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Destination dynamics

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Content

Foreword
Destination dynamics

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This ATLAS Review samples a collection of papers from the ATLAS yearly conference held at Aalborg University in Copenhagen in 2018. During the conference, participants were invited to reflect on tourism related subjects and issues under the heading of Destination Dynamics. With this theme, the organising committee wished to welcome participants to a dialogue about the places and people, which make up what we usually know as tourism. During the conference, participants were invited to explore tourism destinations and its dynamics as relational, intersectoral, collaborative, networked, hybrid, transnational and multiscale. The aim was to expand our ways of thinking about the relationships between tourism and communities, value (co-)creation, rural and urban development, entrepreneurship and innovation as well as quality of life – to name a few.

Copenhagen, the venue for the 2018 conference, is itself a clear reminder and example of how tourism and tourists play into the fabric and creation of touristified cities. As a bustling Nordic capital, Copenhagen is experiencing growing tourism numbers through a strong brand combining liveability, sustainability, food, design and diversity. It is a destination whose DMO, Wonderful Copenhagen, has declared war against “tourism as we know it” – at least in the newly launched and much-famed DMO strategy *Localhood*. It is also a city, where the term of overtourism is mentioned to an increasing degree and where seasonality is increasingly felt in many parts of the inner city. During the conference, participants got a first-hand look at how very different actors work together to develop tourism for the benefit of the destination, locals and tourist, and also got a chance to discuss challenges and inbuilt paradoxes ingrained in this ‘local’ tourism movement.

The first paper directly addresses a current destination challenge for many touristic locations. Clancy examines tourism’s role in the process of gentrification taking place in New York City and discusses more recent transformations of areas of the city not previously visited by tourists. This includes looking at tourist tastes, and consequent behaviours and interactions in the local communities, as well as resulting processes of overtourism and gentrification. As he shows, destination dynamics are in very direct ways affected by development processes resulting in transformations, and therefore seems a very relevant and timely discussion.

The next three papers pay particular attention to under-researched groups of travellers. Blichfeldt & d’Ambrosio focus on mancationing, which gives insights into a group of travellers, men in their thirties and forties, not extensively researched.

Thereby, they contribute to insights into sociality, togetherness and identity work in forms disrupting traditional travel units.

Cappelloni and Staffieri also address another under-researched group of travellers by focusing on behaviours, experiences, motivations and meanings of Italian motorcyclists. The authors pay particular attention to the slightly negative stigma of motoaggregation, suggesting a stereotypical vision of the motorcyclist as a rather one-dimensional character travelling in a very foreseeable way. This offers insights into a particular group of mototourism and suggests further development.

Lei and Li explores the impacts of online social networks on people's motivation to attend a booming outdoor music festival market in China. The study revealed mixed motivational factors of music festival goers' in China, and findings falls into three categories: Festival goers' online social networks behaviours; online social networks impacts on motivation to attend festival; and festival attending motivation. The study thereby supports previous research findings and the idea that people's motivation could be reinforced by participating in online social networks. It also gives further insights into online behaviour of young Chinese music festivalgoers, not previously addressed. With a focus on new groups of travellers, more in-depth knowledge of the different impacts of tourism on destinations and the communities in which they exist can be applied and utilized in balancing destinations and communities.

Likewise, Masuda suggests a new method for deepening knowledge of contemporary, highly individualized tourists by attempting to develop a filtering method for information associated with tourist needs, which are increasingly individualised and therefore new methods are needed. A survey was conducted at a national university in Japan that also has a sightseeing function at campus in order to validate the proposed method. Conclusively, directions of strategies are suggested in relation to classification and balance on marketing in tourism.

The remaining three papers share a focus on strategic visions for particular areas of tourism: strategic branding initiatives, community-based development, cultural tourism development. Fitzgibbon and Wright presents a case study investigating the feasibility of branding Cork as a food tourism destination in the light of fragmentation among the local tourism stakeholders. It was concluded that the possibility of creating a strong food tourism brand exists in the region but requires a more collective response and sufficient destination branding initiatives.

Huttasin presents an investigation of strategic management for community-based tourism development. Through a case study of an early destination development in Northern Thailand involving a Participatory Action Research (PAR) approach, villagers' capacity is strengthening sustainable development at the grass roots level. It is further argued that this can also facilitate an effective enhancement and empowerment of local residents to achieve economic, social, environmental, and political development.

Karakundakoglu and Thompson propose an initial idea to establish a Levantine History Museum in Izmir, Turkey. This idea is based on an intention to preserve and promote the Levantine history of Izmir which has been part of the city's history for over 400 years and to provide an educational facility in the shape of a museum. Importance is placed on the role of the Levantines in the multicultural expansion and development of Izmir, which could serve as grounds for increasing cultural tourism and thereby economic growth to the city of Izmir. Destination are highly dependent on strategic choices and visions to frame the dynamic development of tourism within a buzzling community not only serving a touristic purpose.

The papers in this review reflect the complexities of destination dynamics, which are only growing as overtourism, digitalisation, climate change and other future challenges continue to evolve on a global as well as local scale. They also show however how events such as the annual ATLAS conference offer good occasions to share concerns, learning and insight in research. Together, they display the fruitful outcome of some exciting days of sharing and co-creating new ways of understanding and engaging with destination dynamics.

Tourism, gentrification, and the struggle for New York City

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Introduction

In 2017 the term overtourism came into wide use, referring generally to the perception of too many tourists in a particular locale, bringing with them negative consequences that outweigh whatever benefits that may accrue. The term itself rose in conjunction with protests against tourists and tourism in many parts of the world, including Barcelona, Venice, Palma de Mallorca, San Sebastian, Dubrovnik, and Amsterdam. In August, 2017 then Secretary General of the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) Taleb Rifai went so far as to call the rise in anti-tourist sentiment is “a very serious situation that needs to be addressed in a serious way.”

Rifai is not alone in this assessment. Anti-tourist protests continued in 2018 and 2019 in a number of European cities. Academics have started to take up the issue of tourist pressures on local populations, particularly in urban environments (Cole & Payre, 2016; Colomb & Novy, 2017; Goodwin, 2017; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018; Wood, 2017). Meanwhile, policymakers, think tanks and consultants have started putting forth possible solutions to the problem (Francis, 2018; Postma & Schmuecker, 2017; Skift, 2017; WTTC, 2017). In September 2018 the UNWTO came out with its own analysis of overtourism. In a period where global tourism continues to boom – with a record 1.3 billion international tourist arrivals in 2017, projected to grow to 1.8 billion by 2030 and likely to be reached much sooner – the challenge of overtourism will be a long, not short-term problem.

Within the general phenomenon of overtourism, some argue tourism plays a significant role in the gentrification of areas, particularly in urban settings (Gotham, 2005; Gutiérrez, García-Palomares, Romanillos, & Salas-Olmedo, 2017; Pinkster & Boterman, 2017). This study will examine contemporary New York City in this context. New York presents a fascinating case for examining the role of tourism in gentrification. First, tourism has exploded in recent years. In 2018 some 65 million visitors came to New York, a doubling of visitors who had arrived in 1990. It’s total of 12.7 million overnight visitors in 2016 ranked 6th globally, behind Bangkok, London, Paris, Dubai, and Singapore, but well ahead of Barcelona, Berlin, Amsterdam, and Barcelona, all cities that have experienced anti-tourism sentiment due to perceived overtourism (Mastercard, 2017). Thus far New York has escaped significant backlash against tourists by residents (although there are some rumblings). Finally, New York, by all accounts, has experienced significant gentrification in recent years, and many long-term residents have been displaced.

The central question to be addressed here is whether tourism plays a role in the gentrification of New York, and if so, how? The remainder of the paper is broken into three sections. The first discusses trends in overtourism, especially in urban settings. The next section examines the theoretical literature on gentrification, including definitions of the term, debates over causes, including that of the relationship between tourism and gentrification. After that the paper turns to the New York case. It examines macro and micro-trends in gentrification and considers the role of tourism in that larger process. Finally, the conclusion discusses future directions as well as the larger implications of these preliminary findings.

Overtourism

Milano, Cheer and Novelli (2018) define overtourism as, “as the excessive growth of visitors leading to overcrowding in areas where residents suffer the consequences of temporary and seasonal tourism peaks, which have enforced permanent changes to their lifestyles, access to amenities and general well-being.” It is important to note that 1) overtourism is not new. History contains many instances of anti-tourist sentiment of various forms going back at least to the days of the Grand Tour. Moreover, the current manifestation of anti-tourist sentiment apparently splashed on the scene in 2017 with protests in several European cities, but as Novy and Columb (2017) point out, protests against the touristification of those cities were taking place as early as 2011 and perhaps even earlier. Additionally, 2) overtourism is primarily perceptual in nature. In other words, overtourism becomes manifest when there is significant *perception* among the local population that tourism has somehow become a problem. This means that absolute flows of visitors, or the ratio of tourists to locals, while important, are not necessarily determinant in giving rise to anti-tourist sentiment.

This isn’t to argue, however, that the volume of tourist flows doesn’t matter. Many sites of anti-tourism experienced rapid growth in arrivals just prior to the protests. Barcelona, for example, welcomed 11.27 million tourists in 2017, spending 30 million overnight stays, up from 4.6 million tourists and 13.9 million overnights in 2000 (Destination Barcelona, n.d.). The number of tourists to Amsterdam reached nearly 18 million in 2016, up some 60 percent from a decade prior (Zee, 2017). Much of the tourism growth in recent years has resulted from greater accessibility through access transport, but another issue associated with overtourism is the rapid spread of alternative accommodation, especially that of home sharing, exchanges, and short-term rentals (STRs). This has not only put pressure on the traditional accommodation sector; it has also helped spread tourism into more residential areas of cities and many allege it contributes to driving up overall residential housing costs. Airbnb, the STR company, has seen its total number of guest arrivals grow from six million in 2013 to 16 million a year later, to 100 million in 2017. In 2019, Airbnb’s public policy blog, *Airbnb Citizen*, reported seven million active listings in 191 countries. As short-term rentals from such sites has grown, many observers have claimed that rather they drive up housing costs for residents (Adamiak, 2018; K. Barron, Kung, & Proserpio, 2018; Blanco-Romero, Blazquez

Salom, & Cànoves, 2018; Brauckmann, 2017; Gurran & Phibbs, 2017; Gutiérrez et al., 2017; Wachsmuth, Chaney, Shilollo, & Basalaev-Binder, 2018). They do so in two ways. First, extra income derived from short-term rents among long-term renters or owners increases demand for such dwellings, thereby driving up rents. Second, many listings are effectively taken off the market and serve *only* as short-term rentals, thereby reducing supply for long-term renters. They are, in effect, commercial listings in that the property has the sole purpose of short-term rentals. Both of these claims will be dealt with in more detail below in the section on gentrification on tourism. Finally, as is noted above, short-term rentals allow for tourists to stay in areas of town away from central tourist centers. In fact, *Airbnb Citizen* reports that 79% of their guests choose Airbnb because "they want to live like a local." This also raises the issue of gentrification.

Gentrification and Tourism

Most trace the term gentrification to British urban sociologist Ruth Glass in 1964, referring to rapid economic, social, commercial, demographic and cultural transformation at the neighborhood level. Glass was referring to the working class sections of London, which, she argued, were being "invaded by the middle classes," resulting in displacement of previous residents along with more fundamental changes to the neighborhoods. Hackworth (2002: 815) offers a succinct definition that captures gentrification, referring to it as "the production of space for progressively more affluent users." Most scholars agree the process of gentrification contains at least three features: new investment in the area that changes the physical nature of the space in question; the influx of new, more affluent residents into an area; and the replacement of many existing businesses with new businesses that cater to those new residents. A difficult to measure and therefore highly contested fourth possible feature is population displacement, the removal of less affluent residents from the area as it becomes unaffordable (Anuta, 2017; Lees, 2000; Moskowitz, 2017; Slater, 2011; Zuk et al., 2015).

Although the literature on gentrification is too vast to detail here, several aspects are relevant to the issue at hand. One is the value judgement placed upon it. Some argue that the gentrification process is fundamentally destructive, in that it forces people from their homes and breaks up communities. Others see it as a force of regeneration and improvement of what are often dilapidated sections of the city. A second debate revolves around fundamental causes of the phenomenon, with the original lines of demarcation between supply and demand sides of the equation. In a useful review of the literature, Slater (2011) refers to this as the Smith-Ley debate. Supply siders, originating with Neal Smith (1979), see gentrification driven mainly by the needs and investment practices of capital, public-private partnerships, and public policy more generally. In contrast, David Ley's work emphasizes gentrifiers themselves, their aesthetic and consumption patterns, primarily in their demand for housing away from the vapid suburbs. (Ley, 1996). Slater and others point out that these two positions were always overstated and that ultimately a consensus has emerged that both supply and demand factors are crucial for understanding the phenomenon (Lees, 2000; Slater, 2011; Zuk et al., 2015).

Within this larger debate are sub-debates relating to the specific drivers of gentrification as well as its consequences. Lees (2000) reminds us that not all gentrification is the same, and she argues that much contemporary gentrification is driven by different forces and different groups than those that preceded it. Much of current gentrification in global cities such as New York and London have been driven by *super gentrifiers*, a combination of high finance and global one-percenters who, unlike the post-hippie of the 1970s, is barely tied to their new neighborhood (Bures & Cain, 2008; Florida, 2017). Similarly, Hackworth (2002) writes of corporatized gentrifiers, driven by Real Estate Investment Trusts (REITs), deep-pocketed corporate developers, sovereign wealth funds, and other new financial instruments leading a third wave of gentrification. In other cases and particular neighborhoods, gentrification is first led not by affluent whites but rather non-whites (Lees, 1996; Osman, 2011) and in some cases immigrants (Hwang, 2016). And of course government, wittingly or unwittingly, frequently initiates the gentrification process through public policy. This can be direct, through urban renewal projects, rezoning, and increasingly through the financing of entertainment and shopping districts, cultural venues and sports stadiums and arenas. It also may be less direct, however, such as deregulation of foreign investment, or providing investment in transportation or schools, each of which attract more affluent residents into neighborhoods (Zuk et al., 2015; Zukin, 2009). In short, gentrification is driven by a myriad of factors, many specific to the locale in question. The specific consequences of gentrification are likely to be similarly varied.

In that sense one might ask whether tourism can be a force that contributes to the gentrification of neighborhoods or larger areas, especially as tourism has become an increasingly important economic activity in cities over recent decades. Some scholars contend that it does, primarily through the touristification of neighborhoods. This changes the fundamental character of the neighborhoods and may lead to residential displacement. In some cases, this may be quite intentional. The redevelopment of Times Square in New York City, for instance, intentionally turned what was widely seen as a seedy and unattractive area into a shopping and entertainment district that today attracts millions of tourists annually. Gotham (2005) coined the term “tourism gentrification” in his study of the French Quarter in New Orleans. He traces the intentional repurposing of what was a middle-class residential neighborhood into the primary tourist hub of a city now heavily dependent on tourism. But gentrification may also be a byproduct of tourism development rather than a direct target, especially given the rapid growth of global tourism arrivals in general and the renewed dynamism of urban tourism specifically. It is also part of the continuous remaking of cities, especially in post-industrial areas of the world such as the United States and Europe. Cities that once served as foci of production subsequently became centers of consumption and entertainment, and public officials have now widely embraced tourism as an economic development tool as well as source of tax revenues (Ashworth & Page, 2011; Law, 1992). Inner city redevelopments in the United States in such places as the inner harbor in Baltimore, Faneuill Hall in Boston, South Street Seaport in New York, and Temple Bar in Dublin (to name just a few) were all planned redevelopment in the name of entertainment districts that include tourism.

Urban tourism continues to be a primary driver of the overall growth in tourism in recent years. Postma, *et al.* (2017) report that between 2007-14 the number of city trips increased by 82 percent and urban tourism now makes up more than one-fifth of the total holiday market. The literature on tourism and cities, in fact, mirrors much of the larger literature on gentrification. Some authors tend to emphasize supply factors such as the conscious targeting of tourism as an economic development tool for the city or region by public policy makers, especially in the aftermath of economic crises (Postma et al., 2017; Blanco-Romero et al., 2018; Gotham, 2005; Minoia, 2017; Novy & Colomb, 2017). Many use tourism as an instrument to attract capital (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Smith, 2005) and talent (Florida 2017). In contrast, others focus on tourist motivation as the main driver in the rise of urban tourism, pointing to the search for status recognition or part of a larger lifestyle aesthetic (Cohen, Duncan, & Thulemark, 2015; Duncan, 2012; Minoia, 2017).

Tourism may further the gentrification process in several ways. It may reshape commercial areas of neighborhoods where existing retail establishments that serve the local population are driven out by new businesses catering to tourists. In 2017 the city of Amsterdam prohibited the opening of new stores that cater primarily to tourists in the central section of the city in response to what has been called the “Disneyification” of the central city (Boztas, 2017). Similar outcries have come in other European cities where protesters argue touristification makes the city less livable (Novy & Colomb, 2017). Traditional residential areas may also be rezoned or repurposed for commercial use geared toward tourists. Tourism may also contribute to gentrification simply through raising the overall cost of living for local residents. This is most acute in housing but additional factors – property taxes, food, transportation, entertainment – may also be at play.

As noted above, central to the idea of gentrification is the incursion of new residents into a neighborhood, at the expense of often lower income residents. Increasingly those new residents are tourists. This is especially the case with the explosion of the short-term residential housing market associated with Airbnb and similar sites. In 2018 Barcelona has more than 9,000 licensed tourist apartments in the city but in 2016 the city also had 20,000 Airbnb listings among more than 16,000 hosts (Doggrell, 2018). As Cocola-Gant (2016) points out, the growth in short-term apartment rentals there began in the 1990s, first with singles and families renting out rooms and apartments and soon after hotels and real estate companies buying up whole apartment blocks and repurposing them as tourist apartments. Then Airbnb came to town, vastly accelerating the process.

The relevance of short-term rentals and tourism is at least twofold for the current discussion. First, they spread tourists into new parts of the city without any local planning. Any individual may join Airbnb or similar site and rent out their residential space. If enough residents do so and tourists respond, this brings more and more people into these neighborhoods. Second, many short-term rentals are not residences at all, but rather full-time short-term rental properties. This effectively takes these properties off the long-term market, thereby reducing demand and raising rents and sale prices (Gant, 2016).

Wachsmuth and Weisler (2018) provide a theoretical understanding of this process of short-term rentals leading to gentrification through resurrecting Smith's (1979) concept of the rent gap in the context of gentrification. This refers to the gap between the actual rents for properties and the *potential* economic returns that could be captured with investment in those properties. In the current context the relevant gap is between long-term rental income and short-term rental income. The greater the gap, the greater incentive exists for shifting long-term rentals into short-term ones. A secondary and related effect takes place as the *values* of these properties increases due to the ability to capture higher rents. Property prices therefore go up. Making the situation worse, rent gaps associated with short-term rentals do not require new additional capital investment. They constitute gentrification without capital investment.

Because this growth in short-term rentals has been so recent and so explosive, it is only now being addressed by scholars (Adamiak, 2018; K. Barron et al., 2018; Blanco-Romero et al., 2018; Boone, n.d.; Brauckmann, 2017; Dredge & Gyimóthy, 2017; Gant, 2016; Gurran & Phibbs, 2017; Gutiérrez et al., 2017). Meanwhile, much of the protest and response associated with tourism appears to be connected to resident perceptions that tourism is making their neighborhoods unaffordable. In Barcelona, Ada Colau won the mayoral election in 2015 on a leftist platform that focused on the housing crisis and its alleged links to short-term rentals. Subsequently, the city government froze the number of tourist apartments and cracked down on illegal apartments. Other cities, including Berlin, Amsterdam, Vancouver, San Francisco, and New York have followed suit in various forms. Some have imposed taxes in an effort to "even the playing field" with the traditional accommodation sector. Others have cracked down on so-called "ghost hotels," rental properties where in fact no one resided. Rather than sharing a home on a part-time basis, in other words, these properties are full-time short-term rentals. Airbnb has fought back in various ways, from localized publicity campaigns that emphasize how their hosts are merely supplementing their incomes, the pouring money into lobbying and grassroots campaigns against local ordinances.

Tourism and Gentrification in New York City

In 2019 New York City is booming in every sense. Economically the city has enjoyed a resurgence, first since the downturn of the 1970s and 1980s and then again after the September 11, 2001 attacks. The city remains the pre-eminent center of global finance. The real estate and entertainment industries (theatre, television, movie production) continue to thrive, and a newer high-tech sector has also expanded rapidly. The population of the city proper reached 8.6 million in 2018, up more than 5.5 percent since 2010, more than 16 percent since 1990, and reaching its highest total in more than 40 years (J. Barron, 2018). There are a million more jobs in New York today than there were two decades ago. Part of this dynamism also comes from tourism. A record 65.2 million visitors arrived in New York City in 2018 (NYC & Company, 2018). As Table 1 demonstrates, this figure is up some 30 million over two decades and now tourism accounts for the fourth largest source of employment in the city. Tourism, in fact, employs more people in the city than does finance or manufacturing (González-Rivera, 2018).

Table 1: Tourism Arrivals to New York City

Visitors to New York City (millions)								
Year	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2016	2017	2018
Leisure	23.1	29.4	35.8	39.1	46.2	47.9	49.8	51.4
Business	5.4	6.8	6.8	9.7	12.3	12.6	13	13.7
Total	28.5	36.2	42.6	48.8	58.5	60.5	62.8	65.2

Source: NYC & Company (2019)

The breakdown of the travel market to New York finds that roughly four in five visitors to New York are domestic, and the leisure sector also accounts for about 80 percent of the market. Still, some 13.1 million international visitors visited New York in 2017, making it the fifth most popular international destination in the world (NYC& Co., 2018). The global segment is also important in that in the past it accounted for as much as half of all tourism spending in the city. Destination management company NYC & Co. estimates overall tourists account for $43 billion in direct spending, $11.5 billion in tax revenues and more than 380,000 jobs in 2016. Estimates of direct and indirect spending are more than $67 billion.

As tourism demand has grown steadily, supply – particularly in accommodation – has also rapidly expanded. Despite this, hotel occupancy rates have remained over 80 percent every year since 2004 (NYC & Company, 2017). Data from Smith Travel Research (STR) show the number of hotels in the five boroughs of New York grew to 631 in 2017, accounting for more than 115,000 rooms. This is up from 357 hotels and 73,692 rooms a decade earlier. (New York City Department of City Planning, 2017). Although roughly two thirds of hotels and 83 percent of the rooms are found in Manhattan, much of the recent growth has taken place in outer boroughs, especially Brooklyn (see Table 2). A 2017 report prepared for the New York City Department of Planning found that no slowdown was in the works. It reported an additional 38,000 rooms in the supply pipeline, growth it referred to as "unprecedented" (*Ibid*: 5).

