

**JOURNAL OF
TOURISMOLOGY**

Journal of Tourismology
Volume: 8 • Number: 2 • December 2022
e-ISSN: 2459-1939 • DOI: 10.26650/jot

INDEXING AND ABSTRACTING
TÜBİTAK-ULAKBİM TR Index
Türkiye Turizm Dizini
CABAbstracts
CABI Leisure Tourism database
EBSCO Central & Eastern European Academic Source
DOAJ
ERIH PLUS
RePEc IDEAS
RePEc EconPapers
SOBIAD
ASOS Index

Journal of Tourismology
Volume: 8 • Number: 2 • December 2022
e-ISSN: 2459-1939 • DOI: 10.26650/jot

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PUBLISHER

Istanbul University Press
Istanbul University Central Campus,
34452 Beyazıt, Fatih, Istanbul, Türkiye
Phone: +90 (212) 440 00 00

Authors bear responsibility for the content of their published articles.

The publication language of the journal is English.

This is a scholarly, international, peer-reviewed and open-access journal published biannually
in June and December.

Publication Type: Periodical

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Assessing The Contribution of Turkish Scholars to Tourism Scholarship

Beyza Hatırnaz¹ , Dilek Demirer² 

Abstract

The gradual growth of international tourism literature has caused the emergence of curiosity to what extent countries contribute to these studies and who are the top publishers. The main purpose of the study is to determine the contributions of Turkish authors to the international tourism literature. For this reason, the publications of Turkish authors from the first issue of the journal to the end of 2018 in 36 tourism journals were analyzed according to the determined bibliometric parameters. As a result of the research, it was revealed that a significant part of the publication production in the field of international tourism was made by certain researchers and the citations were collected by these authors.

Keywords

Turkish Scholars, Tourism Journals, International Tourism Literature, Contribution, Bibliometry

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To cite this article: Hatırnaz, B., & Demirer, D. (2022). Assessing the contribution of turkish scholars to tourism scholarship. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 159-193. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.977585>



Introduction

Today, bibliometric analysis is used in many studies to solve the questions that seek answers in determining the scientific situation of tourism. Bibliometric methods are used in many researches for examining the periodic changes in trends, analyzing what kind of knowledge is provided by whom to the field, determining the boundaries of scattered information, evaluating the knowledge impact, analyzing the research performance, measuring scientific productivity, the contributions of leading academicians, institutions and regions, or revealing cooperation patterns. Moreover, as bibliometry studies help to understand the fundamentals of tourism research, they can also capture the evolution and performance of a journal, institution or country in the production of knowledge.

In particular, it can be said that studies evaluating the countries that attract the most tourists and also earn the most income from tourism provide more meaningful results than others. In these countries, it is expected to follow trends in tourism activities and to present them in a more professional manner and with a sustainability focus. In order for this situation to occur, a solid academic structure is required. As the contribution of tourism to the economy increases, the sector becomes more important for the country, and the number and quality of the faculties that provide the education and research services needed increase. Thus, a well-trained workforce and successful academicians take their place in the sector. The studies carried out contribute to the development of education and science as well as the sector.

In this context, it is much more meaningful to know the research contributions of academics trained by leading countries. In a country where tourism is valued, the studies of an academic who has seen all the good and bad aspects of the sector is exemplary; they offer many tips for other academics and countries to improve themselves.

The aim of this study is to reveal the contributions of Turkish authors to international tourism literature based on productivity data in tourism journals. For this purpose, the publications of researchers from a country whose native language is not English are examined in journals publishing in English. Turkish authors who published in 36 journals in the field of tourism from the establishment years of the journals until the end of 2018 and their writings are analyzed by various bibliometric parameters. The most productive Turkish researchers and the most influential studies in the international tourism field are tried to be determined by using the method of counting publications and citation analysis. Turkey is placed among the top 10 research oriented countries in the country's ranking research (Shen, Morrison, Wu, Park, Li and Li, 2014; Lee, Au, Li and Law, 2014; Park, Phillips, Canter and Abbott, 2011). The thought that it is more difficult for a country whose mother tongue is

not English to publish abroad, especially in leading journals and the curiosity about who has publications in these journals have been influential in choosing Turkey as a sample.

This study is a country evaluation study in general. In the study, the contributions of Turkish tourism authors to international tourism literature are determined, and the effects of leading names in the tourism community are taken into consideration.

When the literature is examined, it is seen that the evaluation studies on countries are carried out nationally and internationally, and also through academicians working in institutions affiliated to a country. While, in national-based studies analyzing national journals and theses, in international reviews are examined leading websites and databases in tourism. Also, the analyses made on the authors are taken as the basis the employees working in the institutions in a certain country. Although this study is an international review, it was not carried out only on authors/academics working in institutions in Turkey.

This article, with a bibliometric approach, provides an overview of the contributions of Turkish researchers in indexed journals in the field of international tourism. There is no holistic study of what kind of publications our Turkish scholars have made in the field of tourism from past to present, on which subjects they concentrate, and who are the most productive and cited authors, etc. This article aims to identify the mentioned issues and to create a framework in this regard. The study is also a tribute to the valuable names who have successfully represented Turkey in the field of international tourism.

Literature Review

The gradual growth of the tourism academic community has made us wonder about the research performance of countries as well as authors, universities and journals in tourism field, and this has been the subject of some studies in the literature.

When these studies carried out under various methods are examined, it is seen that the studies conducted in the countries can be grouped into the titles of investigation, ranking, evaluation and cooperation.

Investigation Studies

One of the most intense studies in monitoring the tourism literature development of a country is the investigation studies. In these studies, especially through techniques such as bibliometric analysis, content analysis and systematic analysis, literature; *a subject or course of development of tourism types* (Wildlife tourism research in

China, Cong, Newsome, Wu and Morrison, 2014; Family tourism research in China, Wu and Wall, 2016; Sustainable tourism theme graduate theses in Turkey, GÜdü Demirbulat and Tetik Dincer, 2017), *tourism-related sub-disciplines related literature development* (tourism marketing development in Turkey to literature, Kozak, 2001; Özel and Kozak, 2012), *the most discussed topics* (United Kingdom and Ireland: Botterill, Haven and Gale, 2002; top European destinations-PT, ES, UK, FR, D, iT Oliveira, De Man and Guerreiro, 2015; Turkey: Tekin, 2016), *tourism associated with what the discipline mostly* (China: Huang, 2011; United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand: Weiler, Moyle and McLennan, 2012; top European destinations: Oliveira, De Man and Guerreiro, 2015), *methods used by researchers in studies* (Scandinavian-Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden-researchers' studies, Mehmetoğlu, 2004), *status of prepared dissertations* (North America: Jafari and Aaser, 1988; Meyer-Arendt, 2000; Meyer-Arendt and Justice, 2002; UK and Ireland: Botterill, Haven and Gale, 2002; Afifi, 2013, China: Bao, 2002; Huang, 2011, Turkey: Kozak, 1998, Egypt: Afifi, 2009, European Countries-UK, Spain, France, Germany, Italy and Portugal- Oliveira, De Man and Guerreiro, 2015, The United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand: Weiler, Moyle, and McLennan, 2012) and *the development, change and contributions of national tourism journals over time* (Tourism Tribune Huang and Hsu, 2008; Anatolia Tourism Research Journal (JA / Journal of Anatolia): Kozak, 1994) of the relevant country are investigated.

Ranking and Contribution Studies

Rankings are important indicators in evaluating the science performance of countries in the field of tourism. In these studies, which are currently done as an alternative to websites that list countries under various methods, the research performance of the 'most productive countries' in the field of tourism are examined, especially through leading journals in the tourism and accommodation field by using different counting techniques such as Absolute (AB) and Relative (RE) counts, citation counts, frequencies, and fractional counting technique.

On the Scimago Journal & Country Rank site, the USA seems the top contributing country to tourism research in the list of 168 countries ranked according to various data (documents, citable documents, citations, self-citations, citations per documents, h-index) in the "tourism and hospitality management" category between 1996 and 2018. The US is followed by UK and Australia (www.scimagojr.com). Other studies on this subject (Law and Cheung, 2008; Park, Phillips, Canter and Abbott, 2011; Lee, Au, Li and Law, 2014) also support this result.

When the contributions of the regions to the leading tourism journals (ATR, JTR, TM) are examined, it is seen that North American authors represented the majority

of tourism research in the 80s and 90s, and these authors mostly published in JTR (Sheldon, 1991; Jogaratnam, McCleary, Mena, Yoo, 2005; Jogaratnam, Chon, McCleary, Mena, Yoo, 2005). Europe and Australia/New Zealand follow North America, respectively. In addition, these results confirm the first three countries (US, UK and Australia), which are determined to provide the most studies in the tourism field.

Evaluation Studies

The fact that tourism is an important source of socio-economic input for countries has enabled the countries to develop tourism education and institutionalization in order to provide better service. The number of tourism institutions is increasing day by day, especially in countries that generate large income from tourism, and accordingly, academic publications are increasing as well as academic staff and students working in institutions.

While contributing to the development of the tourism literature, on the other hand, these publications, in which suggestions regarding the development are presented by taking into account the evolution of the sectoral situation in the countries, have been recently evaluated with content analysis and bibliometry studies. Thus, both the authors interested in tourism and the industry can gain a general perspective on the development of the tourism literature in a country.

Studies in which countries are evaluated are basically carried out through national and international sources. In studies evaluating tourism-related studies published in national resources in a country and studies about tourism published in national journals, dissertations, books, internet resources and databases are examined, and inferences are made regarding the development of the country's tourism. The type of source with the highest number of publications, the author(s) with the highest number of publications, the institutions where the authors work, the status of multiple authors, the authors' titles, research topics, methods used in the studies, and the information about the cited sources are examined. The studies in which China is evaluated by Zhang, Lan, Qi, Wu (2017), Turkey by Kozak (1995), Evren and Kozak (2014), are examples of this type of studies.

Researches on tourism authors working in institutions affiliated to a country are also evaluated within this scope. Publications from leading tourism journals or search engines are analyzed with various techniques such as publication counting, keyword, network, citation and co-citation analysis. Then, important changes and "the mosts" in different time periods are determined and collaborations in research are examined. In the literature review; studies evaluating the trends of tourism researchers from

Asia (Leung, Leung, Bai, Law, 2011), Australia and New Zealand (Benckendorff, 2009b; 2010), North American (Benckendorff, 2009c), Africa (Yankholmes, 2014), and China (Sun, Wei, Zhang, 2017) and their contribution to tourism literature are to attract attention.

In studies evaluating tourism researches published in international sources about a country; the research performance of a country is examined through the studies obtained when the keywords related to the examined country are entered into the websites of internationally leading tourism journals and important academic databases (e.g. Andreu et al, 2010; “China”, “Chinese”, “Hong Kong” and “Macao”). In evaluations; the number of publications, the journal with the highest publication number, the subjects studied intensively, the methods used in the studies, the most cited studies, the most productive authors and the institutions are used. Such that, Andreu, Claver and Quer (2010), Tsang and Hsu (2011) evaluate research performance in China; Köseoglu, Sehitoglu and Parnell (2015) in Turkey; Musinguzi (2016) in Qatar and Singh (2016) in India.

Cooperation Studies

Another type of study evaluating the field of tourism is the studies that examine the networks between authors, subjects and institutions that are effective in the dissemination of information in a country. The fact that the network structure is effective in spreading knowledge has led researchers to study towards revealing the structure of cooperation networks (Fan, Li, Law, 2016: 9). In these studies; collaborations of authors and institutions, networks of topics and publications were tried to be revealed by Social Network Analysis (SNA).

In tourism related bibliometric articles; SNA is used to examine the cooperation relations between tourism researchers through co-authorship data (Zhang, 2015), to reveal the links between research topics and universities by examining the network and knowledge structure of research topics of doctoral dissertations written in the tourism field (Leung, Xu and Bai 2011; Ying and Xiao, 2012; Karagöz and Yüncü, 2013).

Methodology

The bibliometric analysis is used in this study, in which the efficiency of Turkish authors in tourism literature is examined. During the research process; The five-step methodology developed by Medina-López, Marín-García and Alfalla-Luque (2010) to make the systematic literature review has been followed:

- *Identifying the field of study and analysis period;* Turkish tourism authors are chosen as the field of study and it aims to determine the contributions of these authors to international tourism literature from past to present.
- *Selection of sources of information;* The data is obtained from internationally recognized tourism journals. In addition to the view that research productivity depends on the type and “quality” of the journals included (Lee and Law, 2011: 433); many other reasons have been effective in choosing journals as a source of knowledge, such as; articles in academic journals being the easiest sources to reach and the most referenced ones, the importance of journals in the distribution of knowledge, the opinion that publishing in high-level journals makes the person more prestigious, the idea that the purpose of the study can be reached through these journals. In the study, 36 (17 SSCI, 19 Non-SSCI) tourism journals are examined: 3 more journals with names including ‘tourism’ are added to 34 tourism journals (the issues of 5 journals were included in the relevant journals before the name changed), which were listed by Gürsoy and Sandstrom (2014) as a result of the data they obtained from 525 researchers in the field of tourism and accommodation. The journal is also removed from the list (Table 1: Journal list). Only one journal’s origin is Turkey. In the process of evaluating the findings, the abbreviations of the journals have been used.
- *Conducting the search (what, where and how);* The publications of Turkish authors are examined in all issues from the first issue of each journal to the end of 2018. The journals were scanned only electronically, and all publications of Turkish authors in accessible issues are included in the study. Since the study is focused on revealing the studies of Turkish authors from the first edition of the examined journals to the end of 2018, it also shows a situation analysis feature in this aspect.
- *Management and treatment of search results;* Each journal is first separately classified as institutional information about the journals (journal name, publication date, editorial board, most read/cited works) and the publication status of Turkish authors in those journals (year, volume/issue, month, number of publications, Turkish authors, publication name, The type of publication, the publication page number) are tabulated under various parameters. And then, the authors are listed again alphabetically under a few headings (author, journal, publication, kind of publication, year, co-authors, number of citations, +information [their relations with Turkey, awards they have received, if they have any status such as having one of the most cited / downloaded / read publishing of the journal, etc.] to find the authors with the most publications and cited works.

- *Analysis of results*; Data analysis is done via tables. Tabulation has enabled the systematic collection of data and facilitated analysis. In order to provide more effective results, attention has been paid to the design of the relevant tables in a way that allows the examination of every detail.

Table 1
Tourism Journals Examined in The Study

<i>Tourism Journals</i>	
1. <i>Annals of Tourism Research (ATR)</i>	19. <i>Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change (JTCC)</i>
2. <i>Tourism Management (TM)</i>	20. <i>Journal of Ecotourism (JoE)</i>
3. <i>Journal of Travel Research (JTR)</i>	21. <i>Tourism Review (previously published as Tourist Review-1946) (TR)</i>
4. <i>Journal of Sustainable Tourism (JoST)</i>	22. <i>Tourism, Culture and Communication(TCC)</i>
5. <i>Current Issues in Tourism (CIT)</i>	23. <i>Tourism Review International (previously published as Pasific Tourism Review: 1997-2002) (TRI)</i>
6. <i>Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing (JTTM)</i>	24. <i>Event Management (previously published as Festival Management &Event Tourism: 1993-1998) (EM)</i>
7. <i>Tourism Analysis (TA)</i>	25. <i>Tourism and Hospitality Research (THR)</i>
8. <i>International Journal of Tourism Research (IJTR)</i>	26. <i>Tourism Planning&Development (previously published as Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development: 2004-2010)(TPD)</i>
9. <i>Tourism Economics (TE)</i>	27. <i>Journal of Convention and Event Tourism (previously published as Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management: 1997-2004) (JCET)</i>
10. <i>Tourism Geographies (TG)</i>	28. <i>International Journal of Tourism Sciences (IJTS)</i>
11. <i>Tourist Studies (TS)</i>	29. <i>International Journal of Tourism Policy (IJTP)</i>
12. <i>Journal of Vacation Marketing (JVM)</i>	30. <i>Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events (JPRTLE)</i>
13. <i>Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research (APJTR)</i>	31. <i>e-Review of Tourism Research (eRTR)</i>
14. <i>Tourism Recreation Research (TRR)</i>	32. <i>Information Technology and Tourism(ITT)</i>
15. <i>Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research (Ana)</i>	33. <i>Journeys</i>
16. <i>Journal of China Tourism Research (JCTR)</i>	34. <i>Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research(JHTR)</i>
17. <i>Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism (SJHT)</i>	35. <i>Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education (JHLSTE)</i>
18. <i>Journal of Heritage Tourism (JHT)</i>	36. <i>Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism (JORT)</i>

Source: Gürsoy and Sandstrom (2014:9-10).

Note: 34th, 35th and 36th ranked journals are just added to the list. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Research: has data from years of 2011- 2012, so it is not included to the research.* *JoHLSTE: doesn't have issue before 2012 volume 11; Journal of China Tourism Research: doesn't have issue before 2008 volume 4; Anatolia: An International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research: doesn't have issue before 1997 volume 8 issue 3.*

The main research problem of this study, of which outlines are stated, is the following: “What are the contributions of Turkish authors to the international tourism field?”. Accordingly, the research questions have been categorized under two dimensions as Turkish authors and publications by Turkish authors in a way to seek an answer to the research problem.

There are different types of questions to reveal the general profile of Turkish authors and their works from all scales in the international arena. In addition to the basic problem, extra questions are also used. Care is taken to ensure that the questions are easy to understand and focused on relevant dimensions. The questions prepared within this framework are as follows, to find answers to the main and sub-problems:

- Questions to determine the bibliometric properties of the publications:
 - What is the number of publications of Turkish authors in international tourism research journals? Which journal has the most publications? What is the most intensive/contributed publication type?
 - In which years are the publications made? What is the increase-decrease rate over the years?
 - How many authors have worked in tourism papers together? Has there been any change in the authorship status over the years?
 - About which subjects have been published the most?
 - What are the most cited works? By whom, when and in which journal were these studies published?
 - Are there any works of Turkish authors among the “most read, downloaded, cited” publications of journals?
 - In which journal have the studies about Turkey been published the most?
- Questions to determine the bibliometric properties of the authors:
 - How many Turkish authors have publications in international tourism research journals? What are the demographic characteristics of the authors?
 - *What is the gender distribution of the authors?*
 - *How is the cooperation status in the publications? Who are the prominent names in collaborations?*
 - *From which institutions have the authors had education? Which institutions do they work in?*
 - *Who is the most frequent author on the editorial board of the journals examined?*
 - Which authors publishes the most? Have these authors been included in previous studies where the most productive names in the tourism field have been identified?

- How is the distribution of the studies over the years? Which author(s) has led which period?
- Who are the most cited Turkish authors? Are Turkish authors included in previous studies where the most cited authors have been identified?

As can be seen from these questions to be answered, some indicators that will determine the profile and performance of the publications and authors (number of publication-authors, authorship status, publication type, publication year, education level, number of citations, etc.) are used as criteria in determining the contributions. Thus, the contributions of the researchers to the academic tourism literature are generally determined by quantitative data. In addition, the educational background of these researchers is also included in the study, and descriptive analysis is also made in the study to reveal in which countries they got their degrees.

Analysis of the research topics is carried out via 27 titles which are decided by adding 7 (*different*) of 12 (out of) titles which Law, Ye, Chen and Leung (2009) evaluated the 100 most effective articles in tourism journals from 2000 to 2007, based on Google Scholar citation data, to 20 *titles* which Park, Phillips, Canter, Abbott's (2011) categorize the work of 50 most productive authors with the data they obtained from three tourism journals (ATR, JTR, TM) between 2000-2009.

These are the 27 titles with which the topics are examined: ATT: attraction management; CSM: crisis and safety management; DMKT: destination marketing and management; DVP: tourism development; ECO: economic impact and econometrics; EDU: education; GEO: geographical issue; GMKT: general marketing; HEI: Heritage and Environment Issues; HGR: Host Guest Relationship; HT: Hospitality Topics; IMG: image and branding; IT: information technology; MICE: meetings, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions including festival and fair; PLN: tourism planning; PPL: politics, policy, legal, and governmental issue; RT: Rural tourism; SCI: Sociology and Culture Issues; SCM: supply chain management; SEG: segmentation; SIT: special interests tourism such as heritage, farm, cultural, wine, or food tourism; SMT: service management; SUT: sustainable tourism and ecotourism; TRD: Theory and Research Development; TOM: Tourism Organization Management; TPB: tourists' perception and behavior; OTH: others.

The citation numbers given in the study have been obtained through Google Scholar and Scopus between 06.11.2019-13.11.2019. Although the publications are different in Google Scholar and Scopus, it is seen that this situation doesn't change the rankings. For this reason, Google Scholar data is taken into account in order to ensure integrity in the study. The data related to the authors have been obtained through the analysis of the authors' personal websites, YÖK thesis, ProQuest Digital

Dissertations. Microsoft Excel and Word software are used in the creation of data analysis tables.

Findings and Interpretation

The research findings are analyzed in two parts for publications and authors in line with the study questions. First, the bibliometric properties of Turkish authors' studies published in 36 journals, and then, the information about the authors who carried out these studies are tried to be determined under the sub-headings for the questions. The findings obtained from the analyses are listed below, and some results are presented in tables and graphics and evaluated over previous studies.

Findings Regarding Publications

No publications related to Turkish authors are found in Journeys, one of the journals examined. For this reason, the findings of the publications are conducted in 35 tourism journals. The findings obtained are analyzed under two headings as 'publication profile' and 'publication performance'.

Publication Profile

Information on the publications of Turkish authors in tourism journals until the end of 2018 are as follows.

Number, journal and type of publications:

1093 publications made by Turkish authors are found in tourism journals within research. The most studies are published in Tourism Management (TM) with 178 publications (16.29%). TM is followed by Annals of Tourism Research (ATR) with 158 publications (14.46%) and Anatolia: An International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research (Ana) with 124 publications (11.34%).

17 of the 35 journals examined are in the list of journals in the Clarivate Analytics, Social Sciences Citation Index "Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism". It is seen that 757 (69.26%) of the studies are published in these 17 journals. Publication types are examined in detail under 11 titles. Findings regarding the types of publication of 1093 studies are presented in the chart (Figure 1):

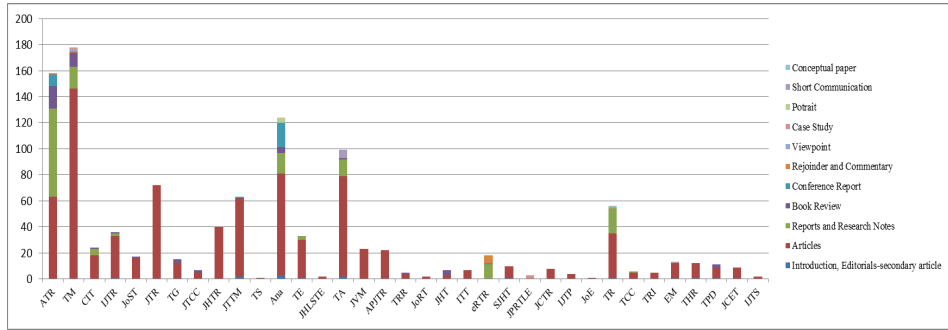


Figure 1. Distribution of publication types according to journals

The type of publication to which the authors contribute most is the article (819 studies, that is, 74.93%). Most articles are published in TM with the number of 146 (17.83%). Research Notes and Reports ranked second (155 RNR, 14.18%) and Book Review ranked third (48 BR, 4.39%).

It is necessary for Associate Professorship Application of “Social, Humanities and Administrative Sciences Basic Field” (April 2016 and before), “to participate in scientific activities for at least 6 points in relation to the applied associate professorship field of science and provided that it is not produced from the graduate dissertation(s) made by the candidate- the number of publications can be at least four” (UAK, 2018).

It can be said that the fact that high scores are obtained from full articles published in the aforementioned journals, and the idea that having a publication in these journals makes the author more prestigious, are effective in choosing both the journal and the type of publication.

Publication year and authorship status:

It was revealed that the oldest publication by Turkish authors among the journals examined was made in 1966. Considering the annual trends of the studies, it is seen that the number of publications has increased gradually since the 1960s. As a result of the industrial development of Turkish tourism and the increase in the number of institutions providing tourism education; the number of publications, which was 6 in the 1960s, increased to 17 in the 1970s, 53 in the 1980s, 154 in the 1990s, 345 in the 2000s, and 518 in the 2010s (2010-2018). The increasing number of journals (number of tourism journals) in the late 1990s and 2000s is also an important factor in this increase (Figure 2).

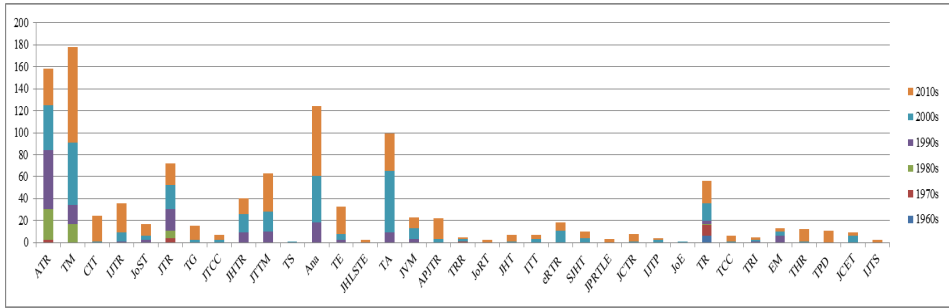


Figure 2. Distribution of publication years by journals

As can be seen in Figure 2, the publication years are also linked to the establishment years of the journals examined. The oldest study is “Tourism Planning in Turkey” which was published by Tunay Akoğlu in 1966 in *The Tourist Review*, currently published as *Tourism Review* (2011). Considering three leading journals; the first studies of the Turkish author are found in *JTR* established in 1961, in 1974; in *ATR* established in 1973, in 1978; in *TM* established in 1980, in 1982 (See Table 1: Journal List).

Publications were made mostly in 2017 and 2018 ($n = 83$) (75 in 2016, 53 in 2015, 51 in 2010 and 2007). In the recent increase in the number of publications; academic needs (staff, promotion), competition between institutions (ranking of universities), academic incentives given to publications, ‘publish or perish’ culture can be thought to be dominant. For these reasons, academics have focused on international publications.

Authorship status:

Considering the authorship status of the studies, it is seen that the number of authors varies between 1 and 8. Most of the studies (35.68%) are with two authors (390 studies), 318 with three authors (29.09%), 248 with one author (22.69%), 107 with 4 authors (9.79%) 20 with 5 authors (1.83%), 8 with 6 authors (0.73%). There is one study with 7 and 8 authors both (0.09%). In addition, studies with single authors were mostly published in *Ana* (50) and *ATR* (49), studies with two authors in *TM* (61), and studies with three authors in *ATR* (45) (Figure 3: Authorship status).

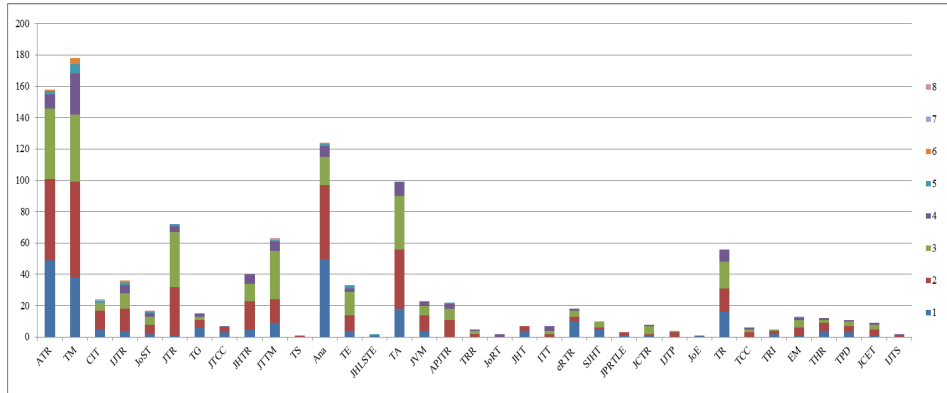


Figure 3. Distribution of authorship status by journals

It can be said that studies with multiple authors increase periodically:

- While the number of authors in a study is two in the 80s (26), 90s (68) and 2000s (141); studies with 3 authors (161) ranked first in the 2010s.
- The number of studies with 4 authors, which was 1 in the 70s, 2 in the 80s, 9 in the 90s, 18 in the 2000s, increased to 77 in the 2010s.
- While studies with 5 authors (20) and 6 authors (8) were encountered in 2000s and later, it was observed that studies with 7 and 8 authors (1) were conducted in 2010s.

This significant increase in authorship status over the years can be stated as a positive development. Authors’ preference for joint publications over individual publications increases interdisciplinary studies, improves authorship relationships and ensures higher quality publications.

Publication Topics:

Research topics are an indicator of the problem areas where information traffic occurs and networks are formed in a scientific community (Ying and Xiao, 2012: 450). So much so that, as a result of the analysis of publication topics forming the literature, basic information such as which topics are focused on in a country / region / institution, the variety of topics studied, which topics is popular in which period can be easily obtained and lead the future studies.

Headings are created in the analysis of dissertation and article topics in previous studies. In this study, subject categories created in the analysis of previous studies (Park, Phillips, Canter, Abbott, 2011; Law, Ye, Chen, Leung, 2009) are used, and

Turkish authors' publications are examined under 27 categories. According to the results that BR, CNR and Potrait studies (82) are excluded, it is revealed that the most studied topic among 1011 publications is TPB/PTB (138). It is followed by ECO/ET (117) and DMKT/DIM (100).

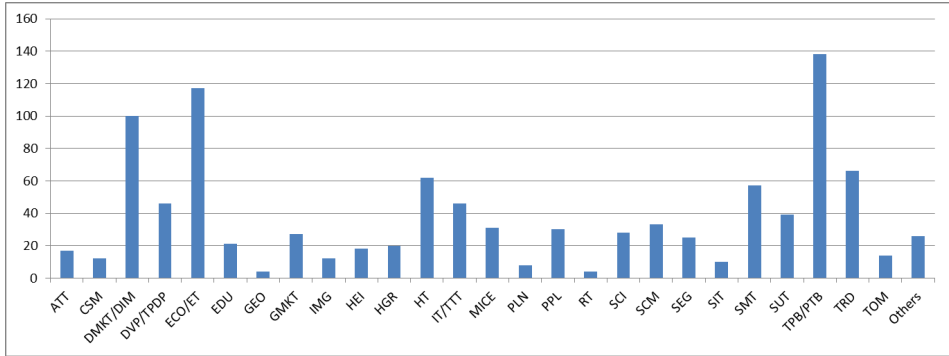


Figure 4. Research topics

In the study where Law, Ye, Chen and Leung examine the 100 most influential/most cited articles in tourism journals from 2000 to 2007 under 12 topics, the most popular topics are “psychology and tourist behavior” and “destination image and marketing” (2009: 742). The fact that Turkish authors' publications are also included in this list, and the parallelism of the results can be accepted as a clear indication that the Turkish authors have followed the subject trends and produced effective studies.

The multiplicity of economics studies can be seen as a result of significant academic contributions of Turkish authors studying economics/finance of tourism. Another conspicuous situation in terms of publication is the recent increase in TRD (Theory and Research Development) in tourism studies. Increasing such studies will further increase the development of tourism knowledge.

Publication Performance

Publications made by Turkish authors are examined in accordance with parameters such as citations, special status of journals (having a ‘the most’ speciality, being awarded, etc.) they have publications in, and if they study on Turkey. The results of the examination are given below:

Number of citations:

An important indicator in determining the contribution of studies to the scientific field is the number of citations. The number of citations a publication receives is an important indicator of both the publication's contribution to the scientific field

and the academic activity of the authors. When 1093 studies by Turkish authors are examined;

- 128 publications haven't been cited at all. Considering the types of these publications, it is seen that most of them are BR (35). It is followed by RNR (32), A (27) and CR (22).
- The journal with the highest number of citation in total is TM (34.288). It is followed by ATR (24.758) and JTR (16.960) respectively.
- All publications in 13 journals are cited (JTR, JHTR, TS, JHLSTE, JVM, APJTR, JORT, ITT, JoE, THR, JCET, IJTS, JPRTLE).

According to the average of the data obtained from Google Scholar and Scopus, it has been revealed that the most cited publications are in ATR, JTR and TM journals. According to the number of citations; The most cited study is S. Baloğlu and K. W. McCleary's article "A model of destination image formation" published in ATR in 1999 (GS: 4047; S: 1171). This publication also ranks 30th in 37 studies list with 50 or more citations in leading tourism research journals (ATR, JTR, TM) between 1996-2010, prepared by Benckendorff and Zehrer in 2013. In addition, Benckendorff (2009c) states 9 publications including this publication that "if they continue to be cited in this way, they have the potential to become a classical publication in the future". Today, it can be said that this prediction has come true.

Table 2
The 20 Most Cited Articles

Journal (year)	Makale adı	Yazar(lar)ı	Atıf sayısı		
			Law et al. (2009)	Google Scholar	Scopus
ATR (1999)	A model of destination image formation	Seyhmus Baloglu, Ken W. McCleary		4047	1171
TM (2005)	An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model	Yooshik Yoon, Muzaffer Uysal	3	3233	1170
JTR (2000)	Tourist satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination	Metin Kozak, Mike Rimmington	34	1562	538
JTR (1997)	Affective images of tourism destinations	Seyhmus Baloglu, David Brinberg		1435	456
ATR (2002)	Resident attitudes: A structural modeling approach	Dogan Gursoy, Claudia Jurowski, Muzaffer Uysal	13	1312	529

TM (2000)	Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries	Cevat Tosun	15	1352	471
ATR (2001)	Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations	Metin Kozak	56	1161	429
ATR (1986)	Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts in Hawaii	Juanita C. Liu, Turgut Var		1144	409
TM (2002)	Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations	Metin Kozak	28	1103	419
ATR (2004)	Host attitudes toward tourism: An improved structural model	Dogan Gursoy, Denney G Rutherford		1077	415
TM (2006)	Sustainability indicators for managing community tourism	HwanSuk Chris Choi, Ercan Sirakaya		1078	394
ATR (1998)	Influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions	Sevil F. Sönmez, Alan R. Graefe		954	414
TM (2010)	Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty	Atila Yuksel, Fisun Yuksel, Yasin Bilim		945	420
JTR (1997)	A theoretical analysis of host community resident reactions to tourism	Claudia Jurowski, Muzaffer Uysal, Daniel R. Williams		950	392
TM (2005)	Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers	Ercan Sirakaya, Arch G. Woodside	45	920	379
ATR (2002)	Host perceptions of impacts: A comparative tourism study	Cevat Tosun	25	931	317
JTR (2007)	Destination image and its functional relationships	Asli D.A. Tasci, William C. Gartner		911	334
JTR (1998)	Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety	Sevil F. Sönmez, Alan R. Graefe		833	405
TM (2001)	Tourism destination images of Turkey, Egypt, Greece, and Italy as perceived by US-based tour operators and travel agents	Seyhmus Baloglu, Mehmet Mangaloglu	63	921	293
JTR (2006)	Destination personality: An application of brand personality to tourism destinations	Yuksel Ekinici, Sameer Hosany		857	287

Source: Google Scholar and Scopus, Access Date: 13.11.2019. Note: It is listed according to the average of the data from Google Scholar and Scopus. Law, Ye, Chen, Leung (2009: 739-741)'s list of the 100 most frequently cited articles in tourism journals between 2000 and 2007.

Leading studies:

Among the journals examined, it has been observed that many studies in which Turkish authors are included are among the most cited, read and downloaded studies. For example, Nga Ling Chan and Basak Denizci Guillet's articles titled as "Investigation of Social Media Marketing: How Does the Hotel Industry in Hong Kong Perform in Marketing on Social Media Websites?" published in JTTM in 2011 is the most read (6. ranked 13441 views) and one of the 10 most cited articles (93 CrossRef citations at 4th place) of the journal (www.tandfonline.com, JTTM). It is clear that studies published in leading tourism journals are downloaded and cited more than others. Therefore, it may be considered more prestigious to be among the leading studies in leading journals.

In addition, these studies include award-winning ones. The study titled as "Destination Personality: An Application of Brand Personality to Tourism Destinations" by Yüksel Ekinci and Sameer Hosany (2006) is one of the winners of The Charles R. Goeldner Article of Excellence Award, which Journal of Travel Research has given to 37 publications so far. (journals.sagepub.com, JTR).

Studies on TURKEY:

In studies earlier on Turkey, Köseoğlu, Sehitoglu and Parnell (2015) analyzed how science in the tourism and accommodation between 1984-2013 to proceed in Turkey by bibliometrics and reached 135 articles about Turkey. In the study, it revealed that most articles regarding Turkey (34.8%) have been published in TM, and TM is followed by ATR with 14.8%, IJCHM with 12.7%. Then, Altürk (2018) state as a result of analysis of 579 articles published between 1996-2016 via 5 leading databases to reveal the bibliometric profile of Turkey tourism literature that the most articles regarding Turkey are published in *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research* (62 article 10.7%) (followed by respectively 60 articles *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 40 articles *Tourism Management*) and the top contributing author is Metin Kozak (n = 35). In this study, in addition to journals that only publish in the field of tourism and SSCI journals, non-SSCI tourism journals are also examined. Similar results are obtained in terms of the journals examined.

As a result of the analysis of study titles, summary and keywords, Turkey related studies are found in 27 of 36 journals. According to the results excluding the Potrait studies from the analysis of BR, CNR and Potrait. 320 of 1011 publications (31.65%) is related to Turkey (Turkish tourists, consumers, students, hotels, Turkish tourism and destinations in Turkey). In the publications, the words of "Turkish, Turkey, Alanya, Belek, Burhaniye, Ephesus, Fethiye, Antalya, Ankara, Bodrum, Istanbul, Izmir, Kaleköy, Gallipoli, Gokceada, Çanakkale, Urgup, Cappadocia, Cumalikizik, Kuşçenneti, Ayvalık, Kusadası, Kızkalesi, Mersin, Manisa, Sirince (Pretty Village),

Side, EMITT, Kangal, Eskişehir, Foça, Pamukkale” are mentioned. The majority of publications related to Turkey are articles (n = 259). Ana journal has the highest publication rate (n = 61). TM journal (n = 60) comes after Ana; TA (n = 39), ATR (n = 26) and TR (n = 24) follow them (see. Figure 5: journals that publish studies regarding TURKEY).

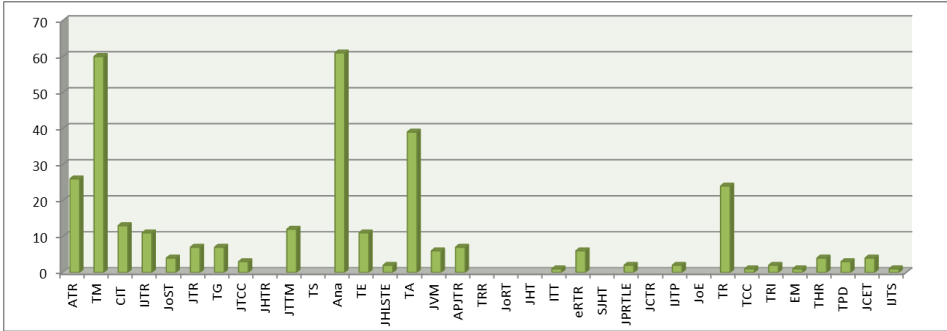


Figure 5. Journals that publish studies regarding TURKEY

Metin Kozak (n = 25) is the one who has contributed the most. He is followed by Cevat Tosun with 12 publications, Ercan Sırakaya Türk, Hilal Erkuş Öztürk, Nazmi Kozak and Turgut Var with 11 publications each.

Findings regarding the authors

In parallel with the previous section, this section is examined under two titles as ‘author profile’ and ‘author performance’.

Regardless of how many authors the publications had, the rank of the authors in the publications, the Turkish author(s) in each publication are considered to have made a study with a single author.

Author profile

Demographic information about the authors has been evaluated under different titles. However, different uses in the names of the authors have drawn attention (For example: İrem Arsal-İrem Önder; Meral Korsay-Meral Korzay) and necessary arrangements have been made to prevent these situations from changing the result.

Gender:

463 Turkish authors from institutions in and out of Turkey are seen to have publications in journals subject to the research. 300 (64.79%) of the authors are male and 163 (35.21%) are female. Although male dominance in academia (tourism

academia) can be seen in other study results (see Pritchard and Morgan, 2017), the increase in the number of female academics in tourism recently is also remarkable.

Cooperation:

248 of the publications have been prepared with a single author while 845 have co-authors. Publications with a single author have been written by 99 Turkish authors. Metin Kozak is the name that has the most publications with a single author. Kozak has written 22 of 68 publications, he has in the journals, subject to research, alone. After him, Turgut Var comes with 17 studies. Muzaffer Uysal with 2 and 3 authors in the most studies (41.55, respectively); Fevzi Okumuş (17) with 4 authors are leading in multi-author studies. Scientific collaboration created as a result of co-authorship data is provided by only Turkish authors in 241 studies, and by Turkish and non-Turkish authors in 604 studies. Turkish author is accompanied by 608 authors from other nations outside of Turkey in international co-authored publications. The most mentioned people in the examined publications are Rob Law and Antónia Correia who contributed to 12 studies. After them, Joseph S. Chen comes with 10 studies. It can be said that the institutions where the authors are educated or worked have a great influence on these international collaborations.

Education:

When the education background of these 463 authors is examined;

- It can be observed that the authors have shaped their academic careers by studying in fields such as tourism, finance, economics, economy, business, geography, management, marketing, sociology and architecture at leading universities around the world.
- It has been emerged that 135 authors has received education from institutions both in and outside of Turkey (*Educational information regarding 52 authors cannot be reached*).

The right to education can be obtained outside Turkey with scholarships of various institutions including in particular the Ministry of Education and Council of Higher Education. Indeed, the authors have received their undergraduate education mainly from universities in Turkey, some received their master's and doctorate in universities outside Turkey.

Table 3*Educational Histories and Current Affiliations of Turkish Tourism Authors*

Author	Education			Current Affiliation
	B.Sc.	MBA-MS	Ph. D.	
Muzaffer Uysal	Ankara Economics and Commercial Sciences Academy, Turkey, 1977	New Haven University, US, 1980	Texas A&M Üni., USA, 1983	University of Massachusetts Amherst
Turgut Var	Claremont Men's College, US, 1959	Uni of Chicago, US, 1963	Ankara Uni, Turkey, 1965	İzmir Ekonomi University
Metin Kozak	Çukurova Uni., Turkey, 1991	Dokuz Eylül Uni., Turkey, 1993	Sheffield Hallam Uni., UK, 2000	Dokuz Eylül University
Doğan Gürsoy	Cukurova Uni., Turkey, 1992	Uni. of New Haven, USA, 1997	Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State Uni., 2001	Washington State University
Ercan Sırakaya-Türk	Dokuz Eylül Uni., Turkey, 1989	Clemson Uni., US, 1992	Clemson University, US, 1996	University of South Carolina
Şeyhmus Baloğlu	Cukurova Uni., Turkey, 1989	Hawaii Pacific Uni., US, 1993	Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State Uni., US, 1996	University of Nevada, Las Vegas, US
Aslı D.A. Taşçı	Middle East Technical Uni., Turkey, 1995	Michigan State Uni., US, 1998	Michigan State Uni. 2003	University of Central Florida
Fevzi Okumuş	Cukurova Uni., Turkey, 1990	Erciyes Uni., Turkey, 1992 Oxford Brookes Uni., UK, 1996	Oxford Brookes Uni., UK, 2000	University of Central Florida
Başak Denizci Guillet	Bilkent Uni., Turkey, 2000	Uni. of Massachusetts, US, 2002	Pennsylvania State Uni., US, 2006	Hong Kong Polytechnic Uni.
Atila Yüksel	Dokuz Eylül Uni., Turkey, 1992	Uni. of Wales, UK, 1996-1997	Sheffield Hallam Uni., UK, 2000	Adnan Menderes Uni.
Mehmet Mehmetoğlu	-	Bournemouth University, UK, 1998	Luton University (now University of Bedfordshire), UK, 2003	Norwegian University of Science & Technology, Norway
Sevil F. Sönmez	City Uni. of New York, US, 1980	Clemson Uni., US, 1992	Pennsylvania State Uni., US, 1994	University of Central Florida
Erdoğan Koç	Istanbul Uni., Turkey, 1986	Uni. of Wales, Cardiff, 1988	Oxford Brookes Uni., US, 2000	Bahçeşehir Uni.
Deniz Küçükusta	Cukurova Uni., Turkey, 1994	Dokuz Eylül Uni., Turkey, 2001	Dokuz Eylül Uni., Turkey, 2007	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Levent Altınay	Cukurova Uni., Turkey, 1996	Oxford Brookes Uni., US, 1997	Oxford Brookes Uni., US, 2001	Oxford Brookes University
Osman M. Karatepe	Bilkent Uni., Turkey, 1992	Gazi Uni., Turkey, 1997	Hacettepe Uni., Turkey, 2002	Eastern Mediterranean University
Yüksel Ekinci	-	-	Uni. of Surrey, 1999	University of Portsmouth
Cevat Tosun	Cukurova Uni., 1991	Erciyes Uni., Turkey, 1993 Uni. of Strathclyde, Scotland, UK, 1996	Uni. of Strathclyde UK, 1998	Eskişehir Osmangazi Uni.
Fisun Yüksel	Dokuz Eylül Üni., 1992	Sheffield Hallam Uni., UK, 1998	Sheffield Hallam Uni., UK, 2003	Adnan Menderes University

Meltem Caber	Akdeniz Üni., Turkey, 1992	Anadolu Üni., Turkey, 2004	Akdeniz Uni., Turkey, 2010	<i>Akdeniz University</i>
Tahir Albayrak	Turkish Military Academy, Turkey, 1992	Akdeniz Üni., Turkey, 2004	Akdeniz Uni., Turkey, 2008	<i>Akdeniz University</i>
Hilal Erkuş-Öztürk	Dokuz Eylül Üni., 2001	-	METU, Turkey, 2008 Universiteit van Amsterdam, Holland, 2008	<i>Akdeniz University</i>
İrem Arsal Önder	Marmara Uni., 1999, Turkey	Ferris State Uni., US, 2002	Clemson Uni., US, 2008	<i>Modul University</i>
Nazmi Kozak	Çukurova Üni., Turkey, 1986	Hacettepe Üni., Turkey, 1991	Dokuz Eylül Üni., Turkey, 1996	<i>Anadolu Üniversitesi</i>
Anıl Bilgihan	Bilkent Uni., Turkey, 2007	Uni. of Delaware, Newark, DE, USA, 2009	Uni. of Central Florida, Orlando, US, 2012	<i>Florida Atlantic University</i>
Faruk Ballı	Boğaziçi Uni., 2002	Houston Uni., US, 2004	Houston Uni., US, 2007	<i>Massey University</i>
Tunay Akoğlu	École Hôtelière de Lausanne, Switzerland, 1955 Uni.of St.Gallen	Uni. of Bern, Switzerland	Uni. of Bern, Switzerland, 1965	

Note: Authors with publications more than 10 are listed.

