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Mobilities, Tourism and Travel Behavior Contexts and Boundaries

Edited by Leszek Butowski

MOBILITIES, TOURISM AND TRAVEL BEHAVIOR - CONTEXTS AND BOUNDARIES

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http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.68212
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Contributors

Lars Rettig, Morten Friedrichsen, Mohamed Battour, Diana Foris, Maria Popescu, Tiberiu Foris, Ksenija Stahan, Mario Alberto De La Puente Pacheco, Vincenzo Asero, Stefania Skonieczny, Azizan Marzuki, Gian Luigi Corinto, Fabio Curzi, Enrique Marinao, Chin-Cheng Ni, Chien-Yu Tsao, Ying-Hsiang Wang, Dimitrios Dimitriou, Zdena Krnáčová, Peter Barančok, Aleksandra Krajnovic, Ivana Gortan-Carlin

First published in Croatia, 2018 by INTECH d.o.o.
eBook (PDF) Published by IN TECH d.o.o.
Place and year of publication of eBook (PDF): Rijeka, 2019.
IntechOpen is the global imprint of IN TECH d.o.o.
Printed in Croatia

Legal deposit, Croatia: National and University Library in Zagreb

Additional hard and PDF copies can be obtained from orders@intechopen.com

Mobilities, Tourism and Travel Behavior - Contexts and Boundaries
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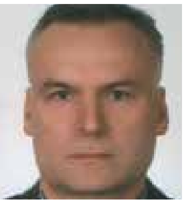
p. cm.

Print ISBN 978-953-51-3726-9

Online ISBN 978-953-51-3727-6

eBook (PDF) ISBN 978-953-51-4036-8

Meet the editor



Leszek Butowski is a professor of Tourism and Geography at the University of Lodz (Poland). He received a PhD degree from the University of Warsaw and a habilitation degree from the University of Maria Skłodowska Curie. He also completed his postgraduate study on International Tourism at the University Paris 1 Panthéon-Sorbonne. Professor Butowski has cooperated with many Polish and European institutions on different issues connected with tourism development. He teaches at the undergraduate, graduate, and doctorate levels, focusing on methodological foundations of tourism research as well as sustainability in tourism development. His interests revolve in particular around nautical tourism. Leszek Butowski has given lectures at many universities in Poland, Turkey, Cyprus, and Portugal.

Contents

Preface

The notion of "mobilities," when looked at from a practical point of view, turns out to cover many different kinds of human social activity. It is not surprising, then, that when approached from an academic perspective, it reveals enormous potential for interdisciplinary research, which, as this monograph testifies, has proven extremely attractive to many scholars from different continents, disciplines, and schools of academic inquiry. The authors of this volume focus on the specific aspects of mobilities, namely, tourism and travel behavior, but approach them from a plethora of positions; they are economists, geographers, sociologists, experts in culture, anthropologists, management specialists, and others. Such a myriad of perspectives is bound to be challenging in methodological terms, but it seems there is a growing agreement as to the worthiness of such interdisciplinary research. By means of combining social, cultural, geographical, economic, and other types of approaches, researchers obtain access to a fascinating and increasingly ubiquitous phenomenon of contemporary human mobility—related to tourism, leisure, and travel behavior.

Academic and practical approaches to the challenge of facing such multifaceted phenomena can be witnessed in this volume. It contains 13 chapters divided into 2 sections. The first one, consisting of five works, is concerned with various aspects of tourism presented in different social, cultural, and psychological contexts. Also a religious aspect of tourism, seen from a Muslim perspective, is present as in the case of the chapter devoted to travel behavior in relation to the Halal tourism industry. In the second chapter, the concept of cultural tourism with an example of musical events organized on the coastal destinations of Istria as case studies has been described by the authors from the Croatian universities of Zadar and Pula. Another study of empirical character proposes a model in which tourist satisfaction is a consequence of the functional, hedonic, and symbolic benefits, wherein they are understood by the author from the Chilean University of Santiago as the effect of cognitive perception and affective evaluation. In turn, the results of the survey research devoted to the identification of the long-haul travel motivation by international tourists to Penang have been proposed by two authors from the Universiti Sains Malaysia. And finally, the first section ends with a qualitative study of psychological and social character. Its author from the National Tsing Hua University deals with the problem of decision-making and travel behavior of Taiwanese graduates participating in working holidays.

The second section of the book is mostly related to the issue of sustainability—understood by particular authors in various contexts. It contains eight chapters that deal with different economic, spatial, environmental, and even virtual issues of contemporary tourist mobilities. The first paper explores the problem of cruise tourism and sustainability. Its two authors, representing both academic and business environments, focus on the case of Venice and its role as home port for cruise tourism in the Mediterranean area. The original topic of online conversations for giving sense to sustainable tourism on the example of the Adriatic-Ionian Region constitutes the subject of the next chapter authored by two scholars from the University of Macerata (Central Eastern Italy). They present the outputs of empirical study in which the conversations retrieved from Twitter were analyzed. Another original topic connected with competitiveness in Colombian medical tourism has been presented by a researcher from the Universidad del Norte, located on the Caribbean coast of this South American country. The next chapter deals with the estimation of the footprint created by the air transport sector on regional development with the example of a chosen Mediterranean region (Crete). As an empirical method of research, the author from Democritus University of Thrace (Greece) applies the input-output computational modeling framework. In turn, a comprehensive review of the quality in tourism is the subject of interest of three Romanian authors. They analyze, and finally summarize, the evolution of this approach in the travel and tourism sector. In the next chapter authored by three scholars from Slovakia, a functional-chorological approach is applied to assess the natural prerequisites of tourism, which makes it possible to arrange the territorial model of tourism more accurately. The authors use for this purpose the Bratislava district of Devin as an appropriate area for the case study. A completely different topic constitutes the subject of research of two scholars from the West Coast University of Applied Sciences in Heide (Germany). They try to examine which portfolios of spatial- and content-related academic courses are necessary for shaping future competences in the Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link Area—the region in Northern Germany that strongly depends on mobility, mostly logistics and tourism. And finally, the problem that is concerned with tourism as a factor of sustainable urban development is raised by an independent researcher from Zagreb (Croatia). She analyzes the original issue of energy-efficient architecture in the context of tourism sustainability in urban environment.

After this short review of chapters presented in this volume, it is worth emphasizing that their authors make an attempt to grasp an extremely complex, real-life phenomenon. This proves problematic at times, but unless we make an effort to conceptualize the complexity of our social existence, we are bound to be at a loss when confronted with ever more complicated real-life situations. Thus, the value of this volume lies, on the one hand, in its paving the path for further research in the area. This is not to say, however, that no immediate practical applications are offered. On the contrary, many of the presented texts deal with very specific issues, producing readily acceptable recommendations and perspectives for possible follow-up studies.

If we subtitled the volume "Contexts and Boundaries," it is because we believe that approaching complex issues considering the relevant context warrants accuracy and that we are convinced that in interdisciplinary study, the boundaries there should be crossed.

Leszek Butowski
The University of Lodz,
Faculty of Geographical Sciences,
Poland

Section 1

Social, Cultural and Psychological Aspects of Tourism

Chapter 1

Muslim Travel Behavior in Halal Tourism

Mohamed Battour

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70370

Abstract

Destination marketers need to understand Muslim travel behaviour in order to satisfy his/her needs especially in Halal tourism industry. This chapter discussed the importance of getting the terminologies right in the field of Muslim-friendly or Halal tourism. Muslim tourist needs are identified when travelling abroad: Muslim-friendly hotels, Halal food, Muslim-friendly phone application, Muslim-friendly airport, Halal holiday, Halal tourism websites, Halal healthcare facilities and services, Halal cruise and Halal swimming suit. Implications related to Halal tourism are also discussed.

Keywords: Muslim travellers, Halal tourism, Islamic tourism, Muslim friendly, destination marketing

1. Introduction

The knowledge of Muslim tourist behaviour in the context of Halal tourism is pertinent to industry players, marketers, and policy makers alike in developing Halal tourism infrastructure and facilities, Halal travel packages and Halal travel activities. It will also help them design specific messages for marketing communication in order to attract Muslim tourists. Although the past or future Muslim populations size in the world does not reveal to what extent this population actively practises its faiths or how religious its members are or will be [1], Muslim customers are one of the fastest developing market segments, and its needs cannot be ignored by destination marketers and tourism operators [2–4]. According to the State of the Global Islamic Economy report [5], produced by Thomson Reuters in collaboration with DinarStandard, the global Muslim travel market was worth $140 billion in 2013, which represents 11.5% of global expenditure. The same report predicts that the segment is expected to be worth $238 billion in 2019 and represent 13% of global expenditure. **Figure 1** shows that

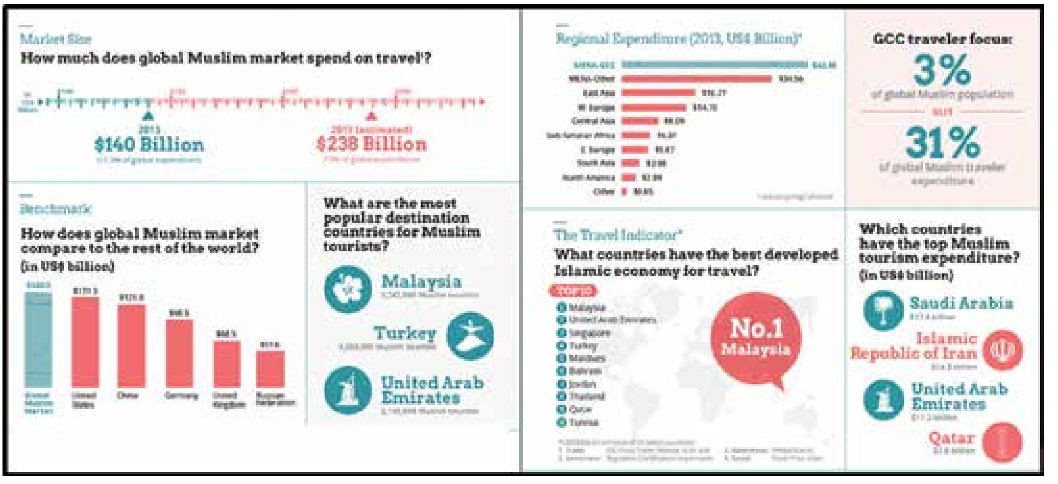


Figure 1. Global Muslim market. Source: State of the global Islamic economy 2014–2015 [5].

Malaysia, the UAE and Singapore lead the Halal Travel Indicator that focuses on the health of the family-friendly/Halal travel ecosystem a country has relative to its size.

There is now a growing interest in Halal tourism from the perspectives of both industry and academic research. Many stress the fact that any strategy to develop or market Halal tourism products and services must be guided by Islamic teachings and principles in all their aspects [3, 6, 7]. There are several terms that define the concept of Halal tourism and provide a suggested guideline to help clarify the matter. Building on this foundation, this chapter proposes that there exist differences in the meaning of the terms ‘Halal’, ‘Islamic’ and ‘Muslim-friendly’ in the context of tourism. It is hoped that a clearer understanding of the above terms will address the concern among many researchers and marketers regarding Muslim traveller behaviour in Halal tourism.

2. Is it Halal or Islamic?

One challenge faced by academicians and practitioners is to identify the right terminologies as well as the proper clarifications of the concepts. At the moment, the most commonly used terms are ‘Halal tourism’ and ‘Islamic tourism’. At the moment, due to the multidisciplinary scope of the subject matter, there exist confusions regarding the two terms. As a result, the terms are often used interchangeably by researchers in both conceptual and empirical papers as if the two concepts are similar [1, 3, 6, 8–12]. However, since the Quran does differentiate between the terms ‘Mu’minoon’ (‘Islamic person’) and Muslim (persons who profess to be Muslims), it is necessary to clarify the difference between the terms ‘Islamic’, ‘Halal’ and ‘Islam related’.

At the outset, it must be understood that ‘Islam’ is the name of the religion, whose first prophet was Adam and whose final prophet was Muhammad. One of the meanings of the term Islam is ‘a state of peace achieved through surrender to God’ [13]. Another meaning of the term Islam is ‘submission’. Therefore, the term ‘Muslim’ means a person who submits to God and is used for an adherent of the Islamic faith.

According to one very authoritative book entitled *The Lawful and the Prohibited in Islam*, which was written by Sheikh Yusuf al-Qaradawi, a globally respected Islamic scholar and chairman of the International Union of Muslim Scholars, the term Halal is defined as 'That which is permitted, with respect to which no restriction exists, and the doing of which the law-Giver, Allah, is allowed' [14]. Therefore, Halal term means 'permissible' according to Islamic teaching (Sharia law). Halal is also one of the five actions (*al-ahkam al-khamsah*) that categorize the morality of human action in Islam, others being *Fard* (compulsory), *Mustahabb* (recommended), *Makruh* (disliked) and *Haram* (forbidden) [15]. From Islamic perspective, Halal as defined above refers to any practice or activity in tourism which is 'permissible' according to Islamic teaching (Sharia). Therefore, using the term 'Sharia compliant' or 'Halal' is giving the same meaning.

The term 'Islamic' is precisely applied only to that which relates directly to the faith and its doctrines (such as Islamic law/Sharia, Islamic values, principles and beliefs, Islamic worship) [13]. It is therefore closer to the Arabic term 'Mu'minoon' [16]. This is because Islam indicates the faith as an ideal based on the core Islamic sources which are the Quran and the Sunnah of the Prophet [9, 17]. It therefore follows that Muslim men, women and country may not necessarily be Islamic and that 'Islamic men' and 'Muslim men' have different meanings [17, 18]. Moreover, another element needs to be present to make an activity 'Islamic' which is *Niyyah* or intention. An action or activity is accepted by God becomes Islamic when the intention of the person who performed it is to seek the pleasure of God [18, 19]. This is based on the very famous hadith by the Prophet Muhammad:

> *'Verily actions are by intentions, and for every person is what he intended. So the one whose "hijrah" (migration) was to Allah and His Messenger, then his "hijrah" was to Allah and His Messenger. And the one whose "hijrah" was for the world to gain from it, or a woman to marry her, then his "hijrah" was for what he made "hijrah" for' (Al-Bukhārī and Muslim).*

The background to the above hadith was that the companions of the Prophet were discussing the actions of their fellow Muslims performing Hijrah (moving from the Holy city of Makkah to Madinah). The Prophet S.A.W divided the actions into two categories—those that are accepted by God and those that were not. The former is when the intention was to seek the pleasure of God, whilst the latter is when the intention or motives were for other than pleasing God [17, 19]. Therefore, an activity that is accepted by God and deserving of reward from him is categorised as 'Islamic'. Based on the above argument, using the terms 'Islamic' and 'Halal' as if they have similar meaning is inappropriate. It would be better to use 'Halal' as brand name rather 'Islamic' for any related product and service in tourism industry.

3. Halal tourism and Islamic tourism terminology

According to UNWTO definition, 'Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes' [20]. Cook et al. ([21]; p. 3) defined Tourism as 'the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs'. It is noted from the previous definition that the tourism includes the movement of people—either Muslim or non-Muslim tourists—which represents the demand side and activities/facilities to cater to tourists' needs (destination) which represent supply side. The point here is, to understand Muslim tourists' behaviour, marketers need to understand the demand side: the needs of Muslim travellers in the context of Halal tourism.

Some researchers have tried to define Islamic tourism and Halal tourism in tourism and destination marketing literatures [1, 3, 12, 22–24]. However, most have not taken into consideration the Islamic law (Sharia), the target customers (i.e. Muslims or non-Muslims), the location of activity (i.e. Muslim vs. non-Muslim country), the product and service offered (i.e. food, facilities) and the purpose of travel. Most of these definitions are loosely defined and used interchangeably. In other words, Halal tourism and Islamic tourism are treated as similar concepts. For example, Jafari and Scott [1] defined Islamic tourism as 'The encouragement of tourists likely to meet the requirements of Sharia law'. The definition focuses on Islamic law and its requirements to meet the tourist needs but ignored the religion of tourists (Muslims) and other dimensions. In our opinion, Jafari and Scott's definition is more appropriate for 'Halal tourism' rather than 'Islamic tourism'.

When Muslims travel to another destination for leisure less than one year, this travel is considered as tourism. The question that is often asked is whether the activity is to be referred to as Halal tourism or Islamic tourism. In our opinion, the activity can be referred to as Halal tourism if all the activities, facilities, actions and objectives are permissible according to Islamic teachings. The same thing applies in the case of non-Muslim tourists. So a non-Muslim tourist can claim that he/she consumes Halal food and attends Halal entertainment outlets as long as the activities related to his claim are genuinely permissible in Islam. However, to describe the traveling activities as being 'Islamic tourism' requires another very crucial element, that is, whether the activity is accompanied by *Niyyah* or intention on the part of the traveller.

If the intention of travelling is to seek the pleasure of God or in order to strengthen his faith, then it will be both Halal and Islamic. Therefore, the term 'Islamic tourism' is more appropriate. However, the place may not necessarily be located in a Muslim country or in religious locations. For example, if a man travels to London to visit the London museum in order to study the history of British colonization of the Muslim world for the sake of God, the travel can be classified as *Ibadah* (a religious act) deserving rewards from God and therefore can be appropriately referred to as 'Islamic tourism'.

However, if the intention is not in accordance with Islamic teaching, then the travelling is not Islamic. For example, even if a man travels to the holy city of Makkah or Madinah during Hajj seasons, but with the evil intention to steal things from *Hajj* or *Umrah* travellers, then the action cannot be classified as Islamic. To reinforce my point of the importance of the element of *Niyyah* or intention, I would like to highlight the fact that the term 'Islamic food' does not exist. The reason is food is not a living object and will never have any aspect of 'intention'. For food, therefore, the term to be used is *not* Islamic food but rather 'Halal or non-Halal food'.

The term 'Muslim-friendly' in tourism industry denotes an attempt to make the tourism experience enjoyable to observant Muslims. As such it is close to the concept of 'Halal tourism' but not the same. Using 'Halal' is a wider context than 'Muslim friendly'. So when the company provides Halal products and services, it should be fully Halal and not allowed to provide non-Halal products and services. However, Muslim-friendly company could provide both Halal and non-Halal products and services but not in same place or section. In other words, Muslim-friendly destinations offer plenty of 'Halal' services (such as Halal food and beverages, sex-segregated swimming pools, etc.) along with comfortable places for Muslims to perform their daily prayers. Finally, the case of non-Muslims travelling to destinations in Muslim countries to visit Islamic historical religious and cultural sites could be an argument. Is it Islamic tourism? It is suggested NOT be referred to as Islamic tourism but rather 'Islam-related tourism'.

4. Muslim tourist needs

Muslims believe that the holy Quran offers direction in all aspects of human activities including tourism choices for both individuals and governments [1, 4, 9, 25]. It is noted recently that Muslim customers become sensitive to consume products and services that are Halal (Sharia compliant). Moreover, the awareness among Muslim increased to select Halal/Islamic options for their needs from the common of options currently offered [2, 26]. Therefore, some non-Muslim destinations such as Japan, the Philippines and Brazil offered Muslim-friendly solutions/options to scenario seen as problematic by Muslim travellers.

For example, Chambers of Commerce in Japan and the Philippine Travel Agencies Association [27, 28] organized seminars to train the tourism industry and restaurateurs to satisfy Muslim tourist needs. Moreover, prayer rooms are allocated at major airports, and restaurants offer Halal food in Japan. Muslim-friendly guide is also published to provide information on Halal food and prayer places [27]. The Department of Tourism in the Philippines launched in 2014 what it called 'Eid Play Love' packages to attract Muslim travellers from Saudi Arabia and the UAE during both Eid al-Fitr and Eid al-Adha. The objective of packages was to promote the Philippines as a "Muslim- and family-friendly destination" [28]. Another example, Brazil's Federation of Muslim Associations (FAMBRAS) printed 65,000 copies of their 28-page 'Muslim Fan Guide' which details prayer times, mosque locations in host cities, emergency services and venue details to Muslim fans during the World Cup 2014 [29].

As it is mentioned earlier, to understand Muslim tourists' behaviour, destination marketers need to understand the demand side, the needs of Muslim travellers in the context of Halal tourism. The following needs are Muslim-friendly attributes that cater for Muslim tourists when travelling abroad. Muslim-friendly attributes which are applied in some destinations could be a benchmark for other destinations that target Muslim tourists and/or to market the destination as 'Muslim-friendly destination'.

4.1. Halal and Muslim-friendly hotels

In recent years, it has been observed that the numbers of Sharia compliant hotels is growing in some Muslim and non-Muslim destinations. For example, Al Meroz Hotel is a fully Halal hotel located in Thailand. Some destinations promote these hotels and claim to be 'Sharia compliant' as 'Muslim-friendly hotels [4, 22]. Muslim-friendly hotels deliver Muslim guests with all services that compliant with Islamic teachings such as Qibla direction, Halal food, alcohol-free beverages and prayer room with call for prayers [9, 11, 30, 31]. Japan is one of the non-Muslim countries that take initiatives towards training the hospitality staff by launching Muslim-Friendly Project [32]. The objective of this project is to offer training for hospitality industry employees in Japan to improve understanding of needs and concerns of Muslim tourists visiting Japan. Halal food will also be provided for Muslims at the Tokyo Olympic Games 2020. Another best practice in Halal tourism is Kyoto city which is located in the central part of the island of Honshu, Japan. Travel guide in Kyoto city website is provided for Muslims in four languages: Arabic, English, Turkish and Malay [33]. The website provides list with Muslim-friendly hotels. These hotels and inns provide Muslim visitors with a Qibla compass, a map for Kyoto Mosque and prayer mats and serve Halal food.

Aerostar Hotel in Moscow is Muslim friendly as one of the hotel's kitchens is certified Halal [34]. The hotel provides a copy of the Quran, a prayer mat and the Qibla direction in 20 of their rooms. The shampoo and soap provided in the rooms are certified Halal. Two prayer rooms are available: one for men and one for women. Fairmont Makati and Raffles Makati hotels in the Philippines become Muslim-friendly by providing Quran copy, prayer room and Arabic-language TV channels [28] (TTG Asia).

It is noted that Availability of Muslim-friendly hotel is considered one of the most important attributes that attract Muslim travellers and encourage them to visit the destination. The following attributes summarize the needs of Muslim guests in hospitality industry.

4.1.1. Muslim-friendly hotel room

- Quran copy
- Qibla direction
- Prayer mat
- Prayer timetable
- Family-friendly viewing TV
- Alcohol-free beverages in fridge
- Water usage-friendly washroom

4.1.2. Muslim-friendly hotel services

- Certified Halal food/kitchens
- Well-trained staff to satisfy Muslims
- Female staff for women
- Women-only floor/family-only floor
- Session for ladies in swimming pool/gym
- Prayer room (surau)
- Ramadan services and facilities

4.2. Halal food

Availability of Halal food and beverages is vital for destinations that target Muslim travellers. It is now common for Muslim tourists to request Halal food and beverages when they visit non-Muslim destinations [35]. According to Islamic law, it is not allowed for Muslim followers to eat pork or pork by-products, animals that were dead prior to slaughtering, animals not slaughtered properly or not slaughtered with pronouncing the name of Allah, blood and blood by-products, alcohol, carnivorous animals and birds of prey [3, 9, 11].

According to Euromonitor International report [35], the sales of Halal food increased in Europe, particularly in consumer food service outlets because of inbound Muslim tourists visiting Europe. Therefore, it is expected that the investments in Halal food market will be grown in non-Muslim destinations due to the growth of Halal tourism. For example, global Muslim expenditure on food and beverages (F&B) has increased 10.8% to reach $1292 billion in 2013. This expenditure is expected to increase to a $2537 billion market by 2019 and will account for 21.2% of the global expenditure. Furthermore, Middle Eastern full-service and fast food restaurants which serve Halal food for Muslim tourists are very prevalent in France, Germany and the UK, and some of their customers may be frequently non-Muslims.

Some of chain restaurants cater for Muslim tourist needs by serving dishes prepared in kitchens certified as Halal and using Halal chicken. For example, in the UK, About 100 KFC outlets and a fifth of Nando's restaurants serve Halal-certified chicken. Chicken Cottage, Dixy Fried Chicken, Pizza Express and Perfect Fried Chicken are using Halal chicken. Subway with sales of £488 million (EUR605 million) in 2014 used Halal meat in its sandwiches sold [11, 35, 36]. In addition, Manhattan Fish Market which is a leading chain restaurant in Malaysia opened, in 2015, its first outlet in Tokyo. The outlet is serving 100% Halal components for its menus [37]. Ryokans, the traditional Japanese hostels, are also serving Halal meals. The availability of Halal food in the destination allows Muslim tourists to experience famous cuisine in accordance with their beliefs and will motivate them to visit the destination.

4.3. Muslim-friendly phone application

One of the recent practices in Halal tourism industry is providing smartphone application that make the holiday enjoyable and Muslim friendly. Thailand is one of the non-Muslim countries that take initiatives to launch Muslim-friendly application to help further enhancement tourism industry in Thailand [38]. It helps visitors to find hotels and shopping centres with prayer rooms and restaurants that provide Halal food availability. The Tourism Authority of Thailand reported that the new application is available on Google Inc's Android and Apple Inc's iOS systems and available in English and Thai but will be expanded to include Arabic and Bahasa Indonesia. Stephenson [11] also reported that some Muslim-friendly interface applications for smartphone are available such as 'HalalTrip' and 'Muslim Pro'. Stephenson claim that applications help Muslim tourists to find Halal-friendly hospitality products and services, such as hotels, destination guides, holiday packages, airport guides and Halal restaurants [11]. It is expected that non-Muslim countries that target Muslim travellers will develop its own applications to make the country Muslim friendly.

4.4. Muslim-friendly airport

Muslim-friendly airport is recently one of the best practices to satisfy Muslim travellers. It was reported that the numbers of visitors from the Southeast Asian Muslim countries of Malaysia and Indonesia in recent year increased in Osaka [39]. Therefore, Kansai international airport (KIX) has taken initiative to satisfy Muslims. The airport allocates three prayer rooms for use of travellers and visitors. One room is located on the third floor on terminal one, and another two rooms are located at the international departure gate. The prayer rooms are segregated by gender. Washing space is provided to perform ablution for praying. The payer rooms are opened for 24 hours a day for Muslim travellers with rental prayer tools and display Qibla direction. Fifteen restaurants prepare Halal food promoted as 'pork-free and alcohol-free menus', and three restaurants are 'Halal certified'. Moreover, Narita Airport and Haneda International Airport in Tokyo opened a prayer room in 2014 [27]. Using availability of Muslim-friendly airport as promotion tools to attract Muslim travellers is the best choice to increase inbound Muslim tourists and make the destination Muslim friendly.

4.5. Halal holiday

A new travel package in the tourism industry which provided full holiday services in accordance with Islamic beliefs and practices is called 'Halal holiday' [40–42]. These include Halal resorts and hotels which serve only Halal foods and non-alcoholic drinks. Other services offered may include separate pools, spa and leisure facilities for men and women, an open beach which separates males from females, private female-only beach, family-oriented facilities such as mixed beach areas for families with Islamic swimming dress code and Muslim prayer facilities. Some may even offer Islamic heritage tours for tourists to explore and discover the history and culture of the Islamic civilization. Some of the tour providers may stress that their activities are geared towards maintaining the values and modesty of Muslims who desire to follow the Quranic encouragement to travel throughout the Earth to see God's signs and patterns all over the world.

Crescent Tours and Islamic Travels and Halal booking started selling the concept in Turkey, the seat of the Islamic Ottoman Empire, which for six centuries was the centre of interactions between the East and West (www.crescentrating.com/). It is considered one the preferable destinations that attracts Muslim tourists from around the world. Availability of Halal-friendly holiday could increase the recognition of destination to be Muslim-friendly destination and will attract Muslim tourists. It is suggested to use the term 'Muslim-friendly' holiday which is more appropriate instead of 'Halal holidays'.

4.6. Halal healthcare facilities and services

One of the growing markets for Muslim travellers is travelling for healthcare either for critical illness or wellness care. Therefore, developing Halal healthcare facilities and services for Muslim travellers is considered one of the pull factors that attract them to visit the destination. Halal healthcare provides services and facilities, which are in line with Islamic teachings at hospitals and other healthcare services. The following attributes are guidelines for Halal healthcare facilities and services [43] (Tourism):

- Doctors and nurses of the same gender as the patient
- Halal medications (as far as possible)
- Prayer rooms
- Rooms marked with the Qibla direction
- Availability of Halal food
- Water-friendly toilets

4.7. Halal cruise

One of the recent trends in global Halal market is Muslim-friendly cruise. It is the first Halal cruise which is launched by the Antalya-based Fusion Tour Company in Turkey. It sails to Greece without alcohol, pork-related products and gambling on board. It also includes segregated sports centres, single-sex spa facilities, separate Turkish baths and prayer rooms [44]. Moreover, Star Cruise is a Malaysian cruise company offering family-friendly/Halal cruises for Muslims. Halal cruise concept may be imitated from other religious communities. Kosherica, for example, is a company that deals significantly with cruise ship holidays for the Jewish community (http://www.kosherica.com/). Also, Christian Cruise.Net offers a range of holidays for different segments of its community (http://www.christiancruises.net/). It is expected that concept will be developed in Muslim and non-Muslim destinations catering for Muslim needs.

4.8. Halal swimming suit

Availability of Muslim swimming suit for women in destination may satisfy Muslim tourists. It sometimes called burqini or burkini swimsuit [35]. It is a type of swimsuit for women intended to comply with the Quranic admonition for Muslim women to dress modestly. The suit covers the whole body except the face, the hands and the feet whilst being light enough to enable swimming. It looks rather like a full-length wetsuit with built-in hood but somewhat looser and made of swimsuit material instead of neoprene [45].

Burqini is expected to gain importance as more Muslim and non-Muslim women recognize its multiple benefits, including sun protection, flexibility and modesty. In the case of Muslim women, particularly, the burqini has enabled Muslim women to be more involved in beach-related family activities and lifted limitations of those who felt confined in the domestic sphere [35]. However, some resorts in Morocco ban this in their pools, and this could be negative efforts by destinations to become more Muslim friendly, as several resorts in destinations such as Turkey, Egypt and the UAE are actually trying to become more Muslim friendly by creating women-only pools and welcoming the Muslim full bathing suit [45].

4.9. Halal tourism websites

In recent years there are many websites that provide information on Halal tourism. One of them is CrescentRating website (www.crescentrating.com/) which was established in 2006 to inform business tourists of Halal-friendly destinations. It has grown significantly in both scope and content, containing global information on a variety of topics: Halal-friendly accommodation, resorts, restaurants, caterers, food and beverage manufacturers, shopping destinations, airports, Islamic art and cultural sites [11]. The company also rates hotels in accordance to detailed Islam-friendly criteria.

Halal booking website is also one of the pioneers of Halal tourism concept. It provides Halal holiday packages that allow Muslim tourists to relax, soak up the sun and enjoy sandy beaches, without compromising the values of their beliefs (www.Halalbooking.com/). Muslim-friendly website also enables Muslim tourists to book Halal hotel and resorts (www.muslimfriendly.com). Muslim-friendly website is created to market Osaka (www.muslim-friendly.jp.net/). It provides maps with the aim of helping Muslim travellers enjoy a more comfortable, meaningful and enjoyable stay in Osaka, Japan.

5. Discussion and implications

Destination marketers need to understand Muslim travel behaviour in order to satisfy their needs especially in Halal tourism industry. This chapter discussed the importance of getting the terminologies right in the field of Muslim-friendly or Halal tourism. One of the effective means of accessing Halal market is to make Halal food widely available in the destination initially which is considered the high priority for Muslim tourists. Furthermore, Muslim-friendly hotels should be available in the destination or at least separated sections in hotels where no alcohol beverages and no pork Halal food are provided. Finally, Muslim-friendly airport is considered a starting point that could be used in promotion tools to market the destination as a Muslim friendly.

The initiatives that are taken to make the destination Muslim friendly are considered a valuable progress in Halal tourism, but more innovative and creative options for Muslims still are needed in this huge market. Therefore, innovation is vital for the success of destination operators to satisfy Muslim and non-Muslim tourists. Tourism products and service providers should find innovative solutions that satisfy non-Muslim tourists and thus increase trip quality and value. Tourism operators could educate non-Muslim tourists about what Halal tourism rules are. The use of innovative technology could be introduced into all hotel rooms so that, for example, the call for early morning prayer would be heard by Muslim guests and not be heard by non-Muslim guests. The main challenge for Islamic destinations is finding the balance between catering non-Muslim tourists and satisfying their needs without coming into conflict with Islamic teachings. Innovative Muslim-friendly application should be available to satisfy Muslim travellers. Muslim-friendly airline would need creative aircraft facilities and more Islamic options, such as gender- and family-segregated seating and in-flight religious entertainment.

Although Halal tourism is a good business opportunity that can satisfy Muslim and non-Muslim tourist, however, non-Muslim tourists may not accept Halal tourism products and services as an option. For example, in Sharia-compliant hotels, alcoholic beverages are prohibited. In Islamic resorts, beaches are sometimes separated by gender. As a result, tourists from non-Muslim countries may not travel to a destination that practices Halal tourism where such restrictions are applied. This could be a factor that discourages tourists from travelling to Muslim countries that observe this rule strictly, such as Saudi Arabia. However, burkini swimsuits might not be accepted by non-Muslim tourists and could be a travel constraint, but some of non-Muslim tourists might consider it as a new experience. Furthermore, gender segregation could be applied for non-Muslim tourists if the travel motivation is not to a swimming vacation.

With regard to Halal food, some non-Muslim tourists might refrain from eating Halal meat due to the method of slaughtering used. Some can accept the reality that they cannot consume meat and pork in quite the same way as in their home country. But they are willing to substitute those with Halal meat or with fish or vegetarian food. Some might not be happy with the banning of alcoholic beverages. Here again, innovative solutions should be applied to solve this situation such as providing similar beverages without alcohol or replacing them with non-alcoholic juice and tea. The more innovative the alternatives that comply with Sharia are, the more support for tourism development in the Halal tourism market there will be. Some non-Muslims might accept consuming Halal food as long as the taste is fine. This could be used as a promotional tool to attract non-Muslim tourists.

There is a fierce competition among destination marketers, as well as the saturated market place, and there is therefore a need for a proper understanding of the factors that influence Muslim tourist behaviour. Destination marketers must understand whether Halal tourism practices affect whether tourists will visit certain destinations or not. It is also important to examine whether Halal tourism practices are wanted by all segments or only to selected segments. The success of some destinations/organizations in Halal tourism market will encourage other competitors to enter the market. For example, it is expected that destinations such as Queensland and Australia could target Halal tourism market and to be a Muslim-friendly destination. Furthermore, worldwide global brands in hospitality industry such as Ritz-Carlton may address opportunity in Sharia-compliant hotel market.

The awareness among Muslims is expected to increase for selecting Halal travel and Muslim-friendly options to satisfy their needs from the common of options currently offered. Therefore, newer destinations are expected to become more Muslim-friendly such as south Africa, France, Spain, Australia, Maldives, and Korea. The challenge for new destinations that plan to be Muslim friendly is to harmonize the demands of developing Halal travel and the needs of those looking for modern international tourism. It is expected in 2017 that more attention will be given among new destinations to offer Muslim-friendly airport, Halal dining options, prayer space access and recreational facilities with privacy. Newer destinations are expected to become more Muslim friendly such as South Africa and France. The numbers of Sharia-compliant hotels and Halal resorts are expected to increase in non-Muslim destinations. Customization of Halal tours is expected to grow and be adopted by travel agencies: availability of Halal food, an itinerary built around prayer timings, visits to mosques and Muslim tour guides. Travel agencies have many Halal tourism opportunities in areas such as Halal business travel, family-friendly packages, Muslim-friendly services, luxury Muslim market segment and Muslim heritage souvenirs. Halal medical tourism might be grown in non-Muslim destination targeting Muslim tourists. Training programmes are expected to be offered to non-Muslim staff to understand Halal issues.

Author details

Mohamed Battour[1,2*]

*Address all correspondence to: mohamedbator@gmail.com

1 College of Business Administration, Prince Sultan University, Riyadh, KSA

2 Faculty of commerce, Business Department, Tanta University, Tanta, Egypt

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Chapter 2

Music Event as a Tourist Product: Specifics, Issues, Challenges

Aleksandra Krajnović and Ivana Paula Gortan-Carlin

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.71338

Abstract

In this chapter, the authors describe the concept of cultural tourism using an example of event tourism, specifically music events on coastal tourist destinations. As an example, the authors describe Istria, one of the strongest tourist regions in Croatia, showing effective ways in managing events using a strategic approach and having well-organized stakeholders. They continue by providing an additional analytical presentation of issues relating to music events, as one of the key subgroups of the events. Furthermore, the authors give an overview of the challenges and specificities that are occurring today in the field of not only music event management but also event management in general by using, once again, the example of coastal tourist destinations. The authors conclude that the scientific aspects of cultural tourism and event management are of increasing importance since these events are becoming an integral part of the tourism product of each destination, and the experience, as well as the motive and outcome of each event, becomes one of the key categories in the life of a postindustrial man. For a better understanding of an event as a complex phenomenon, the authors advocate for further ontological research and a multidisciplinary approach.

Keywords: event management, cultural tourism, tourism destination, music event, sustainable tourism

1. Introduction

Cultural tourism is one of the oldest forms of travel and one of the most significant and fastest growing components of the tourist phenomena. According to UNESCO, cultural tourism is the area with the most rapid international growth of industrial tourism. In this chapter, authors try to answer to some of the contemporary issues and challenges that appear in the field of cultural tourism, both in theoretical discussions and in practical performance. The authors offer a critical analysis of the complex phenomenon of event tourism as a segment of cultural tourism, specifically music events and their role in an integrated tourism product of tourism destinations. The authors aim to contribute to an easier and more efficient understanding of the concept of cultural tourism, specifically event tourism. As the geographical area of observation, Croatia is taken as a tourist destination on the rise and examples of tourist events are taken from Istria, which generates a third of Croatian tourist traffic as a tourist region. We should not ignore the concept of cultural geography [1]. The authors, namely, consider that the tourist event is tightly bound by the only "tissue" of tourist destination.

This chapter contains a critical analysis of the concepts of cultural tourism, events tourism, and music events. Using a multidisciplinary approach, the authors provide a brief overview of the key concepts, classifications, and conceptual frameworks of event tourism, taking for example music events. The second part of the chapter deals with a "practical," managerial aspect and focuses on events tourism. Events, as analyzed by the authors, should be treated as a specific tourist product, which needs to be systematically and strategically planned and managed. In the third part of the chapter, the author presents the key challenges for further research in the field of cultural tourism, specifically events tourism, using the example of tourist destinations. The authors attempt to provide a scientific and professional contribution to the most important issues and challenges present in the field of event tourism.

For the purpose of this analysis, the following methods were used: heuristics, the analysis of relevant scientific literature, the analysis of available strategic documents, primary research through cultural tourism workshops, and direct and participatory observation based on the experience of both authors in managing cultural tourism in coastal tourism destinations.

Croatia is presented as a case study in the chapter. Croatia is a country abounding with the protected material and nonmaterial cultural heritage of UNESCO (see more on: http://www.croatia.hr/en-GB/experiences/culture-and-heritage). A special motive for the research that authors express for writing this chapter is, what they believe is also a challenge for many other authors who are dealing with this issue, that cultural tourism, in a significant way, preserves and valorizes the material and immaterial cultural heritage and regional and national identity of the tourist destination.

2. Cultural tourism and event tourism: characteristics and specificities

The following analysis describes the notion and the concept of cultural tourism and event tourism as one of its segments. The examples used are music events.

2.1. Cultural tourism as a platform for event tourism

Cultural tourism is the kind of tourism that is stimulated by culture. The term *culture* signifies the totality of material and spiritual goods, the ethical and social values created by humanity [2]. In order to promote and develop cultural tourism a cultural attraction within a particular destination is needed.

World Tourism Organization (WTO) defines *cultural tourism* as the form of tourism that "includes all the aspects of the trip through which people learn about the mentality and lifestyles of those with whom they meet during their stay [3]." The Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) defines cultural tourism as "the movement of people to cultural attractions that are far away from their place of residence, with the intent to collect information and new experiences in order to satisfy their cultural needs [3]."

According to World Tourism Organization specialists, cultural tourism includes [3]:

- tourism for youth people, where the cultural and educational aspects are predominant e.g., study trips, trips for learning a foreign language, international camps;
- exchanges of artists, writers, and the events celebrating this exchanges;
- rural tourism, holidays to the families of the visited region/country;
- holidays in the villages integrated in the cultural local environment;
- attendance at religious festivals, national, and international festivals;
- cultural circuits, which includes visits to museums, historical sites, and attending various cultural events;
- pilgrimages to historical and religious places and monuments.

Compared with the other forms of tourism, cultural tourism has a number of features arising from its specific content, its manifestation manner, and its evolutions and involutions in this area. Moreover, cultural tourism is positioned at the intersection between tourism and culture, borrowing some of the characteristics from both of the two phenomena [3].

According to this, the particularities of cultural tourism are:

- cultural tourism has a complex content, due to the special services that are included e.g., special services offered by cultural institutes (museums, churches and monasteries, festivals, shows, various cultural events, etc.);
- cultural tourism targets a clientele with a certain level of culture and education or which is being educated;
- cultural tourism is generally a more expensive product, but not a luxury one;
- compared with other forms of tourism, cultural tourism seasonality is less accentuated [3].

2.2. Event as a tourist attraction and the specificities of event tourism

The term *attraction* [4] means the power that attracts, the power of attraction, or what attracts to, great interest (in the case of events, it can be a performance, a concert, etc.). According to Kušen, "tourist attractions are the basic tourism resources of every tourist destination that determine and condition the tourist offer and the development of tourism in general [5]." Their concept is determined by tourist needs, motivations, and activities. All tourist attractions are strongly *spatially marked* (emphasized by authors), regardless of whether they are part of a specific space or their occurrence that is strictly spatially defined.

An attraction is often associated with the term *event*. The English noun event means "happening, phenomenon, consequence, competition." This word was taken over and is used as such in the Croatian language as well. In the Croatian foreign word dictionary [6], the word event is not mentioned, meaning that the word is in use only after the 1990s. An event can be a ceremony, a sports competition, a congress, a conference, an exhibition, a festival or a party, or something that happens or is regarded as happening, or an occurrence, especially one of some importance [7]. It is an event that can take place in different fields. The word event is often used for notions such as *event management* and *event organization* [8].

When debating the categorization of events, a thematic approach is then taken by assessing literature specific to the four general categories of events and related venues (i.e., business, sport, festivals, and entertainment) that dominate praxis and have attracted the most attention from researchers [9].

In Kušen's overview of the usual types of individual and mass tourist attractions, music is a part of the cultural and historical attractions, located in the subgroup *Manifestations* (festivals, performances) and *Culture of Life and People* (folklore and tradition). However, Kušen points out that this basic classification does not extend to the basic tourist attractions and because of that he further contributes with a detailed classification of tourist attractions. When it comes to music, only those subgroups of attraction according to Kušen's division that directly or indirectly touch on music are stated. Attractions belonging to the folklore group, for example, are classified as a subgroup of possible attractions derived from the people: folk music, folk dances, customs, legends, urban legends, and "UFO legends," He continues by dividing the group of cultural manifestations into the following subgroups: games, festivals, presentations, exhibitions, art colonies, gatherings, and entertainment programs, while at the same time dividing the group of cultural and religious institutions into museums, galleries, exhibition spaces, shrines and locations of pilgrimage, monasteries, theaters (including the opera, national theater, drama theater, comedy, variety, cabaret, and specialty theaters) as well as concert halls. Regarding the notion of motivation or activity of a visitor who participates in the event, Kušen cites watching and listening, experiencing, learning the professional and scientific education and photography.

Getz and Page indicate a core proposition of event tourism [9]:

a. Events can attract tourists (and others, such as sponsors and the media) who otherwise might not visit a particular place; the spending of event tourists generates economic benefits; event tourism can be leveraged for maximum value in combatting seasonality of demand, spreading tourism geographically, and assisting in other forms of urban and economic development; portfolios of events can be designed for maximum impact, especially by appealing to multiple target segments.

b. Events can create positive images for the destination and help brand or reposition cities.

c. Events contribute to place marketing by making cities more livable and attractive.

d. Events animate cities, resorts, parks, urban spaces, and venues of all kinds, making them more attractive to visit and revisit, and utilizing them more efficiently.

e. Event tourism acts as a catalyst for other forms of desired development (including urban renewal, community capacity building, voluntarism, and improved marketing), thereby generating a long-term or permanent legacy.

3. Event as a cultural product integrated into the integrated tourism product of a destination

The focus of this segment of the chapter is primarily on the destination-related issues of event tourism. The authors also present the results of the primary research and place them within the context of the previous research within this area.

Cultural tourism and event tourism as its integral part should be based on the principles of sustainable tourism development. The UNESCO *World Heritage and Sustainable Tourism Program* represents a new approach based on dialog and stakeholder cooperation where planning for tourism and heritage management is integrated at a destination level, the natural and cultural assets are valued and protected, and appropriate tourism developed [10].

The EU produced the *Agenda for Sustainable and Competitive European Tourism*, which is seen as the "New tourism" policy. This agenda primarily aims to sustain tourism promotion and development and rather downplays dimensions of sustainability. It confirms the view that tourism is seen as a major tool for regional and local development throughout the EU. Verheugen (2008) stated recently [11]: "Tourism is a strategically important sector for the European economy and can play an important role in reaching the goals of the growth and jobs Strategy." This Agenda as the following objective evidence:

- Promote competitiveness and sustainability
- Improve the regulatory environment e. g., facilitate new starts
- Enhance the understanding and visibility of tourism
- Promotion of European destinations, i.e., European Destination Tourism Portal (www.visiteurope.com)

The principles articulated for achieving a competitive and sustainable tourism throughout the EU are as follows:

- Take a holistic and integrated approach
- Plan for the long term
- Achieve an appropriate pace and rhythm of development

- Involve all stakeholders
- Utilize best available knowledge
- Minimize and manage risk (precautionary approach)
- Promote negative impacts, e.g., externalities should be included in costs (polluter pays principle)
- Set and respect limits, where appropriate, e.g., apply carrying capacity models
- Undertake continuous monitoring

This Agenda…has an emphasis on small-scale, locally managed, and controlled tourism, which has a social responsibility [11].

Within the context of tourism and the tourism system, events comprise a key element in both the origin area (i.e., events are an important motivator of tourism) as well as within the destination area (i.e., events feature prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations) [12]. Events are both animators of destination attractiveness but more fundamentally as key marketing propositions in the promotion of places, given the increasingly global competitiveness to attract visitor spending. To use Leiper's analogy of the tourism system, events have become a core element of the destination system (emphasized by the authors) where accommodation, attractions, transport, and ancillary services have been utilized or specifically developed (e.g., the provision of infrastructure for mega events) to enhance the destination offer, thereby expanding the tourism potential and capacity of destinations beyond a narrow focus on leisure-based tourism (e.g., holidays).

Recent research (e.g., Connell, Page, & Meyer) also demonstrates the critical relationship that exists between events as a bridge between the market for visitor attractions created by tourists and the use of events to fill the gap left in the off-peak season by a seasonal drop in tourism demand, as residents and domestic visitors provide a substitutable form of demand stimulated by events. In this respect, events have a wider remit than destination-related tourism although the focus of this part of chapter is primarily on the destination-related issues of event tourism and the studies associated with this area.

To be simultaneously successful in all these different areas at the level of tourist destinations requires a global approach, focused on tourist satisfaction and based on the principles of sustainable development, which is described as integrated quality management (IQM). IQM model serves as a support for the activities of restructuring and repositioning of the tourism destination whose task is to ensure a higher level of quality elements in the structure of the tourism product.

Integral quality management (IQM) is a relatively new concept in the management of a tourist destination that developed in the 1990s as a response to competitive pressures on both the supply and the demand side. At least three reasons can be cited to explain the late appearance of this concept [12]:

- A more intense pressure of the competition both on the supply and on the demand
- A delayed emergence and development of quality management in the service sector that occurred not earlier than in the 1980s
- A complex nature of the overall quality management of tourist destinations

The IQM approach implies an equal satisfaction of the needs of the visitors, the local population and everyone involved in the tourism sector. The European Commission's integrated quality management is defined as a "systematic effort for internal and external quality, i.e., short-term economic progress and long-term local development [13]."

The European Commission has conducted separate studies and has adopted the appropriate Directives, separately for the urban, coastal, and rural tourist destinations [14], taking into account their specificities, and adapting the management approach accordingly. The European Commission points out that the coastal tourist destinations "do not just include destinations right next to the sea, but destinations that have been identified, recognized, and promoted as homogeneous entities where coastal tourist activities are the primary attraction for the visitor." [15].

Figure 1 shows a different approach to the event portfolio depending on the type of destination and in conformance to the aforementioned classification of tourist destinations according to the EU Directives using music events as examples. Urban destinations should offer all genres of music offered in urban destinations, with the repertoire mostly consisting of globally relevant authors and composers, and to a lesser degree consisting of autochthonous or locally characterized events. In the coastal area, due to the frequency of tourists of other cultural interests, the offer should be varied and of equal proportion, both popular and autochthonous. Within rural areas tourism as well as event tourism should be developed around the autochthone qualities of the destination that is being visited, promoting a tourist offer based on autochthone elements such as folklore, classical, ecclesiastical, and entertaining music.

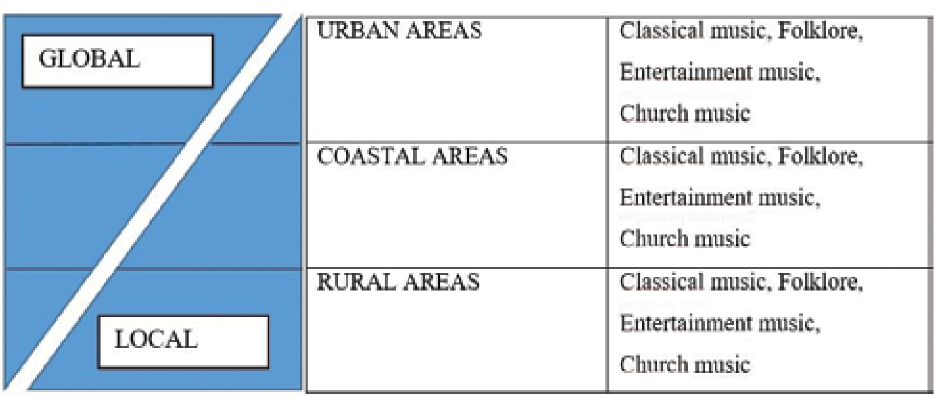

Figure 1. The link between the type of tourist destination (urban, coastal, rural) and the genre of music events. Source: Research conducted by the authors.

4. Specifics and importance of strategic event management on the example of a coastal destination: case of tourist cluster of the northwestern Istria

In this section, the authors present a practical (professional) approach to the managing of events in tourism. It should be noted that in this field, as well as in the wider context of management of destination tourism, the crucial approach is that of the stakeholder, making the use stakeholder theory unavoidable [16–18].

It is interesting to mention a very important study of Getz and Page [9], where the authors define the research themes on planning and managing event tourism. They state the planning and managing of event tourism as one of the key research topics. This issue primarily refers to the practical, economic-management aspect of event tourism. This is also the research focus of this segment of the chapter, with the authors agreeing with the conclusions of earlier authors about the management of tourism events being a long-term more than being a short-term issue, as well as the key importance of the stakeholder approach together with the need for a permanent and systematic long-term event management and their strategic planning [18]. Therefore, by referring to and further developing the Getz and Page view, the authors propose the following thesis: planning for a long-term or permanent legacy is overtaking short-term measures of economic impact in justifying event tourism, halo effects relate to the short-term image boost, quantum leap means using events to accelerate growth, capacity building requires consideration of cumulative, sustainable benefits, repositioning stems from the exploitation of events in rebranding a destination, and leveraging applies to a variety of methods intended to increase visitor spending and longer term trade or development gains [9].

What follows are the results of the research that will try to provide certain answers to key research questions regarding contemporary event tourism within a defined field of event tourism management. The geographic area used for the research is Istria, a Croatian tourist region that accounts for one-third of Croatia's tourist traffic and which invests significant resources into event tourism, developing it as part of an integral product of coastal and rural tourist destinations.

This region is particularly interesting for studying due to the fact that already with the first Tourism Development Master Plan in 2002, it was divided into *tourist clusters*, the lower level strategic organizational units, which in part independently decide on the development of their tourist area, based obviously on the unambiguously defined key strategic directions for the entire region of Istria.

The research also includes a time component. The results of the research are presented in **Table 1**, with the first column referring to the base year 2008, which consists of still unpublished primary research. The research refers to workshops on cultural tourism held in two locations (Novigrad and Umag) on May 27, 2008 [19]. The workshops were conducted as part of a preaccession EU project, called *Cultural tourism in Croatian Regions*. It is necessary to point out that one of the co-authors of this research participated as a moderator at the mentioned workshops. The second column of the **Table 1** shows what has been done based on observations, deep interviews with the managers of the presented tourist clusters (2016), and the research carried out in 2016/2017 by Frank Medica needed for the study of the impact of the

Situation in 2007/2008	Situation in 2016/2017: What has been done and what is not?
Strengths: 1. Rich tourist tradition, infrastructure, cultural, and historical heritage. 2. There is a master plan for the development of tourism in the region of Istria.	**Strengths:** 1. This represents a good platform for further development of tourism events, which is partly completed. 2. Strategic planning in tourism is still present, but there is a question of knowing and including the guidelines of the master plan as defined by all stakeholders, as well as the monitoring of achievements at all levels.
Weaknesses: 1. The cultural and tourist offer should be profiled in accordance with the historical periods to which the cultural heritage belongs. 2. Ethnographic elements, autochthonism, and tradition should be valued more appropriately. 3. The target market is insufficiently profiled. 4. Relatively, weak pre- and postseason tourism results. 5. Insufficient monitoring of a tourist consumption in a destination (as well as in cultural tourism) outside the hotel at lower non-national levels. 6. Insufficient co-operation and networking of stakeholders. 7. Tourist destinations are defined by administrative boundaries. 8. Insufficient co-operation of public-private partnerships. 9. Lack of stronger engagement of the local population in the events. "The absence of people who will tell the story." 10. The need to create *a cluster of ideas* on a broader platform. 11.Training for event managers. 12. Inadequate education of the local population for the better inclusion in event tourism and cultural tourism in general. 13. The promotion of events on key emitting markets is not adequate and timely. 14. A "poor" event-portfolio with no innovations. 15. Insufficient/inadequate connectivity between coastal and rural destinations. 16. Insufficient co-financing of events by sponsors. 17. The tradition of the life of the local population is not sufficiently valorized.	**Weaknesses:** 1. Not completed. Certain types of events do not systematically follow the key historical periods of the tourist destination history. 2. Partially completed. Event-portfolios partially observe the autochthonous elements but not in a systematic manner, with a questionable degree of consulting with field experts. 3. Completed. The cluster has defined that the key target group of the cluster should be the middle to a higher purchasing power level. This should also be reflected in the event portfolio, but it is still not sufficiently tailored to the target market (e.g., the music noise from terraces during the night affects negatively a "more sensitive" type of tourist). 4. Partially completed. The tourist season is prolonged, with this cluster predominating in Istria. Local experts believe that one of the reasons for these improved results is a more systematic approach to event management, especially for the pre- and postseason. 5. Not completed in a systematic manner. Despite the existence of high-quality national-level monitoring of tourist expenditure in a destination (TOMAS survey), the data have not been sufficiently analyzed for lower levels. 6. It has been greatly improved and organized in a systematic way, from the regional level (Istria) to middle level (Tourism cluster) to the lower levels (municipalities and cities). 7. Partially completed by merging smaller units into clusters. 8. This co-operation has intensified, but there are still strong political interests, as well as the interests of large hotel companies in relation to small stakeholders, which reflects on the event portfolio and event tourism in general. 9. Not completed. The population is poorly involved in organizing or following the events. 10. Not completed. Innovations and decisions relating to the events and event-portfolios are still determined by a narrow circle of people. 11. Partially completed. There are high-school programs and institutions that educate managers in cultural tourism, but the "market" does not recognize them sufficiently. 12. Not completed. There are no systematic programs of education about the historic heritage of a local area. The responsibility about the decision on additional education is shifted toward cultural institutions and individuals desiring to participate in such lectures. 13. The development of technology has allowed improvements in this regard, but there are no systematic connections between event portfolios and other basic and additional elements of the tourist offer, with some exceptions (tourist boards). 14. Although there are numerous ideas for innovations and the creation of new types and forms of events, the impression is

Situation in 2007/2008	Situation in 2016/2017: What has been done and what is not?
	that only small steps are being taken in this regard and that this depends largely on the great enthusiasm of individual (mostly cultural) institutions and individuals. 15. Completed. This cluster is just a good example of linking coastal and rural elements to a unified whole and an integrated product, where some key events are organized in a cluster-level collaboration. 16. Not entirely completed because of unfavorable legal regulations that do not encourage sponsorship. Sponsorship of events mostly includes large local hotel companies that they consider to be key events for a specific tourist destination. 17. Much has been done about the so-called *gourmet events*, but there is a lack of an adequate valorization of other elements of traditional heritage.
Opportunities: 1. A rich cultural and historical heritage provides an excellent platform for events 2. It is necessary to create a "cultural story" for destination 3. The identity of the destination should be based on indigenous elements. 4. The possibility of "integrated" cultural-tourist products, which consists of different elements. 5. The possibility for the clusters to train "internal" local tourist guides (in addition to the general knowledge gained through "official" seminars) who would receive certificates and as such would contribute significantly to cultural tourism. 6. A greater inclusion of children and primary school pupils in the organization of the events. 7. The formation of a Council for Cultural Tourism in the cluster composed of members of different professions.	**Opportunities:** 1. Certain types of today's events based on a cultural heritage that did not exist before were created. 2. Not fully completed. No "all-round cultural story" has been defined for each destination individually. 3. The identity of the destination is not fully built on the autochthonous elements. Small stakeholders are ahead of big companies, by "guarding" the indigenous elements more adequately. It seems that accordingly, "smaller" events are more suitable than "mega" events when it comes to autochthonous elements. 4. Almost every event consists of several elements, but the possibilities for such "interconnected" cultural-tourist products are not exhausted yet. 5. Not completed. 6. Partially completed for certain individual events. The issue is not approached in a systematic way 7. Not completed.
Threats: 1. Inadequate recognition of tourist destinations 2. Inadequate educational level (knowledge of foreign languages, knowledge of cultural and historical heritage, etc.) of key stakeholders for cultural tourism. 3. The antiquated concept of tourist communities as key organizers of events. The process should be transferred to the Destination Management Organization (DMO). 4. Conflicts between the tourism community and tourist agencies, which can also reflect on cultural tourism.	**Threats:** 1. Completed. A fully agreed-upon position on the new visual identity of the cluster that is being systematically constructed. 2. Partially completed. There is no systematic verification of these types of knowledge. Despite the education of tourist guides (they need to obtain a certificate after their education), it is questionable whether all of them present the cultural heritage in an adequate manner. Event managers often lack sufficient education or knowledge about management or culture. The knowledge about the cultural heritage of tourist representatives can also be questioned. 3. Not completed. Changes in the legal regulations for the establishment of DMOs and DMCs are being planned. 4. There are no systematic forms of this type of cooperation, except for representatives of tourist agencies in the tourist board.