Table 2: New York City Hotel Stock, 2018

Borough	Hotels	% of total	Rooms	% of Total
Manhattan	421	66.7	95449	82.6
Bronx	20	3.1	1088	0.9
Brooklyn	64	10.1	5953	5.2
Queens	116	18.4	12264	10.6
Staten Island	10	1.6	778	0.7
Total	631		115532	

Source: NYC & Company (2018)

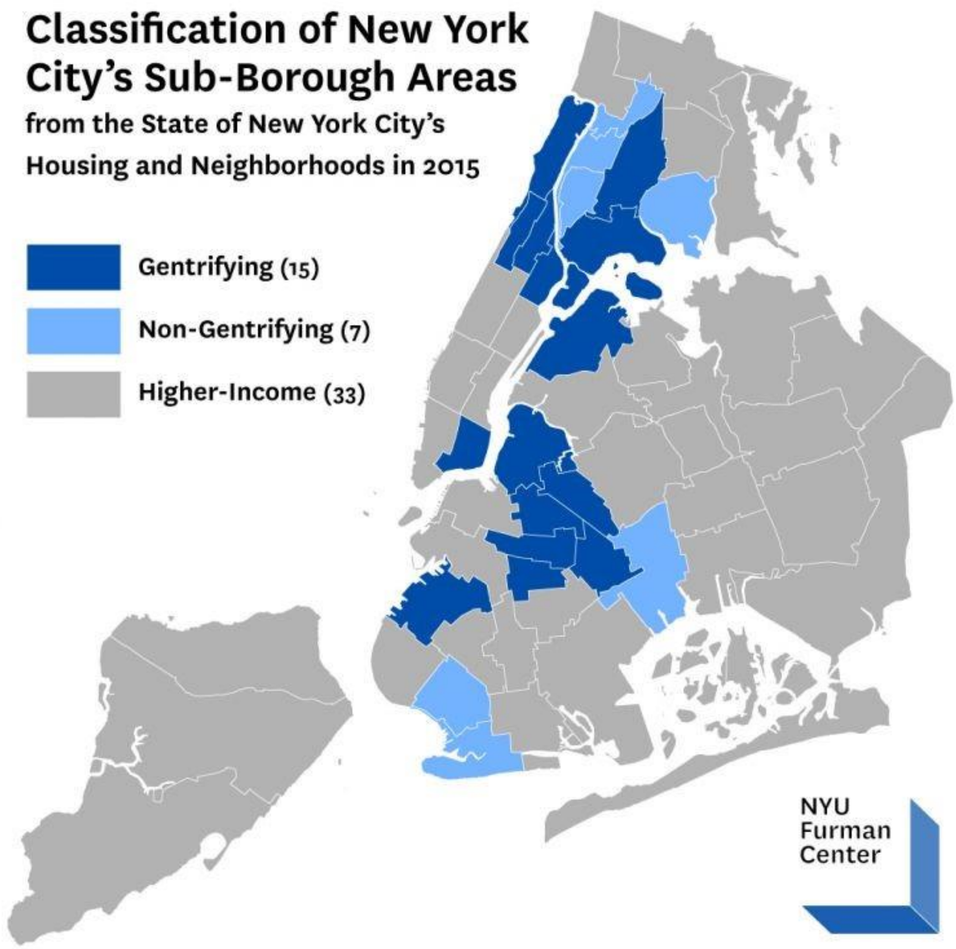
The fact that hotel growth and investment is taking place is, at one level, not surprising given the twin booms in tourism and real estate in New York City. A 2016 industry development report refers to New York and specifically Manhattan as the world's most active hotel investment market, outpacing London by some 40 percent. Hotel transactions peaked in 2015 with $6.6 billion in sales. This dynamism has been driven by a combination of private developers, real estate investment trusts (REITs) and off-shore investors (JLL, 2016). On the other hand, the building and sales boom has taken place during the exact years Airbnb and other short-term rentals experienced their own phenomenal growth. In 2010 New York City had just under 1100 Airbnb listings. By mid-2018 the total was 47,542, according to data gathered from Inside Airbnb, a short-term rental watchdog. According to press reports, listings in the city peaked at about 50,000, making New York the company's second or third largest market worldwide. Despite this growth in alternative accommodation, the New York City hotel market recorded an 87 percent occupancy rate in 2017, highest of any city in the country, and the average nightly room rate was $277 (NYC & Company 2017).

Within the Airbnb market in New York City, the distribution of listings is highly uneven. For example, although Inside Airbnb found 19,857 separate listings in Brooklyn in July, 2018 in 48 separate neighborhoods, just five of those neighborhoods – Bedford-Stuyvesant, Bushwick, Crown Heights, Greenpoint and Williamsburg – accounted for 12,654 or 63.7 percent of those listings. Similar results can be found in other neighborhoods. Among the 32 neighborhoods included in Manhattan, where there are some 21,473 listings, five of them – the East Village, Harlem, Hell's Kitchen, the Upper East Side and Upper West Side – account for 10,438 or 48.6 percent of all listings. Adding East Harlem, Chelsea and the Lower East Side brings that figure up to 14,998 or 69.8 percent.

Gentrifying New York

The expansion of New York City's economy has brought with it a process of gentrification across many city neighborhoods. In some, such as Soho, Greenwich Village, and Central Harlem, the seeds were planted very early, but the process has accelerated in many other areas of the city, in particular in the borough of Brooklyn. Because it is a dynamic process, measuring gentrification is challenging. In a 2016 report, the New York University Furman Center released a report on the state of gentrification in New York City, using two main measures: the increase in median rent growth in a neighborhood compared to the sub-borough average (SBA) between 1990-2014, and the median household income for neighborhoods. Their main interest is in the first, however, and from that they classify all 55 New York sub-boroughs or neighborhoods, into three categories: gentrifying, non-gentrifying, and higher income (Furman Center, 2016).

Figure 1: Neighborhood Gentrification in New York City



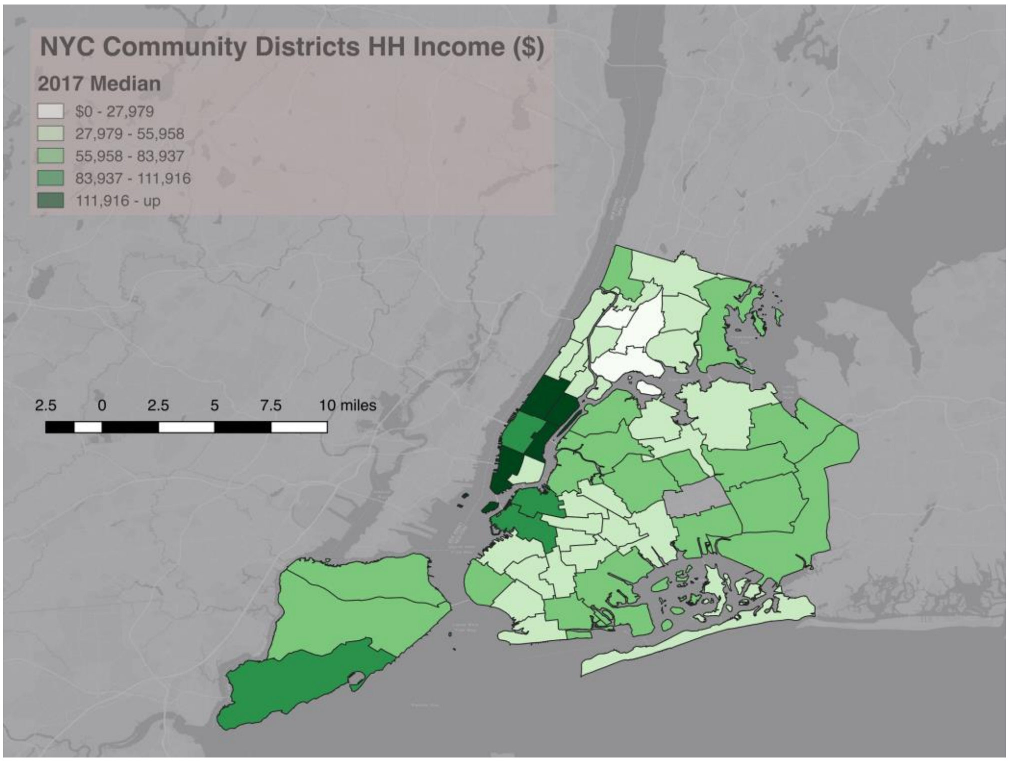
Source: NYU Furman Center (2016)

As Figure 1 shows, from this analysis of the 22 low-income neighborhoods in 1990 the authors identify 15 neighborhoods as gentrifying. Seven more are non-gentrifying and the remaining 33 are classified as already higher income. In other words, 48 of the 55 neighborhoods in the city are now classified as higher income or gentrifying. It comes as no surprise, then, that New York is perceived as increasingly unaffordable. During the period of 1990-2014, rents went up all over New York, on average of 22% in real terms. The problem has intensified since the global financial crisis. Since then the real median income of New Yorkers has increased only slightly more than five percent while real median rents grew by more than 18 percent. By 2017 the average New Yorker spent 31.7 percent of their income on rent (US Census data reported in Waters, 2018). Rent increases varied significantly across the city. During that longer period of 1990-2014, the 15 gentrifying neighborhoods experienced real median rent increases of 34.3 percent. But the list also fails to include neighborhoods that had previously begun the gentrification process – most notably Brooklyn Heights/Fort Green, Greenwich Village/Financial District, and Park Slope/Carroll Gardens – because by 1990 they already recorded a higher median household income than the New York City average. In other words their gentrification was already well under way. None the less, those three neighborhoods continued to experience rapid average rent increases, 53.2 percent, 61.2 percent, and 47.3 percent respectively from 1990-2014. By 2014 all three had median rents that were *more than double* the average for the city as a whole (Furman Center 2016).

Several additional measures of the gentrification process can be identified. One is the decline in rates of poverty over time as more affluent residents move into a neighborhood. Of course it could be the case that during economic expansion existing residents in a neighborhood are pulled out of poverty. The data are not conclusive but suggest this is not the case. According to the same Furman Center study, income growth across the three categories varied, with the 15 gentrifying neighborhoods seeing average income going from $51,400 in 1990 (in constant 2015 dollars) to $58,550. Meanwhile in non-gentrifying neighborhoods *and* already higher-income ones, average income over that time actually declined. Moreover, while the share of people living in poverty across the city actually *increased* during this period, from 19.4 percent of the population to 20.7 percent, the corresponding figure for gentrifying neighborhoods declined from 32.9 percent to 29.7% (*Ibid*).

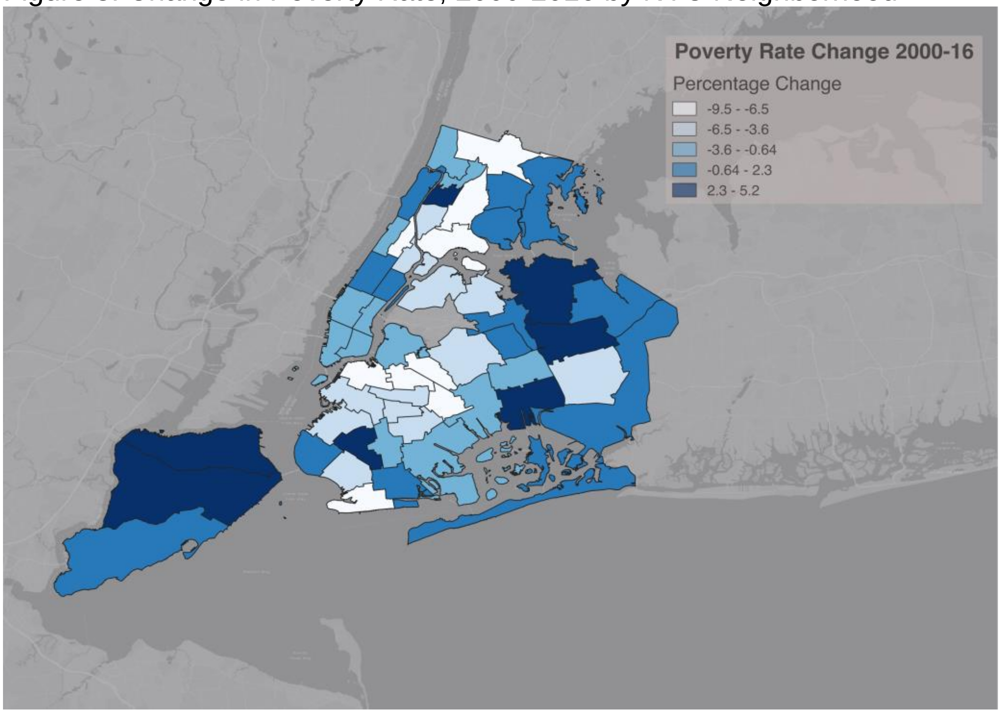
More recent data for several of these neighborhoods confirms the Furman Center finding. Between 2000-2016 the percentage of people living in poverty in Williamsburg/Greenpoint declined by 12.9 percent, the most significant drop among the 55 neighborhoods in the city. It was followed closely by Bushwick (9.47 percent decline), Central Harlem and Bedford/Stuyvesant (each 9.24 percent decline) (United States Census, American Community Survey, NYU Furman Center). Moreover, we know that there has been significant demographic change across these neighborhoods. Among the 15 gentrifiers identified in the 2016 Furman report, they disproportionately account for the overall decline in poverty as well as growth in household income. Figures 2 and 3 demonstrate this.

Figure 2: Average Household income by neighbourhood



Source: Author, using U.S. Census Data, reported in NYC Furman Center, Core Data 2018

Figure 3: Change in Poverty Rate, 2000-2016 by NYC Neighborhood



Source: Author, using U.S. Census Data, reported in NYU Furman Center Core Data 2018

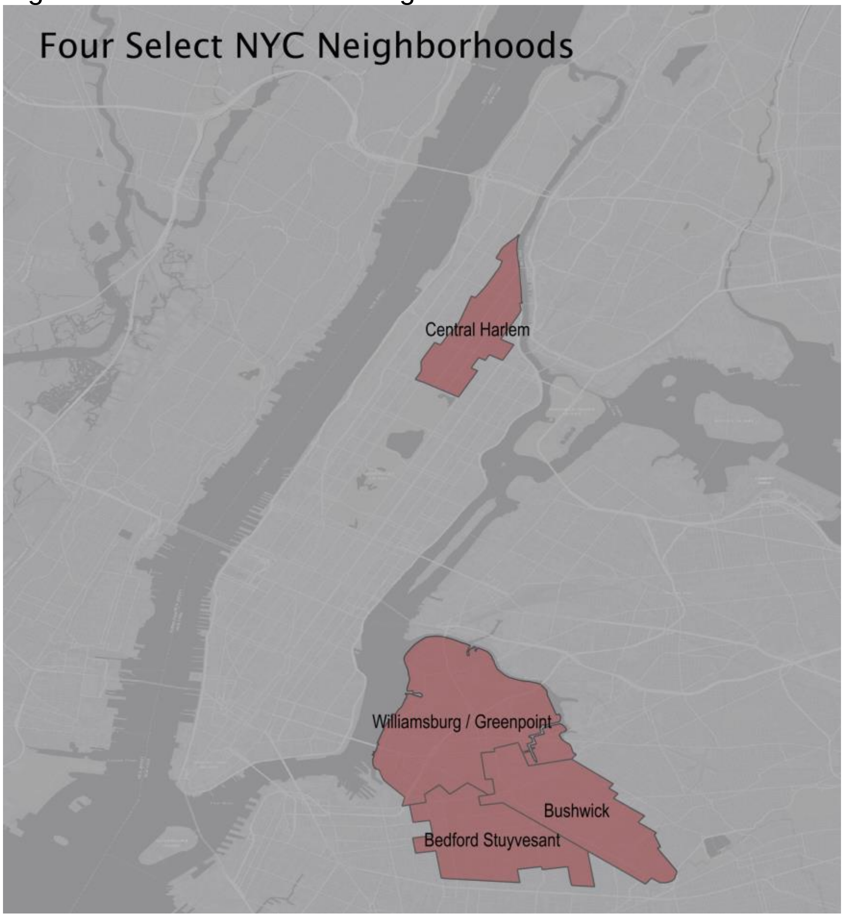
These same neighborhoods have also become whiter and more educated. New York as a whole saw its percentage of white population decline from 43.4 percent in 1990 to 32 percent in 2016. In the gentrifying neighborhoods, however, the share of white residents actually *increased* from 18.8 to 20.6 percent. In certain enclaves the change has been much starker. Bedford Stuyvesant, for example, a historically African American neighborhood in Brooklyn, went from a white population of just over two percent in 2000 to more than 24 percent in 2016. Another historically Black neighborhood, Brooklyn Heights/Fort Greene – which had already gentrified significantly before the year 2000 – saw its white population grow from 31 percent in 2000 to more than 48 percent in 2016. The overall population of the neighborhood increased by just one percent between 2000 and 2010, but the non-Hispanic white population grew by 35.5 percent during that period. At the same time the African-American population actually fell by 30.1 percent and the Hispanic population fell by 14.3 percent. This is strong evidence of displacement.

Similar patterns have taken place in education levels. The percentage of college educated residents in these areas also outpaced non-gentrifying neighborhoods in the city. Although the percentage of population aged 25 and older who had a college degree increase all over the city, from 21.5 to 33.6 percent, among the 15 gentrifying neighborhoods identified in the Furman report that percentage rose from 12.9 percent in 1990 to 28.5 percent in 2010-14. They also found that among recent movers into those neighborhoods, 42 percent had college degrees.

Micro-Study: Four Neighborhoods

This is all to suggest these neighborhoods have undergone significant demographic change that includes many newer residents. In order to provide a more detailed examination of economic, social and demographic change, this section examines four gentrifying neighborhoods in more detail: Williamsburg/Greenpoint, Bushwick and Bedford Stuyvesant in Brooklyn, and Central Harlem in Manhattan (See Figure 4). In many ways these neighborhoods are quite different from each other, but all have changed rapidly in recent years and are in the process of continued transformation. They were chosen because two of them – Harlem and Williamsburg/Greenpoint, began changing much earlier, in the 1990s, while the other two are on the forefront of current early gentrification. All but Williamsburg/Greenpoint are among the Furman Center's list of 15 gentrifying neighborhoods, but as was noted above, this is only because the neighborhood's transformation began earlier and today it is classified as a high-income neighborhood.

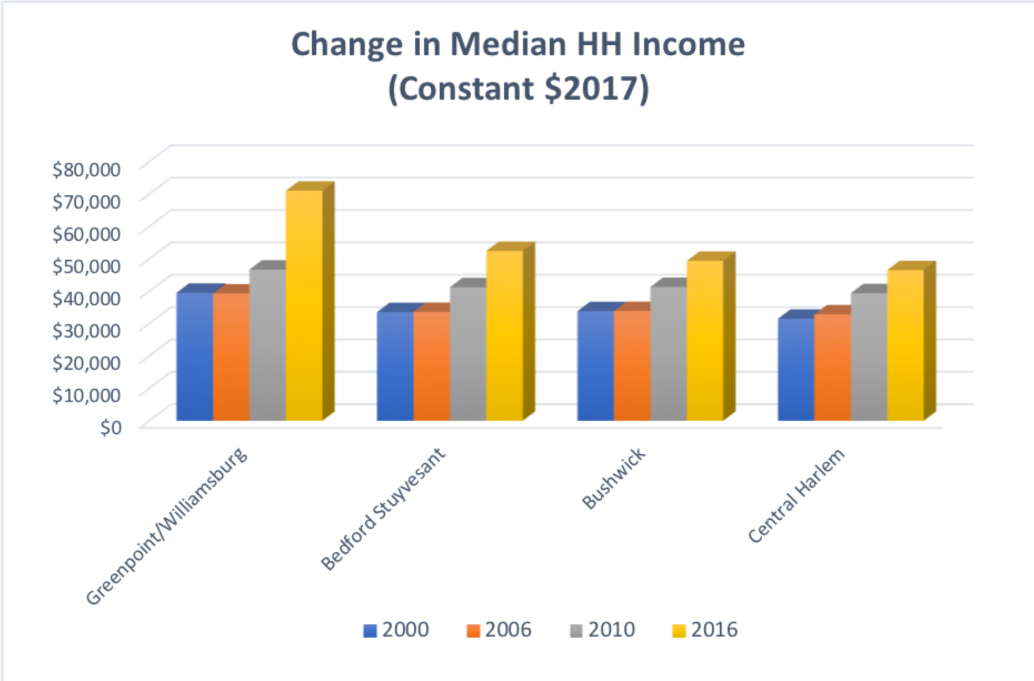
Figure 4: Four Select NYC Neighborhoods



Tables 3 through 7 provide comparable data on the four neighborhoods. Collectively they show that all four have seen a significant increase in median household income, declines in poverty rates, and higher levels of education. Over time they have become predominantly whiter and more affluent. During the same time housing costs have gone up considerably in all four. That said, the four also show considerable variation. Williamsburg/Greenpoint is really two separate neighborhoods. Williamsburg began the gentrification process decades ago when artists, musicians, actors and writers – many of them moving from then gentrifying neighborhoods in lower Manhattan such as Soho and Greenwich Village, started moving into the neighborhood. Prior the area was mainly home to working class Italians and Puerto Ricans and was highly industrial (or by that point post-industrial). By the early 1990s at least 2000 artists lived in lofts and small apartments in Williamsburg and soon galleries and other art spaces appeared (Zukin, 2009).

Today that neighborhood is barely recognizable. In 2017 median household income in the community district of Williamsburg/Greenpoint was 21 percent higher than the city average and among the highest in the borough of Brooklyn. The average asking rent was $3050 per month in 2016, compared to an average median paid rent of $999 in 2006. The median sale price of a condo, which averaged $382,900 in 2000, increased to $953,830 in 2017. More than 25 percent of the population had a household income of between $100,000-$250,000 during the 2010-14 period, almost double the figure in 2000 (Furman Center, 2018). These features actually mask the affluence of Williamsburg because neighboring Greenpoint is considerably less wealthy. Traditionally Greenpoint has been a working and middle-class enclave of Polish immigrants and subsequent generations, and only more recently has the gentrification process accelerated there. Overall the neighborhood is likely to become even more developed in the future. In 2005 the New York City Planning Commission rezoned 170 blocks in Williamsburg in order to encourage intensive upscale, high rise waterfront development that Zukin refers to contributing to the further “Manahattanization of Brooklyn (2009: 58).

Table 3: Four Neighborhoods: Changes in Household Income



Source: U.S. Census Data, reported in NYC Furman Center, Core Data

Table 4: Four Neighborhoods: Changes in Poverty Rates

Poverty Rate (%)					
Neighborhood	2000	2006	2010	2016	Change (%)
Greenpoint/Williamsburg	33.80%	35.20%	26.50%	20.90%	-12.9
Bedford Stuyvesant	35.90%	37.70%	30.70%	26.70%	-9.2
Bushwick	38.20%	32.90%	28.50%	28.70%	-9.5
Central Harlem	36.40%	28.70%	28.10%	27.20%	-9.2

Source: U.S. Census Data, reported in NYC Furman Center, Core Data

Table 5: Four Neighborhoods: Percentage of White Population

Percentage of Neighborhood Population White				
Neighborhood	2000	2006	2010	2016
Greenpoint/Williamsburg	52.50%	64.00%	60.70%	64.50%
Bedford-Stuyvesant	2.40%	10.40%	14.60%	26.20%
Bushwick	3.10%	4.10%	9.00%	17.50%
Central Harlem	2.10%	6.80%	11.80%	13.30%

Source: U.S. Census Data, reported in NYC Furman Center Core Data

Table 6: Four Neighborhoods: Higher Education

Percentage of Population aged 25 and older with higher education degree				
Neighborhood	2000	2006	2010	2016
Greenpoint/Williamsburg	18.40%	29.50%	37.30%	47.70%
Bedford Stuyvesant	10.60%	16.90%	23.00%	36.10%
Bushwick	6.90%	14.00%	16.60%	29.80%
Central Harlem	14.80%	25.60%	34.10%	37.00%

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, reported in NYC Furman Center, Core Data

Table 7: Four Neighborhoods Secondary Education

Percentage of Population aged 25 and older without a high school degree				
Neighborhood	2000	2006	2010	2016
Greenpoint/Williamsburg	--	32.70%	21.10%	16.70%
Bedford Stuyvesant	--	29.40%	23.60%	16.90%
Bushwick	--	44.60%	39.40%	26.10%
Central Harlem	--	26.30%	21.10%	16.80%

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, reported in NYC Furman Center, Core Data

Bushwick abuts Williamsburg/Greenpoint and over the past 10-15 years has become a young, hipster enclave. Historically industrial (it was the beer brewing capital of the Northeast US during much of the 19th Century), the area was inhabited by German, then Italian immigrants. After World War II many ethnic whites left the area and were replaced by African Americans and Caribbean Blacks. Later the area transitioned to primarily Puerto Rican and Dominican residents. After the 1960s and 1970s the neighborhood became de-industrialized, increasingly poor and crime ridden. It began the gentrification process late, with urban professionals and young people moving into the area beginning after the

Millennium. As late as the year 2000, only three percent of the neighborhood was made up of white residents. By 2015 that figure grew to 17.5 percent (Table 5). Now many real estate agents refer to Bushwick as “East Williamsburg” as a way to up-market the neighborhood. Today it has a growing number of restaurants, bars and coffeeshops, a thriving art scene, farmers markets and health food stores. Residential rents increased by 35 percent on average between 2010 and 2018 (Velsey, 2018).