The results of this situation have also shown its effect on the institutions where the authors work now. Now; 85 authors are working outside of Turkey, 336 in Turkey, 19 at universities in Cyprus, and 11 tourism-related institutions and organizations (No information regarding 12 people cannot be reached. These people are estimated as either retired or currently not working). Most authors are working in well-known universities such as Akdeniz University, Gazi University, Boğaziçi University, Dokuz Eylül University, Istanbul University, Adnan Menderes University in Turkey and University of Eastern Mediterranean, University of Central Florida, Penn State, University of Nevada, Girne American University, HKPT outside of Turkey.

Authors' Institutions:

In determining the institutions where the authors work, the address information in the publications has been taken as basis. Accordingly, it is seen that 343 of 463 authors publish their writings when working in various institutions in Turkey, with 103 outside of Turkey and 17 both in and outside of Turkey.

- It has emerged that authors from 84 different institutions have published writings. The majority of the authors (38) have published while they were working at Akdeniz University.
- Outside of Turkey, writings have been published by institutions in 21 countries. These institutions are mainly located in America (35 institutions), it is followed by UK, TRNC, Canada, Australia, Saudi Arabia, Malaysia, United

Arab Emirates, Germany, Bosnia Herzegovina, New Zealand, Netherlands, Switzerland, Japan, Austria, China (Hong Kong, Macao), Norway, Ireland, South Korea, Sweden and Kuwait.

The most publications have been made by the academicians from Virginia Tech (92) and Muğla University (91). They are respectively followed by Texas A&M University (77), Akdeniz University (76) and Hong Kong Polytechnic University (52). The contributions of the most prolific authors can also be clearly expressed in these results. Muzaffer Uysal has made his 82 publications at Virginia Tech; while Metin Kozak has made his 50 at Muğla University; Turgut Var has made his 51 and Ercan Sirakaya Türk has made his 21 at Texas A&M University.

Editorial Board:

Another parameter is the authors' participation in the editorial boards of the journals. Among the reviewed journals, it is observed that 34 Turkish authors are included in the editorial board of the 20 journals among the researched journals (9 SSCI: ATR, IJTR, JTR, JTCC, JHTR, JTTM, JVM, TE, TR; 11 Non-SSCI) and 34 Turkish authors take part in the editorial boards of these journals.

The person whose name is mentioned the most in the Editorial Board is Muzaffer Uysal. Uysal takes part in the editorial boards of 9 journals (ATR, JTR, JTTM, Ana, TA, JCTR, EM, IJTS, TE). Metin Kozak takes the second place with 6 journals. After Kozak, Doğan Gürsoy, Fevzi Okumuş and Şeyhmus Baloğlu, who are on the editorial boards of 5 journals, take place. In addition, 1 author is on the editorial board of 4 journals (İrem Arsal Önder) while 4 authors on the editorial board of 3 journals (Atila Yüksel, Erdoğan Ekiz, Ercan Sirakaya-Türk, Tarık Doğru); 3 authors on the editorial board of 2 journals (Faruk Ballı, Levent Altınay, Yüksel Ekinci); 21 authors on the editorial board of a single journal.

Considering that the editorial board consists of researchers who have gained prestige in their field with their research, the important position of the names encountered in the field of tourism can be taken into consideration. Moreover, among the journals, the journals with the highest number of Turkish authors in the editorial board are as follows; Ana (11), TA (8), TE (7); JHTR, eRTR, TR (6); JTTM (5); ATR, JTR (4).

Nazmi Kozak and Metin Kozak are the editors of Ana (Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research) and Ercan Sirakaya-Türk is Editor-in-Chief of TA (Tourism Analysis: An Interdisciplinary Tourism & Hospitality Journal) (Date of Access: 09.11.2019).

Author Performance

In this part of the study, information is given on who are the most published and cited authors in the field of tourism, which authors have published more (more actively) in which years, and the names of the authors with the highest academic performance value in the reviewed publications. In the study, author performance is

determined based on quantitative indicators, and the authors are ranked according to the productivity and citation results they obtain as a result of their publications.

Author productivity:

The method of counting publications is used to determine the most productive Turkish authors in the field of tourism. The results, in which all studies with the names of each author are considered as one publication (1539 publications), can be summarized as follows;

- There are 436 authors who made less than 10 studies. *2 authors have contributed with 8 publications; 6 authors with 7 publications; 9 authors with 6 publications; 12 authors with 5 publications; 15 authors with 4 publications; 22 authors with 3 publications; 57 authors with 2 publications; 313 authors with a single publication.*
- The number of people who published 10 or more is 27 and they have 52.89% (814) of the studies.
- The most articles have been written by Muzaffer Uysal (88), research notes and reports by Turgut Var (47), and book reviews by Erdoğan Koç (12).
- Among the journals examined, Muzaffer Uysal is the one who has published in different journals the most. Uysal's publications have been published in 21 different journals. He is followed by Metin Kozak with 17 journals, Aslı D. A. Taşçı and Doğan Gürsoy with 15 journals, and Mehmet Mehmetoğlu with 14 journals.

When the author productivity is considered, it is seen that 431 of the studies (28.01%) come from 6 people who have published more than 40. According to these results including experienced and productive names in the field of tourism, Muzaffer Uysal has made the most contributions with 118 publications. Uysal is followed by Turgut Var (91), Metin Kozak (68), Doğan Gürsoy (57), Ercan Sırakaya-Türk (51) and Seyhmus Baloğlu (46) (See Table 4: The productivity status of the authors).

The names of Turkish authors are also mentioned in previous studies where the most productive names in the field of tourism are determined (See Table 4, Status in previous researches).

Table 4
Productivity Status of the Authors

Authors	ATR	JTR	TM	Subtotal	Others	Total	Previous researches
Muzaffer Uysal	20	23	21	64	54	118	1, 2, 3, 4, 6
Turgut Var	54	6	8	68	23	91	3a, 6
Metin Kozak	5	2	8	15	53	68	3,5 (5b)
Doğan Gürsoy	14	6	11	31	26	57	3a,4, 5 (5a, 5b), 6
Ercan Sırakaya-Türk	8	11	5	24	27	51	3, 4, 5 (5b)
Şeyhmus Baloğlu	2	7	8	17	29	46	1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (5b)
Aslı D.A. Taşçı	-	2	5	7	32	39	
Fevzi Okumuş	5	-	12	17	18	35	5
Başak Denizci Guillet	1	1	1	3	25	28	
Atila Yüksel	1	-	10	11	14	25	5 (5b)
Mehmet Mehmetoğlu	1	-	1	2	21	23	
Sevil F. Sönmez	5	7	2	14	9	23	1, 2, 3, 4
Erdoğan Koç	7	-	8	15	3	18	
Deniz Küçükusta	-	-	2	2	15	17	
Levent Altınay	4	2	7	13	4	17	
Osman M. Karatepe	-	-	5	5	12	17	5 (5a)
Yüksel Ekinci	2	4	-	6	10	16	
Cevat Tosun	2	-	7	9	6	15	3a,5 (5b)
Fisun Yüksel	1	-	5	6	8	14	
Meltem Caber	-	1	4	5	9	14	
Tahir Albayrak	-	1	4	5	9	14	
Hilal Erkuş-Öztürk	1	-	3	4	8	12	
İrem Arsal Önder	2	1	2	5	7	12	
Nazmi Kozak	-	-	-	-	12	12	
Anıl Bilgihan	-	1	5	6	5	11	
Faruk Ballı	-	1	3	4	7	11	
Tunay Akoğlu	-	-	-	-	10	10	

Note: People with 10 or more publications are listed.

1. Ryan (2005) lists 52 leading authors in 16 journals (+ other) from 1990-2004.

2. Jogaratnam, Chon, McCleary, Mena and Yoo (2005) lists 46 tourism authors with the highest number of publications in three tourism journals (ATR, JTR, TM) between 1992-2001.

3. Zhao and Ritchie (2007) lists 57 of the most productive academics (with at least 5 in ATR, JTR, TM, and a total of 11 or more publications) in 8 journals between 1985 and 2004. 3a. Zhao and Ritchie (2007) present an expanded list of leading academics in tourism research (*Category I: Scholars in Category I refer to those who have published 9–10 articles in the eight selected journals within the time frame of 1985–2004, including at least five articles in Annals, JTR and TM*)

4. Benckendorff (2009c) lists 20 North American (US and Canadian academics) authors who contributed the most to three leading tourism journals (ATR, JTR, TM) between 1996-2007.

5. Park, Phillips, Canter, and Abbott (2011) lists the 100 most productive authors, 101 institutions and 30 countries in 6 important journals in the field of accommodation (CHQ, IJHM and JHTR) and tourism (ATR, JTR, TM) between 2000 and 2009: 5 a. Lists 51 most productive authors (51 universities, 20 countries) in hospitality research; 5b. The 50 most productive authors (51 universities, 20 countries) in tourism research)

6. Ye, Li, and Law (2013) list the 31 most prolific researchers through articles published in six leading tourism (ATR, JTR and TM) and accommodation (CHQ, IJHM, and JHTR) journals between 1990 and 2010.

In theory, since academics are expected to live with the claim of ‘publish or perish’, the accepted dogma is that university staff must have a productive publication record in quality journals in order to continue their jobs, extend their tenure and/or get promotions (Mckercher, 2007: 23).

So much so that the studies in which the most productive names in the field are determined are conducted through ATR, JTR and TM, known as leading tourism journals, also supports this situation. The difficulty of publishing continuously in journals that are accepted as top level in the field makes it more meaningful to examine these journals. When only these three journals are taken as basis in the study, it is seen that the most publications are made by Turgut Var (68). He is followed by M. Uysal (64) and Doğan Gürsoy (31). The most publications in ATR have been made by T. Var (54) in JTR, and TM by M. Uysal (respectively 23, 21).

Another important issue investigated is the productivity status that changes over the years (Table 5: The most productive authors by year). As seen in previous studies and this study, the most prolific authors list varies according to the journals included in the study and the types of publications analyzed, as well as the period in which the author publishes more actively.

Table 5

The Most Productive Authors by Year

1960s	Tunay Akoğlu (6)
1970s	Turgut Var (13)
1980s	Turgut Var (30), Muzaffer Uysal (16)
1990s	Muzaffer Uysal (49), Turgut Var (33), Ercan Sırakaya-Türk (13), Sevil F. Sönmez (9), Seyhmus Baloğlu (9), Sevgin Akış (5), Cevat Tosun (5) Metin Kozak (39), Ercan Sırakaya-Türk(27), Seyhmus Baloğlu (23), Muzaffer Uysal (22), Doğan Gürsoy (20), Atıla Yüksel (18), Aslı A.D. Taşcı (16), Mehmet Mehmetoğlu (15), Yüksel Ekinci (14), Turgut Var (13), Fisun Yüksel (11), Cevat Tosun (9), Sevil F. Sönmez (9), Fevzi Okumuş (8), Nazmi Kozak (8), Osman M. Karatepe (8), Akın Aksu (7), Levent Altınay (6), Meral Korzay (5), Erdoğan Koç (5)
2000s	Doğan Gürsoy (36), Muzaffer Uysal (31), Başak Denizci Guillet (26), Metin Kozak (26), Fevzi Okumuş (26), Aslı D.A. Taşcı (23), Deniz Küçükusta (17), Seyhmus Baloğlu (14), Erdoğan Koç (13), Meltem Caber (12), Tahir Albayrak (12), Hilal Erkuş Öztürk (11), Levent Altınay (11), Anıl Bilgihan (11), Mehmet Mehmetoğlu (11), Ercan Sırakaya-Türk (11), İrem Arsal Önder (11), Faruk Ballı (11), Osman M. Karatepe (9), Hatice Özer Ballı (7), Tarık Dođru (7), Giray Gözgör (6), Gürel Çetin (6), Emrullah Erul (6), Ahmet Bülent Öztürk (5), İlkay Taş (5), Murat Hançer (5), Medet Yolal (5), Sevil F. Sönmez (5), Atıla Yüksel(5), Ender Demir (5), Erdinç Çakmak (5)
2010s	

Note: Authors with 5 or more publications in their period are listed.

It is seen among the journals examined that the first study on tourism by Turkish authors was done by Tunay Akoğlu in TR journal in the 1960s. Turgut Var’s studies marked the 1970s and 1980s. Muzaffer Uysal also worked intensively in the 80’s. Uysal has made a great contribution to the development of tourism literature with (many) studies he has carried out since the 1980s. In the 1990s, M. Uysal had 49 publications and T. Var had 33 publications. During this period, many names such as Ercan Sırakaya-Türk, Sevil F. Sönmez and Seyhmus Baloğlu have been added to the aforementioned names. Names continued to increase even more in the 2000s. In this period, Metin Kozak (39) was the author of the most publications. Ercan Sırakaya-Türk with 27 publications, Seyhmus Baloğlu with 23, Muzaffer Uysal with 22 follow Metin Kozak. Doğan Gürsoy (20), Atıla Yüksel (18), Aslı D.A. Taşcı (16), Mehmet

Mehmetoğlu (15), Yüksel Ekinci (14), Turgut Var (13), Fisun Yüksel (11) are also people with over-10-publications. Today (between 2010-2018) Doğan Gürsoy (36) ranks the first. Muzaffer Uysal with 31 publications, Başak Denizci Guillet, Metin Kozak and Fevzi Okumuş with 26 publications each follow Doğan Gürsoy. Aslı D. A. Taşçı (23) has already exceeded the number of her studies in the 2000s. In addition, new-generation-names that can show their influence with more publications in the following years draw attention.

Citation status:

Citations are important indicator, as much as the number of publications in the evaluation of the author's performance. The most cited authors in the field of tourism are determined based on the total number of citations their publications received. In addition to the number of citations the author has, how many publications these citations come from, and the existence of studies not cited yet have also been the subject of examination in this study.

As a result of the evaluation, it is seen that the most cited Turkish author is Muzaffer Uysal. Uysal has received a total of 17,397 citations (16,094 article citations) from 106 of the 118 publications included to the study. The number of studies that have not cited is 12 (GR, 1; I, 2; E, 1; RNR, 4; CR, 1; BR, 3). Seyhmus Baloğlu with 13,096 citations (12,574 article citations) to 42 publications (non-cited: 4 CR), Doğan Gürsoy with 9,483 citations (9,344 article citations) to 56 publications (not-cited: 1A), Metin Kozak with 7,843 citations (7,664 article citations) to 60 publications (not-cited: A, 1; BR, 2; E, 1; CNR, 4) follow Muzaffer Uysal (scholar.google.com.tr). Most of the authors' citations come from article publications. At this point, it can be clearly said that having an article in A-classed-journals has a great effect on the number of citations that publication receives.

On the other hand, Turkish authors are also involved in previous studies on the subject. Muzaffer Uysal (ranking 11th with 95 publications and 1307 citations) and Turgut Var (ranking 26th with 50 publications and 765 citations) are mentioned in McKercher (2008)'s list of 58 tourism authors receiving the most (+500) citations between 1970-2007. In the same study, McKercher (2008) also lists 48 tourism academics who receive the most citations (+250) between 1998-2007. In this list; Sevil F. Sönmez (ranking 16th with 21 publications and 425 citations), Seyhmus Baloğlu (ranking 25th with 17 publications and 338 citations), M. Uysal (ranking 26th with 21 publications and 337 citations) M. Kozak (ranking 28th with 24 publications and 320 citations), D. Gürsoy (ranking 42nd with 27 publications and 266 citations) take place.

Although the tourism field is constantly changing due to its structure, it causes periodic differences in publication citations, but some experienced names have classic

works that are cited in every period. These authors still continue to give qualified studies with their knowledge. M. Uysal to be mentioned in both review periods can be an example of this.

Some studies in which the most cited authors are determined have also been conducted through journals. Among Turkish authors, Seyhmus Baloğlu is included in Benckendorff's (2009c) list of lead authors (25 people) working in institutions in North America, which are most cited in *Annals*, *JTR* and *TM* journals between 1996-2007 and Benckendorff and Zehrer (2013)'s list of 30 most cited authors in three leading tourism journals (*ATR*, *JTR*, *TM*) between 1996-2010, while Cevat Tosun is included in Benckendorff's (2009a) list of the first authors (29 people) with the most citations (with +30 citations) in *JST* between 1999-2008.

Being one of the most cited authors in journals focusing on certain topics can be seen as an indicator of the authors' influence and continuity in their study field.

Conclusion

The increasing number of academic tourism studies over the years has led us to wonder to what extent countries contribute to the studies in tourism literature. When these studies, in which the most influential countries in the field are identified and evaluated, are examined, no study is found on the research performance of authors from a certain country. For this reason, the contributions of Turkish authors to international tourism literature are investigated in this study. The publications of Turkish authors in 36 tourism journals published in English are analyzed by using the bibliometric method.

The results of the study are examined in two stages within the data of publications and authors. The results can be summarized as follows:

- By the end of 2018, 1093 publications by Turkish authors in the international tourism journals are examined. The most common type of publication is the article (819).
- Most of the publications (178 publications) are in *TM* journal. The fact that most of the publications are published in journals with high impact factor ensures that the impact factor of these publications is also high. The tendency to publish in journals with high impact factors bring along more qualified publications.
- When analyzed periodically, it is seen that the most publications were published in 2017 and 2018 ($n = 83$). The number of publications has increased

continuously. The fact that international publications have become more important in terms of academic incentives and increase of academic titles are from the important reasons for this increase in publications.

- Most of the studies have two authors ($n = 390$). From this finding, it can be clearly seen that the increase in the number of collaborators also increases the number of publications. Productivity has also been increased through scientific collaboration.
- When the publications are evaluated in terms of their subjects, the most studied subject area is psychology and tourist behavior (TPB / PTB). This result is similar to the previous study results when the period examined is taken into consideration. In this case, it can be said that the authors follow the current developments and changes in the international literature, and even direct the changes.
- Looking at the citation status of the publications, it is seen that the most cited publications have been published in ATR, JTR and TM journals, which are considered to be leading in the field. The most cited publication is S. Baloğlu and K. W. McCleary's article titled "A model of destination image formation" published in ATR in 1999. The fact that the name of this publication is also mentioned in previous studies where the most cited publications have been searched shows that it has now become a classic publication.
- Studies are also among the most downloaded and cited studies of journals.
- 31.65% ($n = 320$) of publications are related to Turkey, most of them has been published in *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research Journal*. Metin Kozak ($n = 25$) is the author who has the most publishing regarding Turkey.
- 463 Turkish authors are mentioned in publications. Looking at their demographic characteristics, it is seen that male authors are the majority. This situation coincides with the male dominance in academia.
- 248 of the publications have been prepared with a single author and 845 with a co-author. The high number of publications with multiple authors indicates that author relationships are intense. Most studies with a single author have been made by M. Kozak ($n = 22$), and most studies with two or three authors have been by M. Uysal ($n = 41, 55$). Most of the collaboration studies (604 studies) created as a result of co-authorship data having been provided by Turkish and non-Turkish authors.

- This situation can be explained by the institutions where the authors have been received education from and where they have worked. An important part of the authors have completed their education at both leading universities in Turkey and well-known universities in the their time abroad (out of Turkey). Foreign education in the tourism field has been in the USA and countries in Europe. Again, many of them still work at universities abroad. These prominent names have gained international experience as well as important roles in the community. M. Uysal's name is mentioned in the editorial board of 9 of the journals examined.
- Although the majority of authors (313) contributed only to one article, the level of collaboration is high. Considering that people who own a publication have recently joined the field, it can be said that there is a very young and growing research field. Moreover, it can be predicted that these researchers will increase the number of publications over time.
- That almost half of the publications (52.89 %) are done by 27 people shows the importance of certain researchers in the field.
- The person with the highest number of publications and citations is Muzaffer Uysal (118 publications, 17.397 citations / GS). M. Uysal has contributed to tourism field literature with many scientific studies since the 1980s.
- The most articles have been written by Muzaffer Uysal (88), research notes and reports/RNR by Turgut Var (47), and book reviews by Erdoğan Koç (12).

In the past, although it was mostly a few people and the number of writers increased gradually, the real growth started in the 21st century. Today, Turkish researchers are talking about themselves in the field of tourism.

The biggest limitation of this study is the failure of creating a network analysis to reveal the co-authorship status and a relationship map of Turkish tourism researchers, who have a wide scientific diaspora, as seen in the study.

Depending on the result of this research, the bibliometric properties of the most cited studies can be examined in future studies. Citations could tell quite an interesting narrative, especially if mapped geographically to indicate how Turkish scholars have connected in broader tourism debates around the world. The methods and statistical techniques used by Turkish authors in their studies can be revealed, and investigate which subjects have been studied intensively in which period. On the other hand, we can examine which people who have education in which field are more effective in studies of tourism as a multidisciplinary field. More specifically, the contributions of people who have been educated in the field of tourism economics may be the

subject of research. Also, the progress of gender distribution in the field from past to present can be examined through countries or journals. The results of such studies will provide important information for both the Turkish and international academic tourism community.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: B.H., D.D.; Data Acquisition: B.H., D.D.; Data Analysis/Interpretation: D.D., B.H.; Drafting Manuscript: D.D., B.H.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: B.H., D.D.; Final Approval and Accountability: D.D., B.H.

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Investigation of the Effect of Perceived Organizational Support on Organizational Alienation and Trust in Managers: An Application in Rize

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Abstract

Several studies have been carried out on the outcomes of organizational support (O.S.) perceptions related to employees working in hotel businesses. However, the relationship between organizational support (O.S.) and trust in manager and organizational alienation (O.A.) has been taken for granted. In this study, the perceived O.S. was explored as a predictor of trust in manager and O.A. Within this context, this study aims to figure out how employees' perceptions of O.S. influence O.A. and trust in manager. Accordingly, data were obtained from 329 hotel employees operating in Rize through questionnaires. The analyses were performed using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), which confirms using partial least square (PLS). According to the findings, O.S. is adversely connected to O.A., whereas O.S. is significantly correlated to the trust in managers. The results of this study may assist hotel managers to increase employee motivation and productivity and it may help researchers further investigating organizational support as well.

Keywords

Organizational Support, Organizational Alienation, Organizational Trust, Hotel Employees, Rize

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To cite this article: Erkilic, E., & Aydın, E. (2022). Investigation of the effect of perceived organizational support on organizational alienation and trust in managers: an application in Rize. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 195-214. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1109454>



Introduction

Similar to all other businesses, hotel businesses are human-oriented businesses that are founded with a particular function and purpose in mind and strive to achieve the goals and objectives associated with their operations. In addition to their physical characteristics and labor-intensive organization, the most fundamental assets of these businesses are their people. The ability of hotel employees to successfully accomplish their responsibilities is critical to the success of the business. It may be argued that customer satisfaction with hotel businesses is directly proportionate to the success of those businesses. Therefore, the most powerful factor underlying the success of these businesses is the successful fulfillment of their duties performed by the employees.

When employees are valued, treated with respect, and encouraged to succeed in whatever they do, they feel pleased and at ease in workplaces. It is quite meaningful to develop such an environment in today's competitive marketplace (Erkal, 2021: 38). From the other side, evaluating the favorable and adverse consequences of employee behavior, productivity, empowerment, and other factors, as well as the implementation of operations, are all regarded as goals for improving the work environment (Turgut & Kalafatoğlu, 2016: 29). As a result, all businesses strive to pursue their objectives by utilizing all of their resources effectively and efficiently. It can also be stated that it is a signal that this issue is highly effective in achieving the objectives (Yılmaz and Sarpkaya, 2021: 61). Furthermore, many studies on the O.S. perceptions of hotel business employees have been undertaken, and these investigations have a relationship and effect on the constructive and negative organizational behaviors displayed by employees. In related studies, the perception of O.S. has been explored together with many subjects such as organizational commitment, turnover intention (Kalidass & Bahron 2015); psychological capital, burnout (Liang Lin, 2013); emotional labor (Mishra, 2013); employee empowerment, organizational citizenship (Fang Chiang & Sheng Hsieh 2012); job embeddedness (Akgunduz & Sanli 2017); emotional commitment (Özkan, 2017); and presentism (Arslaner, 2015). Except for the above-mentioned basic ideas in the national and international literature, the fact that there are few studies that reveal the relationship between the perception of O.S., O.A. behavior, and the perception of trust in the manager increases the importance of the subject, particularly in service businesses, and it is thought that the conclusions drawn by this research may reveal a valuable contribution to the literature.

Literature Review

While the TDK dictionary describes perception as “awareness of something through directing attention to that thing, understanding” (TDK, 2022), it is also characterized as “the act of organizing and interpreting sensory data to give meaning to things and

events in the environment” (Cüceloğlu, 1999: 98). Individuals that experience this process build their behaviors and attitudes based on assumptions or ideas formed from facts gathered from the outside environment (Eren, 2010: 69). Equally, there are a variety of perceptions that underpin employees’ attitudes and behaviors in the workplace, and the concept of O.S. perception is one of them. Since the 1990s, the issue of O.S. has been addressed in psychology and business research. In today’s environment, it has become even more pertinent to scrutinize the concept of O.S.in order to mitigate the adverse effects of employee-employer relations on businesses (Çolakoğlu et al., 2010: 125) due to factors such as increased competition and change processes in business structures. Apart from physical opportunities, hotel businesses have a business configuration that serves humans with humans, and the fact that the concept of human plays such a vital role in the success of these businesses discloses the centrality of examining the perception of O.S.in such businesses.

Organizational Support Perception

Hellman et al. (2006: 631) classified O.S. as “employees’ sense that they contribute to their businesses through the jobs they accomplish, that their businesses value this contribution, and that they give their employees the attention they deserve.” According to Özdevecioğlu (2003: 116), O.S. is the feeling that employees are safe in the workplace and that their employers support them. Correspondingly, Kurtessis et al. (2017: 1854) categorized O.S. as all assessments of how businesses respect their employees’ contributions and how significant their well-being is to them. Social Change Theory, which investigates the balance between organizational and employee expectations, is the foundation of O.S. theory (Loi, et al., 2006: 109). Individuals respond positively to practices or people when they perceive it will benefit them, according to Social Change Theory. As a result, a connection of exchange arises between organizations and employees (Blau, 1964). In a similar manner, according to the O.S. theory, employees realize they are accountable for assisting their employers in achieving their objectives. Positive and beneficial consequences in attitudes and behaviors toward their work might develop as a result of this perception, as the level of O.S. they perceive climbs. As a result, they are rewarded for the organization’s contribution to them. As a consequence, employees turn their feelings of support into behaviors (Hatipoğlu, 2015: 16). Furthermore, employees who feel their organization supports them are interested in how others behave and may have optimistic expectations (Mercan, 2015). It might be argued that this circumstance has an impact on positive or negative organizational behaviors, as well as trust in the business and its manager. Eisenberger et al. (1986: 501) claimed that individuals who have a positive view of O.S. are more likely to engage in actions that will promote the organization in principle. However, according to Organ (1977: 50), this issue is tied to employee expectations, and as long as those expectations are realized, employees will be motivated to succeed.

It has been demonstrated that when hotel employees have strong O.S. perceptions, their levels of unfavorable organizational behavior diminish. In their study of hotel employees, Kaya (2012), Karatepe (2012), and (2016) established a negative relationship between the sense of O.S. and the intention to leave. Furthermore, Civilidağ (2014) discovered a negative relationship between O.S. and mobbing, while Yılmaz and Tanrıverdi (2017) identified a negative relationship between O.S. and job stress.

Organizational Support (O.S.) and Organizational Alienation (O.A.)

The perception of O.S. and O.A. as well as other organizational behaviors were thought to have an unfavorable correlation. Thus, the relationship between O.S. perception and O.A. has been researched in a variety of disciplines and it has been concluded that there is an adverse relationship (Taştan et al., 2014; Tanrıverdi & Kılıç, 2016; Tokmak, 2020). There is no study on hotel employees that focuses on the relationships between O.S. perception and O.A. behavior in the literature. O.A. behavior is a challenge that hotel businesses cannot ignore and one that should be investigated, especially when it is apparent in the workplace.

The phenomenon of alienation originated in countries following WWII. It was initially identified in America and then in Western countries, and has since been analyzed empirically. With the impact of the capitalist system and post-modernism on the world, which has emerged as a result of globalization, there has been a sudden and quick surge in interest in the concept of alienation (İrdem, 2021: 275). The concept of alienation, which was first put forward in a study by Hegel, was examined from philosophical aspects and was expressed as the alienation of individuals from natural life and their essence (Şimşek et al., 2006: 572). Alienation, according to Fromm, is “the individual’s passive and receptive acceptance of the environment and himself, that is, passively and behaving accordingly” (Fromm, 2003: 125). O.A., on the other hand, originates when employees are dissatisfied with their jobs and use less energy than usual in pursuit of external incentives (Agarwal, 1993: 723). In terms of business research, O.A. refers to employees’ loss of sense of belonging as a result of their leaving their workplace or coworkers for whatever cause, or it refers to their belongings being broken (Demirgöl, 2020: 117).

Employee alienation is premised on the reality that the socio-psychological benefits they will acquire from the workplace in exchange for the job or task are not accomplished, and the employee suffers this deprivation, according to Kanungo (1990). Employees are also subjected to time pressure in the workplace, where their tasks or efforts are overseen by others. Therefore, fatigue, boredom, and their unique qualities are either downplayed or not considered at all. In a nutshell, justifications are effective in employees’ display of alienation behavior (Usul & Atan, 2014: 3).

The emergence of O.A. behavior has a variety of consequences. These consequences are reviewed on a behavioral and organizational level. Behavioral implications encompass alienation from society, the meaninglessness of life, selfishness, belief in destiny, lower performance, negative attitudes toward business, and failure to take responsibility (Osin, 2015: 61). Burnout, a deterioration in the quality of life, disconnection from the environment, insensitivity, a reduction in creativity, robotization, and obedience, on the other hand, are examples of organizational outcomes (Maslach & Jackson, 1985: 120; Usul & Atan, 2014: 1).

Organizational Support and Trust in Manager

The concept of trust is expressed as a psychological issue that includes individuals' mutually positive attitudes and behaviors, being influenced by each other, avoiding harmful behaviors, self-sacrificing, or having beneficial expectations and beliefs (Heimovics, 1984: 545; Wech 2002: 354; Sağlam Arı & Tunçay, 2010: 116). Accordingly, organizational trust is defined as individuals' positive expectations about other members through their roles, relationships, and past experiences (Huff & Kelley, 2003:82; Tüzün, 2007: 105). Organizational trust is shown as one of the influential factors in performance, effectiveness, and efficiency, and in achieving the targeted goals (Özler et al., 2010: 51). It is claimed that organizational trust plays a great role in revealing the sustainable success of businesses or organizations (Sharkie, 2009: 491).

Some obstacles must be recognized in order to verbalize the emergence of organizational trust, such as increasing employees' trust in their colleagues and managers, and ensuring that business regulations are enforced fairly, information sharing is secured, ambiguity is avoided, and cooperation is achieved (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Dinç, 2007). Numerous favorable outcomes can be attributed to the presence of organizational trust in businesses. Positive contributions such as organizational identity, morale, creativity, motivation, commitment, citizenship, productivity, and harmony are examples of these (Üstün, 2015:46). It is claimed that business structures based on organizational trust are more productive, effective in achieving goals, and successful in managing difficulties (Tüzün, 2007; 105). The employees' trust in the manager, known as one of the sub-dimensions of organizational trust, is portrayed as the employees' trust in the management with whom they work (Artar et al., 2019). The ethical and just attitudes of managers toward their employees impact the feelings of trust that employees have for their managers (Koç and Yazıcıoğlu, 2011:47). Managers are those who are instrumental in attaining and meeting the targets of the business for which they work. Responsible for the use of the resources at hand, these people need to provide trust to the manager in order to get the maximum benefit from the human resources (Gök, 2011: 11). In this context, it

can be argued that management practices and managerial behaviors in businesses can be effective in shaping employer-employee relations and trust in managers.

The assumption of O.S. is associated with both desirable and undesirable organizational behavior and perceptions. These actions and attitudes are considered to incorporate O.A. and trust in the manager. In this setting, as long as hotel businesses deliver a high-quality service, they will be able to withstand increased competition and ensure their long-term viability. Business-employee structures must be constructed on a firm foundation to maintain this continuity. It is worth noting that hotel employees are the backbone of the industry, because the service is delivered by employees, and the employees are capable of accomplishing the aims and objectives. In this context, hotel businesses should consider providing acceptable working circumstances for their employees, employees should sense their employer’s support and trust them while performing their duties, and employees should not feel alienated from the business. Otherwise, these labor-intensive businesses may not be able to flourish, and they may be forced to deal with organizational challenges. The study hopes to examine the impact of hotel employees’ O.S. perceptions on their O.A. behavior and feelings of trust in the manager. The following hypotheses were produced for this purpose:

H1: The perception of organizational support has a negative effect on organizational alienation behavior.

H2: The perception of organizational support has a positive effect on trust in manager.

Research Model

Figure 1 shows the research model. According to the model, when hotel employees perceive O.S. as favorable, they do not suffer a sense of alienation in the businesses where they work. In other words, O.S. has a deleterious impact on O.A. Also, O.A. behavior lessens when the feeling of O.S. rises. On the other side, employees’ trust in the manager strengthens as they perceive favorable O.S. That is to say, as O.S. grows, so does trust in the manager.

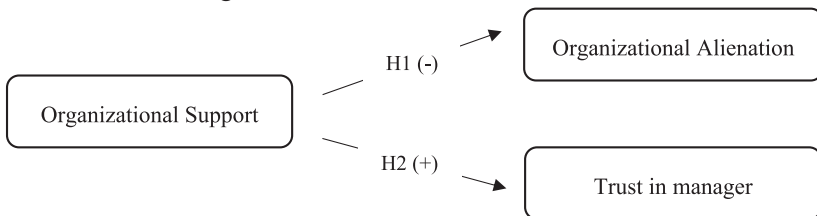


Figure 1. Research model

Methodology

A two-stage procedure was used in this research. To begin, an extensive literature review was undertaken on three crucial variables that make up the research's main structure and whose reliability and validity were ensured. In the second stage, the scale was applied to 329 hotel employees. The scale directed to the participants consists of 48 questions. The first 9 questions are aimed at determining participant characteristics. The remaining 39 questions are in the form of a 5-point Likert scale and are graded as (1) totally disagree, (5) totally agree.

Research Scope and Process

The population of this research consists of the employees of hotels operating in Rize. Since there is no clear number of employees working in hotel businesses in Rize, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Turkey calculated the number of personnel per bed as 0.35 and the number of personnel per room as 0.70 over the general average of the hotel enterprises, according to the statistics of "Workforce in the Hospitality and Tourism Sector" (1989) to determine the research population (Turizm Bakanlığı, 1989: 61). In this context, according to the data obtained from the Rize Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, it has been determined that the hotel businesses in Rize have a total of 2,345 rooms and 5,164 beds (rize.ktb.gov.tr). In this context, when the number of personnel is calculated according to the number of rooms, the result is $2345 \times 0.70 = 1641$, and when the number of personnel per bed is calculated, the number of personnel is $5164 \times 0.35 = 1807$. In this framework, the research population was determined to be 1,807 personnel by the researchers. Sampling was preferred due to reasons such as the large number of units constituting the research population, time and cost limitations, and transportation difficulties. The population with less than 10,000 units of the research scope is considered finite universes and the minimum sample size to represent the universe in question is calculated as 317, according to the 1,807 universe volume (Ural and Kılıç, 2018: 43). The research data were obtained from the employees of the hotel businesses operating in Rize by convenience sampling technique. Convenience sampling is often used during the exploration phase of a research project and is the best way to get some basic information quickly and efficiently (Sekaran, 2003). In the convenience sampling method, after the universe is determined on the subject to be researched, the number of units to be sampled is determined by various calculations. After the determination process, it is necessary to collect relevant information from units such as the person and animal that will come before the researcher during the data collection phase and will be the subject of the sampling. There are no rules or system surveillance here. The convenience sampling method is a method that is easy to implement and provides convenience to researchers in terms of cost and time (Gazeloğlu and Erkiliç, 2020:

45-46). In this research, 329 valid data obtained from hotel employees were obtained as a result of the data collection phase with the convenience sampling method.

Scales

The 8-item, one-dimension scale proposed by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002: 699), a reduced version of the 36-item O.S. scale produced by Eisenberger et al. (1986: 502), was used to appraise perceived O.S. In addition, a scale devised by Mottaz (1981) with 21 expressions and three dimensions (powerlessness, meaninglessness, and self-alienation) was used to determine the participants' O.A. levels. Lastly, the organizational trust scale, which was compiled from the scales of Büte (2011: 183), İslamoğlu et al. (İslamoğlu, Birsal and Börü, 2007) and Demircan and Ceylan (2003), was used in order to assess the trust perceptions of the participants in the manager. This scale of trust in the manager includes 10 expressions, consisting of one dimension.

Analysis of Data

The obtained data were analyzed with SmartPLS3 software. The normal distribution is not required in SmartPLS3 data analysis. This software works effectively in small samples and analysis of complex models (Hair et al., 2010). In the analyses made with this software, it is also recommended to count the smallest sample size (Ringle et al., 2014). For this reason, G*Power, a practical and free program, was used (Faul et al., 2009). While calculating the sample size with this software, the variable that is predicted by the most variables (the one that gets the most arrows directly to itself) should be taken into account. It appears that there are two parameters for the calculation: the power of the test ($\text{Power}=1-\beta$ error prob. II) and effect size (f^2). Hair et al. (2017) recommend that 0.80 for power and 0.15 for f^2 values should be taken into account. In this study, a variable is predicted by 1 variable at most. Accordingly, the smallest sample number is 55. In addition, the number of samples used in this study also meets the 10-fold rule.

In data analysis with SmartPLS3, first the measurement model and then the structural model were tested. The measurement model was tested for indicator reliability (outer loadings), internal consistency (composite reliability/Cronbach alpha), and convergent (AVE) and divergent validity (Fornell & Larcker criterion and Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlation) (Ab Hamid et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2019). However, structural model path coefficients were evaluated with variance inflation factor (VIF), explained variance (R^2), model fit, a predictive fit of the model (Q^2), and effect size (f^2) values (Hair et al., 2017).

Findings

Profile of Participants

Men make up 50.8 % of the study's participants, while women cover the rest. 73.9 percent of the participants are between the ages of 21 and 40, and 63.5% are single. Furthermore, more than half of the participants earn between 4000 and 5000 TL every month. Nearly half of the participants (49.5%) have a secondary education, and the vast majority (83.6%) have no tourism-related education. In addition, 41.6 percent of the participants work in food and beverage, 26.7 percent in housekeeping, 16.4 percent in the front office, and 15.2 percent in accounting, sales and marketing, technical service, and human resources.

Evaluation of the Measurement Model

The measurement model was evaluated in terms of indicator validity, internal consistency, convergent and divergent validity (Hair et al., 2017). Table 1 shows the relevant results. Factor load values were examined for the indicator validity of the research model and values below 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010) were excluded from the model. Accordingly, a total of 5 items, 3 from the perceived O.S. scale and 2 items from the powerlessness scale, were excluded from the analysis. For internal consistency, Cronbach alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) values of all variables are above the 0.70 thresholds. Thus, internal consistency was achieved (Hair et al., 2010; Nunnally, 1978). In addition, the mean explained variance (AVE) of all variables meets the 0.50 threshold. Therefore, it may be assured that convergent validity is also ensured (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 1
Results of Measurement Model

Construct	Expression	Loadings	t-value	α	rho (Pa)	CR	AVE
Organizational support	The business I work for values my contributions to business activities and development.						
	The business I work for fails to appreciate my extra efforts.	0.764	21.578**				
	The business I work for does not consider my complaints.	0.767	21.303**				
	The business I work for really thinks about my well-being.			0.813	0.824	0.876	0.640
	The business I work for it does not notice if I do my job in the best possible way.	0.842	34.504**				
	The business I work for takes into account my overall satisfaction with my job.						
	The business I work for shows little interest in me.	0.823	41.157**				

	The business I work for takes pride in my achievements in my job.						
	I do not feel free while performing my work-related duties.						
	I do not have the opportunity to make my own decisions while doing my job.	0.838	24.140**				
	I have no authority/control over the work I do.	0.767	19.586**				
Powerlessness	I have to consult my superiors in all my decisions regarding my job.	0.702	13.751**	0.827	0.841	0.878	0.591
	I do not have the opportunity to make changes in matters related to my job.	0.707	12.345**				
	My daily activities at work are decided by people other than me						
	I can't make my own decisions in my working area.	0.818	29.127**				
	I do not believe that my work has contributed to the success of this business.	0.710	19.555**				
	There are times when I do not fully understand what the purpose of my work is.	0.742	20.897**				
Meaninglessness	I do not believe that the work I do is important and/or valuable.	0.804	24.633**	0.865	0.869	0.897	0.554
	I question whether the work I do really matters.	0.749	18.554**				
	My job covers very little of the work in the business.	0.775	17.227**				
	I do not see the contribution of my role in the overall operation of this business.	0.739	14.494**				
	I do not think my job is compatible with my co-workers' jobs.	0.684	19.466**				
	I do not feel any sense of accomplishment in what I do.	0.737	19.711**				
	To me, the most satisfying feature of my job is just the pay I get.	0.799	13.023**				
	My job does not exactly give me a sense of personal satisfaction.	0.821	26.250**				
Self-alienation	I do not get the opportunity to use my real competence in what I do.	0.813	22.197**	0.879	0.885	0.908	0.624
	Doing my job usually does not satisfy me.	0.820	26.427**				

Trust in manager	My job is pretty routine and monotonous, and I do not have the opportunity to use my creativity.	0.742	26.819**					
	My job is not difficult enough to offer the opportunity to improve myself.	0.718	17.823**					
	Yöneticim çalışanlarımı destekleyicidir.	0.796	33.414**					
	Yöneticim dürüst ve adildir.	0.778	26.994**					
	My manager is really a team leader.	0.777	27.158**					
	My manager creates a positive working environment.	0.815	32.985**					
	My manager is confident.	0.750	17.766**					
	My manager does not create tension.	0.731	20.257**	0.926	0.932	0.937	0.599	
	My manager shares his knowledge.	0.787	29.505**					
	My manager has assuring approach.	0.817	32.531**					
	My manager is competent in his job.	0.764	26.782**					
	My manager gives authority to his subordinates and cares about his subordinates.	0.720	18.859**					

Note: rho (Pa) = Dijstra-Henseler indicator; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; CR= Composite Reliability; α = Cronbach's Alpha; *p<0.001

Fornell-Larcker and (HTMT) criteria were considered for divergent validity testing. Accordingly, the square root of the AVE values for the latent variables should be greater than the internal structure correlation values (Henseler et al., 2016). According to Table 2, it is observed that the square root of the AVE values of all variables is above the correlation values in the relevant columns and rows.