*For the purpose of this paper, only a few selected topics relating to this research field are being presented, while keeping in mind its complexity and the need for a much deeper analysis.
Source: Research conducted by the authors based on a stakeholder workshop on a Tourism cluster level (2008), Tourism cluster of the northwestern Istria, Croatia.

Table 1. Comparative SWOT (Strenghts, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis of basic assumptions for the development and for the achieved level of development event tourism in tourist destinations of the northwestern tourist cluster in Istria–selected topics*.

organizational culture in a cluster on the development of a tourist destination [20]. As a microarea, the tourist cluster of the northwestern Istria is being observed, together with the organization of stakeholders and tourist communities, which has the most developed strategic approach to managing event tourism in Croatia. By comparing the presented periods, a conclusion can be made about the progress in the field of event management, as well as cultural tourism in general in this area. The cluster consists of tourist communities of the town of Umag, Buje and Novigrad, as well as the Brtonigla municipality. As a separate methodological approach, the professional experience of both authors within institutions and organizations dealing with the managing of tourist events in the explored area, especially in the cities of Umag and Novigrad, is also being emphasized at the time of the observation (the base years within the research).

Generally, it can be concluded that significant progress has been made in the field of event management in the tourism cluster of the northwestern Istria, which is manifested primarily in the systematic and strategic orientation of tourism development planning, as well as event tourism, based on the cooperation of key stakeholders. This is probably the key reason for the achieved tourism results: increased tourist traffic in the pre- and postseason, a trend headed by the cluster in Istria. However, already from this short analysis, it is obvious that there are still numerous additional opportunities for improving and developing event tourism in general, in this cluster, region and beyond, which proves that the development of tourism events is a difficult and complex process. It should be emphasized that within the presented cluster, a general consensus has been established with the event portfolios planned out in advance, and that they are based on the Tourism Development Master Plan of the entire region, and that the cluster conforms to the interests of several groups of stakeholders (in particular, tourist communities, large hotel chains, small stakeholders, local politics), while the key events of the cluster are being defined and structured according to their importance, as well as the participation of individual tourist communities in their funding. Although this model needs to be further developed and perfected, it can serve as a good example to others, as it has been proven that it has already achieved the desired effects, most of all an increase in tourist traffic within the cluster that uses this approach in relation to the other, while also increasing the strength and recognition factor of the cluster.

Some research shows that such efforts to achieve this type of consensus (workshops, strategic conferences, etc.) contribute to the development of additional cohesion among the stakeholders [20, 21]. One of the main thesis of the previously described principle and system Integrated Quality Management (IQM) has also been mentioned, with the directives recommending a stakeholders' approach and a strategic planning of tourism as a platform for a sustainable tourism development in tourist destinations and the construction of an integral tourism product, whose event is its integral part, connected to the "tissue" of the destination itself, especially for those in the coastal and rural areas.

It is of great importance to consider the distinction of specificities, according to the already mentioned classification of urban, coastal, and rural tourist destinations. This can also serve as a guide to the possible designing of joint events (coastal-rural), which has already been partially done as presented in the example of the addressed cluster. Similarly, this should be taken into account when doing scientific research since the event portfolio, the planning of the events and their organization, is significantly different for urban destinations (big cities, metropolises) than it is for smaller urban and social contexts: the coastal and rural tourist destinations.

5. Issues and challenges in event tourism

Numerous authors have claimed that event tourism is a subfield of both event and tourism studies. The field of event studies, reviewed by Getz, depicts the expanding area of event management and the wider contribution of social sciences to this interdisciplinary area of study [9].

The most comprehensive overview of key issues and research areas was presented by Getz and Page in the aforementioned study.

This study covers the key research areas of cultural tourism, which include the following:

1. Research themes on the experience and meaning of event tourism
2. Research themes associated with the antecedents of event tourism
3. Research themes on planning and managing event tourism
4. Research themes associated with dynamic processes in event tourism
5. Research issues associated with the economic effects of events
6. Studies of resident and social impact on event tourism
7. Future research themes on the personal, social, and cultural outcomes of event tourism
8. Future research issues on environmental outcomes and event tourism (our emphasis)

Additional research challenges, according to the authors of the present article, include the following:

a. **The question of small and new events.** The authors agree with Getz and Page that although all types of planned events have tourism potential, including even the smallest wedding or reunion (see also [22] Kruger, Saayman & Ellis, 2014), larger events dominate in the literature and in event tourism development. The authors of this text believe that it is important to conduct further research into different types of event portfolio. Although the classification into four basic groups of events (business, festival and culture, entertainment, and sport) is usually used by academics, it is debatable how precise it really is and whether it should be improved. For instance, in the here-analyzed location, the region of Istria in Croatia, *gourmet events* feature heavily, even though they are not included — or at least not explicitly named — in this generally accepted classification. Furthermore, an objection to such a classification could be expected from other disciplines. The authors prove this in the present article using the example of music, which is here "shared" between two groups — festivals and culture and entertainment, which certainly does not add to a better understanding or, in more practical terms, better management of cultural events as regards music.

b. Based on the review of the latest literature and on the practice of destination management, as well as on professional training in the field of destination management in the analyzed example (for example, Experta Business Academy, Zagreb, [23]), a certain amount of confusion and somewhat **differing views on event tourism and event management** can be noticed. The need, therefore, arises for a more comprehensive and modern view on this research area, with concepts, definitions, and classifications delineated in a clearer way. To this effect, the Event Management Body of Knowledge (EMBOK, www.embok.org) and Meeting and Business Event Competency Standards (MBECS, www.mpiweb.org/MBECS) projects present a praiseworthy endeavor. But, as stated by Getz and Page, "both these projects lend themselves to the development of curriculum and certification processes, but do not establish knowledge or the means to acquire it [9]."

It is generally accepted that tourist boards (or DMOs in some countries) should use the event portfolio method as a starting point in event management. The crucial question in using this method seems to be which kind of events (according to their contents, groups of events, subgroups, the targeted segments of the market, etc.) should be included in the portfolio. Ziakias and Costa also agree with this, stating that "Although host communities have begun to capitalize on the portfolio of recurring events to achieve a range of benefits, there is a knowledge gap, scarce research, and empirical evidence about the event portfolio phenomenon" [24].

The key issue, in the view of the authors of the present article, is stakeholders' consensus or the possibility of a conflict among them. This was also pointed out by Andersson and Getz: "The extent to which festivals can function as sustainable attractions, while fulfilling their social and cultural roles at the community level, is an issue of considerable importance. In this context, sustainability will often depend upon the political and tangible support of key stakeholders" [25].

In regard to event tourism management, a consensus has been reached concerning the necessity of the stakeholder theory application. However, the key challenge to the practical application of this theory is found in the strong interaction of different stakeholders and their interests, which sometimes create synergy and sometimes breed antagonism. For example, certain authors have previously pointed out that "Stakeholder theory stresses the interactions of power, legitimacy and urgency" [26]. It is precisely these characteristics, and the "struggle" among stakeholders at different power levels in particular, that frequently allow for a balance of power within the stakeholders' network, which certainly reflects on the strategy and policies of event management, as well as on the event portfolio itself as the core category in the given context.

To this effect, in an interesting study titled *Cultural Tourism: The Partnership Between Tourism and Cultural Heritage*, the authors Bob McKercher and Hilary Du Cros stress that "there is underperformance of many cultural tourism activities" (p. xi), as they call for the efforts to bridge the gap between cultural heritage management and tourism (p. xii). In their publication, authors also present and describe different degrees/levels of cooperativeness or conflict among individual stakeholders in cultural tourism, primarily between those from the field of culture on the one hand and those from the field of tourism on the other. According to the authors, the degrees are the following: full cooperation, working relationship, peaceful co-existence, parallel existence/blissful ignorance, mild annoyance, nascent conflict, and full conflict. This proposition inevitably opens up questions and creates a platform for further questions and research areas and issues, mainly those pertaining to the management of conflicts within the stakeholders' network in event management.

In general terms, promoting additional education and organizing various creative workshops or team-building activities within the tourism destination would certainly contribute to the development of networking and synergy, and consequently improve the success of the destination. The first step, however, is to be rich, a higher level of awareness of the latent conflict in practice on these two fields, where it often lies without being openly spoken of, being explained away as an outcome of personal issues, or its cause being simply misunderstood. It is, therefore, right to ask: Is event management in a tourist destination battlefield or area of common interest?

Finally, the authors of the present article support the view that the field of event studies, reviewed by Getz [27, 28], depicts the expanding field of event management and the wider contribution of social sciences to this interdisciplinary area of study.

6. Conclusions

Research in the field of events brings about new challenges. Events can be observed from a theoretical, managerial, sociological, economic, socio-psychological, or anthropological perspective, as well as from a number of additional perspectives, among which this article particularly stresses ontology (as "a set of concepts and categories in a subject area or domain that shows their properties and the relations between them [9]") together with the approach to event management from the viewpoint of tourism destination management.

In their overview of the current state and critical analysis of these two themes, the authors of the present article have introduced their own views on key issues and challenges in the research field of cultural tourism and, more specifically, event tourism, pointing out to a certain "theoretical confusion," which is particularly noticeable when it comes to definitions, classifications, and terminology. The presence of numerous invaluable research studies in this field is commendable; however, the authors have here stressed their opinion that this research should somehow be put "in order": the conceptual framework needs to be defined with more precision, and so do the key categories and their logical levels of hierarchy (which of the categories are "subordinate" to others, i.e., which are "segments" of other categories), the context in which event tourism occurs requires a more precise definition, the mutual relationship between event tourism and the environment should be clarified, etc. In addition, the body of knowledge in the field of event management should be further expanded, and this is, according to Getz and Page, one of the key challenges for academics and professionals. To this effect, the authors have here focused on a recent praiseworthy study by Getz and Page, which to a certain extent presents an inventory of the most important research themes and directions for further research in the field of event tourism, thus providing a platform and guideline for researchers and outlining the directions they should take in the study of this extremely complex multidisciplinary phenomenon.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.71338

The authors have in this article presented a possible subanalytic model of the conceptual overview of music events, referring to the example of Istria, Croatia. The authors, namely, put forward the proposition that a generally accepted framework for event portfolios cannot possibly be completely defined, because it largely depends on individual localities and their particularities (space, sociocultural conditions, authentic elements of the community, etc.).

Referring to the analyzed example of a tourism cluster, the authors have proved that defining an event portfolio requires consensus and strategic planning, as these improve event efficiency and generally allow for a better connection to be made between the event and the destination management system. The analyzed example shows that there are increasingly more initiatives in practical tourism to avoid ad hoc organization of events and approach the process in a serious, systematic, and methodical way.

The authors are of the opinion that the level of the organization and development of the event management system is largely defined by various factors such as, above all, the enthusiasm and willingness of stakeholders to take initiatives in this field, as well as the willingness to mediate between different and frequently antagonistic interests, which are generally characteristic of tourism destination management. The management of events — those that are very fluid, soft, "invisible," and therefore fragile elements of tourism — makes this latent conflict visible par excellence. Additionally, when it comes to coastal and rural tourism destinations, one of the key factors is participation of the local population (due to the ostensible presence of tourism in their surroundings and their lives). Other factors include the creation of events based on the authentic elements of cultural heritage, both tangible and intangible, as well as many others. The authors have here put forward their own proposition that the basic portfolio framework should be defined in accordance with the destination type. Namely, urban destinations (as a rule, metropolises) should resort to mega-events and "global type" events, and coastal destinations require a certain "mixture of global and local events" — for example, music festivals ranging from international jazz festivals to those of local traditional music, whereas rural destinations should primarily organize such events that are based on authentic cultural elements.

Event management and the related theory are still fraught with open questions, and it seems that every answer merely opens up further questions, especially in the era of rapid social, technological, political, and cultural changes. Some 30 years have passed since the term event was first mentioned in 1987 by the New Zealand Tourist and Publicity Department, and since that same year, Getz defined the framework for planning event tourism. At that time, the research went in line with the profound transformations the society was undergoing. Although theses have been proposed to the effect that event management cannot be a separate field of research or professional work, the increasing number of higher education courses in the fields of cultural tourism, event management, event tourism, etc., as well as of "event manager" positions, points toward a possibility for event management (or event tourism?) to be eventually singled out as a separate field of research (or management?), with a strong multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary component, which arises precisely from its interconnections with numerous academic fields, areas, and disciplines.

What remains to be seen is where the research and practice of tourism will lead us in investigating this extremely interesting field, in a world where the words event, happening, and experience have started to acquire new meanings. In the overall alienation characteristic of the world that is busy and overburdened with modern technologies, events will probably gain in importance, representing, as it is a new possibility of escape into a form of the ancient "counter-everydayness," which is nowadays acquiring new shapes and expressions. It will, therefore, be interesting to observe how the modern homoturisticus will move in the contemporary world of experience and at the same time to keep track of the accompanying scientific research and tourism practice.

Author details

Aleksandra Krajnović[1,2]* and Ivana Paula Gortan-Carlin[1,2]

*Address all correspondence to: akrajnov@unizd.hr

1 Department of Economics, University of Zadar, Croatia

2 Faculty of Educational Sciences, University Juraj Dobrila of Pula, Croatia

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Determinants of Satisfaction with the Tourist Destination

Enrique Marinao

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70343

Abstract

Achieving tourist satisfaction is one of the most important factors in terms of stewardship by the different actors in tourist destinations. Even though there is extensive literature that analyses tourist satisfaction, there is no final consensus regarding which variables influence its creation. This study proposes a model in which satisfaction is a consequence of the functional, hedonic and symbolic benefits. The hedonic benefit is considered a multidimensional construct. At the same time, we suggest that this triad of benefits is a consequence of cognitive perception and affective evaluation. For this study, a non-probability sample of 750 tourists was used, based on quotas distributed proportionally among the main Chilean tourist destinations. Once the psychometric properties of the scales used in the study were verified, a structural equation model was estimated and it was found that satisfaction is a consequence of the functional and hedonic, but not the symbolic benefit. It is confirmed as well that the functional, hedonic and symbolic benefits are a consequence of cognitive perception and affective evaluation.

Keywords: satisfaction, perception, cognition, affection, tourist destination

1. Introduction

Tourist satisfaction is one of the most widely studied factors in literature on tourism and hospitality [1]. From this perspective, specialized literature reveals the key role of tourist satisfaction at the time of choosing a tourist destination [2]. In this regard, achieving customer satisfaction could lead to a successful tourism industry [3]. As a matter of fact, considering the key role of satisfaction in a tourist destination, it has been argued repeatedly that, on one hand, the feeling of satisfaction experienced by the tourist in a destination will be a valuable antecedent to recommend or return to a place [4, 5]. In other words, satisfaction will be an explicit antecedent to tourist loyalty to a place. From this perspective, the findings show that such loyalty could be affective, cognitive or conative in nature [6]. It has been revealed that different factors can create optimum levels of satisfaction; in a sense, they are directly linked to the tourist [7] and on the other hand, to the environment of the destination [8]. It has been argued as well in literature on tourism that satisfaction can be the result of the value perceived by the tourist in the place [4]. Similarly, it can be achieved as a consequence of emotional enjoyment [9], the perception of the destination's image [10, 11] or the perception of the quality of the services provided in the place [4]. Overall, satisfaction can be the result of the connection among various qualities of the tourist destination, coupled with positive perceptions by the tourist [12]. In this regard, the benefits perceived in the place will be the principal components to determine tourist satisfaction [13]. Nevertheless, even though there is extensive literature that analyses satisfaction, there is no final consensus regarding which factors determine tourist satisfaction in a destination. From this perspective, this study suggests that satisfaction is determined by the functional [14]; hedonic [15, 16] and symbolic benefits [17] perceived by the tourist. Emphasis is placed on the fact that the hedonic benefit, being considered a multidimensional factor, will have a fundamental role as antecedent to tourist satisfaction. Similarly, it is suggested that the functional, hedonic and symbolic benefits perceived by the tourist will be a consequence of the cognitive perception [18, 19] and affective evaluation of the place [20, 21].

2. Theoretical background and hypothesis development

2.1. Theoretical background

2.1.1. Tourist satisfaction

Specialized literature has revealed that satisfaction is a subjective opinion based on the assessment by the tourist after living different experiences in a place [22]. In this regard, tourist satisfaction with a destination is essentially what the tourist expects. In other words, it is the fulfillment of an expectation [23], which can be expressed as an affective state [24] a cognitive state [9] or a combination of both [25], after living experiences in the place. From this perspective, it is a positive assessment by the tourist of the benefits obtained in the place [26], or a sum of judgments regarding the quality perceived by the tourist [27].

2.1.2. Functional benefit perceived by the tourist

It has been argued that a solution-oriented person tends to choose the alternative that best fulfills their needs [28]. In this regard, facing different alternatives, the functional benefit perceived by the tourist is very important in the process of selecting a destination. Such benefit is created by fulfilling an individual's cognitive need, as a consequence of their adaptation to the environment; it can be defined as the utility achieved through functional value [28]. Therefore, the tourist achieves this by experiencing the qualities of the place [29]. The more a destination fulfills the practical needs of tourists, the better the perceived functional benefit will be. The better the ability to fulfill the multiple needs expressed while visiting, the greater the effect on the tourist will be [30]. Consequently, the functional qualities of the tourist destination will make it more likely to be chosen and visited [31].

2.1.3. *Hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist*

The hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist can be defined as the enjoyment of the experience in terms of service, associated to their fantasies and feelings [32]. From this perspective, the hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist is relevant in the process of selecting a destination. The enjoyment derived from a place will be assessed through it. This is a result of psycho-sensory experiences, arising from the need of stimulation and sensation-seeking [33]. This is a way to represent multisensory experiences, activated through sensorial stimulation. In this regard, tourist destinations consist of a mix of products and services [34], which are stimulating for the visitor, since they offer pleasurable sensory experiences. The better the multisensory experiences for the tourist, the greater the enjoyment of the visit [35]. As a matter of fact, since tourist destinations are essentially aesthetic, visual contact with the landscape will be an important factor.

2.1.4. *Symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist*

The symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist can be defined as the benefit received through the multiple elements of self-concept which, to a large extent, results from the assessment of others, whether real or imagined [36] and consists of various representations by each person, linked to a particular set of social conditions [30]. From this perspective, self-concept has tour different aspects: actual, ideal, social and ideal social [37]. "Actual" refers to an individual's self-image, "ideal" is what the individual would like to be, "social" is the way the individual thinks they are perceived by other important people, and "ideal social" is the way the individual would like to be perceived by other important people [38]. So, tourists could adapt their behavior in a destination, either to reinforce or improve their self-concept. However, they could also visit places that convey a symbolic meaning to themselves and/or others [31]. That way, through the symbolic benefit perceived, the tourist will be able to appreciate the sense of belonging provided by the place visited.

2.1.5. *Cognitive perception of the tourist destination*

In specialized literature on tourism, it has been argued that, on the one hand, cognition can be defined as objective knowledge of a place or the quality of the physical characteristics of the environment [39], and on the other hand as the set of people's beliefs, ideas and impressions about a particular place [40]. In the same vein, reviewing the literature on tourism reveals the wide range of studies related to tourist cognition in terms of defining a place, as well as an image [41, 42]. From this perspective, cognitive perception is relevant for tourist behavior, since tourism is a discretionary activity, with a higher level of choice and less limitations than most other human endeavors. Specifically, cognitive perception includes processes related to attention to stimuli and events, their understanding, remembering past events, assessments, and buying choices [43].

2.1.6. *Affective evaluation of the tourist destination*

In terms of tourism, the affective evaluation of a place by a tourist can be defined as the way they feel about the place [44, 45] or the assessment of the affective quality of the place [39]. That way, visitors will be motivated by the appearance of destinations and their attractions, and also their emotional qualities, which will be helpful in terms of fulfilling their psychological needs [46]. A destination is linked to its visitors and accounts for affective links, which can be positive, neutral or negative [47]. From this perspective, such link between products and emotions evokes an image of the product in the consumer's mind [44]. Consequently, an affective evaluation can emerge from two different paths; one of them is innate and includes sensory/motor processes that generate primitive or partially formed affective assessments, while the other entails a conceptual outline and transformation [48].

2.2. Hypothesis development

2.2.1. Functional benefit perceived—tourist satisfaction

In terms of tourism, the functional benefit perceived has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction [2]. Similarly, literature on consumer behavior notes that qualities that become functional benefits provide a greater level of consumer satisfaction [49, 50] and can be part of a product's design and aesthetic. Likewise, the functional benefit attained by the tourist through the qualities of a place could improve tourist satisfaction [5]. From this perspective, the following hypothesis is presented within the context of tourist destinations:

H1. The functional benefit perceived through the tourist destination has a direct positive effect on tourist satisfaction.

2.2.2. Hedonic benefit perceived: tourist satisfaction

In terms of tourism, the hedonic benefit perceived has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction [2]. From a consumer's perspective, hedonic experiences can increase the level of satisfaction [49]. Hedonic consumers tend to look for pleasurable experiences that increase satisfaction [51]. The enjoyment of leisure experiences influences tourist satisfaction [9]. Similarly, the enjoyment derived from a place's visual attractions [33], could influence the level of tourist satisfaction. From this perspective, the following hypothesis is presented within the context of tourist destinations:

H2. The hedonic benefit perceived through the tourist destination has a direct positive effect on tourist satisfaction.

2.2.3. Symbolic benefit perceived: tourist satisfaction

In terms of tourism, the symbolic benefit perceived has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction [2]. The symbolic benefit attained by the tourist while visiting a destination is related to the level of satisfaction in a direct and positive manner [52]. This positive effect, consequently, has an effect on positive behavior in connection to a place [53]. According to literature on tourism, the symbolic benefit for the tourist could improve significantly the level of satisfaction derived from the destination [54]. So, the link between the symbolic benefit and satisfaction can help improve the perception of hospitality services [55]. In the same vein, the following hypothesis is suggested within the context of tourist destinations:

H3. The symbolic benefit perceived through the tourist destination has a direct positive effect on tourist satisfaction.

2.2.4. Cognitive perception of the tourist destination: functional benefit perceived

Good cognitive perception of the place is very important for the tourist to attain the expected functional benefit. From a marketing perspective, it has been pointed out that the functional benefit is primarily instrumental and cognitive in nature for the customer [18, 56]. Similarly, literature on consumer behavior has revealed that the functional benefit can be obtained as a response to a cognitive need [28]. In this regard, a good cognitive perception of the qualities and features of the place could improve the attainment of functional benefits by the tourist. From this perspective, the following hypothesis is suggested within the context of tourist destinations:

H4. The cognitive perception of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the functional benefit perceived by the tourist.

2.2.5. Cognitive perception of the tourist destination: hedonic benefit perceived

It has been argued that, when it comes to consumers who look for an experience (high levels of stimulation), there is a close link between cognitive perception and hedonic benefit [57]. As a matter of fact, even though the hedonic benefit is attained through the consumer's experience of the most intangible features of the product and/or service, it is a consequence of the cognitive perception of the most tangible elements associated to the experience [58]. From this perspective, good cognitive perception will stimulate the hedonic benefit of the consumer in a positive manner [59]. In this regard, the following hypothesis is presented within the context of tourist destinations:

H5. The cognitive perception of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist.

2.2.6. Cognitive perception of the tourist destination: symbolic benefit perceived

Based on the assessment of its qualities, a good cognitive perception of the destination is very important to have a positive effect on the symbolic benefit for the tourist. Literature shows that the symbolic benefit perceived by the customer can be cognitive in nature [19]. In this regard, each representation of self-concept will depend on the tourist's cognitive perception of the place [60], in order to be able to recreate such self-concept through what is already known, and also what is not yet known [61]. So, good cognitive perception of the place by the tourist will stimulate the symbolic benefit expected. From this perspective, the following hypothesis is formulated within the context of tourist destinations:

H6. The cognitive perception of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist.

2.2.7. Affective evaluation of the tourist destination: functional benefit perceived

The affective evaluation can be expressed tangibly through the functional benefit perceived by the consumer [62]. The emotional characteristics created around a product have a positive effect on the functional benefit perceived by the consumer [63]. A product that is attractive in emotional terms increases the functional benefit perceived by the customer [20]. In the same vein, the following hypothesis is presented within the context of tourist destinations:

H7. The affective evaluation of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the functional benefit perceived by the tourist.

2.2.8. Affective evaluation of the tourist destination: hedonic benefit perceived

A good affective evaluation of the place will be an antecedent that will allow the tourist to attain the hedonic benefit expected. It has been argued that the affective evaluation has a direct influence on the possible hedonic benefit attained by the consumer in the process of choosing a product or service [64]. In this regard, emotions are the main mechanisms through which hedonic value for the customer is created [65]. The affective origin of consumption experiences is key in order to attain the hedonic benefit [32] expected by the tourist when visiting a destination. So, a positive affective evaluation of a place will be helpful in order to attain the hedonic benefit desired by the tourist. From this perspective, the following hypothesis is suggested within the context of tourist destinations:

H8. The affective evaluation of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist.

2.2.9. Affective evaluation of the tourist destination: symbolic benefit perceived

According to literature, the affective evaluation is quite relevant, being an antecedent to the symbolic benefit [66]. It has been argued that a close link exists with the affective evaluation as antecedent to the symbolic benefit perceived by the individual [61]. The affective evaluation is key for the consumer to attain the symbolic benefit perceived [67]. From this perspective, the following hypothesis is presented within the context of tourist destinations:

H9. The affective evaluation of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist.

This can be depicted schematically (**Figure 1**).

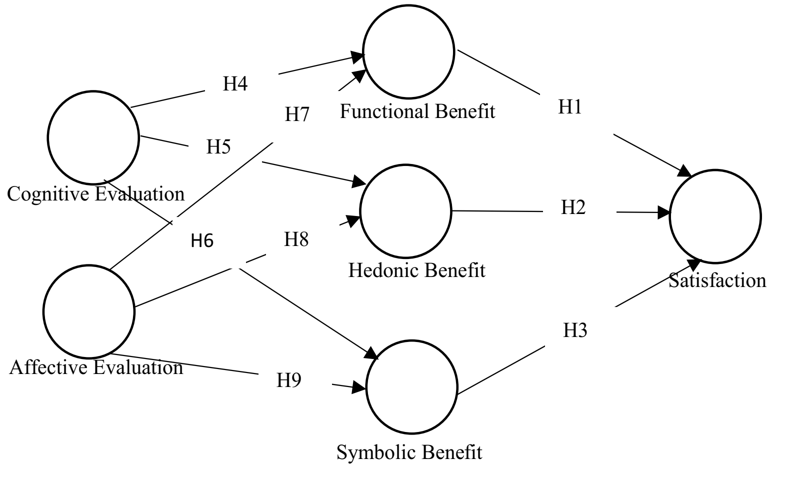

Figure 1. Hypothesis.

3. Research methodology

In order to identify the most appropriate scales to measure relationships in which satisfaction is a consequence of the functional, hedonic and symbolic benefits perceived by the tourist and this triad of benefits is a consequence of the cognitive and affective evaluation of the place by the tourist, with an appropriate level of reliability, validity and dimensionality, a process with different stages was developed [68].

3.1. Scales development

The first stage consisted in creating scales with a level of validity in terms of content. With this in mind, a deep analysis of literature was conducted, considering the scales created in many previous studies; regarding satisfaction, for instance, [69, 70] were used as reference, [56, 71] were used for the functional benefit, [56, 72–74] for the hedonic benefit, [75, 76] for the symbolic benefit, [42, 44] for cognitive perception and [65, 77] for affective evaluation. Consecutively, a critical incident analysis was conducted, in which people had to describe the factors that were part of the constructs analyzed. 40 people from a non-probability sample (for convenience) took part in the study, and the previous scales of satisfaction, functional benefit, hedonic benefit, symbolic benefit, cognitive perception and affective evaluation were obtained. Then a second clearing process of this scales recommended by [78] took place. Immediately after, a series of focus groups were conducted, with regular tourists from different parts of Chile, as well as several interviews with experts on tourism and sales executives from travel agencies. These analyses added indicators that reflected each dimension more accurately within the context of the study, and allowed to adjust and/or eliminate those found to be conflicting or redundant. A variation of [79] was applied to do this. Each expert had to rate each item in terms of its dimension, considering three choices: clearly, partially or not representative. Conclusively, items with a high level of consensus were kept [80]. Through these analyses, the scales were obtained, which were used to write the draft questionnaire. In the second stage, the final questionnaire was created. The draft questionnaire was used for a quantitative pre-test applied to a random sample of 40 people; then the data was used for an exploratory factor analysis and a Cronbach's alpha was estimated for each resulting dimension. This preliminary analysis confirmed the existence of each of the dimensions from previous analyses. The items were written as assertions that were answered through a 7-point Likert scale (see **Table 1**). All of them were written so they could be understood and answered by every respondent.

3.2. Data collection

A non-probability sample was used, based on quotas, proportional to the tourist destinations visited in Chile according to the National Tourism Service [81], divided into beaches (36%), lakes (25%) and other attractions (39%). The surveys were conducted in the main capital cities of Chile. Data were collected in the third and last stage. The survey was conducted on a total sample of 750 people, using the last tourist destination where they stayed as reference. A psychometric analysis of the data was conducted in order to obtain scales with a good level of reliability, validity and dimensionality. At the same time, a separate analysis of the multidimensionality of the hedonic benefit scale was conducted (see **Table 2**). The results of the partial analysis and the global model were both satisfactory.

Satisfaction (Sat)		
Satisfaction	Sat 1	This is the best place I have visited
	Sat 2	This place is what I expected
	Sat 3	This place fulfills my expectations
	Sat 4	This place is exactly what I imagined
	Sat 5	This place was my best choice
Functional benefit (Fube)		
Functional benefit	Fube 1	Vacationing in this place was just what I needed
	Fube 2	In this place, I found the vacation I was looking for
	Fube 3	Vacationing in this place is always convenient
	Fube 4	Compared to similar places, this is the best vacation spot
Hedonic benefit visual attractions (Hbviat)		
Hedonic benefit visual attractions	Hbviat 1	I love the appearance of this place
	Hbviat 2	I love the aesthetics of this place
	Hbviat 3	This place is a pleasure for my senses
Hedonic benefit escape from routine (Hbero)		
Hedonic benefit escape from routine	Hbero 1	This place is an escape from routine
	Hbero 2	This place makes me feel I'm in a different world
Hedonic benefit recreation (Hbere)		
Hedonic benefit recreation	Hbere 1	This is a great place to have fun
	Hbere 2	This place is very exciting, which is contagious
	Hbere 3	This is a place to enjoy life
Hedonic benefit intrinsic pleasure (Hbinple)		
Hedonic benefit intrinsic pleasure	Hbinple 1	This place is fascinating to visit, compared to other possible activities
	Hbinple 2	I wish I could be in this place all the time
Symbolic benefit (Sben)		
Symbolic benefit	Sben 1	This place reflects who I am
	Sben 2	This place is in tune with the way I see myself
	Sben 3	I identify with the people who choose this place
	Sben 4	This place is visited by people like me
Cognitive perception environment (Copen)		
Cognitive perception environment	Copen 1	This place is known to be very safe
	Copen 2	This place is known to be clean
	Copen 3	This place is known for its good transport system
	Copen 4	This place is known to have adequate signage

Affective evaluation (Affev)		
Affective evaluation	Affev 1	This place is a lot of fun
	Affev 2	This place is very lively
	Affev 3	This place is very cheerful

Table 1. Measurement scales.

Then, an exploratory factor analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis (SEM) were conducted, along with different reliability analyses applying Cronbach's alpha, construct reliability and variance extracted (AVE). In order to identify items unattached to their dimension, principal component factor analyses were conducted with varimax rotation [82]. Following this procedure, there was no need to eliminate indicators from the scales analyzed (see **Table 3**). In fact, they all featured a good level of unidimensionality, with factor loadings well over 0.4 [83]. Considering the different scales, through structural equations, a confirmatory factor analysis was developed in order to confirm if the indicators or variables were adequate for an appropriate adjustment of the model. The requirements considered were the three criteria proposed by [84]. The first is to eliminate the indicators with a weak condition of convergence with their corresponding latent variable. A Student's t higher than 2.28 ($p = 0.01$) was used as a requirement. The second criterion is to separate from the analysis those variables with loadings translated into standardized coefficients lower than 0.5. Finally, indicators with a linear relationship R^2 lower than 0.3 must be eliminated. For this process, the statistics pack AMOS SPSS version 23 was used. No indicators were eliminated according to any of the three criteria in this analysis. The adjustment indexes of this confirmatory factor model were acceptable: IFI 0.906, CFI 0.905, RMSEA 0.074, Normed χ^2 5.08.

Once the optimal model was verified, the reliability of each scale was confirmed. Three tests were applied for this: Cronbach's alpha (limit 0.7), composite construct reliability (limit 0.7) [85] and analysis of variance extracted (limit 0.5) [86]. Results show that, in all cases, the minimum values defined (see **Table 4**) by these parameters of reliability are met.

Indicators		**Recommended value**	**First order**	**Second order**
			Hedonic benefit	
Absolute	NCP	Minimum	1028.941	117.175
	ECVI	Minimum	1.521	0.290
	RMSEA	<0.08	0.177	0.07
Incremental	NFI	High (close to 1)	0.79	0.97
	IFI	High (close to 1)	0.80	0.97
	CFI	High (close to 1)	0.80	0.97
Parsimony	AIC	Minimum	1138.94	217.175
	Normed χ^2	[1; 5]	24.38	4.90

Table 2. Multidimensional analysis of hedonic benefit.

Scales	Variable	Factorial load	Variance explained %	Own value
Satisfaction	Sat 1	0.82	73.76	3.68
	Sat 2	0.87		
	Sat 3	0.88		
	Sat 4	0.83		
	Sat 5	0.88		
Functional benefit	Fube 1	0.86	73.54	2.94
	Fube 2	0.90		
	Fube 3	0.86		
	Fube 4	0.80		
Hedonic benefit visual attractions	Hbviat 1	0.91	80.09	2.40
	Hbviat 2	0.91		
	Hbviat 3	0.85		
Hedonic benefit escape from routine	Hbero 1	0.93	86.99	1.74
	Hbero 2	0.93		
Hedonic benefit recreation	Hbere 1	0.85	74.51	2.93
	Hbere 2	0.88		
	Hbere 3	0.87		
Hedonic benefit intrinsic pleasure	Hbinple 1	0.89	70.54	1.59
	Hbinple 2	0.89		
Symbolic benefit	Sben 1	0.89	76.4	3.0
	Sben 2	0.91		
	Sben 3	0.88		
	Sben 4	0.82		
Cognitive perception environment	Copen 1	0.83	69.34	2.77
	Copen 2	0.79		
	Copen 3	0.85		
	Copen 4	0.86		
Affective evaluation	Affev 1	0.90	80.89	2.43
	Affev 2	0.91		
	Affev 3	0.89		

Table 3. Exploratory factor analysis.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70343

Scales	Variable	Alpha by Cronbach	Construct reliability	Variance extracted
Satisfaction	Sat 1	0.91	0.93	0.73
	Sat 2			
	Sat 3			
	Sat 4			
	Sat 5			
Functional benefit	Fube 1	0.88	0.92	0.73
	Fube 2			
	Fube 3			
	Fube 4			
Hedonic benefit visual attractions	Hbviat 1	0.87	0.84	0.64
	Hbviat 2			
	Hbviat 3			
Hedonic benefit escape from routine	Hbero 1	0.85	0.93	0.86
	Hbero 2			
Hedonic benefit recreation	Hbere 1	0.82	0.90	0.75
	Hbere 2			
	Hbere 3			
Hedonic benefit intrinsic pleasure	Hbinple 1	0.74	0.88	0.79
	Hbinple 2			
Symbolic benefit	Sben 1	0.90	0.93	0.77
	Sben 2			
	Sben 3			
	Sben 4			
Cognitive perception environment	Copen 1	0.85	0.90	0.69
	Copen 2			
	Copen 3			
	Copen 4			
Affective evaluation	Affev 1	0.88	0.93	0.81
	Affev 2			
	Affev 3			

Source: Self-made.

Table 4. Reliability of scales.

Validity was confirmed in terms of content and construct. The scales show an adequate level of validity in terms in content, due to the deep analysis of the literature, a critical incident study with tourists and then a clearing process of this scale through different focus groups with tourists and interviews with experts and sales executives from travel agencies. In order to meet the construct validity, it was determined if the scales proposed, already cleared, meet the convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was confirmed by observing that all the standardized coefficients of the confirmatory factor analysis (AFC) were statistically significant to 0.01 and higher than 0.5 [87]. In order to verify the existence of discriminant validity, a confidence interval test was used [88]. It consists in building the confidence intervals resulting from the correlations among the different latent variables that make up the confirmatory factor model (AFC) (see **Table 5**). According to this test, the model has discriminant validity since no confidence interval contained the value 1 [89]. The methodological process developed makes it possible to conclude that the proposed model shows a good level of overall validity.

Confidence interval test			
Bi-variate relationship	**Confidence intervals**	**Difference χ^2 (df)**	
Full model			
Hedonic benefit—functional benefit	0.84–0.86	1957.7 (1)	1955.9 (385)
Cognitive perception—functional benefit	0.47–0.50	1961.6 (1)	
Cognitive perception—affective evaluation	0.41–0.42	1988.7 (1)	
Symbolic benefit—affective evaluation	0.47–0.48	1992.7 (1)	
Symbolic benefit—satisfaction	0.61–0.64	1956.2(1)	
Hedonic benefit—cognitive perception	0.51–0.53	1971.0 (1)	
Satisfaction—affective evaluation	0.53–0.55	1972.6 (1)	
Hedonic benefit—satisfaction	0.82–0.85	1956.4 (1)	
Satisfaction—functional benefit	0.81–0.85	1966.3 (1)	
Satisfaction—cognitive perception	0.50–0.54	1955.9 (1)	
Symbolic benefit—hedonic benefit	0.72–0.75	1959.8 (1)	
Hedonic benefit—affective evaluation	0.66–0.67	1996.4 (1)	
Symbolic benefit—functional benefit	0.60–0.63	1958.4 (1)	
Affective evaluation—functional benefit	0.61–0.62	1979.3 (1)	
Symbolic benefit—cognitive perception	0.42–0.45	1962.0 (1)	

Confidence interval test			
Bi-variate relationship	**Confidence intervals**	**Difference χ^2 (df)**	
Hedonic benefit model			
Hedonic benefit visual attractions—hedonic benefit escape from routine	0.65–0.67	139.8 (1)	139.3 (29)
Hedonic benefit visual attractions—hedonic benefit intrinsic pleasure	0.70–0.72	142.0 (1)	
Hedonic benefit visual attractions—hedonic benefit recreation	0.71–0.73	157.7 (1)	
Hedonic benefit recreation—hedonic benefit escape from routine	0.85–0.88	162.7 (1)	
Hedonic benefit recreation—hedonic benefit intrinsic pleasure	0.78–0.79	160.7 (1)	
Hedonic benefit intrinsic pleasure—hedonic benefit escape from routine	0.60–0.61	142.6 (1)	

Note: All coefficients significant at a level of 0.01.

Table 5. Discriminant validity.

4. Analysis and results

The hypotheses presented were confirmed through a SEM model, for which the software AMOS version 23 was used. The values obtained for the indicators of adjustment of the model were within acceptable levels: IFI 0.910, CFI 0.910, RMSEA 0.072, Normed X^2 4.87. Acceptable values were obtained for the goodness of fit coefficient of dependent variables satisfaction (R^2 0.68); functional benefit (R^2 0.54); hedonic benefit (R^2 0.67); symbolic benefit (R^2 0.37). The hypotheses presented in this study were contrasted using SEM Bagozzi [89]. As we can see, from the standardized β coefficients (**Figure 2**), tourist satisfaction is directly affected by two out of the three constructs included in the theoretical model (functional benefit; hedonic benefit), the symbolic benefit being an exception with no significant value. Similarly, this triad of benefits is directly affected by cognitive perception and affective evaluation, which implies, in general terms, a validation of eight out of the nine hypotheses formulated:

H1. The functional benefit perceived through the tourist destination has a direct positive effect on tourist satisfaction (β 0.48; $p < 0.01$).

H2. The hedonic benefit perceived through the tourist destination has a direct positive effect on tourist satisfaction (β 0.39; $p < 0.01$).

H3. The symbolic benefit perceived through the tourist destination has a direct positive effect on tourist satisfaction (β 0.08; $p < 0.038$).

H4. The cognitive perception of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the functional benefit perceived by the tourist (β 0.47; $p < 0.01$).

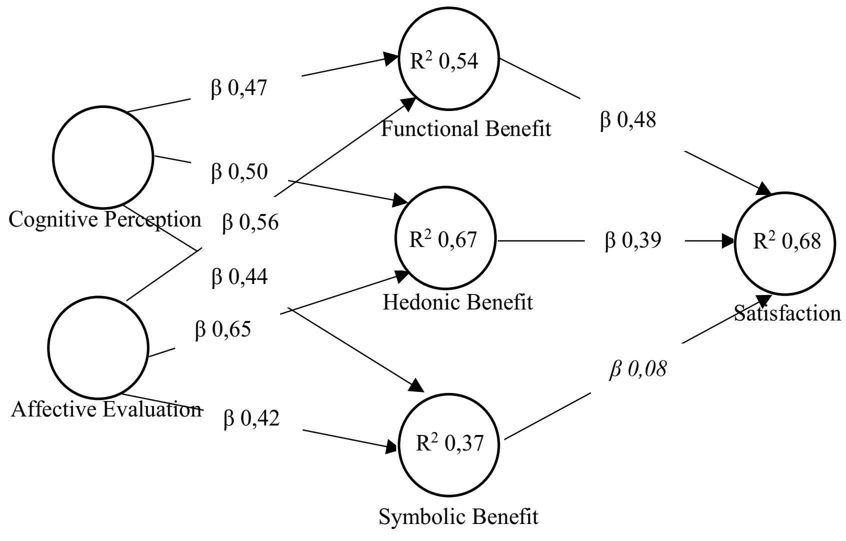

Figure 2. The estimated structural model.

H5. The cognitive perception of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist (β 0.50; $p < 0.01$).

H6. The cognitive perception of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist (β 0.44; $p < 0.01$).

H7. The affective evaluation of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the functional benefit perceived by the tourist (β 0.56; $p < 0.01$).

H8. The affective evaluation of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist (β 0.65; $p < 0.01$).

H9. The affective evaluation of a tourist destination has a direct positive effect on the symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist (β 0.42; $p < 0.01$).

5. Discussion and conclusion

This study includes an analysis of certain factors as antecedents to tourist satisfaction. Specifically, the functional, hedonic and symbolic benefits the visitor perceives. The findings provide a basis for concluding that the functional and hedonic benefits play a key role in creating tourist satisfaction. On the other hand, the symbolic benefit has been found not to be a fundamental factor in order to achieve tourist satisfaction. The hedonic benefit has been confirmed to be a multidimensional factor, based upon the perception of the tourist destination in terms of: (1) visual attractions; (2) escape from routine (3) leisure; (4) intrinsic pleasure. At the same time, the functional, hedonic and symbolic benefits perceived have been determined to be a consequence of cognitive perception and the affective evaluation of the tourist destination by the tourist. Considering the strong link between tourist satisfaction and their likelihood to recommend or return to a place [5], the different stakeholders involved in the industry must create activities and spaces aimed to fulfill the basic needs of tourists. Cancun, Mexico could be a good example; a place that offers a variety of good restaurants and accommodations. Undoubtedly, this could help a tourist destination to establish a link to the functional benefit perceived by the tourist. On the other hand, it is imperative to stage a comprehensive, consistent setting in the destination, with an emphasis on providing an enjoyable visit. "Torres del Paine" national park in the south of Chile could be taken as an example. The tourist chooses to visit this place for the majesty of its beautiful visual attractions, as a great chance to escape routine, have fun and derive intrinsic pleasure from contact with nature. Evidently, this virtuous cycle will be the best way to link the place to the hedonic benefit perceived by the tourist. Even though the symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist is not a fundamental factor as antecedent to satisfaction, it is still important. Therefore, it becomes necessary to take care of the environment for the place to fit the sense of social belonging expected by visitors. Punta Cana, in the Dominican Republic, could be an example of this. Visitors expect to find first-class resorts and hotels and are not willing to stay in a place which does not fit their social standing. Taking care of this concept will be helpful to establish a better link between the place and the symbolic benefit perceived by the tourist. Linking a destination to the benefits perceived by the tourist will be pointless if such a place cannot offer a high level of public safety, cleanliness, an adequate transport system and adequate signage. The Riviera Maya in Mexico is a good example. Here the tourist can move around safely, knowing the police are constantly patrolling and seeing the clear signage indicating the different places of interest, in a clean, quiet setting. Attention to detail is the best way to link the cognitive perception by the tourist to the triad of benefits perceived. Similarly, the place should strive to offer positive emotional experiences for the tourist. This requires recreational activities that offer a fun, lively and cheerful atmosphere. Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil, could be an example of this. Here the tourist expects to find events and activities that showcase the cheerful nature of Brazilian culture. This is a way for the destination to establish a closer link to the affective evaluation by the tourist.

6. Limitations and future research

This work is mostly a cross-sectional study, so bias in terms of common variance could be significant. Therefore, it would be advisable to conduct it again as a longitudinal study in order to confirm if the results derived from the proposed model can be extrapolated to other tourist and geographical contexts.

Author details

Enrique Marinao

Address all correspondence to: enrique.marinao@usach.cl

Departamento de Administración, Facultad de Administración y Economía, Universidad de Santiago de Chile, Santiago, Chile

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Chapter 4

Long-Haul Travel Motivation by International Tourist to Penang

Norkamaliah Shahrin and Azizan Marzuki

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.72411

Abstract

Long-haul travel does not constitute an obstacle for tourists to travel and is fast gaining the attention of tourists in new and unique experiences. This study was conducted to identify the long-haul travel motivation by international tourists to Penang. A total of 400 respondents participated in this survey, conducted around the tourist attractions in Penang, using cluster random sampling. However, only 370 questionnaires were only used for this research. Data were analysed using SPSS software 22 version. The findings, 'knowledge and novelty seeking' were the main push factors that drove long-haul travel by international tourists to Penang. Meanwhile, the main pull factor that attracts long-haul travel by international tourists to Penang was its 'culture and history'. Additionally, there were partly direct and significant relationships between socio-demographic, trip characteristics and travel motivation (push factors and pull factors). Overall, this study identified the long-haul travel motivations by international tourists to Penang based on socio-demographic, trip characteristics and travel motivation and has indirectly helped in understanding the long-haul travel market particularly for Penang and Southeast Asia. This research also suggested for an effective marketing and promotion strategy in providing useful information that is the key to attract international tourists to travel long distances.

Keywords: long-haul travel, motivation, international tourists

1. Introduction

Travelling further from home amidst unfamiliar surroundings is driven by the desire to see more and to gain more experience [21]. The distance can have positive and negative influences [10, 23] dependent upon the travel characteristics and individuals [27]. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNTWO) [33], the number of international tourist arrivals in 2015 increased by 4.6% (1180 million worldwide), an increase of 52 million over the previous year. It was the sixth consecutive year of above-average growth in international tourism following the 2009 global crisis [32]. Asia, for example, recorded close to 6% growth in international tourist arrivals. Tourist arrivals have seen growth from 25 million in 1950 to 1.087 billion in 2013 and expected to reach over 1.8 billion in the year of 2030 [32]. According to UNTWO [32], study of motivation of tourists to visit another country, rising economies have become more critical through the fact that their market share increased from 30% in 1980 to 47% in 2013 and is expected to reach 57% by 2013. Nevertheless, based on previous researches on travel motivations [19, 25, 36] in Malaysia, the study elaborated on travel motivations of overall international tourists rather than focused on long-haul tourists.

International tourist arrival markets, particularly in the Asian and Southeast Asian regions, are more focused on short-haul tourists than long-haul tourists. The tourism markets in Thailand, for example, received short-haul tourists rather than long-haul tourists. Based on the statistics issued in 2009 [8], Thailand received 21,345,482 short-haul tourists compared to 8,160,880 long-haul tourists (statistics based on the arrival of 25 major markets to Thailand). Likewise, Singapore received short-haul tourists as much as 9,645,346 compared to 3,711,783 long-haul tourists (statistics based on the arrival of 15 major markets to Singapore) [28]. Malaysia also faced the same issue with the arrival of 23,393,445 short-haul tourists compared to 1,987,545 long-haul tourists (statistics based on the arrival of 15 major markets to Malaysia) [30]. The Penang Institute or SERI [26] said the major tourist markets to Penang in 2014 were from short-haul markets from Indonesia (41.1%) and Singapore (20.4%), compared to long-haul countries, for example, Japan (4.5%), the United States (3.1%), Australia (2.8%) and others. Meanwhile, for tourist entries in 2015 (January–October), only 19.92% (155,263) were long-haul arrivals in Penang compared to 80.08% (779,245) of short-haul tourists [13]. The study was conducted to identify the motivations that affected the long-haul travel by international tourists to Penang and will indirectly fill the gap of long-haul travel studies for the state.

2. What is long-haul travel?

Long-haul or long-distance travel can be described as having a long period of time to travel. The concept of long-haul travel based on Dateline project comprises a minimum of 100 km journey [7]. According to Boerjan [3], long-haul travel by airplane involves more than 5 h or travel distance of more than 3000 miles to destination. Letho et al. [16] defined long-haul travel as 'travel more than four nights or more by plane outside of the international area'. In the past, trips involving multiple destinations, long-haul in nature and airplane use were rarely done [20]. Now, travel is already considered habitual, and for some individuals, travel constitutes part of their lifestyle. Introduction to new technologies has enabled people to travel further and comfortably [14–15] (e.g. new airports, direct flights and others) and with further advanced technological developments, travels to a destination are now more convenient than ever [16].

3. Long-haul tourists

Long-haul and short-haul tourists are different based on holidays, trips, budgets, accommodation and others. Most long-haul tourists travel independently [2] and, according to Tidelwall and Faulkner [29] and Hwang and Fasenmaier [12], engage in multi destination trips and sought to satisfy multiple trip purposes. Pre-holiday phase is very important for the long-haul tourists, who usually spend more time gathering information about the trip [3]. According to McKercher and du Cros [18], long-haul tourists were most likely willing to enter a culturally different atmosphere and tend to travel further. Long-haul tourists view their trips as opportunities for learning and personal development as well as seeing it in the context of a rare, often once-in-a-lifetime occurrence [33–34]. Bao and McKercher [2] stated that there were similarities between long-haul tourists and backpackers, such as ability to travel independently, limited budget, simple accommodation and travel pattern. However, based on Crouch [6], long-haul tourists were less sensitive to price and willing to spend more on travel [3], because they consider quality and product features [17].

4. Travel motivations

Motivation is defined by Myers [22] as the need or desire and stimulus to achieve the goal behaviour. Hsu et al. [11] stated that tourists behave as they do because of motivations. Escape from the actual routine, relaxation, prestige, nostalgia, improved relationship, social interaction, adventure, health, personal development, novelty, education, seclusion and romance are common reasons of tourist motivations [11]. The basic motivation theory describes a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs, desires and goals) that will produce a level of discomfort and tension, and this will meet the requirements.

Many researchers argue that tourists travel due to push and pull factors by a destination [5]. The push factors are related to internal factors that motivate individuals to travel, while the pull factors are related to the external factors that determine their travel on where, when and how [9]. Uysal and Hagan [31] stated that push and pull factors are acting separately and tourists travel due to the variable interests' motivation in making travel decisions. According to Bashar [4] most of the push factors which are origin related are intangible or intrinsic of the individual travellers, while the pull factor on the contrary are those that emerged because of the attractiveness of a destination as perceived by the tourist.

However, motivation studies are different in each area (place) and time. Furthermore, each traveller is different based on age, motivation and need [23–24]. Studies that have been conducted [2] stated that long-haul tourists' travels were motivated because of 'knowledge' and 'culture' to Hong Kong. A study by Correia et al. [5] on Portuguese tourists travelling in Latin America and Africa found that the main push motivation of long-haul travellers was to 'relax', while pull motivation was 'landscapes'. Meanwhile, a study conducted by Assiouras et al. [1] in Greece found that the main push factor was 'knowledge', while 'culture and history' were the main pull motivations of long-haul travellers travelling from China, Korea and Japan.

5. Methodology

Tourists were selected from all long-haul gateways located 3000 miles and above from Penang (Asia, and the others are outside Asia). A cluster random sampling approach was employed to collect data at tourist attractions such as Georgetown World Heritage Site, Batu Feringgi, Kek Lok Si Temple, Penang Hill, Taman Negara and others. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed, and 370 usable questionnaires were obtained representing 95.5% response rate. Questions were developed based on a comprehensive review of travel motivations from previous studies [1, 4, 5, 10]. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: the first section posed questions about respondents' profile, the second about travel characteristics and, lastly, questions about push statements (reasons of their travelling) and pull statements describing destination attributes. Respondents were asked to rate agreement of each statement by using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 'strongly disagree' to 5 'strongly agree'. Data were analysed using the SPSS software version 22.

6. Findings

6.1. Respondent profile

Based on **Table 1**, with respect to nationality, 78.1% respondents were Europeans, 14.6% Americans, 3.8% from Oceania, 2.4% Africans and 1.1% from Asia. The respondents of this study were mainly male (51.6%), aged 21–30 years old (56.2%), and had graduated from university (67.3%). About 28.9% of the respondents are professionals, 18.4% were students, 13% are not working, 11.9% are working in private sector, 8.4% are self-employed, 5.5% others, 3.5% are business owners, 2.5% are retired and 0.5% are housewives. About 54.6% of the respondents have an income less than USD 3000, 15% have no income and 13% have USD3001–4500 income, while 12.4% have incomes of more than USD4501.

