: 0000-0002-5459-3484 

Research paper



the paper is considered to be important by investigating the relationship between poverty and pro-poor tourism approach.

## 2. Conceptual Framework

### *An Evaluation on Poverty*

Evaluations regarding the concept of poverty have been used in different meanings over time (Atkinson, 1987, p.763). Before the industrial revolution and the globalization process, poverty emerged as a result of wars or a natural disaster. The poverty that emerged in these periods had a quality that manifested itself with famine, was specific to a certain region, and could be resolved with the help of wealthy people in the state or society (Bozan, 2017, p.391). However, with the effect of globalization and industrial revolution, the perspective on poverty has also changed. Before the 1970s, poverty reflected segments such as the unemployed and retirees who did not have a certain income. However, after the 1970s, the improvement in the number of working people started to be mentioned (Yücel, 2017, p.117). As a matter of fact, this situation showed itself in the policies of the World Bank on poverty. While the World Bank gave importance to rural development in the 1970s, it struggled with macroeconomic problems in the 1980s and brought the fight against poverty back to the main focus in the 1990s due to international economic conditions. In this period, the main problem was the decline in employment despite economic growth and the transformation of poverty into a serious danger (Şenses, 2017, p.18; Uzun, 2001, p.159-160).

Although poverty is expressed as the inability to meet the basic needs of people in its most general definition, this definition is not sufficient (Aşkın & Aşkın, 2017, p.19). As Karadağ (2018, p.488) states, not having minimum living standards does not mean poverty by itself. Poverty is also a physical, mental and social obstacle (Öztürk & Çetin, 2009). On the other hand, there are opinions that inequality is the basis of poverty (Şantaş, 2017, p.24). In studies published by the World Bank, which have an important role in the subject, poverty has been associated with the concept of welfare. Similar to the studies in the literature, it has been emphasized that poverty can be explained with the concept of consumption, but the most general approach to poverty is possible with the ability of the individual to function in society (Haughton & Khandker, 2009, p.1). In the definitions made, it is seen that the inability to meet the basic needs, which are at the base of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, does not explain poverty by itself. Especially in the globalizing world, people need more. For this reason, the perspective on poverty has also changed.

Poverty does not develop on its own. There are some reasons for the emergence of poverty. These are (Morduch, 1994, p.221; Ingham, 2004, p.27);

- High unemployment rates, especially among the low-quality workforce,
- Unpaid wages,
- Decrease in the value of social assistance payments,
- Structural change (especially the decline of heavy industry and agriculture, regional inequalities with the increase in per capita income),
- Deterioration in quantity and quality of goods and services provided by the public, decrease in social wages.

Another important point that changes our perspective on the concept of poverty is the globalization process. Economic development has accelerated with the disappearance of borders with globalization and the increasing openness of countries. However, the increase in vulnerability due to the fact that countries are open to external influences had negative effects on poverty (Yanar & Şahbaz, 2013, p.56). With the change in the circulation of money in the global economic system, inequality has increased and the rich have become richer and the poor have become poorer (Bozan, 2017, p.400). The most striking example of this is that more than 1,5 billion people in the world live on less than 1 dollar, also an average person in Africa approximately dies 21 years earlier than anyone in Europe. On the other hand, research has emphasized that poverty negatively affects people's psychology and causes stress (Haushofer & Fehr, 2014, p.862). In addition, poverty increases crime rates and reduces access to public services such as education, health and social security (Abay & Sezgin, 2018, p.98). What is really emphasized here is the necessity of taking poverty and inequality together (Carr *et al.*, 2014, p.21; Uzun, 2001, p.165; Şahin & Coşkun, 2009, p.75). Because in a world without inequality, the concept of poverty will disappear.

Taking steps to combat poverty is as important as the consequences of poverty. Various suggestions have been made by researchers on the fight against poverty. Şantaş (2017, p.40) emphasized that steps should be taken in terms of education policies and health expenditures within the scope of fighting against poverty. Beside these, Uzun (2001, p.167) stated that; financial, technical and technological development is important in reducing poverty. The World Bank and IMF, on the other hand, suggest a three-step strategy regarding poverty (Yücel, 2017, p.1119).