Bedford-Stuyvesant borders both Williamsburg/Greenpoint and Bushwick, and in recent years has become a new front in the gentrification process. Historically the neighborhood has been both home to and a culturally significant area for a predominantly African-American community. At the same time it was long classified as a low-income neighborhood. Between 1970 and 1980 the overall population of the neighborhood fell from more than 200,000 to just over 130,000. Since then it has recovered. Among its attractions are lovely brownstone row house residences, proximity to subway lines and other attractive Brooklyn neighborhoods, a vibrant commercial area and perceived affordability. As late as the year 2000, 77 percent of the population was African-American, though the neighborhood was already changing. By then many more affluent African-American professionals moved into the neighborhood (Gregor, 2014). They were followed by non-African-American middle classes, many of whom had been priced out of other neighborhoods in the city. By 2010 the percentage of population that was white grew to 14 percent – up from just 2.4 percent in 2000 – and by 2016 the figure rose to 26 percent. Meanwhile many recent buyers of real estate in the area have been investors.

Harlem, even more than Bedford-Stuyvesant, has long been a center of African-American culture and society in New York City. The area was particularly vibrant in the early 20th Century when many African-Americans moved into the area, with many coming from elsewhere in New York, the American South and the Caribbean. By the 1920s Harlem was a hub of music, literature, art and cultural life in what became known as the Harlem Renaissance. After the Great Depression the neighborhood underwent economic decline and continued discrimination led to riots in 1935 and 1943. Later during the 1960s many Black activists used Harlem as a launchpad. The area experienced further economic decline in the 1970s and 1980s as part of the city’s overall struggle during this period. Prince (2005) argues against what she calls the conventional wisdom that the African-American middle class abandoned Harlem during this period and later returned. Instead she contends the common narrative of blight and recovery is more layered. What is clear is that gentrification there began fairly early. Between 1990 and 1995 the median household income in Central Harlem grew by 50 percent. A city, state, and federal government sponsored redevelopment plan (the Upper Manhattan Empowerment Zone) channeled $100 million into the larger area and helped transform many residential and commercial areas in Harlem, leading some (Little 2002) to refer to a “second Harlem Renaissance.” More recently non-African Americans have moved into the area in significant numbers, attracted by affordability and proximity. As late as 2000 only two percent of the population of Central Harlem was non-Hispanic White, but that figure grew to 11.8 in 2010 and 13.3 in 2016. During that same period the proportion of population that identifies as African American fell from 77 to 53 percent. Between 2000 and 2010 the White population grew by more than 400 percent in actual numbers of people while the corresponding number of African Americans saw a decline of almost 10,000 people, or 14 percent of its 2000 total. Today the main commercial street, 125th Street, is filled with chain stores. Former President Bill Clinton set up his post-presidency offices on the street in 2001. Later celebrity chef Marcus Samuelsson opened a restaurant nearby in 2010. Today the neighborhood continues to experience a building boom of apartments and commercial spaces.

By way of summary, the above discussion shows that all four neighborhoods have experienced profound socioeconomic and demographic change, but each has followed a unique path. Gentrification in Williamsburg/Greenpoint and Harlem started much earlier, and the neighborhoods have become transformed. Today it is not uncommon to find multimillion-dollar residential listings there. Bushwick and Bed/Stuy began the process much more recently.

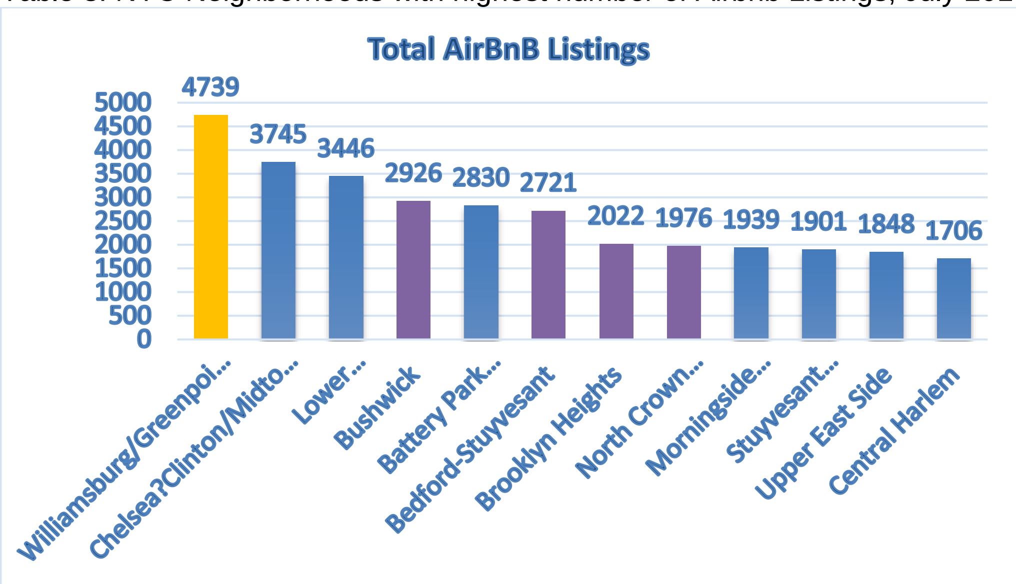
Tourism and Gentrification

That gentrification is taking place and accelerating in New York is hardly controversial. The question is whether –and how – tourism might be contributing to this process. Historically, tourism in New York City has been heavily concentrated in Manhattan. The vast majority of tourism infrastructure as well as sites and attractions are located in that borough. Meanwhile, tourism to the other boroughs has been secondary and sporadic. To be sure, various tourism attractions – The Bronx Zoo, Yankee Stadium and New York Botanical Gardens (also in the Bronx), the Brooklyn Museum and Brooklyn Botanic Gardens, Flushing Meadow in Queens (the site of the 1964-5 World's Fair and now home to baseball and tennis stadiums) – have drawn some tourists over the years but traditionally most tourism has flourished in the heart of the city, Manhattan. Over the past 20 years, however, this has gradually changed. In part this is due to the very gentrification noted above. Sections of the city that once held few attractions for tourists, and were often seen as unsafe, have become transformed. Downtown Brooklyn provides a useful example. Although calls and various plans for its redevelopment go back to at least the 1970s, rezoning in 2004 and again in 2012 led to a huge building boom that continues today. This includes business, residential, education and tourism. The number of hotels in the borough grew from 24 in 2010 to 64 in early 2017 (New York City Department of City Planning, 2017), with many more in the planning or construction phases. The growth in entertainment – arts, culture, restaurants, sporting events, clubs and bars – continues to draw locals and tourists alike. Part is also driven by larger changes in tourist tastes. Segments of urban tourists increasingly seek out arts districts and more textured "edgier" neighborhoods. In turn, investors and suppliers scamper to meet that demand.

Much of the redevelopment as a whole and tourism specifically in New York has been driven by rezoning by city planners, followed by massive investment by private developers, in some cases in public-private partnerships. In addition to being a central part of commercial redevelopment, many new hotels are being built in what are known as M-1 Districts, light manufacturing zones that have also allowed for automatic approval for hotel construction—that is, no need for a special permit. Between 2006-16 more than 40 percent of the new hotel rooms that came on-line outside of Manhattan were located in M-1 Districts (ibid). In addition to this factor, at least two other causes can be identified. One is the increased promotion of outer boroughs and non-traditional tourist neighborhoods by NYC & Co., the city's destination management organization. The otheris the rise and maturing of peer-to-peer short-term rentals such as Airbnb.

In order to gain a more detailed picture of this overall process we can examine the trajectory of the four neighborhoods highlighted above. What becomes evident is that tourism in these areas tracks the larger gentrification process. Although the city and NYC &Co. don't track tourism statistics at such a micro-level, we can get some sense of how this takes place. Of the four districts in question, the most gentrified, Williamsburg/Greenpoint, also appears to be the one where tourism is most prevalent. At the end of 2017 Williamsburg ranked third among neighborhoods outside of Manhattan in terms of planned hotels, after Long Island City in and Jamaica (adjacent to JFK International Airport). Since 2011 at least six major hotels have opened and several more –including several that are part of huge multi-use waterfront developments – are in the planning or building stage. One hotel developer specifically noted the "quirky" zoning status in the area as well as the desire to build in a gentrifying neighborhood when citing their choice of Williamsburg (Nonko, 2017). Neighboring Greenpoint, part of the same NYC Community District, is now also starting to see heightened development.

Table 8: NYC Neighborhoods with highest number of Airbnb Listings, July 2018

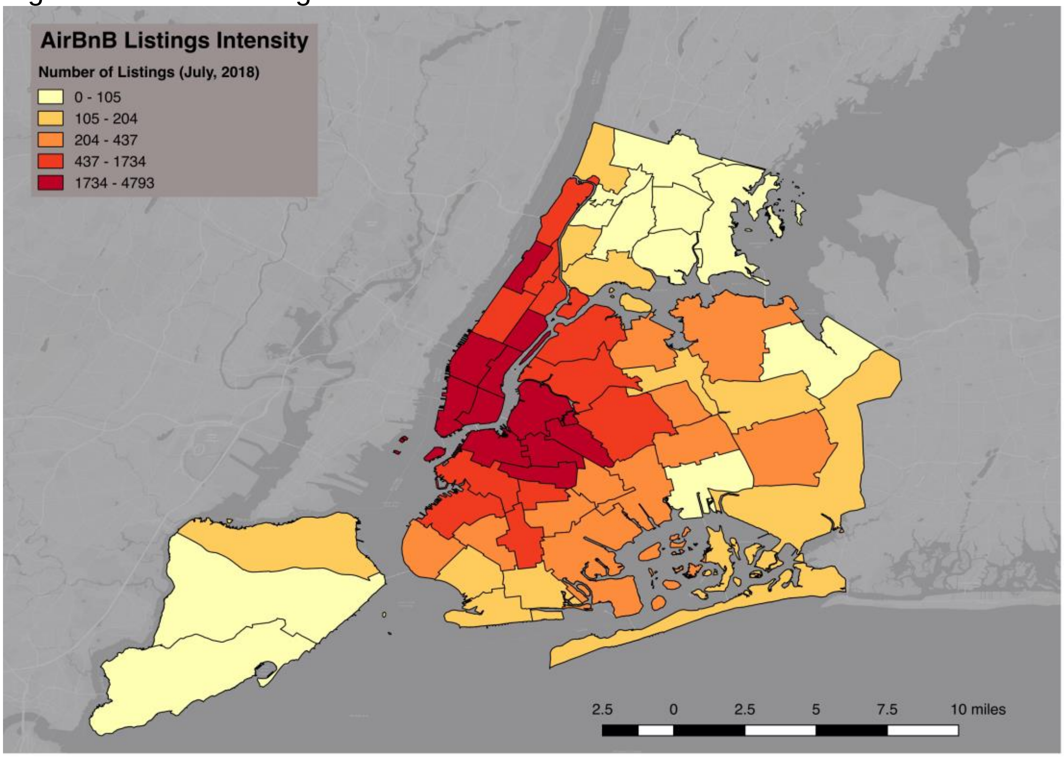


Source: Inside AirBnB, (2018)

Williamsburg/Greenpoint has also become a center of Airbnb listings. Utilizing listing data from Inside Airbnb and mapped using GIS software to correspond with the 56 Public Use Microdata Areas (PUMAs) that make up New York City's neighborhoods and roughly correspond to city Community Districts, show that the area is not only the center of Airbnb activity in Brooklyn, but in fact the entire city. Among New York's 56 PUMAs, PUMA 4001 representing Williamsburg/Greenpoint ranked first in AirBnB listings in mid 2018 (See Figure 5 and Table 8), with a combined 4793 total listings (August 2018). This is more than one thousand more listings than the next highest neighborhood. The total also accounts for almost one-quarter of all the listings in Brooklyn. According to the New York City Comptroller's office (2018), nearly five percent of all housing in the neighborhood was listing on AirBnB as of 2016.

Neighboring Bushwick and Bedford-Stuyvesant are far behind Williamsburg/Greenpoint in hotel development, but less so in the Airbnb market. Bedford-Stuyvesant boasted 2721 listings as of July 2018. At that same date Bushwick had 2926 listings. The proportion of listings that were for private rooms were notably higher in both neighborhoods compared to Williamsburg/Greenpoint, suggesting more actual sharing and less commercialization. Finally, in Harlem, where gentrification began much earlier than it did in Bushwick or Bedford-Stuyvesant, Airbnb totals as of July, 2018 showed 1706 listings.

Figure 5: AirBnB Listings in New York



Source: Author, using data from Inside Airbnb (2018)

In summary, the four neighborhoods in question rank first (Williamsburg / Greenpoint), fourth (Bushwick), fifth (Bedford-Stuyvesant) and 11th (Central Harlem) in the number of Airbnb listings as of July 18th among the city's 56 PUMAs or neighborhoods that roughly correspond to the 55 city Community Districts that make up the city. Together the four neighborhoods account for 12,146 total listings or 25.5 percent of all the city's listings. In Brooklyn, our three neighborhoods account for 10,440 or more than half (52.6%) of all listings. This is consistent with findings of a 2016 study that found such listings tend to be concentrated in rapidly changing neighborhoods (BJH Advisors LLC, 2016).

Discussion/Conclusions

The central question that remains is how and whether tourism affects the larger gentrification process. Put differently, is tourism a leading or following factor here? On the face of the evidence above, the initial answer appears to be that it *follows* gentrification. Williamsburg/Greenpoint and Harlem began the gentrification process as far back as 1990 if not before, but tourism activity in the area –at least measured by the accommodation sector – only appears to be catching up much more recently. In more recently gentrifying neighborhoods tourism is just beginning to take hold. But two considerations raise questions regarding this conclusion. One is the rise and consequences of short-term rentals. Airbnb is only 10 years old, and has only become ubiquitous in the past few years. Yet its effects on the larger rental market are still not fully understood. New York City has an extremely tight rental market. In Brooklyn in 2017 the rental vacancy rate was 3.6 percent, about equal to the citywide rate (NYC HPD, 2018), making it highly price sensitive to supply and demand factors. The 2016 report by BJH Advisors referred to above finds that at least 30 percent of Airbnb listings in New York could be classified as commercial, meaning that they are rented so frequently that this must be the primary purpose of the listing. In addition, they classify 16 percent of total listings at the time as "impact listings." This means their frequency of rental, as well as the fact that they are managed or owned by people who have multiple listings, are distorting the overall rental market (BJH Advisors LLC, 2016).

Similarly, as noted above Wachsmuth and Weisler (2018) and Wachsmuth, *et al.* (2018) argue that short-term rentals create a rent gap that ultimately contributes to higher housing costs. Just how much higher remains controversial. In a 2018 report the New York City Comptroller's Office estimates that New Yorkers paid an *extra* $616 million in rent in 2016 due to distortions in the market attributable to Airbnb rentals. Their study broke down this figure by neighborhood. It found that for each one percent of all residential units in a neighborhood that were listed on Airbnb, rental rates in that neighborhood went up by 1.58 percent. For the neighborhoods in question for this study, the report found that average monthly rents in Williamsburg/Greenpoint increased by $659 between 2009-2016 and that $123 of that increase (18.6 percent) was directly attributable to Airbnb rentals. For Bushwick, the corresponding totals were $369, $58 of that (15.6%) was due to Airbnb. Bedford-Stuyvesant saw an increase in monthly rents during that period of $407, with $59 or 14.4 percent attributable to Airbnb and Central Harlem experienced rent increases of $287, $28 or 9.8 percent of that associated with Airbnb. The four neighborhoods ranked first, fifth, sixth, and 15th respectively in the absolute dollar cost of rent increase tied to Airbnb according to the study (Niblack, 2018).

Although the report has faced criticism in its methodology (Ferré-Sadurní, 2018), it has contributed to a growing backlash against short-term rentals in 2018, culminating in a city council vote in July 2018 that tightened regulations on short-term rentals. The larger point is that if a central aspect of gentrification is displacement, much of that displacement is driven by affordability. In an already extremely tight housing market, which is exactly what characterizes New York, small price changes can push residents out of their neighborhood.

The second caveat when considering the role of gentrification is that it is a multifaceted, complex, and ongoing process. Yesterday's gentrifiers often become today's victims of gentrification. Many who moved into the four neighborhoods in question, beginning in some cases 25 or 30 years ago, now face increased cost pressures, forming the next stage of gentrification. In Williamsburg, a 2012 rezoning of the waterfront area directly across the East River from lower Manhattan, has led to plans for high-rise megaprojects designed by global star-chitects. The city Planning Board approved plans along the Williamsburg-Greenpoint waterfront that is slated to create 4.5 million feet of new office space, multiple commercial and recreation areas and at least 8500 new apartments. The city of New York's main tool for attempting to control housing costs in recent years has been the offer of tax incentives to developers in return for a commitment of a certain percentage of new development being slated as affordable housing. Most housing advocates ("Making the Rent 2016," n.d.; Mironova & Bach, n.d.; Moskowitz, 2017), however, have found that strategy to be doubly wanting: first, such schemes do not meet existing needs for affordable housing and second they forgo badly needed tax dollars that could be utilized for housing needs and other social services. Meanwhile the vast number of artists, actors and musicians who colonized Williamsburg in the 1990s, themselves victims of rising prices in neighborhoods such as Soho and Greenwich Village, have largely left because of lack of affordability. Many who replaced them have also moved on. Similar patterns are taking place in the other three neighborhoods. In short, gentrification is a dynamic and ongoing process, and one that increasingly involves tourism.

Ultimately, this should not surprise us. Gentrification brings with it new money, new upwardly mobile people, and following that, more services and commercial activity to serve that new clientele. We also know that tourists desire many of the *same* activities that urban residents desire: safe, clean neighborhoods with lots of entertainment, culture and amenities. Increasingly many tourists seek out hip, artistic, alt-neighborhoods, different from what is advertised in the mainstream guidebooks. As Novy and Columb (2017: 10-11) point out, the renaissance of cities such as New York has been built on the consumption of the city, and tourism constitutes a fundamental part of that consumption. Oddly, the new competition is, in many cases, between tourists and previous gentrifiers.

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Mancationing: Homosociality and Masculinity on Tour

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Abstract

Based on a mixed-methods qualitative study, which followed a group of men in their late thirties to mid-forties before, during and after a trip to Italy, this paper explores mancationing. The paper takes its departure in theories on homosociality, sociability, hetero-normative identity work and "men's talk". Key findings are that mancations can fulfil needs for male bonding that extend beyond the bracket of intensive leisure time represented by the single holiday. Mancations furthermore feed into identity constructions relating to both homo-social motifs (e.g. 'doing' male friendship and bonding) and special interests leisure activities (e.g. 'being' a football fan or searching for authentic experiences). Mancations are inscribed with homosociality that allows men 'to be men' and enables male identity work that refers to positional designations that are more latent in everyday life and during family holidays, where identities as partners and parents are the more salient. This exploratory study points to mancationing being a research topic with the ability to advance and refine knowledge on tourist sociality.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Tourist studies traditionally emphasized individualized and 'exoticised' discourses and representations of tourism (Larsen, Urry & Axhausen, 2007; Larsen, 2008; Obrador, 2012; Schänzel, 2010), hereby casting sociality as temporary relations between 'tourists' and 'others'; hosts and guests; and those on the move through exotic destinations and those more permanently inhabiting these places. However, as Wang (1999:364) reminds us, tourists "are not merely searching for authenticity of the Other", as "they also search the authenticity of, and between, themselves'' and go on holiday because tourism affords intimate proximities to those we travel with (Bærenholdt et al., 2004; Larsen, Urry & Axhausen, 2007; Mikkelsen & Blichfeldt, 2015). To see tourism as a search for authenticity with and in-between travel companions as well as intimate proximity that strengthens social ties to kin and friends fundamentally changes conceptions of tourism as it becomes, not something contrasting sociality 'back home', but something that allows us to perform thick sociality and sociability with those close to us in other places than home. This idea made researchers welcoming *'the social turn' in* tourism studies point to sociality in the form of socializing with travel companions (and particularly close family members) as something that actively generates tourism (Larsen, Urry & Axhausen, 2007). According to the social turn, tourism is not to be seen as the opposite of everyday life, freed from the social connections and obligations that characterize such life. Instead, tourism is, at least partially, generated by urges to bond with socially significant others; need for intimate proximity with family members and friends; and the desire to spend quality time with these socially significant others in order to strengthen and maintain social ties.

The ‘social turn’ has made many tourism researchers (e.g. Carr, 2011; Bærenholdt et. al., 2004; Haldrup and Larsen, 2003; Larsen, 2008; Larsen, 2013; Obrador, 2012; Schänzel, 2010; Yeoman et al., 2012; Schänzel and Smith, 2014) place family and kinship at the center of research. Consequently, in recent years, theory on how families ‘do family’ and perform ‘thick sociality’ during holidays has matured, pointing to a robust theoretical framework for studying families, who bring with them domestic everyday life responsibilities, roles and relationships while holidaying. At the outset, the social turn in tourism research led to the development of a theoretical framework focusing on the nuclear family, emphasizing husband-wife-children constellations and largely ignoring family as more complex ‘assemblages’; although a wide diversity of family constellations characterizes today’s world. As more and more tourism researchers (e.g. Mikkelsen & Blichfeldt, 2015; Schänzel & Carr, 2016) argue, sociality with significant others in a holiday context is not only a matter of nuclear family holidays as it also covers a wide variety of other familial constellations, such as single-parent families, bi-nuclear families, three (or four) generational travel units, human and non-human (e.g. pet dogs) family members, gay and lesbian families etc.

As research on sociality in tourism is maturing, it becomes increasingly clear that although the ideal of family togetherness has dominated westernized discourses on family holidays, these discourses ignore individual family members’ deep-seated needs for balancing levels of togetherness (family time) and separateness (own time representing needs for freedom from family commitments, roles and responsibilities)(Schänzel, 2010; Schänzel & Smith, 2014, Mikkelsen & Blichfeldt, 2015). One reason for the need to balance these two entities is that whereas family togetherness allows family members to construct familial identities, separateness may allow individual family members to create and unfold other types of identities.