6.2. Travel characteristics

The results reveal that most of the respondents are first-time visitors (80.8%) compared to revisit respondents (19.2%). The average stay in Penang is between four and seven nights (38.6%), while the main purpose of the trip to Penang is for holiday (91.1%). Most of the respondents use the Internet as a main source of information (51.1%). About 41.1% of respondents used land transportation having arrived at Penang, with 60.5% of respondents using public transport in Penang. The majority of respondents stayed at guesthouses (48.9%). Five main activities that were experienced by respondents were the local food (95.5%), sightseeing in the city (90.8%), street arts (83.2%), visiting historical sites (81.4%) and shopping (44.6%). About 74.9% of the respondents spent below RM 200 per day, and 90% of the respondents were involved with multiple destinations (from one country to another country). The majority of the respondents travelled with their partners (34.9%) compared to solo travellers (30.5%) and group of friends (22.2%).

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.72411

Statements	Factor loading			
	1	2	3	4
Novelty and knowledge seeking				
To experience of local culture, history and society	0.861			
To gain knowledge and experience in foreign country	0.803			
To see something different that I do not normally see	0.762			
To see how other people live and their way of life	0.756			
To see something new and exciting	0.730			
To go somewhere with a different environment	0.700			
Rest and relax				
To escape from stress in my daily life		0.863		
To rest and relax physically and psychologically		0.823		
Get away from my daily routine		0.817		
To rest spiritually		0.613		
Achieve dream				
To grab once in a lifetime opportunity			0.723	
To travel to a country that I always want to go			0.659	
To travel to a place that I have always wanted to visit			0.633	
To find thrills and excitement			0.617	
To fulfil my dream and self-curiosity			0.615	
Prestige				
To go to a place that my friends have been before				0.758
To spent more time with my family members while travelling				0.671
To visit a country which most people value and appreciate				0.587
To share my experiences with other people when I return home				0.586
Mean	4.371	3.580	3.568	2.803
Eigenvalue	5.575	2.782	1.927	1.326
Variance (%)	29.343	14.640	10.143	6.927
Cumulative variance (%)	61.052			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)				0.821
Bartlett Test of Sphericity (BTOS)				3161.459**

**p< 0.010, showed that correlation matrix is significant and suitable for factor analysis.

Table 1. Push factor.

6.3. Motivation factors

6.3.1. Push factors

An exploratory factor analysis was carried out to identify the underlying dimensions of push factors. The measure of Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin was applied in all procedures, and all items had an eigenvalue of greater than 1. From the varimax-rotated factor matrix, four factors representing 61.05% of the explained variance were extracted from the analysis of the 19 push items of travel motivation. The four factors were 'novelty and knowledge seeking', 'rest and relax', 'achieve dream' and 'prestige' (**Table 1**). Moreover, all the factor loadings were greater than 0.580, and all factors had relatively high reliability coefficient ranging from 0.657 to 0.878. 'Novelty and knowledge seeking' emerged as the most important push factor that acted as a long-haul travel motivation to Penang (mean score of 4.371). The result of this study supports the finding from previous studies on long-haul travel [1, 2] that suggested that 'novelty and knowledge seeking' were the important push factors among long-haul travellers.

6.3.2. Pull factors

The same procedure was applied on the underlying dimensions of pull motivation factors. The measure of Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin was applied in all procedures, and all items had an eigenvalue greater than 1. Five factors were extracted from the analysis of the twenty pull items of travel motivation. These were 'attraction', 'culture and heritage', 'tourism facilities', 'price and quality' and 'environment'. These five dimensions represented 60.17% of the total variance (**Table 2**). Following the principal component analysis with varimax-rotation, all factors had relatively high reliability coefficient ranging from 0.738 to 0.804. Moreover, all the factor loadings were greater than 0.510. 'Culture and heritage' emerged as the most important pull factor that attracts respondents to Penang (mean score of 4.074) compared to the other factors.

6.4. Relationships between socio-demographic, trip characteristics and travel motivation

Results of the analysis showed (**Table 3**) that there are partly direct and significant relationships between socio-demographic, trip characteristics and motivation (push and pull factors). **Table 3** also showed that from nine factors that have been analysed using multiple regression, five of nine factors were found to have a linear and significant relationship. These were 'novelty and knowledge seeking' ($R^2 = 0.231$; $p < 0.010$), 'achieve dream' ($R^2 = 0.187$; $p < 0.050$), 'prestige' ($R^2 = 0.234$; $p < 0.010$), 'attraction' ($R^2 = 0.225$; $p < 0.010$) and 'cultural and heritage' ($R^2 = 0.190$; $p < 0.050$).

1 = novelty and knowledge seeking; 2 = rest and relax; 3 = achieve dream; 4 = prestige; 5 = attraction; 6 = culture and heritage; 7 = tourism facilities, 8 = price and quality; 9 = environment.

Statements	Factor loading				
	1	2	3	4	5
Attraction					
Nightlife	0.758				
Seaside/beaches	0.699				
Variety of shopping places	0.660				
Festival and recreational activities	0.638				
Social environment	0.555				
Culture and heritage					
Art, cultural and historical places/sites		0.791			
Multicultural aspects		0.743			
Temples, Mosques, Churches		0.741			
Variety of food		0.515			
Tourism facilities					
Public transport (bus, taxi, ferry)			0.743		
Travel distance (within walking distance)			0.621		
Convenience of visa			0.608		
Accommodation			0.586		
Price and quality					
Quality of the tourist place				0.791	
Reasonable price of goods and services				0.751	
Variety of tourist attractions				0.710	
Environment					
Safety and security					0.767
Hygiene and cleanliness					0.719
Friendliness of its people					0.608
The availability of travel-related information					0.518
Mean	3.075	4.074	3.523	3.872	3.500
Eigenvalues	6.246	1.923	1.565	1.217	1.083
Variance (%)	31.230	9.617	7.827	6.083	5.415
Cumulative variance (%)	60.172				
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)					0.859
Bartlett Test of Sphericity (BTOS)					2596.770**

**p< 0.010, showed that correlation matrix is significant and suitable for factor analysis.

Table 2. Pull factors.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
F	1.934	1.305	1.486	1.975	1.874	1.514	1.297	1.080	1.157
Significant	0.001	0.098	0.027	0.000	0.001	0.022	0.103	0.344	0.235
R^2	0.231	0.168	0.187	0.234	0.225	0.190	0.168	0.143	0.152
Adjusted R^2	0.111	0.039	0.061	0.166	0.105	0.065	0.038	0.011	0.021

Table 3. Relationships between socio-demographic, trip characteristics and travel motivation.

7. Discussion

Long-haul tourists to Penang are younger, graduated and professional, and travel with partners. Results from previous studies and findings from this study showed that most of the long-haul tourists are first-time tourists and are involved with multiple destinations. Other than that, long-haul trip involves longer trip durations, the tourists tend to explore more during the trips to find new thrills and excitement and also because of the 'once in a life time' opportunity. Long-haul travel characteristics based on the findings are quite similar with that of backpacking tourists, with focus on low expenditures, stay at guesthouses and travel to multiple destinations; this is supported by Bao and McKercher's [2] work that state that long-haul tourists do engage in the backpacking style of travel. The main factor of internal motivations (push factors) of long-haul travel is 'novelty and knowledge seeking', while external motivation (pull motivation) is 'culture and heritage'. Long-haul tourists tended to find and explore new things outside of their comfort zone, looking for new challenges and delving into different kinds of cultural heritage and history.

Findings from the relationships between socio-demographic, trip characteristics and motivations (push and pull factor) indicate that long-haul travellers to Penang relish exploring different experiences with their daily lives based on novelty and knowledge seeking. It also constituted part of the dream they want to achieve and at the same time they can share their experience with family and friends. Long-haul tourists also visited famous attractions to experience first-hand the cultural and historical offerings that differ from their culture. Long-haul travel is further related to psychological attitudes and desires [35–37] and is difficult to assess the different kind of attitudes and needs of tourists. This study however, can indirectly help tourism marketers to plan and develop new strategies and policies to attract long-haul tourists especially to Penang and Malaysia, which could be based on their demand (socio-demographics and travel characteristics) and supply (motivation) issues as revealed by the findings.

8. Conclusion

This study enlightens how travel motivation helps in understanding the long-haul travels of international tourists with different needs and desires. This research aims to determine the motivations of long-haul international travellers to Penang based on socio-demographic, trip characteristics and travel motivations (push factors and pull factors). Indirectly the findings can be the platform to provide input in drafting policies and planning strategies for long-haul tourism. The motivation theory of push and pull factors has been used to determine the relationships between long-haul travel by international tourists, based on motivations (desire or need) and attractions (destination) to go on a vacation. The research however, has limitations that must be highlighted and overcome in future related studies. The studies only focused on using quantitative methods, where the analysis outcomes are fairly predictable. It would thus be interesting to see the application of qualitative methods in the study. With in-depth interviews of the long-haul tourists, researchers can be exposed to a variety of answers, rather than what have been premeditated via the questionnaires. Other than that, because the samples were more predisposed to Europeans, it would be good to have information from respondents of other continents revealed, so the results can be analytically compared and segmented. This study aims to understand long-haul tourists travel motivations, willing to travel more than 3000 miles to Penang. Clearly, it revealed that the push and pull factors are indeed very important to the destination choice.

Author details

Norkamaliah Shahrin and Azizan Marzuki*

*Address all correspondence to: chik72@usm.my

School of Housing, Building and Planning, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia

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Chapter 5

The International Decision-Making and Travel Behavior of Graduates Participating in Working Holiday

Chin-cheng Ni, Chien-yu Tsao and
Ying-hsiang Wang

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70331

Abstract

After graduation, most graduates find themselves at a significant stage in their life as they have to decide between “further study” and “working.” When faced with this confusion and uncertainty, a “working holiday” combining travel and work has coincidentally becomes a third option. This study employed a qualitative approach through literature review, in-depth interviews, and semi-structured interviews. The research revealed that graduates are influenced by “internal personal thinking” and “external driving forces” when they embark on a working holiday. The former includes negative obstructions and positive stimulus. The latter factor’s stimulus includes attraction of natural landscapes, history and culture, learning foreign languages, safety concerns, difficulties in visa application, and the opportunity to obtain a salaried job. The process of embarking on a working holiday was complex and unpredictable. The traveling behavior of working holiday destinations included short-distance leisure behavior and long-distance traveling behavior. In terms of the influences of short-distance leisure behavior, graduates preferred being employed by service industries that had less working hours, flexible work arrangements and included the purchase of preferential price tickets. Graduates’ long-distance traveling behavior was affected by the work they performed. The travel time was different between various industries.

Keywords: graduates, working holiday, decision-making, travel, spatial behavior

1. Introduction

Within the context of globalization over the past few years, working holidays have clearly become a new trend in alternative tourism [1]. Unlike traditional tourism, working holidays are a newly emerging form of independent travel that combines “work” and “holiday.”

Working holiday makers (WHMs) are able to obtain working holiday visas for travel to other countries in order to undertake employment while engaging in in-depth tourism. This form of tourism not only enables individuals to experience the customs and culture of foreign countries in order to widen their horizons but also achieve personal growth and the satisfaction of leisure. It also provides a way to earn money through legally engaging in work in order to raise funds for the cost of tourism activities.

University graduates often experience a transitional stage in their career development, and many of them are faced with the crucial decision of undertaking graduate studies or employment. Working holidays seem to have become a third option. However, when making the decision to participate in working holidays abroad, graduates will necessarily encounter family and social incentives and restrictions. What are these incentives and restrictions? Past research on working holidays has mostly focused on the personal backgrounds, psychological traits, and cultural adaptation of these travelers. However, limited research has been conducted on individual subjective factors and objective factors of the external environment (e.g., safety, visas, salary, language, etc.) that are involved in deciding on the destination country. How are these factors manifested in university graduates?

Furthermore, during the process of working holidays, there is a competitive and complementary relationship between work and holidays in the dimensions of time and life. The proportion of time allocated to work and holidays by these travelers can take on a variety of forms. Some may focus on experiencing the sightseeing activities, whereas others may emphasize income. Are there differences in the spatial travel behavior of workers in different industries?

Based on the above, the present study aimed to achieve the following objectives: (1) to explore the internal motivation and external influences involved in the decision to undertake working holidays when university graduates are planning their career development, (2) to analyze the decision-making of graduates when choosing to participate in working holidays, and (3) to understand the spatial travel behaviors of graduates during their working holiday.

2. Literature review

2.1. The development context of a working holiday

Tourism and work are often regarded as completely different concepts, as if working and being on holiday were mutually contradictory. Vacations represent the need to seek relaxation and recreational activities after finishing work; for this reason, they should not involve any form of labor [1–3]. In 1975, New Zealand and Australia set out to solve their agricultural labor shortage and enhance the development of their tourism industries. They began issuing working holiday visas to young people between the ages of 18 and 30 years. This policy enabled young people to travel to Australia and New Zealand to undertake short-term employment, while also experiencing the local culture and expanding their personal horizons [4]. As WHMs often have a strong motivation to travel, the concept of a working holiday breaks through the traditional definition of tourism, combining the concepts of holiday and work to create a new type of independent travel. By performing manual labor, WHMs can earn enough money to pay for their own travel and sightseeing activities [5, 6]. This scheme gives young people with no financial resources the opportunity to explore and travel around the world. Working holidays have gradually become a popular trend in alternative tourism. WHMs undertake manual work on holiday to achieve benefits, such as learning opportunities, stress relief, and cultural exchanges [7]. In another form of holiday, WHMs work during their spare time to achieve recreational aims, including relaxation, learning, interpersonal exchanges, and personal growth.

Based on the ratio between the amount of work and relaxation, working holidays can be roughly divided into two categories. In the first category, people experience work combined with a holiday; they continue to work for a living and to experience the stress of work responsibilities. This type of working holiday is associated with occupations that combine work with travel. Participants include business travelers, flight attendants, tour group leaders, and tour guides. The second category of working holiday involves transforming work into a holiday activity. In recent years, this approach has developed rapidly and received widespread attention. It has also become the type of working holiday that most people are aware of. Participants believe that the work they undertake during their holidays is not just work; it is also an important travel experience. In defining the work-to-holiday spectrum, it is important to consider factors such as remuneration, volunteer status, responsibility, and motivation. Working tourists can be grouped into the following five categories: traveling professional workers, migrant tourism workers, noninstitutionalized working tourists, working-holiday tourists, and paid workers [2, 3, 8]. The type of working holiday discussed in this study belongs to the noninstitutionalized working tourists category.

2.2. Environmental perception, traveling behavior, and decision-making

The main purpose of behavioral geography is to explore the behavioral patterns that humans exhibit when faced with environmental stimuli; research in this field looks at environmental perception and spatial behaviors. Environmental perception focuses on information signals that the human sense organs receive from the external environment. These are filtered by the brain, which uses the individual's value system (needs, attitudes, preferences, and memory) to identify interesting information. Finally, these pieces of information are organized into images and stored in the brain, where they serve as a reference for human environmental perception and decision-making [9, 10]. Spatial behaviors are external behaviors produced by individuals through a series of processes involving their value systems, images, and ability to make decisions. When examining the travel behaviors of individuals, we must first understand their image of the tourist destination in question. By beginning with a study of perception, researchers can use the travel behaviors of individuals to infer how their travel decision-making processes and influencing factors have shaped their spatial behaviors. To understand the travel decision-making processes and behaviors of WHMs, we can adopt the environmental perception perspective used in geography and apply the research method of post hoc recall to indirectly provide a complete picture of the WHMs' pre-travel planning and destination travel experiences.

Time geography can serve as a basic framework for travel behaviors, focusing on identifiable spatial and temporal features in human activity movement paths. Time geography explores the spatial range of movements within a given time period, made by individuals who exist within a specific period and location [11, 12]. Human activities are influenced by multiple structural factors; people's range of movement is restricted within the terrestrial space. The main constraints include: (1) capability constraints, which are limitations imposed on individuals' activities by their own physiological abilities and tools. For example, an individual's chosen form of transportation could influence his or her path of movement and range of accessibility; (2) coupling constraints, which are bundles formed by individuals when they are producing, consuming, or engaged in other social activities. For example, some limitations on spatial movements in daily life could be caused by the interactions required in a particular type of job; and (3) authority constraints, which involve the specific, temporal, or spatial exclusion of people or objects due to the law or social norms. For example, limitations are imposed on the WHMs' working holidays by their tourist visa location, age, and financial means [13].

Decision-making involves the actions that individuals perform after considering all the information they can perceive, while relying on their value systems. An individual's decision-making process is influenced by a number of factors, which can be divided into personal internal factors and environmental external factors [14]. The personal internal factors that influence an individual's travel decision-making are often related to his or her recreational needs. Maslow [15] proposed that humans have a hierarchy of needs, which can generally be classified as physiological needs, psychological needs, and cognitive needs. Individuals must first satisfy their lower order needs before they can fulfill their higher order needs. The different levels of needs are interdependent and carry different weights [15]. Thus, needs that influence a decision to produce travel behavior, on a psychological level, are related to the individual's travel motivation, personality, attitudes, perceptions, interests, and past travel experiences [16–18]. An individual's disposable income is also an important economic consideration affecting travel activities. For this reason, the travel budget often forms an economic threshold for travel activities [19]. However, the integration of work into the working holiday model provides travelers with an opportunity to earn an income, which can also motivate them to experience travel activities. In addition, the travel behaviors of individuals at certain stages of their lives may be strongly influenced by others. For example, individuals' travel behavior may be influenced by their family and peers [20, 21]. Most WHMs are young people, who may have little social experience; for this reason, their travel decision-making may be influenced by the opinions of family members and travel companions at the same stage of life. External factors that influence travel decision-making can include the destination country's history and culture, social security, language environment, entry visa conditions, and the appeal of tourism resources, work salary and opportunities, accessibility of transportation, and other factors [14, 20].

To analyze the logical thinking behind an individual's travel decision making, Golledge and Stimson [22] divided their decision-making model into four categories: (1) riskless theories, which assume that economic rationality is a prerequisite. These theories propose that individuals can obtain complete decision-making information to maximize their decision outcomes in relation to specific benefits. In brief, according to theories of economic rationality, individuals will always select the best alternative and will find a unique solution among multiple variables; (2) theories of risky decision making, which involve the concepts of risk and uncertainty. Risk refers to a knowledge system detailing the probabilities of various possible outcomes; risk is produced when humans make choices. Uncertainty refers to conditions in which decision makers are unable to identify the probability of a given outcome, because it is due to the uncertain situation that occurs when humans interact with the environment; (3) transitivity in decision making, which proposes that individuals start out by juxtaposing four or more goals, reaching a transitive choice through pairwise or triplet-wise comparisons when evaluating their decision; and (4) theories of games and statistical decision functions. These theories are based on mathematical computations of probabilities, where the players use formal reasoning to evaluate which action plan they should adopt to rationally pursue their interests, thereby maximizing their benefits [22].

If travelers use their own personalities to analyze decisions, their decision-making processes may contain several different types of logical thinking. These types include the following: the rational economic man model, which seeks to comprehensively evaluate the factors that influence the implementation or obstruction of an individual's travel decisions. These include minimizing travel costs, maximizing returns, minimizing travel risks, and maximizing the physical and mental benefits of all travel decisions. The emotional man model considers the preferences and emotions of each traveler, arguing that travel decision-making is influenced by personal, subjective preferences. In the passive man model, the traveler has low self-awareness; his or her travel decision-making is influenced by commercials or other stimuli. Subjective intentions are extremely low and constrained by political, economic, social, cultural, and other structural factors [22, 23].

3. Research methodology and methods

The main study participants were university graduates in Taiwan, and the research focus was on their decision-making regarding destination country and travel behavior when participating in working holidays. By adopting a qualitative research approach and applying "constructivism" as the research concept, this study investigated graduates' re-examination of past life events through questions raised by the researchers during interviews. "Personal constructs" and "social constructs" were used to understand and reconstruct the knowledge construct of the participants' experiences. This is because all "reality" can be regarded as the product of personal constructs, which are based on personal cognitive schemata, and social constructs, which are based on the interactions between society and culture. That is, the unique concepts or constructs that are established within a specific physical, psychological, social, and cultural context are used by humans to actively understand the situations that they experience.

The foundation of the personal construct theory is based on personal cognitive processes in the field of psychology. Any reality that humans encounter within their living environment needs to be perceived by their senses followed by information processing and meaning comprehension in the brain in order to generate specific interpretations and judgments [24]. The social construct theory, on the other hand, states that the process of knowledge construction is focused on the product of social constructs based on the inter-subjectivity of knowledge. It centers on the collective understanding of meaning generated through language norms and social interactions. The cognitive development of individuals should be examined within the context of language, community, society, and country [25]. In other words, members of society develop a "collective consciousness" due to their shared norms in society, thereby reflecting their social and cultural traditions, customs, and beliefs [26].

Our strategy for participant recruitment first involved posting announcements on websites related to working holidays and then inviting the subsequent participants via snowball sampling. A total of nine participants were interviewed between January and October 2014, who participated in working holidays between 2010 and 2013. The participants were aged between 24 and 35 years and included three males and six females. Among them, two traveled to Australia (anonymous code: A1–A2), four traveled to Canada (anonymous code: C1–C4), and three traveled to Japan (anonymous code: J1–J3). During the later stages of the interview, much of the interview content was repeated, and it was clear that the information had reached saturation. Open-ended in-depth interviews were selected as the main research method. Each interview was conducted in a comfortable and casual atmosphere, and the length was about 2–4 h. Participants' consent to the use of recording equipment was obtained prior to conducting the interviews in order to facilitate subsequent collation and analysis. As this was a recall-based study of traveling behaviors, participants were advised before the interview to bring along items that may enhance their memories, such as diaries, photographs, souvenirs, etc. These items facilitated the participants' recall of their traveling behavior during their working holiday, which enabled them to provide more detailed research data.

4. The internal personal thinking in country decision-making of working holiday

During the decision-making process of whether to participate in working holidays, influencing factors included the external connectedness of individuals' personal internal motivation and personal resources in terms of psychology, personal budget, and interpersonal relationships. These factors formed travel obstacles or travel incentives, which in turn influenced participants' decision-making process regarding destination country for their working holidays.

4.1. Travel obstacles

4.1.1. Poor life adaptation

To individuals, transitioning from a familiar and comfortable space to an unfamiliar space requires a series of physical and mental adjustments. For example, climate conditions, standard of living, language ability, culture shock, and so forth are sufficient causes of anxiety and fear in working holiday travelers. For instance, a WHM who went to Japan mentioned, *"My English was not very good and I did not know Japanese. So, language was what I was most afraid I would not adapt to when I went over" (J3, 2014)*. A WHM who went to Canada was worried about problems with life adaptations and adopted an adjustment strategy: *"It was winter when I departed, and I was not sure whether I would be able to adapt. So, I set a bottom line. If in three months' time I had used up my money, could not find a job, and had not adapted to the country, I would go home" (C3, 2014).*

The issues of psychological anxiety faced by WHMs not only involve adapting to life in the travel destination but also include life adaptations for work continuity upon returning to their home country. As working holidays may last up to 1 year, WHMs need to consider the delay in entering the workplace compared to their peers. Some travelers were concerned about this form of psychological stress. For example, one participant stated, *"The time between the application and departure was quite difficult because I had quit my job. However, everyone around me was going to interviews, finding jobs, and even starting to work. I felt slight panic because I was worried that I would be one step behind other people in the future" (J1, 2014).*

4.1.2. Insufficient travel budget

To WHMs, the travel budget was one of the necessary factors to consider. A lack of a sufficient financial basis would obstruct their sightseeing. For instance, one of the participants mentioned, *"I wanted to do this a long time ago, but my family's finances did not permit it. Thus, I first had to work to feed myself, and after working for a while, I accumulated some savings" (C2, 2014).* Therefore, without knowing the local work opportunities and living expenses, some of the WHMs chose to enter the workplace first to prepare a certain amount of travel funds in order to prevent the need to end their travels prematurely and return to Taiwan; they ensured that they had sufficient funds for the costs of living before engaging in working holidays in order to reduce the risks caused by an insufficient travel budget. Another participant said, *"Actually, between graduating and traveling abroad, I worked for two to three years and saved up a sum of money. If I really could not find a job, I had some capital that I could spend" (A1, 2014).* Thus, we can see that there is an economic threshold for working holidays. Another WHM, who traveled to Japan, stated, *"My travel funds were actually from the money I saved up after working for four years because my family did not have enough money to support my indulgence for one year" (J2, 2014).*

4.1.3. Family worries

The parents of most WHMs mainly held a suspicious and worried attitude toward working holidays, and some even opposed the idea. This had a certain impact on the planning and decision-making for working holidays. Reasons for opposition from family members included the long duration, the WHMs' self-care abilities, the nature and content of work, and issues of personal safety. This was because the WHMs often lacked the experience of traveling abroad by themselves when they were growing up. Hence, their parents could not accept that they would be traveling for up to 1 year on their first trip abroad. For example, one participant stated, *"My family's opposition was actually very intense. They felt it was unnecessary, that I have never been abroad but would be going for one year on my first trip" (A2, 2014)*. In addition, the ability to care for themselves was one of the issues that their parents were worried about. For example, a WHM who traveled to Japan said, *"My father hoped that I would not go. Since I could not even fry an egg, he wondered how I was going to survive abroad" (J1, 2014)*. Furthermore, the work that WHMs engaged in were in primary industries, and their families were worried that they could not endure the hardships or were not used to laborious work and were worried about their daily lives. A WHM who engaged in agricultural work in Australia stated, *"At that time, my parents felt that I would not be able to adjust, and would come home after one or two months. At that time, I already knew that I would be picking strawberries (agricultural work), and I would come home if I could not take it" (A1, 2014)*. In addition, there were issues of personal safety, and this was a substantial force of obstruction for the female population. A female WHM who went to Canada stated, *"Our family is a traditional, conservative family, and they are more worried about whether a girl on her own abroad would encounter any dangers" (C4, 2014).*

4.1.4. The impact of intangible forces

The present study found that when female WHMs were deciding whether to participate in working holidays, they would consult traditional religious beliefs or intangible supernatural forces within Taiwan's cultural atmosphere, such as fortune telling, Tarot cards, and so on. For example, one participant mentioned, *"Because my parents have more traditional views and they believe that girls like me should be married and live a stable life, they had my fortune told" (A1, 2014)*. Although traditional intangible forces are not the main factor influencing decisions to participate in working holidays, they have a certain level of influence. For instance, one participant stated, *"My greatest obstacle was that I had my fortune told and asked whether I should participate in this working holiday. The fortune teller said the outlook was not good, which made me very uneasy at that time, and afraid that I would encounter misfortunes. After that, one of my classmates was learning to read Tarot cards and I asked them to read mine, which also influenced my decision slightly" (C3, 2014).*

4.1.5. Re-analysis

The present study found that the riskless theories proposed by Golledge and Stimson do not occur readily in real environments [22]. Hence, individuals are often unable to adopt "economic rationality" in their thinking in order to choose the best alternative when deciding to travel. On the contrary, during the decision-making process of participating in working holidays, individuals may face substantial uncertainty when performing weighted analysis of their personal subjective views and preferences and constantly revise their thinking. In addition, the present study also found that travel obstacles that influenced WHMs included leaving their past comfortable "environmental bubble" [27], and the anxiety induced by working alone abroad. In order to eliminate their personal insecurities, some WHMs sought comfort from intangible forces, which is a common phenomenon in Eastern countries, and this had a certain level of influence. Furthermore, WHMs' personal travel budget formed a constraining "economic threshold" in this study, as not all WHMs were able to successfully find suitable jobs when they were traveling. Therefore, during the personal job hunting process, WHMs needed to possess a certain level of finances to meet the initial costs of living in the destination country.

4.2. Travel incentives

4.2.1. Expansion of personal horizons

Curiosity and exploration are motivations for humans to travel. To some youths, a lack of experiences abroad or the influence of peers causes them to have a high level of curiosity toward foreign countries. Thus, they use working holidays as a means to explore the world and realize their personal dreams. This is a deeper level of inner need. For example, one participant stated, *"I had not been abroad, and so I wanted to participate in a working holiday. I felt like I wanted find a country to explore and enhance the width and breadth of my life" (A2, 2014)*. If WHMs had past experiences of independent traveling, they were more prone to travel to other countries through these working holidays in order to come into contact with people, events, and objects that were different from their past experiences. This enabled them to engage in continuous self-reflection, absorb different values and thus achieve self-actualization, which fulfills a higher level of need. Another participant also stated, *"By leaving Taiwan and living in a different city or country, I was hoping to live in a different place and come into contact with different people and different perspectives through my travels" (C3, 2014).*

4.2.2. Transformation of stressful emotions

For youths who have graduated and entered the workplace, long-term exposure to the workplace can easily lead to anxiety, tension, and other negative emotions. Thus, due to physical and mental fatigue, they hope that a long vacation can help them to avoid stress, relieve tensions, escape from fatigue, and find complementarity and balance in body and mind. For example, one participant stated, *"Because I had worked for a long time, I wanted to rest. This trip was for rest and to travel. I wanted to travel around to sightsee and relax" (C3, 2014).* In other words, a major reason for engaging in working holidays is to provide a breathing space through this channel. This allowed the WHMs to temporarily escape the workplace; enter a completely unfamiliar environment; live with more carefreeness in order to seek the release of all restraints, grievances, and ailments; and relax completely. As pointed out by another participant, *"Maybe because I accumulated too much stress, my immunity was dysfunctional and I came down with many strange illnesses. At that time, I really wanted to leave the company and rest" (J2, 2014).*

4.2.3. Earning the first pot of gold

For many new graduates, engaging in independent travel first requires undertaking employment to earn sufficient travel funds, whereas working holidays are a means to earn money. One WHM mentioned, *"For independent travel, you might run out of travel funds one day. If you work at the same time, you can also earn some travel funds, which is a better method" (C4, 2014).* Within this context, the emergence of "working holidays" happens to form a third option, which allows participants to work and play at the same time, experiencing diverse leisure activities while also earning their daily living expenses through labor opportunities in foreign countries. This satisfies the original intention of working holidays. As mentioned by one participant, *"I was able to experience local life and also earn money. I initially wanted to travel, work, and experience at the same time. Yes! This was my goal for going in the first place" (C1, 2014).*

4.2.4. Seeking peer companionship

The present study found that during the working holiday period, if there was insufficient tourism information and resources in the foreign country, having a companion was extremely beneficial to the generation of working holiday behaviors. The advantages were that WHMs had someone to rely on and could take care of each other. In addition, having a companion helped to reduce the anxiety and fear produced on a psychological level and boosted their courage to undertake a working holiday. As mentioned by one participant, *"After all, everything was very unfamiliar, and so with a companion abroad we could share our troubles and support each other in some circumstances" (C2, 2014)*. As working holidays involve traveling abroad for up to 1 year, they present a greater challenge to the young female population. Hence, the companionship of peers can mutually boost their courage, and when they encounter problems or setbacks, they will have someone to accompany them to resolve their problems. This will increase their willingness to travel abroad to participate in working holidays. In addition, due to considerations for personal safety, peer companionship is an important factor for females when participating in working holidays. As mentioned by one participant, *"I feel that especially for females, when you go somewhere unfamiliar and know nothing about the place, having someone to accompany you and to find your way together gives a very warm and different feeling. So, for girls, I recommend finding someone to boost each other's courage" (A1, 2014).*

4.2.5. Mastering social connections

Long-term and long-distance cross-spatial movement will often lead to worries. Despite a lack of prior experience in traveling abroad, if WHMs have familiar social networks in their destination country (e.g., relatives, classmates, friends, etc.), it will help to enhance their willingness to participate in working holidays. As mentioned by one participant, *"Since someone I knew had migrated to Canada, even though it was unfamiliar, I felt more at ease because someone was over there" (C1, 2014).* In other words, social connections played an important role in working holidays in Australia, Canada, and Japan. Having someone to depend on in an unfamiliar country provided WHMs with peace of mind. In addition, social contacts can also increase the opportunities for employment and shorten the time taken for job searching during the working holiday, even enabling WHMs to find a job immediately after arriving in their destination country. Another participant stated, *"It is better if you have friends there. You can take care of each other. I got my first job through their recommendation, so I had quite a good job immediately, and did not need to spend too much time finding jobs" (C2, 2014).*

4.2.6. Re-analysis

Travel incentives on the level of psychology, income earning, and interpersonal relationships all had different extents of influence on the personal decision-making process of WHMs, which promoted their willingness to travel abroad to participate in working holidays. Specifically, the income earning dimension was both a restriction and an opportunity; hence, it was a "double-edged sword." In other words, individual finances were one of the limiting factors that formed a travel obstacle; however, in terms of WHMs' motivation, working holidays were also a means to earn income or cover local travel expenses. In addition, the present study found that the travel behavior of WHMs was also influenced by their peer groups. The formation of travel groups with members in the same stage of life enhanced the feasibility of travel behavior, which reflects the importance of peers in traveling, as highlighted in the individual-community theory [20].

5. The external driving forces in country decision-making of working holiday

The personal decision-making process of WHMs when choosing the destination country for their working holiday is not only influenced by their personal internal motivations: external structural factors, including the attractiveness of the environment, economic stability, social security, and national policies also have a crucial impact, which forms the social construct of the participant.

5.1. The attraction of nature and humanistic tourism resources

Due to the non-uniform distribution of resources among countries, whether a country has a unique natural landscape was an important factor for consideration when WHMs were deciding on a destination country. Natural sightseeing resources include terrains, climate, hydrology, ecology, etc. Aside from personal preferences, the "uniqueness" of tourism landscapes was generally mentioned as an important factor in decision making. For example, WHMs who traveled to Australia or Canada placed greater emphasis on the natural landscape. As stated by one participant, *"Uluru is quite famous" (A1, 2014).* Another participant also mentioned, *"The Rocky Mountains. I love magnificent landscapes, and Canada's environment was very attractive to me. I was also able to visit other parts of North America, see the auroras, and it snows in their climate" (C1, 2014).* Furthermore, the "exoticness" of the traveling environment, or the disparity of climate and ecological conditions compared to Taiwan also drove the motivation to travel. As mentioned by one participant, *"When I was young, I thought the maple leaves were very beautiful. I needed to go to a temperate country with maple leaves and beautiful autumns, so I went to Canada" (C4, 2014).* In other words, personally witnessing the natural landscape resources of foreign countries was the goal of some WHMs.

As for attraction to a country's humanistic history, as Taiwan was influenced by the colonial rule of the Japanese government, this has resulted in a curiosity and longing by WHMs toward Japanese culture. One participant said, *"I have loved Japanese culture since I was young and have always wanted to go traveling there" (J2, 2014)*. Furthermore, another aim of working holidays in Japan is to better experience the unique cultural resources in Japan, such as Japanese television dramas, anime, pop songs, authentic Japanese lifestyles, famous sites and architecture, and so on. Another participant stated, *"I usually watch Japanese dramas and anime, and listen to Japanese songs. I am also very interested in Japan's culture and local life" (J2, 2014)*. One participant also mentioned, *"Their history is full of flavor. You can see many places where they are different, and are worthy of consideration by Taiwanese people, regardless of whether it is tourism, infrastructure, culture, or historical sites" (J3, 2014).*

5.2. Work stability

The working conditions of the travel destinations were also an important factor when WHMs were choosing a country for their working holidays. The ability to find local job opportunities before traveling abroad would reduce the anxiety caused by job hunting. For example, some WHMs who traveled to Japan or Australia were able to obtain jobs in exchange for room and board through the "World-Wide Opportunities on Organic Farms" (WWOOF) program. For example, one participant stated, *"There is a WWOOF organization where you can search for good hosts and good reviews before contacting them. You can plan to stay with one farm one month, and move on to another the next month. There are many choices" (J2, 2014)*. Another participant, who went to Australia, stated, *"When I went to Australia, the exchange rate for the Australian dollar was very high, almost the same as the US dollar, and could be earned more easily. Their wages and welfare are quite good. Even if you are on a working holiday visa, you will be given the most basic hourly wage. Compared to Taiwan, their welfare is really good" (A1, 2014).*

Nevertheless, if too many working holiday visas are issued, it will lead to competition in labor opportunities, which will decrease the willingness of WHMs to travel abroad. For example, the number of WHMs traveling to Australia has increased drastically recently, leading to a massive influx of people and causing an oversupply of labor. Thus, some WHMs had to give up on the idea and choose other countries. A WHM who traveled to Canada stated, *"When Australia first opened up, it was very good, but jobs were more difficult to find afterwards. I have also heard that the number of illegal workers there has increased, and I was worried that I would not be able to find a job" (C1, 2014).*

5.3. Level of social security

Aside from work stability, the level of social security in destination countries was also a major factor influencing the selection of country. Countries with a high level of economic development, high social security, and abundant job opportunities were more attractive to WHMs. One participant stated, *"If I went to countries that are less developed, I might be afraid. However, because it was Canada, I felt that it would generally be safe" (C1, 2014).* Furthermore, a higher level of understanding of a country was also an important reference during the decision-making process for the destination country. For example, Australia began its working holiday scheme relatively early, and hence more relevant information is available. WHMs will share their working holiday experiences through books, the Internet, and other media in order for future WHMs to gain a more detailed understanding on living, working, and traveling in the country, thus enabling them to make prior preparations. For example, one participant stated, *"Australia has been opened up for longer and so information can be more easily found online. Someone will share where they have found work and what activities you can do" (A1, 2014).*

5.4. Future usefulness of language learning

Within the trend of globalization, having a certain level of foreign language proficiency was one of the basic abilities that young people attached great importance to. The working holidays provided a good opportunity to learn verbal abilities for foreign languages. As mentioned by one participant, *"I wanted to learn some Japanese and hope to be fluent, so I practiced my verbal and listening abilities… I feel that when you go there, the most important thing is that you must dare to speak. In Taiwan, you only speak to your teacher, but in the environment of Japan, you need to speak anytime and anywhere" (J2, 2014).* Students in Taiwan begin receiving formal English language education in primary school in order to cultivate a global outlook and increase their international competitiveness. However, since their learning goals are to pass examinations and further their studies, their English listening and verbal communication abilities are often relatively weak. Hence, to improve their English language proficiency, WHMs may place more emphasis in considering English-speaking Australia or Canada when deciding on their destination country. As stated by one participant, *"It may have been related to English-speaking countries because I wanted to practice my English. I feel that my English is not very good, and I only dare to speak English when I am there" (C1, 2014).* As can be seen, when selecting a destination country, WHMs will often consider the future usefulness of language learning. Most of them hoped that 1 year of language learning would help them to improve their foreign language proficiency, and even to obtain the relevant language proficiency certificates, which would increase future job opportunities. One participant stated, *"My thinking was that after learning English over there, I can come back to Taiwan and find English-related jobs. My English did improve" (A1, 2014).* Another participant also mentioned, *"After I returned to Taiwan, I did some Japanese translation jobs" (J1, 2014).*

5.5. Difficulty of obtaining visas

The application requirements for tourist visas were one of the major factors influencing the traveling decision-making of WHMs. As different countries have signed agreements with different conditions and restrictions with Taiwan, this had an impact on the decision-making process of WHMs regarding their destination country. A WHM who traveled to Canada stated, *"Originally, I wanted to go to New Zealand as well, but it was too troublesome. I think there were only 600 places and it was lottery-based, so Canada was my first choice" (C1, 2014).* Using Australia as an example, it has a high quota, simplified application process, and rapid visa issuance, which were important incentives to WHMs. As stated by one participant, *"There were few restrictions and many places. As long as individuals do not have any major illnesses, they can obtain an Australian visa" (A2, 2014).* Furthermore, the upper age limit posed a restriction on the choices of WHMs. The majority of countries impose an age limit of below 30 years for WHMs. However, Canada relaxed this limit to 35 years, which became an opportunity for youths over 30 years to engage in working holidays. One participant stated, *"Since I was already over 30, I could only choose Canada because they allow people up to 35 years of age" (C2, 2014).* Moreover, applicants' language proficiency was often a restriction for visa applications. For example, although Japan has an annual application quota of 5000, they require written reasons for engaging in a working holiday and a plan of future activities, as well as the relevant Japanese language test certificate. Hence, visa applications for Japan are more difficult than Australia and Canada. As stated by one participant, *"Although Japan does not specify how good your Japanese must be, I would guess that if you have a Japanese test certificate, you would not be eliminated in the first round. And you need to write a plan" (J2, 2014).* Another WHM who traveled to Canada stated, *"I knew that you needed to know some Japanese for Japan, so I gave up on it" (C1, 2014).*

5.6. Re-analysis

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs [15], in terms of the connections between personal needs and external structure, the lowest levels of physiological needs and safety needs must be met first. Therefore, work stability and social security of the working holiday country were the primary factors in WHMs' country decision-making process. In addition, sightseeing resources have regional differences and are immovable, and hence they are often able to attract tourists. Moreover, the environment for language learning and the requirements for a working holiday visa were also important driving forces for participation in working holidays.

6. Analysis of the spatial range and influencing factors of travel behaviors

WHMs' travel behavior can be explored on a spatial scale in order to analyze the effects of personal subjective factors and external objective factors.

6.1. Analysis of spatial range of travel behavior

6.1.1. Short-distance travel behavior

In general, tourist activities mostly refer to long-distance travel behaviors. However, in daily life, there is still a general need for "recreational activities." *Some WHMs pointed out that they would use their free time to engage in certain regular outdoor recreational activities, such as taking walks, taking photographs, cycling, having outings, dining out, and so on. Their goal was to relax. As stated by one participant, "In the afternoon, everyone might meet up for sightseeing nearby, cycle somewhere, or take photographs nearby, or go out for a walk at night to enjoy a sky full of stars. To me, this was also having fun" (J3, 2014).* In addition, to some WHMs, going shopping was also a means to enjoy the novelty and exoticness of the shopping process. For example, one participant stated, *"At the beginning, even going to the supermarket was exciting. Visiting the supermarket was also very interesting to me" (J2, 2014).* Another participant also pointed out, *"I really liked visiting the local market to buy random things and to see different people, events, and things. If you integrate into their lives, you will have a different feeling" (C2, 2014).* In brief, the novelty of a foreign space induced the willingness of WHMs to engage in regular recreational activities and to expand their personal horizons. In addition, cultural experience activities not only enabled WHMs to effectively integrate into local society but also interact with local residents; it would enable them to gain deeper experiences of the local culture and lifestyle. For example, concerning the experiences of local customs, one participant said, *"Once, I was a guest at a Japanese household. Since it was New Year's, we worshiped in a shrine, offered coins, drew lots, and pulled the bell ropes for happiness" (J3, 2014).* Another WHM, who traveled to Canada, mentioned, *"I was very happy to spend Thanksgiving at my friend's house, and we ate a turkey dinner. I was finally able to experience the foreigner feeling" (C4, 2014).* Thus, we can see that participating in the local customs and festivals provided WHMs with a deeper tourist experience.

Furthermore, social gatherings were the most common recreational activities among WHMs. As there was no need for a fixed time, place, or form, they could easily meet backpackers from around the world during these gatherings; hence, WHMs were often attracted to these social gatherings. For example, one participant stated, *"The farm owner loved organizing parties. There was one nearly every week, with food, fun, and the chance to meet friends" (J3, 2014).* Therefore, social activities were one of the best ways for WHMs to meet foreign friends, expand their contacts, and enhance their relationships. Another participant also stated, *"Everyone shared how to cook, make, and eat certain dishes. My special dish was salt and pepper chicken, and the foreigners really liked it" (A1, 2014).*

6.1.2. Long-distance travel behaviors

Due to geographical and historical differences, the sightseeing resources of each country have differing levels of attractiveness. This provided WHMs with diverse opportunities for tourist activities such as sightseeing in unique natural attractions and participation in festivals or themed activities. Special attractions include terrain, climate, ecology, and cultural landscapes, for example, special surface types and structures, unique wildlife, and cultural and historical landscapes. As mentioned by one participant, *"We visited a place called Mount Rainier. The glaciers were extremely beautiful. There was glacial terrain as far as the eye could see" (C4, 2014).* Another participant also stated, *"We climbed Uluru. It changes color under sunlight at different times, so it was not surprising that it is known as a holy mountain to the locals" (A1, 2014)*. Aside from personally witnessing these natural landscapes that cannot be found in Taiwan, WHMs also stressed that coming into close contact with wildlife was a rare tourist experience, for instance, being able to see polar bears, elks, and brown bears in person. As stated by one participant, *"At the entrance of the tourist center, I saw a brown bear, and it was very large. It was standing right next to you when you passed by. It was very exciting" (C2, 2014).* Another participant, who went to Australia and was able to hold a koala and take photographs with kangaroos, mentioned, *"I even held a koala. I think we will not be able to do this in Taiwan! I had photographs taken with kangaroos as well. They were very tall" (A1, 2014).*

Special cultural and historical landscapes were also tourist attractions that attracted WHMs, including residences, shrines, ancient cities, canals, churches, and other tourist sites. As stated by one participant, *"Do you know a place called Gassho Village? They have many small wooden and thatched cottages. It was like a fairy tale. It was a World Heritage Site … There were also national treasures such as Matsumoto Castle and Torii. I visited a few interesting shrines" (J2, 2014).* Special festivals and themed activities also provided WHMs with opportunities for cultural experiences and diverse entertainment. They encourage WHMs to gain a deeper awareness and understanding of local history and culture. Hence, they are highly attractive and tourists often travel specifically to see them, for example, St. Patrick's Day in Canada and the Obon Festival in Japan. One participant mentioned, *"The Japanese Obon Festival is around August 15 every year, and they have the Bon dance. I was dressed up as a girl. It was a very interesting experience, which I will never forget" (J3, 2014).*

In addition, if WHMs are interested in sports activities, they would specially arrange to attend important sporting events, such as the Australian Open tennis tournament, Canadian ice hockey, American professional basketball games, and so on. As stated by one participant, *"My dream was to see the Australian Open and I really went! I quite like tennis, and seeing it live is* *not the same as seeing it on the television" (A1, 2014)*. Another participant also mentioned, *"For those who play basketball, when they come here (North America), they must see the NBA. The games make you high" (C2, 2014).*

6.1.3. Re-analysis

The spatial travel behaviors of WHMs are often restricted by the industry type and work patterns that they undertake. Thus, their travel behaviors show temporal and spatial differences, for example, regarding time allocation, job type, transportation, and other factors; hence, they exhibit a variety of patterns. This echoes the concept of time geography proposed by Hägerstraand [11], which emphasizes the temporal factors of human activities in space. Humans are influenced by multiple structural factors, which restrict the extent of their living in geographical space [11].

6.2. Influencing factors on travel behaviors

6.2.1. Association of job type with travel behaviors

Due to differences in the job types undertaken by WHMs, the structural factor of industry work patterns had an impact on the time available for tourism. The different industries that WHMs were working in led to a variety of travel behaviors.

6.2.1.1. Travel behaviors and work patterns on a "weekly" scale

For labor-based agricultural work, due to their long weekly hours and physically demanding jobs, WHMs mostly chose to return home to rest after work. Hence, short-distance travel behaviors were not frequent. As mentioned by one participant, *"Farming is probably the most tiring job. I went to bed immediately after going back" (J1, 2014)*. Another participant also mentioned, *"At night, the most I would do is watch films and relax because I worked the entire day" (A1, 2014).* As the tourist services industry is also affected by the peak and off-peak seasons, a similar phenomenon was observed. During the peak season, WHMs had long and intense working hours every day. For example, WHMs who undertook hotel cleaning jobs in Canada had to work for eight hours a day. Hence, short-distance travel behaviors were not easy for jobs with such characteristics. As mentioned by one participant, *"Working in hotels involved eight hours a day, 40 hours a week. I was working fully during the weekdays and had no time to have fun so I could save more money" (C2, 2014).*

As for the general service industry, due to the 2-day weekend system, WHMs had shorter working hours and more flexible work schedules. For example, working as a waiter in Canada involved about 4- or 5-h work days. Hence, WHMs could use the time after work or vacation time for short-distance travel behaviors. One participant stated, *"They rest two days a week and the café did not need to be open then, so I could plan trips over the weekend. I was quite lucky" (C3, 2014).*

6.2.1.2. Travel behaviors and work patterns on a "yearly" scale

The agricultural industry mostly involves seasonal labor work that is intensive but short term. The work transition period provides the perfect opportunity for WHMs to engage in long-distance travel behaviors. As mentioned by one participant, *"Farms are seasonal. Once the farm work has ended, you will need to wait more than two months for the next job. So, for a long period of time, I was having fun" (A2, 2014).*

The tourism industry, with its peak and off-peak seasons, also showed the same phenomenon. This type of job was mainly concentrated in the tourist seasons, for example, during the skiing season in Canada, the maple season in Japan, and so on. Some of the WHMs used their job transition period to undertake long-distance travel behaviors. For example, one participant stated, *"Usually, I do not travel very far. If you want to travel far, it can only be during the period between ending one job and transitioning to another job. Then, you can have more fun" (J2, 2014).*

As for the general service industry, due to the more advanced job requirements and more professional content of work, employers often hope that WHMs can be long-term employees. Hence, under the limitations of these job conditions, WHMs must remain in a fixed city for a long period of time and work intensively until the final few months of their visa. Then, they will quit their job and engage in long-term and long-distance travel behaviors. One participant stated, *"As work was more intensive, I worked until a certain stage and only then began to have fun. I had the most fun during the last month and a half" (C1, 2014).*

6.2.2. Association with transport modes

The selection of transport mode and transport costs had an impact on WHMs' travel behaviors. If WHMs had a private car for transport, they were not restricted by public transportation. Hence, not only did they have high mobility, they kept a high level of flexibility in their itinerary planning and were more prone to exhibiting long-distance travel behaviors. As stated by one participant, *"Australia is very big. We bought a car so it was convenient to travel anywhere, and we went to all the places that we should have gone. So, we thoroughly enjoyed ourselves" (A1, 2014)*. WHMs will often use car rentals to travel. This not only gives them the freedom to travel but also the costs of renting the car can be split among many individuals, which helps promote long-distance travel behaviors. As mentioned by one participant, *"When we go for outings, we often rent a car. For example, we drove to Kakadu and Uluru, which saved us some money for the whole trip" (A2, 2014).*

Compared to driving their own cars, the limitations of taking public transport to travel, for example, VIA Rail in Canada, include low mobility, fewer tourist spots, and longer travel times. Moreover, sightseeing is only possible near rail or bus stations, which limits the types of tourist activities. For example, one participant stated, *"Taking the railway in Canada takes a long time, with only a few stops in the middle. So, you can only visit the places near the station for a few hours, and cannot go too far" (C1, 2014).* However, taking public transport for sightseeing within cities had the advantage of reducing travel costs, which enabled WHMs to engage in more short-distance travel behaviors. As mentioned by another participant, *"One advantage of the monthly pass was that on Family Day and during the weekends, each pass allowed two people to travel free of charge. So, during the weekends, we went shopping and on outings together. The fares during the holidays were cheaper" (C1, 2014).*

6.2.3. Re-analysis

The present study found that for the general service industry, the working hours were short and vacations were flexible, which benefitted short-distance travel behaviors during the weekdays, including regular recreational activities, participation in social gatherings, and cultural experience activities. Furthermore, the general service industry has more advanced job requirements, which implied that the long-term employment involved was not favorable to long-distance travel behaviors. Therefore, WHMs mostly used the final few months of their visas to engage in long-distance travel activities, such as visiting special attractions or participating in specific festival activities. Conversely, the tourism and agriculture industries are affected by the peak and off-peak seasons in the industry and also involve intensive and concentrated working hours. Hence, WHMs could not easily engage in short-distance travel behaviors, whereas their long-distance travel behaviors could be arranged between job transition periods.

In addition, the mode of transport could promote individuals' spatial mobility. Different modes of transport had different effects on the spatial mobility of individuals' travel behaviors, although advances in transport technology have transformed the mode of movement among tourists, giving them more flexibility and mobility during their travels. Public transport results in traveling being more linear, and the spatial travel behavior of tourists is limited to the transport corridors, for example, along railway lines or shipping routes [28]. The present study found that WHMs' travel behavior was closely related to their choice of transport type, which influenced the duration and spatial range of their travel behaviors. WHMs who rented or bought second-hand cars for travel did not have temporal or spatial limitations due to the mobility of cars. Hence, they were free to choose their travel itinerary and time spent at tourist attractions. Conversely, WHMs who took public transport had more temporal and spatial restrictions, which was less conducive to long-distance travel behaviors.

7. Conclusion

Newly graduated students are in a transition phase in developing their careers. They face important decisions about furthering their studies or undertaking employment. Hence, the working holiday model, which combines work and holiday, seems to be a third option, beyond graduate studies and employment. When choosing a destination country, WHMs often face a complex process of travel decision making. In this study, the rational economic or passive man proposed by Golledge and Stimson was rarely observed [22]. Instead, the emotional man model was often adopted during the personal decision-making process, as were numerous factors relating to subjective preferences. A transitivity strategy adopted during the evaluation of decisions may have helped to select the most beneficial plan. Conversely, when faced with environmental constraints and numerous factors involving risk and uncertainty, individuals may employ the Minimax principle of game theory. This principle involves a negative screening strategy, ensuring that players can still maximize their benefits.

When it comes to internal factors that can influence an individual's travel decision-making, personal psychology, travel budgets, interpersonal relationships, and family worries can all become travel obstructions or incentives. Among these, family concerns, which cause travelers to seek answers and spiritual comfort through the power of traditional beliefs, are a common social phenomenon in Eastern countries, crucially impacting the individual's travel decision making. Furthermore, the individual's economic capability was a double-edged sword in this study. If the chance to earn an income motivated travelers and promoted working holidays, an insufficient travel budget led to unsuccessful travels. Interpersonal relationships and social connections were one of the key driving forces that promoted working holidays. In terms of environmental and structural limitations, as proposed by Maslow's hierarchy of needs, an individual's physiological and safety needs must be satisfied before they can focus on higher order psychological, exploratory, and self-actualization needs [15]. Individuals have several different levels of needs when traveling. For example, job stability and social security were the key concerns of WHMs in their working holidays. At the psychological level, travel activities often help individuals to meet higher order cognitive, exploratory, and self-actualization needs. For this reason, opportunities and constraints are constructed within the travel decision-making behavior of WHMs by the environmental features of their travel destination, such as the attractiveness of tourist resources, the language learning environment, salary and job opportunities, and visa application requirements.

From the theoretical perspective of time geography, this study found that the spatial travel behaviors of WHMs were deeply influenced by the types of jobs they undertook. WHMs in different industries were assessed in relation to their job patterns and time, thus producing different travel needs and behaviors. Labor-intensive agricultural workers could not easily engage in short-distance travel behaviors in their daily lives; whereas the service industry, which had more flexible working hours, was conducive to regular recreational activities among the WHMs. In terms of long-distance travel behaviors, WHMs in different industries had to coordinate their travel needs with their job types. Hence, different timings were observed in their travel behaviors. Most WHMs exhibited long-distance travel behaviors during the off-peak season, job transition period, and before the expiration of their work visas. Furthermore, the type of transportation used by individuals also influenced the paths and range of their travels. As mentioned by Hägerstraand [11], the range of spatial movements in the daily lives of humans is influenced by a number of structural factors. An individual's physiological capabilities, access to transportation, production activities, and legal regulations, among other factors, will impose constraints and limitations on the temporal and spatial aspects of his or her daily activities [11]. Evidently, under the influence of internal subjective preferences and external structural limitations, WHMs showed a diverse range of travel behaviors.

Author details

Chin-cheng Ni, Chien-yu Tsao* and Ying-hsiang Wang

*Address all correspondence to: tsaocy@ntu.edu.tw

Department of Environmental Cultural Resources, National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu, Taiwan

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Section 2

Sustainable Development of Tourism

Chapter 6

Cruise Tourism and Sustainability in the Mediterranean. Destination Venice

Vincenzo Asero and Stefania Skonieczny

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.71459

Abstract

During recent decades, cruise tourism has seen enormous growth in both passenger numbers and destinations. The downside of this growth is the negative impact on environment and society. This is even more true, if the destination considered has a fragile ecosystem. Associating the paradigm of sustainable development with the practice of cruise tourism might represent a solution to the problems faced by the industry. However, although cruise industry has apparently embraced sustainable good practices, a number of issues are still critical. This chapter explores the topic considering the case of Venice and its role as home port for cruise tourism in the Mediterranean area. Venice special legislation on tourist cruises and the debate on cruise ships in the Venetian lagoon are examined to highlight critical factors and remedies. Much remains to be done to balance the rapidly growing demand for cruising against its negative environmental impacts on this fragile city. The case of Venice shows how cruise tourism is a complex issue in relation to the sustainability paradigm. Indeed, the controversies stem from the different points of view of the various actors involved in the market—tourists, cruise companies, local administrations, suppliers, local companies and environmental and heritage protection associations just to mention a few—which identify benefits and costs of cruise industry in different ways and timespan.