1. Creating employment and new opportunities for poor people,
2. Empowering poor people by ensuring their participation in political processes and local decision-making mechanisms,
3. Increasing the security of poor people in order to avoid negative situations such as crises, health problems and exposure to violence.

As can be seen from the anti-poverty articles, the main issue is the effort to integrate poor people into society. It is

in the basic expectations of people to have a job, not to be disconnected from the basic institutions of the society, and to integrate with the society (Lewis, 1966, p.19). As a result, governments and non-governmental organizations that want to fight against poverty should be aware of these expectations and produce strategies accordingly.

### *Relationship Between Tourism and Poverty*

In the late 1990s, as a result of the joint research of the Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership, the International Center for Responsible Tourism, the International Institute for Environment and Development and the Overseas Development Institute, it was decided to explore what is needed to utilize tourism for poverty reduction (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). In 1997, it was reflected in the initiatives of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) that tourism could be used as a tool to fight poverty (Spenceley & Goodwin, 2007). In addition, the United Nations emphasized that tourism can be used as a vector for poverty reduction in sustainable development goals and that the main mission of the global agenda is poverty reduction (Croes, 2014; Anderson, 2015; Garidzirai & Matiza, 2020). It is not easy to measure whether tourism is a barrier to poverty. However, studies on this subject can provide a perspective. For this reason, the relationship between tourism and poverty has been examined from different perspectives in the chapter.

Studies on poverty in the literature have focused on the conceptualization and measurement of poverty and how it should be dealt (Karacaer *et al.*, 2017). Researchers have emphasized that there are difficulties in the analysis of the role of tourism (Sedgley *et al.*, 2012). This is not surprising when the environmental characteristics of tourism are considered. Tourism is an industry that causes not only economic but also social and physical effects on people's lives. This multidimensionality of tourism is also valid for poverty. As Zhao and Ritchie (2007, p.121) states, "Due to the multidimensional nature of poverty, it is always a challenge to understand any issue related to poverty as a wide variety of intertwined factors such as economic, sociopolitical and cultural forces must be taken into account". This statement is also valid for tourism and poverty related studies.

The first view on the subject is the same from the perspective of organizations. Tourism can be effective in reducing poverty due to the positive effects it provides and therefore it should be encouraged. It has been emphasized that tourism should be promoted especially in underdeveloped and developing countries in terms of fighting and reducing poverty, revealing opportunities for vulnerable groups and increasing welfare (Chok *et al.*, 2007; Vanegas, 2012; Muchapondwa & Stage, 2013; Croes, 2014; Koens & Thomas, 2016). On the other hand, in a study conducted by Mitchell and others (2007), it was emphasized that tourism affects the poor in three different ways. These are; direct impact through the provision of

financial income from tourism-oriented businesses, secondary impacts from non-tourism sectors, and dynamic impacts due to impacts on entrepreneurship, factor markets, other export sectors and the natural environment. On the other hand, the positive effects of tourism were also highlighted in the opinions about the reduction of poverty by tourism. It has been emphasized that tourism contributes to other environmental factors, especially the economic aspect of the poor. The positive effects of tourism in terms of reducing poverty are as follows (UNWTO, 2004; Mitchell & Ashley, 2007; Çetin, 2012; Medina-Muñoz *et al.*, 2016);

- Tourism contributes to increase employment,
- Tourism is very diverse in terms of its structure and has the potential to support other economic activities,
- Tourism is a labor-intensive industry. Therefore, it allows many people to have jobs,
- It enables local entrepreneurs to earn a livelihood,
- Providing opportunities for a large number of women, young individuals who represent a high percentage of the poor,
- Recognizing the value of the environment in terms of social, physical and economic aspects and increasing the sense of ownership,
- By creating the infrastructure and superstructure areas required for the realization of tourism, it creates the opportunity for the poor people to find solutions to various needs.

As stated, these contributions of tourism provide advantages in terms of reducing poverty. As a matter of fact, what is stated in the studies has also been proven by empirical findings. Studies have shown that growth in the tourism industry directly reduces poverty (Vanegas, 2012), tourism development improves accessibility, prices of goods and services, employment and income-generating issues (Karmilah *et al.*, 2014), and social advances such as access to education and health facilities (Anderson, 2015) and its development in rural areas provides many advantages (Aylan, Gök Sarı, & Şalvarcı, 2019; Doğan & Bilici, 2020). As can be seen from the researches, it can be said that tourism development reduces poverty and causes improvements.