Table 2
Fornell-Larcker Results

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Organizational support	4.16	0.56	0.800					
2. Meaninglessness	2.29	0.88	-0.363	0.744				
3. Powerlessness	3.30	0.87	-0.449	0.630	0.769			
4. Self-alienation	2.30	0.90	-0.314	0.730	0.671	0.790		
5. Trust in manager	2.30	0.87	0.3549	-0.277	-0.354	-0.323	0.774	

Note: Square roots of average variance extracted (AVE) shown on diagonal in bold. α = Cronbach's alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted.

Also, according to Table 3, HTMT values are below the 0.90 thresholds. This means that the measurement model is sufficient in terms of divergent validity. In addition to that, model fit was evaluated. To obtain this goal, Hu & Bentler (1998) recommend looking at the SRMR value. According to the researchers, a value below 0.10 or 0.08 is sufficient for an acceptable model fit. In addition, Henseler et al., (2014) suggest the rms Theta value as well as the SRMR value for model fit. The fact

that this value is below 0.12 is considered necessary for model fit. In this study, the SRMR value was found to be 0.075, and the rms Theta value was 0.0119.

Table 3
HTMT Results

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Organizational support						
2. Meaninglessness	0.424					
3. Powerlessness	0.533	0.736				
4. Self-alienation	0.353	0.841	0.785			
5. Trust in manager	0.392	0.306	0.388	0.350		

The study data were reviewed for Common Method Bias (CMB) before the structural model was tested when all of these prerequisites were achieved. During the data collecting and analysis stages, several procedural and statistical measures were taken. There is no inquiry in the data gathering instrument about the identity of the participants. Furthermore, they were guaranteed that their responses would be kept private. In addition, the participants were cautioned that the data gathering instrument did not have a correct or wrong answer choice. Participants were instructed to choose the most accurate replies possible. Likewise, when collecting data, the researcher made a point to gather data for the dependent variable first, followed by the independent variables (Özyılmaz & Eser, 2013). Statistically, the Harman single factor test recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and the full collinearity test recommended by Kock (2015) were used. According to the researcher, the variance inflation factor (VIF) should not exceed 3.3 for all factors. If the factor obtained according to the single factor test does not explain a large part of the variance, this is a sign that there is no CMB problem (Podsakoff et al., 2003). According to the single factor test, 31% of the variance is explained. Besides, the VIF values of O.A., O.S. and organizational trust variables were found to be 1.245, 1.223, and 1.189, respectively. Therefore, there seems to be no problem in terms of CMB according to this test result (Kock, 2015; Malhotra et al., 2006).

Evaluation of the Structural Model

To examine the structural model, Hair et al., (2017) recommend that explained variance (R^2), beta (β) and t values obtained by the 5000 resampling bootstrapping procedure should be checked. Furthermore, the researchers said that in addition to these fundamental measurements, they should also supply predictive fit (Q^2) and effect size (f^2) values of the model. Sullivan & Feinn (2012: 279) claim that although the P value informs the readers about whether the effect exists or not, it does not offer information about the extent of the effect, and therefore researchers are required to report both substantial and statistical significance. Some studies recommend that confidence intervals be given in addition to the effect size (Ramayah et al., 2017).

In this framework, relevant reports were carried out in this study by following all recommendations. Table 4 showcases that R^2 values for O.A. and organizational trust were found to be 0.172 and 0.207, respectively. According to these values, O.S. explains both O.A. and organizational trust at a low level. Besides, Stone-Geisser's (Q2) value was found to be 0.072 and 0.105 for O.A. and organizational trust, respectively. The fact that these values are greater than zero ($Q2 > 0$) shows that the predictive fit of the model is produced (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 4
Results of the Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std. Beta	Std. Error	t-value	Decision	2.50%	97.50%	R ²	Q ²	f ²
H1	Organizational support → organizational alienation	-0.427	0.041	10.505**	Supported	-0.497	-0.336	0.183	0.077	0.267
H2	Organizational support → trust in manager	0.350	0.047	7.499**	Supported	0.251	0.435	0.123	0.070	0.145

The bootstrapping method was used for hypothesis testing. The relevant results are demonstrated in Table 4. According to the table, O.S. is significantly and negatively related to O.A. ($\beta = -0.427, p < 0.05, f^2 = 0.267$), while O.S. is significantly and positively related to trust in the manager ($\beta = 0.350, p < 0.05, f^2 = 0.145$). Therefore, the H1 and H2 hypotheses were admitted.

Discussion and Result

The purpose of this study was to determine how hotel employees' O.S. perceptions influence their O.A. behaviors and trust in their managers. Based on the findings of the research, all hypotheses were found to be acceptable. As a result, hotel employees' perceptions of O.S. are inversely related to their O.A. behavior. To put it another way, employees' O.A. behavior reduces as their perceptions of O.S. strengthen. Tanrıverdi and Kılıç (2016) conducted research on telecommunication, Taştan et al., (2014) and Aslan and Güzel (2016) hospital workers, Demir (2020) teachers, and Zaro (2018) kitchen workers, and they obtained similar results. In this framework, it is clear that the findings for hotel employees are corroborated by the literature.

Another outcome of the study is that O.S. perception and organizational trust have a substantial and favorable relationship. That is to say, as employees' perceptions of O.S. strengthen, so does their trust in the organization. Eser (2011) identified common results in his research on private and public sector employees, Uzun (2018) identified similar conclusions in his research on teachers, and Sevinç Altaş (2021) obtained equivalent effects in his research on health employees. Further to that, according

to Kestek (2016)'s research on hotel employees, there is a positive and moderate relationship between O.S. and organizational trust. The findings of this study appear to corroborate those of other studies published in the literature.

It is seen that the positive and high level of O.S. perception of employees has constructive effects on hotel businesses employees serving in the tourism industry, just as in other sectors. However, it is seen that the O.S. perception of the employees has an undesirable effect on negative organizational behaviors, and it has a direct proportional influence on the perceptions that make positive contributions to the business, such as the level of organizational trust. Hotel businesses depend on their employees. That means that in every situation where employees are inadequate or the businesses prevent them from doing their jobs, businesses may find it problematic to retain their viability and achieve their goals and objectives. The sense of O.S., as evidenced by the findings of this study, prevents the establishment of negative organizational behaviors, and encourages the emergence of positive feelings and behaviors. It also enables hotel management to get data on how employees perceive O.S. and how that view relates to other behaviors. The following suggestions are made to boost employees' perceptions of O.S. and to raise this level of perception:

- Each employee in the hotel industry was employed to do a specific job or assignment. As a result, whatever task he conducts, it is worth remembering that his contribution is substantial and that even the slightest contribution he makes should be cherished.
- In addition to the opportunities they bring, hotel businesses may be prosperous and continue to operate by ensuring that employees carry out their obligations hereunder and provide customer satisfaction. Employee satisfaction is also a crucial component in obtaining customer satisfaction. It is pointless to talk about accomplishment in an organization where a considerable number of employees are dissatisfied with their employment conditions.
- The cultivation of a mutually trusting atmosphere is one of the most critical variables in experiencing the availability of O.S.
- Incorporating employee suggestions and embedding them into operations and management is a tremendously productive way to provide O.S. Employees reckon they make a favorable contribution to their businesses and organizations, and they start concentrating their efforts on achieving corporate goals and objectives.
- Employees may recognize support as the fulfillment of their professional plans, as well as the provision of crucial information and assurances concerning the future continuity of their jobs.
- Strengthening the quality of manager-employee relationships can be done by creating a healthy communication culture inside the organization.
- Ultimately, managers must ensure that internal merit is completely safeguarded and that a fair working environment is fostered. This might be considered the most major priority that illustrates the existence of O.S. and influences both constructive and adverse characteristics of employee conduct.

There are multiple constraints on this study. Initially, the data for the study came from the employees of hotel businesses in Rize. Therefore, future studies may concentrate on various types of businesses. In addition, ongoing research in the tourism industry could look into other types of businesses (restaurants, transportation, and travel agencies). Finally, the data used in this study is quantitative. As a result, combined methods may be applied in the future so that results may contribute to the literature from several perspectives.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: E.E.; Data Acquisition: E.A.; Data Analysis/Interpretation: E.A.; Drafting Manuscript: E.E., E.A.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: E.E., E.A.; Final Approval and Accountability: E.E., E.A.

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The Role of Demographic Factors in Tourists' Sustainability Consciousness, Sustainable Tourism Awareness and Purchasing Behavior

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Abstract

The aim of this research is to investigate the role of demographic factors on tourists' sustainability consciousness, awareness of sustainable tourism and purchasing behavior. The importance of the study is that it examines the subject in a holistic manner and develops suggestions based on study findings. It investigated whether variables such as age, gender, income level, and educational status have an effect on the perspective of tourists, on sustainable tourism practices in accommodation facilities, and on purchasing behaviors. The issue of sustainability, which is evaluated in terms of consumption and waste of natural resources, food, and goods in the literature was investigated within the scope of a tourists' perspective and perception in this study and thus data that can shed light on the sector stakeholders were obtained. In the research, data were collected with the help of questionnaires and 386 valid responses were received to the questionnaires. The obtained data were analyzed with SPSS 26.0 and AMOS programs. The research findings and the literature were compared, and various suggestions are presented. Accordingly, the aging of individuals, in other words their maturation and the increase in education levels raise both sustainability consciousness and sustainable tourism awareness. However, it was determined that these variables do not have a statistically significant effect on the purchasing behavior of tourists.

Keywords

Sustainability, Tourism, Consciousness, Awareness, Purchasing Behavior

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To cite this article: Ozdemir Ucgun, G., & Narci, M. T. (2022). The role of demographic factors in tourists' sustainability consciousness, sustainable tourism awareness and purchasing behavior. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 215-237. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1102495>



Introduction

Issues such as environmental problems, global warming, and climate change were brought to the agenda by researchers from many different disciplines (Bohdanowicz et. al. 2005; Cooper & Wahap, 2001; the European Commission, 2010; FAO, 2013; Gössling et. al., 2015; IEA, 2012; Ozdemir & Gucer, 2018; Radwan et. al., 2010). Due to the nature of tourist activities, the tourism industry is at the center of environmental problems. Although the tourism industry relies on the environment, it is also one of the sectors that destroys the natural environment (Sarac, Batman & Kiper, 2019: 166). Since people are exposed to consumption in all areas, they are directed to consume without thinking, correspondingly a consumption culture has become widespread in tourism activities (Çakmak & Sevinç, 2018: 88). The use of various means of transportation by travelers, carbon emissions that result from vehicles, consumption of fossil fuels in the heating and lighting of accommodation facilities, food waste or wasting water for reasons such as tourists taking showers in facilities, the change of the pool water or landscaping & gardening causes various environmental problems. The COVID-19 pandemic can be seen as an alarm and an opportunity; it is a call for both hosts and guests to embrace an awareness movement, highlighting the current problems in the tourism sector and paving a new path towards more considerate and meaningful tourism (Stankov, Filimonau & Vujičić, 2020: 703).

Sustainability was discussed extensively in the 1987 Brundtland report “Our Common Future”. After the Rio Earth Summit in 1992, big companies in the world started to adopt the understanding of sustainability as a goal. (Peattie & Charter, 2003: 727). Environmental issues were becoming a major concern for society. The majority of hotels around the world could benefit from this by using green practices in their daily operations (Aragon - Correa et. al., 2015: 499). Sustainable tourism is not solely the means for attracting consumers, but also directly benefits accommodation facilities in the long run. If a hotel manages to implement an energy management system in a correct and consistent way, then the savings it brings will offset the initial costs over time. With the help of such simple system, energy costs can be reduced by 28% (Robleket al., 2021: 16)

Until now, in the literature, issues such as how to take precautions against these environmental problems or what technologies can be used were dealt with and various suggestions were put forward (Jusah et.al. 2018; Olsson et.al. 2019; Ozdemir Uçgun, 2020; Romagosa, 2020; Mihalič, 2016; Romagosa, 2020; Streimikiene et. al., 2020; UNEP, 2004; UNWTO, 2017). However, the people who participate in touristic activities and who take the lead in sustainability management must be understood first. The fact that people who are environmentally conscious and have developed a sustainable tourism awareness will show how strong our profile is in

preventing environmental problems. Public awareness is seen as one of the most crucial factors affecting environmental problems (Chukwuma, 1998; Yahya & Che Ha, 2013), the maintenance of the environment is possible with the conservation of nature by individuals (Jusah et.al., 2018) and the main causes of these problems are related to people's consumption patterns (Aini et al., 2003). Sustainability consciousness is explained as a combination of attitudes, recognition of sustainable development foundations (knowingness), and self-reported behaviors (Olsson et. al., 2019: 185). These three variables; sustainability consciousness, sustainable tourism awareness, and purchasing behavior of tourists was to be used for this research study. The present literature underlined the relation of these variables and environmental problems; however, it did not show which demographic factors had an impact on people's sustainability awareness, environmental consciousness, or purchasing behavior. The need for this study arose from this research gap. Knowing the effects of demographic factors on these variables could guide and inform researchers, the government, tourism marketeers, and all sector stakeholders. Therefore, this paper contributes to the body of literature by underlining how demographic factors affect the variables or remain irrelevant, by stating where individual-based inadequacies related to environmental problems originate and by allowing constructive suggestions to be developed.

Ince (2015: 74) asserted that tourism consciousness can be defined as tourism awareness of tourism stakeholders in general. In addition, tourism consciousness is the environmental, social, and economic contributions of tourism to the country, and the awareness created by both tourists and local people for the protection of natural, historical, and cultural heritage. Makian & Hanifezadeh, (2020: 123) included community awareness and knowledge as one of the challenges facing ecotourism. According to Coertjens et al. (2010: 499), environmental awareness and attitudes towards the environment are shaped by an individuals' community, family, education level, friendship experiences, cultural structure, social relations, and the problems of the geography they live in, in short, being affected by all the factors in their environment. Robbins & Judge (2013: 70) defined attitudes as positive (I like tourism) or negative (I do not find tourism beneficial) evaluative statements about people, objects, or events.

Some scholars take demographic factors into consideration for various tourism topics. For example, in Adabali's research (2020), the Mindfulness Scores of tourists visiting the cultural heritage in the central Anatolia region were compared according to gender, marital status, educational status, nationality, and age range. Koc & Vili (2021) revealed some findings about the role of personality and gender of tourism and hospitality customers in risk perception. P. Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015: 258) asserted that the demographics of tourists were gaining interest in the literature

because the demographics of the travel market differed and influenced the behaviors of tourists. Thus, this study, on suggested the effect of demographic factors on sustainability consciousness, sustainable tourism awareness, and purchasing behavior of tourists.

Conceptual Framework

There have been positive changes in the financial situation of people since industrialization. These changes enabled them to choose different ways of life and identity. Thus, the level of consciousness about individual and social life increased (Guney, 2020: 72). Consumers are becoming more responsible towards the environment day by day, and with the effect of this awareness, they have started to find purchasing behaviors that require environmental friendliness more appropriate (Haanpää, 2007: 480). Awareness is defined in different dimensions, and Beck et al. (2004) considered awareness to be related to the recognition of the emotions of others. Papeleontiou-Louca (2003) emphasized that cognitive awareness corresponded to the correct and deep understanding of an individual's perception and thought. Environmental awareness is defined as the degree of awareness of environmental problems and the willingness to make personal efforts to solve them (Dunlap & Jones, 2002: 485).

Individuals who are environmentally aware and concerned about the impact of environmental problems on themselves are expected to act by giving importance to the environment in every activity while continuing their lives (Gadenne, Kennedy & McKeiver, 2009: 48). Sanchez & Lafuente (2010: 732) argued that an ecologically conscious environmental individual is one who engaged in a wide variety of pro-environmental behaviors and had certain attitudes and values associated with such behavior. Another study revealed that when customers had to choose between two equal hotels, they preferred more environmentally friendly accommodation facilities (Chan and Ho, 2006; Manaktola & Jauhari: 2007).

The environmental consciousness and awareness of tourists as consumers will affect or be affected by their attitudes. The attitude is defined by Inceoglu, (2010: 13) as a mental, emotional, and behavioral predisposition that the individual organizes based on experience, knowledge, emotions, and motives (motivation) against himself or any object or subject around him. According to Collins, there is a bidirectional relationship between attitude and behavior. In this respect, knowing a certain attitude provides an understanding of many behaviors related to that attitude (Collins, 1970: 86). After people fully adopt the attitudes, these attitudes can turn into behaviors. Adoption is expressed as a person's belief that the thoughts and behaviors of the group he is a member of are truly correct and that he exhibits conformity behavior accordingly (Guney, 2016: 55).

Chang and Chou (2010) emphasized that factors such as age, income status, or gender were important factors affecting touristic purchasing behavior. They concluded that consumers were willing to pay more during their stay in green hotels and female consumers were willing to pay more than male consumers were. Another factor associated with purchasing behavior is the satisfaction level of consumers. The high level of satisfaction of the tourist with the destination they visit causes them to think positively about the destination and the country. There are academic studies supporting this view (Ozdemir, 2019; Secilmis, 2012; Bulut, 2011; Duman & Ozturk, 2005).

There is some research on the relationship between demographic factors and sustainability studies. A related study on environmental awareness shows that, classes such as women, young people, those with high incomes, and well-educated people living in countries with a high level of development and urban people have a higher environmental awareness (Ozbebek Tunc, Akdemir Omur, G. & Duren, 2012: 230). In addition to this finding Yilmaz, Celik & Yagizer (2009: 2) argued that young people may be more sensitive to environmental concerns, women were more interested than men and education level was positively related to environmental attitudes and behaviors. In another study, which was similar to this research in terms of gender-related findings, it was determined that individuals under the age of 60 were more willing to participate in environmental practices (Baloglu & Millor, 2008). Another study by Yahya et. al. (2015: 102) examined the issue in terms of marital status and underlined that married couples with children had higher public awareness and were more environmentally friendly when compared to married couples with no children. According to the studies by Gam (2011), Phau & Ong, (2007) and Stern & Ander (2008) consumers' willingness to spend more for green products was higher if they were environmentally conscious.

Ozdemir et al. (2004: 117) obtained important findings. According to 301 students included in the study, the three most important environmental problems in the world were air pollution with 37.5%, wastes with 36.2% and reduction of forests with 30.6%. 75.8% of the students stated that they know and pay attention to what should be done for a healthy environment. 17.9% of the students stated that they know what to do but do not pay attention, and 19% stated that they do not know or were not interested in this issue. It was determined that female students were more knowledgeable and careful about the environment. While there was no difference between the first term and sixth (last) term students in terms of environmental sensitivity mean scores, it underlined that the environmental sensitivity mean score of female students and those aged 21 and younger were higher.

Methodology

The primary objective of this study was to examine the effects of consumers' demographic characteristics on their sustainability consciousness in tourism, sustainable tourism awareness, and purchasing behavior in Turkey. The research was created with the aim of explaining the effects of demographic characteristics like gender, marital status, age, education level, and household income on consumers' sustainability consciousness, sustainable tourism awareness, and purchasing behavior. Considering the research type, it is a descriptive research from observational studies. This research is important in terms of examining the issue of sustainability from a consumers' perspective and providing accurate information about the factors that shape sustainability in a way that sector stakeholders can benefit from. The fact that there was no similar study conducted with such a comprehensive approach in this field in Turkey makes this study of paramount interest.

The target group of this study (research universe) was people 18 years old or older who live in Turkey. Since this group tend to be better economically, the research universe of the study was selected from this group of individuals. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute Data (TUIK) as of 2020, there are 79.931.650 people in total who are 18 years old and older (Address Based Population Registration System Results - 2020, TUIK, <http://www.tuik.gov.tr>). Since the number in the universe were known, the minimum sample size with a sample error of 0.05 was calculated as 384. There are numerous statistical formulas to calculate the sample size for categorical data.

$$n = (N \times t^2 \times p \times q) / (d^2 (N - 1) + t^2 \times (p \times q))$$

n: Required sample size (?)

N: The research universe (79.931.650)

p: Percentage occurrence of a state or condition (0.05)

q: Percentage of a condition or condition not occurring (0.05)

t: Statistical value corresponding to level of confidence required (1.96)

Since the number in the universe is known, the minimum sample size with a sample error of 0.05 was calculated as 384 by the above formula.

In the study, a questionnaire was selected as the data collection method, and it included four parts. In the first part, there were six questions to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants. In the second part, to understand the participants' knowledge about sustainability, by Michalos et al. (2012) developed,

by Gricke et al. (2018) updated and by Yuksel & Yildiz (2019) adapted into Turkish "Sustainability Consciousness" scale which included 15 statements consisting of three dimensions related to the environment.

In the third part of the questionnaire, the environmental dimension of the "Sustainable Tourism Awareness" (SUS-TAS) scale developed by Choi & Sirakaya (2005) to measure attitudes towards sustainable tourism was used. The environmental dimension in the SUS-TAS scale was considered as Buzlukcu (2020) adapted in his study, however, the statement of "I believe tourism should improve the environment for future generations" in the original scale was added to the "environmental sustainability" sub-dimension. Two sub-dimensions and seven expressions were obtained in total for SUS-TAS.

In the fourth part of the questionnaire, "Purchasing Behavior" scale developed by Lee et al. (2010) and used by Berk & Celep (2020) in their study was included to measure the sustainable touristic purchasing behavior of individuals. The importance levels of the statements in the questionnaire were presented with a 5-point Likert type between (1) "Strongly Disagree" to (5) "Strongly Agree" and the participants were asked to answer the statements. In the research, a convenience sampling method was used because it is known as the most convenient and least time consuming (Taherdost, 2016: 23). The questionnaire consisting of the scale items and demographic questions to be used in the study was applied with an online link via e-mail, WhatsApp or LinkedIn platforms between 20.09.2021 – 10.10.2021 and 407 individuals were reached. However, the answers of the participants who gave inconsistent answers and who were under the age of 18 were eliminated and a total of 386 questionnaires were included in the study. The survey data were analyzed with the help of SPSS 26.0 and AMOS programs. Based on the obtained surveys, a confirmatory factor analysis was applied for the three scales of the questionnaire.

There are two types of factor analysis, Exploratory and Confirmatory. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a continuation of explanatory factor analysis (EFA). While EFA tries to provide the factor determination function and information to form hypotheses, CFA determines whether there is a sufficient level of relationship between these determined factors, which variables are related to which factors and whether the factors are independent from each other. CFA is also used to assess whether it is sufficient to explain the model (Erkorkmaz, 2013: 211). In order to evaluate the fit of the three scales used in the research, a pre-test was conducted on 58 people. A confirmatory factor analysis was performed with AMOS 24 software for validity analysis of the scales. The results show a good and acceptable fit. To measure the scales' reliability, the Cronbach's alpha (α) values were examined and the reliability values of the scales (Sustainability Conscious=0.782; SUS-TAS=0.940; Purchasing

Behavior=912) were found higher than the recommended value of 0.7. Thus, the measures were confirmed as dependable (Bland and Altman, 1997: 572). Table 1 summarizes the results.

Table 1
Goodness of Fit Values of Scales

Scale	CMIN/DF (< 5)	GFI (>.85)	AGFI (>.80)	CFI (>.90)	NFI (>.90)	RMSEA (< .10)	α
Sustainability Consciousness (SUS-TAS)	2.979 2.867	0.911 0.907	0.871 0.867	0.917 0.962	0.900 0.943	0.077 0.080	0.782 0.940
Purchasing Behavior	2.159	0.904	0.844	0.941	0.901	0.079	0.912

P = ,000<0,05

Based on the pre-test data, it was understood that the scales to be used factor analysis was above the acceptable values, so the questionnaires were distributed, and analysis of the research was made on a total of 386 valid responses.

Findings

Six questions were asked to determine the demographic characteristics of the respondents in the survey. Demographic information of the participants is summarized in Table 2. Accordingly, 55.2% of the participants were male and 78% were single. 58.5% of the individuals were in the 18-23 age range, 57.3% were at the associate degree education level. 30.3% of them had a monthly household income of 7501 TL or more and 53.1% of the participants were students.

Table 2
Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	213	55.2
	Female	173	44.8
	Total	386	100%
Marital Status	Married	85	22
	Single	301	78
	Total	386	100%
Age	18-23	226	58.5
	24-29	39	10.1
	30-35	62	16.1
	36-41	18	4.7
	42 and more	41	10.6
	Total	386	100%
Education Level	Elementary school	3	0.8
	High school	28	7.3
	Under graduate	221	57.3
	Graduate	97	25.1
	Post graduate	37	9.6
	Total	386	100%

	3000 TL and less	64	16.6
	3001-4500 TL	87	22.5
Household Income (Turkish Lira)	4501-6000 TL	75	19.4
	6001-7500 TL	43	11.1
	7501 TL and more	117	30.3
	Total	386	100%
	Employee	33	8.5
Job	Officer	34	8.8
	Retired	9	2.3
	Student	205	53.1
	Academician	16	4.1
	Housewife	11	2.8
	Small business	4	1
	Tourism employee	8	2.1
	Self-employment	25	6.5
	Other	41	10.6
	Total	386	100%

In addition to questions to determine demographic characteristics, there were items of three scales in the research questionnaire. Table 3 shows the mean values and standard deviations of the participants' responses to the related statements.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics of the Scales

Scale	Factors	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sustainability Consciousness	Knowledge	Reducing water consumption is essential for sustainable development.	4.3316	1.04640
		Protecting nature is not necessary for sustainable development.	2.6010	1.21968
		Conserving species diversity in nature is essential for sustainable development.	4.5052	.85050
		Sustainable development requires a switch to renewable sources (renewables resources include wind power, solar panels, ethanol from Bio-waste etc.).	4.3057	1.00120
		For sustainable development, people need to be educated on how to protect themselves against natural disasters.	4.4249	.93465
	Attitude	Using natural resources more than we need does not threaten human health or our future welfare.	1.9197	1.42018
		I think we need stricter laws and regulations to protect the environment.	4.2254	1.04371
		I think it is important that something is done about the problems related to climate change.	4.3212	.97257
		I think it is okay for people to use as much water as they want.	1.8964	1.31905
	Behavior	If possible, I prefer to go somewhere by bike or on foot.	3.5777	1.22545
		I never waste water.	3.8368	1.04536
		I recycle as much as possible.	3.9378	1.03260
		If I see the garbage outside the city, in places such as picnic and recreation areas, I collect it.	3.8472	1.09779
		I do not think about whether the things I do will harm the environment.	1.7876	1.27776
		Whenever possible, I separate household waste as separate garbage.	3.8394	1.13737

SUS-TAS	Environmental Sustainability	We should value the diversity of nature and protect nature in the regions where accommodation establishments are located.	4.5829	.77602
		Tourism should protect the environment we live in.	4.6140	.73411
		A suitable accommodation business should always protect the natural habitat.	4.5907	.73028
		I believe that tourism should improve the environment for future generations.	4.5466	.76559
	Visitor Satisfaction	Accommodation businesses should take responsibility for the satisfaction of visitors.	4.4870	.79354
		The tourism industry should offer excellent quality tourist experiences to visitors to accommodation establishments. It is the responsibility of the touristic enterprises to meet the needs of the tourists coming to the accommodation establishments.	4.4611	.79596
			4.2435	.91610
	WOM	When my friends and relatives travel, I encourage them to stay in accommodation that considers sustainable elements.	2.8834	1.26915
		In general, I would recommend an accommodation facility that considers sustainable elements in case my close circle seeks a good catering service.	2.4491	1.25950
		I give positive advice about an environmentally friendly accommodation facility.	2.8337	1.30619
		It is reasonable to overcharge to stay at an accommodation facility that operates in sustainable practices.	3.2876	1.26397
Overpayment Wish	I am willing to pay more to stay in a sustainability-sensitive accommodation.	3.4223	1.15564	
	I am willing to spend the extra to stay in an eco-friendly accommodation facility.	3.3938	1.16010	
	I am willing to stay at an accommodation facility that takes sustainable considerations into account when traveling.	4.0415	.93328	
	Hotels that consider sustainable elements are in the first place in my travel plans.	3.8964	.96679	
Revisit	My next accommodation preference will be for accommodation facilities that take sustainability into account.	4.0699	.92738	

In the application of parametric tests, it was necessary that the data show normal or near-normal distribution. There are many analytical and visual methods to determine if the data represents a normally distributed population. One of them is the measure of Skewness and Kurtosis. According to this analytical method, the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients are divided by their standard errors if the resulting values are between -1.96 and +1.96, the distribution is considered normal at the 5% significance level (Yavuz, 2019: 616). The scales used in the research were assessed for normality distribution and it is understood that they were normally distributed. Table 4 summarizes the results.

Table 4
Normality Test's Values of the Scales

Scales	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistical Value	Sd.	Statistical Value	Sd.
Sustainability Consciousness (SUS-TAS)	-1.369	0.124	1.836	0.248
Purchasing Behavior	-0.526	0.124	0.561	0.248

Both an ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) and a t-test are statistical tests that compare the mean scores for certain groups (Emerson, 2017:194). Significance level is given for both, and it is expected less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). A T-test was used to evaluate the relationship between gender and marital status and other variables. According to t-test results, it is understood that while there is a relationship ($p < 0.05$) between gender and sustainability consciousness (Female $X = 4.1645$; Male $X = 3.9809$), there is no relationship between gender, SUS-TAS and purchasing behavior ($p > 0.05$). On the other hand, according to t-test results, there is a relationship ($p < 0.05$) between marital status and sustainability consciousness (Married $X = 4.2392$; Single $X = 4.0135$); SUS-TAS (Married $X = 4.6370$; Single $X = 4.4661$) but there is no relationship between marital status and purchasing behavior ($p > 0.05$). Table 5 summarizes the related results.

Table 5
Values of T-tests

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means			
	(Gender)	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Sustainability Consciousness	Equal variances assumed	2.077	.150	-3.146	384	.002
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.195	382.686	.002
SUS-TAS	Equal variances assumed	5.071	.025	-.929	384	.354
	Equal variances not assumed			-.957	381.087	.339
Purchasing Behavior	Equal variances assumed	7.355	.007	-.544	384	.587
	Equal variances not assumed			-.555	383.865	.579
	(Marital Status)	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Sustainability Consciousness	Equal variances assumed	.895	.345	3.224	384	.001
	Equal variances not assumed			3.006	123.324	.003
SUS-TAS	Equal variances assumed	11.013	.001	2.064	384	.040
	Equal variances not assumed			2.776	244.037	.006
Purchasing Behavior	Equal variances assumed	.532	.466	-.591	384	.555
	Equal variances not assumed			-.586	133.680	.559

The ANOVA test was applied to evaluate the relationship between the research variables according to the demographic characteristics of the participants; age, household income, and education level. One of the criteria for ANOVA tests is the homogeneity of variables. With the use of Levene test, the variables might be homogeneous, if the significance level is more than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) and there is no requirement for doing the ANOVA test. However, if the significance level is less

than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), it is understood that the variables are not homogeneous and, in this case, instead of the ANOVA test, the Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests could be implemented.

According to the significance levels of the Levene test results, while the ANOVA test cannot be implemented ($\text{sig.} < 0.05$), for “SUS-TAS” variable in age and education level characteristics, the test could be applied in household income characteristic. On the other hand, it is understood that the ANOVA test can be implemented ($\text{sig.} > 0.05$) for “Sustainability Consciousness” and “Purchasing Behavior” variables in age, education level, and household income characteristics.

Table 6
ANOVA Tests

		(Age)	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Sustainability Consciousness	Between Groups		7.178	4	1.794	5.653	.000
	Within Groups		120.942	381	.317		
	Total		128.120	385			
Purchasing Behavior	Between Groups		.585	4	.146	.233	.920
	Within Groups		239.580	381	.629		
	Total		240.165	385			
		(Education Level)	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Sustainability Consciousness	Between Groups		7.211	4	1.803	5.681	.000
	Within Groups		120.909	381	.317		
	Total		128.120	385			
Purchasing Behavior	Between Groups		5.667	4	1.417	2.302	.058
	Within Groups		234.498	381	.615		
	Total		240.165	385			
		(Household Income)	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Sustainability Consciousness	Between Groups		2.368	4	.592	1.793	.129
	Within Groups		125.752	381	.330		
	Total		128.120	385			
SUS-TAS	Between Groups		1.463	4	.366	.796	.528
	Within Groups		175.073	381	.460		
	Total		176.536	385			
Purchasing Behavior	Between Groups		4.101	4	1.025	1.655	.160
	Within Groups		236.064	381	.620		
	Total		240.165	385			

When Table 6 is examined, it is understood that sustainability consciousness shows a significant difference depending on the age and education level of the participants, since only the significance level of the sustainability awareness variable in the variables of age and education level is less than 0.05 ($P = 0.000 < 0.05$). Therefore, it was seen that the answers given by at least one of the participants’ age and education levels group were different from the others. To determine from which age groups this difference arose, a Post-Hoc test was applied. The Post-Hoc tests to be applied for ANOVA test included the LSD, Scheffe, and Tukey tests.

Table 7
Scheffe Tests

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
18-23	24-29	-.21896	.09769	.287
	30-35	-.22158	.08077	.113
	36-41	-.27224	.13798	.422
	42 and more	-.36826*	.09564	.006

(I) Education Level	(J) Education Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Under graduate	Elementary school	.72217	.32744	.303
	High school	.01265	.11300	1.000
	Graduate	-.19535	.06861	.090
	Post graduate	-.33188*	.10006	.028

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics of Age and Education Level (Scheffe)

(Age)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
18-23	226	3.9537	.58865	.03916
24-29	39	4.1726	.59936	.09597
30-35	62	4.1753	.51374	.06525
36-41	18	4.2259	.44111	.10397
42 and more	41	4.3220	.49797	.07777
Total	386	4.0632	.57687	.02936

(Education Level)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Elementary school	3	3.2667	.99555	.57478
High school	28	3.9762	.49797	.09411
Under graduate	221	3.9888	.59657	.04013
Graduate	97	4.1842	.55292	.05614
Post graduate	37	4.3207	.35689	.05867
Total	386	4.0632	.57687	.02936

According to the Scheffe test results given in Table 7, there is a difference between the sustainability consciousness of the participants in the age group of 42 and above compared to the participants in other age groups. In addition, there is a difference between the sustainability consciousness of the participant group with a postgraduate education level compared to the groups with other education levels. When Table 8, which shows the average values of age and education groups, was examined, it was pointed out that as the age and education level increases, the sustainability consciousness of the participants is raised.

Table 9
Welch and Browne-Forsythe Tests

(Age)	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	7.620	4	88.733	.000
Brown-Forsythe	7.494	4	173.915	.000

(Education Level)	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	5.423	4	14.488	.007
Brown-Forsythe	2.884	4	5.635	.025

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Table 10
Descriptive Statistics of Age and Education Level
(Welch and Browne-Forsythe)

(Age)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
18-23	226	4.3976	.77958	.05186
24-29	39	4.5788	.66277	.10613
30-35	62	4.6014	.41560	.05278
36-41	18	4.7857	.28676	.06759
42 and more	41	4.7456	.31544	.04926
Total	386	4.5037	.67715	.03447

(Education Level)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Elementary school	3	4.3333	1.15470	.66667
High school	28	4.5102	.67279	.12715
Under graduate	221	4.4034	.77938	.05243
Graduate	97	4.6406	.43503	.04417
Post graduate	37	4.7529	.30796	.05063
Total	386	4.5037	.67715	.03447

According to the Welch and Browne-Forsythe test results given in Table 9, the significance level of the SUS-TAS variable in the variables of age and education level was less than 0.05 ($P=0.000 < 0.05$). Therefore, it underlined that the answers given by at least one of the participants' age and education level groups were different from the others. To determine from which age and education level groups this difference arose, the descriptive results were examined. When Table 10, which shows the average values of age and education groups, was examined, it was understood that as the age and education level increases, the sustainability awareness of the participants gets higher.

A regression analysis was performed to examine the effects of age, education level, and monthly household income of the individuals participating in the research on their sustainability consciousness, sustainable tourism awareness, and purchasing behavior. To determine the effect of categorical variables on non-categorical variables, dummy variables were created in the regression analysis to be applied. Artificial variables, called dummy variables, were used to transform only categorical data into numeric data, which were not actually present in the original data. Although there was no obligation to use the values "0" and "1" in coding dummy variables, it was preferred because it provides convenience when interpreting. In addition, the use of dummy variables in the model established in the regression analyzes does not pose any additional difficulty in the analysis (Keskin, 2018: 20).

Several processes were followed to present categorical variables as numeric variables and enter them into regression analysis. For example, to examine the effect of age groups on the research main variables, five dummy variables (n-1) were created for a total of six age groups and were included in the regression analysis. For the education level variable, "n-1" dummy variables were created as well. The results

of the multiple linear regression analysis applied separately for the variables of sustainable consciousness and SUS-TAS are given below. However, for the purchase behavior variable, since there was no correlation between demographic characteristics and purchase behavior, regression analysis did not apply. In addition, since household income of the participants did not correlate with any variables, household income was not included in the regression analysis.

Table 12
Regression Analyzes

Model	Unstandard. Coeffic.		Standard. Coeffic.	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Er.	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
Age	(Constant)	3.954	.037		105.495	.000		
	24-29	.219	.098	.115	2.241	.026	.949	1.054
	30-35	.222	.081	.141	2.743	.006	.935	1.070
	36-41	.272	.138	.100	1.973	.049	.972	1.029
	42 and more	.368	.096	.197	3.851	.000	.947	1.056
a. Dependent Variable: Sustainable Consciousness						R=.056 - R²=.046		

Model	Unstandard. Coeffic.		Standard. Coeffic.	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Er.	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
Age	(Constant)	4.398	.044		99.161	.000		
	24-29	.181	.116	.081	1.567	.018	.949	1.054
	30-35	.204	.096	.111	2.132	.034	.935	1.070
	36-41	.388	.163	.121	2.377	.018	.972	1.029
	42 and more	.348	.113	.159	3.075	.002	.947	1.056
a. Dependent Variable: SUS-TAS						R=.041 - R²=.031		

Model	Unstandard. Coeffic.		Standard. Coeffic.	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Er.	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
Education Level	(Constant)	3.979	.036		111.705	.000		
	Graduate	.205	.068	.155	3.039	.003	.964	1.037
	Post graduate	.342	.100	.175	3.434	.001	.964	1.037
a. Dependent Variable: Sustainable Consciousness						R=.044 - R²=.039		

Model	Unstandard. Coeffic.		Standard. Coeffic.	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Er.	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
Education Level	(Constant)	4.414	.042		105.057	.000		
	Graduate	.226	.080	.145	2.839	.005	.964	1.037
	Post graduate	.338	.117	.147	2.882	.004	.964	1.037
a. Dependent Variable: SUS-TAS						R=.035 - R²=.030		

In the regression analysis, it should be checked whether there is multicollinearity and the VIF (variance inflation factor) values in the analysis. If there is a correlation between independent variables, it is understood that multicollinearity exists. In other words, if the VIF value is above 10, it indicates multicollinearity (Tascioglu & Yener, 2019: 364). According to the ANOVA tests results for the regression models, it was understood that the significance levels were less than 5% (sig. = .000 <.05) and according to the regression analysis results in Table 12, VIF values were not above 10. Therefore, it was understood that statistically there was no problem in applying regression analysis.

The regression analyzes in which age groups were considered as the independent variable, the age of 18-23 was considered as the reference (constant) group, since the individuals participating in the study were mostly between the ages of 18-23 (226 people). According to the sustainable consciousness regression analysis result, the R^2 value that expresses as an explanatory power of the model was .046, so independent variables in the model explained 4.6% of the variance of the dependent variable. According to the sustainable tourism awareness (SUS-TAS) regression analysis result, the R^2 value that expresses as explanatory power of the model was .031, so independent variables in the model explained 3.1% of the variance of the dependent variable. In the regression analysis, the Beta values showed the contribution of independent variables to explain the dependent variable. Other age groups had a positive contribution to the sustainable consciousness and sustainable tourism awareness (SUS-TAS) according to reference age group (18-23). Therefore, it can be concluded that if the age of the participants increases, then sustainable consciousness and sustainable tourism awareness (SUS-TAS) increase as well.

In the regression analyzes in which education level groups were considered as the independent variable, the education level of under graduate was considered as the reference (constant) group, since the individuals participating in the study were mostly in under graduate education level (221 people). According to the sustainable consciousness regression analysis result, the R^2 value that expresses as explanatory power of the model was .039, so independent variables in the model explained 3.9% of the variance of the dependent variable. According to the sustainable tourism awareness (SUS-TAS) regression analysis result, the R^2 value that expresses as explanatory power of the model was .030, so independent variables in the model explained 3% of the variance of the dependent variable. In the regression analysis, Beta values showed the contribution of independent variables to explain the dependent variable. Graduate and post graduate education level groups had positive contribution to sustainable consciousness and sustainable tourism awareness (SUS-TAS) according to reference education level group (under graduate). Therefore, it was understood that if the education level increases, then sustainable consciousness and sustainable tourism awareness (SUS-TAS) increases as well.

Discussion and Conclusions

The main aim of this study was to examine the effects of consumers' demographic characteristics like gender, marital status, age, education level, and household income on their sustainability consciousness, sustainable tourism awareness, and purchasing behavior in Turkey. People 18 years old and older living in Turkey were targeted and data collection was provided via a questionnaire including the scale items and demographic questions in four parts. The first part determined the demographic characteristics of the participants, the second part examined the participants' knowledge about sustainability and the third part measured attitudes towards sustainable tourism by way of SUS-TAS scale. The last part was to understand sustainable touristic purchasing behavior of individuals. Totally 386 questionnaires were included in the study and the collected data were analyzed with the help of SPSS 26.0 and AMOS programs.

Statistical analyzes were used throughout the research and these were presented in the relevant tables. However, it was also important to interpret this information and compare the data with previous research. According to t-test results, sustainability consciousness of females is higher than the male participants. This finding is parallel to the study of Ozdemir et al. (2004) Yilmaz, as well as the research of Celik & Yagizer (2009) who asserted that women were more interested than men were in environmental issues. However, there was no relationship between gender, sustainable tourism awareness and purchasing behavior. If this information is to be explained according to the scale sections in Table 3, the following judgment can be made; women have a higher awareness of sustainability in their individual activities in terms of behavior, attitude and knowledge than men. However, there is no gender difference in the environmental awareness scale, which consists of more general concepts. Similarly, there is no gender-based difference in participants' willingness to pay more for sustainable practices, their intention to revisit these accommodation establishments, and their positive recommendations of eco-friendly accommodations to others.

When it comes to marital status, t-test results point out a relationship between marital status and sustainability consciousness. Married participants are found to have higher sustainability consciousness as well as sustainable tourism awareness compared to single participants. By combining this data with the previous findings on gender, it can be inferred that women who are more conscious of environmental issues teach their spouses by developing an awareness after marriage as they share life together and make their accommodation choices. Coertjens et al. (2010) also underlined that environmental awareness and attitudes towards the environment were shaped by the individuals' family and social relations. No relationship between marital status and purchasing behavior was observed according to test results.

When examining how the age variable affects related issues, it was determined that the age factor has a significant effect on sustainability consciousness and sustainable tourism awareness. Accordingly, individuals aged 18 and over were included in the research, and as the age of the participants increases, the consciousness of sustainability also increases. In addition, with the increase in age, sustainable tourism awareness is also increasing, except for the last category, the slight decrease in individuals aged 42 and over. The findings regarding this last age group are similar to Baloglu & Millor's, (2008) study, which pointed out that individuals under the age of 60 are more willing to take part in environmental practices. This last age group is probably composed of retired participants who may have been away from information on technological developments and environmental issues, as these findings are different from previous studies. For example, Ozdemir et al. (2004) underlined that the environmental sensitivity mean score of those aged 21 and younger were higher, Ozbebek Tunc, while Akdemir Omur & Duren, (2012) argued that young people have higher environmental awareness and again Yilmaz, Celik & Yagizer (2009) asserted that young people might be more sensitive to environmental issues. Therefore, this study does not classify the population who have developed environmental consciousness and high awareness of sustainable tourism as youth but argues that it gradually increases from 18 to 42 years of age. It is observed that the age variable has no effect on purchasing behavior, and it is understood that as people get older, they are not willing to pay more to stay in accommodation establishments with sustainable practices, or there is no increase in the probable recommendations of these facilities to their friends or relatives.