Keywords: cruise tourism, sustainable development, sustainable tourism, Venice, carrying capacity, heritage, *Contratto di Rete d'Impresa*

1. Introduction

Tourism is recognised as a global industry and considered a substantial contributor to the development of countries. Tourism development potentially provides many benefits, but these can be realised only if tourism is managed in order to maximise positive impacts, while negative impacts are kept to a minimum. These latter may include degradation of the environment, pollution, waste of resources, disturbance to wildlife and landscapes, cultural commodification and trivialisation, displacement of host communities and introduction of undesirable activities [1]. For this reason, there is a general consensus that associating the principles of sustainable development with the practice of tourism might represent a solution to the problems faced by the industry. As a result, sustainable tourism has been proposed as a development strategy that aims to increase economic opportunities and enhance quality of life while preserving the destinations' natural and cultural resources [2].

In the early 1990s, cruise tourism was mostly an elite privilege, but since then the phenomenon has constantly increased in popularity. Parallel to cruise tourism success, also its environmental, social and economic impact has been growing in scale. At the end of the twentieth century, cruise travel was popular mostly with wealthy senior holiday-makers, for whom a cruise holiday was the symbol of classiness and a luxurious lifestyle. With the beginning of this century, cruise market has seen enormous growth in both passenger numbers and destinations, with aggressive competition among cruise lines, which have developed distinctive brand positions to differentiate themselves from competitors. However, the downside of this growth is the negative impact both on environment and society created by cruise tourism. Hence, when big ships arrive to small destinations, phenomena of congestion arise causing impacts not only on environment but also on traditions and social behaviour of local residents. This would mean that many 'paradisiacal' places, such as islands, costs and ancient cities usually having a very delicate ecosystem, are at risk to be lost [3].

Today, the most popular cruise destinations are, listed in order of traffic volume, the Caribbean and the Bahamas, the Mediterranean, the Atlantic Islands and Northern Europe. As some data from the Cruise Lines International Association (CLIA) shows, the cruise industry has experienced impressive levels of growth. In the last 10 years, demand for cruising has increased by about 70%. In 2014, cruise passengers recorded to have cruised worldwide were more than 22 million, generating an economic impact of $119.9 billion, while further increase is expected in 2017. Cruise ship capacity grew by 18% from 2009 to 2013. Due to this rapid increase in growth, sustainability represents a major issue also for the cruise industry, which has moved towards the wholesale adoption of sustainable principles in its development, operations and branding [4].

Cruise ships today offer a world of innovative facilities and services that aim to satisfy the expectations of a growing population of travellers. However, although it is clear that the cruise industry has responded to the desires of passengers by developing new destinations, ship designs and on-board amenities, in terms of sustainability the attention of the cruise lines seems confined to relatively minor policies and practices of waste management, water treatment policy and reduction of air emissions. Besides international and national laws on commerce and environmental protection, there are no standards for regulating cruise tourism. Due to the lack of comprehensive management and assessment strategies, there is no consensus about the economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of cruise industry. Therefore, much remains to be done to balance the rapidly growing demand for cruising against its negative environmental impacts.

This chapter explores the above-mentioned issues by looking at the strategies and policies used to market cruise tourism in the Mediterranean with a special focus on the case of Venice. The chapter offers also some reflections relevant from the perspective of cruise tourism management, highlighting the need for responsible tourist service providers to balance rent-seeking activities with the need to preserve natural and cultural resources. Venice special legislation on tourist cruises and more general law and legal aspects are examined to highlight critical factors and remedies. The intention is to identify the role of environmental values and sustainability in the cruise industry.

2. Background

Cruise tourism can be defined as a luxurious form of travelling, involving an all-inclusive holiday on a cruise ship of at least 48 hours, with a set and specific itinerary, in which the cruise ship calls at several ports or cities. It is characterised by the concentration of huge numbers of people in limited areas for brief periods, thus multiplying negative impacts that may lead to destruction of natural and cultural resources. According to Johnson [5], the growth of cruise tourism requires different management solutions. They include (a) fostering holistic integrated actions involving international agencies, cruise line operators and host communities; (b) reducing the impact of cruise activities for safeguarding destinations; (c) raising the environmental awareness of passengers; (d) sharing increasing profits more equably between cruise line operators and destination communities. Klein [6] highlighted that in order to keep the cruise industry focused on the issue of sustainability, it is important that non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and other interest groups redouble their efforts in the areas of media management, influencing also legislative processes.

Although cruise industry has apparently embraced sustainable good practices, and efforts are being made to respond to the environmental challenges it faces, a number of issues such as visits to sensitive areas, passenger-host relations in the destinations visited and waste disposal are still critical. Much remains to be done to ensure that the rapidly growing demand for cruising does not exceed the natural limits of the environment. This would lead to a potential conflict with the aims of sustainability stems from the impact of the cruise companies in the tourist destination areas [7]. Furthermore, it has been noted that cruise tourism options vary according to the size of the ship and the type of experience offered. Impacts vary widely and, therefore, many factors need to be considered by the companies, in developing sustainable cruise tourism strategies [8].

Currently, cruise tourism encompasses a variety of facilities and amenities, making sea travel much more comfortable and enjoyable for travellers. Cruise tourism has come to be associated with marine resorts, competing with traditionally marketed destinations and offering tourists an alternative form of holiday. Ritzer [9] used the expression ‘cathedrals of consumption’ to emphasise the structured and ordered nature of production and consumption within cruise ships, which are similar to the repeated contents of theme parks and enclave resorts. Similarly, Quatermaine and Peter [10] described modern cruises as ‘cathedrals of entertainment’, where destinations resemble the intervals of an ongoing show.

In the literature, many researchers have explored cruise tourists' motivations for choosing a cruise holiday. In this regard, Cartwright and Baird [11] say that the most common reasons cited are the search for luxury and entertainment. Others have highlighted that a cruise holiday allows tourists, for a short period of time, to escape their daily routines [12], to enjoy a life of privilege [13] and to be in a different world [14]. Hosany and Witham [15] investigated the relationships among cruisers' experiences, their degrees of satisfaction and their subsequent intentions to recommend the line to others.

Certain characteristics of the cruise industry seem to align the product with green values since the cruise experience brings passengers into contact with sun, water and open air. However, its eco-friendly profile has increasingly come into question, especially over the last decade, which has seen the emergence of floating cities in the form of supercruise ships, able to carry over 5000 passengers. In this regard, Sweeting and Wayne [16, p. 327] defined the cruise industry as 'a polluter, spilling oil and dumping garbage at sea', though they also pointed out that many cruise lines are now implementing practices and procedures to reduce their environmental impacts. On the contrary, some authors (e.g. [17]) have argued that, because it is an organised and spatially confined leisure activity, cruise tourism can be viewed as 'sustainable'.

The need to harmonise the interests of tourism companies with those of the populations and ecosystems they visit is the principal focus of an influential UNESCO report focusing on this commercial sector [18]. Other researches compiled a long list of potentially harmful environmental effects associated with cruise ships, most of which are exacerbated with the increasing size of the vessels: anchor damage, air and water pollution, damage to local natural and cultural ecosystems [5, 19, 20].

Cruise industry growth seems, therefore, to be in conflict with the sustainability paradigm. It therefore appears necessary to conduct proper assessment of the potential benefits, risks and impacts of cruise tourism. In this context, for an authentically sustainable version of cruise tourism development, the implementation of environmental protection measures would be necessary, involving all the stakeholders of marine tourism destinations, not just the cruise line operators [8, 21]. This would require a long-term management strategy, involving international agencies, cruise line operators and host communities.

3. Cruise traffic in the Mediterranean area

If considered from a global point of view, the cruise market is in a continuous growth, very competitive and investing in new means every year. Data by CLIA state that in 2016, 24.2 million cruisers have been cutting through the seas, while in the 2017 projection, cruises are expected to rise globally to 25.3 million.

This global phenomenon is very similar to the market's trends in the Mediterranean Sea, where the number of passengers has increased to 10.1 million in less than 10 years, rising from 24.2 to 34.3 million from 2007 to 2016. The number of lower berths had reached 26.3 million at the beginning of 2017, with a growth of nearly 80% since 2007.

As stated in the introduction, the Mediterranean is second only to the Caribbean when considered as a cruise destination even if the near future does not seem to follow the same growth trend. Actually, a more realistic evaluation has to take into consideration the aggressive growth of other destinations especially those located in Asia.

The Mediterranean Sea counts more than 100 ports welcoming cruises. Of course accessibility, dimensions, facilities offered, proximity to touristic destinations, infrastructures, investments and local policies vary appreciably. In this analysis, it cannot be neglected how the peculiar geopolitical situation of many destinations of the Mediterranean area is affecting cruise tours. This is one of the main reasons why it would be better to consider the Mediterranean area divided into macro areas and/or different seas.

According to the most recent data of MedCruise, in 2016, the traffic in the Mediterranean Sea remained essentially stable compared to the previous year. Figures show that, in the same period, the Adriatic area represents the fastest-growing cruise market of the whole Mediterranean Sea, with the highest positive variation in terms of both passenger movements and cruise calls (**Tables 1** and **2**).

It is evident how in both tables the Adriatic area data variation is the highest and most positive between the years 2015 and 2016. This is very clear if compared to all the other Mediterranean area and Black Sea. This last and the East Mediterranean area have a very high variation but in negative terms.

As it is possible to analyse from the data shown above and considering then the last 5 years, the volume of passengers in the whole Mediterranean area has increased to the 2.4%, while the total number of calls has considerably decreased to more than the 8%. This data is easily explainable by the growing dimensions of ships; indeed, in the same range of time, the passenger movements per call have increased to 13%. As shown in **Graph 1**, the traffic in the Adriatic Sea remained essentially stable, except for a drop registered in 2015, in terms of both passenger movements and cruise calls.

The Adriatic Sea counts more than 30 cruise ports, mainly characterised by transit traffic, with a total of more than 5 million passenger movements. In this scenario, Venice plays the role of home port, being the lead destination of the whole area with the 31.7% of passenger share

Mediterranean areas	2016	2015	% Var. 2016 on 2015	2014	2013	2012	% Var. 2016 on 2012
WEST MED	20,077,773	19,641,139	2.2	17,971,531	18,857,996	18,546,398	8.3
Adriatic	**4,746,762**	**4,532,940**	**4.7**	**4,604,764**	**5,117,572**	**4,859,013**	**−2.3**
EAST MED	2,604,421	3,516,851	−25.9	3,022,838	3,583,558	3,261,300	−20.1
BLACK SEA	16,742	70,934	−76.4	162,588	187,872	146,249	−88.6
Total	27,445,698	27,761,864	−1.1	25,761,721	27,746,998	26,812,960	2.4

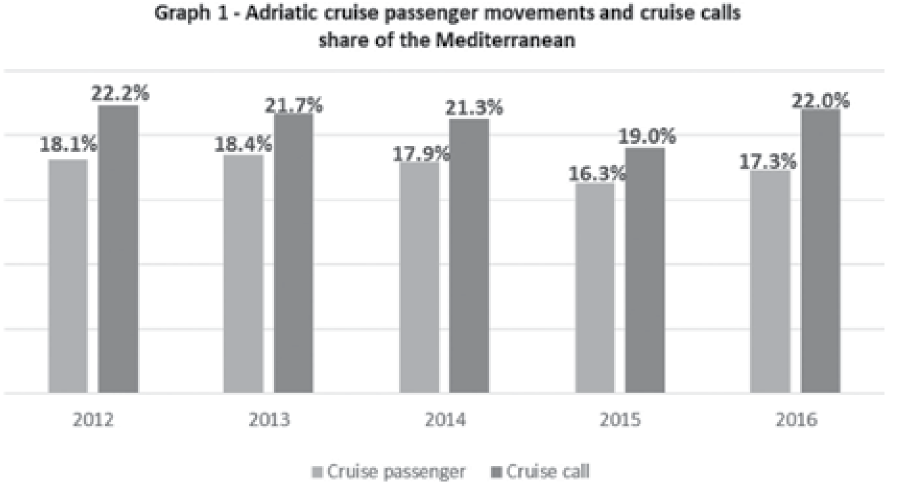
Source: MedCruise, 2017.

Table 1. Cruise passenger traffic in the 4 macro areas of the Mediterranean in MedCruise ports.

Mediterranean areas	2016	2015	% Var. 2016 on 2015	2014	2013	2012	% Var. 2016 on 2012
WEST MED	8617	8284	4.0	8327	8881	8641	−0.3
Adriatic	**2961**	**2578**	**14.9**	**2917**	**3221**	**3259**	**−9.1**
EAST MED	1861	2590	−28.1	2140	2430	2525	−26.3
BLACK SEA	28	81	−65.4	332	332	237	−88.2
Total	13,467	13,533	−0.5	13,716	14,864	14,662	−8.2

Source: MedCruise, 2017.

Table 2. Cruise calls in the 4 macro areas of the Mediterranean in MedCruise ports.



Graph 1. Adriatic cruise passenger movements and cruise calls share of the Mediterranean. Source: MedCruise, 2017.

considering the most important locally located 20 ports and 1,605,660 passengers in 2016 [22]. Following Venice, there are Dubrovnik with 833,588 passenger movements (16.5% on the total) and Corfu with 748,916 passenger movements (14.8% on the total). The last destination of the list is Igoumenitsa with 7623 passenger movements (0.2% on the total).

It is interesting to underline how in the top 20 Adriatic Sea port lists, five are Italian. They are in order of importance as follows: Venice, Bari, Trieste, Ancona and Ravenna. Indeed, Italy has the highest value in passenger movements, with 2.3 million cruisers. This value is equivalent to nearly half of passenger movements in the Adriatic and precisely to the 44.6% of it. It has to be stated that how in the last years many ports have been opened or enlarged in Italy and more are planned to be operative in the near future. This process interested mainly the region of Veneto, with 1200 new berths between the recently opened and the ones planned to be opened in 1 or 2 years in time.

The above-mentioned data show, on the one hand, how this area could be crucial to the development not only of the maritime tourism business sector but also for the whole tourism business and for satellite activities and communities in the area and Italy. On the other hand, the specificity of the area and passengers' data call for sustainable development policies. In this

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.71459

regard, Venice is easily a symbol of a dilemma. The most sought-after destination but also a very fragile ecosystem is currently undergoing traffic restrictions and requiring a progressive regulation [23].

In the last years, a need for better collective actions has grown considerably, and it is not difficult to find research studies and projects stating the need for intergovernmental cooperation at every level linked to local business associations and stakeholders. A solution to this problem could be the coordination of the Adriatic maritime tourist destinations under a conjunct policy working also on safeguarding the sea and its ports of calls. To do this, being Italy one of the main players of this scenario, one of the possible solutions could be to apply the Italian latest and peculiar aggregation model to the whole area. The model is a kind of formal network called business network contract (or *Contratto di Rete d'Impresa*). This model is very successful in Italy, and it is widely applied in the tourism business sector in the country [24]. This kind of actions would transform the area in one destination and provide more coordination among different countries, offers, branding and marketing campaigns. Moreover, the business network contract could directly be the counterpart of the European Union bodies, lobbying for more innovative development plans and environmental safeguard policies. The network could be easily perceived as a valuable partner and also as an influential one because of its territorial extension, the number of its affiliates, the variety of legal entities such as NGO, ltd, foundations and local administrative bodies and its coordination system embodied by the management body. At present, in the Italian legal system, the members of a network contract, called *Retisti*, maintain their individualities, working together as if the network was a limited company under a common name, guided by an external management body and having in common a bank fund (see [24]).

External institutions, such as the European Union, international organisations, buyers and suppliers, would then have to deal just with the common management body having all the powers to act on behalf of the members. Of course, the model of business network contract should be tailored on the issues subtended to the area and this specific way of travelling across it. However, this kind of coordinated action could also be helpful to solve the long-standing question of Venice.

4. Destination Venice

Venice is one of the most visited cities worldwide. Because of its uniqueness, Venice and its lagoon are both part of the UNESCO World Heritage List and form a very delicate ecosystem. The beautiful historical buildings are built on an ancient stilt system, already facing the everyday effect of saltiness, water, mud and frequent high-water events. Venice and its lagoon can be considered as a single entity, the centre of a productive, commercial and residential system. Preserving the lagoon environment and the cultural heritage of the city is a pivotal issue.

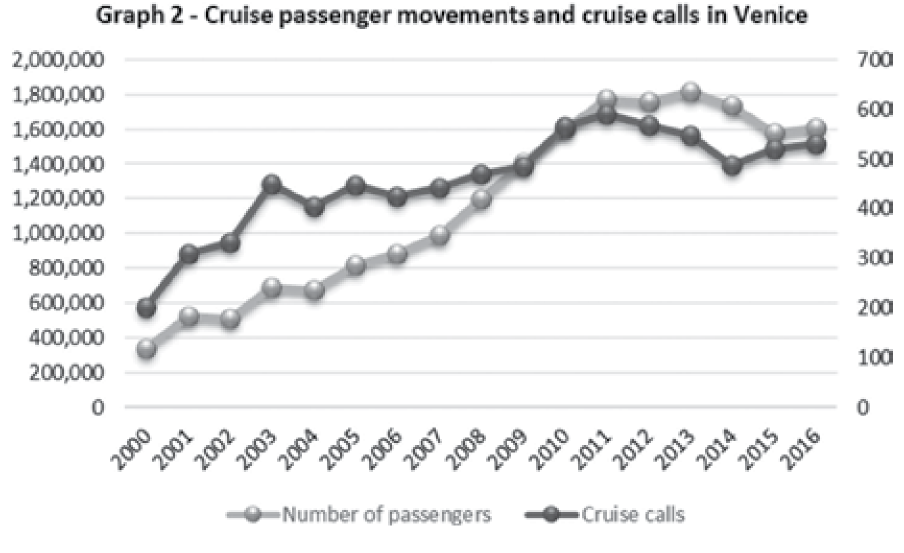
For Venice, its inhabitants and stakeholders, the question of sustainability is complex. Indeed, nowadays, its economy relies almost entirely on tourism, but tourism has to be balanced with the needs of the residents and the carrying capacity of the destination. Then, as Davis and Marvin [25] highlighted in their research, there is a clear contradiction between what appears good for Venice in the short term—revenue from tourism—and what risks are killing the city in the nearer long term—mass tourism.

Just to consider tourist arrivals recorded in 2015, data show an increase of 5%, totalling 4,495,857, over the previous year [26]. These numbers alone make sustainable tourism in Venice, as an urgent and pressing question for a city that is already in a delicate situation, built on more than 100 small islands on the lagoon and with a total area of 797,9631 hectares excluding lagoon waters (data of the Municipality of Venice). This situation becomes more critical considering the role of Venice as home port for cruising and the increasing number of cruise passenger movements. Therefore, it is clear that the number of visitors is having a dramatically negative impact on the city, which highlights the need of initiatives to promote sustainable tourism and to help visitors reduce their impact on this fragile city.

The process regarding cruises has involved the Harbour Master's Office, the Port Authority and the Venice Waters Superintendent's Office and afterwards the Prime Minister's Office, the Ministry of Transportation, the Ministry of Culture and Environment, the Minister of Education, the Governor's Office and Venice Municipalities and the surrounding communities.

The port of Venice is divided in more than one area, each one of them devoted to a specific activity and located in a different part of the lagoon. The different operative areas are (a) Porto Marghera, in the proximity of Venice, where once was the industrial district, dedicated to the commercial terminals and ferry, and (b) Marittima, located in the historical centre of Venice, dedicated to the cruise and passenger terminals.

Thanks to the cruise facilities and its strategic location, the port of Venice is considered one of the best home ports of the world. As **Graph 2** shows, the volume of cruise passengers and cruise calls has continuously increased during the last 15 years. According to the



Graph 2. Cruise passenger movements and cruise calls in Venice. Source: Venezia Terminal Passeggeri (VTP).

VTP data, from 2000 to 2016, cruise passenger traffic has risen from 337,475 to 1,605,660 passengers, with an average annual growth rate of 10.24% and an increase from 200 to 529 cruise calls.

Special legislation on maritime traffic in the city has been emanated in the last 40 years for different reasons. Law has seen the safeguarding of the port of Venice and its related activities as an important objective, because of its social and economic role [27]. Just to mention a few of those measures, the first special law for Venice is the 171/1973; it focused on the replacement of oil transportations by vessels with a more generic and less heavy commercial traffic. By the way, in 1984, the second special law for Venice was issued. This time the measure goal was to help the economic growth of the port activities. More recently, in 2007, the first Venice Blue Flag voluntary agreement was signed by local authorities and cruise companies. The agreement goal was to set less invasive standards regarding using fuel with an increasing lower level of sulphur and engine rules when in the city port. Moreover, 2013, the Blue Flag II agreement was also signed. This last agreement has a more strict environmental-friendly and sustainable focus and forces cruises to use only green fuel when near the city. Research conducted by the Local Environmental Protection Agency showed how the two Blue Flag agreements gave good outputs in the short term to balance economic and environmental aspects [28].

In the last decade, following the growth of cruise ship industry and of the dimensions of this kind of vessels, cruises have faced the hatred of local community, of national artists and intellectuals and of movements such as *No Grandi Navi* and associations such as *Italia Nostra,* (the National Association for the Safeguard of the Italian Historical, Artistic and Environmental Heritage). The question behind the opponent's choice regards not only the environmental problems linked to the pollution created by the big and many cruise ships passing into the lagoon, but also the phenomenon of mass tourism incriminated to be the main reason behind the turn of the identity of Venice into a fake amusement park, the strong depopulation of the city and the possible destruction of its fragile structure due to the unsustainable mass of people passing into the city.

At the same time, it has to be underlined how also those favourable to the role of Venice as port of calls are represented by a movement: the Cruise Venice Committee. The Committee was founded in 2012 by Venezia Terminal Passeggeri. Its chairman stated that over 3000 jobs would be in danger if the regulation about tourism cruise would change. Moreover, according to the Committee, already after a few months after its foundation, it could count on the support of more than 4500 local enterprises.

The last debate's effect resulted in a local referendum, with no legal value, on the topic. It was held on the 18th of June 2017 and was promoted by environmentalist committees and the *No Grandi Navi* association. People voting against tourism cruise in Venice were 25,000, but actually they could have been more as the promoters had only that number of ballot papers.

By the way, it has to be underlined how the debate on cruise ships in the Venetian lagoon became more vibrant after 2012 and precisely after the disaster of Costa Concordia, Isola del Giglio, Italy on 13 January of the same year.

The only significant recent legislative development of the Venetian case is the 2014 Clini-Passera Decree 79/2012. Following its provisions, the Italian government has forbidden the passing through the Venice lagoon of cruise ships having a gross tonnage over 40,000 tons. By the way, being the route followed by the cruise ships in Venice the only one possible, because of its depths and characteristics, the effectiveness of the Decree was postponed by the Order 178/2014 to the moment in which an alternative and safe route would be built, leaving in the meantime the possibility to local authorities to mitigate the risks through specific measures aimed to safeguard Venetian lagoon. The last word on the issue is left to the Maritime Authority. Actually, another route has been found even if no structural steps have been taken to make it viable.

However, the Cruise Lines International Association (CLIA) expressed in a statement how CLIA and its member lines would refrain voluntarily from bringing big cruise ships to Venice until a new navigational route becomes operational.

5. Conclusion and implications

The cruise industry is one of the most important growth sectors in the tourism market. Over the past few years, the cruise market has seen an enormous growth in passenger numbers, while an increasing number of new cruise destinations are emerging. This growth has given rise to a demand for very large cruise ships. Today's cruise ships have been designed for functionality, taking into consideration the desired target market.

Although cruise companies are making efforts to increase an environmentally safe profile of cruise product, there are many prejudices against cruise industry, because of the significant negative impacts of cruise vessels on the host environment, which is likely to increase due to the growth of the sector. Of the above-mentioned range of negative outcomes, the impact on the destination and pressure on the local culture because of inland visiting time of a large number of passengers is only one of the key factors to be considered. Consequently, cruise industry seems to be in conflict with the sustainability paradigm. Then, the images that cruise lines offer to the tourism market do not correspond to an authentically sustainable version of tourism, genuinely respectful towards the environment and natural ecosystems.

Nowadays, the concept of sustainability seems to occupy an important role in cruise industry, and environmental issues appear to be pivotal for the cruise companies. However, cruise tourism is full of controversies in relation to sustainability paradigm, as the case of Venice shows. On the one hand, it is true that controversies in tourism are both ample and widespread due to the multitude of types of tourism, tourists and stakeholders. That indicates a need to incorporate ethics into tourism [29]. On the other hand, in the case of cruise tourism, it should be noted that controversies stem from the different points of view of the various actors involved in the market—tourists, cruise companies and destinations—which identify benefits and costs of cruise industry in different ways. Therefore, the practical implications in terms of sustainability emerging from the different actors' perspectives are quite evident.

Hence, cruise passengers are interested in their tourist experience, while cruise companies exert considerable effort in constructing cruise products that are designed to meet their expectations. The cruise experience embodies a series of powerful motivators: it is often perceived to be safe, social, customer-friendly and service oriented [11]. Passengers' perceptions of quality and value lead to satisfaction, which inevitably leads to their intent to repurchase a cruise. Therefore, cruise passengers are fascinated by visiting attractive destinations, but they do not seem interested in supporting sustainability problems arising from shipping and cruise destinations. That means cruise tourists are likely to be emotionless about the negative impact that huge cruise ships cause passing into the Venetian lagoon, while they are excited for having the sensation to touch with their own hands all the historical buildings along the lagoon.

Cruise companies, from their point of view and also because of the growing popularity of this industry, attempt to increase their share of tourism market developing new destinations around the world. Beyond this background, many studies (e.g. [30]) have highlighted also environmental problems concerning a number of waste generation and discharge associated with air pollution and pressure exerted on places with a very fragile ecosystem, as in the case of Venice. This effect is also evident considering the Mediterranean area as a whole. Indeed, in this area the absence of any international coordination of the cruise industry at the regional level leaves it open to exploitation. In this regard, it has been noted that the environmental costs of the cruise industry are incalculable because the cruise ship industry is unregulated and its impacts are difficult to gauge. As mentioned before, the environmental controversy surrounding cruise activities, however, has not prevented the cruise companies from branding their products as 'sustainable' or 'eco-friendly'.

Finally, considering cruise destinations it should be noted that preserving these destinations to ensure them a sustainable future has a very high cost. Destinations play a major role in itinerary development, as they are an attraction basis for the enrichment of the cruise passengers' travel experiences. However, while there are no doubts that cruise industry can generate economic contributions to tourism destinations, it is not so sure that the benefits of attracting cruises to a tourism destination are higher than the costs. All over the world, local governments invest large amounts of money in high-quality infrastructures to attend the colossal ships and thousands of passenger arrivals. Then, it must be questioned if the various players in the cruise industry are taking proactive measures to safeguard destinations. Again, the case of Venice represents a remarkable example of the need to reduce the negative impacts of cruise tourism, having regards for environmental carrying capacity of this fragile destination. The concentration of highly numbered tourist visits in the centre of Venice, along with the passing through the Venice lagoon of cruise ships, produces damage and serious potential risk for the environment. The result is that a large part of local inhabitants show a great intolerance towards cruise activities.

In conclusion, in spite of the effort made by the cruise industry to embrace environmental good practices, it is important to improve the understanding of the link between the environment and the ecosystem characterising a destination and the cruise tourism as a whole. This is particularly crucial considering that, in general, cruise tourism is being promoted as an important sector to help the economy of many cruise destinations but at an environmental cost that seems to be hidden. In this regard, Venice is an example of a cruise destination where stakeholders, tourists and interested parties should consider the environmental impact of cruise industry in order to ensure the sustainable development of the destination. Hence, following what argued Klein [6, p. 208] 'when considering environmental responsibility, it may not be whether a company uses 'best practices' or follows international regulations, but instead the environmental impact on people of those practices. (…) Similarly, when considering economic benefits of cruise tourism the focus may not be on whether a port community realises income but rather the degree to which economic benefits are distributed equitably between the cruise line and port and among the stakeholders and segments of society in the port'.

Author details

Vincenzo Asero[1]* and Stefania Skonieczny[2]

*Address all correspondence to: vasero@unict.it

1 Department of Political and Social Sciences, University of Catania, Catania, Italy

2 Le Mude ltd, London, UK

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Chapter 7

Analysis of Online Conversations for Giving Sense to Sustainable Tourism in the Adriatic-Ionian Region

Gian Luigi Corinto and Fabio Curzi

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70371

Abstract

The role of online conversation analysis on tourism and sustainability is underrated, especially in policymaking and management of sustainability of tourist destinations. The paper reports an analysis of online conversations retrieved from Twitter during the 2016 peak season, referring to four main destinations located in the Adriatic-Ionian region. The focus is analyzing the meaning of the expression “sustainable tourism” as emerging from online texting. Findings are that private users do not talk about sustainability and features of sustainable tourism while using Twitter, enforcing the idea that sustainable tourism has popular “meaning” and “appeal” possibly different from scientific approach. Users tell exclusively on leisure features of destinations, and public bodies neglect the opportunity of using Twitter for image building and web listening. Private companies, public administrators, and policymakers should benefit from the exposed procedures for online conversation analyses in designing and organizing their respective tasks. Researchers and destination managers would be also interested in the existing divide between official documents and statements on sustainability and sustainable tourism and reality of popular perception of the issue.

Keywords: Adriatic-Ionian region, online conversations, sustainable tourism, text analysis, Blue Flag criteria

1. Introduction: problem statement, focus, and research questions

1.1. An introduction on discourse and place branding

Tourism is strongly impacted by the use of the Internet, and the Travel 2.0 phenomenon is boosting. The new opportunities the web gives tourists consist of easy accessibility to online tools dedicated to travel and leisure [1, 2]. Tourists can autonomously organize their travel, vacation, and leisure time, and also share opinions on destinations and experiences by texting online comments and reviews. These texts are "online conversations" being also a large deposit of information on both the supply and demand sides of tourism [3, 4].

The role of online conversation analysis on "tourism and sustainability" and the emerging problems regarding text analysis are today underrated, especially in policymaking and in managing destinations and their sustainability, image, and reputation.

One emerging problem is that "sustainable tourism" is contemporarily a common language expression, a practical issue, and a research topic largely studied by diverse academic disciplines. Policymakers very often privilege common sense instead of rigorous scientific analyses, so that popular superficial perception is seemingly able to condition any public choice. The risk is to have rhetorical declarations and high ethical statements before a poor practical implementation of effective sustainability policies [5].

Environment is a "common good" essential for tourism practices, and both firms and users should understand the worth of co-creating a sustainable tourism management. Growth and value creation are becoming a "company/client" shared goal also in the tourism sector, as the meaning of value and the process of value creation are increasingly shifting from a product-firm centric view to personalized consumer experiences [6, 7].

In postmodern societies, informed, networked, empowered, and active consumers are increasingly co-creating value together with firms, and rapidly changing the business environment. In this regard, information communication technologies (ICTs) can help the triangular interaction firm-consumer-policymakers in creating value and social wellbeing also using pieces of information retrievable online. Diffusion of ICTs helps the market in becoming a forum for conversations and feasible interactions between individual consumers, consumer communities, public institutions, and firms [8].

As conversations are shaped by spaces in which they are made and spaces are made by conversations, place is the result of space/society relation [9, 10], and the perceived image of the sustainability of a singular place is the result, also of online conversations, narratives, and discourses that are inevitably made by words.

Words and languages are per se metonyms and metaphors of real things, as "firstly stated by Nietzsche about language, in 1873" [11, p. 138]. Yet the distance between real and symbol is originally a linguistic issue *a là* Saussure [12] still having also a geographic nature because: "A society is a space and an architecture of concepts, forms, and laws, whose abstract reality is imposed to reality of senses, bodies, aims and desires" [11, p. 139]. Then, the discourse approach, as a system of statements constructing an object, can clearly be attributed even to places and even more to place branding. Thus, media in general, and within the focus of this paper, the ICTs are powerful means of abstraction in creating sense of place and identity, through the creation of specific media messages [13]. Further, they deal with communications and territorial marketing. Messages running on the web include necessarily the whole user-generated content, mimicking once again the nature of a conversation, and the sense of "sustainable tourism" is originated within the narratives made by suppliers and consumers of the travel and tourism industry.

All this does matter for policymakers and communities interested in designing and "governancing" a credible model of sustainable tourism. In general terms, governance is the process, institutions and ways the govern function is practiced aiming at being effective [14]. Its main features are transparency, efficacy, legality, lack of corruption, respect for rights and social participation. These features are immersed in the story, traditions, and polity of a region (locality), and economics can give some feasible analytical means to lawmakers, even not yet having a holistic approach, and necessitating of critical policy analysis before any intervention.

The positivist paradigm, intending to implement quantitative methods also in social sciences, provides little help in determining public policy, as the complete acquisition of (perfect) knowledge and information is quite impossible due to the complexity of the real world, and not simply because it is expensive [15]. This has a double compliance at different levels of significance: in theory making and in marketing practice. Firstly, complexity cannot be reduced in simple quantitative models for their distance from political reality [15]. Secondly, if the market is a conversation [16], and narratives construct objects and shared ideas, then the meaning of words (in marketing and communication) is worth only within the *social discourse*. Thus, the meaning and sense of words are strictly subjective and the narratives of places are unavoidably the storytelling of relations and values that are not the reality, but something else, being a narrative construction [17, 18].

According to scholar Anholt [19], the functional activity of place branding is the extraction of the intimate spirit, the essence of a place, through a coherent set of truths. Place branding is clearly oriented to enhance the advantage of the local community, reinforcing the place capability of tourist attraction, or the export of goods and services, and locating some productive units and company headquarters. In this line, lessons originating from philosophical work of Derrida [20] about concepts that are imagined as stable and homogenous (including the above *set of truths*) give some caveats against the factuality of concepts, because:

"As a means of challenging the operation of logocentrism, Derrida asserts the irreducible textuality of all concepts and terms. Terms and concepts donot mean anything in and of themselves. All concepts are produced within discursive networks of difference and are therefore dependent upon these networks of difference or infrastructures for their identity" [21, p. 50].

Thus, the place branding/truths relation has validity within a discourse, including the *marketing discourse* [22] and must face the fatiguing job of contrasting (or using) ambiguity of words, especially when the sentiment of socioeconomic agents matters as in online conversations analysis [23, 24].

Conversation is usually considered a sociological topic, even though economists have treated it in theory at least by the Austrian economist Friedrich von Hayek, who suggested:

"We must look at the price system as such a mechanism for communicating information if we want to understand its real function—a function, which of course, it fulfills less perfectly as prices grow more rigid" [25, p. 86].

Price changes communicate to consumers that the world is changed and they have to adapt their own behavior, being prices, as a matter of fact, social mediators and resembling language communication within the social discourse, i.e., within a conversation [26]. In this line of significance, prices and conversations are subjected to the power/knowledge relation *a là* Foucault [27], and then to asymmetry affecting relations between media companies and users. In real markets, as well as in online conversations, asymmetric power and asymmetric information produce speculations and adverse selection behavior [28].

Consequences for practices are many. Policy analysts and researchers must assist policymakers not in a technical way but in a political one, designing robust basic structure able to resist the constant shifting coming from political and social actors and lobbies, acting in the complexity of real life. Nevertheless, concepts used in formal models are useful criteria, beyond their mathematical rigor, for organizing the information found in case studies, and for evaluating policy alternatives and designing a specific governance in a specific place.

In this line, governance is worthy as an instrumental tool, because it provides the society (producers, consumers, and policymakers) with at least clear game regulations. In designing and managing practices of sustainable tourism, the ways the networks of governance do work at the local level are fundamental. Moreover, effective governance of a tourist destination can be self-improving eventually fostering participation and people commitment, and their perception of being immersed in a democratic selection of satisfying decisions. Providing a place with some tools capable of spreading information, discussion and learning, can make social negotiations effective. The functioning local governance is the central point for a serious approach to a credible sustainable tourism [29]. Thus, sustainable tourism is understandable as a procedure of regulations within the discourse of policy making and analysis, following the constructivist postmodern vision [30].

For all of this, meaning, misusing, and misunderstanding of words matter a lot in co-creating the enhancement of sustainable tourism, especially in the still "virtual" Adriatic-Ionian region and the specific area of social media.

1.2. Objective, focus, and research questions

The objective of the paper is to illustrate the results of an explorative research of online conversations as retrieved from Twitter within a geographical area. Twitter microblogging is one of the social media used in the tourist sector, even its credibility should be contextualized [31]. The paper reports findings from a case study treating four tourist destinations located in the Adriatic-Ionian region, aiming at comparing the Eastern and Western coasts. The focus of the research was to analyze the meaning of *sustainable tourism* as possibly emerging from the texts produced by social media users.

Thus, the research questions are as follows: (i) how do suppliers, customers, and public agencies use Twitter for talking about sustainable tourism within the Adriatic-Ionian region? (ii) is there a difference in doing that between the two coasts of the Adriatic Sea? (iii) are public institutions using the web for designing and promoting their policy of sustainable tourism?

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70371

2. Approaches and procedures for data achievement

The approach of the research was explorative aiming at testing the possibility to use analysis of online conversation for delineating the meaning of *sustainable tourism* emerging from web users, including policymakers, within the Adriatic-Ionian region. For this purpose, the definition of the region was borrowed from European official documents [32]. In the region, four main tourist destinations of similar tourist appeal and dimension have been chosen. Singular destinations were selected based on the criteria of past reputation, established notoriety, the level of the main tourist indicators, such as tourism intensity per residents and area [33]. Thus, Cesenatico and San Benedetto del Tronto in Italy, and Makarska and Split in Croatia have been named as the most representative places, even considering all of them are destinations awarded by the Blue Flag program.

For each of them, the mass of themed texts retrievable from Twitter was collected during the last seasonal peak period, namely from July 15th to August 31st, 2016. Text analysis [34] of tweets can help to give the meaning of *sustainable tourism* as emerging from texting of actual actors. The definition of sustainable tourism given by a reputed eco-label tool was considered a useful proxy. For this, the Blue Flag program for beaches and marinas [35], run by the Foundation for Environmental Education (FEE) has been chosen and some sketches are given here following.

The Blue Flag program was started in France in 1985 and it has been operating in Europe since 1987, and outside Europe, since 2001, when South Africa joined. Today, Blue Flag has become a truly global program with an ever-increasing number of countries participating:

"The Blue Flag program promotes sustainable development in freshwater and marine areas. It challenges local authorities and beach operators to achieve high standards in the four categories of: water quality, environmental management, environmental education, and safety" [35].

For this, the choice is properly in line with the aim to consider *sustainable tourism* within the *marketing discourse*, as put in the previous paragraph. It appears valid to consider the Blue Flag program as a credible indicator of communicated sustainable tourism, and the above four categories as benchmarks for selecting keywords to be detected.

On the side of social media, the rationale for choosing Twitter is the following. This online medium is a huge deposit of pieces of information, being a website with 313 millions of users, 1 billion of accesses per month on websites embedding tweets, having 82% of mobile users, 3860 employees, and 35 offices worldwide, while having 79% of accounts registered abroad the US, 40 languages used, and 40% of technicians on total employees [36]. Even though at the present time, Twitter is reputed in a declining phase, it still has the capability of gathering content produced on other websites, such as Instagram, Facebook, and Tumblr and allows, even with some limitations, to survey user-generated data.

In order to optimize the process of gathering data, the web-based free service IFTTT (www.ifttt.com/wtf) was used. It allows connecting different online services furnished by other web tools, by using such a conditional recipe as "If This Then That"—the acronym of the service.

Data have been downloaded in a spreadsheet stored on Google Drive adding a row whenever the designed "recipe" matched a new web-generated content. For instance, if someone did tweet the word "Cesenatico," the corresponding text was recorded, with date, hour, and user reference, in a dedicated spreadsheet. **Table 1** reports surveyed places and alternative location terms (tags) for selecting texts from Twitter. Alternative terms are related to common typing modes and languages of web users. **Table 2** reports different languages and keywords.

A geo-referenced condition was also given to IFTTT, namely if someone tweeted keywords within a 5 km radius area from the center place, the text was registered in a separated spreadsheet. Thus, data relating to a radius area from all the destinations have been collected.

Case sensitive and with and without hashtag (#) have not been used, accepting the burden of collecting fuzzy data and clearing them in the subsequent phase of analysis, aiming at not excluding any typing mode in texting.

Text analysis aimed at individuating the words displayed in **Table 2** when used in tweets and understanding the expressed sentiment. It seems important to remind that the searched terms are actually the Blue Flag criteria for defining sustainable tourism and the text mining was not robotized but manual.

Place	Alternative location terms (tags)
Cesenatico	Cesenatico
San Benedetto del Tronto	San benedetto del tronto
	Rivieradellepalme
	Sambenedetto
	Sanbeach
	Sanbenedetto
	Sanbenedettodeltronto
Makarska (Macarsca)	Makarska
	Macarsca
	Makarskariviera
	Makarskarivijera
Split (Spalato)	Split
	Spalato
	Splitriva
	Splitriviera
	Spljet
	#Split*

*The term #split was added in order to avoid confusion with the English "to split." However, a certain "white noise" remained, due to the movie of M. Night Shyamalan, *Split*, featured just on July 27th, which produced a lot of online conversations.

Table 1. Places and alternative location terms for selecting texts from Twitter.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70371

English	Italian	Croatian
Accessible	Accessibile	Dostupni
Algae vegetation	Alghe	Alge vegetacija
Bathing water	Acqua balneabile	Kupanje
Beach	Spiaggia	Plaža
Beach management committee	–	Upravljanje odbor
Beach operators	Operatori balneari	Plaža operatori
Beach user	Bagnante	Plaža Korisnik
Bicycling	Bicicletta	Biciklizam
Blue Flag	Bandiera Blu	Plava zastava
Blue Flag season	–	Plava zastava sezona
Camping	Campeggio	Kamp
Clean	Pulito	Clean
Code of conduct	Codice di condotta	Kodeks ponašanja
Dogs	Cani	Psi
Driving	Guida	Vožnja
Dumping	Scarico dei rifiuti	Odlaganje
Eco-label	Eco-label	Eko-oznaka
Eco-system	Ecosistema	Eko-sustav
Education	Educazione	Obrazovanje
Enterococci	Enterococci	Enterokoka
Environment	Ambiente	Okoliš
Environmental management	Gestione ambientale	Upravljanje okolišem
Escherichia coli	Escherichia coli	Escherichia coli
Facilities	Servizi	Ustanove
First aid	Pronto soccorso	Prva pomoć
Flag	Bandiera blu	Zastava
Freshwater	Acqua dolce	Slatkovodni
Habitats	Habitat	Staništa
Health	Salute	Zdravlje
Industrial	Industriale	Industrijska
Information	Informazione	Informacije
Lifesaving	Salvamento	Spašavanje
Local authorities	Autorità locali	Lokalne vlasti
Local eco-system	Ecosistema locale	Lokalni eko-sustav
Map	Mappa	Map

English	Italian	Croatian
Marine areas	Aree marine	Morskih područja
Oil	Petrolio	Ulje
Physically disabled	Disabile	Tjelesnih invalida
Pollution	Inquinamento	Zagađenje
Recyclable	Riciclabile	Reciklirati
Safety	Sicurezza	Sigurnost
Sea	Mare	More
Sensitive area	Area sensibile	Osjetljivom području
Sewage	Fognature	Kanalizacija
Sustainable development	Sviluppo sostenibile	Održivi razvoj
Toilet	Bagno	WC
Waste bins	Cestini della spazzatura	Košarica za otpad
Waste containers	Contenitori per la spazzatura	Spremnici za otpad
Waste-water	Acque inquinate	Otpadnih voda
Water	Acqua	voda
Water quality	Qualità dell'acqua	Kakvoće voda

Table 2. Languages and words used (keywords) for text analysis.

3. Data and results

A total mass of nearly 35,000 tweets (short texts of maximum 140 characters each) has been retrieved from the Twitter web platform during the survey period. All of them have been subjected to text analysis for individuating the use of Blue Flag program keywords.[1] Only recent data have been collected, because older data might be partial due to random deletion, and thus unfeasible. **Table 3** reports their distribution in relation to place-destination and keywords as assumed in the above **Tables 1** and **2**. **Table 4** reports data relating to tweets emitted within a 5 km radius area from the center place.

The adopted research method is qualitative. Yet, the collected data allow some descriptive quantitative analysis. Numbers show some neat pieces of evidence that are worthy of mention.

The first finding to be stressed is that the most used "keywords" found in the collected tweets are the "names" of the singular destinations. This result was expected because tourists "must" obviously cite the name of the singular place when talking about it. Anyway, this data is useful too because it can help in sorting the places along two significative ladders. The first one is the sort

[1]All recorded data are retrievable at the authors' digitalized archive.

Place	Alternative location term (tag)	Number of tweets									
		Place name	Beach	Sea	Blue Flag	Flag	Marine area	Water quality	Toilet	Ecolabel	Other[1]
Cesenatico	Cesenatico	3895	188	301	150	1	45	6	390	36	188
San Benedetto del Tronto	San benedetto del tronto	2041	112	181	6	1	30	0	42	15	95
	Rivieradellepalme[2]	100									0
	Sambenedetto	25									0
	Sanbeach[3]	11									0
	Sanbenedetto[4]	294									0
	Sanbenedettodeltronto[5]	371									0
Makarska Macarsca	Makarska	1471	142	83	12	0	8	0	25	10	40
	Macarsca	0									0
	Makarskariviera[5]	242									0
	Makarskarivijera [5]	27									0
Split Spalato	Split										0
	Spalato	470									0
	Splitriva	0									0
	Splitriviera	0									0
	Spljet	1									0
	#Split	14982	118	142	124	4	3	2	33	135	374

[1]To be compared with **Table 2**.
[2]Tag near exclusively used by tourist agencies in the Riviera Ligure.
[3]Tag for only local users.
[4]White noise related to Saint Benedict of Norcia.
[5]Promotionally used by tourist operators.

Table 3. Tweets per place and keywords.

Center place	Total	Per keywords								
	From 5 km radius area	Beach	Sea	Blue Flag	Flag	Marine area	Water quality	Toilet	Ecolabel	Other[1]
Cesenatico	3861	171	326	16	0	14	3	87	44	126
San Bendetto del Tronto	3252	98	239	33	5	11	3	40	40	84
Makarska	292	41	27	4	0	8	2	5	2	2
Split	3344	171	196	49	2	46	0	36	31	123

[1]To be compared with **Table 2.**

Table 4. Tweets emitted in a 5 km radius area from the center place per keywords.

of places per number of citations, indicating the popularity of the singular destination. The second is the sequence of environmental criteria per number of citations and per singular destination. This sorting can indicate the grade of importance attributed to each criterion. Anyway, this sorting of destinations and criteria is strictly dependent on the twittering behavior of tourists.

The most cited destination is Cesenatico, followed by San Benedetto del Tronto, then Split and Makarska. The latter is surprisingly mentioned in fewer tweets than expected notwithstanding it is a very known and reputed Croatian seaside destination. As already said, the search term “split” is affected by white noise due to contingencies, for the English meaning of the word and a homonymous movie aired in the period of the survey. Adding the #split search term, the eventual white noise was put in evidence.

Both the two Italian destinations are more cited than those situated on the Croatian coast. Furthermore, another evidence regards the sorting of the two Italian resorts. Namely, Cesenatico, located in the Emilia-Romagna, does precede San Benedetto del Tronto, situated in the Marche region. This is an expected finding because Emilia-Romagna is much more renowned than the Marche region as a seaside destination.

The quantitative analysis regarding the “environmental criteria” also gives some ex-ante expected results about the most used keywords in twittering. Within the Blue Flag criteria, the keywords “sea” and “beach” are the most used ones in all the considered languages. Nevertheless, it is worth to compare this sorting with the preceding ladders regarding the Italian and Croatian destinations. In fact, when linked to singular destinations, they put the two Italian destinations before the Croatian ones. Data say with sufficient evidence that twittering tourists talk more about the two Italian destinations than the Croatian ones.

The preceding findings derive from the analysis of tweets talking about the singular destination without considering the geographical source of emission. They can come from everywhere, and they have been gathered because they contain a reference to a selected place. As stated in the previous section about the procedure for data achieving, also a geo-referenced constraint has been adopted in order to gather the tweets coming from the close area surrounding the singular resort.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70371

Data exposed in **Table 4** show the total amount and distribution per keywords of tweets emitted from a 5 km radius area from the center place. These data cannot be compared to those in **Table 3** due to different languages used by tweeters. Anyway, they are useful because they can help in understanding if far or close twitters were talking about the four destinations. Then, a sorting using this criterion can be made.

Findings are intriguing because they show only partially a similar sorting dependent on keywords related to sustainable tourism. The two Italian resorts are together more "locally" commented than the Croatian ones. Cesenatico is in the first position, but the second is Split, followed by San Benedetto del Tronto, and Makarska. Anyway, the distance between Split and San Benedetto del Tronto is very thin. Prudently, one could say that the Italian resorts attract local tourists more than the Croatian ones.

It must be stressed that the global amount of tweets talking about the environmental issues of the four destinations are a very residual part. This is valid even for tweets emitted from the close area around each singular destination. The finding is remarkable also because no substantial differences emerged between the two coasts. This evidence is even more empowered by the fact that keywords referring directly to the eco-label Blue Flag are literally zero.

Besides the exposed quantitative analysis of data, a text analysis has been made by directly reading the texts of tweets. The main findings are described in the following.

The narrative about the selected destinations is focused on the leisure time tourists were spending during the vacation period. It is possible to state that all the texts are oriented to describe the leisure aspects of the singular destinations rather than their environment and sustainability features.

As an example of the detected typical behavior of tourists, a screenshot from a private Twitter account is reported in **Figure 1**.

Figure 1. Screenshot from Twitter. Private user.

The text says: "Yes, rather than Rio or Ipanema… Cesenatico is much better! @On the Beach in Cesenatico."

The date of the tweet is coincident with the Olympic games in Brazil. The Italian tourist is spending his vacation in Italy, and a comparison between the most famous Brazilian beach and Cesenatico could be quite daring, so the tone is ironic. Anyway, the immediate attention is oriented to leisure time, at least in a satisfactory way and in a domestic destination. No mention of any environmental issue is detectable.

Even the following tweet displays a typical way and mood of texting: "Water of the pool is green because I'm actually in Cesenatico. #Rio2016 #RioOlympics2016."

It helps illustrating the ambiguity of texting and the necessity to interpret the mood and the sense of the sentiment. The green color is usually used for labeling good environmental conditions. In this case, the tone is ironic against the quality of water in Cesenatico that shows the same color of the accidentally polluted swimming pools of Rio de Janeiro Olympic games instead of the usual blue.

Only a few other tweets talking about the water conditions have been detected. They are mainly referred to Italy using the same ironic tone for describing the bad quality of the sea or the general scarce cleaning of places.

Figure 2. Screenshot from Twitter. Public user.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70371

A fundamental finding of the research is that no public body used Twitter for supporting its own activity and reputation about tourism and sustainability. They used this web tool in a very sparse mode, often privileging a security vision.

As an example of this behavior, a screenshot from a public Twitter account is reported in **Figure 2**. The twittering body is the Municipal Police of Cesenatico and the text says: "#safebeaches #Cesenatico To buy from #abusive vendors is not convenient: don't do it! And the text in the attached picture is: Do you know why an abusive seller costs less? Because you pay his/her own taxes."

4. Discussion

The survey on twittering about "sustainable tourism" in the Adriatic-Ionian region put in light some remarkable findings notwithstanding it was explorative and actually having limitations, due to mainly have analyzed only one social media and a few destinations.

The use of Twitter as a source of credible information is confirmed as problematic [31]. It was impossible to avoid disturbances and white noise affecting terms such as "split" and "Riviera delle Palme." This latter is the alternative name both for the beaches of San Benedetto del Tronto in the Marche region and of part of the western coast of Liguria, situated in Northern Italy. Further, the term "sanbendetto," may be referred both to the place in the Marche and to Benedict, a very important and all over Italy venerated saint. Anyway, it is possible to consider both of them as capable of inducing a weak disturbance because the detected quantity was very limited. On the contrary, the search keyword "split" caused the necessity to use the "#split" (with hashtag) in order to avoid confusion with both the English word and the movie *Split* featured in 2016.

The research confirmed some preceding findings on the use of Twitter for scientific purposes [31]. Namely, information retrievable from this kind of new media to be useful should be compared with a solid knowledge of the geographical area and the specific social media topic. Considering all things, the research highlights that tourists have mainly used Twitter as a sort of stage where they can show their presence in a resort to a large audience. They were evidently interested in showing their leisure performances. It appears that the environmental characteristics of places are a tacit and obvious prerequisite for being an attractive seaside resort. Then, they do not make any narrative about them. On the contrary, when tourists perceive a bad environmental condition, they voice opinions by texting, but frequently using an ironic tone. In general, the concept of sustainability is treated in a very cursory way, being very distant from scientific approach and definitions.

In the theoretic section, a particular point was stressed discussing if policy analysts and researchers could assist policymakers extracting useful knowledge from the complexity of real life. In fact, policymakers do need to make governing choices by tempering complex scientific issues with common sense and popular perception of reality. Twitter is a web tool largely used by people for communicating their ideas. Policymakers could use it both for communicating and listening to opinions of people spread through the web. It could be properly and more usefully used even about the delicate but fundamental issue of sustainable tourism. Obviously, political institutions may have used other social media rather than Twitter, and any finding of the research should be tested in alternative contexts. Notwithstanding this limitation, the research did confirm the very substantial problem posed by Derrida [20] on textuality of ideas and concepts.

Even in the narrow analytical space of Twitter texting, a distance between "scientific," "political," and "popular" approach to the definition of sustainable tourism is confirmed.

In its reality, the perception of sustainable tourism may be plural, depending on the language and the grammar of very different discourses. There is a specific discourse for any of different circles, those of researchers, policymakers, and the common people on vacation. These latter speak about environmental problems only when occasionally must face them.

This finding should not be underrated for any future research, ever beyond the strict area of web content analysis.

In responding to the posed research questions, from the case study, it appears that users of tourist services and destinations do tweet for talking about any destination referring to some self-evident qualifications such as being the resort "on the sea" and "having a sunny beach." Detected texts are quite all oriented to narrate the leisure aspects of the singular destinations rather than their environment and sustainability. The fact that environmental features seem to be tacit and given by twittering tourists, should be considered not as a scarce attention to the environment, but in the context of a popular discourse. People are neither scientists nor policymakers but do have cogent opinions. It is important to underline that no differences emerged between the Italian and Croatian coasts.

Then, it is quite evident that public bodies use Twitter neither to promote their institutional activities nor for web listening to extract useful knowledge, notwithstanding they have social media accounts. In this condition, co-creation seems to be an item far from reality and "sustainable tourism," an expression indicating a per se evident feature, not necessitating a more committed attention. This is not a good thing because co-creation for giving sense to sustainable tourism has the necessity to use a common discourse to be capable of producing an effective behavior.

It should be lastly stressed that the main limit of the research consists in having only Twitter being used and not also Instagram or Facebook, and other social media actually used by companies, tourists, and public bodies for their different purposes.

5. Follow up and further steps

Results of the present work should be useful both for research and economic or political purposes. The realms of private companies, public administrators, and policymakers involved in tourism should benefit from easy and free procedures for analyzing online conversations for sustaining policies and interventions. Researchers and destination managers would be also interested in the existing divide between official documents and statements on sustainable tourism and the reality of popular perception of the issue.

The Adriatic-Ionian region is fit for analyzing the formation of a new socio-economic area in the Mediterranean basin and for testing the possibility to join different cultures and traditions that are too long separated. Indeed, it is a challenging area for testing the actual possibility to make international policies on naturally trans-border issues such as sustainable tourism. The poor public interventions weaken the positive use of Internet and the web tools. Public bodies of the area are far from understanding the potentiality of using the new media facilities for innovating purposes. They do not properly use them for spreading or extracting information from the web. On the contrary, they could use accessible web applications for governing, between many others, the tourism phenomenon.