The second opinion on the subject, contrary to the first opinion, is that tourism development does not reduce poverty, on the contrary, this situation causes negative effects. The first of these reasons is not only the economic dimension of poverty, but the necessity of highlighting its social and human dimensions (Serin Karacaer *et al.*, 2017). Living standards of poverty, social exclusion, education, access to health services, etc. It creates difficulty in analyzing the effects of tourism due to its dimensions that can be measured. Second, it limits the commercial opportunities brought about by the unequal distribution of power among the stakeholders (Koens & Thomas, 2016). In addition, it is the isolation of tourists from the local people in some types of tourism in social life. In this case,



it is likely to reduce the gains of the local people. Third, there are problems caused by the labor-intensive nature of tourism, the length of working hours and low wages, and the unequal distribution of benefits arising from tourism (Oviedo-García *et al.*, 2019). In addition, tourism creates an economic cost in the region. Especially with the presence of foreign businesses in the region, it may cause more impoverishment of the local people who do not have the cost gain.

**Table 1. Pros and Cons of Tourism on Poverty**

Positive Impact	Negative Impact
Directly reduces poverty	Increasing costs of social services such as education, healthcare etc.
Improving accessibility to goods and services	Unequal distribution of investment power
Improving employment rates	Might isolate locals from tourists according to tourism type
Social advances such as education and healthcare	Might cause heavy work conditions with long hours and low wages

Source: Interpreted by authors according to literature above

The above reasons are supported by empirical findings. Tourism does not increase international welfare and has a low ability to solve poverty problems (Dimitrov *et al.*, 2018), Tourism will not change the livelihood of local people other than the basic means of livelihood (Kebede & Bayeh, 2017), lack of adequate infrastructure poses difficulties in developing tourism (Chok *et al.*, 2007) and it has been emphasized that tourism has little tangible impact for people living in rural areas (Spenceley & Goodwin, 2007).

As can be seen, there is no consensus on the relationship between tourism and poverty. This is also the case in terms of empirical findings. In studies conducted in different destinations, it has been stated that tourism has positive and negative advantages in terms of poverty. However, no consensus has been reached on this issue. The main reason for this is the lack of empirical evidence (Winters, Corral & Mora, 2013). Even if some regional analyzes are carried out, they are not enough. As stated by Mitchell and Ashley (2007), these analyzes cannot determine the nature, scale, and determinants of the tourism industry's effects on poverty.

It is important to examine the bidirectional relationship between tourism and the poor. Because in this way, the advantages and disadvantages of tourism's effect on the poor can be grasped (Çetin, 2012). As expressed in the sustainability tourism approach, it is necessary to minimize the negative effects of tourism and maximize the positive effects. This view is also important in terms of reducing the poverty of tourism. For this reason, there are some moves that need to be made in order to realize the poverty reduction potential of tourism. These moves are as in Table 2.

**Table 2. Actions for Tourism to Decrease Poverty**

Direct encounter among local enterprises and tourists	Ensuring poor access to markets
Developing government programs to decrease poverty	Determining the main role that tourism will play in basic development points such as infrastructure and health services
Developing financial aid support for poorer to join into tourism economics	Building the capacity of governments and non-governmental organizations to respond to opportunities
Increasing ability of reaching tourism benefits for poorer	Development of infrastructure to meet the needs of the tourism industry
Integrating politics for poorer to benefit from tourism and implementing them into governmental strategies.	Multi-method approaches for understanding the connection between tourism and poor people.
Developing employment opportunities for poorer.	Governments should encourage investment that provides jobs for the poor
Ensuring and strengthening cooperation between the private sector and the poor	Considering the negative social and environmental impacts of tourism
Filling the skills gap for the realization of tourism	

Source: WTO, 2002; Jamieson *et al.*, 2004; Özkök, 2006; Mitchell & Ashley, 2007; Oviedo-García *et al.*, 2019. Compiled by authors within sources.