It can be assumed that as the education level of people increases, they will acquire a positive perspective by gaining knowledge on issues of concern to society and environmental concerns. The study findings also confirmed the general prediction and previous literature. Since, as the education level of the participants increases, both their sustainability consciousness increases, and the awareness of sustainable tourism is found to be higher. However, no difference is detected in the purchasing behavior of individuals based on their education level. At this point, it should be noted that there is no significant relationship between the income level of the participants and their purchasing behavior, nor between sustainability consciousness or SUSTAS. There is no difference between people with a monthly household income of 3000 TL or less and those with a monthly income of minimum 7500 TL, in terms of being willing to overspend to stay at an accommodation facility that operates in sustainable practices.

None of the demographic variables considered in the study, such as gender, marital status, age, education, or income level, have a statistically significant effect on purchasing behavior. The data leads researchers to the conclusion that although

individuals prefer sustainable accommodation facilities in theory according to various demographic variables and are aware of environmental issues, they do not intend to undertake the economic burden of this in practice. In addition, these people do not differ according to any demographic factor in recommending or revisiting environmentally friendly accommodation facilities. In this case, the importance of dividing the economic burden required by environmental practices between individuals in the society and tourism businesses should be effectively explained in tourism education, starting from high school to graduate level. All conscious consumers, especially high-income individuals, should prefer environmentally friendly accommodation facilities, should undertake the economic cost of staying in these establishments, and recommend these accommodations to other potential tourists.

The research contains some limitations. The first one is that the participants of the research were 18 years old or older. Another limitation is the consumers' perception, which can change over time, and cannot be fully measured, as the participants answered the online survey only once.

In the light of the information obtained, which demographic factor groups are weaker in terms of developing sustainability consciousness or sustainable tourism awareness, how this segment can be positively educated should be investigated in future research, and the question of how tourism curriculum can be improved on environmental issues should be sought. In addition, this research on sustainable tourism practices in accommodation facilities could similarly be replicated by travel agencies, tour operators, or transportation companies, and state-supported proactive strategies could be developed by presenting all the results to the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in a holistic manner.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: G.Ö.U., M.T.N.; Data Acquisition: G.Ö.U., M.T.N.; Data Analysis/ Interpretation: G.Ö.U., M.T.N.; Drafting Manuscript: G.Ö.U., M.T.N.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: G.Ö.U., M.T.N.; Final Approval and Accountability: G.Ö.U., M.T.N.

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Is the Modern or Classical Presentation of Turkish Cuisine More Acceptable? A Study on the Visual Senses of Europeans

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Abstract

This study focuses on analyzing the impact of creating modernist visual presentations of national foods on international acceptability. In this context, a classical Turkish menu including an entrée, savory appetizer, main course, side dish, and dessert is prepared and presented. Classical presentations have been created using tools found in Turkish cuisine. Modernist presentations are created in the style of Nouvelle cuisine. These courses are prepared and sent to the European consumers, a significant tourist group for Turkey's touristic demand. The data is obtained from a total of 82 participants from 19 different European countries using comparative test techniques and hedonic scales. When the data is analyzed, it is seen that modernist presentations are preferred in all courses. The scores of appreciations in modernist presentations are higher than that of the traditional versions. Based on these findings, it is found that preparing modernist presentations in line with the target market habits have a positive impact on the acceptance of traditional foods. The findings may be important in terms of making sense of the food consumption preferences of European visitors and increasing the extra benefit.

Keywords

Visual Sense, Food Acceptance, Food Presentation, Turkish Food, European Consumers

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To cite this article: Ozdemir S. S., & Uçuk, C. (2022). Is the modern or classical presentation of Turkish cuisine more acceptable? a study on the visual senses of Europeans. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 239-254. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1148129>



Introduction

Classical Turkish cuisine reflects a highly diversified cultural system because of its rich characteristics. It can be said that the creation and formation processes of this sophisticated system are mostly based on migrations throughout history, interactions with new geographical areas, and including and adopting the cultural elements in these new lands into Turkish cuisine (Güler and Olgaç, 2010; Kızıldemir et al., 2014). The general processes and interactions that formed and contributed to the richness of Turkish cuisine include different features of the Middle East nomadic period, rules and arrangements of Islamic understanding about food, rich Anatolian culture, Mediterranean food diversity, different communities living on conquered lands during the Ottoman period, and involvement of modern era culinary movements in Turkish cuisine with the impact of globalization.

Numerous unique elements have been part of the development of Turkish culinary culture. Some of these basic elements of classical Turkish cuisine are different types of hot stews cooked with vegetables or cereals, cold dishes cooked with olive oil, different types of cooked rice, bread, pastries, and bakery products, fermented milk products such as kımız, yoğurt, and kefir, and meat products such as pastırma, kebab, and köfte (Taneri, 1978; Akan, 2005: 54; Şahin, 2008: 39; Güler, 2010). Some of the cooking methods especially preferred in Turkish cuisine are poaching, frying in oil, and cooking in dry heat (Halıcı, 2009: 36). In addition to the important factors that affected the formation of Turkish cuisine throughout history, the original Turkish methods of storing food were shaped by the impact of the nomadic lifestyle of the Old Turks. Some of these unique methods unique to Turkish cuisine are fermenting meat by filling it in the bowel; drying vegetables, fruits, and bread; fermenting vegetables; and boiling fruits with sugar (Ritchie, 1981: 53; Alpargu, 2008: 18; Işın, 2017; Özata, 2019: 30-32).

There have been some changes in the traditional structure of Turkish cuisine because of modernization in the understanding of cooking along with the impacts of globalization in recent years. In this process, Turkish cuisine has continued to reflect the features of the classical era while undergoing some changes, especially with the impact of Western culture (Gürsoy, 2011). The specific changes in Turkish social life because of the modernization movement in the Tanzimat reform era affected the society's culinary understanding. Sitting on a chair, eating food on the table instead of sitting and dining on the floor, and using a fork and knife were some striking changes in Turkish society during that period (Samancı and Croxford, 2006: 14). In addition to these dramatic changes, standardization of food products resulting from the increase in the use of industrial utilities, changes in the shape and material of the products used for cooking and presenting the food, adapting international recipes in

Turkish cuisine, and impacts of the French culinary movements have accelerated the modernization of Turkish cuisine (Merriman, 1996; Bilgin, 2011; Işın, 2017; Özata, 2019). This era of change affected Turkish culinary understanding and accelerated the adaption of Turkish food to the West; food products, cooking methods, equipment, and presentation features moved closer to Western standards throughout this process (Yerasimos, 2005). On the other hand, as it didn't require specific education, the restaurant business increased with the migration of Turks to Europe (Kulalı, 2020: 372). Many immigrants opened restaurants in the foreign countries they migrated to and this increased the recognition of Turkish cuisine in European lands. The data obtained from the literature indicate that the increase in the recognition of a country by experiencing its food has a positive impact on the intention of visiting that country (Min and Lee, 2014; Özdemir, 2019). On the other hand, when a tourist visits a country, he/she becomes more willing to visit and experience the food of the restaurants of that country when they go back to their homeland (Verbeke and Lopez, 2005). These findings indicate that restaurants that represent the local food and tourism activities have positive impacts on the recognition and accordingly acceptance of local cuisines (Warde and Martens, 2000; Bertella, 2011; Şahin and Ünver, 2015).

Research studies about the recognition and acceptability of Turkish cuisine have been analyzed under the heading *tourism activities* in the literature (Okumuş et al., 2007; Okumuş and Çetin, 2015; Özdemir, 2019). According to the studies in the literature, European visitors are more prone to consume new and unusual food during their visits (Barcellos et al., 2009; Hsu, 2014). This finding indicates that Europeans have a low level of food neophobia, which is an eating behavior in which a person refuses to taste and eat food they are not familiar with (Pliner and Salvy, 2006). On the other hand, based on the same finding, that the level of willingness to experience new and unusual food, which is called food neophilia, is high (Chang et al., 2011). It can be said that Europeans, who have low food neophobia levels and high food neophilia levels, are willing to experience different tastes of Turkish cuisine during gastronomic and other tourism activities in the country. It can thus be said that selecting Europe as the target market in tourism will have positive impacts on the development of Turkey in terms of tourism; it will facilitate promotion activities about tourism in Turkey and increase the recognition and acceptability of the country in the market of tourism. These factors have been taken into consideration in selecting Europeans as the sample group for this study.

On the other hand, there have been changes in the consumption habits of Europeans throughout the dynamic process shaped by globalization. France-based culinary movements in particular have caused changes in Europeans' food and beverage preferences (Pinkard, 2009). "Nouvelle cuisine" which started in the 1970s, changed the understanding of cooking techniques, materials, nutritive value selection, design,

and presentation, and prioritized simplicity (Gault, 1995). The efficiency of new culinary trends in social life has had an effect on out-of-home consumption been especially efficient in out-of-home consumption and high-level restaurants organized their operations based on this understanding (Lane, 2011). This situation has revealed the importance of visual sense, especially in the dimension of food presentation, and caused an increase in the significance of visual sense for Europeans in terms of food acceptance (Zampini et al., 2012; Spence et al., 2016).

Firstly, it is necessary to present the features of the sensual process to analyze the impact of visual sense on food acceptance. Humans' perception of the environment is based on senses (Pekar, 2017). The receptor cells in sense organs transform the energy in the environment and transduction starts. As a result of this transduction, the energy perceived by the related cells is transmitted to the visual cortex in the brain and the process of seeing is completed (Canan and Dokuyucu, 2018). The sense of sight is one of the most necessary senses in daily life (Cüceloğlu, 2020). Most of the information about the world and life is perceived through vision (Canan and Dokuyucu, 2018: 170).

The eye, the organ of sight, can be defined as the starting point of a highly complicated process of vision. The functions of the eye are to catch photons, direct them to the photoreceptors and thus start the process of vision (Canan and Dokuyucu, 2018). Retina photoreceptors in the eye are made of bipolar cells and ganglions. They are made of three different neurons, in other words, nerve layers. These three layers send the environmental energy to the visual cortex with the effect of light (Sanalan et al., 2007). Although the process of sight starts with the eye, the most significant organ in this process is the brain (Aktümsek, 2001). The diagram of vision explaining the process is presented in Figure 1.

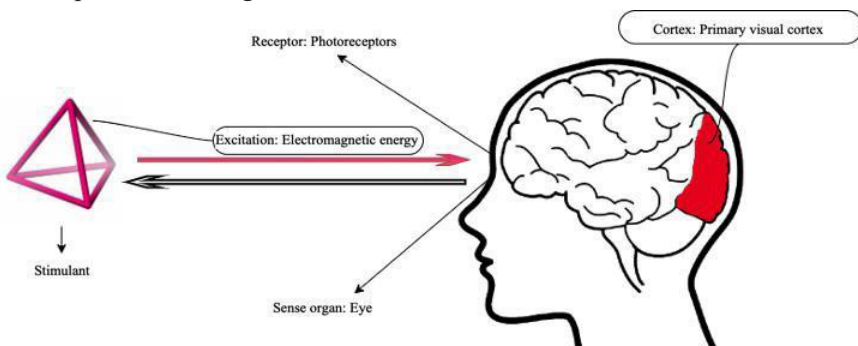


Figure 1. The process of vision. Created by the authors

Although a lot of information about the brain has been discovered, there are still hundreds of mysteries about this unique organ. When the parts of the brain related to the senses are analyzed, it is seen that the biggest part that is responsible for a sense

belongs to vision (Mather, 2016: 5). It is known that the sense of vision is extremely important for a human to picture things about the outer world in the mind, perceive his/her environment, and create experiences.

Research on consumer perceptions about food indicates that vision is a crucial element of the food experience process. Studies in the literature show that the sense of vision is especially important in food acceptance (Imram, 1999; Cardello, 1996: 4; Imram, 1999; Wadhera and Capaldi-Phillips, 2014; Jang and Kim, 2015; Melovic et al., 2020; Hoppu et al., 2020; Ueda et al., 2020). The presentation of food and how it is visually perceived are highly important factors in understanding the role of the sense of vision in the food perception process (Cornell et al., 1989). Preferring a food, creating a sense of willingness about a food (Ueda et al., 2020), deciding on the acceptability or touchableness of a food (Hoppu et al., 2020), having a mental process about the quality of food (White et al., 2020), and decreasing neophobia about food (Wadhera and Capaldi-Phillips, 2014) are all related to the process of seeing, and thus perceiving food.

Food acceptance is based on a multi-dimensional process (Costell et al., 2010) and it is possible to get a variety of clues through the sense of vision about many elements of this complicated process. Freshness, (Arce-Lopera et al., 2015; Motoki et al., 2020), flavor (Ueda et al., 2020), color (Cardello, 1996), odor (Szcześniak, 2002), density, size, and shape can all be perceived through the sense of vision. The significance of the sense of vision in food acceptance causes food creators to use and organize elements that appeal to this sense (Ueda et al., 2020). Based on the studies in the literature, manipulating senses and organizing food elements in a way that successfully appeals to these senses have a great impact on food consumption. It is also known that inputs through multiple sensory perceptions are used to create a manipulative process in food consumption (Chen and Spence, 2017). Although visual arrangement studies in the food industry are based on commercial purposes (Hisano, 2019) these studies also reveal some social impacts. It is observed that visual arrangements that may affect children's consumption habits, decrease their food neophobia, and contribute to their physical and mental development (Rioux, 2019).

Using the organization of food presentation to increase the acceptability of foods to be consumed for the first time positively affects food acceptance. It is necessary to have successful presentation processes to introduce new, unusual foods that belong to different cultures, and decrease neophobic tendencies towards these kinds of foods. Based on these data, the role of the sense of vision in increasing the acceptability of Turkish food to Europeans is analyzed in this study. The study process is based on the data about the evaluations of traditional and modern representations of the food in the specifically created menu.

Although there are studies in the literature investigating the food acceptance levels of different cultures through the concepts of neophobia and neophilia, this study plays an important role in investigating the effect of regulations on the appearance of food as a recent attraction, especially in the attention of Europeans, who have been Turkey’s touristic demand target all along.

Methodology

This research is designed as a consumer test that supports the improvement of chefs and restaurants representing Turkish cuisine. A menu including the traditional foods of Turkish cuisine was used in the research (Yolaçan, 2020: 318-323) and classical and modernist presentations of these specific foods were prepared. Foods that are unique to Turkish cuisine were specifically chosen. The menu includes *sütlü badem çorbası* (almond milk soup) as an entrée, *avcı böreği* (Turkish spring roll) as a savory appetizer, *beğendili tas kebabı* (meat stew kebab with eggplant puree) as the main course, *peynir dolgulu kabak and biber sarma* (zucchini filled with cheese and stuffed pepper) as a side dish, and *zerde* (saffron and rice dessert) as dessert.

Classical and modernist presentations of the foods in the menu were prepared by chefs that are experts in Turkish cuisine. Each chef prepared a classical and a modernist presentation of the food he had chosen from the menu. Five different chefs were chosen to prepare five different classical and modernist presentations to prevent possible sampling mistakes resulting from personal interpretations. In addition, the opinions of another expert group were received to ensure that the classical and modernist presentations in the study were perceived correctly. The phase of collecting data from the sampling started after receiving positive feedback from Turkish cuisine researchers and academicians. Features of these experts, who contributed to the study, are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Features of the Experts Who Contributed to the Study with their Views

Code	Profession	Age	Experience in the Sector
E1	Academician / Turkish Cuisine Researcher	35	21 years
E2	Turkish Cuisine Practitioner / Chef	40	25 years
E3	Academician / Chef	38	23 years
E4	Academician / Turkish Cuisine Researcher	42	24 years
E5	Academician / Turkish Cuisine Researcher	38	16 years

Plates that are specific to Turkish culture were used in the classical presentations of the food on the menu. The plates used for classical presentations were chosen from those that represent the features of kitchenware mentioned in the “Turkish Cuisine” book prepared by the Republic of Turkey, Ministry of Culture and Tourism (Bilgin and Samancı, 2008). The modernist presentations were prepared according to the *nouvelle cuisine* manifesto (Freedman, 2008).

Comparative test techniques and hedonic scales were used as data collection methods in the research. Plates that represent classical and modernist approaches were photographed at a 45-degree angle on a white background. The images were sent to 110 panelists online through the “Qualtrics” program. Qualtrics is a software platform with over 100 question types and templates designed specifically for research projects at many global corporations and universities. The artificial intelligence-powered Qualtrics Experience Management software can perform statistical analyses in a unified fashion across multiple interfaces. Preliminary interviews were held with panelists, and those who had visited fine dining restaurants and didn’t have any sensory analysis education were specifically chosen for the study. Photographs that include both traditional and modernist versions of the food were presented to the panelists in the first phase, and they were required to select one of the presentations. After this step, they were required to score the level of their appreciation for each plate on a 9-point Likert-type hedonic scale (1 - I didn’t like it at all – 9 - I definitely liked it). 82 panelists out of 110 answered all the questions in the research. Data obtained from the panelists that are the samplings of the research were analyzed and interpreted.

Results

When the demographical data of the participants in Table 2 are analyzed, there is a balance in terms of age, income, and educational features. Furthermore, data were collected from participants working in 19 different European countries. This diversity indicates that study data includes the views of participants from almost all over Europe.

Table 2
Demographic Features of the Participants

	n	%
Gender		
Female	46	56
Male	36	44
Age		
18-24	19	23,1
25-34	33	40,3
35-44	18	21,9
45 and older	12	14,7
Education		
Below high school	3	3,6
High school	6	7,4
College	13	15,9
Bachelor’s degree	24	29,2
Master’s degree	32	39
Doctorate	4	4,9

Annual Income		
Less than 10,000 €	43	52,4
Between 10,000 € and 20,000 €	19	23,2
More than 20,000 €	20	24,4
Region/Country		
Northern Europe (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, UK)	18	21,9
Western Europe (France, Spain)	9	11
Central Europe (Austria, Belgium, Germany, Switzerland, Slovenia)	24	29,3
Eastern Europe (Czech Republic, Slovakia, Romania, Poland, Albania)	11	13,4
Southern Europe (Italy, Greece, Cyprus)	20	24,4
Total	82	100

Based on the analysis aimed at revealing the differences among demographic groups, it can be said that all the participant groups preferred modernist presentations rather than classical ones.

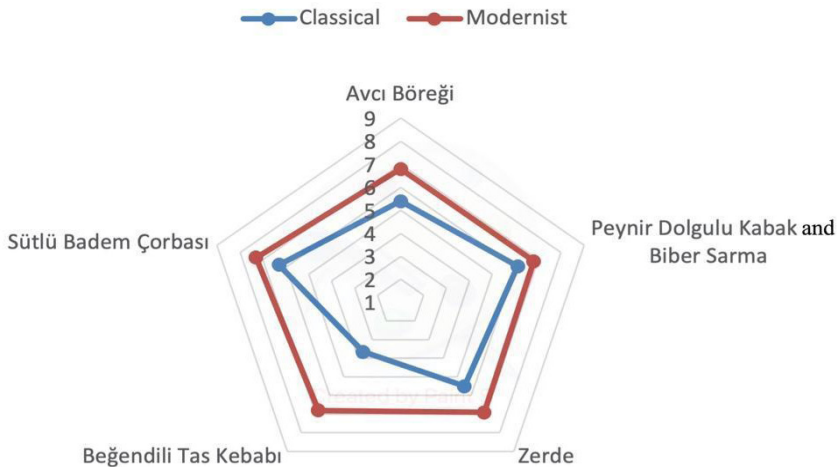


Figure 2. Comparison of general views about classical and modernist presentations

When Figure 2 is analyzed, the courses in the menu unique to Turkish cuisine are compared in terms of classical and modernist presentations, and all the participants who made this comparison liked the modernist presentations more.

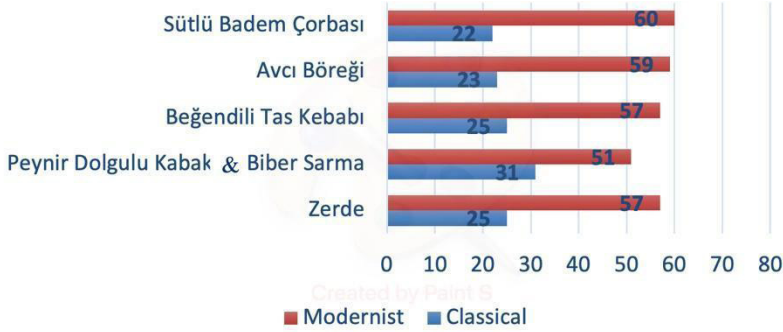


Figure 3. Distribution of participant scores on classical and modernist presentations

The panelists firstly evaluated the entrée of the menu, which is *sütlü badem çorbası*. 60 panelists (~73,17) preferred the modernist version, while 22 panelists (~26,83) preferred the classical version of the presentations. Similarly, 59 panelists (~71,95) preferred the modernist presentation of the savory appetizer, *avcı böreği*, while 23 panelists (~28,05) preferred the classical presentation. Findings of the panelist views on the main course, *beğendili tas kebabı*, indicate that 57 panelists (~69,5) preferred the modernist presentation while 25 (~30,5) panelists preferred the classical presentation. According to the data about the presentations of *peynir dolgulu kabak and biber sarma*, 51 panelists (~62,1) preferred the modernist presentation while 31 panelists (~37,9) preferred the classical version. Finally, *zerde* was evaluated by the participants; 57 individuals (69,5) said that they liked the modernist presentation, while 25 individuals (~30,5) said that they preferred the classical presentation of the desert.

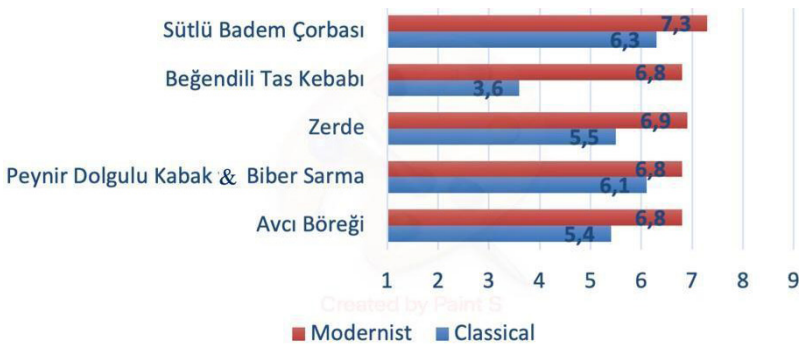


Figure 4. Sensory analysis results¹

¹ Sensory features according to the hedonic scale: point 1 averages *I didn't like it at all*, while point 9 averages *I definitely liked it* (Weighted means of the scores are taken into consideration, Altuğ Onoğur and Elmacı, 2019).

It is observed that modernist presentations of all the dishes on the menu are preferred by the participants when compared to the classical presentations. Figure 4 shows main course and dessert dishes with a higher preference for modernist presentation over classical presentations. The preference level is lower for the entrée, the savory appetizer, and the side dish.

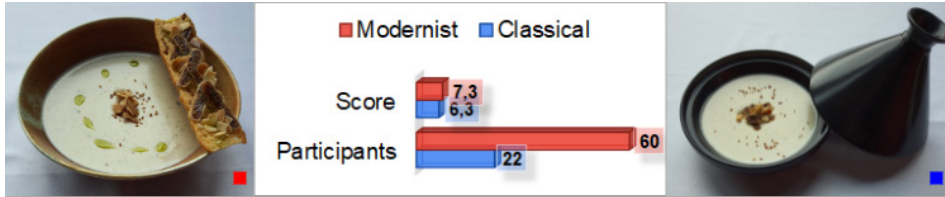


Figure 5. Panelists' sensory analysis evaluation of *sütlü badem çorbası*

As can be seen in Figure 5, when the parameters of the classical and modern presentations of *sütlü badem çorbası* are analyzed, the modernist presentation has the higher average score, which is 7,3. It is seen that 60 of 82 panelists preferred the modernist presentation while 22 panelists preferred the classical presentation.

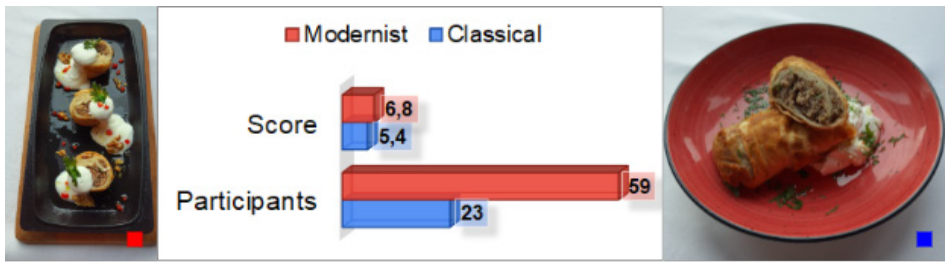


Figure 6. Panelists' sensory analysis evaluation about *avcı böreği*

According to the parameters of the classical and modern presentations of *avcı böreği*, the modernist presentation received a higher score from the panelists, which is 6,8, while the classical presentation average score is 5,4. It is determined that 59 of 82 panelists preferred the modernist presentation.

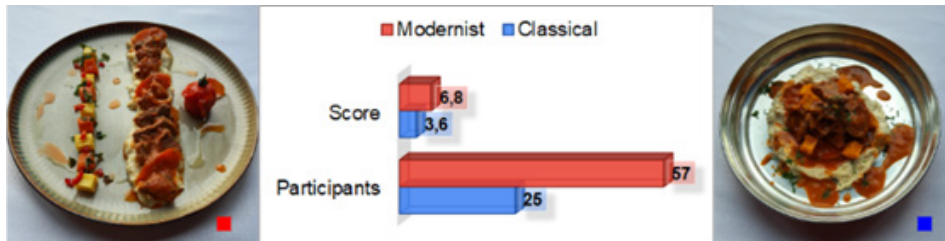


Figure 7. Panelists' sensory analysis evaluation of *beğendili tas kebabı*

According to the parameters of panelist evaluations about the main course, *beğendili tas kebabı*, the modernist presentation average score is 6,8 while the

classical presentation average score is 3,6. 57 of 82 panelists stated that they liked the modernist presentation more while 25 individuals preferred the classical presentation.

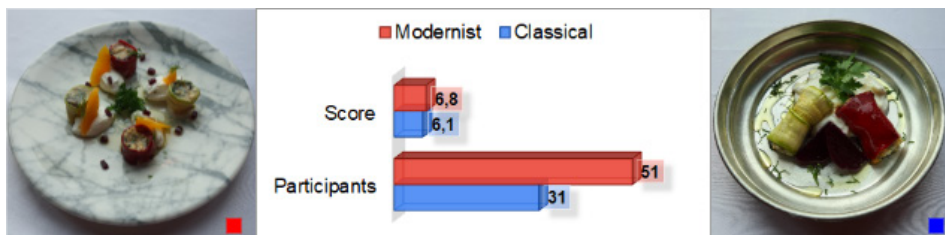


Figure 8. Panelists' sensory analysis evaluation about *peynir dolgulu kabak* and *biber sarma*

According to the parameters of modernist and classical presentations of *peynir dolgulu kabak* and *biber sarma*, the modernist style of the dish is preferred by the participants. The average score of the modernist version is 6,8, while the average score of the classical presentation is 6,1. In the comparison test, 51 panelists stated that they prefer the modernist presentation while 31 panelists said that they prefer the classical presentation.

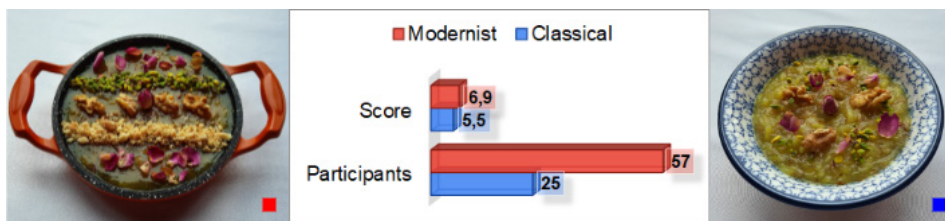


Figure 9. Panelists' sensory analysis evaluation about *zerde*

The dessert on the menu, called *zerde*, was evaluated by the panelists. The parameters indicate that the modernist presentation is preferred more by the participants. The average score of the modernist version is 6,9, while the average score of the classical version is 5,5. 57 panelists stated that they prefer the modernist presentation of the dessert, while 25 panelists said that they prefer the classical presentation.

Discussion and Conclusion

The data collected from the research process were carefully analyzed. According to the obtained results, the distribution of participants in terms of gender, age, education, and income level are equal. Furthermore, participants from almost every corner of Europe, in other words from 19 different countries, have participated in the process. This richness in terms of geography and socio-economic features indicates that there is a high probability that the research results represent European consumers in general terms.

The obtained results indicate that the modernist presentations of the courses carefully chosen to present Turkish cuisine are preferred by the participants more than the classical presentations. All the demographic subgroups of the participants made similar decisions, which proves the validity of the research.

It is seen that the modernist or classical preference levels of participants varied in different courses in the menu. In particular, scores on the modernist and classical preferences of the foods placed in the menu as entrée and side dish are very close. The *sütlü badem çorbası*, which is the entrée, has a low viscosity as a soup and it is not possible to make big changes in the presentation; this situation explains the similarity between the modernist and classical preference ratios of the participants. *Peynir dolgulu kabak and biber sarma*, placed on the menu as the side dish, are already prepared in a minimalist manner in the traditional presentation; this explains the small difference between the modernist and classical preferences. This rule also applies in the case of the *avcı böreği* which is the savory appetizer. The biggest difference between the modernist and classical scores is in the *beğendili tas kebabı*. The participants liked the modernist version of *beğendili tas kebabı*, which is a kind of traditional Turkish food cooked in a stew; this is a significant finding. The findings of the research study, in general, are important as they indicate that the modernist presentations of traditional Turkish foods make a positive contribution to the acceptance of local foods by Europeans.

The same meal was presented in different arrangements in Zellner et al.'s (2014) study. They discovered that food presented in a more appealing manner was preferred over food presented in a less appealing manner. It is possible that what researchers find appealing may not be appealing to participants. This study obtained classical presentation equipment from historical sources. In this context, it is believed that reliable results have been obtained in terms of the effects of presentation style on taste when evaluating classical and modern presentation.

Roque et al. (2018) demonstrated that they subjected the dishes prepared by two different chefs to visual sensory evaluation using food photographs in a restaurant. The panelists were shown the chefs' creative and modernist presentations of the dishes they prepared during the research. The researchers concluded that creative dishes with more colors were liked more. The research findings of Roque et al. (2018) can be described as a comparison of two modernist presentations. Our study, on the other hand, is unique in that it seeks to determine whether consumers prefer classical or modernist presentations.

The role of the visual sense in increasing the acceptability of Turkish cuisine in the international arena and advertisement of traditional Turkish food is presented in this study. It is possible to say that modernist presentations of traditional Turkish

foods have the potential to increase the gastronomy tourism of European travelers in Turkey, which has the biggest share in Turkish tourism. This factor might ease creating an alternative to regular tourism activities in Turkey. In addition to this, local and regional cuisines might meet the demand for food and beverage, which is a necessity during travel. Restaurants serving Turkish food are often visited by European tourists that seek local, original experiences; therefore, these restaurants should increase their modernist presentations. Such improvements might provide economic sustainability. European tourists visit more restaurants, have more regional experiences, and spend more money during their visits.

On the other hand, modernist presentations in ethnic restaurants, which are the representatives of Turkish culture abroad, will contribute to the recognition of Turkish culture and touristic richness in terms of promotion, touristic visits, and economic development. Modernist presentations in ethnic restaurants have the potential to create an image of changing and developing Turkish cuisine.

This study focuses on the impacts of changing and/or improving the presentations of traditional foods in national cuisines according to the habits and inclinations of target consumer groups. This study is thus significant as it presents the contribution of this process to the acceptance of those foods. It is suggested that similar studies be conducted in the future including bigger samplings in restaurants presenting Turkish cuisine in Turkey or Europe. In addition, including sensory analysis tests focusing on the element of taste might support the findings obtained in the context of this study. It is thought that the representatives of the food and beverage industry should not insist on classical presentations. It is recommended that traditional Turkish dishes be served with modernist presentations, particularly in establishments catering to European tourists. The research can be repeated in future studies by preparing presentations (for example, postmodernist presentations) in light of different approaches.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: S.S.Ö., C.U.; Data Acquisition: S.S.Ö., C.U.; Data Analysis/ Interpretation: S.S.Ö., C.U.; Drafting Manuscript: S.S.Ö., C.U.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: S.S.Ö., C.U.; Final Approval and Accountability: S.S.Ö., C.U.

Acknowledgement: We would like to thank to Big Chefs Restaurants Kitchen Coordinator Murat Aslan and Big Chefs employees for their support in the preparation and photography process of modern and classical plate presentations in this study.

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Relationships between Perceptions of Residents Toward Tourism Development, Benefits Derived from Tourism and Support to Tourism

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Abstract

The study aimed to find out the relationships between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits derived from tourism, and their support for tourism in Bepazari, Turkey. The data was collected through a questionnaire technique from the residents in Bepazari, one of the cultural tourism destinations in Turkey. The data was examined through a descriptive, exploratory, and confirmatory factor analyses, and structural equation modeling. The research found that there is a relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development and the benefits derived from tourism. The research further showed a relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development and their support for tourism. More specifically, this research contributes to the sustainable development literature by evaluating the perceptions of tourism development from the perspective of residents, the benefits derived from tourism, and the support provided to tourism. Moreover, the research provides information for destination management organizations to manage sustainable development processes effectively and efficiently by revealing the factors that shape the attitudes and behaviors of residents towards tourism.

Keywords

Sustainable Development, Sustainable Tourism, Residents, Bepazari, Turkey

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To cite this article: Kodas, D., Arıca, R., Kafa, N., & Duman, F. (2022). Relationships between perceptions of residents toward tourism development, benefits derived from tourism and support to tourism. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 255-280. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1075196>



Introduction

The rapid and uncontrolled development of tourism from the increasing supply and demand leading to negative effects on environmental, socio-cultural, and economic resources have experts questioning the scale of tourism-related negative effects at an international level (Budeanu, 2007). This situation requires a platform for discussions on how to determine the effects of tourism and how to balance the positive and negative effects of tourism development by offering solutions to stakeholders to eliminate negative effects in tourism destinations in the medium and long term (Calik, 2019). A thorough understanding of sustainability leads to the balanced management of economic, socio-cultural, and natural resources by focusing on reducing the negative effects of tourism. According to this understanding, economic, socio-cultural, and natural resources should be managed holistically for long-term development in tourism (Arica, 2020). With a holistic view, the activities in tourism should be conducted with the participation of many stakeholders leading to sustainable development (SD) with collaborative initiatives in a multidimensional structure of tourism. To support this, Hamid and Isa (2020) emphasized that the involvement of stakeholders to the continuity of SD in tourism is crucial. Moreover, Budeanu (2007) supported this level of involvement with SD is only possible with the participation and support of all stakeholders in tourism. More specifically, Timur and Getz (2008), and Arica (2020) described the main stakeholders in ensuring sustainability in tourism are national and local governments, tourism-related businesses and employees, tourists, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and residents at a destination.

While the contribution of each stakeholder to the SD process is undeniably salient, the participation and support of residents in the SD process has special importance due to its impact on both supply and demand of tourism (Arica and Corbaci, 2017). Since residents engage in the tourism activities supporting SD, they play a crucial role in the effectiveness and efficiency of the SD process along with other stakeholders in tourism (Cengiz and Kirkbir, 2007). Therefore, ensuring the SD process in tourism largely depends upon the support and participation of residents at a destination. With the support and participation of residents, the form and scale of SD are shaped by the perceptions of residents at a destination. Thus, the perceptions of residents prompted research focusing upon the benefits from tourism development and residents support for tourism development (Cengiz and Kirkbir, 2007; Woosnam *et al.*, 2009; Pham and Kayat, 2011; Arica and Corbaci, 2017; Cakir and Kodas, 2020; Sarac and Colak, 2022).

As previously mentioned the benefits of tourism development and the support of residents for tourism development is important, so the perceptions of residents at a destination needs to be further examined with a different research framework. Therefore, this research examines the relationship between the perceptions of residents

toward tourism development and the benefits residents receive from tourism and their support for tourism development. This research further aims to convey the findings to the people in charge of tourism by revealing the necessary conditions for supporting the development process of tourism on local and national levels with this research framework. Furthermore, this research contributes to the literature by determining the components effective in the support of residents to tourism development.

Literature Review

Sustainability

Sustainability is defined as an understanding to prevent any unnecessary burden on environmental, socio-cultural, or economic carrying capacity at a destination (Weaver, 2006: 10). With this understanding, sustainability ensures the continuity of a certain ecosystem without any disruption and without being consumed by the excessive use of natural resources (Sezgin and Kahraman, 2008; Makian and Hanifezadeh, 2021). Thus, sustainability advocates the necessity of protecting natural, socio-cultural, and economic environment for the improvement of societal and individual welfare and the long-term continuity of society and tourism (Choi and Murray, 2010: 579). To reflect upon the long-term continuity of society and tourism, Patterson (2016: 12) said that sustainability was to take care of the needs of future generations while meeting the needs of the present. In line with the understanding mentioned above, Arıca (2020: 9) stated that a more balanced view is needed bringing into account the use of environmental, economic and socio-cultural resources together in a balanced way for future generations. This balanced view of sustainability was first discussed at the United Nations Human Environment Conference held in Stockholm in 1972 (Boydak, 2000). Following this conference, sustainability and SD were discussed and defined in the Brundtland Report published at the World Conference on Environment and Development Commission meeting held in 1987 (Swarbrooke, 1995). In 1992, the UN Environment and Development Conference, also known as the Rio Conference, went down in history as the most important event in which the concept of SD was discussed internationally. At this summit, the needs of future generations were emphasized while meeting today's needs, and five documents including Agenda 21, which is an important text for the creation of a SD plan for 21st century were created. Following this summit, the 1995 EU Green Paper, 1997 Kyoto Protocol, 2002 Johannesburg Summit, 2012 Rio+20 Final Declaration have been the main initiatives on sustainability at an international level (Swarbrooke, 1995; Budeanu, 2007; Sarac and Colak, 2022).

By looking at all the initiatives mentioned above, the focus of sustainability and international initiatives has been economic, socio-cultural, and natural environmental

resources. Du Plessis (1998) emphasized that the principal framework of sustainability should be reflected in the resources mentioned above and should be reciprocated in industrial practices across industries. Especially, the Rio+20 Summit outlined these principles and application of sustainability and mentioned the importance of SD specific to each industry across the World. With the emphasis of SD across industries in the World, tourism is seen as one of the leading industries that should adopt the understanding of sustainability, and the concept of sustainable tourism was put forward (Patterson, 2016; United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Sustainable Development, 2020).

Sustainability in Tourism

In the concept of sustainable tourism, tourism takes into full account the current and future environmental, social, and economic impacts with the aim of meet meeting the needs of stakeholders of tourism e.g. visitors, local communities etc. (Patterson, 2016: 12). To support the concept of sustainable tourism, Weaver (2006: 10) explain explained sustainable tourism as tourism that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs. Moreover, Cakar (2013: 83) paid attention to sustainable tourism in a more systematic way that advocated planning, implementation, and control processes to reduce the damage caused by all types of tourism activities. In the most up-to-date approach, Arica (2020: 24) explained sustainable tourism as a way of securing the future by protecting the natural environment while ensuring its sustainability in socio-cultural and economic systems.

To ensure sustainability in tourism, it is essential to protect and maintain the natural, economic, historical, and cultural resources in a host country/region/destination (Schwartz *et al.*, 2008; Zamani-Farahani, 2016). To achieve this, the understanding of sustainability in tourism should not only reflect the tourism industry-wide participation but it should also include a global-level participation to reduce the negative effects of tourism by increasing the positive effects. The tourism industry-wide participation consists of many stakeholders to influence sustainable initiatives in tourism (Jamal and Robinson, 2009; Polat Sesliokuyucu, 2022). Moreover, Timur and Getz (2007) argued this sustainability in tourism as being a multi-stakeholder structure for which they stressed the requisite of holistic participation in tourism to receive sufficient benefits from SD activities. This holistic participation in tourism requires active involvement and support of stakeholders to reflect upon the understanding of sustainability in tourism. A growing number of literature studies emphasized the importance of holistic participation and support of stakeholders regarding the efficiency and effectiveness of sustainable tourism (Jamal and Robinson, 2009; Arica, 2020). Therefore, the efficiency and effectiveness of sustainability in tourism

primarily requires the participation and support of all stakeholders including national and local governments, tourism enterprises (accommodation, travel, food and beverage, entertainment, *etc.*), employees, visitors, and residents (Timur and Getz, 2008; Weiler *et al.*, 2013; Ozdemir *et al.*, 2014). With this support and participation for sustainable tourism, stakeholders develop environmental attitudes, behaviors, and sensitivities in tourism resulting in environmentally sensitive investments and businesses (Schwartz *et al.*, 2008: 311).

Research Model and Hypotheses

The overall aim of this research is to find out the relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, and the benefits derived from tourism and support to tourism. By examining the related literature, the hypotheses for the research were developed to better explain sustainable tourism in a new theoretical framework. In this research framework, the causal (hypothetical) approach was adopted in which the assumptions about the relations between the research variables were developed. By doing this, the existing literature review and the researchers' own experiences were used to determine the relations between the variables related to the research phenomenon. As a requirement of the research approach, the research problem was first defined. Then, the variables related to the research problem were examined within the framework adopted from the existing literature. Finally, the relationship assumptions were formed for the research. The main question of the research was determined by asking 'Is there a relationship between the perceptions of residents regarding tourism development, the benefits obtained from tourism and their support for tourism activities?'. From this point of view, the research aimed to find out the relation between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits from tourism and their support for tourism from the perspective of stakeholders in sustainable tourism development. With a stakeholders' view in sustainable tourism, residents in protecting and sustaining tourist attractions and other tourist resources are one of the fundamental stakeholders in tourism. Despite the emphasis on how important residents are in sustainable tourism, the tendency toward sustainable tourism by residents varies. Thus, the higher the tendency, the more likely residents are to protect their touristic attractions and tourism resources as their positive perceptions support tourism development at their destination (Jamal and Robinson, 2009; Pearce, 2018; Cetin *et al.*, 2021). This suggests that any positive changes in the economic, socio-cultural, and natural environments constituting the main tourist resources and attractions of tourism in general cause the perceptions of residents toward tourism development to be positive. On the other hand, any negative perceptions of residents lead the perceptions of residents negative as well. The linear relationship between positive/negative resident perceptions toward tourism development are well documented. The supported findings in the literature

on the positive perceptions of residents toward tourism development are published by Andereck and Vogt (2000); Garcia *et al.* (2015); Styliadis and Terzidou (2014); Alrwajfah *et al.* (2019). On the other hand, findings showing negative perceptions to tourism development by residents are revealed by Yoon *et al.* (2001), Kostekli *et al.* (2012) and Martín *et al.* (2018).

In the literature on the relationship between positive/negative perceptions of residents toward tourism development, it is clear that residents benefit from tourism development at a destination. To support this, Han *et al.* (2011) and Alrwajfah *et al.* (2019) argued that there is a relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development and the benefits derived from tourism. More specifically, the research in the literature showed the relationship between the positive perceptions of residents toward the economic outputs of tourism such as increasing economic development and income level, preventing poverty, providing new employment and job opportunities (Vargas-Sánchez *et al.*, 2008; Woosnam *et al.*, 2009; Han *et al.*, 2011; Alrwajfah *et al.*, 2019). On the other hand, some of the other research in the literature displayed a negative relationship between the perceptions of residents and the negative economic effects of tourism development such as income inequality, increase in land prices, price increase in products and services, and inflationary pressure (Alrwajfah *et al.*, 2019). As for the perceptions of residents about the effects of tourism development on the socio-cultural environment, the positive perceptions depend on the issues of (i) the preservation of cultural and historical heritage by tourism; (ii) development of new ideas in local community; (iii) the improvement of the quality standards of local life; (iv) improving the qualities in local career development; (v) the increase in activity and entertainment opportunities in a destination (Vargas-Sánchez *et al.*, 2008; Pham and Kayat, 2011; Enemu and Oduntan, 2012). On the other hand, some research indicated that residents see tourism as an activity causing negative socio-cultural effects as social problems such as population growth, conflicts related to zoning use, crowding in public spaces, drug and alcohol addictions that weaken the benefits from tourism (Martín *et al.*, 2018; Arica, 2020).