The continuing diffusion of social media users suggests deepening the topic in future, even though theoretical and practical problems are paramount, specifically in the topic of the use of new media for connecting people to public institutions. Next steps in this topic will strictly necessitate the analysis of other web-based social media.

Author details

Gian Luigi Corinto* and Fabio Curzi

*Address all correspondence to: gianluigi.corinto@unimc.it

Department of Education, Cultural Heritage and Tourism, The Section of Environment and Territory, University of Macerata, Italy

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Systematic Competitiveness in Colombian Medical Tourism: An Examination

Mario Alberto De la Puente Pacheco

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70135

Abstract

This chapter analyzes the role of the central government of Colombia in the strategy for the improvement of the medical tourism industry through a critical approach of the traditional model of competitiveness. Based on a mixed method, the feasibility of the associative systemic competitiveness model and its effectiveness on the quality of medical services offered to foreign patients is determined. Under the current competitiveness model, the central government implements a series of strategies based on executive orders in an isolated way. The proposal for the implementation of systemic competitiveness model improves the perception of quality of medical services by foreign patients. In order to implement the proposed model, it recommended the expansion of free taxation zones, the proliferation of medical service clusters, and the strengthening of strategic alliances with international operators.

Keywords: systemic competitiveness, medical tourism, government role, traditional competitiveness model, health tourism

1. Introduction

The international medical tourism is the voluntary mobility of patients to foreign countries searching affordable and high-quality treatments. The growing need to meet the demand for medical procedures outside the country of origin due to local market failures has increased the international mobility, through agreements between insurance companies and the travel of particular patients who seek healthcare procedures in many cases without knowing the legal and physical risks. The travel of patients also obeys to competitive advantages that each country develops and that patients can identify. The travel to developing countries is due to the low prices and lower legal restriction of medical procedures against developed countries.

In the case of Colombia, the patients come mainly from the United States, Canada, Aruba, the Antilles, and Panama looking for procedures in cardiology, urology, orthopedics, and cosmetic surgery at lower prices than in their countries of origin. The private sector has been the main protagonist of the industry growth limiting the role of the central government to a regulator of medical services that are offered to national and foreign patients. The dynamics of the local industry has followed the model of Porter [1] in which competitiveness is an end in itself and the government has a limited role in the industry's international competitiveness. However, under the current model, the medical industry has not had enough incentives or spaces to position its offer of medical procedures abroad. The shortage of stimuli ranges from the limited tax and nontax incentive's policy for the construction of clinics of high complexity, to limited spaces for dialog between the central government and the health sector operators.

This chapter analyzes the role of the central government of Colombia in the promotion and positioning of medical tourism based on the Porter model and proposes the application of the systemic competitiveness model of associative character based on Rugman and Cruz [2] approach as an alternative view for the integral improvement of the industry. This study based on a mixed method begins with the dynamic's description of Colombian medical tourism industry. Next, the main theories of competitiveness are detailed from the traditional view of Porter to the alternative approaches of competitiveness with an associative character. Then, the role of the central government in the promotion and strengthening of the national industry through the efficiency of executive orders under the traditional competitiveness model is studied.

Also, the potential effects of the implementation of the systemic competitiveness approach in the Colombian medical tourism are analyzed through an experiment that compares the perception of quality of medical services to 200 foreign patients, of whom 100 were attended in clinics with public support of the local governments following the systemic competitiveness approach, and the other 100 were attended in clinics that do not have such support. The purpose of this experiment is to identify if a governmental support for the promotion and positioning of medical services in Colombia improves the perception of quality by foreign patients. This chapter ends by mentioning some recommendations for the national government to improve the Colombian medical tourism from a systemic competitiveness perspective that integrates more agents in the industrial dynamic. The general objective of this research is to analyze the role of the national authority in the promotion and improvement of medical services through the vision of systemic competitiveness as a more efficient form of sectorial development.

The specific objectives are to study the actions of the central government to develop the sector and determine through a statistical experiment if the application of systemic competitiveness approach improves the perception of quality of foreign patients. The hypothesis that will be verified is that the implementation of the vision of systemic competitiveness improves the industry from a more active role of the national government. The instruments for conducting this study were a survey of quality perception to 200 foreign patients who consumed medical procedures in accredited and nonaccredited clinics, executive orders of the central government of Colombia that establish the route map of the industry and consulting reports describing the international medical tourism market and the Colombian case.

This research contributes to analyze the Colombian medical tourism industry under the traditional vision of competitiveness of Porter and determine the role of the national government in the improvement of healthcare services for foreign patients through the systemic competitiveness approach based on a mixed methodology.

2. Dynamics of the Colombian medical tourism

The medical tourism industry is a still incipient sector; at the beginning of the year 2016, achieved around 100,833 patients as presented in **Table 1**. According to the Ministry of Industry and Commerce [3], patients who traveled to Colombia looking for healing procedures were approximately 10,117, while the ones who traveled for esthetic procedures and preventive medicine were 2351. However, the wellness procedures are the ones that attracted most patients with a total of 88,405 in 2016 [4].

The demand for medical services is based on the search for procedures at lower costs compared to developed countries such as the United States, which is the first patient's exporter to

Medical procedure	Quantity demanded in 2016	Country of greatest consumption	Observations
Radiotherapy	4854	United States	High level of advertising spending, high investment in infrastructure.
Reconstructive surgery of the pelvic floor	1157	United States	Low comparative costs compared to the region.
Cardiovascular surgery	3331	United States	Diversification in target markets.
Low complexity trauma treatments (sprains and dislocations)	735	United States	Greater participation of Canada and Panama than in the other procedures.
Rhinoplasty	409	Canada	Need to control unauthorized health centers.
Breast augmentation	1942	United States	Low comparative costs and high spending on official and private advertising to the United States and Canada.
Treatments for the reduction and management of overweight	88,405	United States	Optimal conditions in tourism and hotel accommodation that allows to further enhance this procedure.

Source: De la Puente [14].

Table 1. Consumption of medical procedures by foreign patients during 2016.

Colombia. According to the Productive Transformation Program [5] during 2013–2016, there was a decrease in the demand for medical services in 42.3% due to variable causes such as exchange rate volatility and the limited preparation of clinics that receive patients in the follow-up of internationally accepted protocols. Medical procedures of greatest demand are orthodontics, reconstructive surgery of the pelvic floor, cardiovascular surgery, breast augmentation, liposuction, and weight-loss programs without an invasive procedure [6]. According to the McKinsey and Company [7], noninvasive medical procedures are expected to increase the foreign demand due to multiple factors. The first is that more tourists are looking for alternative experiences and enriching their knowledge about the destination where they go.

The second is that direct investments in this category are lower compared to those of curative and preventive medicine, where infrastructure is needed for highly complex procedures with medical and technological equipment. The possibilities for an expansion in this category are much greater, since so much investment is not needed (although more publicity and marketing are needed to promote this category). Medellin, Bogota and Cali are the cities with the largest foreign patient´s reception with 75.3% **Figure 1** shows the number of consumption unites in the four categories of Colombian medical tourism during the period 2009-2014 [8].

In 2015, investments in clinical, hospital, and esthetic infrastructure increased 120% compared to 2013 [9]. The investments have been characterized by providing a high-quality service, mainly aimed to foreign patients seeking treatment and interventions (invasive or noninvasive), whether for curative, preventive, esthetic, or well-being purposes. The total investment in infrastructure in private clinics and health centers of high complexity was directed to the acquisition of specialized medical equipment and the training of human resources. Much of this investment in health infrastructure was made under the tax figure of free economic zones, which reduces fixed costs. According to the World Development Indicators [10], incentives for investment in the industry allowed a substantial increase in coverage of healthcare services in the country.

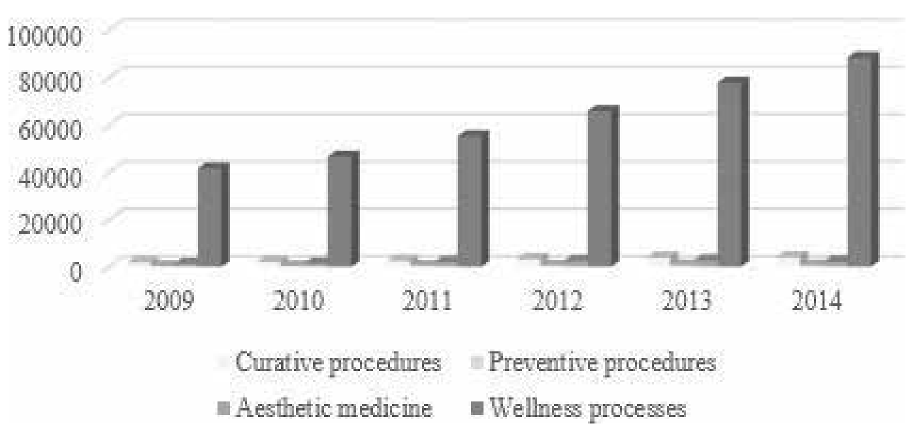

Figure 1. Number of consumption unites in the four categories of Colombian Medical Tourism during the period 2009–2014. *Source*: Ref. [31].

For the National Administrative Department of Statistics of Colombia [11], the total construction area of health centers (hospitals of high complexity) of the seven main cities of the country (Bogota, Medellin, Cali, Barranquilla, Bucaramanga, Pereira, and Armenia) grew steadily since 2005. In the last quarter of 2005, there were 119,000 m^2 under construction, while in the second quarter of 2014, were 707,000 m^2 under construction resulting in a growth of 494.1% as illustrated in **Figures 2** that shows the thousands of m^2 under construction during the period 2004-2014 and **Figures 3** which illustrates the investment in infrastructure according to the category of medical tourism in 2016. Investments in health infrastructure are expected to grow steadily but at a slower pace by 2020. This is due to the stabilization and consolidation in the health services focused mainly to patients from the United States and Panama that increasingly seek esthetic medicine and wellness services compared to curative and preventive medicine of high complexity.

The international positioning strategy of the industry includes patient loyalty (mainly foreigners and Colombians abroad, although national patients with high purchasing power are not discarded), and preference of national medical procedures that include the combination of interventions, esthetic, and wellness treatments with the possibility of knowing the tourist attractions of Colombia. The improvement of the industry goes hand in hand with international accreditations of clinics of the highest quality as a vehicle to attract foreign patients and increase strategic alliances with international medical service providers such as insurance companies, guilds of the international healthcare sector, research and development that could increase Colombian physician's recognition abroad. In that sense, there are four clinics with accreditation from the Joint Commission International [12] and the Global Healthcare Accreditation Program [13] in medical procedures of high complexity that serves as a reference for foreign patients and insurance companies to send their clients to consume medical procedures.

According to De la Puente [14], under the current model of operation of medical tourism, Colombia would increase its share in the world market from 1.4 to 5% in 2020 being the patients who seek cosmetic operations and weight reduction without intervention, the most demanded. The United States, Canada, Aruba, the Antilles, and Panama are expected to continue to be the countries with the largest number of patients. Most of them are Colombians

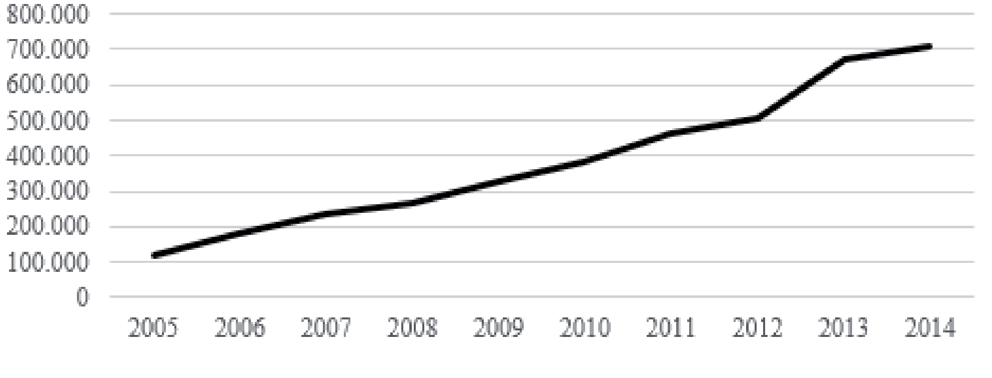

Figure 2. Thousands of M^2 under construction during the period 2004–2014. National Planning Department. Document 3678 of 2010. *Source*: Ref. [21].

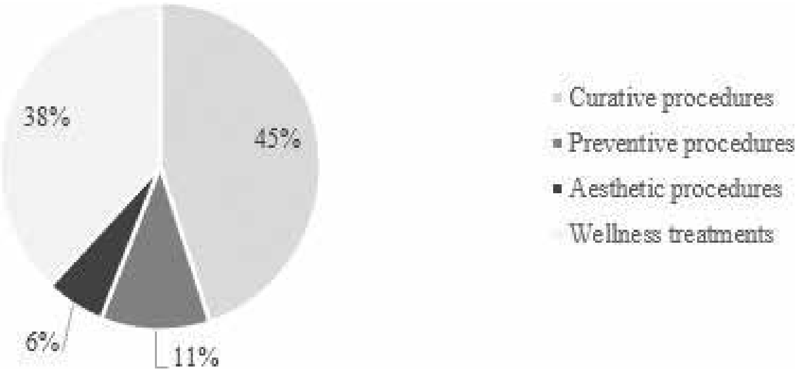

Figure 3. Investment in infrastructure according to the category of medical tourism in 2016. *Source:* Ref. [11].

living abroad, who decide to consume health services in their country of origin as a result of the high prices of procedures in the country where they live. **Table 2** shows the investment in clinics and private healthcare centers in Colombia according to the National Institute of Technical Standards and Certification in 2016.

Private medical centers	Location (City)	Investment (millions of US dollars)	Observations
Portoazul clinic	Barranquilla	1015	102 beds, 164 offices, 21 commercial locations, specialized diagnostic center.
Hearth center	Bucaramanga	104	96 enabled beds, invasive and noninvasive cardiology procedures services.
Hospital Pablo Tobon Uribe	Medellin	1135	400 beds, 100 intensive care beds, 16 operating rooms, specialty in bariatric surgery and internal medicine.
Ibanmaco Medical Center	Cali	95	196 Beds distributed in adult hospitalization, pediatrics and intensive care.
Cardiovascular Hospital	Bucaramanga	214	205 beds, 13 operating rooms, 27 intensive care beds, 14 intermediate care beds.

Source: De la Puente [14].

Table 2. Investment in clinics and private healthcare centers in Colombia according to the National Institute of Technical Standards and Certification in 2016.

3. Systemic competitiveness of associative character: A theoretical approach

It is difficult to study competitiveness as a paradigm when it is still under confusion and ambiguous about the concept, leaving a void in theoretical and practical clarity [15]. The book *The Competitive Advantage of Nations* of Porter is a first conceptual approach to the competitiveness idea as an end in itself based on the capacity of national enterprises to sustain and increase their participation in international markets with a parallel rise in the standard of living of the population. **Figure 4** shows the Porter´s Diamond Model. The definition is complemented by the diamond model that is characterized by the allocation of four elements that skyrocket the participation of industries in international markets: (1) the conditions of factors, (2) the context for the strategy and business rivalry, (3) the conditions of demand, and (4) the related industries and support. The main criticism of Porter's model is the government role as an exogenous agent that should have a limited influence in the local companies' fight for international markets share. Although the inclusion of the government element implies a better exogenous condition for companies to increase the market share, there is no analysis of how the four factors influence the government in its role as a regulator and promoter of the companies' competitiveness.

On the other hand, Rugman and Cruz [2] include the government element in the Porter's initial diamond as illustrated in **Figure 5** called the Rugman and Cruz's Diamond Model, manifesting a more participatory approach in the generation of spaces that creates greater market share to national companies based on complementary elements, as the result of increasingly competitive environments in which the technological differentiation of both processes and the use of digital media strengthen the output production, marketing, sales, and loyalty service of wholesale and retail consumers.

Jones [16] relate the concept of competitiveness to the commercial performance of companies of different legal natures, with the increase of their assets and improvements in population's welfare (quality of life, employment, and impact on the environment), vertical integration, innovation, efficient management of resources, incorporation of new technology, decentralization of production, etc., relating the three levels of competitiveness: business competitiveness, national competitiveness, and industrial competitiveness.

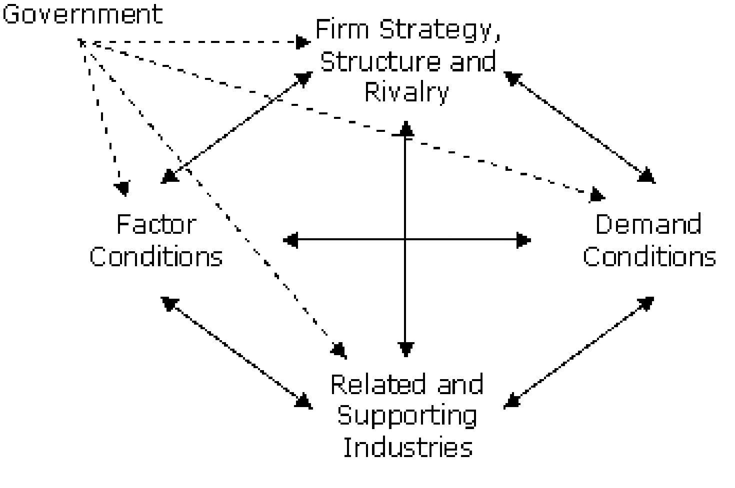

Figure 4. Porter´s diamond model *Source*: Ref. [1].

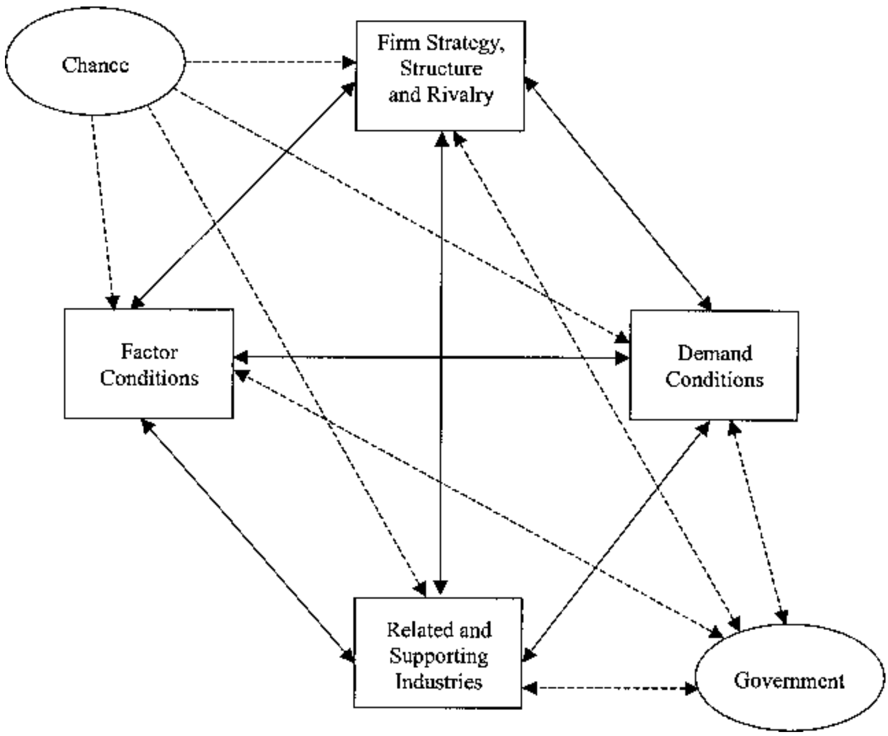

Figure 5. Rugman and D′Cruz′s diamond model *Source*: Ref. [2].

De la Puente [17] establishes that business competitiveness results from the allocation of goods and services, while national competitiveness relates to the generation of an environment conducive to industrial competitiveness. That is, the government as a regulating agent and facilitator of economies of scale moving away from the perspective of Porter and Rugman in the sense of indirect promoter of international trade.

Unlike the traditional perspective mentioned above the generic concept of competitiveness in which the government is only a regulator, facilitator, and promoter of the expansion of market niches for national companies focused on favorable macroeconomic conditions (which visualizes competitiveness as a result of the conditions of "*macro*" variables and their influence on the costs of production and factor prices), the *neolaborism* (which mentions that labor is essential for a competitive advantage, assigning investment an equal importance), and *institutionalism* (which gives importance to the role played by institutional aspects in management, innovation, and learning) are included in the systemic competitiveness approach. Systemic competitiveness is the result of a complex and dynamic interaction patterns between the government of a country, companies, intermediary institutions, and the organizational capacity of a society; this model is based in four levels: *micro, meso, macro,* and *meta.*

Systemic competitiveness is characterized by recognizing that the success of an industrial development is not only achieved by a production function at the *micro* level or as there are stable macroeconomic conditions, but also as there are government measures and policies that encourage competitiveness in companies or organizations from the combination of an environment that incentives social, judicial, political, and macroeconomic stability, including the adaptation of sociocultural elements that projects social competitiveness (target level). According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report *Developing of OECD Competitiveness Indicators Platform*, it summarized and systematized these approaches into a comprehensive vision that it is called "structural competitiveness" [18]. At the *micro* level, the expansion of the government presence in production and sale of goods and services is highlighted, based on its strategies for brand positioning, economies of scale, and consumer loyalty (if applicable).

The *meso* level relates to the limited cooperation networks of business organizations that require the participation of government and nongovernmental agents; in this way, the policies that create the *meso* level have a cross-national policy dimension. **Figure 6** illustrate the Altenburg, Hilebrand & Meyer-Stammer's systemic competitiveness model [19]. This is the case of improved access and quality of public services, increased coverage and methodological quality of the education system from various angles, universal coverage of access to a high quality of the health system, strategies for positioning goods and services abroad, promotion of domestic and foreign investment, both direct and indirect, to

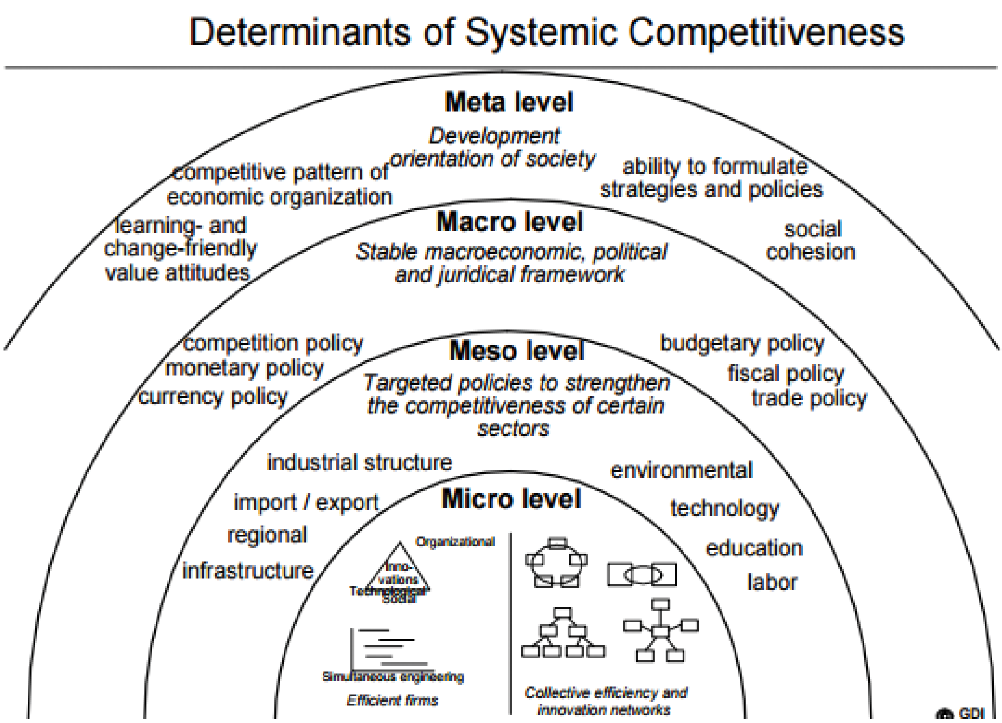

Figure 6. Altemburg, Hilebrand & Meyer-stamer's systemic competitiveness model *Source*: Ref. [19].

enhance competitive advantages. For the *macro* level to have an effect on the overall strategy of systemic competitiveness, it must ensure stable macroeconomic conditions, as well as achieving the objectives of economic growth and competitiveness.

To achieve the goal level, it is necessary to coordinate the objectives of the previous levels, taking into account the scope of a long-term welfare state (understood as the change in the concept of information sharing between competitors, state agents, civil society, consumer responsibility to determine the positive and negative impacts in business organizations, the ability to formulate sectorial strategies, policies that imply an improvement of civil society, and social cohesion through incentives, not imposition through coercion). On the other hand, it is at this level that the social structure that complements the economic structure takes shape, so that networking, horizontal coordination, and social integration must be strengthened [20].

4. Actions of the central government in medical tourism under the current model of competitiveness

The documents of the National Council for Economic and Social Policy (NCESP) which belong to the National Planning Department of Colombia seek to establish roadmaps that promote the improvement of the medical tourism industry following the traditional concept of competitiveness in which the central government is an outsider that does not involve indirectly in the improvement of the industry. One of the documents of the NCESP, which promotes greater dynamism in the Colombian medical tourism is the number 3678 of 2010 [21] called *National Policy Productive Transformation and Promotion of Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises: A Public and Private Effort* that seeks a higher level of productivity of micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises through the facilitation of both financial instruments such as capital, and access to markets that allows greater participation of its productive activity and in the generation of human resources of high quality. Another document number is the 3582 of 2009 [22] called *National Policy of Science Technology and Innovation,* which secures financial resources for the training of physicians and nurses in 1.2 million dollars for exchange programs for the learning of a second language and availability of resources for medical research in the United States or European research centers.

The specific objectives of document 3582 are as follows: (1) to foster innovation in productive systems; (2) to consolidate the institutional framework of the national system of science, technology and innovation; (3) to strengthen human resource for research and innovation; (4) to promote the social appropriation of knowledge; and (5) to focus public action in strategic areas. Another objective is to consolidate the intellectual property system by developing the guidelines formulated by the document 3533 of 2008 [23] called *Bases of a plan of action for the adaptation of the intellectual property system to competitiveness and national productivity 2010–2020*, so entrepreneurs find reward for their innovation efforts and take advantage of intellectual property to empower technology transfer processes.

However, De la Puente [14] mentions that although there are three independent strategies to improve the Colombian medical tourism through the administrative documents presented, each one is being implemented in an isolated way without each being complemented with the other two in order to generate a comprehensive strategy. This is because according to the current competitiveness model, clinics, health personnel, national insurers, and intermediaries are the only agents that must act actively to specialize the provision of medical services in order to attract foreign patients.

According to Arias and Matos [24], the current model of industrial development limits the cooperation between central government agencies for the promotion of the Colombian medical tourism due to the bureaucratic limitation that prevents an efficient location of monetary and nonmonetary resources. This affects the international presence of national clinics that have international accreditation in high-quality medical care in several procedures, despite the efforts of Colombia's trade and investment promotion agency [4]. Also, under the current competitiveness, the strategies for positioning the industry abroad are implemented in an isolated way in which the public promotion and regulating agencies do not share the same view. According to Arias et al. [25], a proof of this is the inconsistency between the strategies focused on the administrative documents presented above and the Colombian commercial policy according to the Ministry of commerce in which it is expected that oil exports increase its participation in the trade balance while other entities such as Procolombia are looking for a more diversified international commerce.

On the other hand, the measures for positioning industry do not include factors for the improvement of social cohesion, which means that other agents who are indirectly affected by the implementation of these strategies are not taken into account. According to Conell [26], medical tourism is perceived as a source of inequity in health services in which only those with monetary resources can consume high-cost medical procedures while health systems in developing countries spend more time in adapting and training to attend foreign patients.

This position is in line with Vijaya [27] in which medical tourism has proliferated the transfer of health problems, such as greater number of physicians and nurses looking for higher salaries that prefer to work in private clinics than in public systems, as well as nonaccredited medical procedures offered in developed countries increasing the international patient's risks. Both statements are happening in the Colombian industry due to the isolated way the strategies are executed. According to the Productive Transformation Program [5], the perception of the population in general about medical tourism is that it is an industry far from the interests of the citizens, which makes it less taken into account for the planning and implementation of industrial policies by the central government.

The immediate effect is the domain of private agents in the structuring of international medical offer prioritizing the application of measures that attract patients with greater monetary capacity. According to De la Hoz and Leiva [28], the negative externalities of the Colombian medical tourism coupled with a strategy application that does not include agents who are indirectly affected create a distortion of the perceived benefit of the industry with negative consequences for its national positioning. However, local governments who implemented the model of systemic competitiveness have generated spaces of promotion of the sector in local and foreign scenarios so it is not perceived as far from the general population's interests. One example is in the city of Medellin that through joint commissions that integrate the local government representatives and medical operators, have established a roadmap for the industry to grow in accordance with the global vision of the local authorities.

The establishment of direct communication vehicles between the medical tourism operators and the local government increased the tax and nontax benefits, and the adaptation of the public space for the attention of foreign patients increased the police force in areas bordering medical centers and created clusters of health that integrates the services and products most demanded by patients.

5. Efficiency in the perception of quality of the systemic competitiveness model: An experiment with foreign patients, accredited and nonaccredited clinics

According to the Medical Tourism Association [29], the quality of medical procedures is determined by multiple independent variables reflected in international accreditations of clinics that offer healthcare services to national and foreign patients. According to Mason and Wright [30], having an international accreditations increases the possibilities of strategic alliances with international medical centers, as well as improves the perception of the confidence of foreign insurers for the transfer of patients. Both elements allow a greater participation of the world market of the medical tourism and the exaltation of the competitive advantages of receiving countries. Both the administrative operations and medical procedures have independent accreditations that serve as an international reference for the mobility of patients. According to Mckinsey and Company [31], Deloitte Consulting Group [32], The Joint International Commission (JCI) [12], and the Global Health Care Accreditation Program (GHAP) [13] are the world's leading quality referrals in medical procedures that influence the transfer of patients to a country of destination. In Colombia, five medical centers have JCI and GHAP accreditations that serve 64.2% of total foreign patients who consume medical services in Colombia [14]. The clinics are: (1) Imbanaco Medical Center, (2) The Cardiology Institute, (3) Cardiovascular Clinic of Colombia, (4) Hospital Pablo Tobon Uribe, and (5) University Hospital Santa Fe de Bogota.

According to the Colombian Association of Cosmetic Surgery [33], Hotels and Tourism Association of Colombia [34], and the Colombian Society of Aesthetic and Reconstructive Plastic Surgery [35], these accreditations were achieved through cooperation between local authorities and medical centers, adjusting the model of traditional competitiveness toward systemic competitiveness based on the harmony of local government objectives and strategies of international positioning of accredited clinics.

In order to determine if the international accreditations obtained by the five clinics improve the quality of the medical procedures offered, 200 foreign patients who consumed medical procedures were surveyed, of which 100 did so in the five accredited clinics and the other 100 in five other clinics without international accreditation. The survey rates of several items in the scale from one to five of which one reflects a low perception of quality and five reflects a high perception of quality.

The rate of quality of the accreditation group and nonaccreditation group is compared through arithmetic means in order to determine whether an international accreditation improves the performance in medical care. To compare the quality perceptions, it is necessary to know the arithmetic means through a T-test for independent samples. It considers two initial tests: the normality test and a variances test. **Table 3** exposes the statistical inputs that will be used.

Before comparing variances, it is necessary to check the normality condition of the grades. Since we have a small amount of data, we use the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The results are illustrated in **Table 4**.

Since the P values for both tests are high, the decision in both cases is to consider that the scores are normally distributed with the values of the estimated parameters. To compare the variances, an F-Fisher test was used. Value of the statistic $f = 0.47$. Value of $P = 0.082$. At a significance level of 0.05, if the hypothesis of equality of variances is rejected, it is possible to consider that the variances are different. A T-test for the difference of means is used, from independent samples. Value of the statistic: $t = -1.78$. P-value = 0.083 at a significance level of 0.05. Since the calculated P-value is greater than 0.05, the hypothesis can be rejected. That is to say that there are differences between means. However, as P-value and significance level are very close, the difference is not significant. The above means that clinics with international accreditation supported by local governments through the systemic competitiveness model offer better quality in medical procedures offered than in those clinics that do not have international accreditation. That is, foreign patients perceive clinics with international accreditation as a better quality in medical care than those that do not have this instrument.

According to this statistical test, the application of the systemic competitiveness model, exogenous elements such as the adequacy of public space, generation of safe environments for patients implies a greater efficiency and perception of quality of national medical procedures.

	Non-Accredited group	**Accredited group**
Recount	23	22
Average	3.83	4.03
Standard deviation	0.3	0.44
Variance of coefficient	7.85%	10.92%
Minimum	3.1	3.4
Maximum	4.2	4.9

Table 3. Statistical inputs.

	Statistical value	P values
Non-Accredited group	0.154	0.650
Accredited group	0.206	0.307

Table 4. Normality test result.

6. Recommendations for the application of the systemic competitiveness model at national level

The implementation of the systemic competitiveness model goes through a greater synergy between the objectives of the central government and the clinics of high complexity through spaces of dialog. Given that, the proposed model is based on involving nonstate agents and that the government adopts a more active role toward the international positioning of the industry. De la Puente [14], Arias et al. [25] propose to expand the figure of clusters in health services in order to generate integral spaces of medical attention to foreign patients in which the central government contributes with the improvement of exogenous variables such as integral security, use of public spaces, and training programs for the care of foreign patients.

According to the Productive Transformation Program [5], a successful case of creating a health cluster was the private "Travel Medic" initiative that, through the collaboration of related companies (hotels, clinics, financial support from public and private banks for investment in nontraditional sectors, and medical schools) was coordinated for the creation of technical training programs [31].

The Travel Medic Association was born from the initiative of six companies from the city of Manizales belonging to the health, hotel, and tourism sector, which were united in the following objectives:

- To provide healthcare services based on physicians and nurses who speak English, high technology, and competitive prices; in addition to first-class hotel care;
- To internationalize the services for each of the founding companies as a strategy of expansion and growth in other markets.

The Productive Transformation Program [5] also recommends the expansion of free-tax zones as spaces with lower direct taxes in exchange for the settlement of clusters and clinics that are suitable for the attention of national and foreign patients accredited internationally by both JCI and GHAP.

One notorious case is the permanent free-tax zone located in the city of Barranquilla, which offers health services such as pediatric, vascular, and esthetic care for adults and newborns, cardiopulmonary rehabilitation, preventive medicine program, preanesthetic and diagnostic services, among others. Inaugurated in 2013, has 112 beds, 164 offices, and specialized diagnostic centers.

This has accelerated the consumption of healthcare services of foreign patients and increased the quality of medical procedures through international accreditations different from JCI and GHAP.

On the other hand, the healthcare cluster located in the free-tax zone in Barranquilla has an international support office for patients who want to know more about the medical procedures offered, which provides information on the requirements that the government of Colombia demand to grant a visa to consume medical procedures in the country, and facilitate the communication between the physician in the country of origin who know the health situation of the patient with the physician in Barranquilla in charge of the medical procedure.

7. Conclusion

Medical tourism in Colombia is a still incipient industry with prospects of growth in cities with greater adaptation of their clinics for the medical care of foreign patients. Under the current model of competitiveness, there are three administrative strategies that are implemented in an isolated way that although they focus on improving variables such as that the physicians and nurses speak English fluently or strengthen the strategic alliances between the national and foreign clinics so the industry has more international recognition, the role of the central government is limited and not focused on the industry needs.

Through a statistical analysis applied to patients who consumed medical procedures in accredited and nonaccredited clinics, it was found that those in which local governments act more actively to improve the quality of medical services and support the obtaining of international accreditations of health centers, have a higher quality of services offered than those that do not. In other words, the implementation of the systemic competitiveness model implies a better quality of medical procedures offered abroad.

The implementation of the proposed model is based on more than just the generation of spaces for investment in the construction of clinical infrastructure, such as a more active role of the central government so the exogenous variables that create a better quality of medical procedures such as security, adaptation of public spaces, and tax deduction incentives rise the quality of medical services offered abroad. In that sense, tax-free zones, clusters, and the combination of medical procedures with tourist activities increase the possibilities of international positioning of the Colombian medical tourism.

Acknowledgements

This research has been supported by the Department of Political Science and International Relations of Universidad del Norte (Colombia).

Author details

Mario Alberto De la Puente Pacheco

Address all correspondence to: mdelapuente@uninorte.edu.co

Universidad del Norte, Barranquilla, Colombia

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Air Transport Economic Footprint in Remote Tourist Regions

Dimitrios Dimitriou

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.71597

Abstract

Air transport development is on the top of the agenda for governments, authorities and stakeholders especially for economies heavily depending on tourism, where air transport provides connectivity to national and international markets. Therefore, air transport is recognised as a key driver towards income generation, social stability, sustainable business development and economy enlargement. This chapter deals with the estimation of footprint of air transport sector to regional development. By reviewing the economic assessment methodologies, the pros and cons are highlighted, and the input-output computational modelling framework is presented. The analysis includes numerical applications and case studies in Mediterranean region, highlighting results that could be compared with other cases or business sectors. Conventional wisdom is to present the economic footprint definition methodology to estimate the wider economic effects and key results from applications in tourist destinations, providing the framework for similar applications and highlighting key messages to decision-makers.

Keywords: air transport, economic contribution, tourist destination development

1. Introduction

The impact of air transport on the regional economy is of great importance, because it reflects to the economic profile of the region it serves and, in many cases, acts as a key driver of the socioeconomic development in regional or national scale. It is noteworthy that regions accessible to air transport services and connectivity to international markets, achieving essential economic benefits in terms of unemployment, business productivity and per capita income. Especially, for the tourism regions where the domestic income heavily depended on air transport and tourism performance, decisions on improving accessibility and the level of service are very crucial towards economic growth and social coherence.

The tourism industry of extremely competitive and fragile business environment leads tourism industry and authorities continuously encourage air transports for lower prices, more capacity and additional connectivity, promoting those as key drivers towards higher tourist demand and financial sustainability for both, transport and tourism sectors. In addition, the market tendency for growing leisure travelling, especially in holiday periods, along with the fast-changing technology and the continuing booming of e-commerce, resulting strong air transport growth and this tendency is estimated to continue in next decade, according to estimations and forecast delivered by global organization, national institutes and air transport authorities. Therefore, key counterpart of the effective regional strategic planning includes plans and decisions for investments to improve efficiency and grow capacity in air transport infrastructures. In other words, the timely and financially efficient allocation of capitals to air transport infrastructure is a key success factor on strategic planning process, affecting not just air transport and tourism sectors but also the regional economy as a whole.

However, the complexities of today's global economy and the uncertainty in investments to infrastructure projects with long payback period and high volatility in patterns such aviation and tourism, rising business and financial risks leading to high complexity in decisions, i.e., the decision for a new runway may take some decades. In addition, the large range of stakeholders that involved in the decision process is also an essential issue that must deal with. Considering the limitations of the real-world life, the decision-making key question deals with economic benefits subject to operational, financial and competition restrictions. Agencies, authorities and stakeholders need accurate estimations about the overall impacts on the regional and national economy to support investment decisions and define policies towards improvement of connectivity networks and accessibility infrastructures. Therefore, the assessment of any business scenario has to be supported by short- and long-term economic impact assessment providing clear message to decision-makers about the existing and future socioeconomic benefits in regional economy.

Key objective of this chapter is to quantify the economic impact of air transport on regions that heavily depended on outbound tourism. By a top-down analysis, the key trends of tourism and aviation market are highlighted, providing the linkage between these two industries. According to a systemic approach, the methodology concept and the modelling are presented, providing the framework for relevant case studies. Conventional wisdom is to provide an easy-to-handle tool appropriate for relevant case studies and highlight key messages to decision-makers, stakeholders and aviation authorities in their strategic decisions regarding air transport market development. The case studies presented in this chapter are related to Mediterranean region and focused on Greece, which is a very attractive summer holiday tourist destination.

2. Air transport and tourism

The relationship and the complexity between tourism and air transport have been an investigation area in many researches. As analysed in Refs. [1, 2], any changes in tourism business environment are closely linked to air transport industry fluctuations as well as socioeconomic development, and any restrictions on air transport development may lead to constrains in connectivity, accessibility and mobility. Tourism demand for air transport is strongly related with global economy, trade and population, changes and innovation [3, 4]. Air transport is a demand-driven industry where the origin-destination pairs and mode choice are defined by the cost, time and level of service variables. The population distribution, the tourism choices and the trade and consumption patterns are key factors that determine the air transport market and mobility [1]. All these factors have significant effects for the economies especially in remote tourist destinations where the highest share of their income is generated by tourism delivered by air transport.

As highlighted in Ref. [5], the key drivers of the tourism growth in a specific destination deal with the macroeconomic economic environment of the origins and the destinations, the transport cost and the regulations as well as the supply chain and performance. The passenger's decision for choosing the most suitable holiday option depends on a variety of factors such as the consumer profile, the distance of the final destination, the transport options and the price of services [6]. In Refs. [7, 8], it is claimed that the complexity of the tourist consumer's decision process and the transportation accessibility level of service are correlated to tourism market trends.

Institutions, associations, authorities and governmental bodies, widely, recognise the need for monitoring tourism demand and adopt strategies to achieve the economic benefits of tourism. According to Ref. [9], many regions draw a considerable part of their income from the tourism industry, which in turn is heavily dependent on the aviation industry. Therefore, on a national scale, the relationship between aviation and tourism needs to be investigated not only to extrapolate the demand trends but also to adopt policies, defines strategies and supports decisions towards tourism market growth.

In principal, the concept of sustainable air transport faces the challenge that decision-makers of all functions of air transport, economic and social system could consider different perspectives. These different expectations may lead to conflicts in planning and implementation of strategic plans, making authorities defend to demand growth.

The sustainability of air transport sector is based on demand variables on the one hand and supply variables on the other [10]. These variables are affected by the transport business, the economy conditions and the social values of the region, as analytically described in **Figure 1**.

Special care should be given to environmental implications that may have a range of diverse impacts on transport and tourism sector and services especially for the remote tourist destinations. These implications may vary significantly by region and depend on the local or regional circumstances and vulnerabilities, including those associated with the natural environment, as well as many socioeconomic factors [1].

The related demand variables such as the transport cost, per capita income, social security, education and health and the related supply variables as transport asset portfolio, working force capital and non-tangible capitals affect the decision-making process in order to improve the air transport sector efficiency and lead to the equilibrium between air transport sustainability and economic development.

Air transport sector demand variables and economic system supply variables interact with each other as air transport makes significant direct and indirect contributions to the economy and increases the cycle of economic activity. In addition, air transport, as an indicator of a network's concentration and its ability to move passengers from their origin to their destination,

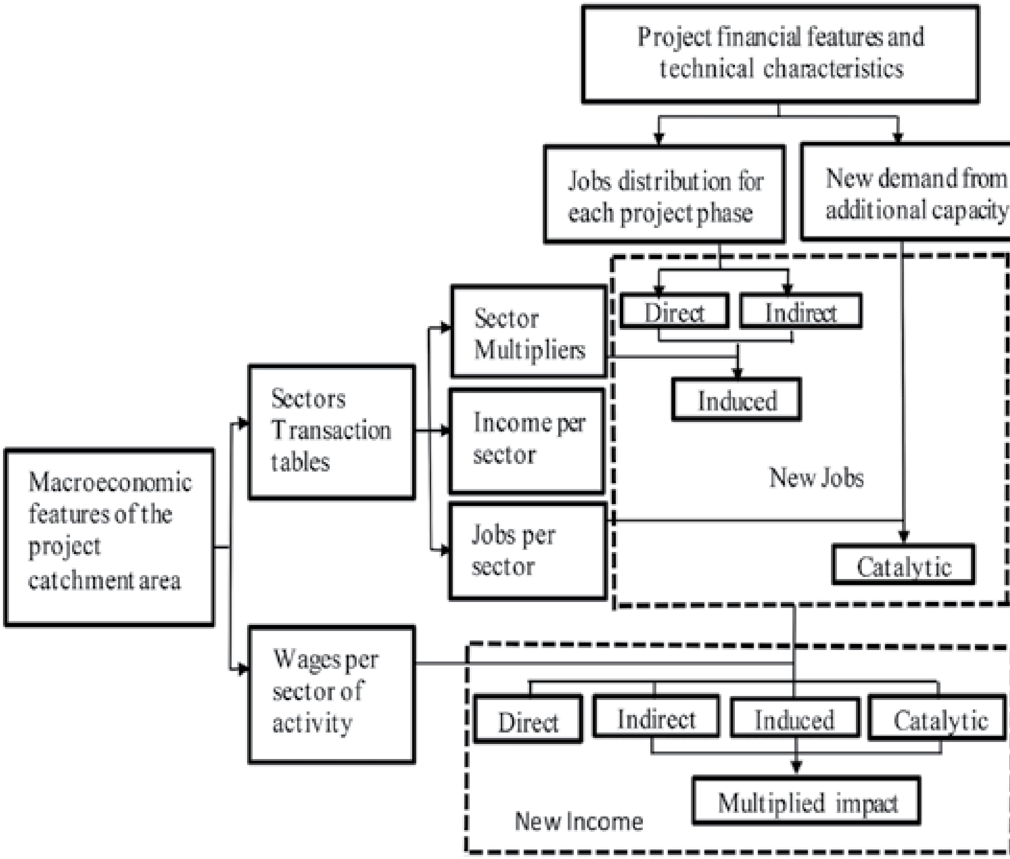

Figure 1. Demand-supply variable decision-making in air transport industry (source: [1]).

creates wider economic benefits of trade in services and goods, tourism, foreign direct investment, productivity and innovation.

3. Methodology for estimating air transport economic impact

In literature as regards the air transport interaction with economy, there are many empirical analyses and ex-post assessments that analyse the sector's socioeconomic impact with different methodologies, with no unique approach to determine the interdependence of the two industries. Ref. [11] provides a guidance to estimate the economic effects of air transport, typically relying on the following approaches: the assessment of costs and benefits and the impact analysis methods (multipliers) [11].

3.1. Cost-benefit analysis (CBA)

Cost-benefit analysis (CBA) may be a valuable tool for cases where a large number of investments in the air transport sector have to be ranked against each other and define a strategic investment plan in order to influence decision-making process [12]. CBA is an analytical method that is frequently used in ex-ante analysis and is applied to investments into the transportation sectors in order to provide evidence so decision-makers can justify their decisions [12].

In Ref. [13], the role and position of CBA in the transport planning process are presented, partly based on a survey of a number of countries where CBA plays a formalised role in decision-making and is concerned with the appraisal situation in the overall decision-making process and if CBA appraisal results actually influence decisions. Elliasson and Lundberg [12] confirmed that since decision-makers are knowledgeable in regard of CBA appraisals, they take this into account when selecting public investments early in the decision-making process.

On the other hand, there are many researches that claim that CBA does not support decision-making process in a sufficient way. Odeck [14] claimed that most of the variables determining decisions are included in CBA evaluation, but the decision-maker takes account of them in nonmonetary units rather than in a composite benefit-cost ratio or net present value. Furthermore, as in Ref. [14], it is also supported that CBA does not matter in stakeholders decision making, but its components matter in a nonmonetised form [14].

In Ref. [15], 10 large transport projects in eight countries that had benefited from EU Cohesion and ISPA funding are examined, and the not extended contribution of all the relevant economic impact analysis tools, especially such as the CBA framework and multi-criteria analysis framework, was identified. Mouter and Annema [16] noted that the debate between many economists claim the fact that CBA is an overestimated framework not so extended and not so useful in the stakeholders decision making process and this is a major problem in multiagent decision making as it results in big debates between the different stakeholders and agents about the positive and negative effects of CBA results.

3.2. Air transport regional economic impact analysis

"The air transport industry has a substantial economic impact, both through its own activities and as an enabler of other industries [17]." Economic development can be influenced by air transport sector mainly through direct, indirect and induced cycles [12]:

- Direct air transport regional economic impact represents the flow of capitals (income) into a given economic system, generated from the airport activity (employees and airport company) located in under examination region.
- Indirect regional economic impact, respectively, representing the capital (income) generated from the suppliers of the airport such as airlines and all the supply chain services for passengers and goods due to the airport operation.
- Induced regional economic impacts, respectively, deal with the capital (income) generated by all the other sectors of the regional economy which are taking the benefits of air transport sector development [11].

Besides direct, indirect and induced effects that spur economic regional development as analysed in Refs. [17–19], there is also an additional impact, the catalytic that encourages further investigation to identify aviation economic sector outputs interacted with other sectors of the economy such as tourism, trade, real estate [20].

The quantification of benefits as part of the previous analysis of the types of impact caused by air transport is calculated through economic impact analysis. Economic impact analysis traces the effects of expenditures of the air transport sector through the economy. An initial expenditure circulates through the economy and creates a chain reaction of additional expenditures [21].

Economic impact analyses usually are based on two different methods for analysing economic impact. The one is the input-output analysis (IO analysis), based on interindustry transactions and business sectors in order to quantify the response of the change in one business sector to another. Based on these data, multipliers are calculated in order to be used to estimate economic impact. An alternative methodology for conducting economic impact analyses is the Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) models. The fundamental difference is that in addition to what IO analysis does, CGE attempts to forecast the impacts due to future economic, price, economic and population changes.

3.2.1. CGE method

CGE analysis is being employed to explore the economic impacts of policy initiatives and frameworks and broader changes as environment-economy interactions, structural adjustment, technological change, labour market deregulation, financial market deregulation, taxation changes, macroeconomic reform and international capital interactions [19].

CGE methodology is based on interindustry transactions and business sectors and concept of multipliers but in addition attempts to forecast the impacts due to future economic conditions, prices, population variations [19]. CGE models can be described as a set of equations solved simultaneously to find prices at which quantity supplied equals quantity demanded (equilibrium) across all (general) markets. CGE models can broadly be distinguished according to their level of spatial detail (i.e., national, multiregional) or to time dimension (static versus dynamic) [21].

CGE models are valuable for analysing policies that affect different sectors in different ways. They can help capture the impacts of a policy on a factor (capital, labour and land), on commodity markets, on household types and on different regions. CGE models are also valuable for understanding the welfare and distributional impact of alternative policies. They are capable of capturing the indirect effects of a wide range of policy changes, and they represent a much more broad approach to estimating impacts, but the main disadvantage is that they predict consumer profiles and price fluctuation in the future with a high level of uncertainty [6].

3.2.2. IO method

IO analysis based on the concept of multipliers is an appropriate approach to evaluate how an economy may react to specific policies or external shocks or changes such an investment in a new transportation infrastructure project. Developed by Wassily Leontief in the 1930s, input-output method analyses the interdependence of industries within a given economy. Input-output analysis is based on a system of linear equations that describe the distribution of an industry's product throughout an economy [22].

More specific, IO method provides a complete picture of the flows of products and services in an economic system, illustrating the relationship between producers and consumers and the exchange of goods and services among economic sectors. In other words it illustrates all monetary market transactions between various businesses and also between businesses and final demand sectors as, for example, a new investment. Thus, they can be used to construct disaggregated multipliers in order to estimate apart from the direct impacts of a particular investment also its indirect impacts, induced impacts and catalytic impacts [23]. The conceptual framework of the IO method is depicted in **Figure 2**.

Mainly limitations of input-output analysis are lack of price effect, difficulties at the data collection or differences in defining and calculating each effect [24].

Applications of IO models have traditionally focused on the national level, but modifications to the method with specific local characteristics and regional economic development are also popular [25]. Rong and Yu Chang [26] investigated the role and influence of the transportation sector on the national economy of Taiwan using input-output analysis. In Ref. [22], an input-output inoperability model is used as a mechanism for analysing the induced effects caused by critical infrastructure dependencies and interdependencies.

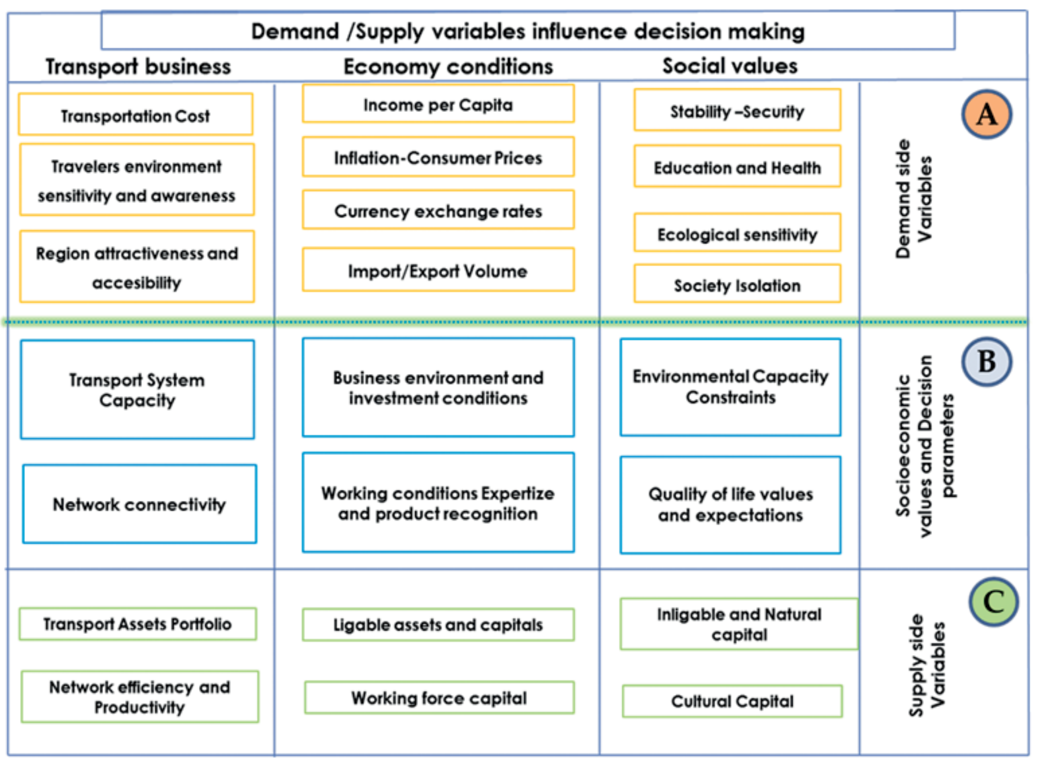

Figure 2. IO model depiction (source: [14]).

4. IO modelling framework

4.1. Key definitions and assumptions

A regional or national economic system could be depicted by a capital flow table between all the sectors of the economy that is the base IO table. This table is the sum of all the business sectors that constitute the gross national product [27]. Even though some business sectors' total capital output may be lower to the overall value added; however, for simplification reasons, it is assumed that each business sectors' total income output represents the weight of this sector to a given economic system. In Ref. [27], it is noted that this is one kind of balance of the economic system, which can be called a balance between final output values and value added [27].

Mathematically, the IO table is depicted as a matrix where the rows and columns represent different business sectors. Each cell of the matrix provides the income (production and consumption) between different business sectors for a given time window, usually, annually. Construction business sector, for instance, would create income to the fabricated metal business sector. Obviously, it is too costly to collect and store all the transaction between all economic sectors; therefore, in the most of the developed world states, it happens periodically between 3 and 5 years. For the years with no actual data, the IO table figures are given by a time series regression analysis, based on the last available actual data.

Reviewing the economic impact of air transports in a region, the analysis framework provides results for three distinguished causalities, measuring the changes caused not just to air transport business but also to the maintenance and the new investments delivered to improve air transport infrastructures. As a result, even for the same demand level, the IO analysis may provide different results over time, resulting in high variations in income generated in various business sectors, depending on the capitals spent for construction, operation and maintenance of infrastructures, according to Ref. [28].

According to Ref. [29], it is assumed that the economy can be categorised into n sectors. If the total output is denoted by x_i and by f_i of the total final demand for sector i's product, then the simple equation accounting for the way in which sector i distributes its product through sales to other sectors and to final demand is

$$X_i = z_{i1} + ..+z_{ij} + \ldots +z_{in} + f_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{ij} + f_i \tag{1}$$

In IO analysis, the fundamental assumption is that the flows of sector i to j depend on the total output of sector j. The z_{ij} terms represent interindustry sales by sector i (also known as intermediate sales) to all sectors j (including itself, when $j = i$) [29].