As can be seen from the table, what needs to be done for tourism to reduce poverty is to prevent unplanned development. Especially with the planned tourism development, the factors mentioned above should be taken into account. In this way, it can be said that it is possible for tourism to reduce poverty. The number of people participating in tourism is increasing day by day and participation in tourism is becoming a necessity. For this reason, it is necessary to prevent tourism from being an industry that only some segments can access (Sedgley, Pritchard & Morgan, 2012).

### 3. Pro-Poor Tourism

The United Nations emphasizes the need to maximize the potential of tourism in reducing poverty. Therefore, in 1999, Pro-Poor Tourism was first introduced into the tourism literature as a poverty reduction strategy. Pro-poor tourism is defined as tourism that provides net benefits for the poor (Roe & Urquhart, 2001). This approach strengthens the benefits brought by the tourism industry and the bond between stakeholders and the poor (Çetin, 2012). In particular, development economists and policy makers use pro-poor tourism to distinguish between economic development and forms of economic development that positively impact poor people's lives and lead to their salvation (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004). Thanks to the approach, it is aimed to activate the tourism potential in reducing and development of poverty, especially in underdeveloped regions, how and what kinds of opportunities can be created for the poor, and to distribute the benefits obtained (International Labour Organization, 2005; Karacaer, Sert & Öztürk, 2017; Doğan & Bilici, 2020). There are certain principles of the pro-poor tourism approach. These are as in Table 3 below.

**Table 3. Pro-Poor Tourism Principles**

Principle	Explanation
Participation	Poor people need to participate in decisions so that their livelihood priorities are reflected in the development of tourism.
Holistic Perspective	The economic, social and environmental livelihood concerns of the poor need to be defined in the short and long term.
Balanced Approach	The diversity of actions required at both the micro and macro level must be provided.
Well Established Practice	Although these principles are valid for any tourism segment, they may differ between strategies.
Distribution	Analyzes of the distribution of both benefits and costs should be performed.
Flexibility	A flexible approach to different situations that may be encountered in the development of tourism is required.
Commercial Reality	Strategies should be implemented within the constraints of commercial viability.
Learning Between Diciplines	Pro-poor tourism also requires knowledge of poverty analysis, environmental management, good governance and small business development.

Source: DFID (1991, s.1) quoted by Chok et al., 2007.

In addition, in order to realize pro-poor tourism, it was emphasized that the way of organizing tourism should be realized from the lowest level of the society, local values should be brought to the forefront and the necessity of establishing relations with a wide variety of stakeholders was emphasized (WTO, 2002; Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Zapata, Hall, Lindo & Vanderschaeghe, 2011). As can be seen in the principles, pro-poor tourism is aimed to increase the benefits for the poor. In particular, the debates about the relationship between tourism and poverty continue at this point. Ashley, Goodwin and Roe (2001) emphasized in their case study that tourism creates new opportunities and benefits for the poor when the participation of the poor is increased. On the other hand, pro-poor tourism has some positive and negative effects. These effects are as in Table 4.

As can be seen from the table, this approach also has negative effects. Especially while trying to increase the positive effects of tourism, pressure may occur on the local people. As a matter of fact, criticisms of this approach

support this view. The first criticism is aimed at reducing the inequality that limits the increase of benefits for the poor within the approach (Schilcher, 2007). In particular, the lack of financial support and the exclusion of the poor from community structures create problems in the development of this approach (Zapata et al., 2011). On the other hand, it was also stated that the situation should be considered from a broad perspective while deciding on initiatives due to its positive and negative effects on the poor (Spenceley & Goodwin, 2007).

Another point to be considered is the provision of sustainable tourism and increasing the benefits of the local people. Even if the aim of pro-poor tourism is to reduce poverty, it is seen that local people migrate due to excessive tourism in some destinations. Negative environmental impacts cause inequality in such destinations (Chok et al., 2007). The increase in the demand for products and services, together with the overcrowding, brings along price increases and difficulties in use, that is, increases the cost of living. Especially after this difficult process faced by local people and tourism workers living in popular destinations, some reactions occur. The first of these reactions is to make tourists feel uncomfortable. However, the local people, whose expectations are not fulfilled despite showing this discomfort, have a more negative view of tourists. A second type of reaction is the abandonment of the inhabited area. This is the case for Venice, which is one of the destinations affected by over-tourism. As a result of the researches, it was stated that there will not be a Venetian person in the population of Venice in 2050. As can be seen, pro-poor tourism is not a solution on its own. In order to increase the benefits of tourism in any way, it is necessary to develop a tourism based on sustainable tourism and the priority of local people.