Giddens (1991:5) argues that “identity can be seen as a story that a person writes and rewrites about him or herself, never reaching the end until they die, and always rewriting the earlier parts, so that the activity of writing becomes itself part of the story”. Whereas studies of family holidays do well at portraying how these holidays allow people to write, and rewrite, the stories of their familial identities, other social identities are more or less silenced – or at least reduced to more shallow or even anecdotal accounts of what people do with their ‘own time’. Nevertheless, studies of family holidays point to individuals both craving sociality with kin and family *and* needing to escape their roles and identities as partners/spouses, fathers, mothers, grandparents, children, grandchildren, siblings etc. As recent research (e.g. Mikkelsen & Blichfeldt, 2015) shows, during the ‘time offs’ anchored in own time, individual family members are free to engage in activities that relate to other identities than those anchored in familial relations and roles. As we enjoy togetherness with our kin during the holidays, we write the story of us as members of this family whereas separateness allows us to write stories relating to other identities – such as when the father of three toddlers goes for a morning run before the children wake and writes the story about him being an active and healthy man in his thirties or trains to complete his story as someone who completes a half marathon. Thoits (1986:260) argues that "the self can be conceptualized as a set of social identities, where identities refer to positional designations assigned by others and accepted by the individual him- or herself". Relating this take on identity (or more correctly, identit*ies*) to holidays, Blichfeldt and Smed (2012) argue that holidays can be used to actively explore, frame, extend and/or reinforce the individual's identities and as a result, choosing which holidays to take with whom, doing what, when and how, becomes a matter of choosing which identity(ies) we wish to construct by means of a certain holiday. But if holidays are means to construct *different* identities, it could be problematic that the social turn in tourism studies emphasizes the parts of our identities that are anchored in familial ties and our roles as spouses, (grand)children, (grand)parents, siblings, kin etc., hereby largely ignoring social identities that refer to positional designations that are not familial per se. In particular, the emphasis on familial roles holds the potential to make us neglect more individualistic identities; identities that are often central in western societies. For example, a man in his forties might use the family holidays to construct his identity as a dad, who spends time with his children; to reinforce his identity as a husband dedicating time and resources to his wife; as a breadwinner who can afford to take his family to Orlando for a fortnight; and/or as a male who drove a Cadillac down Route 66. However, holidaying with socially significant others that are *not* family or kin, but nevertheless socially significant others (such as close and more distant friends) may far better enable him to construct some of these identities. Even though there are interesting studies on women's travels (e.g. Yang, Khoo-Lattimore & Arcodia, 2017; Wilson & Little, 2008), it is problematic that the social turn in tourism studies has not inspired more researchers to study identity work associated with men's sociality in the context of other holidays than family holidays. This is particularly problematic if men's lives are highly organized though relations with other men (Flood, 2007:3)

It is also problematic as popular media is littered with stories on 'all girls' or 'male only' holidays no longer being trips only taken by young people and replaced by couple's retreats and family holidays as people mature. Instead, both popular media and travel statistics point to increased popularity of holidays with (same-sex) friends for people in their 30ties, 40ties and 50ties. In order to contribute to extending the study of sociality of holidays beyond family tourism, this article digs into one specific type of holiday that has been largely ignored by tourism researchers – a type of holidays we, following in the footsteps of the pop-culture and mass media (according to google searches e.g. Pinterest, the Star, the Wall Street Journal, Herald Sun and the Travel Channel) label *mancationing*.

On June 1st, 2017, the Daily Star ran a story on 'mancations' (https://www.dailystar.co.uk/news/latest-news/619142/Increase-in-all-male-trips-mancations). The article referred to a study showing that six out of 10 men value taking a break with their male friends, leaving their partners at home and going to sporting events, music festivals/concerts, and/or doing fishing, (motor)cycling, hiking etc. Popular media opines that a main reason why men go on these holidays is that male-only holidays not only qualify as much needed getaways, but also allow for male bonding and friendship building. Furthermore, even Wikipedia has a section on 'mancations' defining this as male-only holidays, as a gender-specific type of trip that is becoming increasingly popular and as a type of trip that around one in three men, regardless of age, takes at least once a year. However, although the term ‘mancationing’ is widely used by media, tourism researchers have not done much to study this type of holidays. The lack of tourism research on mancations is peculiar as same-sex holidays can illustrate what sociologists refer to as *homosociality*. Forty year ago, Lipman-Blumen (1976:16) defined homosociality as “the seeking, enjoyment, and/or preference for the company of the same sex”. More recently, Bird (1996) sees homosociality as referring to social bonds between persons of the same sex, and more broadly to same-sex-focused social relations. Adopting these definitions to tourism, holidays imbued with homosociality are holidays taken with people (often, but not necessarily, friends) of the same sex. Accordingly, same-sex holidays such as mancations do not necessarily represent a *general* preference among men for the company of men, but a more temporary preference that may, or may not, extend beyond the bracket of intensive leisure time the single holiday represents. Accordingly, mancations are not to be seen as a *substitute* for family holidays, but as *one* of a portfolio of holidays an individual engages in.

There can be many different reasons why people choose to go on holidays with same-sex friends and mancations can potentially feed into many different identity constructions – both those relating to more social motifs (e.g. ‘being a mate’, ‘being a man’ or ‘doing’ male friendship and bonding) and motives pertaining to specific interests and leisure activities (e.g. ‘being’ a football fan; a golfer; a foodie; a motor cycle enthusiast; a music lover etc.). Homosociality and male friendships have proven to be critical for men’s identity construction (Aboim, 2010; Coles, 2009; Flood, 2007; Walker, 1988; Mac & Ghaill, 1994; Nayak, 2003) and as pointed out by Flood (2007:3) “masculinity studies argues for powerful links between homosociality and masculinity; men’s lives are said to be highly organized by relations *between men*”. Flood’s (2007) argument points to mancationing as a potentially particular fertile context for studying how, on the one hand, men’s constructions of masculinity and male identity inform holidays and how, on the other hand, mancations contribute to construction of social (for example masculine) identities that refer to positional designations that are not adequately covered by ‘social turn’ tourism research at present due to the heavily reliance on studies of family holidays within this strand of research. Although some researchers have dug into young mens’ engagement in party tourism and ‘stag parties’, a significant research gap exists when it comes to the sociality and identity work that characterize other homosocial holidays. However, if we wish to better understand how identity work informs tourism, studies of mancationing seem needed as they could contribute to better understandings of relations between tourism and identity work.

In order to guide our exploratory study of the seemingly popular, yet under-researched mancations, our theoretical framework is comprised of theories on sociality, sociability and hetero-normative identity work. Consequently, a basic premise of this article is the adherence to Aristotle’s claim that man is a social animal (or being) and that society, first and foremost, is formed around togetherness. Consequently, identity work contains a social element, and both holidays in general and mancations specifically are imbued with sociality and sociability amongst travel companions. Simmel (1949:254-255) introduced the concept of sociability almost 70 years ago and argued for the relevance of this concept as follows:

"To be sure, it is for the sake of special needs and interests that men unite in economic associations or blood fraternities, in cult societies or robber bands. But, above and beyond their special content, all these associations are accompanied by a feeling for, by a satisfaction in, the very fact that one is associated with others and that the solitariness of the individual is resolved into togetherness, a union with others."

Extending Simmel's lines of reasoning to mancationing, a group of men may go on holiday together for the sake of a sporting event, music festivals/concerts, cycling, hunting, playing golf, hiking etc. - but above and beyond this special interest content, the specific holiday may be taken in order to associate with male travel companions and to resolve solitariness into togetherness and unity with other men. This does not mean that a football match or a rock concert cannot qualify as a reason to go for a group of men; all it means is that the football match or the concert may not be the *only* reason to go it we focus on sociality as a key reason to engage in male sociality. Consequently, a primary goal of our exploratory research is to investigate the extent to which mancationing contains an element of togetherness that allows men to construct stories of their masculine identities or whether they basically go to experience a football match, a concert etc. To dig into sociability as a reason why men go on holidays together contrasts traditional conceptions of male sociality as men's relationships with other men have been assumed to lack in terms of both ability and desire for interpersonal connections and intimacy (Coats, 2003; Cameron & Kulick, 2003) as "needs for others might be read as disrupting masculine ideals of autonomy and independence" (Thurnell-Read, 2012:252).

Simmel (1949:259) further argues that sociability reveals itself in whether we communicate about content or engage in sociable conversation, or in his words:

"The decisive point is expressed in the quite banal experience that in the serious affairs of life men talk for the sake of the content which they wish to impart or about which they want to come to an understanding - in sociability talking is an end in itself; in purely sociable conversation the content is merely the indispensable carrier of the stimulation, which the lively exchange of talk as such unfolds."

Following Simmel's (1949) lines of reasoning, any sociability inherent in mancationing will manifest itself in conversations where content (e.g. decisions relating to when to go; where to go; where to stay; how to get there; what to do; what to see etc.) becomes carriers of 'stimulation' and consequently "that something is said and accepted is not an end in itself but a mere means to maintain the liveliness, the mutual understanding, the common consciousness of the group" (Simmel, 1949:260). Parallels can be drawn between Simmel's (1949) sociable conversations and what Thurnell-Read (2012:252) refers to as "men's talk, that is, the form and character of talk between men" as both of these notions cast conversations as practices not only relating to direct content, but also to more subtle processes of male bonding and sociality. However, Thurnell-Read

(2012:252) also reminds us that men's sociality is characterized by "'indirectness', where expressions of homosocial connections are invariably filtered indirectly through, for example, mutual talk of shared interests". As a result, in regard to sociality and sociability in the context of mancations, one would expect men's expressions to both cover content and more indirect expressions of homosocial connectedness and togetherness.

Thurnell-Read (2012:249) argues that "homosocial groups help sustain hegemonic masculinity and play a significant role in establishing accepted forms of masculinity" and that mancations (or, in his research, all-male stag tours) foster a sense of togetherness. However, whereas feminine intimacy, has traditionally (and stereo-typically, we acknowledge) been said to emphasize talking and listening, sharing thoughts and showing feelings (Jamieson, 1998), men's intimacy, friendships and bonding may relate less to direct verbalizations and more to indirectness and/or embodied practices, leading Thurnell-Read (2012:253) to suggest that "men do indeed value friendships and personal relationships in various ways, some of which may not be directly verbalized".

As mentioned previously, studies of mancations have focused on party tourism and stag parties over-representing younger men's holidays. Spector-Mersel (2006) argues that homosociality, male friendships and ideals of masculinity are not static, but differ both with contexts and across men's life courses. As Coles (2009:30) claims "as men age and move through the course of their lives, so too do their identities as men shift to accommodate the changes in their lives". In the same vein, Greif (2009) argues that as men enter their thirties, they have to balance competing responsibilities situated within family, careers and friendships. Men may generally become more immersed in familial identities as fathers and/or partners as they leave their twenties and enter the thirties and forties. Consequently, it seems relevant to dig into how men (struggle to) balance familial identities and male identities throughout their life courses. Therefore, studies of men in this age group may also allow us to better understand needs for familial togetherness during the family holidays when this togetherness is seen through the lens of needs for male togetherness and separateness from familial identities as reflected by mancations.

Methodology

The mancation which is the case this paper digs into is a trip taken by five Danish men, who did not know each other well, and only knew each other because their sons go to school (and play football) together. The idea for the trip came about at a party where some of the parents talked about their mutual interest in football and one suggested that they should go to Italy to see a match and one year later, five of the fathers set out on the trip. As one of the five fathers is also a tourism researcher, a couple of months before departure, he asked the others whether it would be acceptable to do small-scale ethnography and use the trip as a case, not only focusing on what happens during the trip, but also including the pre-trip (planning) and the post-trip stages. As the others accepted this proposal, the researchers had a unique opportunity to covers all stage of the vacation process, enabling us to investigate both how, on the one hand, men's constructions of masculinity and male identity inform mancationing and how, on the other hand, mancations contribute to construction of male identities.

One researcher was a participant observer as he was a full-blown member of the specific travel group, whereas the second researcher did not know the other members of the travel group, nor did she partake in the specific vacation. This allows us to combine the strengths of auto-ethnography with the merits of more objective (or at least distanced) research practices. The researcher that was a member of the travel group acted in ways inspired by Adams et. al.'s (2015) approach to auto-ethnography and its reliance on the researcher's personal experiences; acknowledging and valuing the researcher's relationships with the other men; and having access to them in the process of figuring out how to engage in mancationing. As such, the first author's participation in the trip allowed him to acknowledge, embrace and accommodate "mess and chaos, uncertainty and emotion" as these issues unfolded before, during and after the trip (Adams et al., 2015:34).

Messner (1990) argues that male researchers studying masculinity are prone to write from a masculine standpoint and that more gender-balanced interpretations are needed. In order to reduce gender-bias, when participants were asked permission for the first author to take on the double-role as a participant and as a researcher, they were also informed about (and accepted) the involvement of the second, female researcher, whom they did not know.

As mentioned previously, the acclaimed indirectness of male sociality manifests itself in "men's talk" and embodied practices that may prove far more difficult to research than women's supposedly more 'talkative' sociality. This is, for example, evident in Evers' (2010) conclusion that the practices men engage in when they 'hang out' amount to meaningful sociality and friendships even though the social relations are not verbalized as such. In order to also cover the non-verbalized aspects of mancations, the study relies on a mixed methods research design where the researchers tried to avoid relying too much on the types of verbalizations that characterize the traditional qualitative interview. Apart from group interviews with all members of the travel unit, methods include the first author's auto-ethnographical introspections, participant observations, informal conversations, notes and photos; the travel group's communication about (and beyond) the trip; the participants' social media accounts for the trip; and finally a member check in the form of a discussion of preliminary findings where the second researcher (whom none of the study participants had meet before) presented findings and both researchers discussed these findings with the group. Consequently, although we, in the forthcoming findings section, make extensive use of interview quotes, these quotes are chosen because they represent key themes that emerged through extensive and iterative discourse and content analysis of all data.

Findings

In this section, we account for key findings, ordered by theory-driven themes, and offer first-order interpretations of our data, hereby giving voice to our interviewees by staying close to how they enact mancationing. Hereafter, in the discussions section, we account for the theoretical insights and advancements this small piece of fieldwork contributes with.

'Dad' identities

Apart from the 'official' reason to go (i.e. to watch a soccer game) and issues pertaining to male bonding (which will be discussed later), the men defined the trip as a 'cool' thing for a group of dads to do. For example, Mark made the group laugh by saying: "A dads' trip to Naples, that's not a communal meal down in the school kitchen", and Tom followed up by mentioning that "afterwards, it's a story it'll be really fun to tell to others".

The men also argued that the trip would generally make it easier for them to interact with each other in everyday settings and contexts. For example, during the focus group discussion before the trip, when talking about how the group decided to take a trip together, Tom argued as follows:
"Well, the idea came from … we have five boys going to school together and what usually happens is that us men, we are 'sidelined' while the mums control what's going on. So I thought it could be fun if it was the men, who took ownership. We're in this together and there's no better way of meeting one another than doing something together.

In the focus group discussion after the trip, he elaborated on this issue as follows:
"The goal is also to form closer ties between us. And that's been really great - we've been awesome at doing that. So on Monday, if we meet, we have completely different relationships than we had before. Because we've gotten much closer to one another and that builds trust around our boys. So if [Luke's son and Tom's son] get into an argument, it'll be much easier to approach you, Luke, and say: 'Let's talk about it', than it'll be with other dads. This trip just means something."

Tom furthermore argued that if his son and one of the other men's son have a conflict, the trip enables him to pick up the phone and call to ask "what is going on"; something he "wouldn't have done, if I didn't know you, I wouldn't dare to".

As the above exemplifies, the participants see the trip as a way to create stronger bonds that will feed into these men's identities as dads, thus making it easier for them to take on their roles as dads and collaborate when situations arise due to their children's interactions.

It's a man's (cozy and competitive) world

The five men's wish to create stronger social bonds not only relates to their identities as dads, but also to their creation of male identities through male bonding. The men argued that, apart from their *"getting to know one another"* enabling them to deal with situations involving their children, visiting Naples and watching the soccer game are primary motivations. Beyond these motivations, the five men are also genuinely "excited" to get to know one another better. For example, following up on the statement that, before deciding to go on the trip, the group was already in the process of getting to know one another, Ryan opined:

”Of course this is a way of being together where we drink more, laugh more, go to bed late, talk about other issues. Like us playing cards, really cozy evening we had there. Normally it would be me and [his wife] *who would play cards, and then we don’t laugh as much, not in the same way, not with that back and forth exchanges of words”.*

Ryan’s thoughts initiated the following conversation:

Tom*: “Yes, and we have wine and wine and nobody thinks like: Urgh, can I have another glass? Will anyone raise an eyebrow if I get a bit hammered”*

Mark: *“That’s so true: Nobody cares if the others get hammered.”*

[Laughs]

Mark: *“Yeah, because you just run that shit, Tom”*

[Laughs] […]

Tom: ”We’re also tougher on one another when men go on a trip.”

Luke: ”Yeah, the tone is tougher.”

Tom: “Rough, but caring.”

Mark: ”Nothing is hidden away – one might as well say it as it is and then move on.”

Tom: ”Yes, none of us have a bad experience because they get smacked. […] And that thing about driving, listening to rock music and having a beer, I think that’s cool. It’s fucking cozy.”

The men point to these “cozy” moments as a “man’s thing”, which led to the following discussion of differences between mancations and holidays with their wives:

Tom: ”Women are more, like controlled, than men and that’s what makes the difference. None of us had a need to control this trip. We just go along – that’s the difference, I think.”

Luke: ”Do all of you agree on that?”

Mark: ”Yes, I agree, for women, there’s some kind of planning thing going on.”

Tom: ”And then we find something we focus on, that becomes funny. Like with the Limoncello thing we came up with, well, now we’re the Limoncello group, so when we get back home we look into that and then we’ll make our own Limoncello. As men, we find a thing and talk through that - or some other thing. I think that’s how it is with men: Then we meet around that thing instead of just meeting up. […] Like, I don’t like cooking that much, but us bonding through cooking, as men, we **do** something together. It was fun and nobody was better at it than the rest. That just did something for us as a group. That was actually a really good thing to bond through […]”

Luke: “But is bonding like a male value?”

Tom: “Yes it is, it’s one of them. We identify with one another. Like Ryan said, as men we compete all the time, it’s that inner competition that we all have within us”.

As suggested by the fragments of the interviews reproduced above, when the men talk about bonding, they both talk about male competitiveness (i.e. in the form of distancing one from other men by ‘outdoing’ them) and identifying with other men.

Masculine identities

Male bonding and competitiveness as introduced above very much relate to how the five men define masculine identities and they were very explicit about the trip

being a means to male identity construction, an identity construction, they find it difficult to prioritize during everyday life:
Steve: "… when you're a dad with toddlers, from time to time it all gets too much. Then it's great to get out once in a while".
Luke: "The days just pass, pass by.[…] I need to go and watch some soccer, be with other guys and have a chat, not thinking about that I need to go home tonight and tomorrow the grind starts again and again. To me it's important that something else happens once in a while, going out for the night or something".
Tom: "Yes, and the thing you said about it only being men taking this trip, it matters - because if our wives had joined, it would have been completely different. Now I can just be a man, not having to think about anything. […] It's more okay to just be men. And that thing about being oneself, that's also important, there needs to be room for that."
Mark: "Yes, everyday life is pretty much about wife and kid. Not just for me, but for most."
As exemplified by the quotes about, this group of men defines this specific trip as a means to male identity construction, an identity construction that they find is difficult to prioritize during everyday life where the roles as fathers and husbands/partners tend to dominate.

Doing more than talking

As mentioned previously, the group points to competitiveness as a natural and integral part of homosociality, but they do so emphasizing the coziness and humor in it:
Tom: "It's not like one is gloating or being annoying. It's just the cozy [in the meaning inferred by the not directly translatable Danish word 'hygge'] way of running things. It's not that we think you stink at making pasta, Luke".
[Laughs]
Ryan: "One taunts the others a bit for fun. The alternative, like if we hadn't gone cooking then we'd had to sit around at a café all afternoon. Sooner or later, I think we would turn quiet because we had gone through the topics there are to talk about. Having to get closer, can become like hardwood. It's just easier to let go and laugh at somebody, who's really bad at making pasta. I think as men we, how to say, have limitations when talking about feelings".
Luke followed up on Tom's comment that some activities (e.g. shopping) are feminine by asking if the others find that "some activities are more masculine than others?", which led them to talk about masculine elements of their trip as follows:
Tom: "Nice food and football".
Ryan: "At least football is".
Tom: "Sorry, but visiting the Amalfi coast is hardly masculine."
[Laughs]
Mark: "We'll just say that we were in Naples the whole time".
[Laughs]
[…]
Tom: "But it's just sitting at a bar at night having beer and drinks and doing that every night. That's like what men do. I'm pretty sure that when [his wife] goes on a trip with her girls, they are not getting hammered every night. We've been somewhat under the influence of alcohol every night during this trip, haven't we?"

Ryan: ”And yesterday when we did the cooking, the amount of wine wouldn’t have been the same, how it escalated from a glass of wine to a bottle, one more bottle and so. I’m not sure that would have gone down well or that the amount of alcohol would have been the same [had they done the cooking with their wives].”
The intake of alcohol and having a laugh were reoccurring themes during the trip and these two practices seem to act as lubricants that help these men engage in male bonding and men’s talk. Addressing the issue of men’s talk, Tom initiated a conversation by saying:
”Men don’t think that much about what is said – we don’t look for deeper meanings. It’s fucking just men being together, it’s easy and uncomplicated. It’s just cool. It’s just cool when men do a trip like this together. […] As it is five days we spent together, one has to find some kind of rhythm as it becomes ‘everyday life’ during five days. One has to find a natural level on which to be oneself. One can’t pretend for five full days - that simply doesn’t work. So there’s something about us getting to know one another in a completely different way”.

Sometimes, stuff isn’t analyzed at all

Tom (who has done quite a number of mancations) introduced the notion that his wife always points out to him that when he has been with other men and she asks him how they are doing, he responds by saying that he “doesn’t really know”:
Ryan: “That’s so true’”
Tom: “We’re a bit squeamish when it comes to emotions. […] It’s clearly other things and topics we talk about and laugh about because we are men and we see things differently […] When we get back home, I’m pretty sure that [his wife] is going to ask: How’s Steve and [his wife] doing and I’ll respond, they are fine and she’ll ask, yeah, but how?”
Steve: “I fucking don’t know!”
Tom: “I have no idea!”
[Laughs]
Ryan: ”That’s so true.”
Mark: “Oh yes, that’s spot on!”
Tom: “Like, ‘what troubles them?’; ‘I don’t think anything’s troubling them’, I’ll respond. Steve says they’re doing fine, so they’re fine, and that’s it. […] As men, we don’t dig deeper when we’re having a conversation.”
Luke: ”How comes?”
Tom: ”It’s just not what we do. We don’t invite emotions in that much, right? It’s a different kind of talk. […] We don’t dig when we talk. It’s more like surface […]”
Mark: ”Stuff isn’t over-analyzed and sometimes, it’s not analyzed at all.”
As exemplified by the quotes above, to this group of men, mancations allow them to dwell into and develop male identities where small-talk is a glue that ties them together.

Discussion and conclusion

This article was finalized close to a year after five men went on a trip to Italy to watch a football match, to get to know each other better so that they would become better at interacting in their roles as dads, and to make time and room to construct their male identities, which are somewhat dormant during their everyday lives.