4.2. Technological coefficients

The fundamental step of the IO analysis is to convert the interindustry transaction table into the direct purchase coefficient table. Based on the above-mentioned assumptions of the IO table that the flows of sector i to j depend on the total output of sector j, the technical coefficient can be derived by dividing the flows between the business sector i to business sector j (z_{ij}) with a overall output of business sector j (X_j). The function that depicts the total technical coefficient table is [29].

$$c_{ij} = \frac{z_{ij}}{X_J} \tag{2}$$

where c_{ij} is the IO coefficient defined as direct input coefficient. The c_{ij} determines the flows between the business sector's output and its inputs and is defined as follows [29]:

$$z_{ij} = \frac{c_{ij}}{X_J} \tag{3}$$

IO table describes the national economy as a system that depicts the flows between m business sectors. The input output economic system equilibrium equation of this model can be written in matrix as Ref. [29] defines:

$$(I - A)^{-1} X = F \tag{4}$$

where I is the $m \times m$ matrix, X is the nonnegative vector of the total output of the business sectors, F is the nonnegative vector of the final demand, A is the $n \times n$ nonnegative matrix of technological coefficients or the input-output matrix and m is the number of business sectors in which $(I–A)^{-1}$ is the multiplier or Leontief inverse matrix [29].

The matrix $(I–A)^{-1}$ is the inverse of $(I–A)$ and is defined as the Leontief matrix. The solution of Eq. (4) has a meaning if and only if $(I–A)$ is a non-singular M-matrix. Indeed, the theory of M-matrices implies that a nonnegative solution x exists corresponding to each nonnegative m.

4.3. Modelling regionalisation

The approach of a regional IO modelling framework tries to adapt the national input-output tables with the use of location quotients derived from differences of regional and national employment and production patterns. A simple location quotient for each regional economic sector can be defined as:

$$SLQ_i^r = \frac{Qi^r}{T^r} \frac{\frac{Qi^r}{T^r}}{\frac{Qi^N}{T^N}} \tag{5}$$

where Qi^r is the total output of business sector i in region r, Qi^N is the total output of business sector i in nation N, T^r is the sum of all business sectors in region r and T^N is the sum of all business sectors in nation N.

The SLQ depicts the region's capability in producing the output of a business sector. Referring to Eq. (5), an SLQ of less than 1.0 means that the output of regional business sector i represents a small proportion of the total gross output. Thus, if SLQ_i is less than 1.0, the region imports some of the output of the sector *i* from elsewhere in the nation *N* as in Ref. [30] is analysed. Similarly, if SLQi is greater than 1, the region exports some of the output of its sector to the rest of the nation *N*.

5. Numerical examples: case studies

The case studies provided in this section are referred to the economic impact footprint analysis of air transport sector in Greece, highlighting the overall economic impact in national economy, setting estimations for the development of a new airport and providing comparisons with other tourist regions in Mediterranean. The analysis framework is based on IO modelling as given above.

5.1. Economic footprint of air transport in Greece

Greece attracts a high number of tourists because of the warm weather, the excellent climate, the 16,000 km of coast along the Mediterranean, the spatial allocation of Greek islands in Mediterranean (Aegean Sea) and the high number of archaeological and cultural places. Tourism in Greek economy production model has achieved a satisfactory performance, as according to Ref. [31], in 2012, Greece was in the 17th position as regards the number of international tourist arrivals and 23rd as regards international tourism receipts. Moreover, according to Ref. [9] in 2013, Greece was ranked in the 32nd position between 140 countries as the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index 2013 analysed, while Greece ranked in the 96th position in the Global Competitiveness Index 2013. This proves that tourism is one of the most competitive sectors of the Greek economy at a global scale. Since tourism destinations are a long distance from the tourist home residences (highest share in Germany, France, Holland, the UK), air transport becomes the most important transportation mode, and aviation industry fulfils the task for over 70% of the international tourist arrivals (ITA) in Greece [9].

In terms of air transport traffic, 38 million passengers arrived and departed from Greek airports in 2013 [32]. The five largest airports are Athens, Heraklion, Thessaloniki, Rhodes and Chania, which handle almost 28 million passengers in 2013. It is noteworthy that for Heraklion, Rhodes and Chania, almost 90% of the passengers are leisure travellers during the summer and almost 65% of the traffic in Athens and Thessaloniki accommodated during the summer season [32]. Applying the IO analysis framework, it appears that the total contribution of air transport sector to the national GDP amounted to 10.8% (**Figure 3**).

In conclusion, air transport sector in 2013 direct, indirect and induced contributed to 3.8% to the country's GDP, whereas its catalytic contribution was estimated at 7% confirming the large interaction between air transport and national economy [33].

5.2. Economic footprint of a new tourist airport

The decision-making process to invest in a new airport is complicated, mainly, due to the planning process restrictions, the amount of capital investment needs and the many stakeholders

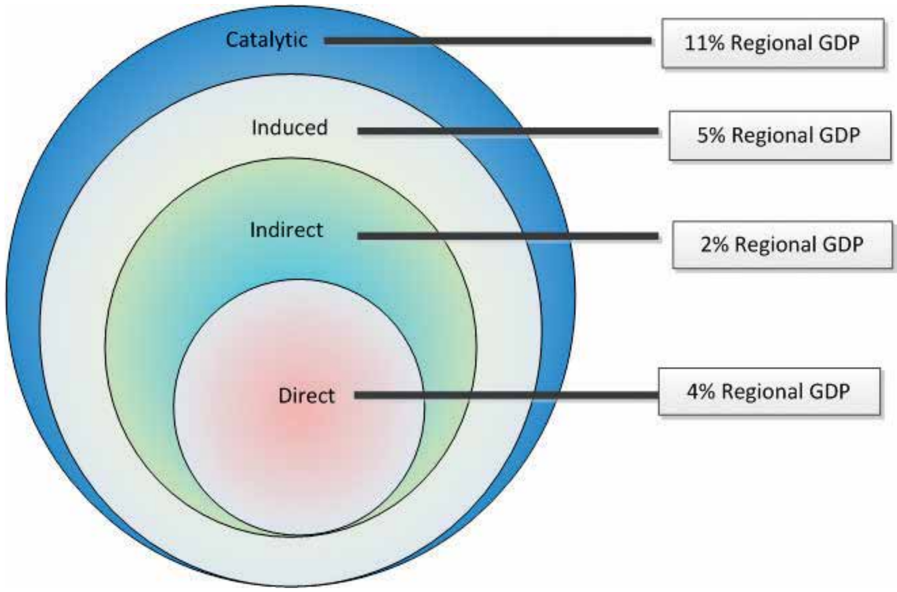

Figure 3. Contribution of air transport to the national GDP (Greece, year 2013) (source: [33]).

involved in decision process. Especially in tourist seasonal airports, where the new airport development is strongly related to the regional competitiveness and medium-long-time sustainable development, the decision may take very long time.

This case study focuses on the establishment of a new regional airport with high seasonal traffic nature, like airports located in tourist destinations. The new airport is based on the island of Crete (approx. 30 kms for the centre of Heraklion city at Kasteli valley), which is one of the most attractive tourist destinations in south-east Mediterranean.

The construction cost of the new airport is estimated at € 800 million comprised mainly of the construction of runways, terminal, roads, parking lots and control tower. The construction period is 5 years. The project financing and management scheme will follow the public-private partnerships (PPP). The new airport will be developed on a design-build-finance-operate-and-transfer (DBFOT) basis for a period of 35 years.

Applying the IO modelling is estimated that approximately the 4% of GDP in the island of Crete is generated directly due to the existing Heraklion airport. The circulation of direct and indirect impacts through the regional economy contributes additionally 7% to the GDP [25]. Finally, it is estimated that 11% of the regional GDP is created due to catalytic impact (**Figure 4**).

The construction of the new airport will create an additional 10% contribution to the regional GDP during the construction period through the direct employees, the indirect referring to the suppliers of the construction works and the induced employees, thus recycling to the regional economy due to direct and indirect impact. Furthermore, the operation of the new airport will create an additional 8% contribution to the regional GDP during the first 5 years of operation period through the catalytic impact.

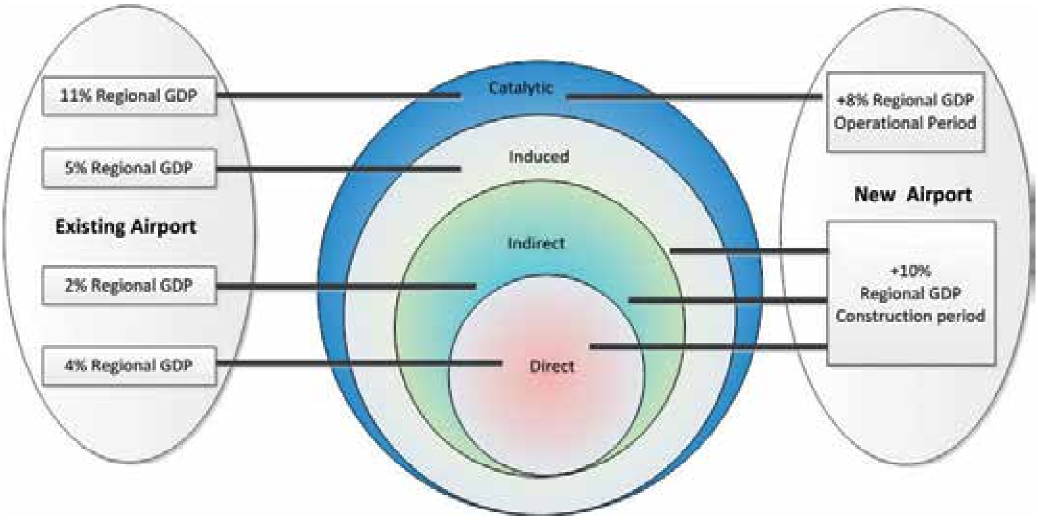

Figure 4. Contribution of existing and new airport to regional GDP (2010 prices) (source: [21]).

The results provide the evidence that the development of a new airport will spur economic growth by generating additional income through the construction period and through the operation through increased tourism demand.

5.3. Economic footprint in Mediterranean tourist destinations

The Mediterranean region is one of the most attractive tourism destinations in the world, accounting for approximately one third of the world ITA (423.7 million ITA in 2013) according to Ref. [31]. For decades, the Mediterranean destinations have provided, along with other

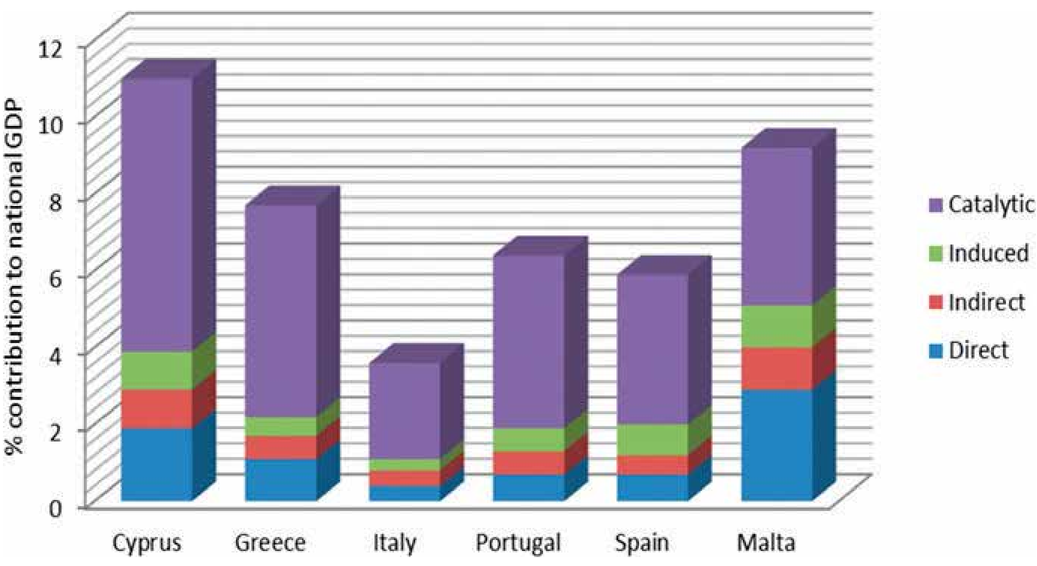

Figure 5. % Contribution of airports in North Mediterranean countries to GDP (2013) (source: [34]).

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attractions, the traditional sun, sand and sea product, essentially for the North European markets. Spain, Portugal, Greece, Cyprus, Malta and Italy are the leaders in attracting tourists in the region of North Mediterranean. Tourism in these countries is one of the major sources of national income [31].

According to Ref. [34], for 2013, the contribution of the airports for six main Mediterranean countries to the national GDP ranges from 3.5% of to 11% (**Figure 5**).

Especially for destinations with high percentage of air transport ITAs like the islands of Cyprus and Malta, the contribution of air transport to national GDP extends to 11 and 9.2%, respectively. It is also highlighted that Greece due to the dispersion of tourist destinations, the intense seasonality and a large number of airports, has the highest share of airport contribution to the national GDP (7.6%) in comparison with other Mediterranean countries [34].

6. Conclusions

Tourism industry performance is determined from the demand it generates for products and services and plays significant role in the regional development of tourist destinations, contributing to income growth and sustainable socioeconomic development. Due to the high interaction of air transport and tourism industry, the air transport sector is considered to be extremely a crucial driver of socioeconomic development for these tourist destinations.

The competitive environment and globalisation of tourism and air transport business sectors result in the essential manner that strategic and business planning settles regional targets in order to achieve higher outputs. A key success factor is to define a clear, compact and coherent strategy appropriate to support decisions based on the commercialisation of the necessary improvements in tourism and air transport industry. Therefore, the quantification of the economic effects caused by air transport sector is an essential task to support decision and policies.

Key benefit of this chapter is that it presents the methodological framework to quantify the wider economic outputs of air transport in tourist destinations, appropriate for planners, managers and decision-makers to apply in relevant cases. The case studies' findings improve understanding of the close interactions of air transport and economy and which are the determinants that affect the contribution of air transport economic development of tourist destinations and especially remote tourist destinations. The application results provide a strong evidence of the existence of this long run cointegrating relationship among economic development and air transport sector.

Author details

Dimitrios Dimitriou

Address all correspondence to: ddimitri@econ.duth.gr

Department of Economics, Democritus University of Thrace, Greece

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Chapter 10

A Comprehensive Review of the Quality Approach in Tourism

Diana Foris, Maria Popescu and Tiberiu Foris

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70494

Abstract

This study summarizes the evolution of the quality approach in tourism. Environmental issues are also addressed, as there are strong interdependencies between these two areas. Especially in tourism, the quality-environment integration is essential. The study reveals the diversity of quality and environmental models currently used worldwide, including general models for quality assessment and management, applied in all areas, and also the tourism-specific models. The objectives of this synthesis are to achieve a systematization of the information on the quality and environment approach in tourism, and to highlight the main axes of changes. The conclusions formulated illustrate the future directions to improve the quality approach in tourism, concerning both the quality models and their implementation. The results of this comprehensive review are useful to the tourism coordination structures at national and regional level, and also to academics and researchers, to better understanding the trends in quality approach and optimizing their quality-related actions. The workpaper is based on the reports of World Tourism Organization and other tourism professional structures, as well as studies and researches published in specialized journals related to quality and environment approach in tourism.

Keywords: quality in tourism, quality management, environmental management, integrated quality management, quality general and specific models

1. Introduction

The purpose of this section is to clarify what meanings have the concepts of quality, quality management, and quality of the tourism product.

1.1. The meanings of quality and quality management

Quality is a common term used in everyday speech, but with various meanings. The term "quality" defines "an essential, or distinctive characteristic, property, or attribute; character with respect to fineness, or grade of excellence; superiority; excellence" [1].

In the modern industry, the first practical approach to quality was in a technical perspective, product related. But the quality thinking has evolved over time. The modern quality approach, specific to the last decades, is customer related: the quality is evaluated based on the customer requirements, and it means "fitness for use" [2, 3]. In this case, the term quality does not have the popular meaning of "best" in any absolute sense, it means best for certain target groups of customers; if a product or service meets expectations, then the quality has been achieved.

Taking into account customer orientation, Kosar and Kosar consider that "quality is a market category that encompasses the totality of creation and realization of tangible products and services, on the level to which their properties ensure the compliance with the requirements of demand" [4]. But the quality approach is more than marketing related: it covers the entire organization and includes all processes on which the client satisfaction depends. This holistic approach to quality in the organization context is generically called "Quality Management." Quality management presumes an approach of quality within the entire organization, given that satisfying customers and other stakeholders' requirements represent the mission of the whole system. As Juran highlights, quality is no longer a technical issue. It is a business issue and corresponds with the organization's mission to satisfy the stakeholders needs and expectations [5]. Achieving quality in organization is a matter of management; as Feigenbaum (1983) says "quality is a way of manage."

Implementation of quality management within the organization involves the development of processes, structures, methods, etc., by which there are systematically achieved planning, doing, controlling, and quality improvement. This succession summarizes the cycle of management activities in a modern approach [3]. Quality management integrates some basic principles: customer focus, leadership, engagement of people, improvement, process approach, evidence-based decision making, and relationship management, which are the defining elements of modern management [6].

A wider perspective on quality, which takes into account not only the requirements of customers but also of other interested parties, is synthesized in the expressions "Total Quality," or "Total Quality Management," extensively used in specialized studies and also in practice [2, 3]. TQM (abbreviation of Total Quality Management) defines a management philosophy characterized by integrating quality across the organization in order to satisfy customer and other stakeholders' requirements. The "total" attribute associated with quality term suggests the broad meaning assigned to quality, both in terms of coverage and objectives. Total quality refers to all areas of activity of the organization; it pursues the full satisfaction of the beneficiaries, through performances, deadlines, and prices, while obtaining economic advantages; it also presumes broad involvement in quality achievement of all staff [3].

The introduction of the expressions "quality management" and TQM date back to the 1990s and synthesizes an evolved level of quality approach from the perspective of management.

It has developed with the major contribution of several specialists, the best known being Deming, Juran, Feigenbaum, Crosby, and Ishikawa [7, 8]. This evolution process culminated in the emergence of the international standards for quality systems—the family of ISO 9000 standards (in 1987, the first edition), which favored the promotion of quality management principles and methods in all activity areas. The application of these standards in tourism is discussed in Section 2.1.

1.2. Particularities of the quality in tourism

Assessing the quality of tourism services involves clarifying the concept of tourism product and to identify its defining features.

Simply put, tourism products can be defined as products that satisfy the needs of tourists. The first important characteristic of the tourism product is its complexity: the tourism product is a composite one, consisting of several goods and services offered to satisfy the tourists needs. It generally includes accommodation, transportation, and dining, as well as attractions and entertainment. Consequently, measuring quality of the tourism product must consider a lot of product distinguished features.

Furthermore, a tourism product is often related to a tourist destination. According to Webster's Dictionary, destination means "a place set for the end of a journey." In tourism, the term destination generally refers to an area where tourism is a relatively important activity, generating significant revenues. World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defines the "tourist destination" concept, as: "A physical space with or without administrative and/or analytical boundaries, in which a visitor can spend an overnight. It is the cluster (co-location) of products and services, and of activities and experiences along the tourism value chain, and a basic unit of analysis of tourism. A destination incorporates various stakeholders and can network to form larger destinations" [9]. In terms of size, a tourist destination can be a city, village, or resort but also may include many cities, regions and even an entire country.

Whether it is an organization or a tourist destination, in both cases defining and evaluating quality of the tourism product are difficult issues. They require consideration of a collection of services, as transport, room accommodation, some specific menu, and the opportunity to sit on a beach or to make trips, and also other tangible and intangible elements related to the natural environment, culture and heritage of the region, atmosphere and hospitality. All these elements are parts of the tourism product, which is therefore "not only a collection of tangible products and intangible services, but also psychological experiences" [10].

Within the tourism literature, it is widely accepted that tourism primary sells a "stage" experience, and accordingly, the managers of the tourism businesses may seek to influence the tourists' experience [11]. O'Dell points out that experiences involve more than the tourists, "the tourism industry is also part of the generation, staging, and consumption of experiences" [12]. According to Neuhofer et al., "the creation of successful experiences is the essence of the tourism and hospitality industry" [13]. In this regard, the OECD report on tourism trend and policies stresses that "Policies at national, regional and local level increasingly focus in identifying, nurturing and investing in product development experiences that emphasize unique selling points for particular destinations" [14].

One can conclude that a tourism product is a complex amalgam, including tangible products, intangible services, and psychological experiences. The main mission of any tourism organization or destination is providing memorable experiences for their customer, resulting in customer satisfaction, superior value, and competitive advantage. These aspects must be considered when addressing quality in tourism, which is performed under specific forms in all organizations and coordination structures of the tourism sector.

2. Review of the quality approach in tourism

Focusing on quality has become one of the key success factors for the tourism service providers and tourism industry in general. Current quality approach in tourism is the result of growing various consumers' needs, in the context of highly increasing competition, market globalization, and development of modern technology.

The quality approach in tourism is a dynamic process that has evolved over time with the development of the tourism sector. A comprehensive review of this evolution is presented below. The analysis includes quality and environment models used in the tourism industry, as follows: (1) general models for quality evaluation and certification; (2) specific models for classification of the tourism organizations and quality certification; (3) quality approach in tourist destinations; and (4) environmental models and marks. A brief synthesis of the quality approach in tourism, stages, and trends is presented at the end.

2.1. General models for quality evaluation and certification

The movement for quality in tourism is older (as will be seen in Section 2.2), but the quality approach in tourism organizations gained increased relevance in the last two decades of the twentieth century, in connection with the appearance of the SERVQUAL model for evaluation of service quality and international standards for quality systems (ISO 9000 series). Both are general models applied worldwide and in all activity fields, including tourism.

SERVQUAL is the best known model for assessing service quality, created by Parasuraman et al. [15]. There have been a large number of studies based on SERVQUAL models—initial version or other, conducted in various fields of services, including the tourism industry. Some publications present considerations and reviews of the studies on the evaluation of tourism services quality conducted during the last decades, e.g., [16–18]. There are also many case studies based on SERVQUAL model conducted in various types of tourism organizations, such as hotel [19–21], restaurant [22], airline tourism [23], sport tourism [24], tour operator [25], etc.

The analysis of these studies reveals the differences of the services' quality characteristics examined under the SERVQUAL dimensions, depending on the nature of tourism organizations and services: hotels, restaurants, transportation agencies, spa, casino, etc. Most of the case studies used modified versions of the SERVQUAL dimensions scale, considering that the versions proposed by Parasuraman et al. are not entirely valid for all tourism sectors. But despite these differences relating to quality characteristics of the tourism services, the majority of the researchers consider that using SERVQUAL models in tourism has important implications for marketing and management decision makers, one of the major benefits being the identification of areas to improve quality of services.

In our opinion, this type of study, based on SERVQUAL model, is generally the subject of scientific papers and cannot be systematically used by organizations to assess the quality of services. A more practical approach is the implementation within tourism organizations of quality management system (QMS) based on the international standard ISO 9001. ISO 9001—"Quality Management Systems—Requirements" is the most popular standard for management systems, applied worldwide in all fields. It is useful to any organization, regardless of its size, activities carried out or type of product [26].

According to ISO 9000, QMS is "a set of interrelated or interacting elements that organizations use it to formulate quality policies and quality objectives and to establish the processes that are needed to ensure that policies are followed and objectives are achieved" [6]. ISO 9001 processes refer to planning the product and service quality, establishing work rules to prevent nonconformities, controlling quality of products and processes, and reducing identified noncompliances by corrective actions. Regularly performing this cycle of activities ensures that the organization can repeatedly achieve and deliver products with certain features. It should be emphasized that, although ISO 9001 makes no reference to the economic performances, QMS requires systematic improvement actions aiming to prevent and reduce losses, and these actions implicitly determine the costs' reduction. In a hotel, for example, nonquality includes problems such as slow service, incorrect room temperature, billing errors, inappropriate service of the waiters, etc. It is important for these issues to be known, and that measures are taken to eliminate them. Besides these systematic improvement actions (named "incremental" improvement or "step by step"), the companies must also be constantly concerned with the introduction of new customer experiences, something they have not done before. The extension and efficiency of improvement actions is an important criterion for characterizing the QMS performance.

There is no official statistics on the status of ISO 9001 implementation in the tourism industry, only the results of the analyses carried out in various geographic areas (countries or regions), based on empirical research. These studies identify two categories or currents of opinion: the first highlights the importance and positive effects of the implementation of ISO 9001 model in tourism, and the other is a critical one.

So, several empirical studies conducted in the last decades reveal the growing interest of the tourism organizations in implementing and certifying QMSs based on ISO 9001 model, and the benefits obtained. Examples below are illustrative, and they refer to hotels from Spain [27] and Croatia [28], medical centers in Spain [29], travel agencies in China and Hong Kong [30]. In Croatia, in 2012, 40 travel agencies of the Association of Croatian Travel Agencies (UHPA), as well as the UHPA's office, have implemented QMSs based on ISO 9001, through a project supported by the Ministry of Tourism. In Spain, Alvarez' survey on 223 selected hotels from Basque Country Business Guide illustrates that the most of them (72%) have quality certification, but the most popular was "Caledad Turistica," the Spanish Trademark for the tourism sector [27].

On the other hand, the analyses carried out highlight the relatively low number of the tourism organizations ISO 9001 certified, and the causes that explain this situation. The survey conducted at Egyptian travel agencies, in 2008, shows that 84% of the respondents have not applied a formal Quality Management program; only 4% had already implemented a formal quality system, the other 12% of them being in the stage of preparation [31]. A similar situation, consisting in a small number of tourism organizations ISO 9001 certified, is presented in other studies, referring to Croatia [28], Portugal [32], and Romania [33]. It is notable that a small number of big tourism companies do have quality systems ISO 9001 certified as can be seen from the information published on their websites and on other promotional materials.

There are also critical studies on ISO 9001 implementation in tourism related to the efficiency of QMSs. As the literature consistently shows, the implementation of the ISO 9001 standard in tourism can be very different from one organization to another, considering the motives, tools, and results [34–36]. The researchers consider that the efficient functioning of the QMS must be reflected in improved performance, expressed by the evolution of the number of customers, the number of new customers, the losing effect of certain customers, etc., with customer satisfaction being crucial to achieve the objectives related to financial performance of the organization. However, an empirical study carried out with guests of the Spanish and Italian hotels shows that quality-certified hotels did not receive a significantly better statistical evaluation from their customers [36]. Frequently, customers are not aware of what the QMSs consistent with ISO 9001 are. The study's authors underline the potential dangers in inferring directly that quality certification in the hospitality industry leads to superior customer satisfaction.

Generally, the causes of low effectiveness of QMSs based on ISO 9001 model do not differ in tourism compared to other activity areas, the most important being: formal application of the standard requirements, with accent on the QMS documentation; focusing on technical issues, without taking into account social aspects; lack of the staff training in the field of quality; and low commitment of the staff in achieving quality, especially of the senior management [37]. Zajarskas and Ruževi consider that "implementation or improvement of management system is primarily strategic management of change," most problems being at the level of strategic management [38]. In many cases, the certification ISO 9001 is intended to improve the corporate image rather than internal practices and organization effectiveness. According to Dick et al., managers should consider that internal drivers are the key to quality certification success. Consequently, top management should be involved to produce a robust quality system, which incorporates the utilization of quality improvement tools and generates greater internal benefits and customer satisfaction [35]. According to Kachniewska, one of the causes of QMS inefficiency is the superficial knowledge of the standard, which encourages the belief that ISO 9001 is irrelevant to the tourism sector [39]. This probably explains why the tourism industry searches for a new internationally recognized quality standard that would be more applicable for the tourism sector. The results of this work are presented in Sections 2.2.2 and 2.3.

Besides ISO 9001, the opening toward the application of more complex models aiming to achieve excellence is also notable. Broadly speaking, "excellence" means "greatness—the very best." Currently, the term is commonly used in the economic and administrative environments, in relationship with the modern vision of management: achieving excellence involves the creation of a performing management system that ensures customer satisfaction and benefits for all members of the organization and for society [3]. According to Mann et al., "business excellence is about achieving excellence in everything that an organization does (including leadership, strategy, customer focus, information management, people, and processes), and most importantly achieving superior business results" [40]. All these elements are found in the TQM philosophy.

The most popular models of excellence are "Malcolm Baldrige" and "European Foundation for Quality Management" (EFQM) [2, 3]. In Europe, some hotels have conducted evaluation processes based on the EFQM model, EFQM Recognised for Excellence being the proof of high-quality business approach, ability to innovate and commitment to deliver excellent services. The following examples are illustrative: Lake Hotel Killarney, Crowne Plaza Hotel Dundalk, Pembroke Hotel Kilkenny, Skylon Hotel, in Dublin, Ireland (EFQM Excellence Awards, Dublin, 2015). In the Caribbean, 13 businesses in the tourism accommodation sector, representing hotels, beach resorts, villas etc., were hospitality assured (HA) certified. HA certificate meets the EFQM criteria and symbolizes the business excellence in tourism and hospitality, being supported by the British Hospitality Association and the Caribbean Tourism Organization. There are also a small number of applications on achieving excellence in tourism organizations carried out in research studies [41, 42]. Of note are the initiatives for developing standards and awarding the excellence in tourism (an issue addressed in Section 2.2.2).

2.2. Specific models for classification of tourism organizations, and quality certification

Quality certification and evaluation of the tourism organizations have a long history and include more schemes and models presented below.

2.2.1. Classification systems of tourism organizations

The term classification, also called grading, rating, and star rating [43], refers to breaking down and ranking accommodation units into categories. The European Standardization Committee defines the expression "accommodation rating," or "classification scheme," as "a system providing an assessment of the quality standards and provision of facility and/or service of tourist accommodation, typically within five categories, often indicated by one to five symbols" [44].

The general purpose of hotel classification is the creation of a ranking based on specific criteria, and the assignment of a symbol that certifies the services' level. The classification creates conditions for the determination of different tariffs corresponding to the hotel or restaurant ranking and provides useful information to make potential guests aware of what they can expect before making a booking. The classification also serves as a reference for the implementation of institutional and public policies to support tourism passing to another level of quality.

The beginnings of the tourism entities' classification are placed in the last century and are connected to "AAA Diamond Ratings System" and "Forbes Travel Guide" in USA and "Michelin

Guides" in Europe. But presently, there are wide and diverse classification schemes of tourism establishments. There are several workpapers on this topic, which reveal the extent and diversity of the existing schemes worldwide [39, 45–49]. As these studies show, between the classification systems, there are differences related to the following aspects: number of categories and name or symbols associated; classification criteria; classification character, obligatory or voluntary; frequency of evaluation. It must be stressed that in the EU, and worldwide, not only are the classification systems different from country to country, but there is also diversity in the level of comfort related to the grading and classification criteria. A single tourist destination often employs multiple classification schemes. It is therefore difficult to understand and compare the quality of tourism services, and especially to consumers, it is difficult to appreciate the significance of the various rating schemes not to mention their reliability.

Although the diversity of classification schemes has disadvantages, UNWTO specifies that it is unlikely to reach a single official classification, given the great diversity of contexts in which tourism organizations operate. In this regard, Taleb Rifai, Secretary-General of UNWTO, says: "There is no worldwide standard for official hotel classification systems, and there may will never be one, due to the incredible diversity of the environmental, socio-cultural, economic, and political contexts in which they are embedded" [43]. The same conclusion results from the analysis made in the EU setting up that one European hotel classification scheme may be considered an unfeasible demarche [50].

There are, however, concerns for harmonizing the classification schemes from tourism by introducing common rules. In this regard, we must mention the recent UNWTO recommendations for revising the hotel classification systems such as certification performed by independent third parties; integration of guests' reviews into hotel classification schemes; global focus on sustainability and accessibility to be reflected in the classification criteria. Likewise, updating the certification criteria to general trends and considering data collected from the guests is recommended [43].

To mention is the improvement of the classification systems in favor of extending and integrating new criteria, with emphasis on quality and sustainability. The result of this dynamic process is the creation of combined schemes that include criteria for classification of the tourism establishments and also for quality certification. The European Hospitality Quality (EHQ) model launched in 2009 by HOTREC (abbreviation for Hotels, Restaurants and Cafés) should be mentioned. EHQ classification is based on a criteria catalog, some of these criteria being compatible with the main clauses of ISO 9001 standard, adapted to the particularities of tourism [51]. There are also other classification systems in connection to quality marks and labels used in tourism industry. Scotland, Iceland, and Australia are among the countries that include the quality element in their hotels' classification [43].

Another improvement axis consists of the global focus on sustainability reflected in the classification criteria. The Hensen study finds that "recently updated hotel classification systems reflect different viewpoints on whether and how to incorporate environmental management practices" [52]. The author identifies three situations: environmental standards are included as a requirement for a certain star rating; classification systems recognize external environmental certification next to their ratings; external environmental certification is required as minimum standards in the rating scheme. As Hensen concludes, it is still open to question whether environmental management practices should be integrated into classification schemes or remain complementary approaches.

Integrating guests' reviews into hotel classification systems is another important current change, favored by the evolution of online networks and review sites. Online guests' reviews related to facilities and services' quality of tourism organizations or destinations are instruments increasingly used today, along with the official classification and certification of hotels, restaurants, and other tourist establishments. Certain social media websites are becoming more popular and are likely to evolve into primary travel information sources [53–55]. The most important travel sites include TripAdvisor, Expedia, Hotels.com, and Travelocity etc., but their number continues to rise. These platforms represent systems that analyze the information on websites and social networks in order to find the overall consumers' rating for a particular establishment. The information thus obtained has multiple uses: it is helpful for customers in choosing the location for travel; it provides data on the service quality used to enhance the overall performance of the tourism organizations and sector; and the online guests' reviews are useful in the process of rating and/or awarding quality marks in tourism [54, 56].

Regarding the use of online guests' reviews in the classification of tourist establishments, recent studies highlight the need to harmonize the conventional rating systems and social media platforms [52, 54, 57]. As Hensen says, one can talk about a democratization of the rating process that "will lead to an innovation revolution whereby hotels seek to respond quicker to consumer trends as they have a direct feedback loop to their position in the market" [57]. The UNWTO report [54] shows that several countries are moving toward integrated models, distinguishing the next two variants: independent functioning of the two models and respectively their full integration. In the first case, online evaluations are done separately, and their results are included in the organization promoting documents. The second variant, of full integration, is a model in which the overall guests' review ranking is included as criterion within the official classification scheme. According to the UNWTO report, Norway and Switzerland each have documented models for integrating online guests' reviews and hotel classifications, and United Arab Emirates, Germany, and Australia are also involved in developing integrated systems. In both cases, the integration could effectively help to further reduce the gap between guests' experiences and expectations.

2.2.2. Tourism specific models for quality awards: marks, labels, and quality certification

Tourism quality marks are marks used for tourism products and organizations that attest the fulfillment of some quality standards. According to Foris, "Quality mark is a model of good practices for implementing and certifying the quality of tourism services, as a voluntary option of the economic operators in the field" [47]. Quality marks are awarded to those tourism establishments that apply good quality management practices and provide improved service quality standards and facilities, over the legal requirements of their specific official classification.

Awarding quality mark is usually complementary to the star ranking. The main differences between classification schemes and quality mark programs in tourism are synthesized and summarized by Foris [47]. The author underlines that quality certification in tourism can become an effective management tool, designed to develop the level of services' quality. Improving quality does not mean moving to a superior level in the star ranking system but increasing customers' satisfaction and ensuring that they receive the best services corresponding to the category of the tourism unit.

Using quality marks is an advantage for the provider of the tourism services: the quality mark and the associated label distinguish it from other similar units and may be used for promotion, marketing, and other customer targeting purposes. Awarding quality marks helps to improve the organization image and increases the customer confidence in the company's ability to consistently provide services to certain standards and adequate prices. From customer perspective, it means added value, in terms of improved facilities and service quality at their chosen establishment. As Handszuh (2004) says, "going by quality parameters and standards and subjecting tourism establishments to certification can be considered a new force driving the tourism sector into a higher level of excellence" [39].

It must be stressed that using quality marks is not a new approach in tourism. Both Forbes Travel Guide and Michelin Award have served as quality certification marks for several decades. A specific model also exists in a luxury category, "The Leading Hotels of the World" (LHW) being considered one of the most significant quality awards that meets the most exacting standards with reference to all aspects affecting guests' comfort: accommodations, cuisine and other services, facilities, and employees' behavior [58]. Other classification systems can also include quality criteria whose fulfillment is completed by quality certificates. For instance, in England, the Gold, Silver, and Breakfast Awards complement star and rosette ratings based on the AA classification scheme [59].

At present, there are wide ranges of quality marks and labels used in tourism worldwide, which have or does not have a direct link with any classification system [47, 48]. They were launched by professional associations or governmental agencies and are different in terms of reputation, criteria, and certification procedure. It is noteworthy that in the last two decades, many programs have been initiated to implement national quality brands in tourism, e.g., "Caledad Turistica" in Spain (2000), "Qualité Tourisme™" in France (2005), "Cyprus Tourism Quality" in Cyprus (2014), Quality Label for Swiss Tourism in Switzerland (1997), "Qualmark®" in New Zealand, T-QUAL Accreditation in Australia, etc. Through these actions, governments aim to achieve national competitive advantages by supporting the implementation of quality systems within tourism organizations.

The movement for simplifying and coordinating national tourism certification is most visible in the EU countries. The European Directive 2006/123/CE and the requirements of the European Parliament Report (2007) call on the European hospitality industry "to pursue its work in relation to the setting up of a European umbrella for quality management systems," "to promote labeling processes regarding tourist accommodation undertaken in the different Member States, and to promote quality models that have proven effective elsewhere (for example the 'Qualmark' in New Zealand) in order to improve visibility" [60]. In response to these directives, the European Parliament's Commission started preparatory work of the European Tourism Quality Label implementation, whose basic principles for the new label were set in 2012. There is also the possibility of extending the label to cover more than purely quality criteria, like environmental criteria, or broader criteria covering corporate social responsibility and sustainability. These actions are circumscribed to the long-term strategy launched by the European Travel Commission in February 2014, "Destination Europe 2020," which includes a set of marketing, branding, and promotion actions for Europe as a tourist destination.

2.3. Quality approach in tourist destinations

ISO 9001 and other general and specific models for quality assessment and management have been adopted in many manufacturing and service organizations, at the company level. But in tourism, this managing quality manner is not sufficient, the alternative being the extensive approach of quality at tourist destination level. This situation is explained by the fact that the quality of tourism services not only relies on internal resources and services offered by tourism providers but also depends on the features of external environment in which tourism organizations operate. In this regard, Kachniewska says that, "In the short term, the existing quality systems of individual tourism companies may increase their competitiveness. However, in the long term, lack of the ability to satisfy the needs of their customers may result in a gradual decrease in the sales of tourism products offered by these companies" [39]. Additional factors, such as quality of destination facilities and infrastructure, public transport, hospitality, security, sanitary conditions, etc., also influence the satisfaction of tourists. To be simultaneously successful in all these different areas, a global approach at the tourist destinations level is necessary.

Focusing on tourist destinations is one of the current trends within the evolution of quality management in tourism. UNWTO, through its Technical Committee on Tourism and Competitiveness (CTC), has drafted a technical/operational definition of the quality of a tourist destination: "The result of a process which implies the satisfaction of all tourism products and services needs, requirements, and expectations of the consumer at an acceptable price, in conformity with mutually accepted contractual conditions and the implicit underlying factors such as safety and security, hygiene, accessibility, communication, infrastructure, and public amenities and services. It also involves aspects of ethics, transparency and respect toward the human, natural, and cultural environment" [61]. As one can see from this definition, the quality of the tourist destination is more than customer-centered, it envisages all stakeholders: tourists, organizations that provide tourism services, the local community, and also, natural, cultural, and social environment.

In accordance with this perspective, in 2003, the European Commission launched a specific model for quality management in tourist destinations, namely integrated quality management (IQM), in order to support sustainability and quality-oriented approach in an integrated manner. Integration, in this case, has two dimensions. First of all, different from the traditional approach of integrated management systems (see Section 2.4), IQM is not organization focused: this model refers to various tourism organizations from a tourist destination and other tourism-related aspects, such as infrastructure, environmental protection, cultural heritage protection. Second, IQM aims to satisfy the needs of all interested parties: tourists/visitors, tourism service providers, local population, and community. According to Vajčnerová, IQM of tourist destination is a demarche which takes into account improving visitors' satisfaction, and it does so while seeking to improve the performances of tourism service providers, the quality of the local population life, as well the environment quality [62].

IQM implementation is a complex issue that requires developing mechanisms, structures, processes, and instruments for quality systematic management at the tourist destination level. In this regard, the determinant role lies within the management structures of the tourist destinations, known as Destination Management Organizations (DMOs). The whole demarche within IQM system is based on the logic of continuous improvement principle and supposes planning, realizing, monitoring, and improving quality as a cyclical ongoing process.

The effective functioning of IQM is not possible without a set of planning and controlling tools of the quality, including relevant indicators. For this purpose, some evaluation tools were created by the European Commission, namely QUALITEST and ETIS, aiming to help European tourist destinations become more competitive [63]. The main goals of these models are setting targets at destination level; measuring their progress over time, and by comparison with best practices (benchmarking); and assisting the public investment decisions on tourism development and management.

QUALITEST was launched in 2003 and includes an indicators system which is associated to four key objectives that IQM aims to satisfy: high level of tourism satisfaction; high level of the local tourism industry performance; higher quality of local people's lives; higher environmental quality. Applying QUALITEST is based on surveys, all criteria being represented within a specific questionnaire addressed to each group of interest, tourism companies, and tourists [64]. Applications based on QUALITEST are not numerous [62, 65, 66] and highlight the difficulties in implementing this model. For this reason, probably, another model has been developed.

ETIS (acronym from "European Tourism Indicator System for Sustainable tourist destinations") is the second European toolkit especially designed to help DMOs in the process of managing and monitoring the sustainable development of tourist destinations. It is a complete management system of a destination based on a set of sustainability indicators [67]. ETIS was launched by the European Commission in 2013 and revised in 2015–2016. In each of these phases, ETIS implementation was based on a great number of pilot studies (over 100 destinations) in order to demonstrate that ETIS implementation is feasible, both logistically and financially. Some information on these applications is published on the EC website (http://ec.europa.eu).

In the context of the ETIS implementation, a core issue is designing a decision support system (DSS) for tourist destinations management, based on Business Intelligence tools. This is a task of the DMOs, together with the selection of an appropriate set of indicators, "able to provide the most solid foundation for the decision making" [63]. According to Iunius et al., a small number of studies treat this subject, some of them being theoretical articles and fewer practical approaches [68]. The article's authors state that most of the DSS-based projects implemented in European tourist destinations are not functional. They also suggest that an innovative DSS can be developed based on "Qualité Tourisme" certification/labeling system adopted at European level. The study refers to DIMAST Project (Destination Intelligent Management for Sustainable Tourism), aiming the development of an innovative process to implement the European Tourism Indicators System for Sustainable Destinations (ETIS). Its final goal is to create an innovative information system to support decision-making of GDSS type (functional model) that should directly and actively support the participatory management of sustainable tourism development and is capable of achieving long-term competitiveness within the destination Braşov county.

In addition to the European toolkits presented above, there is a new global tool called global sustainable tourism review (GSTR), managed by a non-profit organization named "Green Destinations." GSTR was introduced in 2014 by a number of sustainable destination networks [69] in order to measure, monitor, and improve the sustainability profile of tourist destinations. GSTR is based on UNWTO destination criteria (GSTC-D, see Section 2.4.2) that is fully integrated with ETIS but is more complex. There is also an evaluation support tool, the Green Destinations platform, a database developed for contains data of more than 1000 destinations.

2.4. Environmental models and marks

As the previous section shows, sustainability is integral part of modern quality approach at the tourist destinations level, taking into account the connection of quality with sustainable development and of tourism with the environment in general, this section presents the general and specific models for environmental management at the tourism organizations level.

Organizations around the world, including those of the tourism industry, are becoming increasingly aware of the need for environmental management and sustainability. The term "sustainability" is in relation with the collocation "sustainable development" (SD) that was introduced in 1987 and defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" [70].

In the traditional approach of sustainability, three dimensions are taken into account: the ecological, social, and economical. From the environment point of view, sustainability means minimizing any damage to the environment (flora, fauna, water, soils, energy use, contamination, etc.), while trying to value the environment in a positive way, through protection and conservation. Social aspects include concern for activities that do not harm and revitalize the social structure or culture of the community where it is located. And from economic perspective, sustainability means assuring business continuity to the benefit of the owners, employees, and local community [45].

Sustainable tourism organizations support the environmental conservation, social development, and local economies. But applying the sustainability principles in organizations and the environmental protection, in particular, are not easy. In fact, it is a complex problem in any industry and organization, which requires systematic actions of planning, controlling, and continuous improvement. A starting point in this approach could be the implementation of environmental management systems based on ISO 14001 model, or specific environmental models in tourism, presented below.

2.4.1. Environmental management systems, ISO 14001 and EMAS

The ISO 14000 series of environmental management standards appeared in 1996 (the first edition) and are intended to assist organizations manage the environmental effect of their activity. The ISO 14001 standard gives the generic requirements for an environmental management system (EMS) and promotes useful tools for managing environmental impact of the organization activity. EMS is based on process approach, the system' processes including establishing the organization's environmental policy, planning the EMS and implementing it, checking for corrective actions, and management review [71]. The organizations compliant with this standard are able to avoid risks and costly mistakes by incorporating environmental controls into daily operations.

ISO 14001 is designed to reduce environmental damage and industrial waste, and it applies to all businesses. Tourism is one of the domains where the environmental issues occupy a key position. In the hotel industry, especially, there are various initiatives for the environmental preservation, given that hotels have a significant environmental impact, and therefore, their contributions and responsibilities toward the environment should not be ignored. The hotel industry uses large amounts of energy resources for functions such as transportation, cleaning and laundering, food services etc., and it also releases waste in different forms. Accordingly, environmental dimensions of hotels include water, energy, wastes, purchasing, emissions, indoor air quality, and noise [72]. Considering these aspects, the implementation of environmental management practices is essential for all hotel operations, resulting in a greater sustainable development of the hotel industry. In this regard, Peiró-Signes et al. say that "sustainability is actually one of the main opportunities for the hospitality industry" [73]. As Vaz points out, within the tourism domain, "sustainability seems to be the backbone which supports and allows the reconciliation of the different interests of tourism suppliers, tourists, and local communities" [74]. All these actors must take into account the economic, environmental, and social aspects of products and production systems and to carry out sustainable practices within their daily activity.

As more and more tourism organizations, and especially hotels, are interested in implementing environmentally friendly practices, many are looking to ISO 14001 certification to help them achieve their goals. There are several studies that reflect the growing interest of tourism organizations and destinations for implementation and certification of EMSs based on the ISO 14001 model. Some of these workpapers illustrate the results of the EMSs implementation, based on case studies [75–78]. The effects are measured by reducing energy consumption, raw materials, and maintenance costs, with all these savings resulting in additional profit. Some researchers specify that the EMSs implementation can bring benefits to a company not only regarding the economic results, but also in terms of improving the company's image [79], and clients' perception related to hotel comfort and quality [73]. Chan and Hsu review and synthesize 149 hospitality-related studies published in the last two decades. In conclusion of this analysis, they found the increasing of the EMS maturity, the evolution of the environment approach in organizations from the basic issues, related to environmental policies and practices, to the environmental indicators and benchmarking [80].

However, ISO 14001 certification has a small share in the tourism industry. Based on the survey conducted in 36 hotels from different parts of New Zealand, Ustad points out the existence of several models for environmental certification. This analysis shows that a small number of surveyed hotels (6%) are ISO 14001 certified, the majority of the hotels having environmental systems based on Qualmark Green and Green Globe 21 models. The analysis also shows that there are hotels with more than one certification: 44% of the hotels surveyed hold only one certification, 31% of the hotels have two types of certifications, and a further 8% of hotels have three environmental certifications [72]. Matysek and Krivoken make a similar observation on certification patterns used in the Australian tourism industry, where the certification based on specific environmental models was preferred to the EMS certification in compliance with ISO 14001 [81]. These specific tourism patterns will be presented in Section 2.4.2.

Another general model, "Eco-Management, and Audit Scheme" (EMAS), exists in Europe. EMAS, which predates the ISO 14000 standards, is a voluntary regulation that was created to promote improved environmental performance among the EU companies. According to the European Committee for Standardization, compliance with ISO 14001 satisfies most of EMAS' requirements, but the European regulation takes into account additional elements to support organizations that continuously improve their environmental performance [82].

In the tourism field, in 2013, about 300 hotels, camping grounds, nature reserves, and other leisure and accommodation facilities in Europe were using EMAS to improve their environmental performance. Among them are such prestigious names as the Ritz Carlton and Scandic hotels in Berlin, and educational tours operator Studiosus [82]. Recently, a guideline was elaborated, aiming to promote EMAS and the EU ecolabel in the tourism sector in line with the objectives of the European Commission framework, starting from successful initiatives already implemented. More details on the EU ecolabels are presented in Section 2.4.2.

2.4.2. Specific environmental models, and marks in tourism

As several studies show [45, 79, 83], the environmental management in hotels started in the USA in the form of initiatives by various associations and activities which begun in 1993, when the Prince of Wales launched the International Hotels Environment Initiative (IHEI). But the environmental certification of tourism services began in Europe, with the Blue Flag Campaign for beaches in Denmark, in 1987, and the "Silberdistel" label for lodgings and restaurants in Austria, in 1988. According to Bien, in the decade between the Earth Summit (1992) and the International Year of Ecotourism (2002), more than 60 environmental tourism programs were developed, and their number continued to grow [45]. In connection with these programs is the usage of environmental labels, which are symbols—pictures or logos indicating that a product has been manufactured and operates in consideration of the environment. In other words, labeling gives information about the environmental impacts associated with the production or use of a product.

Currently, there are many different environmental certification systems and corresponding awards and ecolabels. A synthesis of the best known certification programs for sustainable tourism launched in the middle of 1990s is presented by Hensens [52] and includes global application models, e.g., Green Globe (1993), Green Key (1994), Leaders in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED, 2000), and regional application models, e.g., Green Key Global—applied in USA and Canada, Green Leaf Eco Standards—in South Africa etc. The main environmental programs are also presented by Goldstein and Primlani, which differentiate the next three categories: Environmental Certification Programs Specific to Hospitality, Green Building Certification Programs, and Product-Specific Standards and Certification Programs [84]. In addition, there are environmental certifications of tourism organizations based ISO 14001 and EMAS models, whereof it was talking in Section 2.4.1.

The global list of environmentally friendly and sustainable tourism certification programs, labels, and standards has been continuously compiled and updated by ECOTRANS, a European network of experts and organizations involved in tourism, environment, and regional development founded in 1993. ECOTRANS is running the DestiNet portal, which offers a free Knowledge Base and DestiNet Services for making tourism more sustainable. The data provided by DestiNet show that today there are more than 100 independent certificates for environmentally friendly and/or sustainable tourism services, destinations, and tour operators [85]. The large majority of these environmental programs and labels are in Europe, and fewer are performed in Africa, Asia-Pacific, the Caribbean, and the Americas.

Certification models for environmental systems apply in tourism organizations, but the success of these actions largely depends on the national framework of the environment approach in tourism. In this regard, an example of good practice is Australia, where the environment certification programs in tourism are coordinated by Ecotourism Australia (EA), an organization created in 1991, which in 1996 launched the world's first National Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP) [83].

Awarding the environmental marks and ecolabels are based on certification programs that include specific criteria. In order to develop a common language about sustainability in tourism, a set of Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria (GSTC) has been promoted since the early 1990s, by UNWTO together with The Rainforest Alliance, and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). The GSTCs are organized around four main themes: (1) Effective sustainability planning; (2) Maximizing social economic benefits for the local community; (3) Enhancing cultural heritage; (4) Reducing negative impacts to the environment. In present, there are two sets of global criteria: Hotel & Tour Operator Criteria (GSTC-H&TO) and Destination Criteria (GSTC-D). The current version of these criteria is available online [86] According to Hall et al., GSTC specifies minimum requirements for tourism businesses and destinations to protect resources and promote responsible travel practices [87].

The European Commission also has several initiatives for sustaining sustainable development of tourism in Europe. In chronological order, they include sectoral reference documents (SRD) for the tourism sector in addition to EMAS [88], the EU ecolabels, and the two specific tools for the sustainable management of destinations, namely QUALITEST and ETIS, already presented in Section 2.3.

The EU ecolabel was established in 1992 and forms an important component of the European Commission's strategy to support green growth and ecoinnovation. The "EU ecolabel" (the Flower) applies in all domains, including tourism. Awarding this mark for tourist accommodations is a voluntary certification based on specific criteria and can be requested by all types of accommodation facilities (hotels, guest houses, mountain lodges, private room providers, tourist farms, and camp grounds) for environmentally friendly tourist accommodations. Currently, there are two separate sets of criteria and labeling schemes: one for tourist accommodation services (TAS) and the second for campsite services (CSS). The application of the EU ecolabel is officially recognized throughout the EU for tourist accommodations from 2003 (2003/287/EC) and for campsite services from 2005 (2005/338/EC), respectively.

In the context of growing interest in ecolabeling, in the last decades, the number of studies related to the extension, implementation, and effectiveness of these programs has been increasing. According to Lubbert, "there is a myriad of ecolabels of varying quality, criteria, contents, and scope, causing customer confusion to the point of preferring to ignore them" [83]. Hamele appreciates that Europe has far more "green" certification programs than any other region of the world [89]. As Golden outlines, the rapid proliferation of ecolabels in the market is accompanied by a high level of redundancy [90]. In Mihalic's opinion, some tourism ecolabels have poor reputation and suffer from lack of credibility. They often refer to the natural environment and do not take into account the social and economic aspects [91].

Ban et al. underline the benefits of ecolabeling for tourists, tourist enterprises, and tourism industry. In the authors' opinion, an ecolabel will always be related to economic efficiency, although it requires a longer period of achievement [92]. The impact eco certification has on purchase behavior is one of the predilection objects of research: several case studies indicate that the majority of tourists does not seem to be affected by eco certifications [93, 94], and others, referring to Europe, show that ecolabeling represents an important communication gate to consumers, almost half of the respondents saying that ecolabeling plays an important role in their purchasing decisions [95].

But, although there are many environmental programs and ecolabels, some researchers consider that ecolabeling in the tourism industry is still in early stage [95, 96]. According to Graci and Dodds, despite there have been efforts in America and Europe to implement environmental certification schemes, "certification doesn't appear to have a significant effect on spreading sustainable tourism practices overall" [97]. In order to improve the certification efficacy, Graci and Dodds formulate some recommendations including developing international standards and a clear ecolabeling system; linking quality with environmental and social criteria; focusing on educational and training programs for the industry and consumers too. One example on the linkage between eco certification and quality is presented by Dodds and Joppe, who speak about the partnership between Green Globe and Australia's AAA to award green stars to products, using an existing quality standard to promote eco principles [98]. To be awarded a Green Star, an accommodation property must achieve a set of environmental criteria, including energy efficiency, waste minimisation, and water management. Green Stars make it possible to identify tourism businesses committed to reducing the environmental impacts of their operation.

It must mention that integrating quality and environment systems is an actual objective of the organizations in all areas, and it materializes in so-called "integrated management systems" (IMSs). According to Beckmerhagen, the integration is achieved through "putting together the different functions and elements of specific management systems into a single and more effective IMS" [99] and can embrace all the processes and elements that need to be controlled by organization. It is important to stress that the IMS collocation, as defined above, refers to all management systems based on international standards (e.g., QMS—ISO 9001, EMS—ISO 14001, etc.) and should not be confused with the IQM systems for quality assurance in tourist destinations (see Section 2.3).

2.5. Conclusions on the stage and evolution of quality approach in tourism

The previous presentation reveals the diversity of the models applied in tourism, in relation to the quality and the environment approach and their evolution. **Table 1** presents synoptically these models, differentiating between general patterns and tourism-specific models.

Object	Model title	Application level
I. General models		
Quality product evaluation	SERVQUAL (1985)	International
Quality management	ISO 9000 (1987)	International
Environment management	ISO 14000 (1995)	International
	EMAS (1993)	European
Excellence models	Baldrige (1987), EFQM (1992)	
II. Specific models		
For tourism organizations		
Classification schemes	AAA (1963), Forbes Travel (1958), Michelin Guide (1900), LHW (1928)	Global, and regional
	National classification schemes	National
	EHQ (2009), etc.	Regional
Quality certification/awarding marks	National quality marks	National
	European mark	Regional
Environmental marks and labels	Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria: GSTC-H&TO (2008), GSTC-D (2013)	International
	Green Globe (1993), Green Key (1994), LEED (2000), Green Key Global (1994/2002), Green Leaf Eco Standards (…), etc	Regional
	EU label (2003/2005)	European
For tourist destinations		
Sustainable development	Green Destinations (2014)	International
	IQM (2003), QUALITEST (2003), ETIS (2013, 2015–2016)	European

Table 1. General, and tourism specific models for quality and environment.