Poverty continues to be one of the most important problems of our time. In particular, the fact that people continue their lives under unequal conditions brings serious psychological, social and physical problems. For this reason, international organizations and countries are

**Table 4. Effects of Pro-Poor tourism**

Positive Economical Effects	Negative Economical Effects
Providing employment, income and job opportunities to SMEs	Pressure on services and facilities requiring increased investment
Direct employment of the poor	Increased cost of living for local people
User fees from visits	
Economic donations of tourists and tourism enterprises	
Positive Social Effects	Negative Social Effects
Opportunities for education and learning	The metamorphosis of culture
Increase in health, education and other welfare	Negative impact on local traditions and lifestyles
Improving social confidence and status by the acknowledging of the society	Local people leaving their place of residence
Differentiating income sources	Increased crime rate
Positive Environmental Effects	Negative Environmental Effects
Clear positive impacts on poor	Increasing pollution
	Environmental degradation

Source: Jamieson et al., (2004)

**Table 5. Statistics of Tourism in Poorest Countries**

Region	Country	Purchasing Power (\$) (Lowest)	Incoming Tourists Number	Tourism Income (\$)
Africa	Burundi	784.9	---	4 million (2018)
Africa	Central African Republic	986.7	---	---
Africa	Malavi	1,106.6	871.000 (2018)	42 million
Africa	South Sudan	1,234.7	836.000 (2018)	
Africa	Nijer	1,278.7	192.000	
Africa	Mozambique	1,338.1	2,019 milyon	252 million
Africa	Liberia	1,491.0	---	---
Africa	Democratic Republic of Congo	1,146.5	156.000 (2018)	---
Africa	Eritre	1,625.5	---	---
Africa	Togo	1,667.3	876.000	153 million (2018)
Africa	Madagascar	1,719.9	376.000	193 million
Africa	Sierra Leone	1,794.3	57.000 (2018)	39 milyon (2018)
Africa	Gine-Bissau	2,077.4	52.000	20 million (2018)
Asia-Pacific	Afghanistan	2,156.4	---	72 million
Africa	Uganda	2,284.3	1,850.000 (2018)	1,463 billion
Africa	Rwanda	2,325.4	---	---
Africa	Ethiopia	2,319.7	812.000	778 million
Africa	Mali	2,424.3	217.000	227 million (2018)
Africa	Burkina Faso	2,274.7	143.000	121 million (2018)
Ocenia	Kiribati	2,372.5	---	---

Source: Prepared via information from WorldBank (2021) and UNWTO (2020).

making moves in their economies to solve poverty. One of these moves is tourism. In this study, the poverty reduction potential of tourism was examined. As a result of the examinations carried out, it was concluded that the discussions on the potential of tourism continue in the studies in the literature. Two different views emerged in the studies. While the first view is that tourism creates an advantage for the poor due to the economic, social and environmental advantages it brings, the second view is that tourism does not have an impact as claimed. For this reason, a pro-poor tourism approach has been developed in order to increase the effects of tourism on the poor. However, it has not been possible to clearly reveal the effects of the pro-poor tourism approach. At this point, there is a problem especially due to the difficulty of measuring the net benefit of tourism and the lack of empirical evidence. In particular, more research is needed to see this net benefit. On the other hand, the impact of tourism on the poorest countries is another important point. According to the World Bank data, 20 countries in purchasing power parity and their gains from tourism are as in Table 5.