Another area affected by tourism development is the natural environment of a destination. Thus, one would expect a positive relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, natural environment, and the benefits from tourism because new developments in tourism at a destination bring more attention to the local natural environment to be protected (Mansuroglu, 2006). Thus, the negative effects of tourism development such as pressure on natural resources, pollution-producing effect, physical deterioration and negative effects on local biodiversity etc. impact on the perceptions of residents (Kostekli *et al.*, 2012; Arica, 2020). Especially, the research of Yoon *et al.* (2001) found that the majority of residents perceived

tourism as degrading the natural environment, wasting natural resources, causing a decrease in aesthetic quality and negative environmental effects from new tourism infrastructure to develop tourism at a destination. From the discussions mentioned above, the perceptions of residents toward tourism development will emerge either positive or negative depending on the effects of tourism on the economic, socio-cultural, and natural environments at a destination.

Based upon the literature mentioned above, the hypotheses were developed as follows:

H₁: There is a significant relationship between the positive perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the economic environment and the benefits they derive from tourism.

H₂: There is a significant relationship between the negative perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the economic environment and the benefits they derive from tourism.

H₃: There is a significant relationship between the positive perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the socio-cultural environment and the benefits they derive from tourism.

H₄: There is a significant relationship between the negative perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the socio-cultural environment and the benefits they derive from tourism.

H₅: There is a significant relationship between the positive perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the natural environment and the benefits they derive from tourism.

Having constructed the hypotheses for the relationships between positive/negative perceptions of residents toward tourism development and the benefits derived from tourism, the research now moves to explain the relationship between support for tourism and residents. The support for tourism is essential to develop tourist products and services leading to forming promotional strategies at a destination accordingly. This support for tourism also enables SD. Thus, the support of every stakeholder at a destination is essential for SD in tourism.

Residents among the stakeholders are most affected by tourism development. In this respect, the support of residents toward tourism is one of the prerequisites for SD in tourism (Cicek and Sari, 2018: 186; Cakir and Kodaş, 2020). To support this view, Lyon *et al.* (2017: 237) argued that residents' perceptions of tourism development are related to their support for tourism development. While Jamal and Robinson (2009) supported this argument, they stated that considering the interests of residents in tourism development encouraged residents' support for tourism. In this respect, there is a relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, their support for tourism and SD in tourism. By stating the

support of residents to tourism development, it is necessary to know residents' attitudes and the factors affecting their attitudes (Cengiz and Kirkbir, 2007). In the sustainable tourism literature, there was a significant relationship between the positive effects perceived by residents on tourism development and their support for tourism activities (Cicek and Sari, 2018; Martín *et al.*, 2018). On the other hand, Ritchie and Inkari (2006) did not find a meaningful relationship between the perceived positive effects of residents on tourism development and their support for tourism activities. In the research of Choi and Murray (2010), the negative effects perceived by residents toward tourism development had a negative effect on their support for tourism. Therefore, the support given by residents to tourism is related to the positive economic effects of tourism development (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2011). Accordingly, the support of residents to tourism will increase when residents have better perceptions of the positive economic outputs of tourism development. This argument is supported by much research in the literature (Jurowski *et al.*, 1997; Styliadis and Terzidou, 2014; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2017; Segota *et al.*, 2017; Sert, 2019). On the other hand, when the economic effects of tourism are perceived as negative by residents, their support for tourism decreases (Gursoy *et al.*, 2002).

Having seen the relationship between the support of residents towards tourism development and the positive economic effects of tourism development, it is essential to draw attention to the relationship between the socio-cultural perceptions of tourism development and support for tourism. Some research in the literature showed that when the socio-cultural effects of tourism development perceived by residents are positive, residents supported tourism development (Cengiz and Kirkbir, 2007; Ertuna *et al.*, 2012; Ozaltin Turker and Turker, 2014; Styliadis and Terzidou, 2014; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2017; Segota *et al.*, 2017; Sert, 2019). On the other hand, some research in the literature showed that the support of residents towards tourism decreased when the negative effects of tourism development on the socio-cultural environment are perceived (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon 2011; Sert, 2019). Moreover, the support of residents for tourism is also associated with their perceptions of the protection of the natural environment in tourism. Thus, the positive environmental effects of tourism perceived by residents supported the development of tourism (Ertuna *et al.*, 2012; Styliadis and Terzidou, 2014; Almeida-Garcia *et al.*, 2016; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2017; Segota *et al.*, 2017; Sert, 2019). Based upon the literature mentioned above, the hypotheses were developed as follows:

H₆: There is a significant relationship between the positive perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the economic environment and their support for tourism.

H₇: There is a significant relationship between the negative perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the economic environment and their support for tourism.

H₈: There is a significant relationship between the positive perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the socio-cultural environment and their support for tourism.

H₉: There is a significant relationship between the negative perceptions of residents toward the outputs of tourism development in the socio-cultural environment and their support for tourism.

H₁₀: There is a significant relationship between the positive perceptions of residents about the outputs of tourism development in the natural environment and their support for tourism.

Furthermore, the research about the benefits to residents from tourism and their support for tourism were conducted and the findings showed that the benefits to residents from tourism positively affected their support for tourism. More specifically, the personal benefits perceived by residents from tourism positively affected the support offered to tourism development (Poh Ling *et al.*, 2011; Vargas-Sanchez *et al.*, 2011; Ozaltın Turker and Turker, 2014; Cicek and Sari, 2018; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2018). In the research conducted by Aksoz *et al.* (2015), the perceived benefits of tourism to residents affected their support for tourism. Moreover, the research mentioned above concluded that the harm of tourism did not have an effect on the support given by residents to tourism. However, Duran (2013), investigated the attitudes of residents of Bozcaada, Turkey toward the development of tourism, and concluded that residents' support for tourism depended on their benefits from tourism. On the other hand, Ekici (2013) stated that although residents benefited from tourism, they did not support it.

With these findings in the literature, the research of Harrill (2004) and Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) determined that social and economic benefits affected residents' support for tourism development. Based upon the discussions above, the following hypothesis is offered:

H₁₁: There is a significant and positive relationship between the benefits of residents from tourism and their support for tourism.

Research Framework

Within the scope of stakeholders in sustainable tourism development and the hypotheses developed from the related literature, the following theoretical model was constructed to determine the relationships between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits they received from tourism and their support for tourism (See Figure 1).

As seen in the theoretical research model below, the main focus is to determine the perceptions of residents, the benefits from tourism, and their support for tourism development.

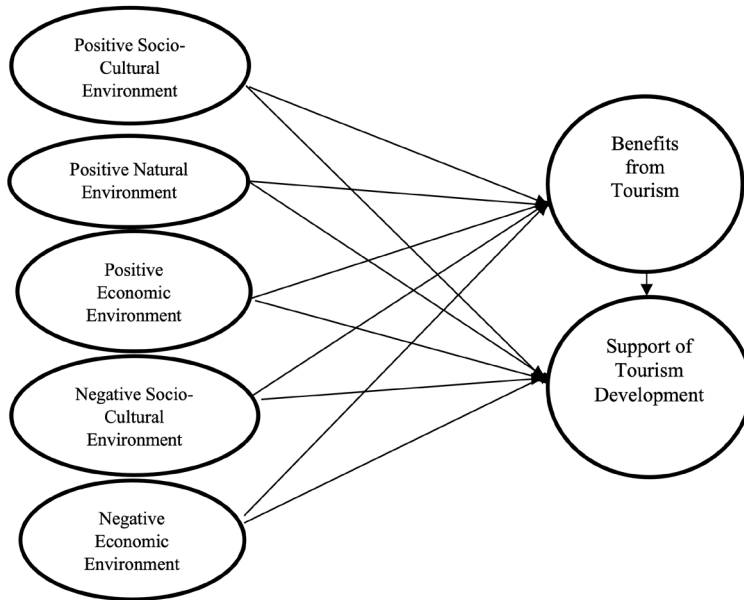


Figure 1. Theoretical model.

Source: Adapted from Cicek and Sari (2018); Airwajfah, Garcia and Macias (2019).

Methodology

Instrument and Data Collection

The research items were adapted from the research of Cicek and Sari (2018), and Airwajfah *et al.* (2019). To measure the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, a five-dimensional model developed by Airwajfah *et al.* (2019) was used. The scales created by Cicek, and Sari (2018) were used to measure the perceptions of residents about the benefits derived from tourism and their support for tourism. The data were collected from the residents in the Beypazari district of Ankara, Turkey. Beypazari is one of the important touristic destinations of Turkey, where the local people’s participation in tourism is high (Kodas and Ozel, 2016). The data were collected by a questionnaire survey technique from 262 participants with the convenience sampling technique between March and April 2021. The sample adequacy was calculated from the literature. For example, Hair *et al.*, (2010) and Sekaran (2013) stated that a sample adequacy should reach 10 times the number of statements in a scale. However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) indicated that reaching at least 5 times the number of statements in a questionnaire was sufficient for factor analysis and structural equation modeling analysis. In addition to this reference, another criterion used as a basis for calculating the sample size for structural model analysis was the “r” value, which is determined by dividing the number of items in

the scales, i.e., the number of observed variables by the number of latent variables. (Marsh and Bailey, 1991). According to this, it is emphasized that “*r*” value should be 2.0 for at least 400 questionnaires, 3.0 for at least 200 questionnaires, 4.0 for at least 100 questionnaires (Marsh and Hau, 1999). Since the number of observed variables was 35 and the latent variables were 7 in the current research, “*r*” was determined as 5. Therefore, 100 questionnaires were enough for sample adequacy. With this calculation, the sample adequacy criterion was met by reaching 262 questionnaires for this research.

Data Analysis

Structural equation modeling was used to evaluate the relationships between the variables in the theoretical research model. Before evaluating the theoretical model, alpha coefficients for the reliability of the scales were found in the research and exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were performed to ensure the validity of the scales. Firstly, EFA and then CFA were conducted for the research scales to determine the perceptions of the residents toward tourism development in Beypazari. Before the analysis of the structural equation model, the measurement model was created, and the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the measurement model were tested. Finally, structural equation analysis was applied to the dataset to determine the relationships between the research variables.

Findings

Demographic Findings

The demographic characteristics of the research participants are displayed in Table 1 below. By looking at Table 1, the ratio of male and female participants is almost equal. The 19-39 age group was 55% of the participants. The smallest age group was comprised of the 17-18 age group with 2.3%. Regarding marital status, the number of married and single participants was equally represented for this research. Considering the educational background of the participants, more than 50% of the participants received vocational and undergraduate degrees. Regarding the occupations of the participants, while 52.3% of the participants worked in private sector, the rest of the participants consisted of the public sector (23.6%), retired people (6.1%), homemakers (11.1%) and students (6.9%). In addition, the status of the participants reflected different income levels. While the residents working and doing business directly in tourism reflected 23.7% of the participants, the rest of the participants (76.3%) had work outside tourism. Regarding residency status, the majority of participants (60.7%) lived in Beypazari over 21 years. The rest of the participants lived in Beypazari from 5 to 20 years. Regarding permanent residency,

62.2% of the participants had permanent residency and were homeowners. Twenty-three point three percent of the participants were permanent residents and tenants. The rest of the participants (14.5%) were seasonal residents in Beypazari.

Table 1
Profile of the participants

Demographic Characteristics		N	%
Gender	Female	126	48,1
	Male	136	51,9
	Total	262	100,0
Age	17-18	6	2,3
	19-39	144	55,0
	40-59	91	34,7
	60 and over	21	8,0
	Total	262	100,0
Marital Status	Married	144	55,0
	Single	118	45,0
	Total	262	100,0
Education	Primary school	5	1,9
	Secondary or equivalent school	2	,8
	Primary education	67	25,6
	High school	43	16,4
	Vocational school	100	38,2
	Undergraduate	40	15,3
	Postgraduate	5	1,9
	Total	262	100,0
Occupation	Public sector	62	23,6
	Private sector	137	52,3
	Retired	16	6,1
	Homemaker	29	11,1
	Student	18	6,9
	Total	262	100
	Income (Turkish Lira)	0-2750	66
2751- 5500		106	40,5
5501- 7250		33	12,6
7250 and over		57	21,8
Total		262	100,0
Participation Status in Regional Tourism	Residents- working outside tourism	103	39,3
	Residents- working in tourism	40	15,3
	Entrepreneur- doing business outside tourism	32	12,2
	Entrepreneur- doing business in tourism	22	8,4
	Retired	7	2,7
	Homemaker	30	11,5
	Student	19	7,3
	Others	9	3,4
	Total	262	100,0
Length of Residency in Region (Year)	0-5	49	18,7
	6-10	25	9,5
	11-15	9	3,4
	16-20	20	7,6
	21 and over	159	60,7
Residency Status in Region	Permanent resident and homeowner	163	62,2
	Permanent resident and tenant	61	23,3
	Seasonal resident and homeowner	14	5,3
	Seasonal resident and tenant	24	9,2
	Total	262	100,0

Findings of Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Before evaluating the proposed theoretical model, the analyses of reliability and validity were conducted on the scale of perceptions of residents toward tourism development due to its multidimensional structure. For the reliability analysis, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was satisfactory (see Table 2 below). The analyses of EFA and CFA were performed to test the construct and convergent validity of the scale used to measure the perceptions of the residents toward tourism development (see Table 2 and 3).

Before the analysis of EFA, the skewness and kurtosis coefficients of the data were examined that the values were between acceptable values (± 1.5 and ± 1.5) (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). In addition, the correlation coefficients ($r > 0.30$) and the sample fitness value (Measure of Sampling Adequacy- (> 0.50)) between the statements in the scale were examined and there was no multicollinearity problem (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Cokluk *et al.*, 2012). As a result of EFA, two problematic statements in the negative socio-cultural environment factor (Number 17 and 20) were removed from the scale. The results of the EFA findings are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2

EFA Findings for Perceptions of Residents Toward Tourism Development

Factors and Statements	Factor Loadings					Eigenvalues	Percentage of Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
	1	2	3	4	5			
<i>Perceptions of Negative Socio-Cultural Environment</i>						6,506	27,109	,878
15. Tourism increases crime rates in the region.		,819						
19. Tourism hazards the rights of residents to use natural areas and facilities by causing natural areas and lands to be used to increase the boundaries of national parks.		,747						
14. Tourism increases drug and alcohol use in the region.		,741						
21. Tourism increases the pollution (water, noise, air, etc.) in the region.		,737						
16. Tourism causes a decrease in the number of leisure activities (sports, entertainment, picnic, cinema, theater, etc.) performed by the residents.		,704						
18. Tourism hazards the rights of residents by increasing the use of natural areas and lands to increase the number of hotels.		,656						
23. Tourism endangers the natural landscape of the region.		,596						
<i>Positive Perceptions of Economic Environment</i>						5,122	21,343	,872
11. Tourism creates better public transportation routes/networks connected to the region.		,832						

10. Tourism creates better public transport infrastructure in the region.	,818			
12. Tourism helps to increase business opportunities in the region.	,813			
13. Tourism helps to create more jobs in the region.	,632			
9. Tourism increases the household incomes in the region.	,625			
Positive Perceptions of Natural Environment		2,168	9,033	,922
6. Tourism contributes to the increase in the number of natural protection areas in the region.	,879			
5. Tourism helps to protect the natural environment.	,859			
7. Tourism encourages residents to protect the natural environment in the region.	,802			
8. Tourism helps to keep the region clean.	,802			
Positive Perceptions of Socio-Cultural Environment		1,321	5,504	,800
1. Tourism provides entertainment opportunities for the residents.	,778			
2. Tourism helps to create more local associations	,747			
4. Tourism helps to preserve local traditions	,668			
3. Tourism helps to improve the government provided facilities (Health centers, better schools, post office, sport centers, etc.)	,651			
Negative Perceptions of Economic Environment		1,141	4,753	,777
25. Tourism increases the cost of living (heating, water, electricity, transportation, rent, etc.) in the region.	,799			
24. Tourism increases the price of real estate/properties (land, house, etc.) in the region.	,796			
26. Tourism generates seasonal unemployment in the region.	,771			

Total Variance Explained: 67,742; CR: ,819; KMO: 0,868; Bartlett's test of Sphericity: (3749,405; df:276). (p<,000)

Through CFA, four statements (10,18,21, and 23) were removed from the analysis. These statements were one (10) from the positive economic environment factor and three (18,21 and 23) from the negative socio-cultural environment factor. In the analysis the construct validity and convergent validity of the scale were ensured. By examining Table 3, the standardized factor loadings of each factor are higher than 0.50, the combined reliability (CR), Cronbach's Alpha and average explained variance (AVE) values and the scale's goodness-of-fit criterion values are at the desired level.

Table 3*CFA Findings of Perceptions of Residents Toward Tourism Development*

Factors, Statements and Factor Loadings	α	CR	AVE
Positive Perceptions of Socio-Cultural Environment Perception1=0,78, Perception2=0,73, Perception3=0,74, Perception4=0,61	0,800	0,82	0,55
Positive Perceptions of Natural Environment Perception5=0,91, Perception6=0,92, Perception7=0,83, Perception8=0,79	0,922	0,92	0,75
Positive Perceptions of Economic Environment Alg19=0,71, Alg11= 0,76, Alg12=0,88, Alg13=0,76	0,845	0,86	0,61
Negative Perceptions of Socio-Cultural Environment Perception14=0,78, Perception15=0,84, Perception16=0,59, Perception19=0,66, Perception21=0,66	0,834	0,84	0,51
Negative Perceptions of Economic Environment Alg124=0,81, Alg125=0,79, Alg126=0,61	0,777	0,78	0,55

Note: RMSEA: 0,067; NFI: 0,93; NNFI: 0,95; CFI: 0,96; IFI: 0,96; *Chi-Square* (χ^2)/df: 339,40/160: 2,183, $p < ,01$ ($t > 2,58$).

Findings of Theoretical Research Model

The theoretical model proposed in this research was evaluated by using the two-stage approach proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). First, CFA was applied to the theoretical model in which the variables were considered together. The factor loadings, construct reliability, correlation coefficients, and AVE values of the variables in the theoretical model were examined. After CFA, the statement “I am proud (happy) that tourists come to our region”, which was included in the scale of support for tourism development, is closely related to other statements. Thus, this statement was removed from the research model. Afterwards, the CFA produced acceptable values that the standardized factor loadings and AVE values were higher than 0.50, and the reliability values were between 0.82 and 0.92 (Hair *et al.*, 2010) (see Table 4 below). Moreover, the square root values of the AVE are higher than the correlations of all factors with each other ($\sqrt{AVE} >$ Correlations between factors) (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Table 4*Findings for Theoretical Research Model*

Factors	Standard Loadings	α	CR	AVE
Positive Perceptions of Socio-Cultural Environment (PPSCE)		0,800	0,82	0,55
Perception _1	0,77			
Perception _2	0,73			
Perception _3	0,75			
Perception _4	0,61			
Positive Perceptions of Natural Environment (PPNE)		0,922	0,92	0,75
Perception _5	0,91			
Perception _6	0,92			
Perception _7	0,83			
Perception _8	0,79			

Positive Perceptions of Economic Environment (PPEE)		0,845	0,86	0,60
Perception _9	0,71			
Perception _11	0,75			
Perception _12	0,88			
Perception _13	0,76			
Negative Perceptions of Socio-Cultural Environment (NPSCE)		0,834	0,84	0,51
Perception _14	0,78			
Perception _15	0,84			
Perception _16	0,59			
Perception _19	0,67			
Perception _21	0,66			
Negative Perceptions of Economic Environment (NPEE)		0,777	0,78	0,55
Perception _24	0,81			
Perception _25	0,79			
Perception _26	0,61			
Support		0,896	0,90	0,64
S_1= I support the development of tourism in the region.	0,74			
S_2= I support more tourists coming to the region.	0,81			
S_4= Tourism contributes to the economic development of the region.	0,85			
S_5= Tourism is one of the important sectors for the region.	0,82			
S_6= Tourism continues to play an economic role in our region.	0,77			
Benefit		0,841	0,85	0,65
B_1= I benefit socially from tourism.	0,87			
B_2= I benefit economically from tourism.	0,76			
B_3= I benefit culturally from tourism.	0,79			

Fornell-Larcker Criteria

Dimension	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.PPSCE	0,74							4,02	0,771
2.PPNE	0,47	0,86						3,51	1,078
3.PPEE	0,73	0,46	0,77					4,23	0,676
4.NPSCE	-0,09	-0,28	-0,10	0,71				2,65	0,882
5.NPEE	0,26	-0,16	0,38	0,27	0,74			3,59	0,935
6.SUPPORT	0,56	0,40	0,62	-0,21	0,29	0,80		4,21	0,764
7.BENEFIT	0,36	0,46	0,43	-0,23	0,13	0,72	0,80	3,56	1,011

Not: RMSEA: 0,077; NFI: 0,92; NNFI: 0,94; CFI: 0,95; IFI: 0,95; *Chi-Square (x2) /df*: 842,54/329: 2,560, p <.01 (t> 2,58).

Findings of Structural Equation Model (SEM)

The structural equation modeling (SEM) technique was used to assess the relationships between the variables in the theoretical model of this research. Among the variables in the theoretical model, the positive perceptions of the socio-cultural environment, the positive perceptions of natural environment, the positive perceptions of economic environment, the negative perceptions of the socio-cultural environment, the negative perceptions of economic environment were the exogenous

variables. The variable of benefit was defined as both exogenous and endogenous variables. On the other hand, the variable of support was defined as an endogenous variable. By examining the results of SEM, only the five-path analyses produced significant relationships among the variables as t values were significant. In other words, only five hypotheses out of eleven research hypotheses were supported in the theoretical research model. To point out these significant hypotheses in detail, the positive perceptions of natural environment were positively associated with perceived benefits (0.35), while the negative perceptions of the socio-cultural environment were negatively associated with perceived benefits. The other three supported hypotheses were that the positive perceptions of economic environment (0.22) and the positive perceptions of socio-cultural environment were positively related to the support for tourism development (0.19) and that the perceived benefits had a positive relationship with the support given for tourism development (0.54) (See Table 5).

Table 5
Results of Structural Equation Model

Hypothesis	Standardized path Coefficients	t-values	Relations
H1: PPEE → BENEFIT	0,20	1,69 ^{AD}	No
H2: NPEE → BENEFIT	0,15	1,73 ^{AD}	No
H3: PPSCE → BENEFIT	-0,00	-0,04 ^{AD}	No
H4: NPSCE → BENEFIT	-0,15	-2,10*	Yes
H5: PPNE → BENEFIT	0,35	4,19**	Yes
H8: PPEE → SUPPORT	0,22	2,39*	Yes
H10: NPEE → SUPPORT	0,11	1,64 ^{AD}	No
H6: PPSCE → SUPPORT	0,19	2,20*	Yes
H9: NPSCE → SUPPORT	-0,09	-1,67 ^{AD}	No
H7: PPNE → SUPPORT	-0,05	-0,69 ^{AD}	No
H11: BENEFIT → SUPPORT	0,54	7,65**	Yes

**p <,01 (t > 2,58), *p <,05 (t > 1,96), ^{AD} t-values are not significant.

Conclusion and Discussion

This research investigated the relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits derived from tourism and their support for tourism. In this context, the attitudes and behaviors of residents toward tourism were evaluated with a holistic view through the theoretical model developed based on the literature about the perceptions of residents toward tourism, the benefits derived from tourism and their support for tourism. This theoretical research model produced four different results.

Firstly, the research determined that the perceptions of residents toward tourism development have a multidimensional structure. With this multidimensional structure, the perceptions of residents toward the tourism development consisted

of (i) *positive perceptions of economic environment*, (ii) *negative perceptions of economic environment*, (iii) *positive perceptions of socio-cultural environment*, (iv) *negative perceptions of socio-cultural environment*, and (v) *positive perceptions of natural environment*.

Secondly, the relationship between the research variables was examined. In this examination, five hypotheses evaluating the relationship between the perceptions of the residents toward tourism development and the benefits they derive from tourism were evaluated, and it was determined that only two of the hypotheses were supported by this research. As a result of the structural equation model analysis, the positive perceptions of natural environment and the negative perceptions of socio-cultural environment of the residents toward tourism development are related to the benefit they receive from tourism development. Accordingly, as the perceptions of the residents toward tourism development became more positive, their perceptions of the positive impact of tourism on the natural environment and the negative impact on the socio-cultural environment changed as well.

Thirdly, the relationships between residents' perceptions of tourism development and their support for tourism activities were examined. Only two of the hypotheses were supported. When the supported hypotheses were examined, a positive relationship was found between the positive perceptions of socio-cultural environment of the residents and their support for tourism activities. Similarly, there was a positive relationship between the positive perceptions of economic environment of the residents and their support for tourism activities.

Finally, the relationships between the benefits of the residents from tourism and their support for tourism activities were investigated. The findings show that there is a positive relationship between perceived benefit and support for tourism development.

Theoretical Implications

Residents, as one of the stakeholders, have a significant role in effective sustainable tourism development. Therefore, the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits derived from tourism and their support for tourism are of great importance in terms of ensuring sustainability in tourism. This makes this research important in investigating the perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors of residents in sustainable tourism. In the literature, some research studied the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits derived from tourism, and their support for tourism activities (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2011; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2017). In this research, the perceptions of residents toward tourism development were examined in a holistic framework by combining the benefits of tourism and support for tourism activities in the theoretical model. Theoretically, the research contributes

to the understanding of the relationship between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits derived from tourism, and their support for tourism activities. In this context, this research contributes to the literature through the findings obtained in the research as follows:

Firstly, the perceptions of residents toward tourism development were examined. According to the research findings, the perceptions of the residents toward tourism development are clustered under five factors. These factors are (i) *positive perceptions of economic environment*, (ii) *negative perceptions of economic environment*, (iii) *positive perceptions of socio-cultural environment*, (iv) *negative perceptions of socio-cultural environment*, and (v) *positive perceptions of natural environment*. By looking through the literature to compare the research findings, the perceptions of residents toward tourism development were clustered under a range of factors in sustainable tourism development. The perceptions of residents toward tourism development are based upon economic, socio-cultural and natural environments shaping the total perceptions of tourism development (Anderect and Vogt, 2002; Cengiz and Kirkbir, 2007). For instance, Cengiz and Kirkbir (2007) found that the determining factor for the perceptions of residents toward tourism development were the effect on economic environment. Moreover, Han *et al.* (2011) and Alrwajfah *et al.* (2019) emphasized that the positive effects of tourism on economic environment were a decisive factor in shaping the perceptions of residents toward tourism development. On the other hand, Ayaz *et al.* (2009) and Pearce (2018) showed that the negative economic effects of tourism shaped the perceptions of residents toward tourism development. However, the positive or negative perceptions of residents toward tourism development was not enough to explain the different opinions about the evaluation of tourism development. Thus, the positive effects of tourism development on the socio-cultural environment affected the perceptions of residents (McCool and Martin, 1994). On the other hand, the negative socio-cultural effects of tourism development influenced the perceptions of residents (Martin *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, some other research showed that residents had negative perceptions about tourism on the natural environment (Nepal, 2008; Pearce, 2018). From this point of view, the findings of this research are consistent with the research mentioned above on the perceptions of residents toward tourism development.

Secondly, the relationship between the variables determined within the scope of this research's theoretical model were critically evaluated. The findings show that there is a relationship between the perceptions of the residents toward tourism development and the benefits they receive from tourism. More specifically, when the positive perceptions of the residents toward tourism increase, their perceptions of the benefits from tourism also grow positively. Moreover, Kayat (2002) and Kostekli *et al.* (2012) said that there was a relationship between the perceptions and the benefits

of residents from tourism. In their research, the positive perceptions of natural environment and negative perceptions of socio-cultural environment of residents toward tourism development were in a close relationship with the benefits they received from tourism. In short, when the perceptions of residents toward tourism development become more positive, their perceptions of the impact of tourism on the natural environment become more positive too. Even the negative perceptions of the residents on the socio-cultural environment from tourism might develop into the positive perceptions as well. In the literature, some research showed that there is a relationship between the positive perceptions of residents on the natural environment, the socio-cultural environment from tourism development and the benefits they received from tourism (Mansuroğlu, 2006; Martin *et al.*, 2018; Arica and Ukav, 2020). Thus, the findings of this research are consistent with the literature mentioned above.

Thirdly, a relationship was determined between the perceptions of the residents toward tourism development and their support for tourism. Regarding this relationship, Cengiz and Kirkbir (2007) showed that the socio-cultural perceptions of residents were effective in supporting tourism. Cengiz and Kirkbir (2007) also concluded that there was a positive relationship between the positive economic perceptions of residents toward tourism and their support for tourism activities. Therefore, the findings of this research are coherent with the literature.

Finally, this research determines that there is a relationship between the benefits of the residents from tourism and their support for tourism development. In the literature, research showed a relationship between the benefits of residents from tourism and their support for tourism development (Ko and Stewart, 2002; Poh Ling *et al.*, 2011; Vargas-Sanchez *et al.*, 2011; Duran, 2013; Ozaltın Turker and Turker, 2014; Aksoz *et al.*, 2015; Cicek and Sari, 2018; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2018). Woosnam *et al.* (2009) explained that the economic benefits of residents from tourism increased their support for tourism development. Furthermore, Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), and Harrill (2004) determined that the social and economic benefits affected the support of residents for tourism development. The research conducted by Aksoz *et al.* (2015) also determined that the perceived benefits of tourism by residents affected their support for tourism. From this point of view, the findings of this research are consistent with the literature.

Managerial Implications

This research aimed to find out the relationships between the perceptions of residents toward tourism development, the benefits residents receive from tourism and their support for tourism activities in Beypazari. The research findings show that there is a relationship between the perceptions of the residents toward tourism

development, the benefits they receive from tourism and their support for tourism activities. Moreover, this research determined that there is a relationship between the benefits of the residents from tourism and their support for tourism.

Overall, the research findings indicate that improving the perceptions of residents toward tourism and the benefits they derive from tourism will increase their support for tourism activities. According to the theory of social change, residents influence the negative perceptions more into the positive perceptions when residents believe that the positive aspects of tourism will be more than the negative aspects of tourism. Thus, residents give their support for tourism development (Getz, 1994: 275; Arıca and Ukav, 2020). With this view in hand, the primary requirement to develop the perceptions of residents toward tourism development is to take measures to increase the positive effects of tourism and to reduce the negative effects of tourism in the eyes of residents. According to this understanding, involving residents in tourism development will positively contribute to the support of residents toward tourism. Therefore, it is important to include and to encourage the managers in charge of tourism in Beypazari to participate in any tourism development process from the planning stage to the evaluation stage to improve the perceptions of the residents toward tourism. Furthermore, it is a requisite to receive the opinions of the residents toward tourism in terms of the planning, implementation, inspection, and evaluation stages of tourism development in Beypazari. In addition, as seen in the demographic findings of this research, most of the research participants do not engage in tourism-related businesses or do not work in tourism. This situation may cause them to be insensitive toward the positive and negative effects of tourism. Therefore, it is essential for the managers in charge of tourism to organize education, information, and awareness-raising initiatives about the effects of tourism development to all the people living in this region. In these awareness-raising initiatives, the positive and negative effects of tourism should be explained such a way that the attitudes and behaviors of the residents toward tourism development should be better understood. In this way, it will be possible to raise the awareness of the residents about the effects of tourism as well as to motivate their participation in the tourism development process in Beypazari.

Another finding of this research is that there is a correlation between the benefits of the Beypazari residents from tourism and the support they offer to the tourism development activities. Accordingly, as the economic, social, and cultural benefits of the residents from tourism increase, their support for tourism also increases. In this context, it is necessary for the managers in charge of tourism to work toward the initiatives focusing on increasing the benefits of the residents from tourism development i.e. the benefits derived from the economic and socio-cultural gains from tourism, the protection of natural resources, the sustainability of social values,

regional development, and increasing the quality of living standards should be the main prerequisites to increase the benefits of the residents from tourism. It is also important to offer economic support and incentives to the residents to increase the benefits of the residents from tourism. The incentives and support in tourism will increase the investments of the residents in the region and enable them to be included in the tourism development process. In addition, the revenues obtained from tourism should be reinvested to renew infrastructure and superstructure in the region. To further this, it is necessary to ensure the participation of the residents in the workforce and to support women's entrepreneurship. By doing this, the certificate programs in tourism for the residents should be taken into consideration as a priority. In this way, the residents will be encouraged to support tourism in order to directly or indirectly benefit from tourism development.

Limitations and Recommendations

In this research, the perceptions, benefits, and support for tourism development were examined from the perspective of the residents in Beypazari, Turkey. In the future, it will be important to examine the perceptions of stakeholders such as local authorities, non-governmental organizations, and businesses in tourism to provide a holistic research framework on the theoretical model.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: D.K., R.A., N.K., F.D.; Data Acquisition: D.K., R.A., N.K., F.D.; Data Analysis/Interpretation: D.K., R.A., N.K., F.D.; Drafting Manuscript: D.K., R.A., N.K., F.D.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: D.K., R.A., N.K., F.D.; Final Approval and Accountability: D.K., R.A., N.K., F.D.

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Osun Worshipers in Osogbo: An Analysis of the Factors Influencing Participations of the Osun Festival in Southwestern Nigeria

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Abstract

This study investigates the factors influencing the Osun festival participation in southwestern Nigeria. Primary data was collected through questionnaire administration on members of the host communities. Secondary data on the number of buildings were obtained from the high-resolution satellite imagery and maps sourced from the Cooperative Information Network (COPINE) of the National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA). A systematic sampling procedure was adopted to select 3% of the estimated 10,913 buildings within the designated zones in Osogbo based on the degree of homogeneity of the inhabitants. In this case, 327 respondents were sampled in Osogbo. Data collected were analyzed using Mean Index (MI) and Factor analysis (Principal component analysis). Findings revealed that 45 out of the 49 variables subjected to factor analysis contributed to explaining 79.8% variation of factors influencing participation in the Osun festival. They are categorized under four factors: Sociodemographic, Psychosocial, Basic Facilities/Amenities, and Environmental/Mobility Factors.

Keywords

Osun Worshipers, Osun River, Osogbo Groove, Festival Tourism, Festival Tourism Participation, Festival Tourism Motivation, Southwestern Nigeria

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To cite this article: Agbabiaka, H. I. (2022). Osun worshipers in osogbo: an analysis of the factors influencing participations of the Osun festival in southwestern Nigeria. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 281-299. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1123994>



Introduction

Tourism is an important industry in many regions of the world that forms a growing part of its economy. The demand for tourism has expanded dramatically in the past decades [United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2015]. The proportion of international tourists grew by approximately 4.6% yearly, measuring 3.5% of the world GDP between 1975 and 2000 (UNWTO, 2013). UNWTO (2014) recorded 1.087 billion international tourists during 2013, and approximately (\$6.6 trillion), representing 9% of the world's GDP, were generated with 260 million jobs (1 in every 11) of the jobs created around the world. A further projection was made that the sector will attract 1.561 billion tourists by 2020, and generate (\$10.97 trillion), representing 10.3% of the world's GDP by 2024 (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2014)). WTTC (2019), in their report, presented that the economic impact of global travel and tourism accounted for 10.4% of the world's GDP, with 319 million jobs created (WTTC, 2019). Globalization in travel and its enormous benefits have increased competition between tourism destinations and operators (Mariani, Baggio, Buhalis, and Longhi, 2014; Baggio & Mariani, 2012).

Event tourism is classified as special, hallmark, and mega, either local, regional, periodic, or occasional (Cudny, 2014; Getz, 2005). Festivals are an integral part of events tourism (Getz, 2012 and Tara, 2012) that are connected with ceremonies and rituals in the form of meetings, conventions, conferences, traditional food, carnival, sport, and exhibitions, among others (Maeng, Jang and Li, 2016; Cudny, 2014). In addition, a festival is a crucial tourism resource centered on religious and cultural celebrations, for instance, commemoration and thanksgiving (Rasmus, Iddeng, and Jon, 2012). Furthermore, festivals with high participation and patronage may be an instrument for economic growth due to their attraction capability of financial, human, and environmental resources, among others from members of the host communities, tourists, and other stakeholders (Government, Non-governmental Organizations, and festival organizers) (Kuri, Ananya, Islam, and Hassan, 2022; Drummond, Snowball, Antrobus, and Drummond, 2021; Doe, Preko, Akroful, and Okai-Anderson, 2021). The present study emphasizes festival participation in Nigeria. Nigeria is the largest black nation and rich in cultural heritage. The country houses over 250 ethnic groups with more than 520 different languages, among which the major ones are Yoruba, Hausa, and Igbo. The individual ethnic groups have festivals that showcase their history and culture (Olokodana–James, 2022; Ndiribe & Aboh, 2020). Of importance to this study are the Yoruba tribes that are located in Southwestern Nigeria. The tribes have a rich and diverse cultural heritage that can be experienced in traditional and cultural festivals, such as the Egungun, Eyo, Igogo, Lagos Black Heritage, Ojude Oba, Osun-Osogbo, Oro, Sango, and Ifa festivals, among others (Titilayo, 2020). Southwestern Nigeria, is blessed with an abundance of traditional annual festivals.

The Osun festival is one of its prominent festivals, hosted by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) world heritage site. Hence, it is important to examine the factors that aid the Osun Osogbo festival participation in Southwestern Nigeria.

Literature Review

Studies on festivals have increased over the years, purporting the effectiveness of tourism in driving socioeconomic change in communities (Adongo, Kim, and Elliot, 2019; Zhang, Fong, and Ly, 2019; Laing, 2018; Mariani & Giorgio, 2017; Getz & Page, 2016; Diederling et al., 2015). It is one of the possible options for elevating community livelihoods and poverty alleviation (Wu & Pearce, 2013) and contributing to economic and tourism planning and development (Getz & Page, 2016; Tichaawa, 2016; Davies et al., 2010). Muresan et al. (2016); Su et al. (2016) revealed that festival impact transcends beyond direct economic benefits to encompass other industries in the form of agriculture, fishing, forestry, handicrafts, and food processing. In addition, the role of media coverage in organized festivals exposes its potential to promote attractions and participation (Mohamad, 2022; Sahoo & Mukunda, 2020; Bednar & Welch, 2020). In essence, every community with the potential to organize a festival aims to actualize increased participation and transform the community image and socio-cultural cohesion (Balogun & Nkebem, 2022; Devesa & Roitvan, 2022). Attanasi, Casoria, Centorrino, and Urso (2013) explore social interaction areas that foster understanding between host and guest. Understanding host and guest social interaction instills a sense of safety and promotes cultural education exchange. Furthermore, festivals benefit environmental and community identity protection and place attachment (Li, 2021; Lockhart, 2021).

Festival tourism may generate positive and negative outcomes in different dimensions (socio-cultural, economic, and environmental) (Hassan & Quader, 2022; Grappi & Montanari, 2011). The positive outcomes may be informed by increasing income levels, generating tax revenue, creating employment opportunities, and enriching local communities (Agbabiaka *et al.*, 2017; Mingo & Montecolle, 2014; Newman, Tay, and Diener, 2014). It propels social integration among residents and visitors (Erden & Yolal, 2016; Deery & Jago, 2010). For instance, Yolal, Gursoy, Uysal, Kim & Karacaoğlu (2016) posited a significant positive relationship between the cultural/educational benefits and residents' subjective well-being in the form of entertainment, innovative learning, and community support. Also, festivals enhance cultural creativity, knowledge expansion about the destination, and sensory and emotional stimuli of participants (Yıldırım, Karaca & Çakıcı, 2017; Getz, 2015; del Barrio et al., 2012). The negative outcomes may include local businesses' disruption,

overcrowding, increasing cost of living, traffic congestion, crime, property damage, pollution, destruction or deterioration of natural, cultural, or historical resources, privacy invasion, tradition, morals, and values losses (Agbabiaka, Omoike and Omisore, 2017; Atçi, Unur, and Gürsoy, 2016; Leenders, Go and Bhansing, 2015), economically weak residents might still associate happiness with economic gain (Seraphin, Gowreesunkar, & Platania, 2019). Festivals and events may result in inflationary pressure, traffic congestion and crowd, crime and possible property damage, and an increase in undesired behaviors in the community (Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis & Mules, 2000; Jeong & Faulkner, 1996). Moreover, festivals may damage the moral values of host communities (Leenders, Go & Bhansing, 2015) and endanger scarce resources (Gursoy, Yolal, Ribeiro & Netto, 2017). Therefore, a more holistic approach to understanding festival impact is imminent (Lasso & Dahles, 2018; Yürük et al., 2017). Andersson & Lundberg (2013) suggested the adoption of a more balanced approach, while Collins & Cooper (2017) proposed the implementation of the triple-bottom-line approach that will ensure a comprehensive analysis impacts.

Theoretical Underpinning

The research focus requires theories that explain tourism patronage and motivation. Therefore, two theories were discussed, the means-end theory and the push-and-pull theory, to explain tourism motivation. The two adopted theories explain the push-and-pull relationships of tourists. The first refers to destination attributes, while the end is the motivational force. Later, push is referred to as internal desire, while pull is the external force (Uysal, Berbekova, and Kim, 2020). The means-end theory helps determine destination attributes that attract and influence tourist choices in selecting specific destinations, among other alternatives (Bapiri, Esfandiar, and Seyfi, 2021; Borgardt, 2020). Pull and Push Motivation Theory expresses the distinction between Push and Pull in a bid to find a solution to what makes tourists travel (Kim & Lee, 2002). The theory assumes that people travel due to internal desire and external forces that may be tangible or intangible (Uysal, Berbekova, and Kim, 2020); for instance, tangible resources include recreation, facilities, beaches, and cultural attractions, while intangible resources include: traveler's perceptions, expected benefits, originality, and destination image (Said, and Maryono, 2018; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994), Cetin et. al, (2017) assert that some destination attributes might be considered more powerful than others in describing the tourist experience continuum. The theory also explains the relationship between two variables (desire for holidays and tourism destination selection) (Güzel, Sahin, and Ryan, 2020; Nicoletta & Servidio, 2012; Kim & Baum, 2007).

In this context, the push and pull theory provides information on tourists' intention to travel to festival venues, which helps the destinations provide appropriate attraction

components and activities. The pull factors may include the desire to escape from home, relaxation, self-esteem, adventure, prestige, social interaction, health & fitness, personal interests, sociodemographic factors, and market knowledge. The push factors may include climate, historic sites, recreational opportunities, aesthetics, benefits experience, sunshine, accessibility, quality of services, cultural events, destination images, and facilities. Examining the above attributes at the festival venues will provide useful information in predicting and promoting festival tourism patronage. To wrap up, organizing cultural festivals requires utilizing locally available resources in large quantities, which may lead to depletion (Gursoy, Yolal, Ribeiro, and Panosso, 2017). They also resulted in various reactions from residents and other stakeholders in the form of opposition to hosting a festival (Burbank, Heying, & Andranovich, 2000). The opposition may also result from locals believing that the cost may outweigh the benefits (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2016; Leenders et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the notion that the funds allocated to the festival benefited the privileged elites by some residents paints a scenario of marginalizing the already disadvantaged groups (Gotham, 2011). Therefore, the expression of negative and positive perceptions about the use of resources can impinge on the desired level of quality of life in the community. Hence, the adoption of the motivational theory to explain the reason for tourism travels, destination choice, destination activities, and interaction among the people, places, and events.

The Study Area: Osogbo and Osun Festival

Osogbo is located 88km Northeast of Ibadan, 115km Northwest of Akure, and 100km South of Ilorin (Osogbo City Web, 2013). Osogbo, the Osun state's capital, is the home of the river Osun, surrounded by the sacred grove that serves as the famous Osun festival venue. UNESCO recognizes this venue as a world heritage site. About 40 shrines characterize the grove, and artworks inform of sculptures depicting Yoruba deities, two palaces, and worship points, among other attributes existing for over the 20 centuries [United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 2018]. The first stage of the festival is *Iwopopo* (*Traditional cleansing of the town*), three days after the *Atupa Olojumerindinlogun* (16-point lamp) that is 600 years old is lit. After that, *Iboriade* (crowns of past Ataoja) are assembled for blessing. The festival's grand finale is when the *Arugba* (Calabash Carrier) carries the sacrifice from the Ataoja's palace to the river at *Isale Osun*. The '*Arugba*' is a virgin who bears the Osun calabash (goddesses containing sacrifice) on her head. The Osun Osogbo festival has transformed from a mere cultural event to a global event, with people attending from Cuba, Brazil, Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica, Spain, Canada, and the United States.