The previous table includes environmental models along with those related to quality, taking into account the strong links between these aspects, which justify their integrated approach. In tourism, customer satisfaction depends directly on environmental resources, consisting of climate, nature, culture, and traditional architecture. These elements greatly contribute to the attractiveness of tourist destinations and determine the customer satisfaction. On the other hand, economic viability of tourism depends strongly on enhancing quality of the local environment, and achieving this purpose supposes to promote the sustainability principles in tourism.

Taking chronologically the evolution of the quality approach to tourism, it can see that the first models appeared in the first half of the last century, being applied even today in tourism establishments classification. But most of them, both general patterns and specific models on quality and environment in tourism, date from the end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century. This process is in a continuous dynamicity, by adding new models and upgrading existing ones.

In the category of general models, the best known are the international standards for quality systems, and respectively environmental systems, applicable in organizations from all fields of activity. As the previous analysis showed (see Sections 2.1, and 2.4.1), the share of tourism organizations ISO 9001 and ISO 14001 (or IMAS) certified is relatively low, the tourism-specific patterns being better suited to the peculiarities of the field. But it is worth mentioning that the development of the tourism-specific models was increasingly taking into account the harmonization with the international standards for management systems that incorporate the philosophy and principles of modern management. Applying the basic principles of quality management (ISO 9000, 2015)—"Customer focus," "Leadership," "Engagement of people," "Improvement," "Process approach," "Evidence-based decision making," and "Relationship management"—represents key factors whether it is about quality achievement, environment preservation, or other aspects on which performance of the organization depends.

Tourism specific models for classification, and respectively quality or environment certification, have evolved along with the development of tourism, both in number and in terms of assessment criteria. Referring to the environment approach, Haaland and Aas appreciate that the jungle of labels and the lack of systematic reviews is a challenge not only for the customers but also for the industry itself, in terms of overall credibility, market values, and actual environmental effects and impacts [100]. This observation is also valid with regard to the quality certification and classification of tourist establishments.

Also of note is the concern of finding common rules for the harmonization of classification schemes and quality certification models, without, however, pleading for the uniformity of these tools. The analysis of those approaches (see Section 2.2.1) highlights the following major axes of change: extension of the number of indicators on the basis of which the classification of the tourist units is done; integration of classification schemes and quality certification models; integration of online guests' review into the classification systems.

In terms of improving the tourism classification models, there are some results consisting in the extension of classification criteria related to quality and environment. The most known is EHQ model of HOTREC, but other examples also exist of national classification schemes in tourism which include quality criteria. One of the quality criteria refers to the assessment of customer satisfaction. This requirement can be solved in a classic way (via surveys based on questionnaire conducted by the tourism company), but the modern approach is to evaluate the results of online customers' reviews off the social media platforms. Integrating online guests' reviews in the process of rating and/or awarding quality marks in tourism is one of the recent changes of quality approach in tourism, with notable results (see Section 2.2.1). With respect to inclusion of environmental requirements within classification schemes, the adopted solutions are different from country to country in terms of number of requirements and manner of presentation (dissipated or separate standards).

In terms of improving the tourism specific models for environmental performance management, the most visible result is the creation of common evaluation criteria (see Section 2.4.2). A set of global sustainable tourism criteria (GSTC) has been promoted by UNWTO and UNEP in the early 1990s, in order to develop a common language about sustainability in tourism. In the EU also, the EU ecolabel and the set of criteria and labeling schemes for tourist accommodation services (TAS, 2003) and for campsite services (CSS, 2005) were launched.

Another important aspect in the evolution of the quality and environment approach in tourism is the focus on tourist destinations (see Section 2.3). The main objective of this approach is to manage the various components of tourist destinations as a system, considering the satisfaction of tourists, and also the three pillars of sustainability: the economic profitability, the social, and environmental. Initiatives on this line exist at the European level—consisting of IQM model, and QUALITEST and ETIS as toolkits, and also at the international level—GSTC-D criteria established by the UNWTO and UNEP, respectively GREEN DESTINATION standard. As already mentioned, European and international instruments are different, but their harmonization was envisaged.

As shown in Section 2.3, the results of these models implementation are modest, one of the reasons being the short time since their launch. Another reason is the complexity of the implementation process of IQM in tourist destination, which includes developing new management structures, planning, and control tools, data management systems, etc. In this regard, dissemination of the results of applied studies on this issue is important. The emergence of "Practical Guidelines for Integrated Quality Management in Tourism Destinations" also supports the IQM implementation, being useful to all stakeholder categories: tourism managers, academics, professionals, and decision makers.

In terms of paternity of the quality and environmental models, several situations are distinguished. The first models have been created by professional organizations. At present, professional organizations are also involved, but increasing coordination of those programs is done at the international level, through UNWTO. Regional structures in the Americas, EU, Asia, and Africa are even important. The existence of general rules does not mean the patterning of models, but it provides some benefits: facilitates the understanding of quality and sustainability concepts and the harmonization of their approach, generating important advantages for all stakeholders.

It should be noted that the existence of common international or regional models does not guarantee their successful implementation in tourism organizations. The coordination at the national level (see Section 2.2.2) is another key factor in the success of activities related to quality and environment in tourism. Adopting and awarding of national quality and environmental standards and marks are not simple; it supposes the legislative development, organizational, and methodological framework for quality and environment certification in tourism. Some of the success examples in the implementation of national systems are presented in Section 2.2.2.

3. General conclusions and research agendas

Quality approach in tourism is a central subject of about a quarter century, both in theory and practice. These demarches have resulted into elaboration and implementation of some models and standards for the tourist units' classification, respectively the quality certification. The diversity of models currently used makes their understanding difficult, being a challenge both to customers and service providers in terms of their credibility, market value, and implementation effects. Difficulties are amplified by the fact that, in parallel with quality tools, the environmental approach to tourism has evolved, and a variety of environmental certification standards and models have been elaborated. It can be said that although there is a visible and even increasing interest in quality in tourism, there is a lack of global understanding of quality and links to new practices related to the environment and sustainable development.

The reason for the orientation toward this subject has its roots in the authors' belief that a comprehensive review of the approach to quality and environment in tourism will contribute to a better understanding of the concepts regarding the quality and environment approach in tourism, and the links between them. At the same time, systematization of the information on existing models and their using contribute to identifying the directions of change in the quality approach in tourism, considering both the proposed models and the way of implementation.

Taking into account the comprehensive review and the conclusions presented above, future research directions are formulated on three levels of action: global and regional actions, national actions, and institutional actions.

(1) Increasing the involvement of the UNWTO, the EU commissions, and other regional coordination bodies in addressing quality and environment in tourism resulted in the development of common rules, models, criteria, quality, and environment guides.

These actions aiming to create unitary rules and tools for quality and environment management in tourism should continue. A periodical review and upgrading of the existing management tools is necessary, taking into account the new requirements and also the observations resulting from their implementation. A direction to improve tourism-specific models is to achieve a better harmonization with the international standards for management systems. The harmonization of models applied at the organization level with those used to the tourist destinations should also be analyzed.

The tourist destinations quality remains a research direction, and it targets both the tools created (IQM, ETIS) and their implementation.

(2) The development of national systems for quality and environmental management in tourism is a factor with a strong impact on the performance of the tourism industry.

Considering that in many countries, there are not national quality systems in tourism, or they are inefficient, it is important for future studies to be more focused on good practices examples and for projects to be initiated to implement national systems for quality assessment and certification in tourism or to improve those that already exist.

It is important to take into account the need for harmonizing the national systems with global and/or regional models, at the level of principles, concepts, methodologies, and action tools, for quality and environmental management.

(3) The development of national systems creates the framework for the implementation of quality and environment-oriented management methods in tourism organizations. But in the end, quality and environmental performances depend on the actions undertaken at the level of each tourism organization. From this perspective, future research studies must be directed to developing tools for quality and environment management systems and respectively to improving the process of implementation of those systems in organizations.

Given that SMEs, which have limited resources, are predominant in tourism, it is opportune to develop studies of analyzing and optimizing the key processes on which quality depends, namely human resources, customer relationship management, information management, and quality assessment. In terms of institutional quality assessment, the creation of QMS evaluation grids is recommended. The way tourism companies manage online guests' reviews, which presently are the primary tools of customer feedback, also needs study.

Likewise, the aspects related to human resources in tourism need to be further studied, in order to support the broad implementation of modern Human Resource Management practices in tourism. In this regard, the staff training and the development of appropriate organizational culture to achieve quality and environment objectives in tourism are priority issues.

In the end, it must be said that regardless of the models used, achieving success in implementing new management practices is not an objective, but a "journey" that includes the continuous improvement of the expected performance and the tools used. The change process is done from top to bottom, under the coordination of superior management. Making changes is not possible in the absence of leadership.

Author details

Diana Foris[1*], Maria Popescu[2] and Tiberiu Foris[2]

*Address all correspondence to: diana.foris@unitbv.ro

1 Faculty of Food and Tourism, Transilvania University of Brasov, Brasov, Romania

2 Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Transilvania University of Brasov, Brasov, Romania

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Chapter 11

Assessment of Selected Cultural Ecosystem Services: Benefits of Land Cover Ecosystems for Ecological Models of Tourism Development (Case Study of Devín, the District of Bratislava IV)

Zdena Krnacova, Peter Barancok and
Katarina Pavlickova

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.71869

Abstract

Cultural ecosystem services in particular represent immaterial benefits derived from aesthetic and other experiences, recreation, cognition and spiritual enrichment, as the ability to distinguish values. The character of tourism and landscape interactions could be solved through the development and the application of new quantification methods for natural and cultural—historical benefits of ecosystems, which is the aim of our study, using Bratislava IV as a case study. In our approach, landscape-ecological evaluation of landscape structure and appropriate tourism forms and activities taking into account the landscape diversity, genofond significance, generic rarity and biotope vulnerability is considered as the essence of tourism ecological model creation. The basis for spatial representation of ecosystems was the processing of secondary landscape structure map based on landscape cover classes. As the attractive and important landscape segments were identified elements representing the first (e.g., alluvial forests, oak-hombean forests, wetlands), second (e.g., bank growth) and third (e.g., vineyards, recreational areas) category of landscape-ecological significance. We have created an algorithm that takes into account the significance of the nature of the natural and cultural-historical sites in the landscape and showing and presenting 14 categories of ecological forms of tourism.

Keywords: cultural ecosystem services, quantification evaluation procedures, land cover elements, landscape-ecological significance, ecological forms of tourism

1. Introduction

Ecosystem services represent the benefits that people obtain from natural ecosystems and are broadly understood as ecosystem processes which keep society alive. Ecosystem services are products or services provided by nature to keep people on the Earth alive. They include ecological and socio-economic aspects of ecosystems and demonstrate the dependency of people on ecosystems.

In our environment, where all social, economic and cultural (as well as immoral, uneconomic and uncivilized) activities take place, different services are provided by different kinds of ecosystems.

1.1. International classifications of ecosystem services

The overview of the source literature about economic, social and ecological assessment of ecosystem services can be found in [1]. The basic information about the assessment of ecosystem services is provided by [2]. In general, it can be stated that a huge amount of studies focused on the assessment of ecosystem services were published in the last decades. The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity (TEEB) is a joint initiative of the European Commission and the United Nations Environment Programme [3] and is of considerable importance in Europe. It was arranged by the European Commissioner for Environment with the aim to draw attention to the global economic contribution of biodiversity and to the expenses connected to biodiversity loss and ecosystem degradation [4].

Nowadays, there are three international classifications of ecosystem services: the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA), the Economics of Ecosystem and Biodiversity (TEEB) and Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services (CICES). Depending on a specific context, each classification has its positive and negative sides [5].

Millennium Ecosystem Assessment [6] is based on the interconnection of people and ecosystems. Therefore, the changes of living conditions of society have a direct or indirect impact on ecosystem changes and vice versa. According to the MEA, there are several kinds of services: supporting, providing, regulating and cultural (which include also recreational services).

In the second half of the twentieth century, ecological economics started to be formed as a scientific field in the USA and Europe. It considers the benefits of nature to be utilizable and exchangeable [7–10]. After establishing the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, there was a need to include this idea in the assessment of ecosystem services.

The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity [4] is focused on the evaluation of expenses created when adopting insufficient measures to reduce biodiversity loss and the decrease in ecosystem services.

The study entitled "The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity: Ecological and Economic Foundations" [4] divides ecosystem services to provisioning services, regulating services, cultural services and supporting services. The last ones are inevitable for maintaining the previous three types of services.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.71869

The development of the Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services (CICES) in 2011 was the result of the absence of standardized methodology for the classification of ecosystem services. It is connected to the framework of the System of Environmental-Economic Accounting (SEEA) of the United Nations. It is a recommended methodology of the EU Biodiversity Strategy to 2020 [11]. CICES distinguished ecosystem services as provisioning, regulating and maintenance services and cultural services.

1.2. Cultural ecosystem services

Cultural ecosystem services represent nonmaterial benefits provided by esthetic and other experiences, recreation, excursions and spiritual enrichment and by the ability to distinguish values.

TEEB [4] suggests that cultural benefits and ecosystem services also include:

1. Cultural diversity as a result of ecosystem diversity (environmental diversity, biological diversity and landscape diversity).
2. Knowledge developed by different cultures based on the influence of ecosystems on them.
3. Aesthetical values (the perception of the beauty of ecosystems and its components).
4. Recreation, ecotourism and geotourism (ecosystems as places for spending free time and recovery).
5. The values of cultural heritage created by the influence of ecosystems and their components.

According to the Convention on Biological Diversity from 1992, biological diversity or biodiversity is described as the variety of all living organisms (including terrestrial and aquatic organisms), the variety of species and the variety of organisms belonging to a particular species as well as the variety of ecosystems. According to UNEP from 2009 defined by the Council of Europe, landscape diversity represents numerous relationships between an individual or a society and a topographically defined area at a certain time. The landscape view of this area is the result of the combination of the influence of natural and human factors at a particular time.

Cultural landscape diversity (preserving traditional tangible or intangible cultural forms of a nation that are the results of a long-term development) significantly contributes to the maintenance of variety of living conditions and life forms on the Earth. The advantage of this connection between cultural and natural phenomena is that it also secures the connection of history with ecological, landscape and aesthetical values of an area. This contributes to the variety of living conditions and life forms and sustains natural and cultural heritage in Slovakia [12, 13].

Cultural ecosystem services provide services and benefits for tourism development by means of landscape, biological diversity and preserved values of cultural heritage.

From a broader point of view, tourism is the summary of phenomena and relations, while people stay and travel outside their home. These people represent consumers of cultural and economic goods.

Based on the conclusions of the conference of United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) in Ottawa in 1993, the UN accepted the following definition: "tourism involves people travelling and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes."

In the first place, tourism is mentioned as a system of services where the most important role is played by commercial establishments such as food, accommodation, cultural, social but also additional establishments and services [14].

Vegetative, social, cultural and ecological factors which determine the maximal ability of an area to have an impact on people and their recreational activities are defined as recreational potential of an area. This potential is created by recreational infrastructure and recreational activities [15].

1.3. Possibilities of tourism from the point of view of spatial division

Many authors paid attention to the possibilities of tourism from the point of view of spatial division by assessing the recreational potential of a landscape, for example, [16–27].

The potential of a landscape represents the ability of a landscape to offer certain possibilities and prerequisites of its different uses with the aim to satisfy the needs of human society. Based on an anthropocentric point of view, ecosystem services represent advantages and benefits for society and nature. Ecosystems provide benefits such as water, food, wood, soil formation, purification of water and air, flood and drought protection, crop pollination and others [28]. However, human activity can destroy biodiversity and decreases the resistance and the ability of healthy ecosystems to provide a wide range of goods and ecosystem services. If anthropocentric approach considered the basis for perceiving the benefits, it can also lead to an imbalance of utilization of natural resources [3].

The assessment of recreational land potential is mentioned by many authors [29–32]. Ref. [31] is mentioned as an example of assessment. Their assessment is based on the attractiveness of basic forms of land utilization. The decisive role for the attractiveness of an area is played by the primary, natural supply of a land which is represented by grass covers, recreational areas, forest covers and conservation areas. The secondary supply of a land, which is created by humankind, and the criterion of material-technical facility and the attractiveness of cultural-historical buildings are also taken into consideration.

From this point of view, undivided and extensive forests, submontane and mountain plants, wetlands, the occurrence of protected flowers, trees, almost extinct mammals and rare birds are attractive for tourism. Abiotic conditions of landscape-morphometric parameters of the relief are as much important as the previous factors. When considering what a land can offer to tourism, natural conditions but also preserved cultural-historical buildings, cultural establishments and cultural and sports events play a significant role. When determining particular demonstrations of its basic functions, one must also have a comprehensive knowledge of natural and cultural-historical environment of a recreational area. The environment helps tourists to get to know the history, the architecture, the technical sights and the culture of an area.

An example of such an area is Devin—the borough of Bratislava, the capital city of Slovakia, which was the subject of our observations.

This study is aimed at the mapping of land cover classes with a focus on the research of biological, land diversity and cultural-historical values of the area. It includes preparations of maps of the character and qualities of ecosystems, their landscape-ecological importance for the assessment of cultural benefits of an area and suggestions of ecologically suitable tourism forms and activities.

2. Methods

The basic database was the current land cover—secondary landscape structure. The current state and the characteristic patterns of the current land cover were mapped on the third, fourth and fifth levels based on CORINE Land Cover Technical Guide—Addendum 2000 legend [33]. The land cover classes are arranged in a vector format which was created by the synthesis of thematic and relevant layers discussed in the fundamentals for geographic information system (ZB GIS, 2012) and licensed updated databases of identified buildings based on the Corine Land Cover legend derived from vector databases of orto-maps from aviation photographs (EUROSENSE Ltd., 2014). These were supported by the field research of habitats of European and national importance in 2014–2016. The database of land cover classes includes precious information about the character of habitats, the level of soil anthropization, socioeconomic actions of people in landscape and the characteristics of the current tourist infrastructure. The updated database of land covers enables the selection of natural, seminatural, socioeconomic and fabricated cultural-historical resources. It also provides sufficient characterization for the assessment of cultural benefits and ecosystem services (the scale of 1:5000).

The landscape-ecological importance (LEI) represents the benefits of a land based on the qualities of land cover classes. It is defined as an inherent quality of ecosystems (land cover classes). Degrees of naturalness, indigenousness and the current state of vegetation, the overall biodiversity, gene pool importance, and rare and endangered species are assigned to ecosystems. It is all based on the degree of vegetation hemeroby based on the studies of [34].

Smejkal [35] reminds us that the level of hemeroby must be assessed separately for each society and an important factor is the degree of direct human actions influencing the society. The assessment of hemeroby level has a critical role for nature conservation and is also connected to the assessment of stability and resistance of associations, soil retention, the degree of biodiversity and others. It is used to express biological balance or to describe different functions of vegetation in landscape (**Table 1**).

When assessing the LEI of particular landscape elements, the current state of vegetation and the degree of hemeroby are taken into account. The degree of hemeroby is the degree of anthropogenic impact on vegetation cover in relation to soil qualities.

A degree of LEI is being assigned to the elements of land cover. There are five degrees in the scale from "an element with a very low LEI" to "an element with a very high LEI." There are suggestions about appropriate forms of tourism and frame measures for increasing or maintaining the overall biodiversity and its function for each degree of LEI.

In the quantification of landscape-ecological significance and in the quantification of level of vegetation hemeroby, we were based on [35], which we have modified according to our above-mentioned criteria.

Landscape elements	**Description**	**Degree of hemeroby**	**Degree of LEI**
Built-up areas	Built-up areas and asphalt and concrete roads	Devastated	1
Legal or managed disposal sites	Disposal sites, rubble heaps, slag heaps, etc.	Devastated	1
Cemeteries	Cemetery areas, often overgrown with woody plants	Fabricated	1; 2
Fields	Intensely used and annually plowed agricultural lands	Unnatural	1; 2
Vineyards	Intensive and extensive farming	Unnatural	1; 2
Hop gardens	Intensive farming	Unnatural	1
Orchards	Intensive and extensive farming	Unnatural	1; 2
Gardening and cottage settlements	Patchwork of special fruit and vegetable plants and trees, flower beds, etc., and built-up areas	Unnatural	1; 2
Gardens	Gardens near houses	Unnatural	1; 2
Grassland	Intensive farming in meadows and pastures	Unnatural	2
Grassland	Extensive farming in meadows and pastures	Seminatural	3
Grassland	Natural xerothermic, subalpine, alpine meadows, salt marshes	Almost natural	4; 5
Grassland	Other plant and herb vegetation	Unnatural—seminatural	2; 3
Water areas and streams	Artificial water areas and regulated streams	—	2; 3
Water areas and streams	Natural water areas and streams	—	3; 4; 5
Wetland	Wetlands created in anthropogenic sunken areas, abandoned quarries, etc.	Seminatural	3; 4;
Wetland	Naturally created wetlands, including spring associations	Almost natural	5
Forest	1. Cultivated monocultures of exotic trees and other kinds grown outside a natural area of their propagation, 2. *Picea abies* grown in the first, second and third forest vegetation levels (FVLs)*	Unnatural	2
Forest	1. Pioneering trees spreading naturally, 2. Vegetation of *Picea abies* grown in the fourth and fifth FVLs, 3. Vegetation of *Pinus sylvestris* in other places, 4. Vegetation of *Larix decidua* in the original places, 5. Vegetation of *Populus nigra, P. alba* and other species of poplar tree grown in other places, 6. indigenous species of *Salix* grown in other places	Seminatural	3
Forest	1. Oak and beech vegetation with naturally occurring Ruscus *(Carpinus, Acer, Fraxinus, Tilia)*, 2. Vegetation of *Fagus sylvatica* in the second and third FVLs, 3. Vegetation of *Fagus sylvatica* in the sixth FVL, 4. Vegetation of *Picea abies* grown in the sixth and seventh FVLs, 5. Vegetation of *Quercus robur* and *Q. petraea* grown in other places, 6. Vegetation of *Alnus glutinosa, A. incana* grown in other places	Seminatural—almost natural	4
Forest	1. Scree forests, 2. Vegetation of *Fagus sylvatica* in the fourth and fifth FVLs, 3. Vegetation of *Picea abies* grown in the eighth FVL (in flood places), 4. Vegetation of *Pinus sylvestris* at extreme places, 5. Vegetation of *Quercus robur* and *Q. petraea* and also *Quercus pubescens* in the first and second FVLs and natural vegetation in the third and fourth FVLs, 6. Vegetation of *Quercus cerris* in the Pannonian region in the first FVL, 7. Vegetation of *Populus nigra, P. alba* and other indigenous species of toplar trees grown in alluvial forests, 8. Vegetation of *Alnus glutinosa, A. incana* grown in alluvial forests and at	Almost natural—natural	5

Landscape elements	Description	Degree of hemeroby	Degree of LEI
	flood places, 9. Indigenous species of *Salix* grown in alluvial forests and at flood places		
Brownfield lands	Not used cropland	Unnatural	2

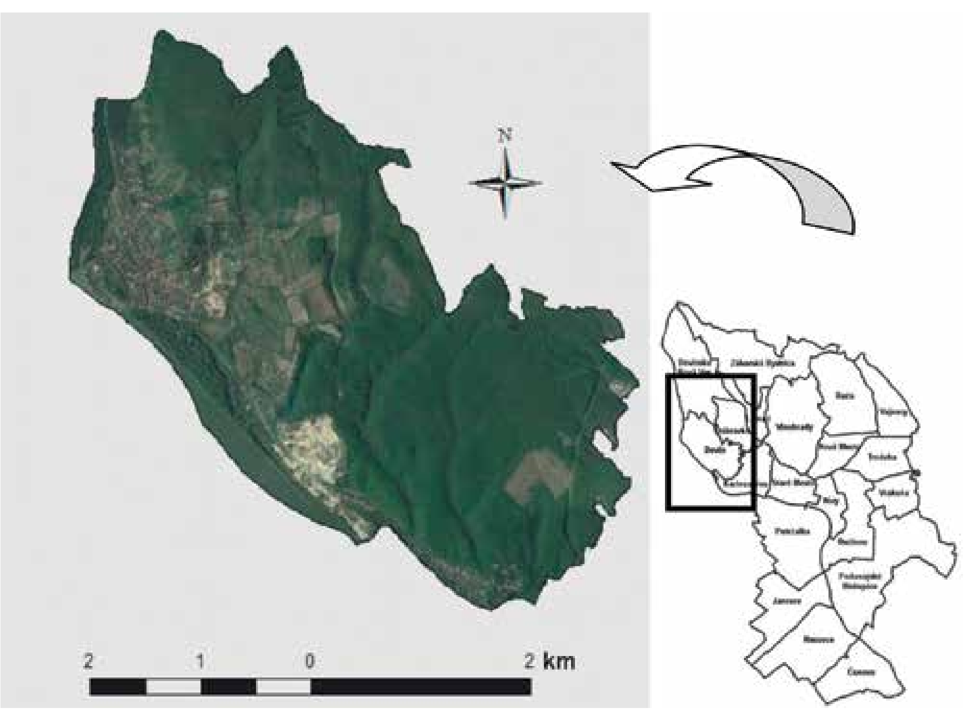
Table 1. Degrees of ecological importance (LEI) of individual landscape elements [35].

3. Model territory

The land cover of Bratislava IV is comprised in the central part of relatively extensive forest ecosystems in the Little Carpathians Protected Landscape Area. In the southeastern part, there are vast urban areas of the cadastral municipality of Karlova Ves and Dubravka. In Devinska Nova Ves, there is not only an industrial zone but also agricultural soil. However, this soil is being overbuilt with the Bory Mall polyfunctional complex.

The cadastral municipality of Devin (**Picture 1**) is situated at the confluence of the Danube and Morava rivers. National nature reserve Devínska Kobyla, natural monument Devín and conservation area Slovanský ostrov are important biotopes in this area.

The land cover of Devin is presented in **Picture 2**. At the foot of Devinska Kobyla, there is a strip of vineyards, gardens and unique buildings. This area can be considered as an ecotone



Picture 1. Model territory Devin—Bratislava IV district.

Picture 2. Protected area The Floodplain of the Morava river in Devin (the archive of the city of Bratislava, 2015).

and is surrounded by rare biotopes. It serves as a transition zone. The cultural-historical core of this area is a Slavic fortified settlement Devin which represents the place of prehistoric settlement. From agricultural point of view, vineyards and gardens are preferred in this area, which makes it slightly inappropriate for family houses. It is very important to preserve the original character of the landscape connected to the cultivation of vineyards. The model territory has a high recreational potential which is conditioned by ecological, gene pool and landscape potential with the connection to forest, cultural-historical and vineyard potential.

Despite a strong anthropic pressure of the city of Bratislava, many types of endangered but well-preserved habitats have been retained in the peripheral parts of this area. The rare habitats in this area are mainly the forests and the meadows of the Danube and Morava rivers. It has a very high degree of LEI, for example, Protected area The Floodplain of the Morava river in Devin, Nature reserve Fialkova dolina, National natural monument Devinska hradna skala, The Zahorske Pomoravie Special Protection Area, National nature reserve Devinska Kobyla, and The Little Carpathians Protected Landscape Area. The most important protected areas are Protected area The Floodplain of the Morava river in Devin and National natural monument Devinska hradna skala.

The Floodplain of the Morava river in Devín was announced by the regulation of the Regional Authority of Bratislava in 1999. Grasslands, wetlands and forests with many protected and endangered plants and animals are protected here. The area comprises 253.16 ha. It is located in the district of Devin and Devinska Nova Ves. There are many types of plant communities which show a high and very high degree of LEI based on the ratio of originality and naturalness of land cover classes (**Picture 3**).

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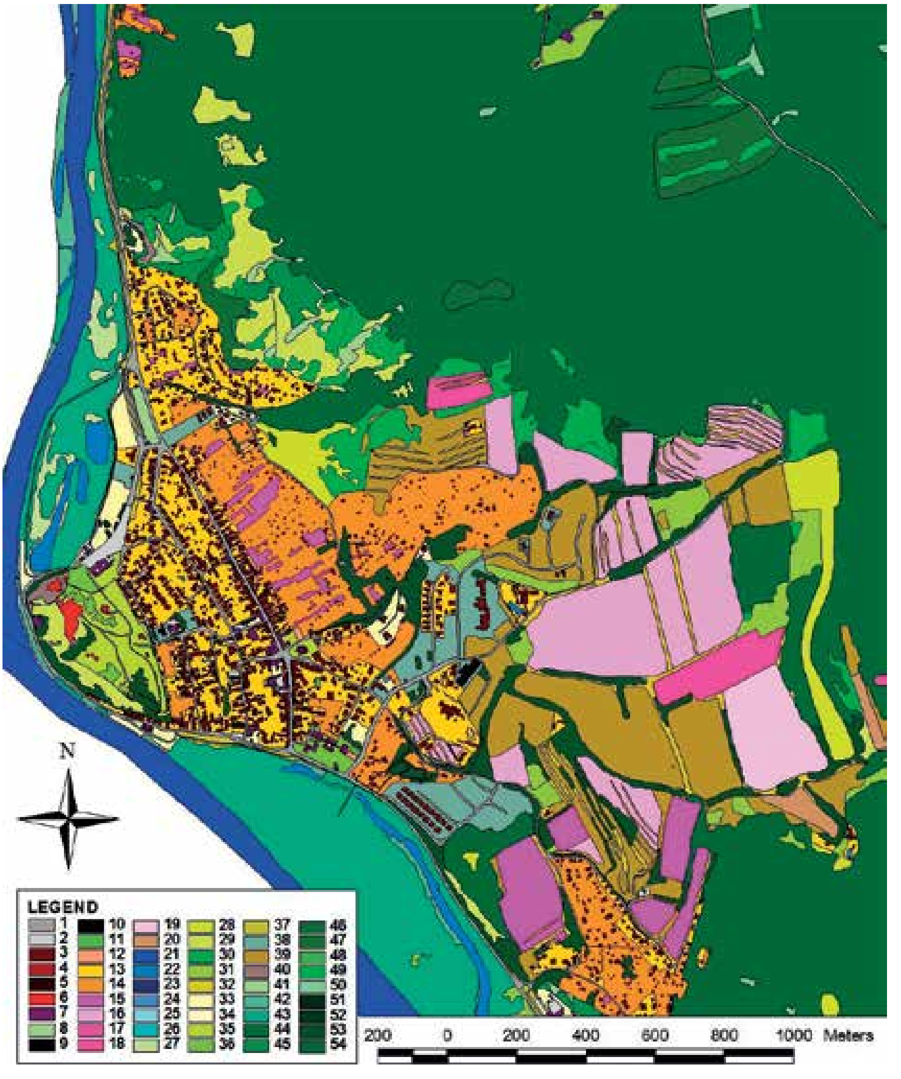


Picture 3. Land cover of Devin (scale of 1:5000). Legend: 1. Roads (asphalt—Road of class I, II, and III, local road, semipaved roads); 2. Paved areas (parking, concrete areas, loading ramps); 3. Individual housing; 4. Cottages, garden cottages, private garages, small structures, sheds, greenhouses in gardens; 5. Public housing; 6. Cultural monuments; 7. Objects of services, administration, education, health services, culture, religious buildings, and so on; 8. Cemetery; 9. Industrial and storehouse objects; 10. Small technical structures; 11. Playgrounds—grassy; 12. Tennis courts with clay; 13. Gardens near the houses; 14. Gardens, gardening settlements; 15. Vineyards; 16. Abandoned vineyards; 17. Abandoned orchards and gardens; 18. Small vineyards; 19. Abandoned small vineyards; 20. Backyards; 21. Water stream; 22. Water area, dead arm of the river; 23. Swimming pool; 24. Water source; 25. Artificial gravel banks; 26. Wetland; 27. Reed and flood-meadows; 28. Meadows (slope); 29. Xerothermophilous grassland vegetation; 30. Forest-steppe vegetation; 31. Overgrown grasslands; 32. Grassy overgrown unmown balks to bounds with nonforest vegetation; 33. Ruderal grasses; 34. Grassy flood-control dam; 35. Park grasses with a minimum of woody plants; 36. Park grasses with nonforest vegetation; 37. Grasses on banks near roads and railways; 38. Devastated areas with ruderal vegetation; 39. Outfield, meadow outfield; 40. Rocks, rock reefs; 41. Rocks and scree with vegetation; 42. Waterside vegetation—natural woods or grasslands; 43. Soft alluvial forest; 44. Oak-hornbeam forest; 45. Xerothermic oak forest; 46. Pine forest; 47. Spruce forest; 48. Locust forest; 49. Young unspecified forest; 50. Cut-down forest; 51. Nonforest vegetation—solitary trees; small group of woody plants; 52. Nonforest vegetation—linear vegetation, tree lines; 53. Nonforest vegetation—surface, variety of species; 54. Nonforest vegetation—woody plants on banks and on cut-down areas.

National natural monument—Devinska hradna skala was announced in the regulation of the Municipal Executive Board of Bratislava in 1990 and in the regulation of the Ministry of the Environment of the Slovak Republic in 1996. The subject of protection is a significant geological, botanical and zoological area which covers 0.70 ha. The natural monument Devínska lesostep was announced by the decision of the Environment Agency of Bratislava in 1992 and by the regulation of the Ministry of Environment of the Slovak Republic in 1996. The subjects of protection are critically endangered species of important plant associations. The area extends over 5.09 ha (Statistical Yearbook of Bratislava, the capital city of the Slovak Republic, 2015). It has a very high degree of LEI.

4. Results

The landscape-ecological importance of landscape utilization (LEI) is based on the biological-ecological processes in ecosystems. It is represented by the elements of landscape utilization (by land cover classes in this case). They are being assigned degrees of naturalness (originality) that is determined by the degree of vegetation hemeroby based on the studies of [34, 35]. The opinions of scientists vary when assessing what can be considered natural, original and not touched by humankind and to what extent anthropic actions suppress the naturalness and where the limits of natural and fabricated (anthropogenic) phenomena are, since man is also a natural species of biosphere. But there are still certain pragmatic, conventionally established limits. A general agreement is that if original phenomena are only those which are uninfluenced by humans at all, then original ecosystems do not actually exist nowadays as the whole biosphere is directly or at least indirectly influenced by anthropogenic changes of the atmosphere. Moreover, global water circulation is influenced by human actions as well. But if anthropic impact is not seen in such a fundamental way, we can talk about the remains of original ecosystems in such regions, which were never a part of an ecumene in the past—they were not directly influenced by humans (not even by an extensive use).

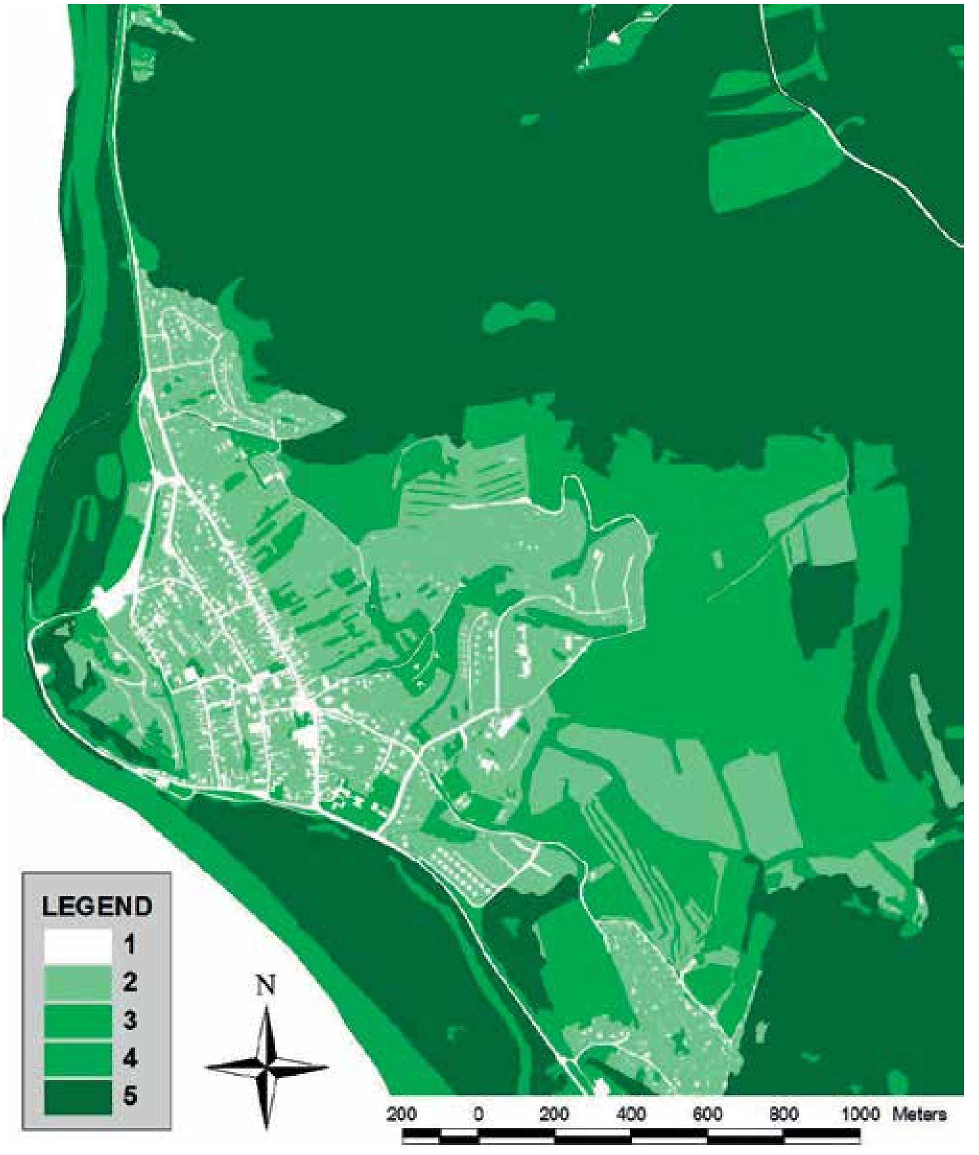
As a criterion of such naturalness, the preservation of basic functional ecosystem relations can be applied. These relations guarantee a spontaneous regeneration of an ecosystem after anthropic pressure. The quality of such natural ecosystems is drawing nearer to the quality of natural ecosystems from which they are derived. They can be also labeled as "almost natural" or "natural," but not "original" [36].

The assessment of the landscape-ecological importance of land cover classes in Devin is depicted in **Picture 4**.

The landscape-ecological importance was determined based on:

1. The character of landscape from the point of view of its anthropogenic origin (fabricated land cover classes without natural parts were assessed as negative; natural, almost natural and original were assessed as positive)

2. The percentage of classes based on their originality, naturalness or importance for nature protection (a natural forest with original species gets a better assessment than a modified forest or a forest that is not original based on the given conditions; natural meadows are assessed better than reclaimed meadows)



Picture 4. The landscape ecological importance of land cover classes. Legend: 1—very low, 2—low, 3—medium, 4—high, 5—very high.

3. When assessing the importance, it was not taken into account whether the area belongs to a protected area or the NATURA 2000 system (xerothermic vegetation has the same value in a protected area as well as outside)

4. Cultural-historical importance of anthropogenic classes was partly taken into consideration as well. It would be more evident after a more detailed division (historical areas, areas around castles, etc., have a higher significance than individual or housing structures or industrial objects).

Land cover class	ID	LEI	Tourism
Roads, train routes and bridges			
Highway	1	1	7
Roads (mainly asphalt)—road of class I, II, and III, local road	2	1	7
Bridge—road	3	1	7
Railway	4	1	7
Bridge—railway	5	1	7
Paved areas—car park, concrete areas	6	1	7
Built-up areas			
Individual housing	10	1	—
Cottages	11	1	10
Public housing	12	1	—
Cultural sights—tower house, castle, museum, watermill	13	2	2
Objects of services (restaurant, shop, market)	130	1	9
Objects of administration (office building, municipality, government building)	131	1	9
Objects of education and science (observatory, meteorological station, library)	132	1	9
Cemetery, crematorium	133	3	9
Healthcare services (retirement home, hospital, children's home)	134	1	9
Religious buildings—church, chapel, morgue	135	1	9
military objects	136	1	—
Cultural buildings—museum, cinema, theater, gallery, library	137	1	4
Aviation objects	138	1	—
Railway objects, railway station, bus station, bus stop	7	1	7
Industrial objects and warehouses	8	1	—
Agricultural buildings	9	1	—
Sewage treatment plant	110	1	7
Waste dumps, material repository	111	1	7
dunghill	112	1	7
Small technical objects (shared garages, boiler house, gas regulating station)	113	1	7
Others—gamekeeper's lodge, wine cellar	139	1	7
Sports and culture			
Playgrounds—grassy	100	2	3
Playgrounds—concrete, asphalt	101	1	3
Clay tennis courts	102	1	3
Sports buildings (grandstand, swimming pool, hall, ice hockey arena)	103	1	3
Shooting range	104	1	3
Playground—children	105	2	3

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Land cover class	ID	LEI	Tourism
Horse races, show-jumping	106	2	3
Agricultural land			
Gardens near houses	14	3	10
Gardens, gardening settlements	15	3	10
Vineyard	16	3	—
Abandoned vineyards	166	3	10
Orchards	17	3	10
Abandoned orchards, gardens	177	3	10
Backyards	18	2	10
Extensive arable land	19	2	—
Small settlements	160	3	10
Abandoned small settlements	169	3	10
Water			
Water stream	20	4	6
Water area, dead arms	21	4	6
Pool	22	1	6
Water source	23	2	7
Dam	24	1	7
Artificial gravel banks	25	2	7
Wetland	27	5	5
Grasslands			
Reed and flood—meadows	28	5	5
Meadow—alluvial—reclamation	29	3	5
Meadow—alluvial	30	4	5
Meadow—slope	31	4	5
Redural grasses	32	3	5
Grasses on banks near roads and railways	33	3	8
Park grasses with a minimum of woody plants	34	3	1
Park grasses with nonforest vegetation	35	4	8
Grassy flood-control dam	36	3	8
Outfield, meadow outfield	37	2	—
Grassy overgrown balks	38	3	8
Devastated areas with ruderal vegetation	39	2	—
Overgrown rocks, ruins	40	5	5
Xerothermophilous grassland vegetation	41	5	5
Forest-steppe vegetation	42	5	5
Overgrown grassland	43	4	6
Rocks, rock reefs	44	5	6
Sands (Sandberg)	45	5	5

Land cover class	ID	LEI	Tourism
Forest and nonwoody vegetation			
Waterside vegetation—unoriginal (fruit) trees		48	4
Waterside vegetation—natural woods or grasslands	49	5	8
Alluvial forests—soft wood	50	5	6
Poplar-ash forests—hard wood	51	5	6
alder forests	52	5	6
Monocultures—mainly poplar trees	53	4	6
beech forests	54	5	6
Oak-hornbeam forests	55	5	6
Xerothermic oak forests	56	5	6
Pine forests	57	4	6
Spruce forests	57	3	6
Locust forests	58	3	6
Young unspecified forests	59	3	6
Cut-down forests	60	3	6
Nonforest vegetation—solitary trees, small groups of woody plants	61	3	8
Nonforest vegetation—linear vegetation, tree lines	62	3	8
Nonforest vegetation—surface, variety of species	63	4	8
Nonforest vegetation—woody plants on banks and cut-down areas	64	4	8
Extraction areas			
Quarry	150	2	—
Wall of quarry	151	2	—
Extraction area—brickyard	152	2	—
Wall of an extraction area	153	2	—
Remains of vegetation in a quarry	154	3	8

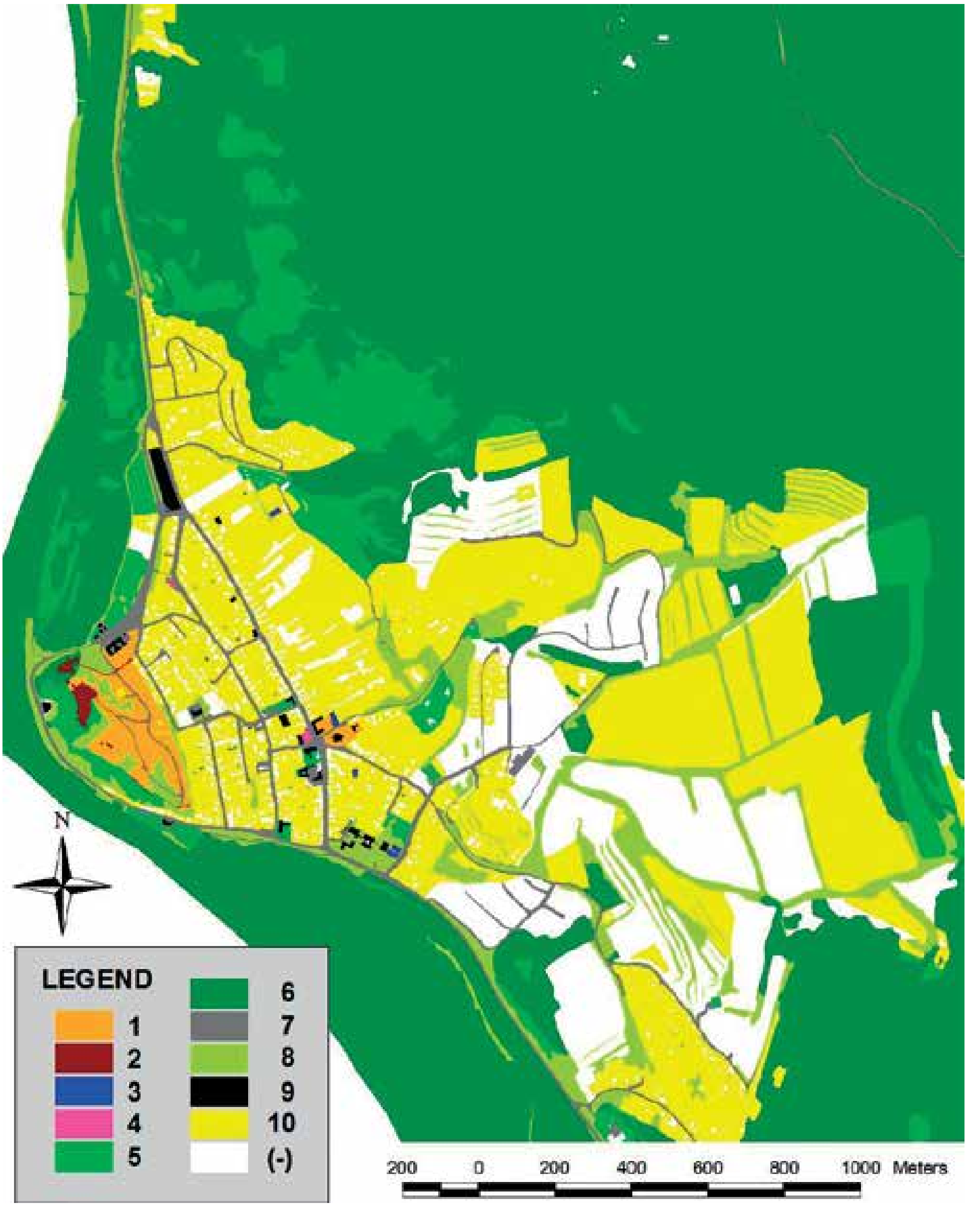
ID—identification number of a land cover class in map; LEI—degree of landscape-ecological importance; and Tourism—suggested types of ecological forms and infrastructure of tourism.

Table 2. The overview of land cover classes, the degree of LEI and a suggestion of ecological forms of usage and infrastructure of tourism.

Table 2 and **Picture 5** represent the overview of land cover classes, the degree of LEI and a suggestion of ecological forms of usage and infrastructure of tourism.

Based on the analyses, the Bratislava district of Devin has a high potential to develop cultural ecosystem services such as recreation, ecotourism and geotourism (ecosystems as places for spending free time and recovery.

From the point of view of assessing the landscape-ecological importance of land cover classes, the development of cultural tourism is the most promising option when focused on visiting natural and cultural-historical attractions and relaxation-sports tourism. The first one has the



Picture 5. Design of diversified ecological forms of tourism for the high landscape cultural and natural value. 1—recreational tourism, 2—cultural tourism, – visiting cultural-historical objects, 3—sports tourism, 4—social tourism, 5—cultural tourism – visiting natural attractions, 6—relaxation and sports tourism, 7—technical infrastructure, 8—green infrastructure, 9—civic amenities, 10—individual relaxation-social tourism, (–)—not rated.

ideal conditions in protected areas as there are attractive undivided and extensive forests, submontane and mountain plants, wetlands, forest-steppe vegetation, protected plants and wood plants, almost extinct mammals and rare birds. Devín also offers some relaxation-sports activities such as beautiful views, interesting cycle and tourist paths and the nearby Little

Carpathians Protected Landscape Area. Devin is considered one of the most beautiful parts of Bratislava. Devin Castle is also a tourist attraction and belongs to the favorite places for short walks in the capital city. One can not only visit the castle, but also have a walk on the Danube riverbank underneath the castle rock, along the Morava river and in the adjoining streets of the district of Devin. As tourists visit this place very often, the offer of restaurant services (directly at the car park next to the site entrance as well as at the riverbank) is appropriately adapted as well.

5. Conclusion and discussion

The achieved results of our analyses correspond with the results of a research conducted in 2014–2015 [37]. Its aim was to research the interest of 100 respondents in tourism in Devin. Their answers showed that the most important reasons were relax (64%), the beauty of nature (54%), culture and history (39%) and sports (19%).

In Devin, the visitors admired mainly the surrounding nature (52%), and they positively assessed the activities organized at the castle (11%), cultural events (6%), tourist paths (4%) and signboards (2%). There were also some visitors who were satisfied with the services (3%) and traffic (2%). On the contrary, the main deficiencies were a low quality of food services (14%), a lack of waste bins (9%), poor information system (8%), poor rest rooms (7%), waste (3%), poor transport to the site (3%) and a lack of sports possibilities (2%) [37].

It is obvious that more methods must be combined in the final suggestions for developing the ecosystem services (and also recreation). It is also important to take into account the conceptual documents as well as regional plans. In this case, regulations on tourism development in the conditions of the Bratislava Self-Governing Region must also be taken into consideration.

A functional-chorological approach was used in this chapter to assess the natural prerequisites of tourism, which makes it possible to arrange the territorial model of tourism more accurately. It provides a complex look at the system of relations between tourism and landscape and is a methodical base for the creation of ecological models of tourism development. An ecological approach is based on the selection and application of assessment methods for development requirements and on the suggestion of appropriate tourism forms and activities for selected naturally and cultural-historical valuable landscape elements. The essence of the creation of an ecological tourism model is the landscape-ecological assessment of landscape potential and suggestion of appropriate touristic forms and activities which take into account landscape diversity, gene pool importance, rarity of species and habitat vulnerability.

Acknowledgements

The contribution was created as part of the VEGA project no. 2/0051/17 "The Evaluation of Cultural Ecosystem Services in the Landscape on a Basis of Landscape-Ecological Research for the Development of Ecological Tourism Models" financed by the Scientific Grant Agency at the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic and Slovak Academy of Sciences.

Author details

Zdena Krnacova[1], Peter Barancok[1]* and Katarina Pavlickova[2]

*Address all correspondence to: peter.barancok@savba.sk

1 Institute of Landscape Ecology, Slovak Academy of Sciences, Bratislava, Slovak Republic

2 Department of Landscape Ecology, Faculty of Natural Sciences, Comenius University in Bratislava, Bratislava, Slovak Republic

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Chapter 12

Spatial Development Follows Digitization

Lars Rettig and Morten Friedrichsen

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70428

Abstract

Two economic sectors, which massively depend on mobility, are considered in this article: logistics and tourism. The Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link Area will be a challenge for these economic sectors. Educational institutions provide the skillsets for managers in this new emerging region. This present research therefore examines which portfolios of spatial- and content-related courses and modules are necessary for shaping future competences in the Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link Area. For this purpose, theoretical approaches in spatial development and trends in digitization are looked at. An industry structure analysis (Porter's Five Forces) is used to examine the potential effects in two economic sectors. Deduced from that, the following questions are raised: which competences will be needed in the future? What can educational institutions like universities do to contribute to that skillset? Based on their analysis, the authors suggest a Fehmarn-Belt Network of universities offering online courses on an academic level. Together, they create, translate, share and refine the modules and develop the Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link Area from an educational perspective.

Keywords: spatial development, mobility, Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link, intercultural competences, tourism, Nordic management, logistics, online modules, mutual learning, e-learning

1. Introduction

The planned Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link between Germany and Denmark increases mobility in the Baltic Sea region, thus involving not only spatial and economic implications but also social, cultural, and ecological implications. Especially, the logistics and the tourism industry in the Baltic Sea region are required to seize the opportunities offered by the permanent crossing and hereby sustainably shape the new space. Therefore, intercultural competences are necessary for the next generation of managers dealing for instance with tourism and logistics in this area. In that respect, suitable educational offers should be set up in a timely manner.

2. Theory

2.1. Spatial development

It seems as if the trend toward increasing networking and interlacing of spaces beyond the borders of countries, which appeared to be unstoppable a few years ago, is currently slowing down. The reasons for this are both economic (neo-protectionist tendencies) and political (destabilization of the EU). However, in specific cases, there are still considerable efforts to develop cross-border spaces.

The interests of the actors are manifold: from a political point of view, intensified international cooperation also means a peace guarantee. Economic interests arise on the one hand from the opening up of new markets and on the other hand from the generation of mutual benefits (classical theory of free trade). In this context, cross-border clusters of industries (Porter) or the targeted promotion of networking (e.g. by the implementation of Interreg programs) are often focused on.

One of the ambitious projects for the development of large-scale spaces is the construction of a fixed Fehmarnbelt crossing, which has been planned for years. It would allow a much faster connection between Germany and the Scandinavian area.

It is obvious that such an undertaking leads to controversial debates. In addition to the fundamental question of whether the project should be implemented at all, there have so far been considerable delays due to stakeholder resistances, planning deficits, and nonconsideration of the framework conditions.

That being said, it becomes clear that the development of large-scale spaces such as the Fehmarnbelt region would present considerable challenges for economic players and stakeholders even under comparatively static conditions. These requirements (but also the possibilities) are intensified though, if one considers that the creation of *physical* spaces is accompanied at the same time by the progressive development of *virtual* spaces.

2.2. Digitization

The rapid development in communication technology affects many areas of life. Job profiles are changing, the workplace itself is changing, and it is becoming more and more mobile. Everything that can be automated can be digitalized. Downes [1] progressively states that knowledge is no longer bound to people but is distributed in the Internet and accessible for everybody. YouTube tutorials explain almost everything imaginable. However, not only in business, but also in private life, the way we communicate, share, and live is massively influenced by online communication via smart devices such as smart phones, tablets, smart watches, and data glasses. The penetration of smart phones in Western Europe stands at "around 70 percent and will continue to grow to around 85 percent by 2022" [2]. We have constant access to the Internet with mobile phones and even free WiFi in many places. There are even multiple phone contracts per person, as the number of mobile subscriptions in Western Europe now surpasses the number of citizens [2]. The digital data web is like a constant enhancing layer over the analogue world.

Digitization is a megatrend that affects everything from private life and the individual workplace to production processes (*Industry 4.0*) and complete supply chains (*digital SCM*[1]). Consequently, building up digital competences in the future workforce (*digital literacy*) will be a key factor for safeguarding the employability of future employees. The current Global Industry 4.0 Survey shows that the biggest challenges regarding digitization are internal ones such as culture, organization, leadership, and skills rather than external issues such as infrastructure, intellectual property protection, data security, or privacy concerns [3]. The highest scoring item (50%), regarding the question of where the biggest challenges for building digital operations capabilities were, was the lack of digital culture and training [3]. The study therefore suggests focusing on people and culture to drive transformation (compare Section **4.2** of this article).

Digital technology enables collaborative working independent of time and location, i.e. people connect and meet in chats or web conferences wherever and whenever they want and need. Communication nowadays is not in need of fixed links—like the fixed link across the Baltic Sea—anymore. However, the exchange of commodities requires both physical connection and professional intercultural communication alike.

That leads to the conclusion that there is a mutual reinforcing effect of spatial development by the fixed Fehmarn-Belt link and the digitization of many areas of life. The latter explicitly has a pacemaker function, because it alone has the capability of changes for the region—even if there were no tunnel.