As can be seen from the table, the region most affected by poverty is Africa. 18 of the 20 poorest countries in the world are located in the African region. In general, statistics show that the African region has only 3% of tourism arrivals, a total of 70 million tourists came to this region in 2019 and 34.3 billion revenues were obtained (UNWTO, 2020). As can be seen from both the statistics and the table, it cannot be said that tourism has a significant contribution to the poorest 20 countries. Although countries such as Uganda, Mali, Togo and Mozambique earn income from tourism, this figure is very low when compared to developed countries. In particular, poor countries do not have tourism infrastructure, do not have power in terms of promotion or are disadvantaged in terms

of touristic attraction or political reasons may be the reasons for this. However, if it is desired to increase the net benefit of tourism to the poor and to apply a pro-poor tourism approach, these regions should be brought into tourism.

Among the studies in the literature, it has been determined that tourism reduces poverty in some regions. It is normal for tourism to make an economic contribution, especially at the point where it exists. However, when we look at poverty from a broad perspective rather than at the regional level, it can be said that this effect is weakened. In addition, in some regions, it has been seen that tourism increases poverty instead of reducing it and causes problems in terms of sustainable tourism development.

As a result of the study, some suggestions have been developed so that tourism can reduce poverty and be pro-poor:

- Tourism's potential to reduce poverty should be addressed with a holistic approach, not just at the regional level.
- There is a need to develop methods in order to see the net benefits of tourism for the poor.
- Sustainability approach should not be forgotten during the development of tourism, especially in countries where growth is at the forefront.
- Sustainability should be at the forefront in the development of pro-poor tourism.
- An approach in which the local people are at the forefront and participate in the decisions should be exhibited while the development of tourism is carried out.
- Tourism should increase the gains of local people and reduce their costs. A tourism that increases the cost of living is also less likely to be pro-poor.

- The benefits of tourism should be reflected not only on economic but also on other environmental factors.
- Planning studies in which all stakeholders participate in tourism development should be carried out.

This study analyzed the relationship between tourism and poverty with the help of secondary data. However, as previously emphasized, more studies are needed to see the net benefits of tourism to the poor. In particular, it is important to present empirical evidence in this regard.