Today, the group (which now refers to itself as 'the Limoncella group') is still active both in 'real' life and through the group's closed Facebook group, where a "Have a great weekend" Friday post (accompanied by emojis with a wine glass, smiles etc.) is immediately responded to positively by the other group members.

Coles (2009) argues that male sociality and masculinity are plural, situational, subject to change across time and contexts and open for reconstruction and reconfiguration within the different areas of men's lives. As our exploratory study suggests, for middle-class men in their 30ties and 40ties, both in everyday life contexts and during family holidays, identities as partners and parents may tend to matter more than male identities. Accordingly, apart from "own time" being *freedom from* familial roles and responsibilities (Schänzel, 2010; Schänzel & Smith, 2014), this study points to "own time" as *freedom to* nurture male identities. Although largely ignored by the social turn in tourist studies, which emphasizes family holidays, mancations seem to allow for construction of a masculine identity relating to 'being men', and detached from being fathers and husband, through dedication of larger brackets of time to *doing* homo-sociality and male bonding.

Our research points to mancations as a search for masculine identity and authenticity together with other men, which facilitates intimate proximity that strengthens homosocial ties allowing men to construct male identities by performing thick sociality and sociability with other men in ways they cannot do 'back home' where parental and familial identities, roles and responsibilities predominate. This suggests that researchers should not only study the singular holiday, but should try to understand all the holidays we take, in combination with our everyday life contexts, as bricolage where the construction of our identities is pursued by actively making use of the leisure time and activities; travel companions; and socialities that are available at different points in time during the course of our lives.

In conclusion, our study points to a series of theoretical perspectives it would be beneficial for tourism researchers to look into. First and foremost, the study emphasizes that holidaying is a matter of identity work and that the different holidays we take feed into construction of different identities. Secondly, the study points to new areas to be covered by the social turn in tourism research (Larsen, Urry and Axhausen, 2007) as mancations feed into everyday life roles, relations and responsibilities through the strengthening of social ties with, and need for proximity to, male friends. Particularly, the study adds to understanding the increased need for balancing of familial and masculine identities that men may experience during their thirties and forties, as pointed out by Grief (2009). The study suggests family members' needs for separateness, as pointed to by family tourism researchers such as Schänzel and Smith (2014), could be unfolded by also studying the holidays family members take without the rest of the family.
Thirdly, the study indicates that the male self should not only be defined as a positional designation assigned by others and accepted by the individual male (Throits, 1986). Instead, our research participants actively construct male selves as positional designations through mancationing, during which they actively explore, frame and develop male identity (Blichfeldt & Smed, 2012). Mancations become extended and intensive brackets of leisure time dedicated to enjoying the

company of other men (Lipman-Blumen, 1976), where social bonds between men are formed, maintained and strengthened. However, compared to extant definitions of homosociality as a general preference for same-sex company, to our research participants homosociality does not manifest itself as a general preference for male company, but as a temporary "time out", during which they, together with other men, develop and nurture male friendships that feed into masculinity.

Lastly, in regard to Simmel's (1949) notion of sociability, it seems that researchers have tended to focus (too much?) on special interests tourism and serious leisure in the study of all-male holidays such as sports, fishing, hunting, adventure etc. trips. Sociability and the mere pleasure and satisfaction of men associating with other men that allows them to define and construct masculine identity has potentially been under-researched. In contrast in Thurnell-Read's (2012) claim that needs for others could disrupt masculine ideals of autonomy and independence, our research participants argue that they use mancations to construct masculine identity *together with* other men. However, whereas Simmel (1949) emphasized 'talk' and 'sociable conversations', our study points to men's 'sociability talking' manifesting itself more through doings and bodily performances (such as cooking or getting hammered) than through verbal conversations. Although our interviews show that men can, and when asked to do so will, verbalize male sociality and sociability, they also confirm the indirectness of men's talk and sociality that Thurnell-Read (2012) discussed. According to our small-scale study, mancationing is characterized by indirectness and subtle processes of male bonding and homosociality that manifest itself in men's (indirect) talk and embodied practices. The indirectness of men's talk and the importance our research participants ascribe to 'doing things' together point to researchers interested in studying this type of holidays needing to not rely too much on traditional sedentary interviews and instead using more engaging and innovative methodologies and methods. We therefore hope that this small study will inspire other tourism researchers to take the study of mancations to a more advanced level;

As always, the research presented in this article has a number of limitations. In particular, it is worth mentioning that this article presents and discusses one particular mancation, which is heavily inscribed with middle-class western heteronormativity and ideals of male identity. Furthermore, our data may also suffer from bias caused by the men knowing, and acknowledging, that their statements and doings were to be analyzed by the two researchers. Therefore, the conclusions we draw are no more but tentative and should not be seen as an attempt to generalize across other contexts or male identity constructions.

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Mototourist's travel experience: An explorative Italian case-study

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Abstract

Mototourism is considered a common topic in the study of motorcycle travel, however, it is almost completely ignored by the academic literature (Sykes and Kelly, 2016), which concentrates on mototourism in America and Wales. There are currently no relevant studies in Italy, a country in which the production of motorcycles plays an important role in the industrial sector (e.g.: brands as Ducati and Benelli). This paper will try to cover this gap, analysing the habits of Italian motorcyclists, via a web survey on experiences, the meaning of travel and other aspects related to the concept of "motorcycle aggregation". The survey was addressed only to owners of motorcycles with gears and at least 250 cc, excluding 125 cc motorcycles, because that type can't run on some certain types of roads. Moreover, definitions of key words, like travel, itinerary and motorcycle rally have been provided in order to avoid missing data. The survey was welcomed with great interest among the motorcyclists, reaching 1,154 respondents. The sample, although not representative, included respondents from every region of Italy, with a fairly wide age range (from 18 to 88 years) and the majority of them being employed (86.3%). From the survey emerged outputs rather in line with literature as the preference of motorcyclists for state or provincial roads and the greater propensity of retirees to travel. Several differences with previous studies emerged in terms of the concept of motorcycle aggregation: only 38.0% of Italian motorcyclists respondents belong to motorclubs or take part in motor meetings, which is less than expected, but their propensity to motorcycle aggregation affects their travel habits anyway, as the choice to travel alone or with other motorcyclists. As proposed in previous researches, respondents' preferences could find an appropriate answer in the sustainable tourism experience (Robinson and Picard, 2006). The study provides opportunities and awareness regarding mototourism for the development of new tourism policies applied to the market-target of motorcyclists.

Introduction

The main purpose of the research is to investigate the behaviours and experiences of Italian motorcyclists. In particular, the study focuses on aspects such as travel motivations, types of motorcycles owned and choices that mototourists make during their journeys. Furthermore, the aspect of motoaggregation, that has relevant influences on touristic behaviour (Walker, 2011), has been analysed.

The topic was considered in order to cover the lack of information and to add empirical researches regarding the Italian context. Studies on the subject are few and focus only on Wales and the United States[2] (Sykes and Kelly, 2012).

The data were collected by submitting an electronic questionnaire, structured in four sections: motoaggregation, meaning of the journey, travel experiences and demographic information.

This paper is structured in four sections: literature review on tourism and mototourism, the research method section, results discussion and possible implications and future studies.

Literature review

The number of motorcycles is growing very fast: in the UK the number of licensed motorcycles in 2014 has more than doubled, compared to mid-1990s data (MCIA, 2015). Mototourism is also considered the fastest growing segment of the tourism industry in the US, meaning that mototourism can lead to economic benefits, resulting from the creation of new markets in new areas (Sykes and Kelly, 2012). One example of the economic impact of motorcycle tourism is the Isle of Man Tourist Trophy, an event that in 2013 attracted about 40,000 visitors contributing £26.2 million to the Isle of Man's economy[3]. For this reason, some countries, like Scotland and Luxembourg, have already implemented policies and initiatives favorable to tourists on motorcycles (Scol, 2016). In the Blue Ridge parkway, in the United States, companies offer waterproof maps specifically made for touring motorcyclists, indicating motorcycle friendly services (Weddell, 2014).
In Italy there are 6,505,620 motorcycles circulating (ACI, 2014[4]), defined as vehicles with two-wheels that carry no more than two persons. This data includes not only motorcycles, but also every geared or non-geared moped, with more than 50 cc (ACI[5]).

Regarding geared Italian motorcyles sold in Italy in 2017, Ducati is in fourth place (10,3% of the market and 8,494 motorcycles sold), while Benelli is in tenth place (2,46% and 2,025) (Motti and Riccardi, 2018), wich means that Italian motorcycle manufacterers play an important role in the motorcycle market.

Literature emphasizes the "importance of understanding the travel decision-making behavior of drive tourists" (Sykes and Kelly, 2016, p. 546) to implement new strategies more appealing to them (Sykes and Kelly, 2012). However, "there is virtually no research on motorcycle drive tourism" (Sykes and Kelly, 2016, p. 544). Moreover, it is unpopular to promote motor-based tourism due to concerns about fossil fuel use (Lee and Brahmasrene, 2013) and the "negative perception and lack of understanding of their travel behaviour" (Sykes and Kelly, 2016, p. 545). This last issue is related to the image of motorcycles, considered too fast, noisy

[2] https://www.gov.im/news/2013/oct/15/strength-of-visitor-economy-consolidated-during-2013/
[3] Ibidinem.
[4] http://www.aci.it/laci/studi-e-ricerche/dati-e-statistiche/consistenza-parco-veicoli/2014.html
[5] http://www.aci.it/i-servizi/normative/codice-della-strada/titolo-iii-dei-veicoli/art-53-motoveicoli.html

and polluting (Weddell, 2014) and motocyclists perceived as “marginal people, wearing helmets and boots, leather-clad, difficult to control and often criminal offenders” (Scol, 2016).

In contrast with popular perceptions, some scholars underline that for motorcyclists mountain scenery and views, getting away from traffic and being in nature are important motivations for choosing a destination and a driving experience itself (Pinch and Reimer, 2012; Weddell, 2014).
Moreover, in order to promote and exploit mototourism, as stated by Walker (2011), it is helpful to consider mototourism as a leisure phenomenon rather than a means of transportation, because the recreational use is dominant (Walker, 2011; Cater, 2017). Actually, motorcycles are the “the main motivation for the trip, with the destination being a secondary goal of the journey” (Walker, 2011, p. 146), so motorcyclists do not have the same needs or desires as other tourists (Sykes and Kelly, 2014). Regarding demographic aspects, it is relevant to consider that, as described by Motorcycle Industry Council Data (Morris, 2009), motorcycle riders are growing older, with the average age increasing from 27 in 1985 to 41 in 2003. Another interesting factor is that the number of women riders is growing, with female ownership increasing from 9.6% in 2003 to 12,3% in 2008 and 23% of Americans who rode a motorcycle during 2008 were women (Business Wire, 2009).

The widespread phenomen of motoaggregation, which is the tendency of the motorcyclists to travel in groups, has been also analysed and defined, considering the advice of some expert motorcyclists. Motoaggregation, in fact, is part of motorcycling world and it is a topic strictly related to mototourism.

Therefore this paper proposes an explorative study to deepen travel reasons and habits of Italian mototourists, analyzing journeys made during the last 12 months starting from the date of the survey, studying kind of owned motorcycles, demographic information, travel preferences and motoaggregation.

Methodology

In this section are presented the methodological aspects related to the questionnaire’s implementation, data collection and statistical elaboration.

There is no consensus in the literature about a standardized definition of mototourism, so expert mototourists were involved (five motorcyclists in particular, one with decades of travel experiences, one who was also a motorcycling entrepreneur and a group of three motorcyclists who belong to motor clubs) in producing a new definition for this research. One of the expert motorcyclists runs also a site that highlights hotels with aspects considered “friendly” for motorcycles, such as motorcycle parking or itineraries, and that can affect the choice of accommodation. The questionnaire was developed including also a glossary of some keywords to ensure a conceptual uniformity of the terms used[6].

The survey, realized using Google Form, was divided into four sections: motoaggregation, meaning of the journey, experience of the journey and demographic information, and was only intended for owners of motorcycles with an engine capacity of over 250 cc[7]. This was also an attempt to reduce the discrepancies caused by some Italian and international laws that limit circulation of motorcycles with a small engine capacity.

Furthermore, as recommended by the expert motorcyclists, the field was restricted to only vehicles called ‘motorcycles’, excluding scooters, because expert motorcyclists consider scooters to be part of a separate universe compared to motorcycling with dynamics that are outside the aim of this research. The questionnaire was firstly tested on ten university fellow-students (two of those were motorcyclists), to adjust its length and verify comprehension, and then was disseminated via social networks, email, newsletter and instant messaging programs. The survey was shared on the internet (especially sites and Facebook groups related to the motorcyclists world), from 20th April to 1st September 2017. The MrHelmet blog and “Motociclisti italiani” Facebook group, in particular, contributed a lot to the survey (almost 500 answers comes from their fans and members).

The questionnaire was circulated monthly to the groups, especially on working days, because during journeys, that are made prevalently on weekend, motorcycles don’t usually use their electronic devices (only in one case the admin mistook the survey as advertising). Every survey wave was preceded by a message to explain the aim of the research and warm up to motorcyclists.
The obtained sample of 1,154 respondents needed to be checked, excluding overlapping results, recoding answers in few cases[8].

During the research an exceptional spirit of a ‘big family’ was found in respondents, both in the comments of encouragement and in the spontaneous sharing of the questionnaire. Sample information about the answers provided by respondents was received and 518 emails out of 1,154 respondents were collected, with only

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[6] JOURNEY: a movement made for tourism, vacation or for work reasons, outside your residence, which includes at least one overnight stay. Movements to locations that are frequently visited or trips that last more than one year are excluded.

ITINERARY: a route taken by motorcyclists during a trip; departures and arrivals may be different from the resident address. MOTOR MEETING: an event with recreational or sport purposes that involves at least 50 motorists and provides for at least an itinerary in motorcycle and a meal.

[7] The questionnaire is available on request for more information.

[8] The question: “What kind of motorcycles do you currently have” was an open one and while some respondents indicated precisely the model, other indicated only the type of motorcycle or the manufacture. Therefore, information was dissected and inserted in three categories: kind of motorcycle, manufacturer and model. Identifying the type of motorcycles for all the answers has been rather long and elaborate and has led to identify several missing results. A certain distrust of respondents in indicating with precision the model of owned motorcycle has been found anyway: motorcyclists were more likely to indicate only the type of motorcycle.

13 people filtered that did not respond to the profile desired, showing a good targeting.

In conclusion, the sample is large, but not representative (for example, some regions of origin are overestimated because of the asymmetry of the diffusion, due to the spontaneous sharing by motorcyclists); nevertheless the data allow an explorative study of the mototouristic context.

Results

Firstly, the sample composition is analysed, followed by habits, travel experience and motoaggregation's aspects and meaning.

Sample description

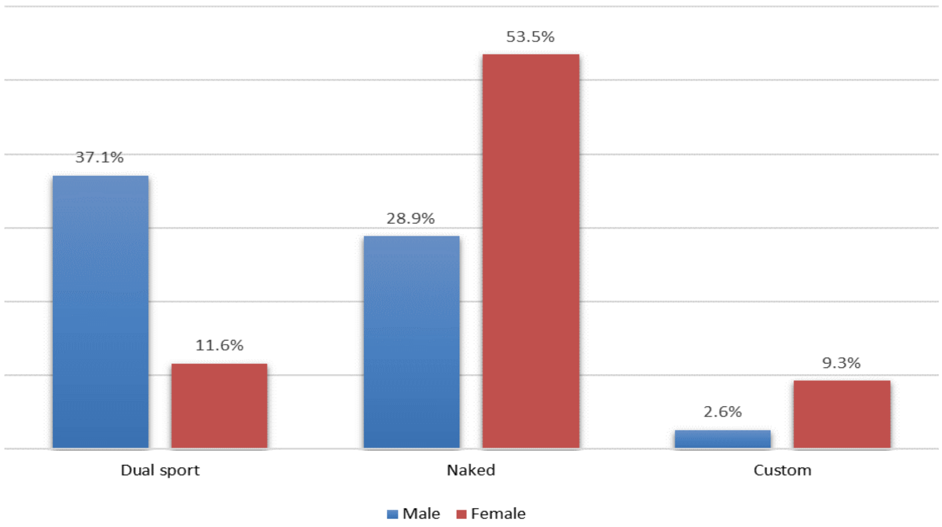
The sample is 91% male and 9% female, while the largest group of the sample of motorcyclists are aged between 34 and 51 (49.4%) with an average of about 42 years, confirming evidence from literature (Scol, 2016; Cater, 2017). High single values were also collected, such as one 88 years old person, but also young people in the range of 18-20 (1.0%). In the sample the youngest motorcyclists is 18 years old, the minimum age required to obtain a license to drive 250 cc motorcycles. These results show that mototourism is an comprehensive phenomenon including people of all ages. Therefore every mototourism's product can be personalized to a wide range of the general public.
The main reason for the respondents to decide to become motorcyclists was the curiosity towards the vehicle (54.7%). The presence of biker friends (29.5%) and motorcycle sports on TV (27.6%) are also noteworthy.

86.3% of respondents say they are employed, followed by retired people with a significantly lower percentage (6.2%), then students and housewives (3.8%) and in the last position, unemployed or people who are seeking their first job (3.7%).

The most commonly owned motorcycle type is the dual sport (34.7%), followed closely by naked[9] ones (31.2%), which are motorcycles without the fairing. At the third place sports ones (15.2%), while the value for motorcycles specifically made for tourism is about 10.3%. Considering gender and differences in the choice of the type of motorcycle, positive results have been found for naked, dual sport, touring and custom (see graphic 1). Naked and custom motorcycles are preferred by women, probably for reasons connected to the physicality of women, as these motorcycles are usually smaller, or significantly lower (naked motorcycles are also lighter). Dual sport is the category where women are less represented and most preferred by male riders, probably because of their height and heaviness (Pinch and Reimer, 2012). The market segment of motorcycles aimed at women is still not very developed.

[9] Naked motorcycles are characterized by a basic style and a visible frame. The term Naked, as reported by Cordara and Margiotta (2018), became popular in 1992 after the presentation of the motorcycle Monster 900 and "today identifies motorcycles without fairings" (Cordara and Margiotta, 2018).

Graphic 1: Type of motorcycles by gender



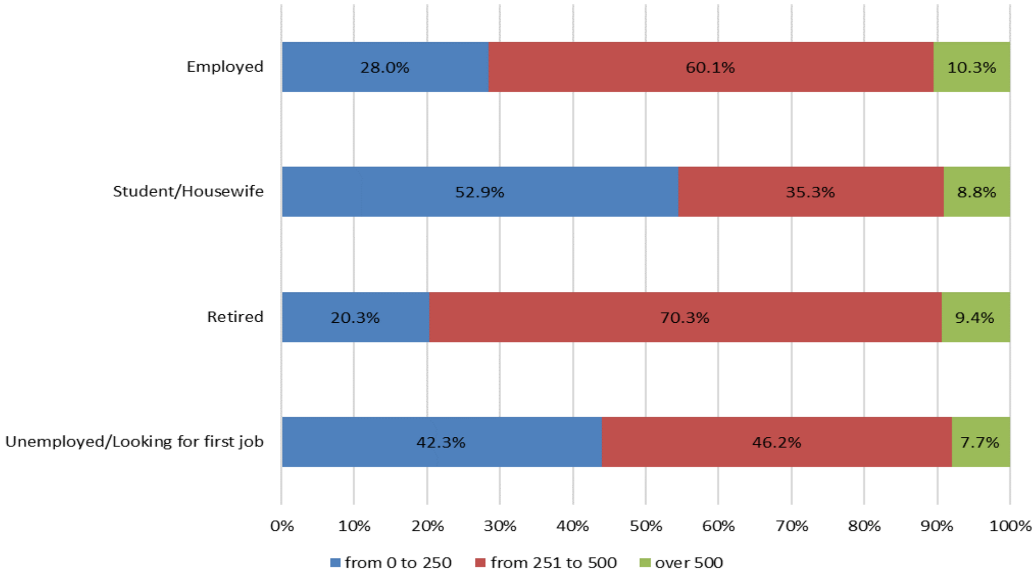
Therefore, mototourism can be considered a sub-sector of motorcycling, because the percentage of motorcycles that are not technically suitable for tourism (naked and sports) is quite high, so it can be stated that riders do not buy a motorcycle to do motorbike tourism but they do mototourism because they own a motorcycle and its purchase is presumably influenced by other factors such as the attributes of motorcycles, both visible and perceived, the selling price and influence of family, friends and other motorcyclists (Fatihudin and Mochklas, 2017).

For almost all respondents the presence of their own motorcycles and the possibility to use it during the trip is a very important element (95.6%, where 82.9% answered “extremely important”). Checking the riders’ willingness to rent a motorbike, it was also investigated whether the starting point of the itinerary was in a European country (a distance that was considered to be average). Respondents had to answer the specific question: "In the hypothesis of having an ITINERARY in motorcycle starting from a city in Europe, how likely are you to rent a motorbike at the point of departure?". 11.4% would be “extremely” willing to rent the vehicle and summed with respondents who answered “very” (15.5%) results show that around 26.9% are inclined to rent a motorcycle.

Travel experience and habits

A large part of the sample (26.7%) made two trips in the last year, while the average number is 3.8 and most of the respondents made between 2 and 4 trips in the last 12 months from the date of the survey. These trips for 78.7% of respondents had an average duration from 1 to 5 days, confirming previous studies (Sykes and Kelly, 2016; Cater, 2017). Also the percentage of trips lasting between 6 and 10 days is quite high (16.2%), which shows how these kinds of tourists can be considered as travellers who have rather “long vacations” (more than four nights, ISTAT 2018[10]), with an average travel duration of 4.5 days. The average distance travelled is around 355 km a day and most motorcyclists (60.5%) travel from 251 to 500 km a day during their journey, while 29.2% travel from 0 to 250 km a day. Only 10.2% travel more than 500 km a day up to extreme values such as 1,000 km a day. Retired people represent the occupational class with the highest number of journeys during the last year, immediately followed by the employed, while the unemployed made the least journies (Cater, 2017) (see graphic 2).