2.3. Porter's Five Forces

The consequences for the economic actors in the region can be derived from the developments shown above. We shall first examine the specific effective contexts as well as opportunities and threats.

As a methodology, Michael Porter's industry structure analysis (also known as Porter's Five Forces, see **Figure 1**) is used. This makes it possible to describe the situation of companies and institutions in their environment and to derive strategic impulses.

The influencing factors are customers, new competitors, suppliers, substitute products, and ultimately the intensity of the competition in the industry itself.

[1] Digital SCM = Digital Supply Chain Management.

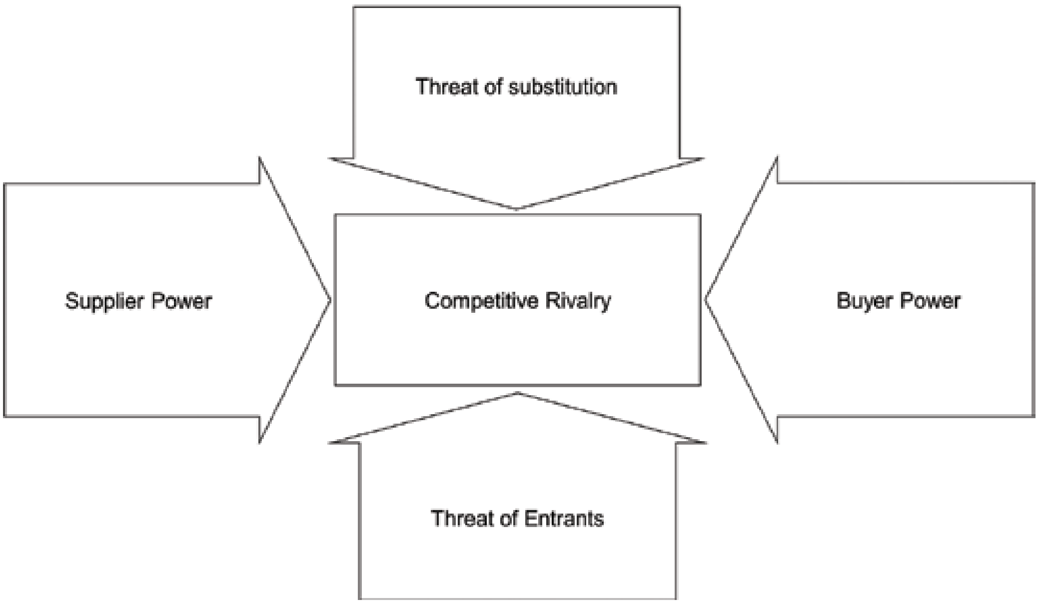

Figure 1. Porter's Five Forces (own depiction based on Porter [4]).

3. Application of the industry structure analysis

3.1. Logistics

In the following section, the Five Forces methodology will be applied to the logistics sector against the background of the construction of a Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link.

First, the *competition intensity* within the industry itself is considered. A fixed Fehmarn-Belt crossing would be a catalyst for the establishment or strengthening of a North European region, which would lead to new market opportunities and new growth potential. Thus, one can assume that from the beginning, an intensive struggle for the resulting opportunities should be carried out. Moreover, among the established players, there are also companies that could suffer from the new connection. For example, in the case of the Port of Hamburg, it is to be assumed that a large number of transactions that previously took place by sea would be subject to a thorough economic examination.

As far as the *negotiating power of the customers* is concerned, this is a significant factor due to the comparatively high (and possibly increasing) number of logistics companies and potential transport routes. Furthermore, customers are increasingly more well-informed as a result of digitization, which may lead to easier substitution of established business relationships. In addition, however, it must be pointed out that the customers of the logistics industry will also benefit from new market opportunities and, accordingly, a rising demand for transport is expected.

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On the *supply side*, the logistics sector depends on vehicle manufacturers and the suppliers of complementary products (in particular the mineral oil sector). An increasing number of market transactions also mean an intensification of this relationship.

The market entry of *new competitors* poses a significant threat to existing players in the logistics sector. It can be observed that commercial enterprises (e. g. Amazon) are expanding their activities and beginning to integrate logistics services by themselves (*vertical integration*). Against the background of new market opportunities, the attractiveness of such efforts is also increasing.

The number of fitting *substitutes* with respect to the classic logistics sector is limited. It is possible to think about alternative routes, alternative transport channels, and alternative providers. These possibilities were already numerous, and—as already described—they are likely to increase. Nevertheless, the physical transport of a commodity from start to finish cannot be replaced. A withdrawal from the market occurs only when commercial enterprises set up their own logistics networks and sites, thus rendering the services of the classic logistics sector obsolete (**Figure 2**).

Leaving the mobility of commodities and the influencing factors on logistics, the next section deals with the Five Forces influencing the touristic service in the fixed Fehmarn-Belt link.

3.2. Tourism

Tourism and mobility are closely linked. This is because tourism is a service that requires the mobility of clients/customers to create the touristic "product." Tourists have to travel to

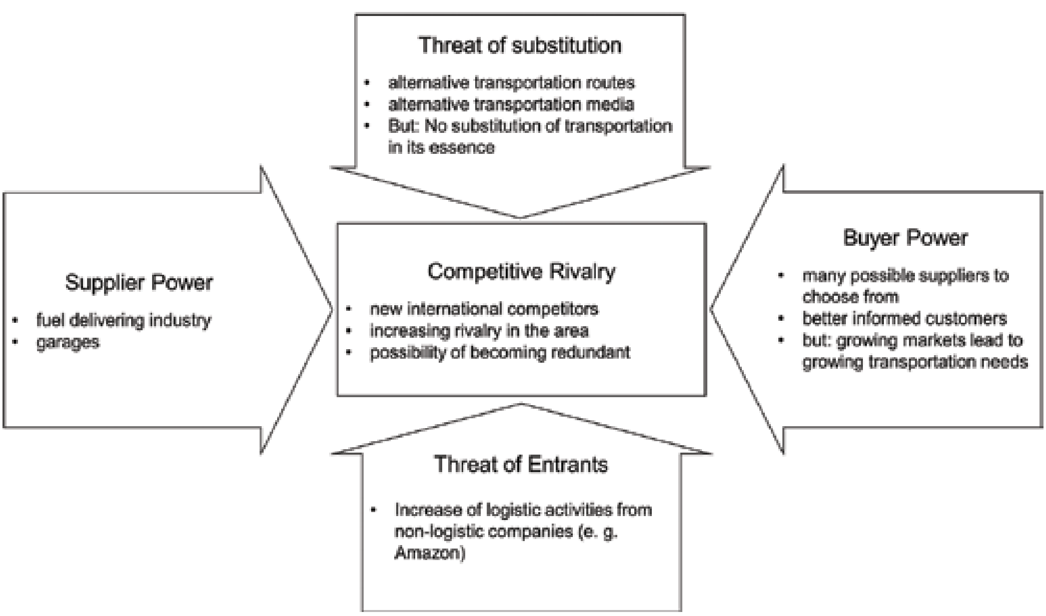

Figure 2. Porter's Five Forces applied on logistics in the Fehmarn-Belt Area.

the destination and avail of the touristic service for instance by sleeping in a hotel, cycling in the region, or dining in a restaurant. By doing so, the touristic service can be performed (*uno-actu principle*).

For destinations, it is mission and challenge alike to create touristic space. It forms part of the presentation of the region. The valorization of space for tourists is also regarded as a form of production of space. Destination marketing organizations attempt to attract the interest and catch the eye of the tourist: information offers before the journey (website, flyer, and pictures in google maps), information about sites to be seen, places to cater to one's needs, and special insider tips are staged and promoted. Urry and Larsen [5] therefore coined the term "the touristic gaze." In managing that touristic view of the region, the two driving forces, digitization and spatial development mentioned above, have impacts on the work of destination marketing organizations in the Fehmarn-Belt region. To analyze the potential effects the planned link across the Baltic Sea will have, Porter's Five Forces analysis [6] will be applied in the following paragraphs on the touristic sector in the region. How will the intensity of rivalry between competitors be affected? What are the threats of new entrants due to the changes in the region? What are possible substitutes for the touristic product in the region? How will the power of the buyers change? What are the possible changes in the touristic supply of the market?

Regarding *industry rivalry*, the new connection offers access for international competitors. This might increase rivalry in the area. Likewise, it creates opportunities for cross-border cooperation.[2] New partnerships of Baltic Sea regions in Denmark and Germany might form new marketing cooperation to offer new touristic products or bundles (for instance, forming an itinerary to highlight lesser-known Viking sites with the same history in the Baltic Sea area).

As this is a chance for cooperation on the one hand, it poses a *threat of new entrants* to the market on the other hand. Touristic regions in Denmark and southern Sweden that so far have been a 'long haul destination' will be closely linked to Germany's East Coast. Baltic Sea tourists have easy access to these destinations. Incoming agencies from Scandinavia might like to attract day-trippers from the German side of the tunnel and vice versa. Suppliers of restaurants and hotels from Scandinavia might like to sell the product to the German food and hotel industry and vice versa, due to an easier connection via the tunnel.

Touristic carriers such as ferries and cruise ships will especially face the *threat of substitutes*. All the new options for cross-border carriers that use the fixed link, such as buses and taxis, are new entrants to the touristic carrier market.

Regarding the better reachability of Denmark and southern Sweden, it is likely that potential tourists of the German Baltic Sea region will start to compare prices for their holiday with these alternatives as well. The quick link to Scandinavia makes traveling more comfortable and the decision to do so much easier. Besides, taking their own car through the tunnel

[2] Göttel [7] examined how and why cross-border cooperation in borderland destinations could be a way to intensify competition and development of the border destinations. One of the key findings of her literature review was that building trust is a critical success factor for corporations [7, p. 69]. Further aspects for successful cooperation were communication, mutual learning routines, inter-organizational learning, exchange of knowledge and successful conflict management [7, p. 71].

increases mobility for tourists in the travel destination. The *bargaining power of customers* increases. Day trips from and to Scandinavia are easy to arrange using the tunnel. Buying power might shift between these regions.

The *bargaining power of suppliers* can be viewed from different perspectives in the tourism industry. Suppliers can be seen as food and material suppliers for touristic core services such as hotels or restaurants. They might expand their clients to hotels and restaurants on the other side of the tunnel, increase their existing portfolio, and supply more or different clients. Broadening the concept of suppliers to the carriers, we might then speak of the same suppliers, which the logistic branch is dealing with (see Section **3.1**). These are for instance the fuel delivering industry facilitating travel, the garages alongside the new transport axis ensuring repair services, as well as further services such as car washes (**Figure 3**).

3.3. Deduction of competences

New competences are required to manage tourism and logistics in the region. On the basis of the fixed link, tourists and companies have easier access to the new markets. Due to touristic actions (day trips and entire holidays) and new business relations between firms, buying power that would have stayed in the region could move across the border.

In this sense, growing mobility is understood both as an opportunity and as a threat. The intensified competition and (among other things in the course of digitization) more enlightened customers require actors to be thoroughly prepared for the new challenges.

For both the tourism sector and the logistics sector (for which mobility is a key factor), specific competences in need of development can be derived.

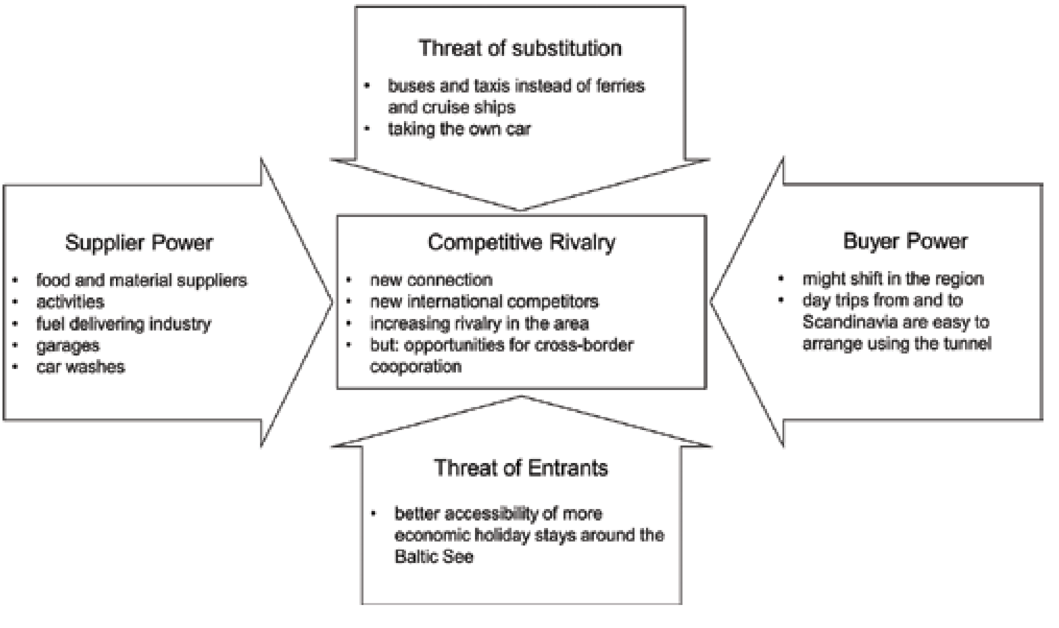

Figure 3. Porter's Five Forces applied to the tourism sector in the Fehmarn-Belt Area.

In a classical sense, educational institutions, such as universities, first assume the function of knowledge transfer. Thus, it is necessary to make *market knowledge and market competences* accessible to economic actors. It is therefore all the more important to have a sound knowledge of trade and traffic flows, economic and social policy, and the legal framework, especially as a result of the clearly no longer delimited economic boundaries. The knowledge of the macroeconomic environment has put the players in a position to critically develop, implement, and evaluate company strategies.

Another essential element is the ability to *work and cooperate internationally*. Numerous nations would participate in the newly emerging or strengthened markets by means of a Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link, which particularly in industries such as logistics and tourism requires appropriate competences.

To achieve this, *intercultural competencies* are of the essence. Even in seemingly comparatively homogeneous spaces such as the Fehmarn-Belt region, there are clear cultural differences that affect business life and can be a key factor in determining the success or failure of economic relations.

In a fundamental sense, *language skills* are also necessary. In addition to English as a lingua franca, the importance of German and Scandinavian languages is obvious. Due to the numerous customer relationships among the industries under investigation, it is clear that profound knowledge is indispensable here.

Another important aspect is *networking skills*. This is true in both digital and analogue respects. While the importance of communication will not decline on a personal level, an additional intensification of digital networks will be indispensable. Accordingly, economic actors must be prepared to use them sensibly and avail trends.

In this context, *digital literacy* is also to be mentioned. Today, it is impossible to imagine working without information technology in everyday life. However, since the use of the resulting possibilities is always limited by the human factor, competence development in this area is highly promising in order to gain competitive advantages.

In general, in the face of increasing complexity and growing interdependencies, the training and honing of *critical and analytical thinking* are indispensable. As stated above, it is still the human being that—regardless of digital possibilities and developments—defines basic goals and strategies.

In summary, it can be said that education institutions in the future will still be concerned with the transfer of knowledge, but more and more specific competencies and skills will come to the fore. It is only in this way that it is possible to master the challenges arising from new (physical or digital) spaces.

4. Discussion of the results

On the one hand, the previous section have shown influencing developments, digitally and spatially. On the other hand, Porter's Five Forces have been used to analyze the threats and potentials of the new mobility of commodities and tourists in the area.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70428

To sum up, the lack of digital culture and training is the biggest challenge companies are facing regarding digitization. Literature has shown that cross-border cooperation in borderland destinations could be a way to intensify competition and development of the border destinations. Mutual learning routines, interorganizational learning, and the exchange of knowledge are key factors for prosperous companies and their cross-border cooperation [7, pp. 69–71].

Thus, the task for educational institutions is clearly set out: build these much-needed competences (see Section **3.3**) in a timely fashion, so that future employees, especially in the above-mentioned areas of logistics and tourism, are well prepared for managing companies in the region. How can higher educational institutions contribute to that task? What do they have to do to qualify and train future graduates in this specific area? Which modules will lead to the desired profile of the alumni? Which courses need to be created, developed, and reviewed?

The following paragraphs suggest a couple of specific modules and skill sets that the future managers along the Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link Area are likely to need in the areas of logistics and tourism. Apart from modules regarding the economic sector of logistics and/or tourism itself, this field requires advanced knowledge of economic and social policy in Northern Europe and about flows of trade and traffic in Scandinavia and Europe. International Marketing Management with a focus on the Baltic Sea markets rounds off these hard skills for 'Nordic' managers.

Equally, soft skills are mandatory in intercultural management, conflict management, project management, presentations, and negotiations. Furthermore, language skills are required in the Scandinavian languages, German and English.

To practice intercultural learning routines, interorganizational learning and the exchange of knowledge (see above), web- or cloud-based learning might be a fitting way to build up digital literacy, exchange knowledge, document (organizational) learning processes (*e-portfolio*), and practice and elaborate the use of technology such as advanced web conference systems, for instance, Adobe Connect. Learning online in a cross-border cooperation, with students from foreign universities in the Baltic Sea area, is the harbinger of the future cross-border market that will emerge in the Fehmarn Belt Fixed Link Area.

At first glance, it might have appeared paradoxical that an online course offer—independent of place and time—can create a new space. However, it becomes more understandable on a closer inspection. An exchange of modules with other universities in the specialization *tourism* and *logistics* could be made possible precisely by digitizing the modules. In the online or blended learning format, the students of the participating universities (e.g. from Sweden, Denmark, and Germany) are in a mutual learning process; they exchange knowledge and learn something about themselves and about each other; and they work together on case studies and research projects. In addition to intercultural, social, and media competences, the students build up a personal contact network they have learned to cooperate and will do this later in their professional international context. That means the real mobility via the Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link follows the digital interlinking.

4.1. Critique of methodology

In this article, the industry structure analysis is used to paint a picture of future competences in the new emerging market of the Fehmarn Belt Fixed Link Area. So the competences listed in this article (see Section **3.3**) were deduced from this analysis, theories of spatial development, and trends in digitization.

To verify/falsify and thereby clarify the suggested profiles of future managers in the areas of logistics and tourism in the future Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link region, deeper analysis is required. For instance, job advertisements for companies in the area could be analyzed to survey required competences quantitatively. Managers of companies in the region could be interviewed qualitatively about their view as experts who already conduct business in the area before the fixed link is build. What are their expectations, concerns, and ideas for future development of their company regarding the change caused by the fixed link? Coming from this analytic point of view, this article offers opportunities for further investigation.

4.2. Recommendations for action

This present research has examined which portfolios of spatial- and content-related courses and modules are necessary for shaping these future competences in the area.

Reasonable further steps for universities interested in creating a cross-border study program could be the formation of the network to foster cross-border collaboration and share and refine the portfolio of modules together. An exchange of modules with other universities in the specialization areas of tourism, knowledge management, and logistics could be made possible, precisely by digitizing the modules. A resulting challenge for higher educational institutions will be finding the right higher education partner for cooperation and coproduction of intercultural and mutually creditable modules and curricula.[3]

As the potential network of universities needs to address international target groups and prospective international students, their joined forces approach of cross-border cooperation might have positive effects on marketing and offers like this. Therefore, it is an example for cross-border cooperation itself. Another target group is the employers in the area. They need to be informed about the new educational offers and the advantages digitalized learning formats have for intercultural training and education in the economic area of the Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link.

Overall, this current research has provided some ideas on which portfolios of spatial- and content-related courses and modules are necessary for shaping future competences in the area. The suggestions are based on theoretical approaches to spatial development, trends in digitization, and an industry structure analysis (Porter's Five Forces) for two economic sectors largely affected by the fixed link across the Baltic Sea. In creating a cross-border online study program, sharing modules, and refining them together, universities might be able to build up the competences now that future managers in the area will need when the Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link opens up.

[3] To start a course offer based on the ideas discussed above in a pragmatic, hands-on way of doing, in a first step, modules from the specializations Nordic Management, Tourism, and Logistics from the West Coast University of Applied Sciences in Heide, Germany, for instance, could be made available for an international target group. They could be shared, translated, and refined together as online courses with other universities in the context of this emerging economic area of the planned Fehmarn-Belt Fixed Link.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70428

Author details

Lars Rettig* and Morten Friedrichsen

*Address all correspondence to: rettig@fh-westkueste.de

West Coast University of Applied Sciences, Heide, Germany

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Chapter 13

Energy-Efficient Architecture and Sustainable Urban Tourism: Context, Challenges and Solution

Ksenija (Née Jovović) Štahan

Additional information is available at the end of the chapter

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.72385

Abstract

Urban tourism, as well as tourism in general, offers great economic opportunities, while at the same time, it increases the destination's vulnerability to overcrowding and uncontrolled growth. Tourism can and should support sustainable urban development. Sustainable urban tourism and energy efficient architecture are interdependent. Increased stakeholder participation, regional cooperation, sustainable urban mobility, supporting environmental and social innovation, preventing negative social issues, resource efficiency and environmentally acceptable waste management, followed by sustainable hospitality industry architecture, are key drivers for sustainable urban tourism success. Energy-efficient architecture in sustainable urban tourism requires application of energy-efficient concepts, elements and systems. Although considerable effort has been put into raising awareness about the necessity of sustainable urban tourism development, numerous examples of "greenwashing" effect have been detected.

Keywords: sustainability, urban tourism, city tourism, sustainable urban tourism, energy-efficiency, architecture, urban architecture, energy-efficient architecture, green building

1. Introduction

Negative effects of human activities to the environment are visible almost on the entire planet.

The tourism sector accounts for an increasingly large share of the global economy. Growth of tourism makes the destination, as the basic resource, more vulnerable. The share of tourism sector's energy consumption is growing significantly on a daily basis. The analyses of global tourism growth indicate increasing growth of urban tourism.

A massive influx of tourists into the cities poses considerable challenges, including the preservation of cultural resources and the built environment, the sustainability of social interaction between local citizens and tourists, waste management, increased energy consumption and other.

2. Urban tourism and sustainability

Sustainable development is a 'sine qua non' for building a sustainable future. Preservation and protection of natural, cultural and social resources are an unconditional necessity to us and future generations. Unfortunately, despite all the strategies, scientific and research activities, the increasingly frequent statements made by experts and quite homogeneous position of profession (economists, sociologists, architects and urban planners), we are still witnessing tourism development mainly going in the wrong direction towards the unsustainable mass tourism. Mass tourism strongly affects the recourses it is dependent on, ruining its own existence like cutting off the branch one is standing on.

European Travel Commission (ETC) authors of Global Development Tourism Analysis [1] point out that urban tourism is a constantly growing segment. Urban centres have become tourist destinations. In that respect, it is crucial to understand the specificity of the city in relation to other tourist destinations.

2.1. Urbanisation and urban tourism

Urbanisation has had important consequences for many aspects of social, political and economic life [2].

Urbanisation and, consequently, greater concentration of citizens as well as people in general (travellers, traders, residents of nearby places, etc.) enabled exchange of ideas, goods and objects, focusing on products of human creativity such as the literature and poetry, philosophy, architecture, art, craftsmanship, trade, law, administration and other achievements.

Since the archaeological evidence is fragmentary, we still cannot define the exact moment when the process of urbanisation started. Furthermore, there are different definitions of urban structures identified as cities. In the study of the ancient world, the city is generally defined as a large populated urban centre of commerce and administration with sanitation and sewerage system [3].

Bearing in mind the complexity of defining the term city, we can conclude that in this process the following factors should be considered: population (number and density), spatial structure and organisation, buildings (number, height, function and complexity), sewer and sanitation system and defence system (walls and/or fortifications).

Settlements preceded the development of cities and their establishment coincided with mankind's abandonment of nomadic living and beginning of organised dwelling in specific locations. Cities had most commonly developed at the intersection of ancient trade routes.

The origin of urbanisation can be traced to Sumer and Mesopotamia. The first Sumerian city was Eridu (present day Abu Shahrein, Iraq), founded in 5400 BCE. Uruk was the earliest city in Mesopotamia region dated around 4500 BCE and then Ur around 3800 BCE. Both Uruk and Ur were situated in proximity to the banks of the Euphrates River. After Sumer and Mesopotamia, urbanisation spread to Egypt. Some cities in ancient Egypt grew out of the agricultural developments and other settlements as a result of the state's need to organise its unifying political centres. While two most powerful city-states in ancient Greece were Athens and Sparta, other influential city-states were Corinth, Thebes, Argos, Delphi and Rhodos. The largest cities during the Roman Empire were Rome, Alexandria, Antioch, Carthage, Ephesus, Constantinople, Smyrna, Pergamon, Jerusalem and Leptis Magna.

For several millennia, cities appeared in more and more regions across the world, but the size of the largest cities did not substantially exceed 10,000 inhabitants.

This changed only from 1500 BC onwards when Thebes in Egypt might have exceeded 100,000 inhabitants and Babylon reached 200,000 inhabitants in 600 BC [4].

During the eighth and ninth century AD many cities in Europe, Asia and Middle East, such as Bagdad, reached population of several hundred thousand inhabitants. Water supply, waste management and sanitation were most important limiting factors for further development. Furthermore, the urbanisation level, also, depended on the quantity of food production and resources coming from peripheral areas, as well as the possibility of delivery to the city region.

After the decline of the Roman Empire, cities spread further across the world, but no region reached comparable urbanisation levels until the eighteenth century [5].

The proximity of trade routes, food sources and other vital resources has significantly contributed to the speed of urbanisation and city development, but they pale in comparison to the effect of the Industrial Revolution beginning in the second half of the eighteenth century in Great Britain.

Great Britain was the global leader of urbanisation happening all over the world at that time.

Industrial revolution has led to increased labour demand at particular location, and that was the primary driver of the fast-paced urbanisation. As a larger population could be sustained from farming the same amount of land, the number of people that could live in cities increased strongly [6].

London population continued to grow, and at the beginning of the nineteenth century, it reached 3 million inhabitants. In 1863, the first underground railway line was opened. Initially, it was operated on steam and then electrified from 1890 onwards. The underground lines with the horse-drawn omnibus were the first comprehensive urban mass transport system in the world. This resulted in further growth of the city and the number of inhabitants, which increased to 6.5 million in 1900.

By the turn of the twentieth century, steel frame construction structures were one of the most important technological innovations that contributed significantly to the transformation of city and city views. At that time, and for most of the past millennium, churches were always the peaks of city skylines. Their construction had a little weight and provided with none or small usable space. At the same time, the tallest office or residential buildings reached heights of only a few dozen metres. Steel-framed construction and reinforced concrete increased heights for residential and office buildings tenfold and exceeded 300 m. This building structure technological innovation contributed to increased population density.

In the first half of the twentieth century, labour-saving innovation slowed down the growth of employment in manufacturing. Jobs were created in the service sector and in knowledge-intensive professions. Although expected, the shift away from manufacturing did not entail de-urbanisation trends. The urbanisation continued and reasons for that can be found in the amenities that cities offer, such as various types of entertainment places (pub concert rooms, cinemas, theatres, restaurants and concert halls), better healthcare, education facilities and specialised shopping opportunities. Agglomeration effects ensured advantage for businesses located in cities.

New technological innovation played a crucial role in shaping post-industrial urbanisation: electric trolley line (1888, Richmond, Virginia), automobile (1890s European and North American cities) and construction of freeways or highways (1950s onward).

From the 1920s onwards, automobiles became more common due to lower prices made possible by Henry Ford's revolutionary assembly-line production techniques. The affordable automobile price, city trolley line network and high-quality sub-urban and inter-urban roads allowed the increase of distance between working and place of residence for the majority of the population.

It is important to emphasise that in 1800 only 3% of the world's population lived in cities. For example, the three largest cities in population size were Boston (18,230 citizens), Philadelphia (28,522 citizens) and New York (33,131 citizens) [7].

Since the 1800s, the process of urbanisation has moved rapidly in the entire world. In 1950, about two-third of the population worldwide lived in rural settlements and one-third in urban settlements [8].

Today, more than half of the world's population lives in urban areas, and the number of cities over 1 million stands at more than 400. By 2030, almost two-thirds of the world's population is projected to live in urban areas. The number of megacities (cities with populations over 10 million) rose from 3 in 1975 to 16 in 2000 and is expected to reach 27 by 2025 [9].

According to the Sustainable Urbanisation Policy Brief, urban centres currently occupy less than 5% of the world's landmass. Nevertheless, they account for around 70% of both global energy consumption and greenhouse gas emission [10].

2.2. Urban areas and environmental impact

According to Demographia World Urban Areas 13th Annual Edition 2017, a slight majority (51.4%) of the large urban area population lives in built-up urban areas between 4000 and 10,000 persons per square kilometre. Approximately one-quarter (0.9%: 40,000 and over; 4.8%: 20,000–40,000; 18.3%: 10,000–20,000) lives at higher densities and one-quarter (15.2%: 2000–4000; 9.4% under 2000) lives at lower urban area densities.

There are 37 megacities in the world (urban areas over 10 million population). A total of 84 urban areas are indicated with 5,000,000 or more population [11].

Urban population accounted for 34% in 1960 will continue to grow approximately 1.84% per year between 2015 and 2020, 1.63% per year between 2020 and 2025, and 1.44% per year between 2025 and 2030 [12].

The World Cities Report 2016, Urbanization and Development: Emerging Futures, projects that by 2030, the urban population of developing countries will double, while the area covered by cites could triple [13].

Such concentration of people and their activity creates increased demands on the environment. In order to reduce the effects of the urban areas to an ecologically acceptable level, planning and design processes should take into consideration the assessment of the ecological footprint and ecological deficit, urban heat islands, construction activities' impact, urban aerodynamic influence, the land use, traffic, **w**aste management, urban dust and air quality and clear water demand.

Ecological footprint is the sustainability indicator that measures the impact of the population on the planet. An urban "ecological footprint" is the total amount of the earth's surface needed to support a given city's level of resource consumption and absorption of its waste products [14].

The surface area that makes up a footprint is a sum of all land required to supply resources and absorb wastes, wherever that land may be on earth. Throughout history, areas with rich agricultural hinterlands have enabled the growth of cities. Nowadays, cities may draw on resources travelling great distances from where they are located. When urban areas use resources above their regeneration boundaries, an ecological deficit occurs. This situation can be improved with importing bio-capacity through trade or liquidating regional ecological assets.

Today, among first 20 built-up urban areas, with 500,000 and over population and with occupied land area from 11,875 to 3212 square kilometres, 11 cities are from the United States, 3 from Japan, 3 from China, 1 from Russia, 1 from Indonesia and 1 from Argentina. When we increase the number analysing the top 50 urban areas with occupied land from 11,875 to 1917 square miles, we have again United States on the 1st place with 22 cities, followed by China with 5 cities, Japan and Australia sharing the 3rd place with 3 cities and all other countries with 1 city. Those countries are Russia, Indonesia, Argentina, Brazil, Thailand, France, South Korea, Germany, South Africa, Mexico, Canada, US Puerto Rico, India, Malaysia, Nigeria and Egypt [15].

Above-mentioned data underline that the wealthier the cities are, the greater the ecological footprint they create.

Urban heat islands are built-up areas of higher temperature than those in the natural environment caused by increased sunlight absorption of materials with higher thermal capacity, such as asphalt and concrete, air pollution, air flow reduction, air humidity increase, etc. The density of population in cities is proportional to the intensity of the influence of thermal islands. High temperatures in urban areas during the warmer months of the year increase the need for electricity needed for cooling and air conditioning, which results in increased carbon dioxide production and other pollutants. Urban heat island effect raises the temperature by 1–3°C [16].

Construction activities, in course of the development life cycle, create impact during initial on-site work, throughout the construction and operational period up to final demolition. Potential impacts of construction activities are noise and vibration generation; atmospheric emissions; impacts to cultural resources; transport issues; solid, industrial and hazardous waste generation; potential impacts to workers' and public health and safety like earthmoving, large equipment transportation, the danger of potential accidents and incidents, geological hazard activation (earthquakes and landslides) by excavation, altering natural drainage patterns, etc.; soil alternation and other land use impacts; impact to paleontological resources, such as complete destruction of the resources if present in areas undergoing surface or excavation; water consumption and quality; flow alternation of surface and groundwater systems; increased energy consumption and dust generation.

Additional impacts include short-term increased transportation density; road and bridge modification due to shipments of heavy, oversized and hazardous loads; new roads or expansion of existing roads and parking area development; limited access to the urban area of significant interest to residents and tourists and potential urban visual identity deterioration.

The complex **aerodynamic** interaction within the built environment will continue to influence sustainable urban development significantly, today and in the future.

In the cities, the wind speeds are generally lower compared to those in the natural environment because of the buildings obstructing the airflow. This urban aerodynamics influences the temperature and evaporation processes and is therefore an important factor at the microclimatic level. High-rise buildings can cause complex streams of airflow, which often result in wind turbulence in some areas or concentric pollution due to impending airflow in other areas. "With the change in urban topology, an individual building immersed in a complex surrounding can experience different flow mechanisms, such as wake effects and channelling. These flow mechanisms depend on the shape, height and location of the surrounding structures, which alter with the city development." [17].

The **land used** for built-up area construction is a scarce, limited resource that is often used improperly and harshly. Urban form, urban development density and characteristics of land use in general, all undoubtedly strongly influence the urban environment. Low-density cities use significantly more energy compared to high-density cities. Changes such as of city shape, layout, size, residential density and location of city attractiveness could yield energy savings up to 150% [18].

The urban land use is interrelated with transport, CO_2 emissions, etc. It could be said that the city is an organism in which population density, transport organisation, both public and individual, air pollution and the health and safety of citizens interact with one another. Therefore, the organisation of life in the city and the possible problem resolution should take this into account.

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.72385

Traffic congestion decreases the quality of life in cities, consumes energy and increases environmental degradation. Excessive amount of land used for traffic circulation, inadequately functioning public transportation and lack of walkways and cycle paths, in addition to other poorly functioning solutions, can create pollution, problems with drainage, limited absorption and flooding. Urban concepts and design largely determine traffic solutions.

Waste management of household, industrial or commercial waste produces valuable raw materials, but also a major source of environmental pollution. Waste, resulting from an urban lifestyle and all other activities taking place in the city, should be at the centre of attention of local authorities and urban residents. Waste reduction, separation, recycling and reuse are feasible, low-cost alternatives to open incineration of solid waste commonly used in developing cities. Sustainable urban waste management strategies can result in multiple improvements of both climate and health. Anaerobic bio-solid digestion systems can produce gas composed of up to 70% methane, a fuel for cooking, heating or other power needs, making an added value in the form of alternative energy source.

Human activity, especially in more developed economies, is increasingly leading to endangered **air quality**, ozone depletion, increase of greenhouse gas emissions and reduction of positive effects of sunlight, especially during the colder days, generally changing dynamic processes in the atmosphere. Furthermore, indoor air pollution is of particular concern in developing cities, possibly contributing to respiratory infections and other serious human health conditions.

In addition to all these, there is the so-called **urban dust** phenomenon. The airborne dust particles in the cities are by-products of construction works, exhaust gases from buildings, street traffic, production and other processes. The particles cling to porous surfaces such as stone, brick or concrete.

Air pollution in cities can be reduced and combined solutions should be applied simultaneously. To improve air quality, the city administrations should be working actively on reducing traffic by promoting walking and cycling, eliminating polluting vehicles with limited access zones, issuing permits exclusively to developers and contractors of building planed and design according to the sustainable architecture principles, decreasing unnecessary road building and freeing up city surface capacity, as well as improving air quality and reclaiming space for public parks, pedestrians and cyclists. Additionally, the city administration should introduce incentives to retrofit polluting vehicles and green the city by maintaining and increasing green urban areas that could enhance air quality.

Unsustainable city lifestyle and conventional urban water management create increasing barriers for efficient management, faced by the city's administration and residents, of scarcer and less reliable water resources. To minimise environmental degradation, the sustainable city development plans and design integrate the urban water cycle, including storm water, groundwater and wastewater management and water supply. For example, very often dust, dirt and other solid waste go into drains with rainwater or other unregulated watercourses. By increasing the area of hard, impermeable surfaces in cities, appropriate and more efficient collection and drainage of rainwater are possible.

Sustainable water management develops effective storm water management options, provides effective water supply services for all at minimum impact on water resources and the environment at large, develops effective sanitation and waste management options and integrates urban water systems into ecological and other productive functions of water at city level [19].

2.3. Urban tourism and sustainability

Urban tourism has been present since the beginnings of Mesopotamia and Sumer. Old Romans travelled to Greek cities, especially to Alexandria and Athens. Cities were then the centres of music, art, literature, architecture and places of encounter of different cultures. In the Middle Ages, long trips were recorded when young aristocrats visited several European cities [20].

The most significant tourist trips to cities date back to the end of the nineteenth century. At the end of the 1970s, tourism has become an increasingly important part of the economy of European cities. Trends, statistical indicators of the number of overnight stays, tourist consumption and total tourist traffic in the first decade of the twenty-first century show that the share of urban tourism in the overall European economy is becoming more and more significant [21].

Urban tourism and its definitions are based on the city as a complex social and economic system as well as the city as the destination with many tourist attractions and valuable resources. The national conference on urban tourism (Rennes, 1988) concluded that urban tourism is a set of tourist resources or activities located in towns and cities and offered to visitors from elsewhere [22].

Many researchers attempted to define the term urban tourism, as Ashwoth [23], Law [24], Howie [25].

Considering the definitions of the aforementioned authors, it is possible to state that urban tourism is a multi-layered complex of activities arising as a consequence of many resource attractions in a town or a city.

Urban tourism has been developed especially in cities with open urban spaces, landscaped parks, unique urban and architectural design solutions, attractive material and intangible cultural heritage, efficient traffic solution, well-known universities and scientific research centres, concentration of well-equipped shops and shopping centres, restaurants with quality gastronomic offer and dynamic street life. Furthermore, urban tourism is well developed in cities that are the base of tourists who have recognised the entire region as a worthwhile tour destination. Some authors point out the attraction of the city as a tourist destination [26] or specific elements of urban tourism products, i.e. city tourism resources that determine the city’s attractiveness to its visitors [27].

The contents of the attractions are divided into three main groups: **I. ambience attractions** (climate, landscape, culture and hospitality); **II. material attractions** (cultural and historical heritage, architecture, city squares, streets, parks, fairs, exhibitions, business-congress centres, sanctuaries and sacred objects, etc.); **III. happenings** (permanent attractions, business, sports, religious, political gatherings and events, local festivals; events of special local and regional significance, etc.).

2.3.1. Challenges of urban tourism development

Urban tourism integrates with urban development. Urban development and the city are in constant interaction. The city as a tourist destination is a complex social and economic system. On architectural-urban level, the city is a dynamic structure subject to constant change and development.

Cities, where national cultural institutions, university and science centres, religious architecture, museums, galleries and other valuable buildings are located, are subject to the influence of an increasing number of tourists. This pressure on historic cities results in ever greater challenges for the city, population and city administration.

The main challenges are certainly the preservation of cultural resources; the built environment and social interaction of the local population and visitors.

UN Expert Group meeting on Sustainable Tourism in 2013, New York, emphasised the following challenges for the sustainability of EU tourism: (1) reducing the seasonality of demand; (2) addressing the impact of tourism transport; (3) improving the quality of tourism jobs; (4) maintaining and enhancing the community prosperity and quality of life, in the face of change; (5) minimising resource use and production of waste; (6) conserving and giving value to natural/cultural heritage; (7) making holidays available to all; (8) tourism as a tool in global sustainable development [28].

Additionally, research of urban tourism and sustainability should certainly consider the following challenges: increased energy demand and CO_2 emissions; pollution of air, water and land; noise pollution; potential increase of blight and crime; land value overvaluation and speculations; decreasing or excluding less profitable but still significant business for the local economy; overcrowding the city with increased number of visitors causing the phenomenon of automobile congestion; facilities, services and infrastructure pressure: place saturation; and uncontrolled growth of the tourism industry.

Overall, tourism growth is often faster than adoption of environmental friendly solution.

The lifestyle incoherence of city residents on one side and tourists on the other, in an unquenchable number of cases and examples, ends with sacrificing the needs of city residents.

Furthermore, another significant challenge is globalisation. Although an important development factor that creates opportunities such as access to knowledge, expansion of partnership, cross-fertilisation of cultures etc., globalisation also affects the intangible and tangible cultural heritage eminently.

And the last challenge, but not the least, would be the issue of tourism and urban tourism in many developing countries with no alternative. It might be said that their government and other shareholders are encouraging uncontrolled and rapid tourism growth as completely legitimate and appropriate way of creating jobs and foreign currency earnings for the rapidly growing unemployed working-age population.

2.3.2. Indicators and principles of sustainable urban tourism

At the beginning of the 1990s, more efforts were made to develop the sustainability indicators of economic and tourist development. Indicative systems for assessing and monitoring sustainability of tourism were created by international organisations, academic institutions and government agencies such as United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), European Environment Agency (EEA), Eurostat and Tourism SustainabilityGroup (TSG).

The UNWTO methodology consists of 12 key steps grouped into three levels (initial level, benchmark development and implementation level) with the aim to develop a system of tourism sustainability indicators for a particular destination, which may be applied to a particular tourist location, but also the region or country as a whole.

Special attention was paid to indicators relating to the following issues: tourism volume and value, including seasonality; employment in tourism; the development impact on the environment and communities; the conservation and valorisation of cultural heritage; solid waste management; visitor and resident satisfaction; other indicators (energy use, water use and pollution of air and water) [29].

Eurostat and the European Tourism Sustainability Group (TSG) have published their lists of tourism sustainability indicators in the mid-2000s. To a large extent, both lists rely on the European Environmental Agency's methodology (Drivers-Pressures-State-Impact-Responses).

In the conference on 'Responsible Tourism in Destination' held in 2002, Cape Town, a consensus was reached among most of the 208 representatives of all tourism sectors, coming from 20 countries resulting with a declaration. The main purpose of the declaration was to call upon country representatives, multilateral agencies, destination representatives and enterprises to develop similar practical guidelines and to encourage planning authorities, tourism businesses, tourists and local communities—to take responsibility for achieving sustainable tourism and to create better places for people to live in and for people to visit.

According to the conference participants, responsible tourism has the following characteristics: it minimises negative economic, environmental and social impacts; generates greater economic benefits for local people and enhances the well-being of host communities, improves working conditions and access to the industry; involves local people in decisions that affect their lives and life chances; makes positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage and to the maintenance of the world's diversity; provides more enjoyable experiences for tourists through more meaningful connections with local people and a greater understanding of local cultural, social and environmental issues; provides access for physically challenged people; and is culturally sensitive, engenders respect between tourists and hosts, and builds local pride and confidence.

The declaration guiding principles are as decided in three fundamental groups: guiding principles for economic responsibility; guiding principles for social responsibility and guiding principles for environmental responsibility. For detailed description, see [30].

In 2004, UNWTO defined the following baseline sustainable tourism indicators: local satisfaction with tourism; effects of tourism on communities; sustaining tourist satisfaction; tourism seasonality; economic benefits of tourism; energy management; water availability and conservation; drinking water quality; sewage treatment; solid waste management; development control and controlling use intensity [31].

In 2005, UNWTO and UNEP, in the publication 'Making Tourism More Sustainable: A Guide for Policy Makers' [32], presented the study results addressed to the development and the implementation of sustainable tourism policies, strategies and tools. The guide sets 12 aims for sustainable tourism: economic viability; local prosperity; employment quality; social equity; visitor fulfilment; local control; community well-being; cultural richness; physical integrity; biological diversity; resource efficiency and environmental purity.

EU's policies and measures in support of a quality urban environment are continuously evolving; therefore, additional policies and programmes are being developed. In 2010, the publication 'Making Our Cities Attractive and Sustainable' [33] defines the basic principles of sustainable city development as foundation for sustainable urban tourism development.

The above-mentioned principles, their basic groups and subgroups, are as follows: clean and healthy: safe water to drink, clean air to breathe, collection and disposal of solid waste, toxic free; green and pleasant: green urban areas, biodiversity-friendly, quiet places, respect for urban heritage, sustainable land use; efficient and sustainable: resource efficiency, energy efficiency, green mobility, local actions on climate change, technological innovations and green jobs; well-managed and democratic: integrated environmental management systems, green public procurement, participatory urban planning, assessing environmental impacts and tracking progress.

Urban development and urban tourism are in constant interaction. Sustainable development of cities simultaneously provides numerous solutions, but it also presents challenges for all stakeholders in the process, from government representatives to local people. Cities that are attractive tourist destinations unfortunately often get the negative consequences of irresponsible and unsustainable urban tourism. Urban tourism, on the one hand, offers the possibility of economic growth, while on the other hand, it shows the vulnerability of the destination, which is the result of over-excitation and excessive and unplanned growth.

Sustainable cities are those that have transport systems that enable rapid and efficient movement, provide a supply of clean and accessible water, provide quality health care and employment and provide friendly economic environments. In sustainable cities, waste management is solved in a way that protects the environment from pollution. Governing structures of the city and city institutions work predictably in predetermined terms. Sustainable cities have pre-established security measures and protection plans in case of natural disasters and major accidents.

Sustainable urban tourism is responsible tourism. Following the above-mentioned principles and indicators of sustainable urban tourism, it is possible to conclude that sustainable tourism and sustainable city can and should support each other's development.

3. Energy-efficient architecture in sustainable urban tourism

Architecture and spatial planning are important elements of urban tourism. Recognition of the existing architectural heritage and responsible planning and design of architecture and urban space according to the sustainable development principles contribute significantly to the development of sustainable urban tourism, as well as tourism in general.

Tourism is the fastest growing economic sector in the world [34], with urban tourism among the fastest growing segments [35].

Tourists are drawn to the cities attracted by the diversity on offer in cities worldwide. It is unquestionable that their arrivals contribute to the local economy making a strong socio-economic impact. All participants involved in tourism planning and development today should clearly be aware of the necessity to reduce the environmental impact.

This certainly applies to the architecture in tourism, since hospitality industry is among the largest polluters and resource consumers.

Sustainable urban planning and sustainable architecture are prerequisite to sustainable urban tourism development. All relevant stakeholders should consider the environmental, social and economic impacts, highlighting the conscientious use of resources especially the non-renewable energy and water, waste minimisation and application of energy-efficient systems and optimisation of technology solution.

Hotels, directly and indirectly, affect the environment. Energy, water and raw materials are consumed during construction, building use, maintenance, renewal and destruction. In addition, waste is generated and harmful substances are released into the atmosphere during those processes. These facts prompted the creation of standards and certification systems aimed to mitigate environmental impact in accordance to the principles of sustainable development.

In the 1990s, the first so-called green building was certified in the United States by the Building Research Establishment Environmental Assessment Method (BREEAM). In 2000, the US Green Building Council (USGBC) defined the certification criteria to improve energy efficiency and environmental protection and set up a Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED). Under the influence of BREEAM and LEED systems, other systems have been developed, tailored to national priorities and needs and some of them coming out as the usual framework of building practice and existing legislation, applying the principles of sustainable development and concepts such as building of nearly-zero energy use or passive-solar buildings.

Hotel certification systems were initiated with the aim to manage the hotel's environmental impacts, both globally and locally. Those systems were focused on: reduction of water and non-renewable energy consumption; environmentally sound waste management; protection and preservation of natural habitats; sustainable building and operational practices; responsible resource response with zero-waste strategies; effective damage and accident control at the construction site; self-sustainability with the utmost utilisation of renewable energy sources and passive solar systems; sustainability of all phases of the construction process; the use of environment-friendly materials; indoor air quality; promoting the concepts of sustainability among hotel guests, employees, suppliers and business partners with implementation of positive operational procedures; responsible attitude towards cultural heritage and biodiversity; partnerships with non-governmental organisations and the local community; socially responsible behaviour with the inclusion of community members.

Furthermore, the necessity for the high-quality hotel certification systems is the 'Greenwash' prevention. The most widespread and most common form of 'greenwash' is a hidden trade, lack of evidence, inaccuracy, irrelevance, inaccurate data on origin and content of recycled materials, possession of internationally recognised certificates, false labels on materials (such as, 'ecologically' on products containing pesticides and other toxins) and the alike.

In addition to the above-mentioned BREEAM and LEED systems, the following systems should be highlighted: Certified Passive House Building (by International Passive House Association [iPHA]), Deutsche Gesellschaft für Nachhaltiges Bauen (DGNB), Excellence in Design for Greater Efficiencies (EDGE), Energy Star, Green Building Evaluation Label (NR China) and nearly Zero Energy Hotel (neZEH, UK).

In 2016, the web site greenhotelworld.com announced the results of 'Certified Global Green-Hotel Density' research. The research was based on just over 130,000 hotels worldwide certified by a total of 50 hotel certification systems, in accordance with the standards set by the Global Sustainable Travel Council (GSTC). The established standards wanted to objectify green-hotel certification systems globally, as a support and incentive for sustainable tourism development. According to the research results, global density is 6.2%, while densities per continents are North America, 10.1%; South America, 2.7%; Europe, 6.1%; Oceania, 4.8%; Africa, 3.7% and Asia, 0.9%. Data show insufficient density of green hotels, both globally and regionally [36].

3.1. Energy-efficient concepts, elements and systems

In the past, climate adaptability was of fundamental importance to the planning and construction of traditional settlements. The vernacular and urban architecture often contain and still embody the extraordinary knowledge of local climatic and geographic potential for sustainable development. Much before Vitruvius wrote his work 'Ten Books of Architecture', builders were forced to optimise their life environment, organise the land and surroundings and design the interior space and external parts of the building. During the industrial revolution, in the mid-nineteenth century, architecture was less dependent on local energy sources, relying more and more on abundant—as it seemed—fossil fuels. Trends in architecture and urbanism too often continue to ignore environment-friendly and sustainable design principles.

Application of sustainable development strategies and sustainable design principles should enable the fulfilment of maximum human requirements with minimum environmental loads.

Hospitality industry facility architects' and urban planners' continuous task in designing processes is to incorporate the globally important fact that energy and raw material resource are limited, as well as the capacity of the ecosystem to absorb waste.

This important task is best achieved by pollution suppression and by implementation of energy-efficient concepts, elements and systems, and they are as follows:

3.1.1. Sustainable urban design

A sustainable urban design, spatial planning for sustainable tourism development, should promote the diversity of architectural solutions complementary to the activities of potential users, the diversity of green areas and the diversity of renewable energy sources, thus reducing dependence on one non-renewable resource.

Furthermore, building construction should consist of integrated systems, self-sufficient energy production and water supply, sustainable waste management and reduced raw-material use. Planning and design should contribute to the mitigation of climatic extremes and be harmonised with the bio-climatic and ecological principles or the principles of sustainable development.

3.1.2. Evaluation and site selection

Analysis of carrying capacity is crucial for assessing the location, site and land use of energy-efficient architecture and sustainable tourism development. The renovation and reconstruction of existing building will encourage the greatest savings of energy, materials, land and technical and social infrastructure.

3.1.3. Land-use planning

The land-use planning will ensure that users meet their vital needs in a sustainable way by reducing energy consumption and CO_2 emissions, reducing the use of environmentally unacceptable construction materials and more heavily relying on local resources. Pre-planning scheduled development process prevents irreparable damages.

3.1.4. Sustainable architectural design

The best project solution will come as a result of a well-organised design process, a carefully selected design team, a precisely defined end goal, a study of applicable principles and model testing.

3.1.5. Application of the principles of passive solar architecture

Appropriate location, selection of a site with good solar access, proper orientation with building's position towards solar gain during winter and limited western exposure in the summer, compact spatial concept, natural lighting, shading (natural and architectural), thermal mass, preheating, double envelope, well-dimensioned thermal insulation made of environment-friendly

http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.72385

materials, air permeability, natural ventilation, solar chimneys and solar walls and system optimisation are the basic principles of passive solar architecture.

3.1.6. Application of other energy-efficient concepts, elements and systems

This primarily refers to wind generators, biomass plants, photovoltaic solar systems, solar heating and hot water systems, split solar systems, heat pumps, active facades, energy-efficient building elements (structures, materials, building openings, thermal insulation and minimising thermal bridges) and energy-efficient Heating Ventilation and Air Conditioning (HVAC) system.

3.1.7. Sustainable waste management

Waste analysis is the foundation of any zero waste and nearly-zero waste programme. Sustainable design will respect the waste management hierarchy before the final disposal of potential residual waste.

3.1.8. Involvement of residents, guests and users

Responsible occupants' behaviour has a significant impact on the thermal balance and energy-efficiency, water consumption, as well as on waste management of the facility. These facts raise importance of informing and educating the hospitality industry participants, guests, visitors and employees on how technology and occupant behaviour can be integrated into realising the sustainable lifestyle.

The hospitality industry sector is energy intensively demanding. The use of renewable energy sources reduces operational costs, increases competitiveness and strengthens the green-building identity. In addition to reducing energy consumption from non-renewable sources, the application of the principles of energy-efficient architecture in tourism, such as energy-efficient concepts, elements and systems, brings many significant benefits such as reducing CO_2 emissions, improving guest comfort and reducing the possibility of the 'sick building syndrome'.

4. Conclusion

Tourism is the fastest growing economic sector in the world, with urban tourism among its fastest growing segments. It is crucial to understand the specificity of the city in relation to other tourist destinations. Urban tourism, undoubtedly, needs to preserve the resource that allows its existence according to the three pillars of sustainable development. Urban tourism can and should support sustainable urban development.

Urban tourism, on the one hand, offers the possibility of economic growth, while on the other hand, it exposes the vulnerability of the destination, which is the result of over-excitation and excessive and unplanned growth.

Sustainable urban planning and sustainable architecture are prerequisite to the sustainable urban tourism development.

Sustainable urban tourism and energy-efficient architecture are interdependent. All relevant stakeholders should take into account the environmental, social and economic impacts by highlighting the conscientious use of resources especially the non-renewable energy and water, waste minimisation and application of energy-efficient systems and optimisation of technology solution.

Green building certification programs (e.g. USGBC, LEED, BREEAM, etc.) promote costefficient and resource-saving framework as well as integration of sustainable development strategies during construction, use, maintenance, renewal and destruction of architecture in tourism. In addition, waste is generated and harmful substances are released into the atmosphere during those processes. These facts prompted the creation of standards and certification systems aimed to mitigate environmental impact in accordance to the principles of sustainable development.

The hospitality industry sector is energy intensively demanding. The use of renewable energy sources reduces operational costs, increases competitiveness and strengthens the green-building identity. In addition to reducing energy consumption from non-renewable sources, the application of the principles of energy-efficient architecture in tourism brings many significant benefits such as reduction of energy consumption, CO_2 emissions, improvement of guest comfort and reduction of the possibility for the occurrence of the 'sick building syndrome'.

Unfortunately, most hotels all around the world are energy in-efficient and have negative impact on the environment [37].

However, hotel companies' owners are reacting to positive ecological trends. Investing in sustainable architecture in tourism is often perceived as an obstacle to ambiguity about the ultimate goal. As Rincones notes [38], despite the usual assumption that initial investment is considerably higher for a sustainable, energy-efficient hotel, practice shows that if the holistic approach to a project that has integrated all the necessary strategies and principle into the planning stage, the total investment will be slightly increased, or in some examples (for the time being rare), zero-rise and even the reduction of the initial investment has been achieved.

Architecture in urban tourism, with its design and spatial solutions, is playing an important role for the identity and tourism development of a city. Although initially potentially higher, but certainly varying low-risk investments subjected to numerous external and internal factors will, in a relatively short period of time, result in faster revenue returns, lower costs, financial growth and positive cash flow.

Finally, and most importantly, consistent application of energy-efficient principles contributes significantly to the sustainability of urban tourism.

Author details

Ksenija (Née Jovović) Štahan

Address all correspondence to: ksenija.jovovic.stahan@gmail.com

Mind-Motion-Sustainability Association, Zagreb, Croatia

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Edited by Leszek Butowski

The notion of "mobilities," when looked at from a practical point of view, turns out to cover different kinds of human activity. It is not surprising, then, that when approached from an academic perspective, it reveals enormous potential for interdisciplinary research, which has proven extremely attractive to many scholars from different continents, disciplines, and schools of academic inquiry. The scholars in this volume focus on the specific aspects of mobilities, namely, tourism and travel behavior, but approach them from a plethora of positions. Such a myriad of perspectives is bound to be challenging in methodological terms, but it seems there is a growing agreement as to the worthiness of this interdisciplinary research. By means of combining various approaches, researchers obtain access to a fascinating and increasingly ubiquitous phenomenon of contemporary human mobility.

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ISBN 978-953-51-4036-8

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