### References

- Abay, M. Ç., & Sezgin, S. (2018). Türkiye ve bazı AB ülkelerinde yoksulluk ve gelir dağılımı. *Journal of Life Economics*, 5(4), 97-110.
- Anderson, W. (2015). Cultural tourism and poverty alleviation in rural Kilimanjaro, Tanzania. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 13(3), 208-224.
- Ashley, C., Goodwin, H., & Roe, D. (2001). Pro-poor tourism strategies: Expanding opportunities for the poor. London: ODI.
- Aşkın, E. Ö., & Aşkın, U. (2017). Kadına yönelik aile içi şiddet ve yoksulluk ilişkisi: aile içi şiddet mağduru kadınlar üzerine bir araştırma. *Kapadokya Akademik Bakış*, 1(2), 16-37.
- Atkinson, A. B. (1987). On the measurement of poverty. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*, 749-764.
- Aylan, F. K., Gök Sarı, H., & Şalvarcı, S. (2019). Kırsal yoksulluğun giderilmesinde kadın girişimciliğin rolü: lavanta kokulu köy. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, 7(2), 1271-1289.
- Bozan, M. (2017). Yoksulluk algısına farklı bir bakış. *Bartın Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 8(15), 389-410.
- Carr, S. C., Thompson, M., Dalal, A. K., De Guzman, J. M., Gloss, A., Munns, L., & Steadman, A. (2014). Psychology and poverty reduction: a global special Issue. *International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation*.
- Çetin, Z. Ö. (2012). Yoksulluğu azaltmada yeni bir yaklaşım: yoksul-yanlı turizm. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, (11), 97-108.
- Chok, S., Macbeth, J., & Warren, C. (2007). Tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation: A critical analysis of 'pro-poor tourism' and implications for sustainability. *Current issues in Tourism*, 10(2-3), 144-165.
- Croes, R. (2014). Tourism and poverty reduction in Latin America: where does the region stand? *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 6(3), 293-300.
- Dimitrov, P. M., Kraseta, R., Dimitrov, B., & Parvanov, P. (2018). Bulgarian tourism and the problem of poverty alleviation in Bulgaria. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 14(2), 45-52.
- Doğan, H., & Bilici, N. S. (2020). Kırsal kalkınma yaklaşımına farklı bir bakış: yoksul yanlı turizm ve Elazığ ili örneği. *Journal of Bartın Faculty of Forestry*, 22(2), 332-340.
- Garidzirai, R., & Matiza, T. (2020). Exploring the tourism-poverty alleviation nexus in the brics group of nations. *Ekonomika*, 99(1), 93-109.
- Giddens, A., & Sutton, W. P. (2018). Sosyolojide temel kavramlar. (3. bs). (Ali Esgin, Çev). Ankara: Phoenix Yayınevi.
- Harrison, D. (2008). Pro-poor tourism: A critique. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5), 851-868. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01436590802105983>
- Harrison, D., & Schipani, S. (2007). Lao tourism and poverty alleviation: Community-based tourism and the private sector. *Current issues in tourism*, 10(2-3), 194-230.
- Haughton, J., & Khandker, S. R. (2009). *Handbook on poverty inequality*. Washington: World Bank Publications.
- Haushofer, J., & Fehr, E. (2014). On the psychology of poverty. *Science*, 344(6186), 862-867.
- Ingham, B. (2004). *International economics: a European focus*. Pearson Education.
- International Labour Organization. (2005). *Pautas metodológicas para el análisis de experiencias de turismo comunitario*. Ginebra: Organización Internacional del Trabajo.
- Jamieson, W., Goodwin, H., & Edmunds, C. (2004). Contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation pro-poor tourism and the challenge of measuring impacts. *Transport Policy and Tourism Section Transport and Tourism Division UN ESCAP*.
- Karacaer, S., Sert, A. N., & Öztürk, Y. (2017). Yoksul Yanlı Turizm Yaklaşımı Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme, *Türk Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, Cilt.1, Sayı.3, ss.31-40.
- Karadağ, A. K. (2018). Göç, yoksulluk ve insan hakları. *İnönü Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, 9(2), 485-498.
- Karmilah, M., Nuryanti, W., Soewarno, N., & Setiawan, B. (2014). Community involvement in tourism development: As strategy for poverty alleviation after the earthquake (Case study: Kasongan Village Yogyakarta). *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 4(12), 1-7.
- Kebede, N. S., & Bayeh, B. E. (2017). Alignment of tourism against poverty in Bale eco-region, Dinsho district, Ethiopia. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, 17(4), 247-261.
- Koens, K., & Thomas, R. (2016). "You know that's a rip-off": policies and practices surrounding micro-enterprises and poverty alleviation in South African township tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(12), 1641-1654.
- Lewis, D. K. (1966). An argument for the identity theory. *The Journal of Philosophy*, 63(1), 17-25.
- Medina-Muñoz, D. R., Medina-Muñoz, R. D., & Gutiérrez-Pérez, F. J. (2016). A sustainable development approach to assessing the engagement of tourism enterprises in