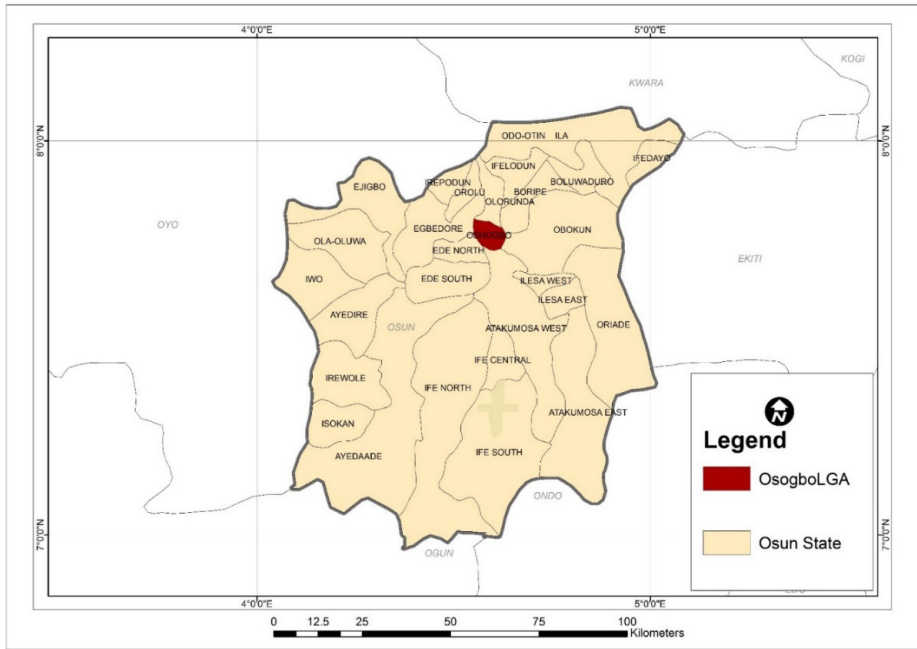


Figure 1. Map of Osun State Showing Ile-Ife and Osogbo
Source: Cooperative Information Network (COPINE), OAU, Ile-Ife 2019

Methodology

Sampling Procedure and Data Collection

Primary data was collected using questionnaire administration on residents, tourists/members of the host communities within 300m, 600m, and 900m radii of the festival venue. Secondary data on the number of buildings were obtained from high-resolution satellite imagery and maps sourced from the Cooperative Information Network (COPINE) of the National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA). Using multistage sampling, the selected festivals' host communities were stratified into 300, 600, and 900 meters radii. The host communities' members were selected using a systematic sampling procedure from the households within the zoned areas. In this regard, sampling information obtained from Google digital globe camera (2019) on Osogbo revealed 2947, 3452, and 4514 buildings, respectively, within 300, 600, and 900 meters of a buffer from the perimeter of the groove. (See Figure 2). Using systematic random sampling technique, this study selected one out of every 33 buildings representing 3% of the estimated number of buildings where members of the host communities were selected for questionnaire administration (Siegel et al., 2000). One member (a landlord or a tenant with five years of stay) was

selected per sampled building. Therefore, a sample size of 327 members of the host communities forms the sample size for the study (See Table 1).

Table 1
Study Population, Sampling Frame, and Sample Size

Southwest	Selected Buffer (Meters)	Estimated Nos. of Build.	Selected Builds. (3%)	Selected Residents	Total Sample Size
Osogbo (Osun Festival)	300	2947	88	88	327
	600	3452	104	104	
	900	4514	135	135	
Total		10,913	327	327	

Source: Authors Computation (2019)

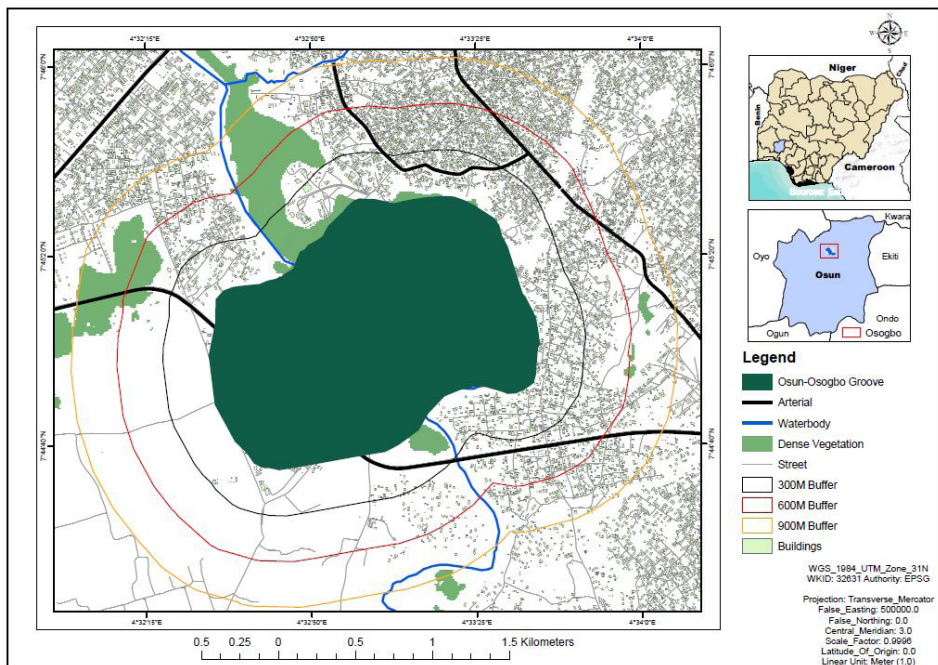


Figure 2. Digitized Map of the Zoned Areas in Osogbo
Source: Cooperative Information Network (COPINE), OAU, Ile-Ife 2021

Sampling Adequacy

Prior to the survey, a pilot survey conducted in the study area revealed the degree of homogeneity of the residents in the study area. Furthermore, in validating the outcome of the pilot survey, the data collected were analyzed using cross-tabulation and Chi-Square to measure the degree of homogeneity and heterogeneity in the demographic characteristics of the residents across the zoned areas (300, 600, and 900 meters radii). The analysis covers gender, marital status, religion, age, income,

occupation, and length of stay of the residents in the study. The result revealed a high degree of homogeneity and similar characteristics in the demographic attributes of the household heads the have not less than five years' length of stay in the study area with chi-square values as follows: $\chi^2 = 2.815$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.245$ for gender, marital status ($\chi^2 = 27.279$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.000$); religious ($\chi^2 = 12.106$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.017$); age group ($\chi^2 = 14.555$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.006$); income status ($\chi^2 = 4.812$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.568$); occupation ($\chi^2 = 11.233$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.081$); education ($\chi^2 = 16.053$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.003$); and length of stay ($\chi^2 = 19.632$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.000$). This indicates that the residents in the study area have homogeneous attributes and would provide relatively similar information based on their locational categorization because sample selection from a homogenous population involves selecting similar cases to further investigate a particular phenomenon as different from maximum variation sampling that bothers on sample selection from a heterogeneous population. Hence, this study adopted the homogenous principle of sample selection by Agbabiaka, Omoike, & Omisore, 2017; Avrahami, Lerner, 2003; Siegel et al. 2000, whose work suggested between 2 and 3 percent sample size for empirical studies that are to be conducted within a homogenous or semi-homogenous population. Based on the above assertion, this study selected 3% of the **10,913** estimated buildings where 327 household heads were sampled. Contrarily, using the conventional methods of calculating sample size that Chaokromthong & Sintao, 2021 put forward; Yamane, 1970; Krejcie & Morgan, 1970, the sample size selected is adequate for the study based on the principle of homogeneity.

Survey Instruments, Reliability, and Response Rate

An array of 49 variables have been identified in literature: and enlisted for examination in the present study, they include: *Age, Diversify economic activities, Improvement in transport infrastructure, Religious/Spiritual, Fosters exchange of culture, Transportation, Distance from my place of resident, Accessibility/ Road, Presence of cultural entertainment, Satisfying leisure needs, exchange of experiences, Accommodation/ Lodging, Feeling secured and Safe, Gender, Showcase local culture, Income, Sales of souvenir, Good maintenance of festival arena, scenic beauty in the environment, spread of tourism benefits, Leisure, Aid interaction with visitors, Educational Level, Occupation, Create a sense of value and identity, Revitalization of arts, Aid preservation of heritage properties, Opportunity to socialize with old friends, Personal and mental relaxation, Parking space, Sightseeing, To put away boredom, Health benefit/ Convalescence, Religion, Create opportunities for shopping, Streetlights, Food/drinks/ Restaurants, Medical Centre, Neatness of environment, Playground, Water, Toilets, Educational/Research, Constant power supply, Stimulate planning to improve amenities, street quality, Chanting of songs, Overstretched resources and Traffic situation* (Boğan, Dedeoğlu, and Dedeoğlu, 2020; Scheyvens,

Movono, Strickland, Bibi, Tasere, Hills, and Teama, 2020; Vogt, Andereck, and Pham, 2020; Agbabiaka et. al., 2017; Yolal, Gursoy, Uysal, Kim and Karacaoglu, 2016; Zamani-farahani, 2016; and Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, and Alders, 2013).

It should be noted that some of the demographic variables are continuous variables (Age and Income). Whereas others which are Gender, Educational Level, Religion, and Occupation, are categorical variables. These categorical variables are converted to continuous variables by replacing the raw categories with the average response value of the category before being subjected to factor analysis. In order to test the reliability of the instrument and the scale used in this research, a pre-test was conducted on 54 people. The Cronbach’s alpha values were examined, and the reliability values of the scales (Factors influencing patronage with 49 variables = 0.845) were found to be higher than the recommended value of 0.700. Therefore, the measure is confirmed as reliable (Imam, 2014). The study recorded a high response rate across the zoned areas in Osogbo, 327 questionnaires were administered, and 278 were completed and returned, amounting to an 85% response rate. This achievement may be associated with the fact that the study locations are zoned to three radii, and the enumerators were able to meet the respondents directly.

Table 2
Response Rate

Study Locations	Selected Buffer (Meters)	Sampled Questionnaire	Returned Questionnaire	% Returned
Osogbo (Osun Festival)	300	88	71	80.7
	600	104	86	82.7
	900	135	121	89.6
Total		327	278	85.0

Findings and Results

Descriptive Statistics of the Factors Influencing Osun Festival Participation

The 49 variables enlisted as attributes to measure the factors influencing patronage were computed using the mean index to rank the variables in descending order from most to the least perceived attributes influencing patronage. On the other hand, the deviations about the means were also computed to show the attributes with positive and negative deviations. The attributes with positive deviations are perceived to have a strong varying influence on patronage, while attributes with negative deviations were perceived to have a varying weak influence on patronage. The study reports that 32 out of the 49 attributes as factors influencing patronage of the Osun festival with varying positive deviations about the mean were ranked accordingly from the highest to the lowest, as presented in table 6.1. The attribute with the most influence is fostering the exchange of culture with (MI= 4.94 and MD= 1.32), while the least

positively skewed attribute is health benefit/convalescence with (MI= 3.66 and MD= 0.04). This implies that the positively skewed attributes have a deviance of 0.04 to 1.32 about the mean, giving a range of 0.68, and mean deviance of 0.73 about the mean. This indicates that the positive attributes be given priority and adequate consideration in planning for the Osun festival.

The varying indices of the positively skewed attributes are expressed as follows: *fosters exchange of culture* (MI= 4.94 and MD= 1.32), *accessibility/ Road* (MI= 4.73 and MD= 1.11), *showcase local culture* (MI= 4.73 and MD= 1.11), *aid interaction with visitors* (MI= 4.73 and MD= 1.11), *streetlights* (MI= 4.72 and MD= 1.10), *presence of cultural entertainment* (MI= 4.72 and MD= 1.10), *income* (MI= 4.71 and MD= 1.09), *create sense of value and identity* (MI= 4.65 and MD= 1.03), *transportation* (MI= 4.64 and MD= 1.02), *good maintenance of festival arena* (MI= 4.63 and MD= 1.01), *age* (MI= 4.63 and MD= 1.01), *improve transport infrastructure* (MI= 4.60 and MD= 0.98), *exchange of experiences* (MI= 4.47 and MD= 0.85), *gender* (MI= 4.45 and MD= 0.83), *educational level* (MI= 4.44 and MD= 0.82), *create opportunities for shopping* (MI= 4.43 and MD= 0.81), *scenic beauty in the environment* (MI= 4.42 and MD= 0.80), *spread of tourism benefits* (MI= 4.41 and MD= 0.79), *opportunity to socialize with friends* (MI= 4.24 and MD= 0.62), and *aid preservation of heritage properties* (MI= 4.1 and MD= 0.56) among others as presented in figure 3

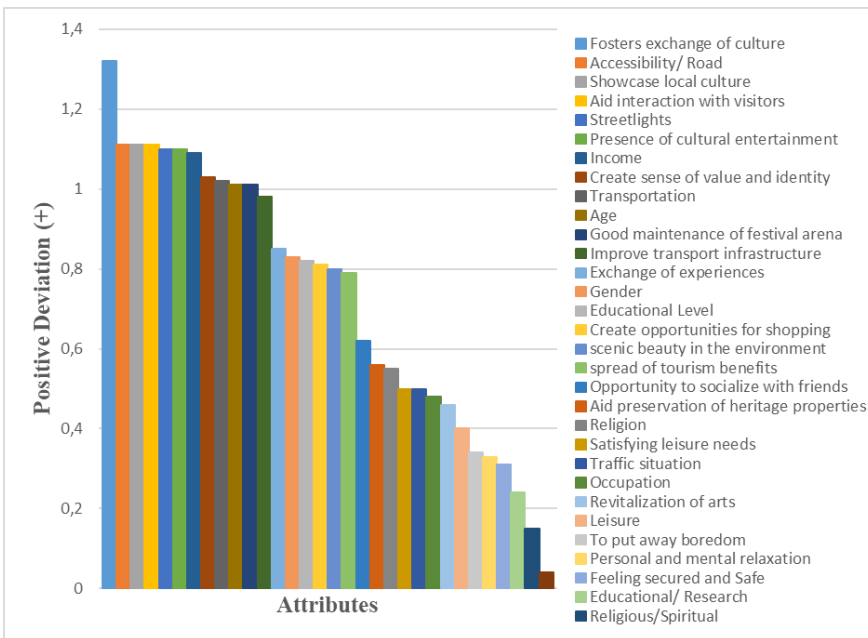


Figure 3. Positive Deviation of Attributes Influencing Patronage of Osun

Source: Authors Field Survey, 2021

The attributes with negative deviation about the mean have a spread of -0.13 to -2.31 with a range of -1.22 and mean deviance of -1.38 about the mean, meaning that the negative attributes also may not be given priority in planning for the Osun festival but should form part of the considerations. The varying indices of the negatively skewed attributes are as follows: *distance from my place of resident* (MI= 3.49 and MD= -0.13), *diversify economic activities* (MI= 3.29 and MD= -0.33), *accommodation/ lodging* (MI= 3.22 and MD= -0.40), *medical Centre* (MI= 3.16 and MD= -0.46), *sales of souvenir* (MI= 2.91 and MD= -0.71), *parking space* (MI= 2.79 and MD= -0.83), *water* (MI= 2.74 and MD= -0.88), *food/drinks/restaurants* (MI= 2.37 and MD= -1.25), *toilets* (MI= 1.99 and MD= -1.63), *playground* (MI= 1.92 and MD= -1.70), *street quality* (MI= 1.61 and MD= -2.01), *overstretched resources* (MI= 1.57 and MD= -2.05), *neatness of environment* (MI= 1.45 and MD= -2.17), *sightseeing* (MI= 1.43 and MD= -2.19), *constant power supply* (MI= 1.40 and MD= -2.22), *Chanting of songs* (MI= 1.99 and MD= -2.24), and *stimulate planning to improve amenities* (MI= 1.31 and MD= -2.31) as presented in figure 4.

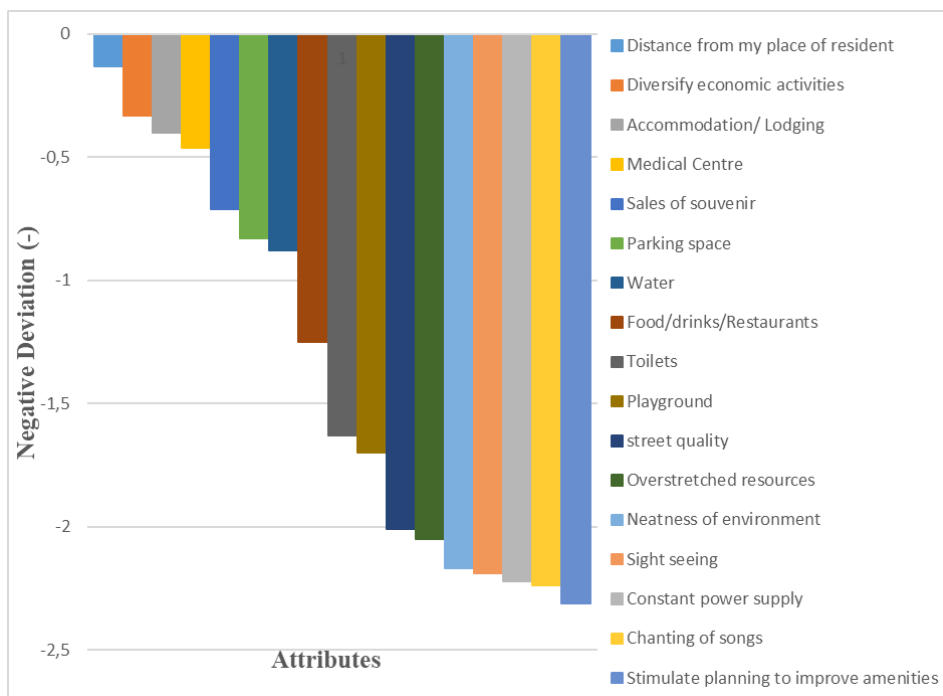


Figure 4. Negativities Deviation of Attributes Influencing Patronage of Osun

Source: Authors Field Survey, 2021

Factor Analysis on Factors Influencing Patronage of Osun Festivals

Based on the foregoing, the attributes discussed in the descriptive analysis were further subjected to factor analysis using principal component analysis with varimax

extraction. Using this method, sampling adequacy was measured with the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity, and the extracted commonalities for the three festivals. Thereafter, discussing the percentage variance explained and eigenvalues before and after extraction, components extracted, and factors loaded highly on each component, and finally, naming the components as factors based on the variables loaded highly on them. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity for the three festivals were carried out to test the suitability of the data set for factor analysis. The results indicated the sufficiency of the 49 variables loaded for factor analysis, as presented in Table 3. The KMO value of 0.779 is greater than the minimum 0.5. Bartlett’s test of sphericity chi-square value of 15660.095 and a significant value of 0.000 ($p \leq 0.05$) agree with Field (2013). Therefore, factors analysis is considered relevant and possible for this study.

Table 3
KMO and Bartlett’s Test for the Festival

KMO and Bartlett’s Test		Osun Osogbo
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.779
	Approx. Chi-Square	15660.095
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	df	1176
	Sig.	.000

Source: Authors Field Survey, 2021

Before extraction, the initial commonalities of the factors assumed that all variables are common, with 1.000 each. After extraction, it was observed that each variable reflects a common variance in the data set, which is evident in the proportion of the variance explained by the factors. For instance, variables with the higher associated variation are: *income (0.916)*, *spread of tourism benefits (0.912)*, *accessibility/ road (0.929)*, *leisure (0.944)*, and *revitalization of arts (0.916)*. While the other variables with low associated variations are: *the exchange of experiences and information (0.605)*, *diversified community economic activities (0.408)*, *fostering the exchange of culture (0.412)*, *creating opportunities for shopping (0.597)*, and *street quality (0.586)*. According to Kaiser’s criterion, the average commonalities after extraction are expected to be high for a reasonable representation (Field, 2013). “Where there are less than thirty (30) variable loaded into Factor Analysis and the average commonalities after the extraction is greater than 0.7 (70%), then, it is expected that not more than four (4) factors are to be extracted (Field, 2013)”. Therefore, it is important to note that this study satisfied this condition because forty-nine (49) variables were loaded for analysis with an average commonalities value. The average commonalities value is 0.798(79.8%), respectively, after extraction, which is substantial to perform Principal Component Analysis. The variance explained of factors influencing patronage of the Osun festival revealed that twelve (12) factors with initial Eigenvalues of between 1.171 and 9.331 were extracted with 79.78% as the total variance explained. Component 1 accounted for 19.04% of the total variance

explained in the original data set; component 2 accounted for 13.90%; component 3 accounted for 9.19%; component 4 accounted for 6.83%. Component 5 accounted for 5.88%, and components 6 and 7 accounted for 5.08, and 4.48%, respectively. Components 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12, respectively accounted for 3.63, 3.47, 3.19, 2.70, and 2.39% of the total variance explained.

The rotated Component Matrix is concerned with itemizing, naming, and discussing all highly loaded variables on each component after extraction. The varimax rotation method was used for this purpose. It is important to note that only variables with a value of 0.55 and above were considered highly loaded and were interpreted in the rotated component matrixes. It is equally important to know that only components with at least two (2) variables highly loaded on them will be named and interpreted, according to Agbabiaka (2016). Otherwise, any component with less than two variables loaded highly on it should be disregarded (Field, 2013). The factors influencing participation in the Osun festival are presented in table 6, and the percentage variance with the respective eigenvalue of the extracted factors. Twelve components were extracted and compressed into four factors based on similarity in the highly loaded variables on each component. Factor 1 accounted for 22.77% variance, factor 2 accounted for 20.94% variance, Factor 3 accounted for 20.29%, and the last factors accounted for 15.8% variance. Therefore, the factors influencing patronage of the Osun festival were loaded into four factors which are: Component 1 and 7 has 13 variables loaded highly on them, they are: *age (0.669)*, *gender (0.909)*, *income (0.929)*, *religion (0.903)*, *occupation (0.917)*, *presence of cultural entertainment (0.914)*, *sightseeing (0.921)*, *showcase local culture (0.840)*, *create a sense of value and identity (0.918)*, *and aid interaction with visitors (0.847)*, *aid preservation of heritage properties (0.895)*, *and revitalization of arts (0.945)*, *chanting of songs (0.935)* and they are named **Demographic/ Social Factors**.

Components 2, 9, and 10 have ten variables loaded highly. They are *leisure (0.949)*, *opportunity to socialize with friends (0.840)*, *personal and mental relaxation (0.892)*, *health benefit/convalescence (0.676)*, *educational/research (0.642)*, *exchange of experiences (0.553)*, *feeling secured and Safe (0.884)*, *religious/Spiritual (0.802)*, *to put away boredom (-0.771)*, *satisfying leisure needs (0.907)*. They are named the **Psychological/Social Factors**. Components 3, 6, 8, and 12 combined have 11 variables loaded highly on them. They are: *playground (0.782)*, *parking space (0.849)*, *streetlights (0.838)*, *medical center (0.929)*, *food/drinks/restaurants (0.596)*, *toilets (0.793)*, *water (0.809)*, *stimulate improvement of amenities (0.889)*, *street quality (0.697)*, *improve transport infrastructure (0.767)* and *spread of tourism benefits (0.943)*, and they are named **Basic Facilities/Amenities Factors**. Components 4, 5, and 11 combined have 11 variables loaded highly. They are: *accommodation/ lodging (0.934)*, *accessibility/ roads (0.953)*, *good maintenance of festival arena*

(0.687), transportation (0.909), sales of souvenir (0.877), distance from my place of residence (0.693), constant power supply (0.948), neatness of environment (0.909), traffic situation (0.945), overstretched resources (0.734), and scenic beauty in the environment (0.935), and are named **Environmental /Mobility Factors**.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Findings from the study revealed that the factors influencing patronage of the Osun festival comprise four major categories with varying contributions, they are: Socio-demographic (22.77%), Psycho-social (20.94%), Basic Facilities/Amenities (20.29% variance) and Environmental /Mobility Factors (15.8%). Invariably, 45 out of the 49 variables subjected to factor analysis contributed to explaining 79.8% variation of factors influencing patronage of the Osun festival. This means that five variables were insignificant in explaining the festival's patronage: educational level, diversified economic activities, fostering the exchange of culture, and creating opportunities for shopping. Also, other variables would explain the remaining 20.2% but were not part of the present study. Therefore, the factors influencing patronage of the Osun festival are categorized under the four factors discussed above. The implication of this study indicates that when planning for a festival of this magnitude, it is imperative to consider the demographic characteristics of the participants (Host and Guest). These characteristics (age categories, gender, marital and income status, and occupation) play a vital role in organizing a successful festival. For instance, the category of festival participants may inform the kind of extra activities to be inculcated, crime prevention mechanisms, modes of transportation, and facilities to be provided in the vicinity of the festival venues.

Similarly, basic environmental facilities and amenities may have a locational inclination in the vicinity of the festival. It is of essence to examine the locational features and peculiarities when planning to organize a mega festival. These peculiarities and features include the current environmental terrain and condition, residents' dynamics, transportation infrastructure, security, health apparatus, and personnel, representing both push and pull factors. Therefore, the following should be taken into consideration before organizing a cultural festival of similar characteristics:

First, public enlightenment on the planning procedure of the festival. This will expose and inform the host of the festival's happenings in terms of duration, rules and regulations, target victors, possible occurrence, and mitigation plan, among other information. This will also alert the consciousness of locals to accommodate the visitors. Secondly, the integration of more socially oriented activities to aid the interaction between the locals and the visitors and engage the owners of other ancillary facilities, like hoteliers, to maintain their facilities and services in preparation to accommodate

the festival visitors. Thirdly, the festival organizers should institute an effective solid waste management system during and after the festival, traffic control guidelines and adequate personnel to aid the free flow of traffic, organizing a public transport system to convey participants inward and outward the festival areas at a reduced cost, initiate crowd control mechanism through legibility and walkability principles to ease the navigation of participants within the vicinity of the festival venue. Lastly, relevant authorities in charge of the Healthcare system and environmental control agencies should be inculcated at the planning stage of the festival to evolve health policy that will enable all participants to have access to emergency free first aid treatments in case of accidents occurring. At the same time, the environmental protection agency will provide appropriate information on pollution control and population check to forestall overcrowding, among others.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The author has no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The author declared that this study has received no financial support.

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The Relationship Between Sales Success and Soft Success Factors in Travel Agencies*

Zennübe Işık¹ , Ahmet Çavuş² 

Abstract

The fact that travel agencies, one of the intermediaries of the distribution channel in the tourism sector, were seen as a business line dating to the nineteenth century. The main aim of the study is to investigate whether there is a relationship between the soft success factors (competence, reliability, empathy, communication, and responsiveness) of the type of travel agency employees and product sales success. Another aim of the study is to determine whether these two factors differ according to demographic variables. For this purpose, frequency, correlation, independent t-test, and one-way variance is used in the analysis of the data. In addition, Structural Equation analysis is used to create a model because of the correlation analysis. It is concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between the soft success factors of travel agency employees and their product sales success. It is determined that there is no significant difference between the gender of the employees and the soft success factors and product sales success. It has been observed that employees with soft success factors are more effective in sales success. No study has been found that addresses the relationship between soft success factors and sales success in travel agencies, therefore it is thought to be an original paper that will contribute to the literature in this regard.

Keywords

Travel Agencies, Soft Success Factors, Product Sales Success, Istanbul

* This study was produced from the PhD. thesis study titled "The analysis of the relationship between soft success factors and product sales achievements of personnel working at travel agency: Istanbul case".

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To cite this article: Işık, Z., & Cavuş, A. (2022). The relationship between sales success and soft success factors in travel agencies. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 301-321. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1076966>



Introduction

The phenomenon of travel has fascinated people throughout history. In the past, there was traveling, but no tourism. This is because in ancient times people did not travel for pleasure. Tourism only began when people learned to distinguish between work and pleasure, and later when the travel business flourished. As tourism evolved and became sophisticated, travel businesses have emerged that operate in an economic activity related to the permanent and regular trading of travel to meet people's demands and expectations. In tourism, a unique area where a product cannot be directly observed without purchasing, attractive travel destinations have always been considered a success factor. Today, travel agencies associated with travel organizations of the tourism industry play the role of intermediaries and consultants between suppliers and customers through attractive offers and sales of travel destinations (Elhaj & Borakeh, 2015). Service quality in travel agencies is of a great importance in gaining a competitive advantage in tourism and diversifying service products. (Ghanda Abd-Aila, 2006).

In career, employees with soft success factors are attributed great importance in recent years (Beer, 2009; Breene & Nunes, 2011). In this sense, factors such as response, competence, empathy, reliability, and communication that influence product sales success can be considered the main topics of the current study. In any job, technical knowledge, skills, and equipment are not enough for an employee to do his/her job. In addition, strong human relations should be handled for issues such as understanding the person, producing solutions to their problems, and ensuring customer satisfaction. This is related to the soft success factors that the employees have. During the relevant literature review, it is seen that studies on travel agencies were carried out (Dolnicar & Laesser, 2007; Elhaj & Borakeh, 2015; Kurtulay, 2016). However, no study is found that associates soft success factors of travel agency employees with product sales success. Therefore, this study will fill the gap in the literature and contribute to the research.

Literature Review

Travel Agency

Consumers who demand a touristic product in the tourism industry must go to the destination where that touristic product is located. This nature of the tourism industry directs consumers who want to go to tourism regions to find an intermediary. The primary intermediary firm in the tourism distribution system is travel agencies (Fuentes, 2011). A travel agency as a subcontractor is an intermediary between travelers, tourists, tourism services, and tourist products. A travel agent, as a person,

is an experienced professional and travel counselor providing public travel-related consultancy services ranging from planning and providing advice to coordinating travel arrangements within the budget of travelers (Yarcan & Çetin, 2021). It is always time-consuming and expensive process for consumers to reach information about the alternatives found in a travel agency and reach it on their effort. Besides, when consumers decide to purchase a product, this situation also causes a loss of time and effort for routine processes such as making a reservation and getting a visa (Lane & Dupre, 1997). However, customers who decide to buy a product through travel agencies do not face this kind of difficulty because travel agencies do all the work on behalf of them.

Today's business world no longer sees it as adequate for employees to have just professional and technical skills. In addition to today's business, they prefer employees who can reach their business goals effectively in the short term by using soft success factors (competence, reliability, empathy, communication, and response) equally. Therefore, travel agencies focus on whether employees have soft success factors besides their technical knowledge and skills to increase service quality and ensure customer satisfaction and loyalty. A travel agency provides consultancy on travel services, makes suggestions to prospective clients in line with their interests and within their budget, it disseminates information on accommodation units, transportation systems, tours, tariffs, product prices, and service provision clauses, it sells the product or service such as tours, air tickets, meals, etc., when demanded. The travel agency mediates the provision of travel services, obtains visas, arranges travel insurance if authorized, acts as an intermediary between consumers and suppliers, and markets and sells the products of service to providers on a retail basis with an agency agreement (Yarcan & Çetin, 2021).

Soft Success Factors

A staff member working in a business must have certain characteristics and skills to use. These skills are divided into hard skills and soft skills (Bona & Lippert, 2015). Hard skills refer to the graduation, technical knowledge, and field knowledge required to continue the work, while employee characteristics and interpersonal interaction skills refer to soft factors. The soft success factors of individuals have a significant impact on their job performance and careers, therefore they have a direct impact on the success of the business. Soft success factors play a vital role, especially in a demanding industry such as tourism that involves face-to-face communication with customers. Many studies in the literature support this idea (Bona & Lippert, 2015; Cserhati & Szabo, 2014; Spitzer, 2007). It may be helpful to explain the concepts of soft success factors such as competence, empathy, reliability, communication, and response to better understand the current research.

Competence

Depending on the latest technological developments, human resources have begun to see as a key element of competition in the business world. Employees with a high sense of belonging, the maximum contribution to the business, and most importantly the highly skilled reflection of the golden workforce profile of employers. The main feature of competencies is that they are related to what one does at work rather than one's knowledge or general personal characteristics (López-Bonilla, 2014). Individuals who are reliable, resistant to limitations, and open to change and development are seen as talented by a business. Under Klemp's definition, competence is an important characteristic that can help individuals achieve superior and efficient performance (Tang, Zhang, Ying, Wang & Tsai, 2020). Baum (2006) states that although the services in the tourism sector rely heavily on technical skills, social skills gain more importance over time.

Empathy

Empathy has a critical role in understanding the communication and relationships between people. Empathy is defined as the effort to understand and be sensitive to someone else's feelings, thoughts, and experiences. To have empathy, the first thing to do is to know the value judgment and beliefs of others and accept them. From this point of view, it is necessary to try to understand the condition but not judge the people you interact with as right/wrong or good/bad (Sparks & Callan, 1992). Having strong empathy is a crucial factor for tourism employees to establish practical face-to-face communication.

Reliability

Reliability is defined as the quality of being believed and trusted by others. Meeting consumers' demands ultimately and gaining their trust ensure tourism enterprises have a long-term competitive advantage. The employees of the tourism sector are responsible for providing practical information about the activities and services such as travel, transportation, accommodation, catering, and offering these services efficiently and on time (Stanciu & Hapenciuc, 2009).

Communication

Various knowledge and skills are required to form social groups and develop them culturally. Such knowledge and skills are created through communication. Accordingly, it is only possible for tourism businesses to provide the best quality service with the practical and healthy communication among employees (Xiao & Smith, 2010). Through healthy, empathetic, and effective communication between the employee and the customer, conflicts are minimized, issues are resolved, and customers' demands, needs, and expectations are maximized.

Response

Customer satisfaction plays a vital role in every service provider, and it is a key focus for tourism organizations. As it is common across all businesses, customers of the tourism industry want to be satisfied with their services. Customer satisfaction is a type of insurance and declaration: “Investing in customer satisfaction is like getting an insurance policy. (Zehrer & Pechlaner, 2006). In this sense, the response is defined as the rapid and timely delivery of services to improve the quality of businesses. The quality of the response includes not only responding quickly but also giving the correct answer to the questions asked.

Sales Success

The existence of man has brought along the coexistence of certain needs. As a result of these needs, the term “sales” was born. A sale is a transaction between the buyer and the seller where the buyer receives tangible or intangible goods and services for a specified price (Pearson, Barker & Elliott, 1957). It is not always necessary to need a sales action. Sometimes consumers will be able to buy with a strong persuasion to use them later, even if they do not need the goods they purchase in the short term. Therefore, persuasion techniques are widely used in the tourism industry, especially in touristic product sales and services provided to customers. In this respect, sales development seems to be important as the sum of all activities that represent the rapid distribution of tourism products and services. Seeking to increase sales and marketing shares, travel agencies implement sales development methods to encourage training programs in product and service marketing. At the same time, they apply sales development methods to be affected by seasonal fluctuations at a minimum level. The sales development methods implemented by travel agencies are for customers, agents, and the sales force.

While one of the most effective ways to attract and retain customers in the business is to produce quality goods and services, the other way is to employ fully equipped, competent, empathetic, and reliable sales representatives with practical communication skills (Evanschitzky, Sharma & Prykop, 2012). In addition, the better the sales representatives, who are the most important elements of the business, are trained, the more successful they will be in representing the business and the more qualified the information they will receive from the market.

Methodology

Aim and Scope

The study aims to determine whether there is a relationship between soft success factors (competence, reliability, empathy, communication, and response) and product

sales success, and whether product sales success levels vary according to demographic characteristics.

It is determined that many studies have been conducted on travel agencies in the literature. These studies are about the topics such as customer satisfaction (Evanschitzky, H., Sharma, A. & Prykop, C., 2012; Zehrer & Pechlaner, 2006), marketing strategy (Dolnicar & Laesser, 2007), sales development techniques (Baltacı, 2015; Kurtulay, 2016), e-trade usage in travel agencies (Elhaj & Borakeh, 2015), sustainability (Marin-Pantelescu, Tăchiciu, Căpușneanu and Topor, 2019), service quality (Ghanda Abd-Aıla, 2006; Jones & Hoven-Tang, 2005) and employees' job satisfaction (Pearson, J. B., Barker, H. H. & Elliott, R. D., 1957).

As it is understood from above, no study has been found in travel agencies that address the relationship between soft success factors and sales success. Therefore, this study is thought to be an original paper that will contribute to the literature in this regard.

Research Hypotheses

H₁. There is a meaningful relationship between the soft success factors (competence, reliability, empathy, communication, and response) of travel agency employees and product sales success.

H₂. The soft success factors of travel agency employees vary significantly by gender.

H₃. The product sales success of travel agency employees differs significantly by gender.

H₄. Soft success factors of travel agency employees vary significantly according to tourism education.

The survey was conducted for employees at type A travel agencies in Istanbul. According to TÜRSAB (The Association of Turkish Travel Agency) data in 2019, there were a total of 6716 travel agencies in Turkey, excluding Istanbul. 6607 of them were type A. There were 3524 travel agencies in total in Istanbul. 3455 of them were type A. (Istanbul Tourism Statistics Report, 2019). In summary, 34.4% of the travel agencies in Turkey were in Istanbul and according to figure 1, 98% of these agencies were type A. Therefore, Istanbul was selected as the research field. Travel agencies selected in Istanbul were in the neighborhoods of Beşiktaş (Harbiye), Fatih (Sultanahmet Square), Beyoğlu, Şişli, Kadıköy, Bakırköy, Üsküdar and Ümraniye.

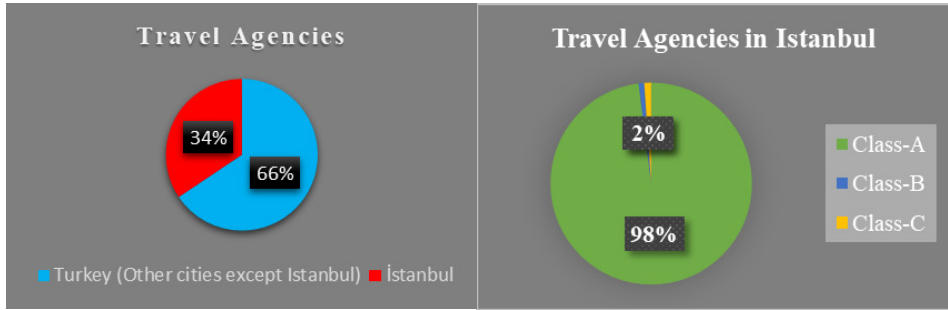


Figure 1. Distributions of Travel Agencies in Istanbul (%)

Source: Istanbul Tourism Statistics, 2019

In terms of employment, travel agencies may be said to be an indispensable source of income for people, and during the fieldwork, it was shown that a significant number of people worked in travel agencies.

To reach the total number of employees, an official letter was written to the Association of Turkish Travel Agency. However, they stated that they do not have information about the number of employees in the agencies in their system, but that at least one IT personnel should be employed in each agency. Therefore, the approximate total number of employees was calculated by multiplying the total number of type A travel agencies; and the population of the research is 51,825 employees.

Due to factors such as time, budget limitations (Hsieh, Bloch & Larsen, 1998), and the difficulty of reaching 51,825 travel agency employees, it was determined that the sample size should be 383, considering the sampling studies of Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan (2004). The convenience sampling method has been preferred for reasons such as being relatively easy to reach the sample and not being stuck in any place or any time constraint.

Data Collection Instruments

After determining the topic, population, and sample of the study, data collection instruments (Sajjad Kabir, 2016) were selected. It was decided to use a questionnaire consisting of three sections, which are explained below. Before conducting the questionnaire, participants were assured of the confidentiality of the data. In the first part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to complete a section including demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, education, tourism education level, position, and tenure. In the second section, the questions aiming to measure travel agency employees' attitudes toward soft success factors were asked using the scale prepared by Regina Baumgartner. On this scale, there were 22 statements for measuring the soft success factors of travel agency employees.

These statements were categorized under five dimensions: reliability, competence, empathy, communication, and response. In the third section of the questionnaire, employees' product sales successes were measured on a scale that (Bağcı, 1999) were designed. This scale is composed of 21 statements, and those 21 statements cover seven dimensions of discovering potential customers, preparation, communication, presentation of sale, taking objections and solving them, closing the sale and after-sale follow-up.

Findings Related to Normal Distribution of Data

Sometimes in social sciences, normality tests can give problematic results. Therefore, checking the skewness coefficient and kurtosis can help avoid such problems and give more reliable results (Cisar & Cisar, 2010). The values for skewness and kurtosis between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable to prove normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010), and the acceptable range for skewness or kurtosis below +1.5 and above -1.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2015). In this context, Skewness and Kurtosis values were checked to identify whether the analysis methods were to be either parametric or non-parametric by testing their availability for normal distribution (Işık, 2019).

The values obtained because of the test are given in parentheses. (Discovering Potential Customers Skewness -.086; Kurtosis .480; Preparation S=.456, K= -.329; Communication S=-.472, K=.107; Sale Presentation S=.129, K=-.515; Objections And Solving S=.416, K=-.886; Sale Closing S=.140, K=-.694; After-Sale Follow Up S=-.785, K=1.056; Reliability S=-1.387, K=1.732; Competence S=-1.222, K=1.125; Empathy S=-2.000, K=2.000; Communication S=-1.500, K=2.000; Response S=1.439, K=1.890). Accordingly, since the Skewness and Kurtosis values between -2 and +2 are acceptable, the data conformity to the normal distribution has been proven (Kunnan, 1998).

Data Analysis

After a thorough analysis of the questionnaires conducted on travel agency employees, those that can be used scientifically were transferred into SPSS 20.0 for Windows software. Following the deletion of useless questionnaire forms, the analysis was conducted on 417 questionnaire forms. To prepare a table of demographic variables, frequency analysis (percentage), central tendency measures (mean), and variability measures (standard deviation) were carried out to determine the level of each dimension. Moreover, demographic profiles of the employees and reliability test results for each scale were given.

The researchers used SPSS 20.0 for Windows software to empirically test the research problems by employing correlation analysis, independent sample t-tests,

and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Besides, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to test the constructs' relationships by using LISREL Software.

Results

As an indicator of internal consistency reliability and homogeneity (George & Mallery, 2010) in measuring travel agency employees' soft success factors, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were measured. The results obtained from this measurement are demonstrated in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Descriptive and Reliability Analysis of the Soft Success Factors and Product Sales Success Scale

SOFT SUCCESS FACTORS SCALE						
Factor Name	N	Max.	Min.	S.D	\bar{X}	(α)
Reliability	417	1.38	5.00	.54195	4.3861	.852
Competence	417	1.57	5.00	.51930	4.3015	.852
Empathy	417	1.33	5.00	.63638	4.1639	.852
Communication	417	1.50	5.00	.75751	4.1367	.852
Response	417	1.00	5.00	.74755	4.1151	.852
PRODUCT SALES SUCCESS SCALE						
Factor Name	N	Min.	Max.	S.D	\bar{X}	(α)
Discovering Potential Customer	417	1.33	5.00	.65861	3.5867	.821
Preparation	417	1.33	5.00	.67846	3.3957	.821
Communication	417	1.00	5.00	.66248	3.8825	.821
Sale Presentation	417	1.67	5.00	.65244	3.6747	.821
Objections And solving	417	1.00	5.00	.94294	3.1071	.821
Sale Closing	417	1.00	5.00	.72750	3.4652	.821
After-Sale Follow Up	417	1.33	5.00	.63751	3.8753	.821

According to Table 1, Cronbach's alpha of the scale of soft success factors was found to be 0.852 exceeding the threshold of 0.7, which indicates that statements are internally consistent with each other. On the other hand, as an indicator of internal consistency reliability and, homogeneity in measuring travel agency employees' product sales success, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were measured. Cronbach's alpha of the scale of product sales success was found to be 0.821, which is above the minimum value for reliability (0.70), indicating that statements were internally consistent with one another. When checking the validity of a measurement model, in addition to the goodness-of-fit indices, it is important to find specific evidence of construct validity (Hair et al., 2009). Thus, the convergent validity of soft success factors was assessed by checking factor loadings and significance level shown in figure 2. Nearly all standardized factor loadings were above 0.5 and statistically significant.

Demographic Profiles of the Respondents

In this research, frequency analysis was used to determine the respondents' demographic information, namely their gender, age, marital status, education level, years of service in the sector and the enterprise, and having a tourism education.

Among the 417 respondents, there was nearly an equal distribution of male (42.2%) and female (57%) respondents. Considering the respondents' age interval, 18% of the sample, were in the age group of 39–45 years; the 32-38 age group accounted for 17.7% of participants and 16.8% of respondents were aged between 46 and 52. Therefore, it can be indicated from the questionnaire that the younger age groups constitute the majority of respondents. Among those respondents, 56.8% were married, and 43.2% were single.