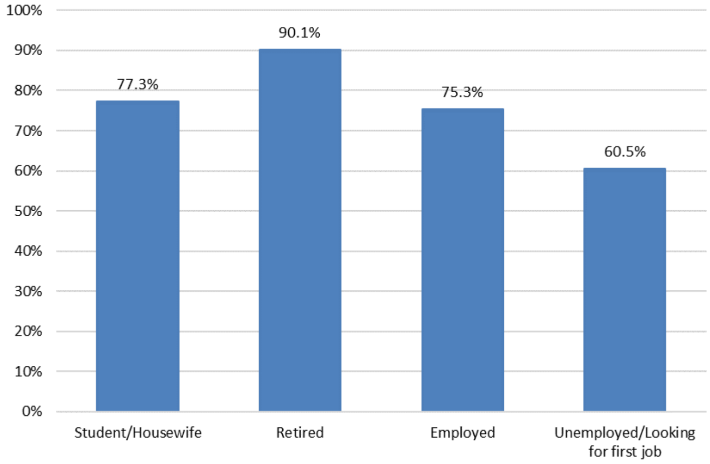
Graphic 2: Km per day per occupation



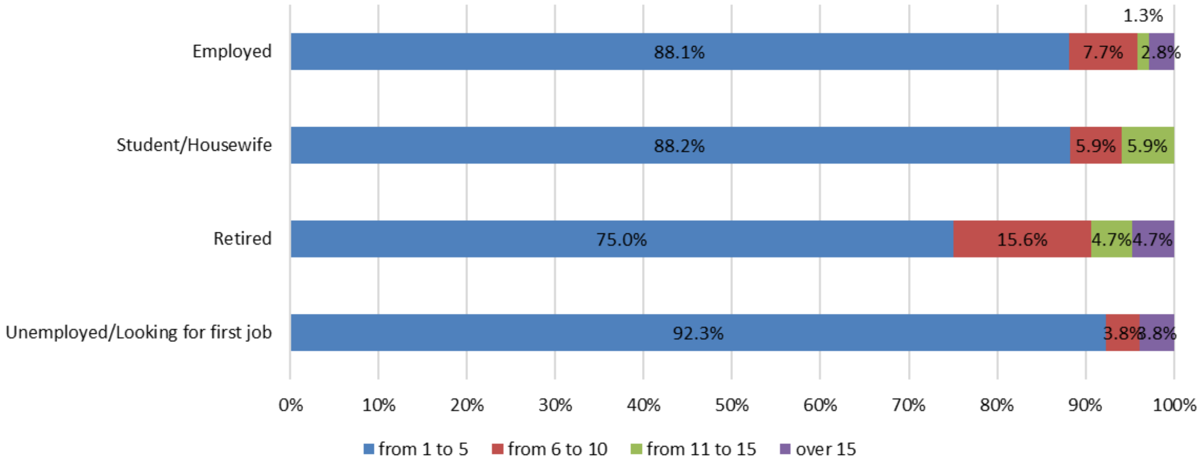
90.1% of retired respondents have made at least one trip in the last 12 months, so they can be classified as the target with the greatest number of travellers, followed in the second position by students (77.3%), employed (75.3%) and finally by unemployed (60.5%), showing the same tendency demonstrated by crossing the number of trips made in the last 12 months from the date of the survey (see graphic 3 and 4).

[10] https://www.istat.it/it/archivio/208998

Graphic 3: Percentage of travellers per occupation



Graphic 4: Number of trips per occupation



It is useful to understand the profile of different travellers. For tourism in general, and even more for mototourism, two important conditions are required: time and money (Cater, 2017). The unemployed have limited money and time availability, while retired people could have good availability of both (Cater, 2017), and are therefore inclined to do more trips. On the other hand, there are no relationships between employment and the average duration of the journey, perhaps indicating that mototourism can have a specific duration, probably linked to aspects that were not identified in this research.

The possible answers to the question "How much do the following aspects affect your choice to undertake an ITINERARY?" were chosen analysing those that have been identified as relevant in literary sources (Sykes and Kelly, 2016). The less important aspects were the presence of mechanical workshops (10.6%), speed cameras (27.6%) and motorbike accommodations (25.5%), while the most influential aspects on the choice of undertaking an itinerary were the presence of panoramic points (77.0%), small towns (50.2%) and food points (37.7%) (see table 1). Finding that mechanical workshop was ranked of lowest importance indicates that motorcyclists may not be inclined to entrust their motorcycle to a new workshop, encountered on the road. Obviously these issues could be objects for further studies.

Table 1: Importance of presence of some aspects in a mototourism trip (percentage value)

	Extremely + very important	**Quite important**	**Somewhat important + unimportant**
Small town	50.2	24.9	24.9
Speed camera	27.6	16.8	55.6
Mechanical workshop	10.7	19.4	70.0
Motorbikers accommodation	25.5	27.1	47.4
Food point	37.7	28.9	33.4
Panoramic point	77.0	11.8	11.3

This research analysed the activities that are more or less important for motorcyclists during their journey. The data found show, as expected, that driving is a fundamental aspect in a motorbike trip (82.1%) (Walker, 2011; Pinch and Reimer, 2012; Cater, 2017). Another relevant aspect is to visit a destination (64.4%), while in the third place there is the wish to eat typical products (44.9%), in accordance with the importance of having food points in the trip. Finally, cultural visits (36.6%) are also moderately considered as important for respondents, while the less important aspects are shopping 3.3% (Weddell, 2014), visiting relatives and friends 13.0% and the presence of motorcycle events 18.9%, which contradicts what is stated in the other studies (Sykes and Kelly, 2016; Cater, 2017) (see table 2).

Table 2: Importance of some aspects in a mototourism trip *(percentage value)*

	Extremely + very important	**Quite important**	**Somewhat important + unimportant**
Pleasure of drive	82.1	4.0	13.9
Eating tipical food	44.9	25.5	29.5
Visiting a destination	64.4	16.5	19.1
Presence of motorcyclist sport events	18.9	19.2	62.0
Visiting friends and relatives	13.0	22.0	65.0
Doing shopping	3.3	7.0	89.7
Cultural visit	36.6	25.4	36.6

While the motorcycle is actually the object of mototourism, cultural aspects and food and wine represent very important secondary components.

The favoured accommodation for respondents is definitely Bed&Breakfast (B&B) (93.0%), followed by farmhouses (91.0%) and hotels (75.6%). The most important reason for choosing an accommodation or a restaurant, instead, was the presence of a place with specific parking for motorbikes (Weddell, 2014; Cater, 2017): about 73.4% of respondents indicate it as “extremely + very important”, while other aspects have a rather lower percentage, such as the presence of other motorcyclists in the parking (30.6%), the ability to get advice on motocyclistic itineraries (32.7%) and the proximity to the town (34.1%), showing that the presence of a specific parking for motorbikes is the main motivation for the choice (Sykes and Kelly, 2016). Actually, a greater incidence of the "presence of other motorcyclists in the parking" was expected, as it would indicate a Biker-friendly (Sykes and Kelly, 2016) place (see table 3).

Table 3: Type of accommodation

	Percentage
Hotel	75.6
Farmhouse	91.0
Bed&Breakfast	93.0
Friends and relatives home	49.3
Campsite	42.5
House for rent	49.7

The high values for both B&B and farmhouses can be probably explained by the comfort of these structures and their availability of beds even without booking in advance. The higher preference for B&B and the farmhouses compared to hotels may be due to lower prices and the greater availability of these structures on the Italian provincial and state roads, but can also be related with looking for a dimension of rurality and typicality that seems to be a crucial aspect of the journeys of motorcyclists (Weddell, 2014; Sykes and Kelly, 2016). In addition B&Bs that offer overnight stay and a breakfast, are certainly more in line with the needs of tourists who spend most of the day driving, that arrive in the evening and leave the next morning. On the contrary, homes available from parents and friends (49.3%) or rental accommodations (49.7%) don't seem to be preferred probably because the advance notification that these facilities require. Finally, campsites are appreciated by less than half of the sample (42.5%), perhaps because they offer less comfort (absence of beds and presence of shared bathrooms) and it is difficult for motorcyclists to transport on their bike the equipment required. It should be noted that no type of accommodation show a clearly negative result, confirming the versatility of motorcyclists and also the wide spectrum of preferences that distinguish this type of traveller. Obviously these hypotheses could be deepened in further studies.

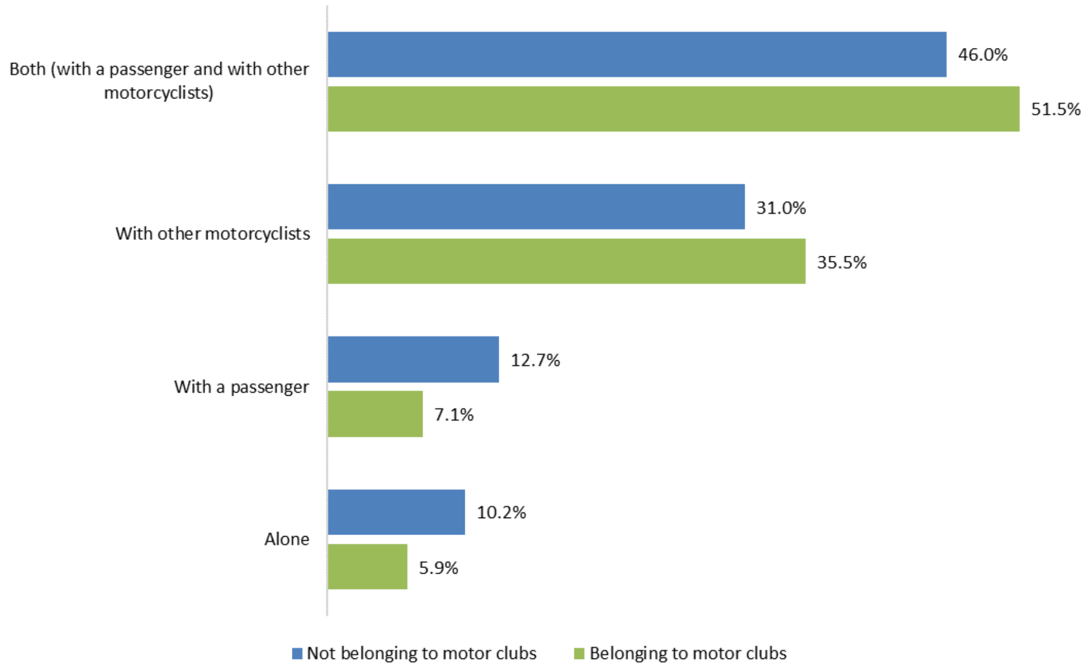
Motoaggregation

Our results are consistent with the idea of motoaggregation, defined as a phenomenon linked to a stereotypical vision of the motorcyclist, meaning how owners of motorcycles interact in collective travel and spend their free time together (Cater, 2017). These types of aggregation are often seen in a negative way, because in the collective imagination they suggest an almost delinquent environment, as reported widely in the American literature on mototourism (Codron, 2008; Scol, 2016). But actually, the research shows that the participation in the aggregation channels (motor clubs; motor meetings) is not so widespread, but also that participants are rather socially active.

The percentage of respondents that join motor meetings was also analysed: 54.7% of the sample replied that they participated in at least one motor meeting in the last 12 months.

Most of these people say to be 'very satisfied' (69.9%), while those who did not take part explained in a different query that it is mainly because they do not like motor meetings (57.7%). This result can be compared with the one obtained from the online survey of the Italian magazine "Motociclismo"[11], where 56.0% of respondents said that they did not like motor meetings. Almost 32.9% said that they have insufficient holiday time, leading to the conclusion that motor meeting are more time-expensive than costly (only 14.5% said they do not participate for reasons related to money).

Graphic 5: Travel preferences based on the membership of a motor club



38.0% of the respondents belong to a motor club, in comparison with 62.0% who do not belong to any. Crossing these results with those about travel company, a significant relationship between motor clubs membership and travel preferences company was obtaned (Sykes and Kelly, 2016; Cater, 2017) (see graphic 5). In fact, those who belong to a motor club prefer to travel with other motorcyclists (both alone on their vehicle, but especially with a passenger), while those who do not

[11] http://www.motociclismo.it/turismo-in-moto-sondaggio-di-motociclismo-voglio-viaggiare-sicuro-non-in-compagnia-64758

belong to a motor club generally don't like the presence of other riders, travelling alone or with a passenger.

Motoaggregation is a phenomenon that should not be underestimated if we decide to focus on mototourism. In fact, we believe this is the core of the organization of a trip. It is also possible to exploit the phenomenon of the motoaggregation for a better personalization of the tourism product (Sykes and Kelly, 2012). Furthermore, another very important aspect of motoaggregation should be taken into account: social commitment. In fact, motor clubs are usually involved in charity events, as confirmed by the commitment of motorcyclists during and after the earthquake in central Italy in 2016, when they spontaneously helped the Italian Civil Protection and the Red Cross[12]: this action also permitted them to reach houses and areas that were isolated because of rubble and the collapse of roads.

Preferred routes

According to the literature (Lecoutre and Dautheville, 2011; Scol, 2016; Cater, 2017) secondary roads with lots of curves are the most preferred by all, with a percentage of about 90.8%, while 7.8% preferred provincial and state roads with a prevalence of straight sections and only 1.4% expressways.

Informative channel

Researches reported (Cater, 2017) that magazines and other motorcyclists are the most frequent ways to find information, even if in this research magazines about motorclyclism are consulted by only 3.8% of respondents, while in first place there are internet sites, both generic (24.5%) and specialized in motorcycling (32.5%). Even the advice from friends (9.3%) and especially from other bikers are widely considered (14.0%) (Sykes and Kelly, 2016; Cater, 2017), while a relevant percentage take information from other unspecified sources (14.1%).

Conclusions

According to the results of this paper, mototourism is a form of tourism for all ages, because the pleasure of driving is shared by almost all motorcyclists, while secondary aspects can be customized according to the tastes of tourists. Mototourism can be considered as a subset of motorcycling activities, as it is plausible that someone becomes a mototourist because (s)he is already a motorcyclist, rather than becoming motorcyclists exclusively for motorbike tourism. Gender differences in the choice of the type of owned motorcycles have been highlightened and we suggest that these differences are mainly linked to a different physicality of the two sexes.

In this paper an important observation has been certainly reached: mototourism could be labelled as sustainable, especially in socio-economic terms, without

[12] Civil Protection is a structure of the Italian Government that coordinates policies and activities on defense and civil protection. The International Movement of the Red Cross and Red Crescent, known as Red Cross is the largest humanitarian organization in the world.

forgetting of course pollution implications. Mototourists are interested in cultural peculiarities of the territory, as demonstrated by results on the "activities to be carried out during the journey", the aspects that "push to undertake an itinerary" and the types of accommodation preferred. Furthermore, by analyzing the types of road preferred, it can be stated that mototourism represents an opportunity for rural areas, especially for those areas that would normally be geographically isolated. In fact, thanks to the preferences of motorcyclists for twisty secondary roads (Cater, 2017), even countries traditionally considered disadvantaged for their position have many possibilities to develop motorcycle tourism.

All this leads us to suggest that mototourism can also represent a possibility to decongest areas affected by mass tourism. In this case, however, it would be necessary to thoroughly investigate the various factors that influence the decision to rent or not to rent a motorcycle at the point of departure, in order to promote this option.

Results on motoaggregation provide lots of food for thought, because a greater participation in both motor meetings and motor clubs should have been expected (Cater, 2017). However, it can be noticed that there is actually a personal tendency to motoaggregation, which shows that participation or not to motor clubs influences travel preferences (Walker, 2011; Weddell, 2014). Motorcyclists are also very active on the web in organizing their trips, but we also reflected on how this result may have been influenced by the choice to circulate the questionnaire online.

Talking about the journey, motorcyclists in our sample give little importance to the presence of speed cameras, mechanical workshops and motorbike accommodations. In this case mototourists can be seen under a different light, far from the picturesque figure that pervades the collective imagination, and even a small part of the literature, that portrays biker as rude, interested only and exclusively in its motorcycle, its driving and its maintenance. Actually, it emerges that the motorcyclists give the greatest importance to panoramic points and presence of small villages, so even if the bike remains still very important in the journey and can be defined as a real purpose of the trip, it is not the only focal point of the motorcycle trip (Weddell, 2014).

Our results show that riders prefer B&Bs, farmhouses and Hotels as accommodation facilities, perhaps because they are more easily available on the kind of roads that motorcyclists prefer, do not require reservations in advance and are relatively comfortable, so that motorcyclists can reduce their luggage.

There is also a correlation between employment and the number of trips made, the propensity to travel and the average distance, and in this sense the Italian sample reflects the general trends already recorded by American and Welsh studies.

Mototourism is a profitable form of tourism for several reasons (Sykes and Kelly, 2012, 2016). The first reason can be defined as the ‘luggage problem’, so mototourists have low physical space to carry their luggage. This greatly affects costs for motorcyclists, starting from the decision to stay in accommodation that have more services and the need to purchase meals (Cater, 2017). The impossibility of carrying souvenirs could encourage motorcyclists to enjoy the specialities of places through the accommodation and catering facilities.

Implications and future research

During the project some interesting aspects that could be explored in future studies have been noticed. First of all, it would be interesting to investigate the reasons for the lack of representation of women in the motorcycle world (quantifying how scarce actually it is or if it is more than expected) and whether it can be linked to market issues, and therefore unavailability of motorcycle models accessible to the physicality of most girls, or whether it can be linked to a still purely male vision of the motorcycle world. It would also be interesting to investigate the social and aggregational phenomenon of women passengers and their role in motorcycling.

Secondly, it is necessary to carry out studies on perception in the motorcyclist's common imaginary. It has been mentioned several times how the mototourism can be an important driving force of economic development for rural areas, but it is good to remember that for the success of a tourist destination it is always necessary to avoid conflicts with the resident population. In this context it is necessary to conduct appropriate studies on the topic, which could also be the basis of awareness campaigns on the real nature of motorcyclists.

Moreover, future studies should investigate more thoroughly the economic nature of mototourism and how effectively the availability of money on the part of motorcyclists affects their choices, or if mototourism exhibits inelastic behavior in relation to travel spending.

Finally, a reflection on the possible evolution of motoaggregation in relation to new technologies should be made. Motor clubs are full-fledged associations, with statutes, membership fees and directors, but they do not seem to be at present the favorite form of associations for motorcyclists (Cater, 2017). More numerous are the different spontaneous groups that are born on the web and that are often used to replace canonical spaces of the motorcycle clubs. This new form of spontaneous associationism can surely lead to a segmentation between the online and the traditional motorcycle groups, but could even lead to the disappearance of the motorcycle clubs as we currently understand them. For these reasons it should be very important to create a study on the possible evolutions and implications of this phenomenon.

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Exploring the impacts of online social networks on people's motivation to attend music festivals in China

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to explore the impact of online social networks on music festival goers' motivation in China. The largest outdoor live rock music festival, the Midi Music Festival in China, is the case for the research. Primary data were collected through in-depth interviews with the festival attendees from 11 regions in China. Interviews were conducted via voice call by using Wechat. The research findings revealed the online behaviour of festival goers on social networks, and how social network participations influence goers' motivation to attend festivals. The study results also revealed mixed motivational factors of music festival goers' in China, where the outdoor music festival market has been booming in the last decades. This study contributes to the literature of festival attendance motivation and provides insights of festival goers' behaviour on online social networks.

Introduction

Outdoor music festivals have been developed for over 40 years in the world. The most famous ones are Woodstock in the USA, Glastonbury in the UK and Roskilde in Denmark (CNN, 2009). Outdoor music festivals have created a kind of culture, in which cultural communication is exchanged through music, and music festival has been developed into an emerging cultural festival which is popular among many young people (Chen, 2013). The history of outdoor music festival in China is not long and has been introduced for approximately 10 years; however, outdoor music festivals have been developed rapidly. The numbers of music festivals has increased from a few dozens to more than a hundred in the last decade. In addition, these music festivals have a strong impact on the development of the music industry and become an important platform for music talents to flourish (Mo, 2013).

According to Scott (1995), numerous researches on the motivations of festival attendees have been explored after Ralston and Crompton's first attempt in 1988. Li and Wood (2016) have also investigated people's motivation to attend music festival in China. Meanwhile, social media has influenced and changed people's behaviours to a great extent in the modern days. Social media has gradually become one of the most effective marketing tools, and social networks act as the core of our social activities and caused various social phenomena (Del Fresno García, et al., 2016; Ioanăs & Stoica, 2014; Rajan, 2015). Studies on the relationship between online social networks and motivation towards festivals attendance were seen in different regions, while many researchers found that the motivation to attend an event is likely to be reinforced by online social networks participation (Adamopoulos &Todri, 2014; Ghazali, et al., 2014; Lee, & Paris, 2013; Rajan, 2015; Valeri, et al., 2013); however, it is not automatic and does not happen to all events, as revealed by earlier research (Ghazal, 2011). This could be due to the distinctions among different scales and types of festivals as well as the particular condition of every region (Ghazal, 2011). In view of the growing popularity of outdoor music festivals in China and the new phenomena of social media, this study aims to explore the impact of online social networks on people's motivation to attend music festivals in China.

This paper is divided into four sections. The research question demonstrates the purpose and the core questions of the study. The literature review examines the relevant literature concerning the study. The research method section explains the chosen case of this study, sampling strategies and stages of data analysis. It is followed by the research findings and discussion.

Literature review

Festival Motivation

Crompton and McKay (1997) raised three reasons to make efforts to research on the motivation of festival visitors. The first reason is to design offerings of the festival in order to satisfy the visitors by providing what they need. The second reason is to understand the intimated relationship between motivation and satisfaction as satisfaction could motivate and increase repeat visitation. The third reason is to understand visitors' decision making process which is likely to make event marketing more effective. The research framework of Crompton and McKay (1997) adopted Crompton's (1979) contains seven sociopsychological motivations - Novelty, Socialization, Prestige/Status, Rest and Relaxation, Education Value/Intellectual Enrichment, Enhancing Kinship and Relations/Family Togetherness, and Regression. However, several studies revealed that people have different motivations towards different events (Li & Petrick, 2016). In addition, attendees' motivations identified under different cultural contexts have shown many differences and even some unseen factors, for example the research by Li & Wood (2016), on the Midi Music Festival in China, had identified seven motivations, which include spiritual escape, spiritual pursuit, togetherness, love of the music, novel experience, music sharing and educational enrichment.

Online Social Networks

Online social networks have been defined as a part of social media, which usually exist as social networking services or sites (SNSs) which link global users, who share same interests, hobbies, views and values, together (Ioanăs & Stoica, 2014). Social network sites (SNSs) are platforms that generate and collect profiles and information that registered users would share with others. Mostly, two users become linked once a user accepted the friend invitation of another. There are two kinds of activities that users are involved the most on SNSs: editing and updating their profiles like posting status and photos, uploading audios or videos and writing comment; acquiring the information others create, such as reading texts, looking at pictures and download audios (Trusov, Bodapati, & Bucklin, 2010). Majority of sites allow users to demonstrate themselves, interact with other users, build and maintain their social networks such as Friendster, CyWorld, and MySpace. Specially, some sites come with job or work related context such as LinkedIn.com, or aim to connect the offline networks online, for example Facebook.com (Ellison et al., 2007).

Foster et al. (2010) found five major motives of users to participate in online social networks. They are community membership, information value, participation concerns (involvement), friendship connections, and participation confidence (sense of belonging). In addition, Denis (1994) also concluded four main motivational needs of accessing online social networks: information (sharing and consuming content, debating), entertainment (Unspecified fun, time-killing), social interaction (Socializing, friends, family, New relations, free SMS), and personal identity (profile surfing).

Referring to Bogozzi and Dholakia (2002), Füller et al. (2009), Forman et al. (2008), Wasko and Faraj (2005), and Rajan (2015) studies, social media is identified as a large-scale information sharing platform, which further develops the market through bringing out more suppliers and various products and services providers. In addition, the users could associate with each other through these independent platforms, where contents, offers and suggestions could be created by customers. The innovation of online communication and electronic networks enable the social platform user to share information rapidly worldwide. The social networks have been an effective method to attract customers' attention and launched a new era of content creation.

The previous researches on social and communication networks, opinion leadership, source credibility, and diffusion of innovations have revealed that the influence among the consumers is based on information sharing that does not require face to face interactions (Robins, Pattison & Elliott, 2001; Trusov, Bodapati & Bucklin, 2010). As the information spreads in digital form online, it is considered that there is a particular social influence that the behaviours of one user would change in response to the views and behaviours of other users (Trusov, Bodapati & Bucklin, 2010).

Social network websites have been included in the promotion channels nowadays as a new element with mass and personal communications that allow instant and simultaneous communications, multi media formats and plenty global reach platform (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). According to Adamopoulos and Todri (2014), the percentage of people who use social media has increased significantly; meanwhile, people tend to spend more and more time online. Thus companies devote more investment on the Internet and social media, in order to build close connections with customers and enlarge the social influence.