- poverty alleviation. *Sustainable Development*, 24(4), 220-236.
- Mitchell, J., & Ashley, C. (2007). *Pathways to Prosperity – How can tourism reduce poverty: A review of pathways, evidence and methods*. Forthcoming World Bank / ODI.
- Morduch, J. (1994). Poverty and vulnerability. *The American Economic Review*, 84(2), 221-225.
- Muchapondwa, E., & Stage, J. (2013). The economic impacts of tourism in Botswana, Namibia and South Africa: Is poverty subsiding?. *Natural Resources Forum*, 37(2), 80-89.
- Newman, D. M. (2016). *Sosyoloji günlük yaşamın mimarisini keşfetmek* (3.bs). (A. Arslan, Çev.). Ankara: Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık.
- Oviedo-García, M. Á., González-Rodríguez, M. R., & Vega-Vázquez, M. (2019). Does sun-and-sea all-inclusive tourism contribute to poverty alleviation and/or income inequality reduction? The case of the Dominican Republic. *Journal of Travel Research*, 58(6), 995-1013.
- Özkök, F. (2006). Yoksulluğun azaltılmasında turizmin yeri. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 5(15), 85-98.
- Öztürk, M., & Çetin, B. I. (2009). Dünyada ve Türkiye'de yoksulluk ve kadınlar. *Journal of Yasar University*, 4: 16, 2661-2698. -2662
- Roe, D., & Urquhart, P. (2001). *Pro-poor tourism: harnessing the world's largest industry for the world's poor*. London: IIED.
- Şahin, T., & Coşkun, S. (2009). Sosyal dışlanma ve yoksulluk ilişkisi. *Başbakanlık Sosyal Yardımlaşma ve Dayanışma Genel Müdürlüğü*.
- Şantaş, F. (2017). Yoksulluk olgusu ve Türkiye'de yoksulluk ve hane refahının DHS WEALTH INDEX ile değerlendirilmesi. *Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, 18(2), 23-42.
- Schilcher, D. (2007). Growth versus equity: The continuum of pro-poor tourism and neoliberal governance. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2-3), 166-193.
- Sedgley, D., Pritchard, A., & Morgan, N. (2012). 'Tourism poverty' in affluent societies: Voices from inner-city London. *Tourism management*, 33(4), 951-960.
- Şenses, F. (2017). *Küreselleşmenin öteki yüzü: Yoksulluk*. İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.
- Singh, T. V. (2001). Can there be Pro-poor Tourism? *Tourism Recreation Research*, 26(3), 1-2. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2001.11081192>
- Spenceley, A., & Goodwin, H. (2007). Nature-based tourism and poverty alleviation: Impacts of private sector and parastatal enterprises in and around Kruger National Park, South Africa. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2-3), 255-277.
- UNWTO (World Tourism Organization). (2004). *Tourism and Poverty Alleviation Recommendations for Action*. Madrid: UNWTO publishing.
- UNWTO (World Tourism Organization). (2020). *Unwto tourism highlist*. Madrid: UNWTO Publishing.
- Uzun, A. M. (2001). Yoksulluk olgusu ve Dünya Bankası. *CÜ İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, 4(2), 155-174.
- Vanegas, M. (2012). Poverty elimination through tourism dynamics. In *Handbook of Tourism and Quality-of-life Research* (pp. 65-83). Springer, Dordrecht.
- Winters, P., Corral, L., & Mora, A. M. (2013). Assessing the role of tourism in poverty alleviation: A research agenda. *Development Policy Review*, 31(2), 177-202.
- WorldBank. (2021). retrieved from <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/poverty> on 25.04.2021
- WTO. (2002). *Tourism and poverty reduction*. Madrid: WTO Publishing.
- Yanar, R., & Şahbaz, A. (2013). Gelişmekte olan ülkelerde küreselleşmenin yoksulluk ve gelir eşitsizliği üzerindeki etkileri. *Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, 8(3), 55-74.
- Yücel, C. (2017). Yoksulluk, yerel ve küresel eşitsizlikler. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 16(63), 1111-1126.
- Zapata, M. J., Hall, C. M., Lindo, P., & Vanderschaeghe, M. (2011). Can community-based tourism contribute to development and poverty alleviation? Lessons from Nicaragua. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(8), 725-749.
- Zhao, W., & Ritchie, J. B. (2007). Tourism and poverty alleviation: An integrative research framework. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2-3), 119-143.

**INFO PAGE**

## Engaging poverty with tourism: Pro-poor tourism perspective

**Abstract**

Poverty continues to be one of the most important problems of our time. However, even if different economic measures have been taken to solve poverty, a solution has not been found yet. One of these measures is to ensure the development of tourism in poor regions. The aim of this study is to reveal the relationship between tourism and poverty and to examine whether tourism can be a cure for poverty. In order to reach the aim of the research, a theoretical analysis was carried out. As a result of the research, it was concluded that there is no consensus in the literature on the relationship between tourism and poverty. It has been concluded that there are two different approaches in the literature that tourism reduces poverty and, on the contrary, it does not.

**Keywords:** Tourism, Poverty, Pro-poor tourism, Effects of tourism

**Authors**

Full Name	Author contribution roles	Contribution rate
<b>Oğuz Çolak:</b>	Conceptualism, Methodology, Investigation, Data Curation	40%
<b>Vahit Oğuz Kiper:</b>	Conceptualism, Writing - Original Draft, Visualization	40%
<b>Said Kınır:</b>	Supervision	20%

**Author statement:** Author(s) declare(s) that All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Declaration of Conflicting Interests:** The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article

**This paper does not required ethics committee report**

**Justification:** The methodology of this study does not require an ethics committee report.