It was found that nearly 37 and 32.4% of the respondents were university and high school graduates, whereas 10.1% of the participants had MA degrees. As for tourism education, 40.8% of respondents replied “never” to the question “Did you have a tourism education background?” It is alarming that the majority of employees did not have a tourism education background. Nearly 33% of the respondents had worked less than six years in this industry, and 23.5% had six to ten years of work experience. Respondents who had 11 to 15 years of experience accounted for 13.9% and 8.9% of them had worked for 16 to 20 years.

On the other hand, the respondents' rate with experience longer than 25 years accounted for 11.0% of all participants. Therefore, it can be interpreted that those whose years of service exceeded five constituted most respondents. 42% of respondents uttered that they worked in the same enterprise for between 1 and 5 years. The rate of those with work experience in the same enterprise for between 6 and 10 years accounted for 47.6%. Also, 6.2% of respondents indicated working in the same enterprise for over 25 years, and these were mostly the owners of agencies.

Testing Hypotheses

H₁: There is a significant relationship between soft success factors (competence, reliability, empathy, communication, and response) of travel agency employees and product sales success.

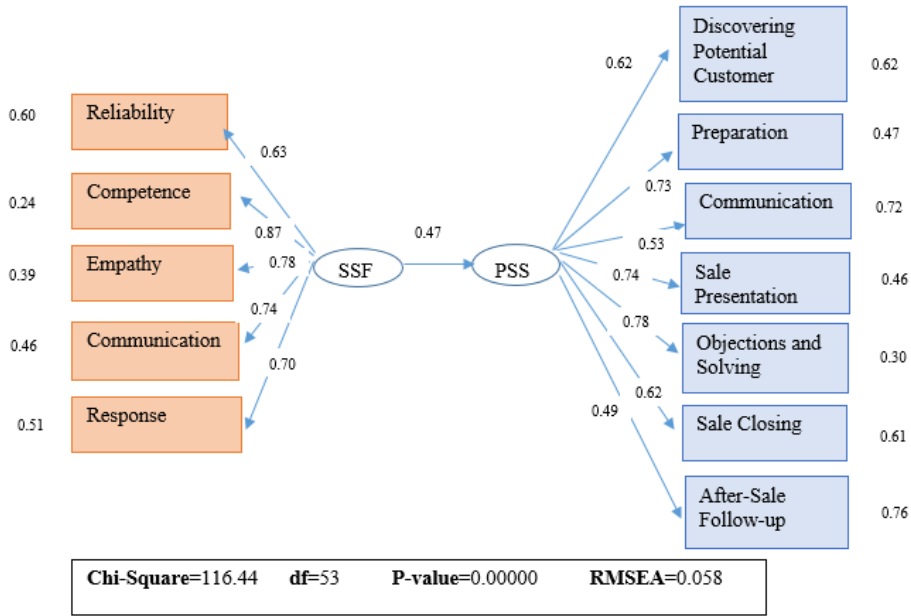
To test this research question, a correlation analysis was conducted. The findings are demonstrated in Table 3.

Table 2
Inter-Correlations among Study Variables

Factors	Discovering potential customers	Preparation	Communication	Sale Presentation	Objections And solving	Sale Closing	After-Sale Follow Up
Reliability	.232*	.226*	.278*	.360*	.243*	.170*	.423*
Competence	.342*	.274*	.342*	.437*	.285*	.123*	.505*
Empathy	.296*	.110*	.222*	.248*	.139*	.054*	.319*
Communication	.249*	.166*	.226*	.200*	.113*	.014*	.290*
Response	.347*	.284*	.173*	.268*	.237*	.101*	.295*

Sig 2 – Tailed = 0,000

The correlations among the variables are presented in Table 2; the figures show no negative correlation. All the factors were loaded significantly ($p < .005$) onto theoretically relevant factors under investigation in this study (Schober & Boer, 2018). In this sense, it was inferred that soft success factors and product sales success factors were positively, significantly, and weakly related. To specify the relationships between the soft success factors and product sales success and their posited underlying factors, the confirmatory factor analysis was used. Findings according to the measurement model are given in Figure 2 and Table 3 below.



**SSF: Soft Success Factors, PSS: Product Sales Success

Figure 2. Structural model with path results

From the confirmation of model fit, it can be understood that model shows that soft success factors are positively and significantly related to product sales success variables with adequate model-fit statistics. Thus, factor loadings, the path coefficient value, and significance level together indicate that the model is thriving at a satisfactory level.

Table 3

Model Fit Indices of the Relationship between Soft Success Factors and Product Sales Success

X ² /df	CFI	RMSEA	RMR	NFI	RFI	GFI	IFI	AGFI	R ²	R
116,44/53	.96	.058	.041	.95	.95	.090	.95	.87	.47	.22

As seen in the proposal of model fit indices given in Table 3, the confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, and soft success factors fit was empirically investigated as a predictor of product sale success. According to the number of indexes gathered through the model fit, soft success factors positively and significantly affect the product sales success (R = .22, p < 0.05). (*H₁ accepted*).

H₂: Soft success factors of travel agency employees differ significantly by gender.

To find responses to this question, an Independence Samples t-test was conducted. The results of the test are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Significance Levels of the Variance in Soft Success Factors by Gender Based on T-Test Results

Factor	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P Value (Sig. 2-Tailed)
Reliability	Female	176	4.3963	.55588	.743
	Male	241	4.3786	.53258	
Competence	Female	176	4.2670	.63061	.248
	Male	241	4.3266	.41947	
Empathy	Female	176	4.1458	.73520	.621
	Male	241	4.1770	.55445	
Communication	Female	176	4.1960	.84680	.172
	Male	241	4.0934	.68359	
Response	Female	176	4.1449	.74087	.488
	Male	241	4.0934	.75319	

In t-test analysis, the effect of binary variables on the dependent variable is checked, and predictions are made, taking it criterion for the p-value to be lower than 0.05 (Ugoni & Walker, 1995). When the t-test results were analyzed, every factor was seen to have p values greater than 0.05. Therefore, it can be said that there was not any significant relationship between soft success factors of the respondents by their gender. (H_2 rejected).

H_3 : The product sales success of travel agency employees shows a significant difference according to gender.

To test the scale factors of the second problem by gender, Independent Samples t-test was conducted. The results are demonstrated in Table 5.

Table 5
Significance Levels of the Variance in Product Sales Success by Gender Based on T-Test Results

Factors	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P Value (Sig. 2-Tailed)
Discovering Potential Customers	Female	176	3.6023	.65583	.681
	Male	241	3.5754	.66176	
Preparation	Female	176	3.3693	.68496	.498
	Male	241	3.4149	.67445	
Communication	Female	176	3.8902	.68308	.840
	Male	241	3.8769	.64841	
Sale Presentation	Female	176	3.6875	.66204	.732
	Male	241	3.4653	.64657	
Objections And solving	Female	176	3.1515	.95140	.412
	Male	241	3.0747	.93737	
Sale Closing	Female	176	3.4375	.75585	.507
	Male	241	3.4855	.70769	
After-Sale Follow Up	Female	176	3.9015	.64470	.474
	Male	241	3.8562	.63287	

As the t-test results were investigated, every factor was seen to have p values greater than 0.05. Accordingly, it can be said that there was not any significant relationship among product sale success levels in terms of the gender variable. (H_3

rejected.). Kurtulay (2018) concluded in his study on travel agencies that gender has no effect on product sales. In this direction, the literature was supported.

H₄: Soft success factors of travel agency employees show a significant difference according to tourism education.

H_{4a}: Finding potential customers differs according to tourism education.

H_{4b}: The preparation stage differs according to the tourism education.

H_{4c}: Communication differs according to tourism education.

H_{4d}: The sales presentation differs according to the tourism education.

H_{4e}: Receiving and resolving objections differs according to tourism education.

H_{4f}: Closing sales differs according to tourism education.

H_{4g}: After-sales follow-up differs according to tourism education.

One-way ANOVA was used to test these question statements to fulfill the research purpose; the results obtained are shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Significance Levels of Variance in Product Sales Success of The Participants in Respect to Their Tourism Education Levels

Factors	Education Level	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degree Of Freedom	Chi Square	F	P Value Sig.
Discovering Potential Customers	Never	3.5784	.70365	3	.172	.396	.756
	High School Level	3.5263	.61058				
	Graduate Level	3.5857	.61060				
	Certificate	3.6466	.66126				
Preparation	Never	3.4314	.70468	3	.467	.014	.386
	High School Level	3.3860	.65402				
	Graduate Level	3.3022	.65801				
	Certificate	3.4498	.66551				
Communication	Never	3.9000	.66454	3	1.771	4.127	.007
	High School Level	3.6433	.61676				
	Graduate Level	3.8629	.72678				
	Certificate	4.0361	.55586				
Sale Presentation	Never	3.7667	.64036	3	.965	2.288	.078
	High School Level	3.6140	.59023				
	Graduate Level	3.5670	.70871				
	Certificate	3.6667	.62686				

	Never	3.2451	.88344				
Objections And Solving	High School Level	3.1170	.90740	3	.053	3.495	.016
	Graduate Level	2.8723	.98905				
	Certificate	3.1205	.98164				
	Never	3.5588	.68284				
Sale Closing	High School Level	3.5731	.74736	3	1.772	3.403	.018
	Graduate Level	3.3988	.69052				
	Certificate	3.2851	.81506				
	Never	4.0039	.62069				
After-Sale Follow Up	High School Level	3.8421	.53491	3	2.816	7.241	.000
	Graduate Level	3.6511	.65937				
	Certificate	3.9237	.63827				

When looking at Table 6, it is seen that level of tourism education has a partial effect on product sales success. Table 11 indicates that the p values of the factors “discovering potential customers,” “preparation,” and “sale presentation” are respectively 0.756, 0.386, and 0.078. These are all higher than the critical value of 0.05. This means that the differences in the scores for these factors regarding the respondents’ education level are not significant. The p values for the differences in “communication,” “objections and solving,” “sale closing “and” after-sale follow-up” scores with respect to the level of tourism education are below the critical value of 0.05, indicating that the scores of the participants for these four factors are significantly different by their tourism education levels.

Table 7

TUKEY Post Hoc test for Communication Factor, Objections and Solving Factor, Sale Closing Factor and After-sale Follow up Factor

Factor	Education Level	Standard Deviation	Sig.
Communication	High School- Never	.10027	.053
	High School- Graduate	.10743	.173
	High School- Certificate	.11270	.003
Factor	Education Level	Standard Deviation	Sig.
Objections And solving	High school- Never	.14304	.807
	High School- Graduate	.11533	.007
	High School- Certificate	.12514	.752
Factor	Education Level	Standard Deviation	Sig.
Sale Closing	High school- Never	.11046	.999
	High School- Graduate	.08906	.276
	High School- Certificate	.09664	.025
Factor	Education Level	Standard Deviation	Sig.
After-Sale Follow Up	High school- Never	.09545	.327
	High School- Graduate	.07696	.000
	High School- Certificate	.08351	.772

Table 7 shows the variance in travel agency employees’ communication factor, objections and solving factor, sale closing factor, and after-sale follow-up factor success concerning their education levels in tourism. The figures show that there is a significant variance in their communication success scores according to whether they have a high school or certificate levels of tourism education (Sig. 0,003). According to the values, the success of travel agency employees in objections and solving factor vary at a significant level to whether they have high school and graduate level tourism education (Sig. 0,007). According to the findings given sale closing success levels have significant variance among travel agency employees according to whether they have a high school or certificate education (Sig. 0,025). As shown in the table, participants’ scores for after-sale follow-up factors, one of the sales success scale factors, significantly vary by being a high school or university graduate (Sig. 0.000). In this context,

Q4_a: X	Q4_c: ✓
Q4_b: X	Q4_f: ✓
Q4_c: ✓	Q4_g: ✓
Q4_d: X	

Discussion

Consideration of travel agencies, one of the intermediaries of the distribution channel in the tourism sector, as a business line dates to the nineteenth century. These travel agencies, which offered simple travel services initially, serve millions of domestic and foreign tourists and provide thousands of people with various employment opportunities today. Moreover, the travel agencies introducing tourists to the best service and high quality have been regarded as the intermediary agencies which bring tourist product producers and the people who consume these products together by establishing strong bonds between these two parties (Ghada Abd- Alla, 2006).

The dynamic nature, accomplishment of aims, and sustainable competitive capacities of travel agencies are only possible by the competent, emphatic, reliable, and communicative employees but at the same time who can respond to the questions, demands, and objections of customers effectively. The employees can be successful in adaptation and product sales in this way, too.

Evaluation of the findings of the current study about the subsequent studies’ findings from the relevant literature would be useful for better communication and understanding.

Tastan, 2008; In his study on customer complaints and solutions in package tours organized by travel agencies, he stated that customers mostly complain about hotel changes and the fact that the prices in the advertisements do not match the actual prices. It is concluded that the agencies resolved the complaints with courteous behavior. At this point, finding a relationship between soft success factors and sales success in the current study supports the literature.

In the work of Dolnicar & Laesser (2007) titled “Marketing Strategies of Travel Agencies,” it was found that tourism producers benefit from travel agencies on time, knowledge, and reservation when they are unfamiliar with recommended destinations. Also, travel agencies are preferred for vacations extending a week, whereas they are not preferred for shorter vacations. On the other hand, a non-significant weak relationship was found between the selection of destination and accommodation time.

In his work on personal sales in travel agencies, Kurtulay, 2016, concluded that tourism education and pricing policy do not influence motivation. In contrast, gender and education level do not influence presentation performance and ethics, and long-term employment and service time do not influence sales orders. At this point, current study supports the literature.

Baltacı, 2015; In his research on the sales promotion efforts of travel agencies, he found that the importance given to sales promotion activities is not related to tourism education and duration of activity. In the current study, receiving tourism education partially affects sales success.

As the research on travel agencies was investigated, it was found that there has been no research that explores the relationship between travel agency personnel’s behavior towards customers and sales success. Therefore, this research intends to close the research this gap in the travel agency literature.

Conclusion

During the relevant literature review, it was observed that studies were conducted on travel agencies. However, there is no study linking soft success factors of travel agency employees with product sales success. That’s why the article is unique. Likewise, filling the literature gap on this subject and contributing to the literature make this study meaningful. The sub-dimensions of the soft success factors; trustworthiness, competence, empathy, communication, responsiveness, and sub-factors of sales success, finding potential customers, sale closure, and after-sale tracking were analyzed through correlation analysis to uncover the possible relationship. In the correlation analysis, to determine the degree of relationship, a structural equation model was utilized. The hypothetical structural and conformity index data revealed

that the soft success factors are essential predictors of sales success. According to the number of indexes gathered through the model fit soft success factors impact sales success positively, and this impact is significant (22%). With this article, it has been observed that employees with soft success factors are more effective in sales success. In addition to that, the analysis showed that travel agency personnel's soft skills are not dependent on gender demographics. No significant relationship was found between gender and soft skill factors.

Similarly, gender demographics were found to have no significant impact on sales success as well. On the other hand, agency personnel's sales success was partially impacted by potential customer readiness, preparedness, and sales pitch. Besides, sales success was found to be significantly impacted by communication, complaint appraisal and solution, sales closure, and after-sales tracking.

Limitations, Future Research Directions and Practical Implications

When the surveys were implemented, some agencies refused to fill in the questionnaire due to the busy season. Data was lost because some of the participants filled in the questionnaires incompletely or incorrectly.

In this study, the dimensions of reliability, empathy, communication, responsiveness, and competence are emphasized. Academicians who will work on this issue may be interested in different dimensions such as information quality and different perspectives. This research was conducted only in Istanbul, which had the largest A-class travel agency. Future researchers can compare travel agency employees in several different provinces in terms of soft success factors.

With this article, it was observed that employees with soft success factors are more effective in sales success. We think that we have contributed to the literature with this study. Based on this, we recommend that business owners prefer employees with high soft success factors. With research, travel agency staff can shed light on the need to develop soft success factors to increase success in sales performance. Travel agents can develop career management strategies to retain highly successful salespeople. Travel agencies can organize training periods for their employees by analyzing the current personnel profile to increase sales success to provide a competitive advantage.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: Z.I., A.Ç.; Data Acquisition: Z.I.; Data Analysis/Interpretation: Z.I.; Drafting Manuscript: Z.I.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: Z.I., A.Ç.; Final Approval and Accountability: Z.I., A.Ç.

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Tour Guide Competence in Gastronomy Tours

Abdullah Ülkü¹ , Levent Selman Göktas² 

Abstract

This qualitative study investigates the competence of gastronomy tour guides using content analysis. Semi-structured interviews were conducted between 14 and 20 December 2021 with 20 professional tour guides with at least 8 years' experience who conduct gastronomy tours in Gaziantep, Türkiye. The following 14 themes emerged from the content analysis: level of knowledge, audio-visual media, cultural predisposition, occupational competence, specialization, culture, education/training, knowledge of products, knowledge of places for food and beverages, problem-solving skills, communication, ability to empathize, recipes, and culinary culture. The findings revealed that tour guides should know about the gastronomic elements that they present and the connection of these elements with the region's cultural and social structure. The tour guides' presentations are not well-structured in terms of the comprehensiveness of the information presented and their choice of words. Gastronomic tour guides should therefore acquire information from reliable sources and learn more about tourist psychology, tourism sociology, personal development, and communication skills, including effective and eloquent speaking.

Keywords

Tour Guide, Gastronomy Tour, Gastronomy Tourism, Competence, Gaziantep

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To cite this article: Ulku, A., Goktas, L. S. (2022). Tour guide competence in gastronomy tours. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 323-350. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1135008>



Introduction

Centered in Anatolia, Türkiye has hosted a wide range of civilizations over a millennia. This long history has given the region an important position in tourism through its historical and cultural assets (Akyıldız & Olğun, 2020). As a key profession for establishing social and cultural bonds between visitors and the tourism destination, tour guides have a prominent role (Jensen, 2010). For visitors, a guide is not only an individual who accompanies the tour and speaks a common language but also an intermediary who makes the unknown or complex become more understandable and simpler (Santos Veloso & dos Santos Queirós, 2019). Tour guides also enable visitors to establish connections with local people or the region's particular values (İrigüler & Güler, 2015). Given Türkiye's rich cultural diversity, tour guides may choose to specialize in certain areas of interest, which can provide added value, such as "high performance, service delivery at good quality, and competitive advantage for destinations" (Koroğlu & Gudu Demirbulat, 2017).

The growing diversity of consumer needs has increased the demand for gastronomy tourism (De Jong et al., 2018). Gastronomy tourism adds a competitive advantage to a given destination (Dirlik & Karsavuran, 2019), helps it create a unique identity (Pavlidis & Markantonatou, 2020), helps sustain the local culture, and contributes to the economy (Çalışkan, 2013). Given its millennia of culinary culture and its food and beverage diversity, Türkiye offers great potential for gastronomy tourism (Küçükkömürler et al., 2018). It is therefore essential for the country's tourism industry to promote this potential through specialized tour guides. Currently, although gastronomy tours are organized in Türkiye, many are far from being purely food oriented (Kızılırmak et al., 2016).

A number of researchers have studied tourist guiding and gastronomic tourism, such as from the perspective of tourist guides (Altıntaş & Hazarhun, 2020; Cankül & Yalçınkaya, 2021; İrigüler & Güler, 2015; Sahoo, 2020). Other studies have investigated specialization in gastronomy conceptually (Başoda et al., 2018), perceptions of students studying tourist guiding in gastronomy tours (Kök et al., 2021), the effect of tourist guides' gastronomic information on tourists' recommendation intentions (Akay & Özöğütçü, 2019), and tourists' perceptions of professional tourist guides in gastronomy tours (Seyitoğlu, 2020).

İrigüler & Güler (2015) note that not enough tourist guides currently specialize in gastronomy tours. Başoda et al., (2018) suggest that gastronomy expertise should be studied from the perspective of tourist guides, while Akay & Özöğütçü (2019) recommend conducting more studies of the relationship between gastronomy tourism and tourist guidance. According to Altıntaş & Hazarhun (2020), tourist guides should have a good command of their region's local cuisine and provide tourists with detailed

information about the cuisine's culture. Kök et al., (2021) call for more studies on gastronomy guiding while Seyitoğlu (2020) argue that studies based on face-to-face interviews with gastronomy tour participants should be conducted to obtain richer data.

Given these findings and recommendations, further research should investigate the skills and abilities of tourist guides working on gastronomy tours. To our knowledge, no study has yet directly interviewed tourist guides about this. In addition, no study has examined gastronomy tour guides' presentations to tourists. The present study aims to fill this gap in the literature.

Accordingly, this study evaluates the gastronomy knowledge and guidance competence of professional tour guides in Gaziantep, Türkiye. As revealed in the literature review below, few studies have investigated this topic, while the research that dominates the literature mainly focuses on destination satisfaction (Prat Forga & Valiente, 2014; Erşahin & Kızılırmak, 2019; Kesici & Çakır, 2020) and tourists' satisfaction with gastronomy tour guides (Kılıçlar & Çevrimkaya, 2019). The present study was conducted in Gaziantep province, Türkiye, which has experienced high demand for gastronomy-oriented visits since it was granted the title of City of Gastronomy as part of the UNESCO Creative Cities Network.

Literature Review

Guided Gastronomy Tours

A number of studies have revealed that tourist involvement in and preference for food in a given destination may play a significant role in destination choices (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Kivela & Crotts, 2006; López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012; Özaltaş Serçek & Serçek, 2015; Pou Sio et al., 2021). Local or interesting foods may direct tourists' attention and motivate them to visit a particular destination, such as Italian cuisine (Boyne et al., 2002) or far eastern and Asian cuisines (Ab Karim et al., 2010). Accordingly, specialized tour operators organize regular gastronomy tours to Asia, Italy, and France while Tuscany, Provence, Melbourne, and Sydney are the most highly promoted and marketed gastronomy destinations (Kivela & Crotts, 2005).

As a tourism product, gastronomy plays a role in communicating a destination's culture, is an important attraction element, and makes tourism-related experiences more memorable. Gastronomy elements can make a destination more competitive by conveying a perception of the place and its local culture while enriching the destination's attraction elements (Yıldız, 2016).

Gastronomy tourists wish to explore the local people's culinary culture during their visits. As a key element of culture, food can represent the destination's values and lifestyle. In recent years, a leading motivation for tourism activities is gastronomy tours to familiarize visitors with different cuisines (Frost et al., 2017). Gastronomy tourism allows cultural exchange between cities and countries, thereby promoting them. Tourists not only experience gastronomy elements but also take those elements back to their countries to share with their acquaintances (De Jong et al., 2018). With its potential to attract international tourists to destinations, gastronomy tourism has blossomed into a strategic element (Hornig et al., 2010). By offering tourists a great diversity of food and beverages, a destination can increase the number of visitors, thereby adding to the revenue generated by its tourism industry (Rogerson, 2012).

The few studies in the literature examining tour guide competence in gastronomy tours highlight that tour guides are a key element in tourism, as they play a critical role in shaping both the destination's image and the experiences of visiting tourists (Huang et al., 2010). According to Weiler & Black (2014), tour guides have the following ten prominent characteristics: educator, information provider, leader, role model, social role/catalyst, mediator, traveler, manager, public relations representative, and facilitator of access to non-public areas. Tour guides play an important role in narrating and conveying the culture of destinations, which gives tourists a better grasp of the destination's culture and positively affects the overall tourist experience. (Seyitoğlu, 2020).

Knowledge about gastronomy tourism allows tour guides to present information to tourists about the historical background, cooking techniques, and manners of consuming food and beverages tasted throughout the tour (Karamustafa & Çeşmeci, 2006). To become experts in gastronomy, tour guides must specialize in the destination's local culinary culture, activities, and places (Başoda et al., 2018). Guiding for gastronomy tours has two main components: providing information to tourists about the destination's local culinary culture and enabling tourists to have novel experiences. The former refers to conveying theoretical and on-site information about all the assets and practices in a given destination; the latter refers to providing tourists with actual experiences of the destination's practices and places.

When individuals visit a culturally unfamiliar destination, they may hesitate to consume local products. This prevents them from experiencing new tastes. Instead, they consume products similar to those in their own cultures. Tour guides can change this behavior through the perceptions they create, thereby encouraging tourists to try local dishes (Mak et al., 2016). To this, however, tour guides must be able to describe menu items, provide detailed information about their ingredients, and make suggestions when needed.

Research has produced conflicting findings regarding the culinary knowledge of tour guides in Türkiye. İrigüler & Güler (2015) reported that some are deeply knowledgeable about the country's rich culinary culture and offer significant potential for gastronomy tourism, although they also noted that it is necessary to specialize in gastronomy tour guiding. Cankül & Yalçınkaya (2021) concluded that tour guides have sufficient gastronomy knowledge despite being inadequately educated or trained. They suggested that properly training professional tour guides in gastronomy could benefit both the guides themselves and the regions they serve. On the other hand, Kök et al. (2021) found that despite their confidence about their gastronomy knowledge, students in tour guiding lack information about regional differences in Türkiye's gastronomy map. They therefore suggest that gastronomy should be incorporated into tourism curricula. Similarly, Akay & Özöğütçü (2019) revealed that the majority of tour guides have no training or education in cuisine, so their knowledge is rooted in books, magazines, TV programs, and online resources. They recommended that tour guides wishing to specialize in gastronomy tourism have a good command of the local culinary culture and practices in their destinations and be able to convey such information to tourists in detail.

Methodology

This qualitative case study aims to measure the gastronomy-related competence of those working as tour guides on gastronomy tours in Gaziantep, Türkiye. Case study is a methodology in which a single case or incident is analyzed in depth, data is collected systematically, and the occurrences are examined in a natural setting. This methodology tries to explain why the incident occurred and identify what should be focused on in future research (Subaşı & Okumuş, 2017). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 tour guides who have been professional tour guides for at least 8 years and are working in gastronomy tours organized in Gaziantep. The semi-structured interview is a technique where the number and the order of questions may change depending on how the interview progresses, while other questions may be asked if they occur to the interviewer (Kozak, 2015). The interviews in the present research were held between 14 and 20 December 2021. The respondents were asked six questions (see Table 1). For the data collection tool employed in the current study, between five and 10 questions were recommended (Knox & Burkard, 2009). Particular attention was paid to whether the respondents have worked as a tour guide for at least 8 years and regularly provide gastronomy tours in Gaziantep. This study received ethical approval numbered 2021/186 from the ethical board of Harran University, Türkiye.

The study is believed to fill a gap in the literature due to the scarcity of research into tour guide competence in gastronomy tours. It was critical to adopt a qualitative analysis methodology and propose suggestions based on the collected data. Instead

of a researcher profile in traditional research methods who intends to stay out of the research process and to remain as objective as possible, in qualitative research the researcher has become part of the process. Qualitative research defines matters and facts under an unconditioned setting with an inductive approach and concentrates on grasping the perspectives of the respondents. The notable characteristics of qualitative research are that it provides the researcher with a participating role, that it is responsive to an unconditioned setting, that it adopts a holistic approach, that it allows the manifestation of perceptions, and that it is flexible (Aydın, 2018: 3). For the reasons explained above, the present study adopted a qualitative analysis methodology.

Each interview date and time was arranged according to the respondents' availability and held through the Zoom online meeting platform. Before commencing the data collection, the respondents were briefed about the interview, the topic, and the questions to be asked. All the responses were noted, and the content was analyzed using the content analysis method. An audit trail was applied to ensure validity and reliability. This technique requires another expert uninvolved in the study to examine the emerging themes and codes. The judgment of reliability is based on the expert's conclusions about the overall process (Morrow, 2005; Lincoln & Guba, 1986). Accordingly, the obtained themes and codes were examined by two academicians who are experts in gastronomy and guiding, and the final result was revealed in the direction of their reports. Reliability is also higher if the researcher has recorded the interviews and transcribed them correctly (Bal, 2016). In the present study, the interviews were made via Zoom application and transcribed accurately to ensure the study's reliability.

For the sixth question, the respondents were asked to present for the interview one of the gastronomy elements of Gaziantep that they present during the tours they guide. This question was intended to determine whether the way they present covers the gastronomy element fully and whether they demonstrate the manners expected from a tour guide. The presentations were evaluated in the light of several previous studies to determine whether the guides have sufficient knowledge of gastronomy. The respondents were not informed in advance that their knowledge would be evaluated, or that their presentations would be analyzed, to ensure that the respondents felt comfortable and made their presentations as they always do.

Table 1
Interview Questions

Interview questions	References
1. Do you believe you have sufficient knowledge of local cuisine in Gaziantep? If yes, how did you acquire the knowledge you have?	İrigüler & Güler (2015); Pavlidis & Markantonatou (2020)
2. What are the topics that tour guides should have knowledge about so as to guide a gastronomy tour?	Seyitoğlu (2020); Pavlidis & Markantonatou (2020)
3. Did you ever attend an educational or training program (course) to work as a guide in gastronomy tours? If yes, please provide brief information about it.	İrigüler & Güler (2015); Sahoo (2020)
4. What sort of questions do you receive during gastronomy tours?	İrigüler & Güler (2015); Seyitoğlu (2020)
5. What sort of problems or disputes do you face during gastronomy tours in Gaziantep? What do you do to resolve them?	İrigüler & Güler (2015); Sahoo (2020); Seyitoğlu (2020)
6. Could you please briefly present in writing a gastronomy element peculiar to Gaziantep that you use in the tours you guide?	İrigüler & Güler; (2015); Sahoo (2020); Seyitoğlu (2020); Pavlidis & Markantonatou (2020)

Research Findings

The descriptive findings about the respondents are presented in Table 2. The majority of the respondents were male (75%) and aged 30-37 years (65%). Regarding experience, 65% at least 10 years' experience as a tour guide. Regarding educational background, 35% of respondents aged 40 or over had received their tour guiding certificates by completing courses provided by the Ministry of Tourism. All the respondents with an associate degree or bachelor's degree had studied tour guiding, while 20% had a postgraduate degree. The regions where most of the respondents worked as tour guides were distributed nationally (65%). The respondents aged 37 and over with tour guide certificates from the Ministry of Tourism course predominantly work in southeastern Anatolia.

Table 2
Demographic Characteristics and Occupational Qualifications of Respondents

Code	Gender	Age	Source of Tour Guiding Certificate	Years of experience	Foreign language	Work Region
R1	Male	42	Ministry course	10 years	English	Southeastern Anatolia
R2	Male	40	Ministry course	12 years	English	Southeastern Anatolia
R3	Male	35	Undergraduate	10 years	English	Countrywide
R4	Male	37	Doctorate and undergraduate	12 years	English	Countrywide
R5	Female	38	Associate degree	10 years	English	Countrywide
R6	Male	33	Associate degree	11 years	English	Countrywide
R7	Male	51	Ministry course	14 years	English	Southeastern Anatolia
R8	Male	35	Post-graduate and undergraduate	9 years	English	Countrywide
R9	Female	37	Post-graduate and undergraduate	14 years	English	Countrywide
R10	Female	36	Undergraduate	11 years	English	Countrywide
R11	Male	33	Undergraduate	8 years	English	Countrywide

R12	Male	35	Doctorate and undergraduate	9 years	English	Countrywide
R13	Female	45	Ministry course	10 years	English	Southeastern Anatolia
R14	Male	43	Ministry course	11 years	English	Southeastern Anatolia
R15	Male	31	Undergraduate	8 years	English	Countrywide
R16	Male	32	Undergraduate	8 years	English	Countrywide
R17	Female	33	Undergraduate	8 years	English	Countrywide
R18	Male	45	Ministry course	13 years	English	Southeastern Anatolia
R19	Male	49	Ministry course	14 years	English	Southeastern Anatolia
R20	Male	34	Undergraduate	9 years	English	Countrywide

The themes and codes identified from the responses provided by the respondents are presented in Table 3. The responses were analyzed meticulously, including the frequency of the codes. Further analysis of the information in Table 3 (except for the sixth question) is based on these themes and codes. In addition, the table in which the opinions of the participants are analyzed is provided at the end of the study.

Table 3
Themes and Codes Identified by Content Analysis

Theme	Code	fi	Σfi()	%	Σ%
Level of knowledge	Experience	10	19	3.67	6.79
	Reference Works	5		1.83	
	Training	4		1.47	
Audio-visual media	TV Shows	7	15	2.57	5.50
	Social Media	6		2.20	
	Radio	2		0.73	
Cultural predisposition	Place of Birth	9	18	3.30	6.60
	Residence in Gaziantep	9		3.30	
	Cooking Techniques	8		2.94	
Occupational competence	Presentation Techniques	7	29	2.57	10.64
	Cultivation Techniques for Products Used as Ingredients	6		2.20	
	History of Food and Beverages	4		1.47	
	Nutritional Tendency	2		0.73	
	Culinary Museum	2		0.73	
Specialization	Gastronomy Activities	6	11	2.20	4.03
	Knowledge of Places for Food and Beverages	5		1.83	
Culture	Local Culture	12	28	4.41	10.28
	Local Culinary Arts	10		3.67	
	Cultural Narratives	6		2.20	
Training/Education	Experience	10	16	2.20	5.87
	Training in Local Cuisine	6		3.67	
Knowledge of products	Recipes	13	45	4.77	16.52
	Organic Products	11		4.04	
	Supply of Products	11		4.04	
Knowledge of places for food and beverages	Prices	10	36	3.67	13.22
	Menu	14		5.14	
	Sanitary conditions	14		5.14	
	Taste	8		2.94	
Problem-solving skills	Ability to Establish Dialogues	10	25	3.67	9.18
	Mediation	8		2.94	
	Ability to Propose Solutions	7		2.57	

Communication	Ability to Persuade	6	11	1.83	4.03
	Use of Body Language	5		2.20	
Ability to empathize	Empathy	8	14	2.99	6.97
	Manner of Speaking	6		2.24	

fi: frequency of each code; $\Sigma fi()$: Total frequency of each theme's codes; %: Percentage frequency of each code within each theme; $\Sigma\%$: Percentage frequency of each theme's codes within total frequency of codes

Level of Knowledge

This theme concerns how tour guides acquire their current level of knowledge to guide gastronomy tours. The majority of respondents (R1, R2, R5, R6, R7, R10, R13, R14, R18, and R19) reported that experience plays a major role. For example, R2 said: *"I believe I have a sufficient level of knowledge ... During the tours, I do my best to convey the knowledge that I have gained through my restaurant experiences."* R10 said: *"As I have lived in Gaziantep for a long time, my knowledge about the city's food and beverage culture is rich and I keep my knowledge updated by experiencing novel things as the days go by."*

Some respondents have built on their knowledge through "examination of reference works" (R1, R4, R8, R9, and R12) and "education/training" (R3, R4, R9, and R12). For example, R4 indicated that he is aware of the need for training to ensure continued self-development and that he takes steps accordingly: *"I used to review reference works to learn novel things. Then I realized that training would yield more benefits and that practical exercises as well as theoretical and practical knowledge would bring me further advantages."* Similarly, R9 said, *"I have bought a number of works describing the gastronomy and culinary culture of Gaziantep and I still read about it. Reading such publications allows you to perform better during the tours. I have gained great benefit from reading publications and reference works."*

These statements reveal that the knowledge of professional tour guides in gastronomy tours in Gaziantep mostly stem from experience and examination of reference works rather than education or training.

Audio-visual Media

Regarding the sources of their knowledge, the respondents most frequently mentioned TV shows. In recent years, the audio-visual media have unearthed a notable demand for gastronomy programs, which has particularly affected the tour guides. Accordingly, the majority of respondents learned about Gaziantep's gastronomic values of through TV shows (R1, R2, R6, R7, R14, R17, and R19) and social media. For example, R7 and R14 both said that *they learn about gastronomy by following TV shows, programs and social media about Gaziantep.*

Among the respondents, those who gained knowledge through experience, social media, and TV shows also received their employment authorization card for tour guiding via Tourism Ministry-run certification programs (R1, R2, R7, R14, and R19).

Cultural Predisposition

The respondents associated their knowledge of gastronomy with being born in Gaziantep and/or residing in Gaziantep. As R7 put it, *being born and raised in Gaziantep is a key element for him to collect knowledge about gastronomy elements in the city*. R6 stated: *"I have lived in Gaziantep for years. I can say with no hesitation that I have a perfect command of the culinary culture of this city now."* Similarly, R10 stated: *"I was born and raised in a nearby city, the culinary culture of which shows parallelism with the one in Gaziantep. Throughout my stay here I have learned more and try to reflect my experiences on the tours I guide."* These comments indicate that residing in a city for a long time allows the respondents to gain knowledge about gastronomy elements in the city concerned.

Occupational Competence

Regarding the topics that gastronomy tour guides should have knowledge of, the respondents most frequently mentioned "cooking techniques" (R4, R8, R9, R12, R15, R16, R17, and R20) followed by "presentation techniques" (R2, R4, R8, R9, R12, R15, and R16). Since gastronomy tours fall in the category of special interest tours, it is critical that the guides leading such tours have a comprehensive knowledge of gastronomy elements. More specifically, a number of respondents (R4, R8, R9, R12, R15, R16, R17, and R20) agreed on the importance of knowing how a local dish is cooked and presented, and its historical background. As R8 put it: *"The guides leading gastronomy tours should have knowledge of how the ingredients of a dish are grown and what techniques should be used for cooking ... Moreover, they should know about how a particular dish is to be presented because we receive a lot of questions from tourists in this regard."* R12 stated: *"Tour guides should know about the historical background of local dishes in a city. In Gaziantep there are culinary museums, which are a must-see element for tour guides."*

Specialization

Under this theme, the respondents most frequently mentioned "gastronomy activities," followed by "knowledge of places for food and beverages." For example, R13 said: *"I take part in gastronomy activities. For example, I always attend the international gastronomy festival in Gaziantep, strive to learn novel things, and use them in the tours I guide."* R16 said: *"You are expected to take the guests to the best restaurants offering the most delicious food. This is why we have to know about the best places in the city."*

Culture

Regarding culture, the respondents most frequently mentioned "local culture," followed by "local culinary arts." A number of respondents (R3, R4, R7, R8, R9,

R12, R16, R17, R19, and R20) agreed that tour guides must have a good command of local culture and culinary arts in a given city. R3, R8, and R16 emphasized the critical importance of local cultural knowledge: *“The guide must have information about the culture of the city. S/he must know about local culinary arts and the culinary culture in the region.”* R20 noted the importance of cultural narratives for guided tours: *“We used to listen to the stories told by our grandparents, which had elements reflecting the sociological background of the dishes. Such stories are essential for tours.”*

Training

The most frequently mentioned code for training was “experience,” followed by “training on local cuisine.” R1 stated: *“I have received no specific training in the field of gastronomy; however, I have lived in Gaziantep and worked as a tour guide for a long time, so I convey what I have gained through my experiences.”* Some respondents reported that they had attended training courses in gastronomy. For instance, R3 stated: *“I attended a one-week training course organized by the Association for Gastronomy. I believe it is an important first step, yet not enough for my development.”* Similarly, R10 said: *“I attended training organized by the metropolitan municipality of Gaziantep on local cuisine. It helped me to acquire basic knowledge on the subject.”* R9 confirmed these views: *“I studied a Master of Science in the field of gastronomy at a university. I feel glad to have received such an education.”* The interviews revealed that these ministry-certified tour guides have no specific training in gastronomy.

Knowledge of Products

Regarding product knowledge, the respondents most frequently mentioned “recipes” as tour participants most frequently ask how to prepare dishes using food products sold in Gaziantep. Respondents 2, 4, 9, 12, 15, and 16 said that they receive questions during almost every tour on how local Gaziantep dishes are prepared. For example, R4 stated: *“Almost every tour, visitors ask questions about the preparation of dishes and whether there are any preparation and cooking tricks.”* Thus, it is essential for tour guides to have such knowledge regarding local dishes.

The same number of respondents mentioned knowledge of “organic products” and “supply of products.” They noted that tourists want to buy products unique to Gaziantep during the tours. As respondents 2, 4, 9, 17, and 15 said, *they frequently receive questions from tourists on organic products and where to find them, in particular.* R17 said: *“Tourists usually ask where to find local products of Gaziantep and for advice on organic products and where to buy them.”* This theme reveals that tour guides should know about the preparation of local dishes and where to find the ingredients, particularly organic ones.

Knowledge of Places for Food and Beverages

Regarding place knowledge, the respondents most frequently mentioned menus and sanitary conditions in restaurants. The majority of the respondents (R1, R2, R4, R5, R7, R8, R9, R11, R13, R15, R17, R18, R19, and R20) agreed that they receive questions on menus. R3 stated: *“Tourists usually ask what to eat in the restaurants. Sometimes they like to see pictures of the menu.”* R13 said: *“I receive a lot of questions about the dishes on the menus. They ask whether there are restaurants with a distinctive menu.”*

Almost all respondents (R1, R3, R4, R5, R6, R7, R9, R10, R11, R12, R14, R16, R17, and R18) said that tourists bear negative perceptions about sanitary conditions in the region. They highlighted that the region has a negative image in certain matters and that they receive many hygiene-related questions. R9 stated: *“Hygiene is a critical element in gastronomy tours ... Rightfully, tourists would like to know about what they eat and the conditions in which they are prepared.”* Similarly, R15 said: *“The question of whether the place has appropriate sanitary conditions is always asked. We receive questions ranging from bathroom hygiene to cleanliness of dining tables.”*

Thus, it is critical for participants on gastronomy tours that the tour guides have detailed information about the menus. In addition, some tourists would like to try several dishes at the same time. This theme has also revealed one of the characteristics and missions of tour guides. That is, by selecting decent restaurants and communicating sincerely with tourists, tour guides may help reverse tourists' negative perception regarding sanitary conditions in the region's restaurants.

Problem-solving Skills

As with many tours, gastronomy tour guides face challenges. Consequently, the respondents most frequently mentioned “Ability to establish a dialogue.” R1, R2, R5, R7, R10, R12, R14, R15, R17, R18, and R19 all reported being challenged by various problems, especially regarding restaurants, and that they try to resolve disputes through dialogue. R7 stated: *“I get negative reactions from tourists about service quality in restaurants and the high prices they set for certain products. In such a case, I try to have a dialogue with the owner of the restaurant or the person in charge.”* R12 said: *“You need to set the tone by observing the person you are addressing. For the problems concerning hygiene and service personnel, which we face quite frequently, I choose to establish a dialogue before the tension escalates.”* The respondent touched on the importance of dialogue in problem-solving.

Another code identified under this theme is “mediation.” A mediator refers to a person who helps the parties find common ground in a dispute. R3, R4, R6, R7,

R9, R11, R12, and R15 all reported acting as a mediator, especially over prices and ingredients. For example, R9 stated: *“The fact that certain local products have high price tags may drive tourists to react harshly toward business owners ... In such a case, in order to find common ground, I ask for a discount from the business owner while kindly requesting from the guests to calm their temper.”* R6 mentioned problems when tasting local dishes: *“Although I remind the staff that tourists are not used to consuming a lot of spices in food, they still add spices to dishes as they like ... So, to de-escalate the tension, I try to please both parties. I usually ask them to prepare the dishes as requested by the guests. In such cases I act as a mediator, so to say.”*

A third code was mentioned less frequently: “ability to propose a solution.” Given that the majority of respondents reported resolving problems through dialogue and mediation, this code seems to come into play if the other two practices fail to work. For example, R11 stated: *“I propose a solution when the parties cannot find common ground.”* Similarly, R8 said: *“I intervene to propose a solution when the enterprise fails to satisfy the expectations of the guests.”*

The analysis reveals that tour guides should have certain personal qualities to resolve problems. In particular, tour guides with strong communication skills are likely to be more successful in problem-solving.