Online social networks' Impacts on events attendees' motivation

Ghazal (2011) stated that online social networks have a significant effect on the success of events and festivals marketing. On the other hand, events with social media platforms could gain positive returns significantly in terms of new customer base for the brand. In particular, it is also illustrated by Adamopoulos and Todri (2014) that the marketing of events with a larger customer base are likely to be more effective on social media, as the message could be transmitted more rapidly and effectively which might lead to a "richer get richer" effect. Moreover, it is more receptive for customers to give suggestions and help the brands to make corresponding strategies accordingly.

In reality, social networks have already been used to share the word of mouth among communities; in the meantime, it may bring positive or negative impacts. Products and services with high quality usually gain more positive word of mouth while bad word of mouth could indicate defects (Cao, et al, 2009). On the other hand, the participants of online social networks are ideal target for word of mouth marketing as they are more open to the message and willing to share information in their online communities (Dwyer, 2007). Moreover, online social networks could reach customers who share common interests without any limitation on geographic boundaries, so that word of mouth information could be spread more rapidly and widely (Brown et al., 2007).

According to Yang, Dia, Cheng, and Lin (2006), customers are influenced strongly by their communities or social networks on their decisions or buying behaviours. In this case, Word of Mouth marketing has been applied extensively in social networks, which could be categorized into community marketing, referral programs and viral marketing based on the ways of spreading advertising information. Community marketing refers to forming people with common interest as communities, where they could share reviews and experience. In the referral programs, satisfied customers would recommend the products or services to their family and friends. Besides, viral marketing encourages costumers to forward the entertaining and informative messages to their friends and then encourages their friends to forward the message to more people as a chain reaction of improving awareness (Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels, 2006).

Furthermore, enquiries on the relationship between participating in online social networks and motivation to attend festivals or revisit festivals have been explored. Rajan (2015) referred to the result of a survey conducted by consumer organizations, declared that the motivation of the customers, who have participated in social medias, will be reinforced. Lee and Paris (2013) also revealed that participating in Facebook could significantly impact people's intention to go to event. Beside, Valeri, et al. (2013) illustrated that people's decision on whether to attend an event is affected by the ratings and comments of others that can obtain from online and offline word of mouth. Moreover, it is admitted by respondents that they have been influenced to attend an event after receiving the information through the SNSs as they believe the information firmly. Furthermore, event goers also agreed that the shared interest in an event always maintained as long as they are connected in online social networks (Ghazali, et al., 2014).

However, Ghazal (2011) verified that the use of online social networks did not promote the Asian Film Festival in Deauville effectively as a communication tool since there was not any impact on visitors' satisfaction, recommendation and intention to revisit on Facebook and the group even did not motivate enough members to attend the festival. The reasons could be attributed to the weakness usage of online social network and low spread of the group or its weak activities.

As it is indicated that due to the limitation on various aspects such as time, space and statistical quantity, more researches on wider range of events and more regions should be applied. Due to the different conditions of every particular region, the researches, which are with the same purpose, taking place in different regions may have different results, or even the contrary results as it was demonstrated above (Adamopoulos & Todri, 2014; Ghazal, 2011; Ghazali, et al., 2014; Hudson, 2010; Lee, & Paris, 2013; Rajan, 2015; Valeri, et al., 2013).

Based on the literature review and the recent popularity of outdoor music festival in China, the researchers thus attempt to investigate and research how online social networks affect event goers' motivation to attend music festival in China.

Research Method

The Case – Midi Music Festival

Hosted by the Beijing Midi Music School and Beijing Midi Performance Company since 2000 and with more than ten years of development, Midi festival has become the longest running and largest non-government music festival in China (Beijing Business Today, 2009). Every year, with hundreds of thousands of fans roll in from all over the country, dozens of well-known bands at home and abroad were invited to perform in the festival. Moreover, many domestic and international well-known media also focus on the recent years of the festival and report the related news. MIDI is also known as the "Woodstock" of China (Midi, 2014). Wei Dan, the current CEO of Midi music festival, stated that in the first decade of development of domestic outdoor music festival, the internet played a significant role in promoting bands, spreading music, establishing communities and so on, which was beyond the traditional medias. Moreover, in the recent six years, the development of mobile internet has boosted the interaction function of music festivals to a greater extent and brought more convenience for audiences in various aspects, for example, watching live broadcast, the online ticketing services, scheduling and socialization, etc. (China Economic Net, 2017). In this case, Midi has established many online forums to engage the participants, which include the official website, Midi Forum and official account on different social networking sites such as WeChat, Weibo, Facebook, Renren and Douban. The forums were managed by the organizer so they could post information and news for fans to communicate and share their opinions and thoughts. At the time of the research is written, 223,263 people have registered as members in Midi Forum and the official account of Midi has gained 254,511 fans on Weibo (Weibo, 2017; Beijing Midi School of Music BBS, 2017). Therefore, as a case study for this research, Midi Music Festival could offer a highly appropriate context to achieve the research objectives.

In order to obtain in-depth and comprehensive understanding on how participation in online social networks influence event goers' motivation to attend music festival, qualitative research method, with in-depth interview as data collection tool was adopted for this study. Primary data was collected through in-depth interviews with the festival attendees, which enable the researchers to gain rich description and insights. The in-depth interviews were conducted by using semi structured interview questions, which are more flexible compared to full-structured interviews that could be adjusted properly based on interviewees' different responses (Galletta, 2013).

Two pilot testing interviews were conducted to ensure the interview questions are understandable and sufficient to gain insights of the research topic. After the pilot interviews, it was found that the questions were well developed and organized that could obtain sufficient valid information. There were only minor adjustments due to word choices and usage. Thus the interview questions were adopted to conduct in-depth interviews with.

Sampling

Although there is not any official demographic statistics of the participants of this festival, Li and Wood (2016) have accessed to the internal data and claimed that 98% of the attendees were under 35 years old as recorded, which means the group was mainly dominated by youth. The research applied quota sampling that set a specific quota for certain types of individuals to be interviewed (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). Therefore, the research population was split into 3 age ranges which are 18-24 years old, 25-30 years old and 31-35 years old. Respondents were approached from the festival online community that were formed by the festival's organizer on WeChat and the participants are the previous Midi festival goers. Wechat is one of the booming and most commonly used social network platforms in China (Tencent, 2016). Most of the approached members were very willing to take part in the research interviews and happy to provide rich source of information as far as possible.

The interview invitations were sent randomly based on the 3 age ranges in the online communities. Interview requests were accepted by members voluntarily and willingly. There were a total of sixteen members from the chat group accepting the invitation. Due to the geographic dispersion of the respondents across China, the interviews were conducted all in Mandarin and mainly conducted through voice call by using WeChat. There were two face to face interviews among all. With permission granted by all the interviewees, all interviews were digital recorded for transcribing and further reviewing as needed. The longest interview lasted for around forty minutes. After conducting 16 in-depth interviews, the data seemed saturated from new insights. There were no fresh, new information and comments has been discovered in the last two interviews. Data collection has reached saturation (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007).
The 16 interviewees were aged between 20 and 34 (six were below 24, six were between 25 and 30 and four were 31 and above); only 1 was from the host city - Shenzhen and 15 were from different regions in China, which covered 11 regions out of a total number of 34 in China (23 provinces, 5 autonomous regions, 4

municipalities directly under the Central Government and 2 S.A.R.), as illustrated in Figure 1. Furthermore, 6 were female and 10 were male; and frequency of attending the festival varied between first time and numerous times. The sample, therefore, provided an appropriate representation of festival attendee age ranges, geographic location and frequency of attendance.

Figure 1: Regional distribution of interviewees

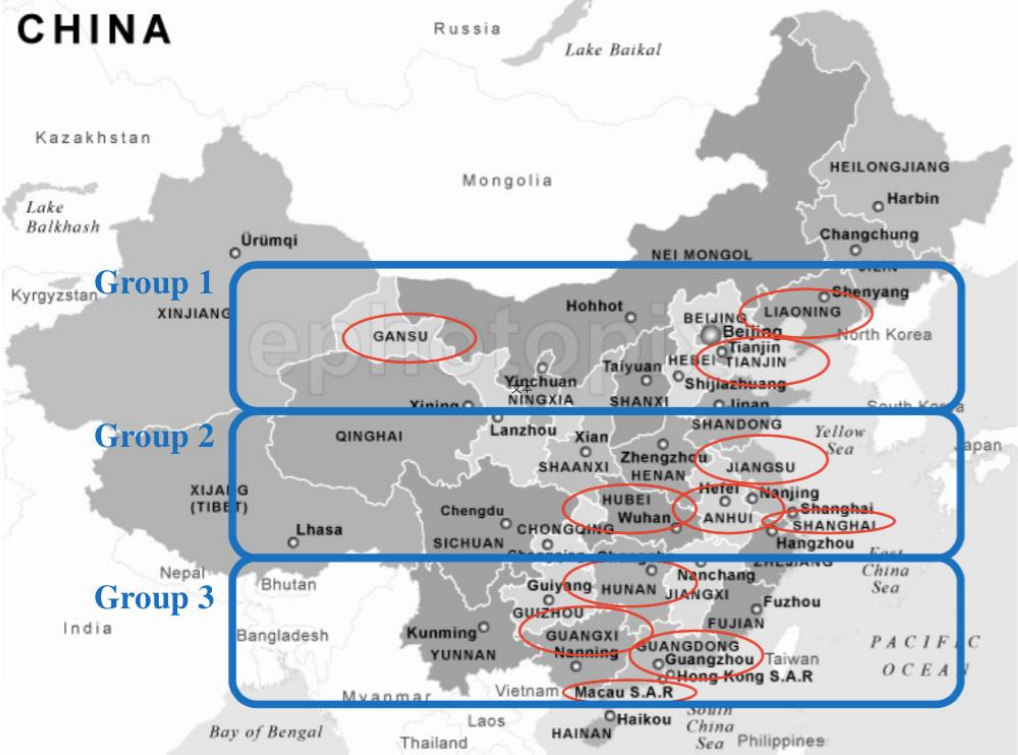

Table 1 shows the demographics of all interviewees, which include their place of origin, age and gender. Based on the place of origin, every interviewee was allocated into different groups as shown in Figure 1, and a code was assigned to each respondent for data analysis. Therefore, each code refers to the specific interviewee listed in Table 1 accordingly.

Table 1: The demographics of interviewees

Group	Code	Place of origin	Age	Gender
1	1a	Tianjin	28	M
	1b	Liaoning	34	M
	1c	Gansu	33	M
2	2a	Shanghai	20	F
	2b	Jiangsu	24	F
	2c	Jiangsu	25	M
	2d	Jiangsu	28	M
	2e	Jiangsu	34	M
	2f	Hubei	23	F
	2g	Hubei	23	F
	2h	Anhui	31	M
3	3a	Hunan	25	M
	3b	Guangxi	25	M
	3c	Guangdong	22	F
	3d	Guangdong	27	M
	3e	Macau	21	F

Data Analysis

All interview records were verbatim transcribed into Chinese. The transcript of each conversation was summarized in English respectively. Meanwhile, the codes used for coding were generated from literature review, for example, socialization, community and etc. Thematic analysis was conducted in a systematic and rigorous way (Guest et al., 2011). The analysis procedures in sequence were open coding, axial coding and selective coding, which include the processes of generating initial codes, creating themes by grouping codes, connecting and recognizing relationships between the core themes, producing the explanation and report (Ap, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Codes were assigned to words, phrases and sentences found in the transcripts by chunks. Through classifying and grouping the codes of the same type, the resulting themes were created and kept for further analysis. Finally, the themes were reviewed to explore the relationship and connections between them and create patterns, which revealed the finding of this research.

Findings and discussions

The findings of the study are categorized under three major themes. They are 1. Festival Goers' Online Social Networks Behaviours; 2. Online Social Networks Impacts on Motivation to Attend Festival; and 3. Festival Attending Motivation.

Festival Goers' Online Social Networks Behaviours

Based on the data analysis, all respondents spend some time online every day, which varies from 1 hour to 8 hours (7 people spent less than 3 hours, 6 people spent 3 hours to 6 hours and 3 people spend over 6 hours per day). The main motivational needs for them to spend time online are to obtain information (visit websites, read information and news, advertising), interact with friends (communicating, looking at updates, posting comments), construct personal identity and maintain social network (maintaining/updating profile, sharing/watching photo/video/music, sharing personal thoughts and feelings) (Denis, 1994) and work (contact and receiving information).

On the other hand, most respondents would like to share information (music/photo/video, news of events, details of shows, good resources, article) or personal experience (own life, feelings/thoughts, fresh things) on social networks for the reasons of sharing common interests/feelings or helpful information, own interest/passion, generating publicity and letting people know and participate.

It is also recognised that online social networks have imposed influences on people's life in terms of information spreading, communication, friendship/friend circle, self-improvement/learning and trading/shopping.

> *"There is a great impact. For example, it is more convenient to transfer files and exchange information in the work and online payment on WeChat brings many conveniences for our daily lives. I could deal with many things conveniently just with a mobile phone."* (Interviewee 1b)

The convenience that online social networks have in people's work and lives was fully affirmed with the popularization of file transfer and online payment functions on social networks.

> *"We used to take cash when we go out, now we can use online payment on our mobile phones to buy anything we need. We start to reply on the smartphones, especially for planning a journey, such as making reservation, finding the way on map, etc. Many young people are addicted to smartphones now."* (Interviewee 1c)

As shown in below sampler quotes, some people have conducted transactions, which include making a reservation, booking tickets and shopping, on social networks. Moreover, with the people's increasing dependence on them, social networks have been incorporated into people's life inseparably.

> *"Definitely, it is a new and the main channel for me to know things happened around and get information."* (Interviewee 2f)

> *"It is the most convenient and efficient way for gathering publicity and learning."* (Interviewee 2h)

> *"Online social networks enlarge my friend circle and broaden my vision."* (Interviewee 3e)

> *"Convenient for communicating with friends and easy to make like-minded friends."* (Interviewee 2d)

In addition, since information was spread widely and rapidly on social networks, the social networks were utilized as an effective channel to get information as well as gather publicity. Online social networks have made communication more convenient and increased people's interactions online, which helps people to make more friends and enlarge their friend circle. Last but not least, online social networks are regarded as the fastest and most convenient way for learning knowledge and skills, hence self-improvement was also considered as an aspect of the impact.

> *"The reviews of music festival on the social media is more real and reliable since many reviews are real-time updated, the current feelings of participants could truly reflect their inner feelings during the festival. Besides, I could know many information about the music festival through the reviews without asking."* (Interviewee 3c)

> *"I think the comments are reliable as people wrote the comment seriously and objectively. The most of comments I have seen were favorable reviews, it encourage me to attend the festival to a great extent."*(Interviewee 2f)

Regarding the word of mouth and comments of music festivals on online social networks, the respondents took different attitudes for various reasons. 12 interviewees held positive attitude as the comments were real-time updated personal experience and real feelings of every participant, which were considered as true, consistent and helpful. Some interviewees noticed that most of the comments expressed favourable perception commonly, which encourage them to participate.

> *"I only believe my own experience, other's experience might be different with mine, so I would not believe." (Interviewee 3a)*

> *"Everyone has their own different feelings, but I and my friends would share the most real feelings to others. I believe our sharing could help many people. However, the information has dual character that need their own judgments, people's own experience is the most real." (Interviewee 2c)*

On the contrary, the rest 4 interviewees thought different people have different feelings, the comments were emotional and subjectivity that need people's own judgement. They indicated that many comments only shared the happy side and they would only believe their own experience.

The findings indicate that people tent to spend more time on online social networks, which has a great impact on attendees' daily life in information spreading, communication, friendship, shopping and self-improvement. Besides, it was proved that online social networks have become the main channel for people to get information and most interviewees tend to believe the information on the social networks, which were considered as real and reliable. Therefore, many music festival participants were motivated by the information shared by their friends through online social networks.

Online Social Networks' Impacts on Motivation to Attend Festivals

The participation of online social networks has impacted many potential festival goers' motivations to attend Midi music festival. The quotes below illustrated how online social network participation influencing festival motivation:

> *"Absolutely. Firstly, the line-up is very important for me as well as gathering with friends from all over the country and we make appointment online. I have influenced many friends around, including the friends I made online. I used to share something on WeChat when I was watching the live shows, some friends saw my sharing and inspired, so they asked me to attend with them the next time."* (Interviewee 2g)
>
> *"Yes, I was motivated to attend by the experience and information shared by my friends on Weibo." (Interviewee 2f)*
>
> *"The influence of social networks is very important. We could only see the general information published by official sources, now we can see the live videos through online social networks, people who did not attend could see the festival in others' view and be touched more easily." (Interviewee 1c)*

As many interviewees explained, they were introduced to the festival through the online social networks and most of them wanted to attend and experience after seeing friend's sharing of experience, feelings, photos, live videos, etc. In this case, online social networks played a significant role in communication and spreading information among communities, which could motivate or encourage more participation and lead to further engagement. The following quotes reveal the phenomenon further:

> *"To some extent, I might only know but not to attend Midi by friend's liking and recommends without online social networks. However, what motivated me is the recommendations of my friends and festival itself but not public opinions on the social networks, the social networks provided a channel for me to know and be engaged in the festival."* (Interviewee 3e)

While 5 interviewees did not fully agree that online social networks have impacted their motivation since they regarded online social networks just as a channel to spread information and would not be impacted by others' opinions and feelings. The factors that really motivated them are indicated as the line-up, gathering with friends or the attributes of the festival itself, as illustrated with the quotes below:
"I think it did not have any impact on me, the information has more effects. The online social networks just play the role of spreading but not making decision. On the other hand, through the information shared and discussion on WeChat and

Group chat, many people might be encouraged and appealed to attend the festival." (Interviewee 2e)

> *"No, I would attend based on my own feelings but other's."* (Interviewee 1b)

The results have also supported the previous findings that customers were influenced significantly by their communities on their decisions or behaviors (Yang, Dia, Cheng, & Lin, 2006). Besides, the positive attitudes toward the word of mouth on social networks have also proved that customers would be affected by the ratings and comments of others and influenced to attend an event as they believe the information shared on social networks firmly (Valeri, et al., 2013). In addition, it has been found through the interview that many people would spread the information they interested or trust by forwarding to others on social networks. In this case, the word of mouth marketing, which includes community marketing, referral programs, viral marketing (Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels, 2006), appeared to be very effective.

Finally, the results reveal strong similarities that participating in social network sites could significantly reinforce people's intention to attend events and to share interest of an event on online social networks (Lee and Paris, 2013; Ghazali, et al., 2014; Rajan, 2015). On the other hand, the opposite opinion revealed the reasons of not being influenced or impacted, because potential festival goers' own will or feelings are being motivated by other factors which are not online social network related Ghazal (2011).

Festival Attending Motivation

The motivation of most interviewees was mixed, mainly composed of spiritual escape, spiritual pursuit, togetherness, love of the music, novel experience, music sharing, educational enrichment (Li & Wood, 2016), socialization as well as relaxation (Crompton & McKay, 1997). The sampler quotation below illustrates:

> *"To see the live show of my favourite musician, it was a new experience that different with the experience of concerts." (Interviewee 3a)*

> *"I hoped to share my own music and spirit on the stage of Midi. In addition, I want to study and enjoy the live shows in Midi festival, it was really an extraordinary experience." (Interviewee 2h)*

> *"Midi festival is a conventionalized event for me to get together with my friends, we could enjoy the live shows, know more band and listen to their music, as well as interacting with other music lovers in the festival. Music festival is a more fashionable way of entertainment compared to dine together and seeing movie, more and more attendances focus on participation rather than music recently." (Interviewee 1c)*

The two complex motivating factors as spiritual escape and spiritual pursuit, which were discovered in this study, were revealed in previous research (Li&Wood, 2016). Spiritual escape was described as a form of relaxation through releasing oneself from the mental constraints of everyday life. Besides, spiritual pursuit reflected the faith and belief of building the “spiritual life” with the ideas of Utopian ideals, freedom, dreams (Li & Wood, 2016).

> *“Midi is a kind of spiritual ballast or belief for me. I felt very depressed in my daily life and I could not be real-self most of time, Midi is a very good opportunity to relax and free myself.” (Interviewee 3b)*

> *“It is a comprehensive need for me and it was changed with age. At the first time, I attended the festival because of my fond on music and togetherness with friend. After graduating from school, spiritual escape and pursue have become the major motivations. Besides, as I am working in tourism industry, educational enrichment is also an important motivation”. (Interviewee 2e)*

In addition, novel experience, love of music, music sharing, togetherness and educational enrichment were illustrated and verified in below quotes. Moreover, it is recognised that all interviewees have shown multiple and mixed motives for attending the festival. On the other hand, collective memory is regarded as an important element of togetherness as many participants attended the festival for gathering with the friends they made and have shared experience in the festival.

> *“As our daily life is kind of boring, I want to go out and have some fun. I felt extremely happy and relaxed in the festival that I could release myself. Besides, I have made many friends in the festival, attending the festival is like going home now.”* (Interviewee 2a)

> *“My motivations are to have fun, communicate with the younger ones and learn something new.”* (Interviewee 2c)

Although Li and Wood (2016) have illustrated several motivations for people to attend music festivals in China, the research findings reveal other different factors. The two motivational factors of socialization and relaxation, which were identified by Crompton and McKay (1997), were revealed in the responses of the interviews in this study. In addition, the analysis on behaviors of using social networks and its impacts lend further support to the previous findings of Denis (1994) and Foster et al. (2010). People’s participation in online social networks are to satisfy the needs of obtaining information, getting social interaction (community membership, friendship connection), constructing personal identity (involvement, sense of belonging). As a result, their participation created corresponding impacts in these aspects to people’s life afterwards. Furthermore, social networks also provide many conveniences to people’s life in terms of the two new discoveries as online trading and self-improvement.

It was also revealed that music festival is regarded as one of the fashion ways for gathering but not only the party for music lovers in modern life. Thus more and more people attend music festival just for participation instead of other purposes. Particularly, the first-timed participants were encouraged to attend the festival by the information on online social networks to a greater extent as they were not familiar with the music festival and focused more on participation. While, the repeat participants, who treasure more the music or collective memory in attending the festival, were mainly impacted by the line-up, music atmosphere and their friends' decision. Regarding online social network, it serves as a channel for repeat participants to communicate and get more detailed information sooner and easier.

Furthermore, by sharing experience and information among online communities, the attitude and decision of community members would be affected or indeed changed. In particular, almost all the interviewees indicated that gathering with friends in order to share collective memory about the festival is one of the major factors for them to attend music festival. It is phenomenal because the festival goers are mostly coming from different regions of China. They get together in the festival every year as promised from the previous year. In this case, online social networks are considered as the most convenient channel for people to introduce, invite and make appointment with their friend to attend music festival together.

The analysis did show that as the main channel for young people to get information nowadays, online social networks play a significant role in promoting festivals, disseminating information, establishing communities and keeping customers engaged in the marketing strategy of music festivals in China. To summarize, the findings support that people's motivation to attend a music festival could be reinforced by online social networks participation significantly.