Communication

The responses imply that dialogue or mediation may fall short of resolving the problems, and this is where the ability to persuade and body language step in. R3, R5, R6, R14, R15, and R16 said that some problems cannot be resolved despite communicating with business owners or staff. In such cases, they try to persuade the parties to compromise. For example, R14 stated: *“I observe that shopkeepers try to sell local products at quite high prices. Then, I kindly ask them to make a discount. If it does not work, I try to persuade them by saying that I work in the region, implying that I constantly bring tourists to his/her place.”*

Communication also involves non-verbal behaviors and body language. Some respondents, particularly those with master’s and doctorate degrees, attached great importance to the communicative effect of body language. These included R4, R8, R9, R12, and R20. For example, R4 stated: *“The body movements of a person while having a conversation may give us some hints. Depending on the type of the problem faced, effective use of body language may facilitate resolving the problem ... For instance, if the parties look nervous during a quarrel, they should be asked to sit down first. The body language of seated persons may communicate calmer messages ... This non-verbal type of communication may reveal individuals’ actual thoughts and emotions.”*

Ability to Empathize

The most frequent code under this theme was “ability to empathize.” R3, R4, R8, R9, R11, R12, R13, and R19 all reported that they sometimes admit tourists are right when they try to see things from their perspective. For example, R12 stated: *“Sometimes I find it difficult to understand certain tourist behaviors. However, things get more understandable when I put myself into their shoes.”* R13 pointed out that empathy helps her to understand the reasons behind the problems: *“Once I had a guest constantly causing tension regarding hygiene ... I learned that she had experienced hygiene-related problems in the past. After our conversation, I managed to see things from her side, which transformed my perspective toward her for the rest of the tour.”*

The “manner of speaking” also plays a key role in communication with tourists. As R3 noted: *“The staff having no idea of how to address people is a major problem in some tours ... The more decently we as tour guides behave and speak with tourists, the more decently they react.”* R10 also noted that the manner of speaking helps solve problems experienced during a tour: *“Sometimes we face problems concerning sanitary conditions or the staff... A Turkish proverb says, ‘Honey catches more flies than vinegar,’ so I speak with tourists as gently as possible.”*

Presentation of Gastronomy Elements Unique to Gaziantep

When giving their presentations about a gastronomy element unique to Gaziantep, the respondents were observed to determine whether they have sufficient knowledge about it and their use of specific skills and roles, as identified by İrigüler & Güler (2015) and Seyitoğlu (2020). These were considered relevant for the present study given the themes identified to measure gastronomy tour guide competence.

According to İrigüler & Güler (2015), tour guides should have knowledge of culinary culture and practices, adding that it is important to have visitors experience local flavors that are to be preserved. They also argue that tour guides have two key roles in gastronomy tourism. The first is to make tourists become aware of gastronomy tourism, while the second is to develop themselves in this field so that they can accurately convey the richness of culinary culture in the destination.

Seyitoğlu (2020) identified four main themes: “qualifications” (ambitious, intellectual, friendly, polite, humorous, candid, patient, energetic, positive, smiling, charming, thoughtful, moderate, warm, fun, enthusiastic, hospitable, approachable, and easy to get along with), “knowledge” (knowledgeable, elucidator, and technology use), “communication skills” (didactic, inclusion of tour members in narratives, and attention-grabbing and “value-added experience), and tourists’ “value-added experience.”

Given these findings, tour guides should exhibit these personality traits in their presentations during gastronomy tours, have relevant knowledge, prepare didactic and attention-grabbing presentations, and positively impact the overall tourist experience by ensuring that tourists' sensations are stimulated by what is narrated. Analysis of the respondents' presentations in terms of these two studies revealed the two themes presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Themes and Codes Identified from Presentations on a Gastronomy Element Unique to Gaziantep

Theme	Code	fi	Σfi()	%	Σ%
Recipes	How the element is cooked	18	34	35.2	70.4
	How its ingredients are prepared	12		23.5	
	Flavoring compounds	6		11.7	
Culinary Culture	Historical background	8	17	15.6	33.2
	Stories/narratives	5		9.80	
	Social structure and cuisine	4		7.84	

fi: frequency score of each code; Σfi(): Total frequency score of the codes;

%: Ratio of the codes within total frequency score; Σ%: Total percentage of the codes under each theme

Recipe

Most respondents addressed how the local dish they presented is prepared and cooked, as well as giving its recipe. For example, R2 gave the recipe for yuvalama, one of Gaziantep's famous dishes: *"Yuvalama is a famous dish in this region ... First, the chickpeas soaked in water are dried with the help of a colander and cooked for 20 minutes in a pressure cooker. Meanwhile, to prepare the mixture for the meatballs, rice and onion are smashed in the food processor and flavored with spices. Tiny pieces of the mixture are rolled into meatballs about the size of a chickpea. The meatballs are boiled ... Broth and yoghurt are mixed and cooked in a pan, then the boiled meatballs are added to this mixture."*

For some dishes, ingredients may need pre-processing before cooking, as highlighted by most respondents (R3, R4, R5, R8, R9, R10, R11, R12, R15, R16, R17, R20). For instance, R11 described this while explaining how to make stuffed vegetables: *"Stuffed vegetables such as aubergine and bell pepper are quite popular in this region ... I will tell you the recipe but first I would like to explain how these vegetables are processed to survive the winter... Aubergines and bell peppers grown in the summer period are hollowed out, strung on a strong cord, and left to dry under the sun on roofs or balconies. Such dried vegetables are mainly dried for the winter. If they are not subject to such pre-processing, they cannot be stuffed later."*

Flavoring compounds were mentioned the least. R2, R7, R13, R18, R17, and R20 said that local dishes are flavored with local spices and cannot be cooked without them. R3 said: *"The element flavoring a wide range of dishes in this region is spice*

... Region-specific spice mixes, in particular, are added to dishes make them more appetizing.”

Culinary Culture

Although the majority of respondents explained how local dishes are cooked, they did not provide comprehensive information about their historical background or their role in Gaziantep’s culinary culture. This suggests that some respondents do not have a good command of the historical background of the region’s local food and beverages or its culinary culture, and its relationship with the social structure.

Under this theme, “knowledge of historical background” was mentioned most frequently. Highlighting the importance of addressing the historical background of a given dish as well as its recipe, R4, R6, R8, R9, R12, R17, and R20 did so to some extent. For example, in his presentation on kebabs, R4 explained: *“It is known that animal husbandry practices allowed Turks to develop meat processing and cooking techniques. We can tell this from the works of the Anatolian Seljuk State ... Nowadays, kebab is cooked the most in Iran and also the geographical area embracing Türkiye. It is narrated in some sources that liver-based kebabs entered Anatolian culture from Iran ... According to the Moroccan traveler Ibn Battuta, kebab used to be consumed during the Delhi Sultanate ... Turks adapted kebabs to their own culture.”*

Another code identified under this theme was “narratives.” When describing the role of gastronomy elements in forming the region’s culture, R8, R12, R16, and R18 narrated brief stories. For example, R8 narrated a short story about his chosen dish, *çiğköfte*: *“King Nimrod asks his men to collect all the wood in the city for throwing the Prophet Abraham into a fire. Even in the houses, there is no wood left for cooking. Meanwhile, a hunter who returns from gazelle hunting gives the meat to his wife and asks her to make a meal out of it. The wife says that there is no firewood left in the house. Thereupon, the hunter mashes the gazelle meat and kneads it with spices, bulgur, salt, and chili pepper. So, rumor has it that Çiğköfte emerged like this.”*

The code “social structure and cuisine” was rarely mentioned. Some respondents touched on the relationship between a dish and the social structure. For example, R4 stated: *“Katmer, a dessert, is prepared after the wedding ceremony to send a positive message to the bride’s house. Another tradition is to prepare homemade baklava before asking for the girl’s hand for marriage The boy’s side shows generosity through the dishes they prepare for the ceremony ... The culinary skills of a bride-to-be are also tested in this way. For instance, yuvalama is hard to cook, and those who can cook yuvalama successfully are deemed skillful.”*

Conclusion and Suggestions

This study aimed to reveal the competence of tour guides in gastronomy tours in Türkiye. The interview questions were chosen by considering relevant studies. The interview responses were subjected to content analysis to identify themes and codes. These themes were level of knowledge, audio-visual media, cultural predisposition, occupational competence, specialization, culture, education, knowledge of places for food and beverages, problem-solving skills, communication, ability to empathize, recipes, and culinary culture.

The findings indicate that although tour guides do not receive adequate training in gastronomy, they have acquired knowledge from reference sources like books, journals, and periodicals. They also incorporate information acquired from TV shows and social media platforms, as revealed in previous studies by Akay & Özgütçü (2019) and Dursun & Cankül (2020). Another significant finding in the present study is that some tour guides rely purely on their own experience and do not examine reference works much. These tour guides who received their employment authorization card for tour guiding via the Tourism Ministry's six-month certification programs.

Previous research in the field (Çetin & Kızıllırmak, 2012) has revealed various shortcomings. This, and the growing interest in special interest tours, had encouraged the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the Tour Guides Association of Türkiye (TUREB), and Professional Chambers for Tour Guidance to organize seminars and training courses on special interest tourism. Tour guides aiming for better performance during such tours should certainly attend. Notably, through completing such training, former attendees have been relatively unaffected by negative developments and receive high wages despite various crises (Yenipınar & Yılmaz, 2019). Furthermore, tour guides who have strengthened their capacities through gastronomy-focused training have increased tourists' overall satisfaction (Akay & Özgütçü, 2019).

The respondents in the present study listed various topics that tour guides should have a good command of in gastronomy tours, particularly cooking, presentation, and cultivation techniques of the products used as ingredients. They reported that tourists usually ask questions regarding the techniques used for cooking local dishes, local organic products, where to find them, and the prices. Also, tourists ask about the cultivation conditions for the crops used as ingredients, and the relationship between the dishes' presentation and their historical background. In short, tour guides' occupational competence and knowledge are vital to satisfy tourists' curiosity.

Another important element determining the quality of the tour is the tour guide's level of cultural knowledge (Yu, et al., 2004; Tsaur & Teng, 2017). A perfect command of local culture, local cuisine, and related cultural narratives directly affects the

tourists' satisfaction. This finding is in line with those of Özbek & İskender (2021). Although cultural narratives were the least frequent code in the present study, tour guides play a key role in conveying cultural narratives to others (Byron, 2012). These not only make the tour more enjoyable but also allow such stories to reach a wider audience (Kaya & Ünlüönen, 2021), thereby encouraging more tourists to visit the destination.

Another finding is that the majority of the respondents highlighted the importance of gastronomy activities and knowledge of places for food and beverages. It is of great importance that tour guides can answer questions accurately and take the visitors to the best food and beverage enterprises in the destination. A well-guided tourist will experience higher satisfaction, which will in turn affect the destination's image. Furthermore, individuals attending gastronomy tours visit destinations not only to have a dining experience at local restaurants but also to attend national and international gastronomy events held in the destinations concerned (Göktaş, 2021). A tour guide informed about the dates, purposes, and goals of such events will certainly increase the level of satisfaction obtained from the tour.

The local cuisine reflects each destination's cultural and historical heritage (Mehul Krishna Kumar, 2019). The most frequently asked questions about the dishes as part of the heritage concerned are related to their recipes, where to buy organic products, and the prices of food products. A guide that has sufficient knowledge of the recipes and ingredients can address the cultural and historical elements of the region's gastronomy. Other frequently asked questions are related to restaurants' sanitary conditions and menus. The respondents revealed that Gaziantep's restaurants have a negative hygiene image among tourists. Tour guides can reverse this through explanations and good guidance (Seyitoğlu, 2020).

Communication and an ability to establish a dialogue emerged as a key element for tourist satisfaction, as it improves the tourists' visiting experience and satisfaction (Elmoghazy, 2019). Tour guides can resolve conflicts through effective communication with tourists; however, it is important to bear in mind that the ability to establish a dialogue is a skill to be developed (Sharma, 2020). Tour guides also mediate in disputes between enterprises and tourists (Weiler & Ru, 2007). The findings in the present study indicate that mediation may facilitate problem solving. Similarly, Cohen (1985) indicated that the leadership role played by tour guides may help solve problems, while Rabolic (2010) stated that the communicator role may serve the same purpose.

Problem-solving skills are linked to adaptation to daily life and are one of the most significant characteristics of a person (Arenofsky, 2001). Because they provide services to visitors from different cultures and regions, tour guides have to adapt. This

ability can be reinforced through certain skills. In particular, an ability to persuade and use body language effectively can help resolve problems while guiding tours.

Tour guides should convey both the physical and cultural elements of a destination in the best way possible. Therefore, the tour guide's skill in communicating with tourists will help determine their satisfaction (Arat & Bulut, 2019). These skills are also necessary for resolving the tourists' problems. Here, persuasion and body language add value to communication (Ezeh et al., 2021), so tour guides should engage both the ears and the eyes. Given that gestures convey messages as well, the use of body language may facilitate persuasion. Tour guides should therefore receive training in body language. In the present study, the findings indicate that tour guides also use empathy as a problem-solving tool, given that it is an integral part of socio-emotional relaxation (Weiler & Black, 2014). When tour guides consider tourists in terms of their emotions, they can manage to develop empathy.

As already mentioned, effective communication can increase tourists' satisfaction (Weiler & Black, 2014). Similarly, and in line with Kara and Demir (2021), we find that tour guides with strong communication and persuasion skills, accompanied by appropriate body language, can either prevent problems from arising or more easily resolve them.

During the content analysis, the respondents' presentations were also evaluated for the accuracy of their answers to the earlier questions and the information presented, their communication skills during the presentation, the quality of their spoken language, body language, and manners. Because of the previously noted scarcity of research into gastronomy tour guide competence, the analysis of these skills and manners was based on the findings of İrigüler & Güler (2015) and Seyitoğlu (2020). Analysis of the presentations revealed two main themes: "the recipe" and "culinary culture." Regarding their content, the majority of presentations merely explained how the dish is cooked and how the ingredients are processed before cooking. Many respondents provided no information on the historical background of the products presented within the framework of culinary culture, while few incorporated stories to enrich the presentations and increase the tourists' enjoyment of the tour by linking the dish with the social structure. In short, the majority of the respondents lacked the capacities required for a good presentation.

The answers given as a result of the interviews were observed and analyzed. Based on the two previous studies, not all respondents reflected certain previously identified characteristics and roles in their presentations. Overall, the presentations focused on the recipes and preparation of the dish. Few respondents addressed the dish's historical background, related cultural narratives, its place in culture, and its link with the social structure, although a majority of the respondents had completed post-

graduate programs. This indicates that the historical development of food products, their place in culture, and cultural narratives should be included in such programs.

According to the results stated in our study, some suggestions are made below:

- Gastronomy tour guides should examine reference works in the relevant field and attend training courses.
- Tour guides should rely on reference materials, not just TV shows and social media.
- Tour guides would benefit significantly from attending relevant training courses.
- Since accurate information increases tourist satisfaction, tour guides must attend relevant training courses to be able to provide specific and comprehensive information.
- Tour guides should follow gastronomy activities and be informed about the purpose of such activities. They should know which products are consumed in which places in order to guide tourists to the places that can satisfy their expectations.
- Tour guides should take private courses, receive field-specific university education, or attend courses.
- Given that experience alone is insufficient, tour guides should attend training to develop the capacities to maximize tourist satisfaction.
- Tour guides should review reference works, follow the social media accounts of gastronomy experts, and know shop prices. To keep up with the latest developments in the region, they should join groups created by other tour guides and tour guide chambers through mobile applications such as WhatsApp.
- Tour guides should help reverse the region's negative image through good communication skills. If a hygiene-related problem is experienced, they should both inform the business owner politely and report it to the relevant public authorities. They should ask restaurants to provide menu pictures.
- Tour guides should read studies of human relations and psychology and attend training courses. They should also read studies on tourist psychology and tourism sociology.
- They should learn about body language and be able to understand the body language of tourists. They should attend online or in-person training courses on body language.

- To empathize requires a basic knowledge of human psychology, which can be achieved through long experience and knowledge. Experience of different tourist types will help tour guides develop empathy.
- Tour guides should enrich their presentations beyond the recipe by incorporating gastronomy-related elements.
- To enrich their presentations and ensure that the audience enjoys it, tour guides should incorporate historical background through stories. They must also understand the links between gastronomy and each region's social structure. Tour guides should examine written and non-written materials about the region and incorporate the information into their presentations. Tour guides must also receive postgraduate education in tourism and gastronomy.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: A.Ü., L.S.G.; Data Acquisition: A.Ü., L.S.G.; Data Analysis/ Interpretation: A.Ü., L.S.G.; Drafting Manuscript: A.Ü., L.S.G.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: A.Ü., L.S.G.; Final Approval and Accountability: A.Ü., L.S.G.

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THEME	CODE	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15	R16	R17	R18	R19	R20	N
Level of Knowledge	Experience	X	X		X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	10
	Reference Works	X		X					X	X		X										5
	Training			X	X				X			X										4
Audio-visual media	TV Shows	X	X			X	X	X					X				X	X		X		7
	Social Media				X		X				X					X	X					6
	Radio		X										X									2
Cultural Predisposition	Place of Birth	X	X		X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	9
	Residence in Gaziantep	X			X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	9
Occupational Competence	Cooking Techniques				X				X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	8
	Historical Background of Food and Beverages				X				X	X		X		X								4
	Cultivation Techniques for the Products used as Ingredient								X		X				X	X	X	X		X	X	6
	Presentation Techniques		X		X				X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X				7
	Nutritional Tendencies												X	X	X							2
	Culinary Museums											X								X		2

THEME	Code	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15	R16	R17	R18	R19	R20	N	
Specialization	Gastronomy activities	X	X			X							X	X	X								6
	Knowledge of Places for Food and Beverages					X	X			X					X		X						5
Culture	Local Culture			X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	12
	Local Culinary Arts			X	X		X	X	X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	10
	Cultural Narratives	X	X			X				X			X		X		X						6
Training	Experience	X	X			X	X	X						X	X	X	X						10
	Training on Local Cuisine			X	X				X	X	X		X										6
Knowledge of Products	Recipe	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	13
	Organic Products			X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	11
	Supply of Products	X	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	11
Knowledge of Places for Food and Beverages	Price	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X						10
	Menu	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	14
	Sanitary Conditions	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	14
	Taste		X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8

THEME	Code	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12	R13	R14	R15	R16	R17	R18	R19	R20	N
Problem-solving skills	Ability to Establish a Dialogue	X			X	X		X			X		X		X	X		X	X	X		10
	Mediation			X	X	X		X		X		X			X		X					8
	Ability to Propose a Solution	X			X				X	X		X	X	X								7
Communication	Ability to Persuade			X		X	X							X	X	X						6
	Use of Body Language				X				X	X			X									5
Empathy	Ability to Empathize	X	X						X	X		X	X	X							X	8
	Manner of Speaking	X		X					X	X	X		X									6
Recipe	Cooking Technique	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	18
	Preparation			X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X					12
	Flavoring compounds	X						X						X				X	X			6
Culinary culture	Historical background			X		X			X	X		X	X				X	X				8
	Narratives/stories				X				X			X	X				X		X			5
	Social structure and cuisine				X				X	X			X									4



The Socio-Economic Implications of Tourism Sharing Economy

Mohamed Ramadan Ragab Abdelhady¹ , Fatma Shaban Sayed Ameen² 

Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has revolutionized the global economic map and the economic patterns which were anticipated to be a catalyst for the economic and developmental advancement of contemporary societies. It has consolidated the vigorous role of numerous economic connotations and systems that are considered outdated. The sharing economy is on the topmost of those economic systems as a substantial economic and social transformation. It is considered one of the historically fastest-growing trade tendencies. The study's primary objective was to estimate the magnitude of national income generated by tourism-related sharing activities and the magnitude of sharing-based national investments. A qualitative technique was used as the research methodology in this study. A sample of 510 Egyptian tourism-sharing service providers and tourists who received tourism services in Egypt under one of the sharing economy systems participated in a mixed electronic questionnaire. The significant findings revealed that the national tourism income accomplished in 2021 through tourism sharing economy is predestined to be 1% (EGP10 billion) of Egypt's national income, and is anticipated to increase to EGP 177 billion by 2035.

Keywords

Sharing Economy, Airbnb, Uber, GDP, P2P, Egypt

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To cite this article: Abdelhady, M.R.R. (2022). The Socio-Economic Implications of Tourism Sharing Economy. *Journal of Tourismology*, 8(2), 351-366. <https://doi.org/10.26650/jot.2022.8.2.1104727>



Introduction

The economy has experienced substantial changes in recent decades that led to the emergence of new economic systems. These systems first appeared in the developed countries. Subsequently, the informational revolution has expanded over the world, which contributed to the development of these new models. One such model is the sharing economy. In the United States of America, the sharing economy mostly emerged in the first decade of the 20th century, but it significantly expanded during the global financial crisis of 2008. It continues to flourish and thrive as a result of technology and the internet, which give rapid access to knowledge from anywhere on the planet (Onete et al., 2018). The sharing economy, which is a socio-economic system, has long been a part of the business domains (Puschmann & Alt, 2016). This new economic pattern has been associated with a wide variety of controversy, including attempts to distinguish its definition, benefits, and the most significant challenges imposed by the sharing economy on the money and business markets. It has been a subject of discussion among economists, anthropologists, environmentalists, and sociologists, which all take different perspectives on the phenomenon, either distinguishing it as a techno-social trend in consumer societies (e.g., access-based consumption, collaborative consumption, and connected consumption) or as new economic logic (e.g., peer-to-peer economy, access-based economy, and sharing economy) (Dredge & Gyimóthy, 2015). The emergence of the sharing economy has had a tremendous impact on the tourism industry (Jang et al., 2021). The cost of conducting business has lowered, resulting in the lowering of the barriers of entry and more competition for consumers. Consumers have benefited the most, since competition has given greater power to consumers. As a consequence of technological advances, the sharing economy has developed and the consumer has become an active participant in the supply of services in the sharing economy, which competes with established enterprises (Henama, 2019).

This study was conducted to assess the indicators of Egypt's tourism sharing economy in the year 2021, with an estimate of the growth rate of tourism sharing income until 2035. Thus, the study metrics were designed to estimate sharing indicators of prior income and estimate the indicators of marginal propensity to savings, consumption, and investment resulting from tourism sharing income. Although the sharing economy is based on citizen empowerment and the modification of the distribution structure towards greater justice in order to contribute to the developmental transformation of economic structures, it could run into two systems, governmental laws and social culture, in a way that impede the flow of benefits towards citizens, particularly if such sharing economy activity is associated with the tourism industry. Governmental regulations, community culture, and traditions of the service provider may be dissuaded from agreeing to the concept of sharing sales or

legalizing transactions in a way that is incompatible with the nature of the tourism industry.

Literature Review

Tourism Sharing Economy

The ease with which consumers may access the web communities from anywhere via smartphones, as well as the rapid progress of technology, has boosted consumer's interest in digital content (Pektas & Hassan, 2020). Globalization and the digital revolution have caused significant changes in the money and business markets, which led to the emergence of more flexible and more efficient economic systems. The sharing economy is as an economic technological phenomenon based on information and communication technology that increases the awareness of consumers and social commerce particularly through web communities (Hamari et al., 2016). It has evolved as a result of the diffusion of digital technology; digitalization has made it possible to share a wide variety of resources (technical aspect of sharing) and to go beyond the confines of small groups and personal relationships (social aspect of sharing). This two-fold digital sharing transformation has resulted in unparalleled efficiency in coordinating access to resources (Pouri & Hilty, 2021). What does the term "sharing economy" imply exactly? To date, the literature has a plethora of definitions, many of which are incomplete and contradictory (Schlagwein et al., 2020). Schor et al. (2016) stated that it is difficult to identify a distinct definition of the sharing economy in the literature. In the year 2015, the term "sharing economy" was defined by the Oxford Dictionary as "an economic system in which private individuals, public, or private institutions share resources, human or physical assets generally via the Internet". The preceding definition makes it quite evident that the sharing economy consists of a three-dimensional correlation: GIG workers, consumers, and matching digital firms.

Web 2.0 has paved the way for a new sharing economy, which is being led by globally powerful sharing businesses. At the same time, because of its significant economic and social consequences, this new economy (i.e., the sharing economy) has become a profoundly divisive phenomenon (Ma et al., 2019). The sharing economy is characterized by a shift from a culture where consumers own assets to one of sharing through internet-driven peer-to-peer (P2P) technological platforms that allow the utilization of excess capacity (Martin, 2016). The fact that the sharing economy is technology based is an additional benefit for the aviation and tourism industries, which have been responsive to technology (Henama, 2019). Technology was responsible for the emergence of the low-cost carriers (LCCs) in the United States in the year 1978 and in Europe in the early 1990s, which had lowered the price

of travelling (Abdelhady et al., 2018). LCCs, especially companies in the sharing economy, have used technology to reduce labor expenses (Henama, 2019).

Economic, cultural, psychological, social, environmental, and psychological changes that emerged in the second half of the twentieth century have had a considerable influence on tourism industry (Goktas & Polat, 2019). In the sharing economy era, the tourism industry adopts a model based on a global conception with a local practice. The 4Ts of sharing economy might be used to summarize the new paradigm: technology, trust, transformation, and togetherness. The tourism paradigm of the sharing economy is based on the development of shared services that boost the flows of tourists (Cesarani & Nechita, 2020). With the in-depth connection amid the sharing economy and the tourism industry, the sharing economy is growing at an exponential rate and the accommodation sector is especially affected (Toni et al., 2018). Globally, it has recently grown exponentially, with the total worldwide revenue reaching 15 billion dollars in 2014, and an anticipated 335 billion dollars by 2025. According to a report released by the Chinese Sharing Economy Research Center of the State Information Center, China's sharing economy market has reached 3452 billion Yuan in 2016, achieving an increase of 103% compared to 2015, and the number of sharing economy participants has surpassed 600 million people, achieving an increase of 100 million compared to 2015. By 2022, China's sharing economy is predicted to grow at a rate of 40% per annum, accounting for more than 10% of the China's GDP.

P2P Sharing Economy Platforms

Confidence, transparency, economic empowerment, creativity, and flexibility are all principles that underpin the sharing economy concept. It is a phenomenon that is boosted by technological advances, connectivity, and social trends that lead people to switch from the need of possession to the need of access (Toni et al., 2018). The sharing economy has been developed to differentiate a framework through which these resources that are not being utilized (e.g., houses, vehicles, etc.) might be used in a way that benefits all partners involved, as partners can meet on an online platform to provide others with their temporally unused or unexploited assets, skills, and capacities on a temporary basis (Nábrádi & Kovács, 2020). The expansion of the sharing economy is being propelled by the efflorescence of sharing platforms (e.g., Lyft, Uber, and Airbnb) which match possessors looking to share their resources with customers looking to leasehold them (Fang et al., 2019).

P2P sharing economy platforms such as Airbnb and Uber have lately flourished in the tourism and hospitality industry (Ert et al. 2016). Uber and Airbnb's sharing economy platforms have surpassed the traditional paradigm of major commercial and industrial businesses. Despite the fact that Uber employed 1,800 employees in the

United States and 6,000 internationally, compared to more than 200,000 in General Motors, Uber's profits reached \$5.5 billion at the end of 2016, and the company's worth reached \$68 billion, hitting the profits of PMW. Airbnb, which was founded in 2007, has garnered both criticism and acclaim in a short period of time. Since 2008, Airbnb has had over 200 million visitors and has 4.85 million active rooms. It operates in 191 countries and more than 65,000 cities globally (World Bank, 2018). The traditional lodging industry may be more vulnerable to disruption as Airbnb's popularity grows throughout the globe (Alrawadieh et al., 2020). Airbnb had absorbed roughly 8–10% of yields of the hotels with a lower price tag or low cost hotels (LCHs) in the state of Texas in the USA (Zervas et al., 2017), it has also culminated in a \$2 billion shortfall for the city of New York's accommodations and hotels (Bashir & Verma, 2016).

Research Methodology

The research method embraced in this study, to achieve its aims and objectives, is a qualitative approach that includes a literature review and an online qualitative questionnaire. A review of literature which discussed the tourism sharing economy and shed light on the most notable modern tourism sharing activities is also provided. The most comprehensive literature sources (i.e., research papers, academic publications, business and scientific reports, and periodicals) have been thoroughly discussed. The following is a representation of the research problem:

1-The sharing economy runs into several government's rules and aspects of social culture in the country, which may restrict community contribution in that economic pattern.

2-In the case of the sharing economy, tourists will not stay at a well-known hotel chain or at a distinctive brand that is regulated by many state institutions; instead, they will be hosted at someone's who's not under the same level of government supervision and whose activities are heavily reliant on customers' personal perceptions. Therefore, the main questions of the study are:

1-What influence does tourism sharing activities have on Egypt's national income in terms of internal flow (income) and accumulation (investment)?

2-What are the most prominent constraints facing Egypt's tourism sharing economy?

3-What are the proposed procedures of development for boosting tourism sharing economy?

Study Sample

The study metrics were designed to investigate the level of Egyptian Society based on the computation of individual averages at the national level, which is distinct from the average workforce in Egyptian Society in terms of demographic, sectoral

$$GNIN_{FV}^{TSh} = \llbracket PV\{(R_{Wf}^{TSh}, Y_R^{TSh}) GNP\} \times (1 + R_Y^{TSh})^n \rrbracket \times (1 - APC^{TSh}) \times APIN^{TSh}$$

Where:

$$GNS_{FV}^{TSh} = \llbracket PV\{(R_{Wf}^{TSh}, Y_R^{TSh}) GNP\} (1 + R_Y^{TSh})^n \rrbracket \times (1 - APC^{TSh})$$

$$GNP_{FV}^{TSh} = \llbracket PV\{(R_{Wf}^{TSh}, Y_R^{TSh}) GNP\} (1 + R_Y^{TSh})^n \rrbracket$$

$$GNP^{TSh} = \{(R_{Wf}^{TSh}, Y_R^{TSh}) GNP\}$$

$$\int_{FV}^{TSh} GNIN = \frac{GNIN_{FV}^{TSh}}{GNP_{FV}^{TSh}}$$

National Income/Product of Participatory Tourism = [Proportion of the Workforce that Includes Sharing Activities Related to Tourism X Proportion of the Sharing Activities Contribution to Their Income] X The Total of National Income, where the Gross of National Product/ Income (GNP/ GNI) is Gross Domestic Product GDP + Income Earned by the Residents from Overseas Investments.

$$GNP^{TSh} = \{(R_{Wf}^{TSh}, Y_R^{TSh}) GNP\}$$

Gross National Income of Tourism Sharing Economy = National Income of Participatory Tourism X Growth Factor, whereas Y_R is the Proportion of the Income Contribution, R_Y^{TSh} is Tourism Sharing Income Growth Rate and (N) is the Number of Years.

$$GNP_{FV}^{TSh} = GNP_{PV}^{TSh} (1 + R_Y^{TSh})^n$$

Gross National Savings of Tourism Sharing Economy = National Income of Participatory Tourism – Consumption = Tourism Sharing Income X (1- Average Propensity for Consumption), where (S) Refers to Savings and APC Refers to (Average Propensity for Consumption) which is the Result of Consumption Divided by the Income C/Y.

$$GNS^{TSh} = GNP_{FV}^{TSh} (1 - APC^{TSh})$$

Gross National Investment of Tourism Sharing Economy= Gross National Savings of Participatory Tourism X Average Propensity for Investment of Participatory Tourism) whereas (I) Refers to Investment and API Refers to (Average Propensity for Investment).

$$GNIN^{TSh} = GNS^{TSh} \times APIN^{TSh}$$

Model Variable Metrics

1-Proportion of the workforce involved in sharing activities related to tourism industry R_{Wf}^{TSh} , the subsequent metrics have been designed to measure that variable:

A-How much of your income is derived from participatory economic activities?

B-Are these sharing activities related to tourism industry?

2-Proportion of the sharing activities contribution to income Y_R^{TSh} , the following measures had been designed to gauge that variable:

A-What is the estimated contribution of participatory economic activities to your income?

3-Gross National Product/ Income (GNP/GNI): International official statistics have been relied upon to obtain statistics on that variable.

4-Average growth rate of tourism sharing income R_Y^{TSh} , the following metric has been prepared to estimate that variable, as follows:

A-What is the average annual growth rate (AAGR) of participatory economic activities contribution to your income over the past three years?

5-Average propensity of tourism sharing consumption APC^{TSh} , the following measure was designed to estimate general average propensity for consumption:

A-What is your spending rate in the event of a raise in your income?

6-Average propensity of tourism sharing investment $APIN^{TSh}$, the following measure was designed to estimate that variable, as follows:

A-In case of saving a part of your income, to what extent do you tend to invest in sharing activities?

Results and Discussions

A composite measure, consisting of a first metric formatted as a question, has been formulated to assess the proportion of individuals who participate in sharing activities relevant to the tourism industry R_{Wf}^{TSh} (How much of your income is generated by participatory economic activities?) The results revealed that 91.1% of the sample's income originates from non-participatory economic activities, whereas 8.9% of the respondents' was related to participatory economic activities. The second metric was designed to estimate the proportion of tourism activities of those sharing activities in the following format (Are these sharing activities related to tourism industry?).

The findings showed that 37.2% of these activities were related to tourism industry, while 62.8% are not related to tourism industry. The contribution of tourism sharing economy activities may be estimated at 0.99% of the total income at the national level, which reached a total of 3.6 trillion Egyptian Pounds (EGP) in 2021. This estimated rate of business activities according to World Bank data, which does not report all sales for tax purposes, is 30%.

Demographic Data of Research Sample

The demographic characteristics of the respondents were ascertained by asking them questions regarding their gender, whether they were tourists or suppliers of tourism-related sharing services, and their monthly income. According to Table 1, 62.7% of the participants are male. Taking into account the different types of participants, tourism sharing service providers have the highest rate at 67.6%. When the participants' monthly income is taken into consideration, the highest value is between 33.3% and 50,001 EGP, more when the participants' monthly income is examined. The demographic results are shown in table (1) along with the findings.

Table 1
Participants' Demographic Profile

Measure	Item	Count	Rate
Gender	Male	320	62.7%
	Female	190	37.3%
Type of Participants	Providers of Sharing Services	345	67.6%
	Tourists	165	32.4%
Monthly income	Less than 10000 EGP	20	3.9%
	10001- 20000 EGP	35	6.9%
	20001- 30000 EGP	60	11.8%
	30001- 40000 EGP	135	26.5%
	40001- 50000 EGP	90	17.6%
	50001 EGP and More	170	33.3%

Individual and National Contributions of Participatory Economic Activities

As for the measures related to individual and national contributions of participatory economic activities, the sample's answers were arranged according to Likert pentameter scale through the categorical data processing in an ascending order from 0 to 4, as shown in the table (2), to estimate standardized rate according to the following equation:

$$\mu = 100 \times \frac{\bar{x} - SE_{\bar{x}}}{x_{max}}$$

Table 2
Personal Income Contribution of Participatory Economic Activities

Indicator		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Rate
Contribution Rate of Sharing Activities in Income	Y_R^{TSh}	2.0256	0.93153	.14916	27%
Average growth Rate of Tourism Sharing Income	R_Y^{TSh}	1.9744	1.06344	.17029	23%
Average Propensity for Consumptions of Participatory Tourism	APC^{TSh}	1.9750	0.91952	.14539	26%
Average Propensity for Investment of Participatory Tourism	$APIN^{TSh}$	1.7436	0.75107	.12027	24%

It is noteworthy from table (2) that the eventually results statistics show that 0.99% of the Egyptian population participated in participatory economic activities, contributing to their income at a rate of 27%, with a total amount of 10 billion EGP in 2021, which is expected to reach 12.31 billion EGP by the year 2022 and 177 billion EGP by 2035, as shown in table (3).

Table 3
Contribution of Tourism Sharing Activities at the National Level

Indicators		2021	2022	2025	2030	2035
Sharing National Tourism Investment	$GNIN_{FV}^{TSh}$	1.83	2.25	4.16	11.60	32.37
Sharing National Tourism Savings	GNS_{FV}^{TSh}	7.38	9.06	16.76	46.76	130.44
Sharing National Tourism Product	GNP_{FV}^{TSh}	10.02	12.31	22.77	63.53	177.20
Investment Factor for Sharing Income	$\int_{FV}^{TSh} GNIN$			18.3%		

According to the previous findings, 81.7% of value added is earmarked annually for enhancing and raising living standards. The study expects that tourism-related investments will reach 2.25 billion EGP by the year 2022, 4.16 billion EGP by the year 2025, 11.60 billion EGP by the year 2030, and 32.37 billion EGP by 2035, all of which will be generated by the industry’s participation in economic activities.

Tourism-Related Sharing Economy Services

Regarding the diversity of tourism services that are associated with the sharing economy, the results have proved that 30.8% of these activities are related to transportation services, 28.2% related to accommodation and hospitality activities, while only 7.7% were related to food and beverages services. This means that about 66.7% of tourism activities are related to transportation, hospitality, and food and

beverages services, while 33.3% are related to other tourism services, as shown in table (4).

Table 4
Tourism Sharing Services

Activity/ Service	Rate
Transportation	30.8%
Accommodation and Hospitality	28.2%
Food and Beverages	7.7%
Other	33.3%
100%	100%

These findings are consistent with the theoretical analysis of the study's literature, which shows the growth of participatory transportation more than that of participatory hospitality. In general, these results demonstrate the opportunity to open new horizons to introduce participatory services that are related to the diversification of tourism services as participatory facilities related to the entertainment and food and beverages services.

Contribution of Tourism Sharing Services in the National Income

Table (5) makes it abundantly clear that the sharing economy's influence on the sectors of transportation, accommodation, and food and beverage may be quantified.

Table 5
The Contribution Size of Tourism Sharing Services in the National Income

Activity/Service	2021	2022	2025	2030	2035
Transportation	3,087,242,713	3,790,299,868	7,014,261,594	19,565,724,735	54,577,032,704
Accommodation and Hospitality	2,826,631,315	3,470,339,489	6,422,148,602	17,914,072,647	49,969,880,592
Food and Beverages	771,810,678	947,574,967	1,753,565,398	4,891,431,184	13,644,258,176
Other	3,337,830,595	4,097,954,078	7,583,601,009	21,153,851,742	59,006,986,657
Total	10,023,515,301	12,306,168,402	22,773,576,603	63,525,080,308	177,198,158,129

According to the above table, the contribution of the sharing transportation sector to Egypt's national income has reached 3.1 billion EGP in 2021 and is predicted to reach 54.6 billion EGP by the year 2035, while the contribution of the sharing accommodation sector has totally reached 2.8 billion in 2021 EGP and is anticipated to increase to 50 billion EGP by the year 2035 and the contribution of food and beverages services reached 0.772 billion in 2021 EGP and is projected to rise to 13.6 billion EGP by the year 2035. Other tourism sharing services have reached 3.3 billion EGP in 2021 and are expected to increase to 59 billion EGP by the year 2035.

Contribution of Tourism Sharing Services in the National Savings

It turns out from the data presented in table (6) that the size of national savings attributable to tourism-related income in the transportation sector has reached roughly 2.3 billion EGP in 2021 and is projected to increase to 40.2 billion EGP by the year 2035. The national savings resulting from tourism sharing accommodation totally reached 2.1 billion EGP in 2021 and is expected to increase to 36.8 billion EGP by the year 2035, whereas the national savings of food and beverages services have reached 0.568 billion EGP in 2021 and is estimated to increase to 10 billion EGP by the year 2035.

Table 6
The Magnitude Contribution of Tourism Sharing Services in the National Savings

Activity/Service	2021	2022	2025	2030	2035
Transportation	2,272,610,211	2,790,151,272	5,163,404,373	14,402,905,752	40,175,759,850
Accommodation and Hospitality	2,080,766,492	2,554,619,022	4,727,532,575	13,187,076,045	36,784,299,603
Food and Beverages	568,152,553	697,537,818	1,290,851,093	3,600,726,438	10,043,939,962
Other	2,457,075,326	3,016,624,590	5,582,511,871	15,571,972,777	43,436,779,318
Total	7,378,604,582	9,058,932,702	16,764,299,912	46,762,681,012	130,440,778,733

It is also evident from table (6) that other tourism-related sharing services have achieved 2.5 billion EGP in 2021 and are expected to reach 43.4 billion EGP by the year 2035.

Contribution of Tourism Sharing Services in the National Investment

The size of investment resulting from tourism sharing activities has reached 1.8 billion EGP in 2021 according to tourism services (see table 7).

Table 7
The Magnitude Contribution of Tourism Sharing Services in the National Investment

Activity/Service	2021	2022	2025	2030	2035
Transportation	563,903,980	692,321,719	1,281,198,273	3,573,800,664	9,968,832,659
Accommodation and Hospitality	516,301,696	633,878,977	1,173,045,172	3,272,116,193	9,127,307,824
Food and Beverages	140,975,995	173,080,430	320,299,568	893,450,166	2,492,208,165
Other	609,675,407	748,516,664	1,385,191,639	3,863,881,887	10,777,991,154
Total	1,830,857,078	2,247,797,790	4,159,734,652	11,603,248,910	32,366,339,802

The tourism sharing investment resulting from tourism transportation sector reached approximately 0.564 billion EGP in 2021 and is anticipated to increase to 10 billion EGP by the year 2035. The size of investment generated by tourism sharing accommodation activities was 0.516 billion EGP in 2021 and is anticipated to increase to 9.1 billion EGP by the year 2035, whereas food and beverages services provided through participatory activities reached 0.141 billion EGP in 2021 and is anticipated to increase to 2.5 billion EGP by the year 2035. As for the other tourism

services, the investment resulting from them reached about 0.610 billion EGP in 2021 and is anticipated to increase to 11 billion EGP by the year 2035. Eventually, the size of investment resulting from tourism sharing activities is anticipated to reach 32.4 billion EGP by the year 2035, as can be seen from table (7).

Constraints Facing Tourism Sharing Industry

Results of the most acute problems facing tourism sharing business were related to administrative and governmental systems with 63.2%, while community issues were 10.5%, and clients' issues were likewise 10.5%, as summarized in table (8). The aforementioned results make it clear that administrative and governmental issues, which accounted for 63.2% of the problems facing tourism service providers in relation to the sharing economy, need to be clarified in order to avoid issues arising from conflicts or a lack of understanding of the legal positions governing these activities. To a lesser degree, there are problems related to the community and customers which accounted for 10.5% of the total problems and may be avoided through organizing the relationship between tourism sharing service providers, beneficiaries, and the community.

Table 8
Problems Facing Tourism Sharing Industry

Issue	Rate
Community Issues	10.5%
Administrative and Governmental Issues	63.2%
Clients' issues	10.5%
Environmental Issues	2.6%
Infrastructure Issues	5.3%
Other	7.9%
Total	100%

Conclusion

Over the last few years, the sharing economy has revolutionized how people exchange and perform transactions in digital areas (Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018). Even though the majority of digital platforms which facilitated tourism sharing activities have only been around for a few years, they have acquired a vigorous competitive position over gargantuan traditional tourism economic organizations that have been rooted in time. While the Airbnb market value was estimated at \$ 25.5 billion in 2015, the market value of Hilton Hotels chains reached \$39.5 billion in the same year. Meanwhile, the international Marriot Hotels chains in the same period achieved \$25.4 billion. The current research sought to evaluate the magnitude of the national income attributable to shared tourism-related activities and the magnitude of sharing national investments attributable to those revenues. A mixed electronic questionnaire was conducted with 510 Egyptian tourism sharing service providers and tourists who

have obtained one of the sharing economy systems in Egypt. The survey included one questionnaire with open questions, related to the most distinguished problems that confronted the study sample, as well as eight closed metrics in the form of monometers (Compute Variables). The substantial results concluded that from Egypt's entire national income, the total of national tourism income achieved in 2021 through participatory activities could be estimated at 10 billion EGP, and that is anticipated to increase to 177 billion EGP by 2035. Additionally, it is anticipated that 18.3 % of Egypt's total tourism sharing income will be re-invested in tourism sharing activities, with about 59% of the tourism sharing income made by the accommodation and transportation activities. Tourism sharing activities also exemplify a new opportunity to attract new tourist segments, predominantly from the youth, in order to generate foreign exchange surpluses and to enhance Egypt's payments balance. On the one hand, they have the potential to raise living standards. Furthermore, they have a crucial role in the social and cultural development as a consequence of the immediate communication between Egyptians of all stripes and foreign tourists of different countries, which is not achieved through conventional tourism activities. The sharing economy has contributed to getting out of the global recession caused by the global financial crisis in 2008, and it may play a considerable and energetic role in the development of human societies beneath the informatics, technological evolution, and artificial intelligence (AI) systems. Thus, the current study emphasizes the significance of implementing a scheme that distinctly demonstrates the legal attitude of tourism sharing activities, while also taking into consideration the distinctive nature of these activities.

Limitations and Future Research

The sharing economy, which is swiftly gaining traction as a new socioeconomic phenomenon, is receiving attention from academics and professionals. While this study has made substantial contributions to the growth of Egypt's GDP, it is not without limitations. The research aimed to assess the socio-economic implications of tourism sharing economy. Despite the fact that this study's sample is confined to Egypt, it permits us to control over a variety of external variables and thus boost internal validity. Accordingly, to enhance the generalizability of the findings, future research might examine our mathematical modeling accuracy in various countries.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Grant Support: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

Author Contributions: Conception/Design of study: M.A., F.A.; Data Acquisition: M.A., F.A.; Data Analysis/ Interpretation: M.A., F.A.; Drafting Manuscript: M.A., F.A.; Critical Revision of Manuscript: M.A., F.A.; Final Approval and Accountability: M.A., F.A.

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

c) Journal Article with DOI and More Than Seven Authors

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