Conclusion

This paper illustrated the impact of online social networks on festival goers' motivation to attend music festival in China. The study results support previous research findings that people's motivation could be reinforced by participating in online social networks. The results also provide further evidence of how online social networks could impose impact on people's motivation to attend a festival. The chosen case is an important festival in modern China. It enables the research results shedding light on the online behavior of young Chinese music festival goers. It reveals that online social networks play an extremely important role in the event and festival marketing. At the same time, as similar research has not been identified in China, this study could provide references for the organizers or marketers to take into consideration for future festivals and events organization in China. It would help event and festival organizers to understand the importance and the role of online social networks in forming marketing strategies, with possible extension to customer relationship management and brand building as well in the future.

With the time constraints and geographic limitation of the current study, the result may only reflect the facts of this particular festival. Further research on other festivals in different region or bigger scale of a study are suggested to widen the horizon of this research topic.

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Development of a method for filtering information for tourists associated with their needs

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Abstract

There are increases of tourists who have a variety of criteria owing to FIT (Free Individual Tourists). The tourists require a variety of experiences fitted with them. In this paper, a filtering method of tourist questionnaire is proposed in terms of Bell-shaped Distribution like normal distribution and Non-bell-shaped Distribution like with two peaks. And a survey was conducted to validate the proposed method at a national university in Japan as a kind of sightseeing spot. The result was showed that average experience consists of bell-shapes experience (71.4%), Non-bell-shaped experience (28.6%). Finally, directions of strategies related to classification and balance on marketing in tourism are suggested based on the Bell-shaped and non-bell-shaped distribution.

Introduction

Due to the high penetration of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) all over the world, tourists can gain easily a lot of information related to their destination. In this situation, FIT (Foreign Independent Tour/Free Individual Tourist) can pursue better experiences during their trip. Thus, in terms of a side of tourism providers, they need to support their guests to have their good experiences in a trip based on the current ICT environment such as OTA, Social Media, and so on.

And also the tourism Industry is facing globalization. In the industry, many companies need to get various customers/tourists' feedback to extend service operations to adapt to this situation. In business practices, utilizing ICT for data analysis seems to be limited as of now, especially in SMEs (Small-and-medium-sized enterprises) in terms of Digital Marketing, Data-driven marketing, and so on.

In the current service economy, "a moment of truth" that is represented as a contact between customer and service provider is still crucial to earning a loyal customer in business practice [1]. Several approaches represent and assess service experience in Marketing, such as Service Encounter [2, 3], Customer Journey [5], and so on. But conducting qualitative research like the above approaches is relatively labor-intensive. For SMEs, easily-used methods/tools are needed for evaluating the experience in tourism based on the current ICT environment.

Purposes in this paper are to develop a method for filtering information for tourists associated with their needs and then to get data we can interpret context in their experiences. We can divide the data based on two types of tourists' criteria: ``standard criteria'' that majority tourists share with and ``individual criteria'' that have a variety of a direction depended on each tourist. Then, we will explore what differences are there in terms of the two types of criteria in the tourism experience through the questionnaire survey?

State of the art on service design and evaluation of service experiences

Evaluating service experiences is related to service encounters in service marketing. A service encounter is defined as: "a period of time during which a consumer directly interacts with a service." [2] And there are several approaches for evaluating service encounters. A model for customer evaluation was proposed and partially validated based on synthesizing consumer satisfaction, service marketing, and attribution theories [3]. A dyadic perspective of service encounter dimensions consists of interactivity, rituality, effectiveness, materiality, accessibility, and agent satisfaction, as the criteria [4].

On the other hand, from the perspective of service design, the customer journey is well known to identify customer experience as a holistic view in the service practice [5, 6].

One problem of those methods is the cost to conduct for SMEs that have minimal resources. The kinds of expenses, for example, are labor costs, time-consuming, and also required expertise for analyzing the data. In many cases, they cannot help but focus on only their primary businesses. To address this issue, some kinds of web questionnaire approaches are widely used in all kinds of companies as well as academic areas.

But these are not well prepared for secure connection to data-driven approaches such as digital marketing and so on. Therefore, the dynamic-oriented web questionnaire approach is proposed for collecting customers' data with consideration for both evaluating customers' specific action/behavior and the natural connection to such data-driven strategies in the service practice.

Methodology

Survey Design

As the survey design, we follow the assumption that "Standard Criteria" in tourism experience is linked to Bell-shaped distribution generated collected tourist survey data, and "Individual Criteria" in tourism experience is linked to Non-bell-shaped distribution, such as it has two peaks and so on. And then, a questionnaire survey is conducted to validate the proposed method. The Selected area is Kyoto University, which is a national university in Japan as we can see a kind of sightseeing area. The data is collected through a questionnaire that evaluates the sightseeing spots on the campus.

We propose a simple method for filtering information for SMEs in tourism. We assume that there are two types of tourists' criteria. One is ``standard criteria'' that the majority of tourists have. The other is ``individual criteria'' that have a variety of the direction depended on each tourist. The standard criteria represent mass-preference, and it is easy to interpret and to utilize the average scores. The individual criteria represent individual preference, and it is not easy to interpret and to utilize the average scores.

And Bell-shaped distribution, such as normal or positive skew and so on, represent the standard criteria because of the similar directions of evaluation. On the other hand, non-bell-shaped distribution, such as uniform or bi-modal distribution, and so on, represent the individual criteria because of the variety of directions of the evaluation. As having this perspective, we can consider the balance between the standard criteria orientation related to all tourists and the individual criteria orientation associated with each specific tourist.

To confirm the two directions, we firstly prepare a questionnaire that covers information related to select sightseeing spots like an ordinary tourism guide book. And we collect the data through the questionnaire from the actual tourists. The data include tourists' evaluation with Likert-scale for each sightseeing spot, such as recommended intention with 10-scale (Likert-scale). And then, we analyze the data based on the data shape, especially which is bell-shaped like normal distribution or not.

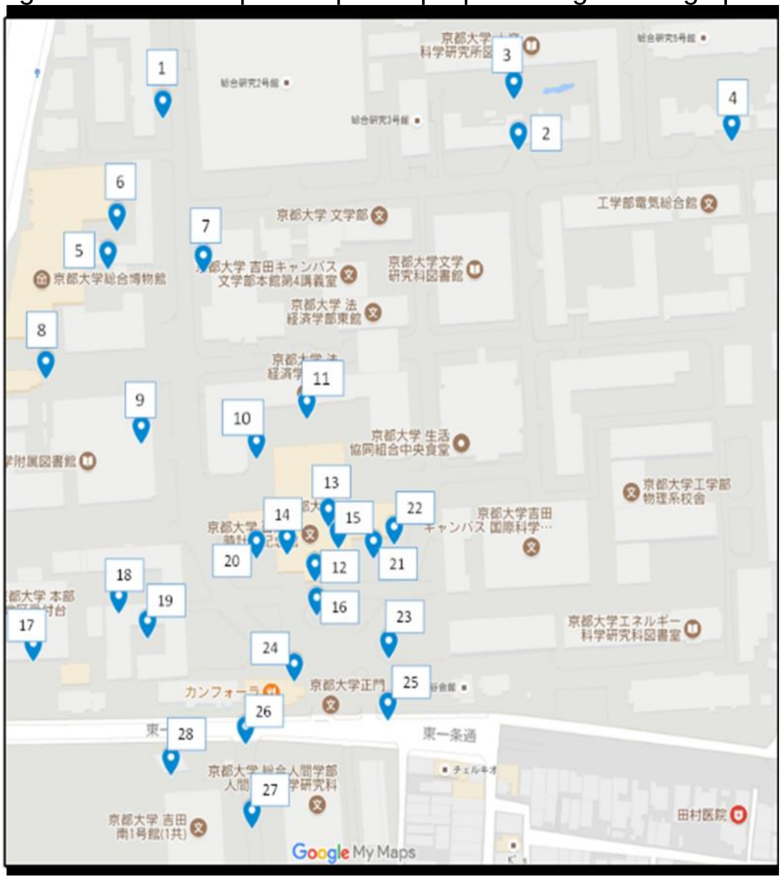
The analysis procedure is below. Step 1 is to see the collected evaluation data of each sightseeing spots as depicted statistics. Step 2 divides them into 2 groups related to bell-shaped distribution like normal distribution and non-bell-shaped distribution like it has two peaks. Step 3 is to see the tourist's evaluation in terms of the two kinds of direction. In step 4, for the first group related to bell-shaped distribution, we also divide it into two subgroups. Those are groups of positive or negative evolution from tourists. The positive evaluation subgroup includes data with more than ``6'' of positive recommendation intention. The negative one includes data with less than ``5'' of negative evaluation. We interpret that the first group has criteria with similar evaluation directions. That is, we can treat this group as one segment. On the other hand, for the second group related to other distributions, we also divide it into the positive/negative subgroups. We interpret that the second group has a variety of criteria consisted of different directions of their evaluation. That is, we should consider and know the characteristics and differences of the targeted tourist segmentation.

Data Collection

In a survey for the validation of this proposed method, Kyoto University, as the sightseeing area, is selected in the survey area. Kyoto University has a long history and an essential role in research and education in Japan. We got 88 valid data from the students (male: 63, female: 25) who are mostly undergraduate students. The data is collected through the questionnaire: which consists of the sightseeing spots in the Yoshida Campus. The conducted date is February 2018. And as to the selected targets, 28 sightseeing spots are picked up. The targeted sightseeing spots were generated based on several campus tour guide books & websites.

As to the detailed survey, the participants of this survey pick up their targeted sightseeing spots freely from a provided list. And then, they evaluated these spots in terms of their recommended intention with a 10-scale of Likert-scale. ``10" means the highest recommended intention to their friends or colleagues. And ``1" means the lowest recommended intention. The map (Fig.1) shows the 28 sightseeing spots in the Yoshida Campus.

Figure 1: The Campus Map with proposed sightseeing spots in this survey



Results

As a result, in the distribution for each tourists' evaluation obtained from the data, 12 bell-shaped spots were extracted from a qualitative viewpoint. The question item to make the distribution is recommended intention with Likert Scale: 1-10(10 means strongly recommended). We picked up the spots they have more than 40 respondents of this survey. Figure 3 shows examples of the distribution shape of the highly recommended spot based on the data. The high recommended spots based on the data are No.12, No.16, and No.15. Figure 4 shows the example of the distribution shape of low recommended spots based on the data. The low recommended spots based on the data are No.7, No.20, and No.21.

Figure 2: Overview of the bell-shaped-spot group (12 spots)

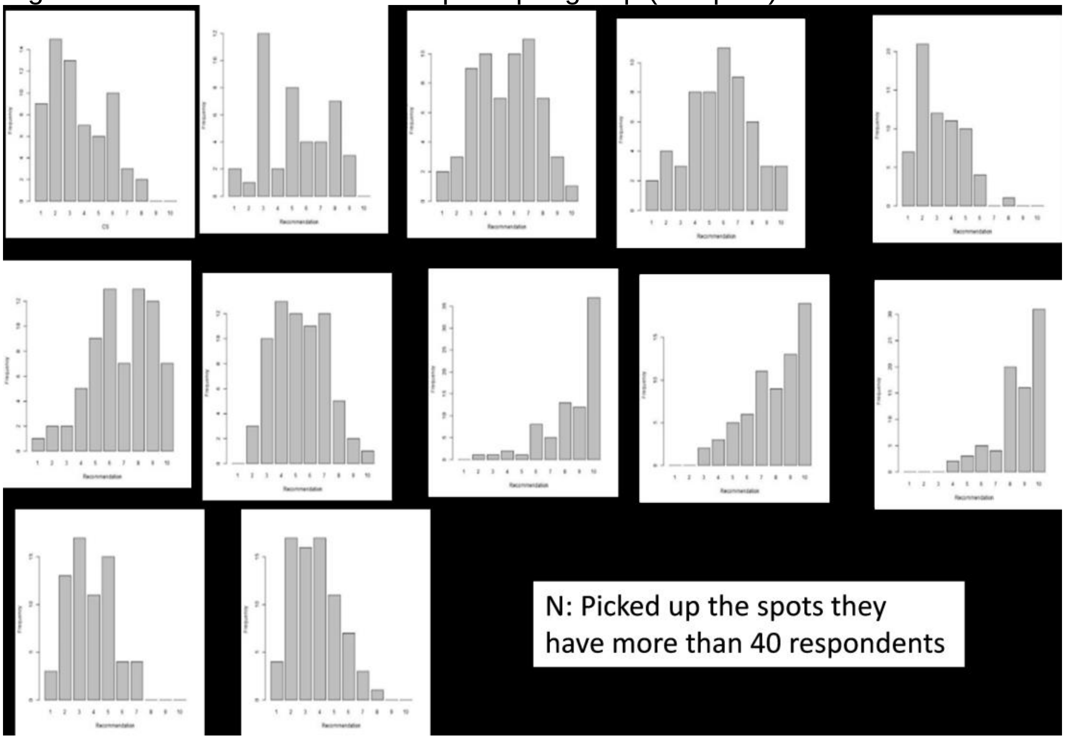


Figure 3: Overview of the bell-shaped-spot group: high recommended spots

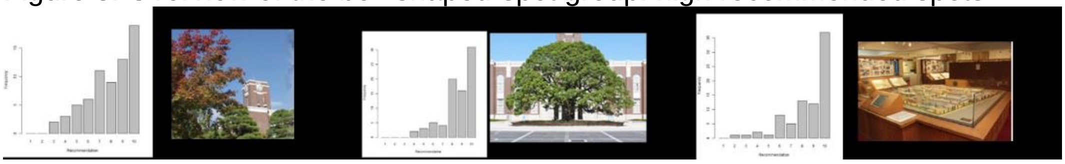
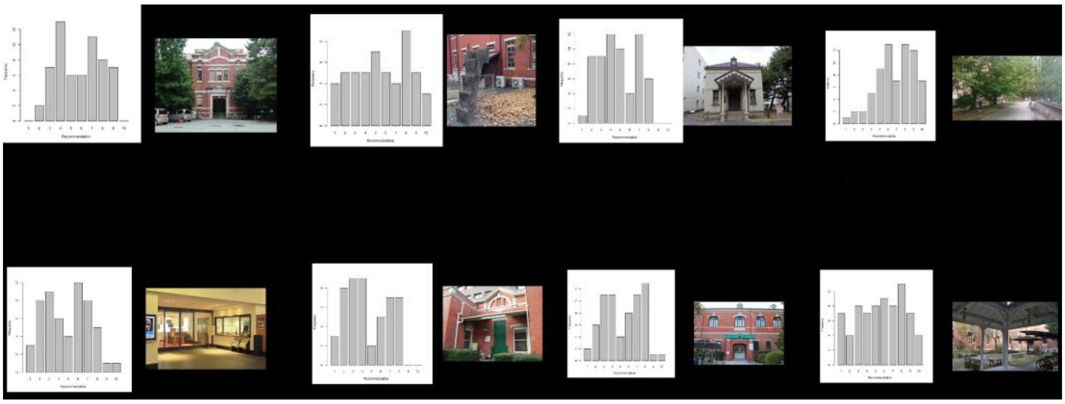


Figure 4: Overview of the bell-shaped-spot group: low recommended spots

On the other hand, in the distribution for each tourists' evaluation obtained from the data, eight non-bell-shaped spots were extracted from a qualitative viewpoint (Fig.5). The question item to make the distribution is also recommended intention with Likert Scale: 1-10(10 means strongly recommended). We picked up the spots they have more than 40 respondents of this survey.

Figure 5: Overview of the non-bell-shaped spot group (8 spots)



In terms of the percentage of the formation of the two kinds of distribution, the average person in this survey had the experience, which consists of the bell-shaped experience(71.4%) and the non-bell-shaped experience(28.6%) based on the recommended intention. And also, the Bell-shaped experience includes the positive one (48.4%: Recommended: >=6) and the negative one (51.6%: Non-recommended: <6). On the other side, a Non-bell-shaped experience consists of the positive one (51.8%: Recommended: >=6) and the negative one (48.2%: Non-recommended: <6).

Discussion and conclusions

In particular, on the non-bell-shaped experiences related to the sightseeing spots, we should consider the characteristics of the tourists' attribution more closely than the bell-shaped ones. Because of the integration of several directions of the tourists' preferences, there are possibilities that some promotion activities work for some tourist segment but not for other segments, and so on. In this current FIT booming industry, we have to check the characteristics of the sightseeing area carefully.

While it is also essential to balance between the ``bell-shaped experience'' and the ``non-bell-shaped experience''. The positive bell-shaped experiences in this survey are related to the symbol/brand of the spot (like the clock tower building in the sightseeing area). And the non-bell-shaped experiences are connected to a variety of individual criteria. These perspectives would also be useful to consider to handle customer segmentation to enhance customer loyalty.

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In future researches, we will extend our concept to experience-based tourism, not only just looking at a sightseeing spot but also joining/doing events. And also, we will compare the proposed filtering method with traditional evaluation like a conventional questionnaire survey in tourism.

Acknowledgment

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Destination Cork: A New Offering for the Culinary Curious Tourist

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Abstract

Food is an important aspect in creating tourism destinations and can be perceived as an immensely influential attraction for tourism. There are excellent examples of destinations that brand themselves through food tourism, using this special-interest area as a strategy to develop regional tourism and, ultimately, increase tourist numbers. However, not all destinations use food tourism as a strategic branding strategy. One such example is Cork in the south of Ireland. While having an excellent food offering, food is not a primary tourism activity in the region's destination branding strategy. The purpose of this research is to investigate the feasibility of branding Cork as a food tourism destination, using a collective, joined-up thinking approach, involving the regional food tourism stakeholders. A qualitative research approach was applied to answer the research question. The primary research undertaken in this study consisted of twelve in-depth interviews with selected regional food tourism stakeholders in Cork.

The findings indicate that food can help Cork to attract much sought-after culinary curious tourists, with the experience of food being their main motivation for travel[18]. Culture, food brands, branding and education, were identified in this study as main factors that influence a successful food tourism branding proposition for destination Cork. From this research, it is evident that Cork has no co-ordinated food tourism proposition in the region. However, with a more collective response and innovative destination branding initiatives, a strong food tourism brand can be created for the region. The gap in the collaborative thinking response was revealed, and recommendations are provided in this study.

Introduction

> *There was a tradition of innovative and high-quality hospitality established in Cork long before there was food tourism. It has also been, for centuries, one of the most highly-producing agricultural locations in the world, with a wide variety of traditional artisan produce, livestock and products* [Joe McNamee].

[18] Fáilte Ireland estimates €2billion was spent in Ireland by overseas tourists and domestic holiday makers on food and drink in 2017, excluding that consumed in accommodation.

A connection with the land and food is an integral part of the Irish culture, where farming and foraging have long been one with Irishness. Tourists long to connect with this and Wright (2009) describes how visitors to Irish shores long for the smell of “the turf fires, the taste of the whiskey, and a nice plate of bacon and cabbage” (2009:27). The connection between experience and culinary tourism has begun to expand in academic research, and local, regional food tourism offerings are recognised worldwide as providing a direct connection to a region's people, culture and history. Mykletun and Gyimóthy (2010) maintain that food has the ability to communicate a unique sense of place, and food tourism seeks to channel the immense global interest in food into experiences that are unique to a destination.

McPhee *et al*., (2016) suggest that modern innovation patterns are emerging and transforming existing processes in the tourism industry. In response to recent tourism trends, destination tourism boards worldwide have evoked food tourism to create a unique image for their destinations (Lin *et al*., 2011). Furthermore, Henderson (2009) advocates that, as well as being a key element in the branding of destinations, food tourism can also offer potential competitive advantages. Regional and traditional food are now essential product offerings for any tourism destination (Croce & Perri, 2010). This view is supported by recent research which identified food and culinary experiences as essential motivations for millennial travellers to take a trip (Chen, 2017).

Cork has a distinctive food culture that links its history to its present activities, and food plays a significant part in Cork's identity within the county. According to Ó Conghaile (2016), Cork is ‘the Foodie Capital of Ireland'. With its fertile agricultural land and extensive East to West coastline, the county has established itself as a place of quality for food, but, unfortunately, it has been slow to capitalise on this, due to the lack of an all-encompassing, collective joined-up thinking approach for the region. Mirtaghiyan *et al*., (2013) highlights the significant role that food plays in creating tourist places and destinations and considers it to be a potential, positive attraction in tourism. However, there is limited research on how food tourism, as a primary regional activity, can contribute to the visitor experience in Cork. There are currently numerous key organisations with stakeholder responsibility for food and tourism development in this region. These stakeholders all tend to work in geographical isolation, with no consolidated focus or co-ordinated approach on branding Cork as a food tourism destination worldwide.

The paramount aim of this research is to assess if Cork has the capability to develop and harness a collaborative food tourism branding proposition, supported by the local tourism stakeholders. For the purpose of the research, this exploratory study focuses on the main stakeholder groups involved in developing tourism in the Cork region. The participants comprised of the regional tourism task force responsible for the implementation of the ‘Growing Tourism in Cork’ collective strategy, government regional stakeholders, food critics, restaurateurs and food producers. The intention was to gather varying viewpoints and opinions for this research to identify if there were common perspectives to enable development of a collaborative food tourism proposition for the region. The findings of this study will provide a clear understanding of the regional food tourism offering in the Cork region, while also identifying gaps in the culinary tourist proposition.

Literature Review

Yi-Chin *et al*., (2011) acknowledge that food acts as a form of destination identity and Lane (2009) concurs that food allows destinations to differentiate themselves and to broaden their market bases. More and more new destinations and trends are developing to satisfy this new preference of tourism (López-Guzmán *et al*., 2009). Destinations need to present a strong local food and drink offering with good local ingredients and customs, served to high standards (Fáilte Ireland, 2017). In this regard, O'Leary and Stafford (2013) connect with the view that Ireland's destination brand of natural and pure can be leveraged to develop it as a destination for tourists seeking experiences related to high quality, natural food products. There is a real opportunity to make Cork a 'famous for' and 'must visit' destination for both domestic and international visitors, by making the destination a tangible experience for tourists, leveraging the county's stand-out appeal in Ireland's Ancient East and the Wild Atlantic Way tourism offerings (Visit Cork, 2016).

According to Smith and Costello (2009), food is highly experiential for tourists and is viewed as being a significant and meaningful component of the travel experience. Cuellar *et al*., (2015) support this suggesting that there is a robust link between tourism and experiential marketing. Due to increased global competition and visitor expectations, destinations need to differentiate their offerings in a meaningful way via experiential tourism by moving beyond the superficial to find meaning (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). In response to this Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2016) confirm that local food attracts travellers and it contributes to the tourist experience, indicating a marketing potential for hospitality industries, tourism business and regional development.

The UNWTO (2012) notes that food tourism has become one of the fastest-growing segments of the tourism industry in the past decade as food has become a central part of the tourism experience for tourists. The food tourism aspect of the tourism product outperformed others in the overall Irish travel market between 2003 and 2007 (Mintel, 2009). According to Fáilte Ireland (2010), tourist expenditure in Ireland on food and drink in 2009 was close to €2 billion, representing the largest single component of individual visitor spending. The UNWTO (2016a) concur that over 80% of destinations worldwide value the potential of gastronomy to enhance the subsistence of local communities (UNWTO, 2016a).

Food experiences help destinations to brand and market themselves (OECD, 2012). Food can provide tourism experiences by developing the meal experience, linking culture and tourism, producing authentic foods and supporting local culture (Richards, 2012). More recently, the connection between experience and culinary tourism has begun to expand in literature. Chen and Huang (2015) acknowledge that food plays different roles in different stages of travel; in the pre-travel stage, food tourism is not as important as during tourists' travel, as well as in their post-travel stage. In some instances, food is regarded as an essential part of the travel experience as it provides tourists with meaningful and agreeable pastimes (Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán,2012).

One of the major recent trends in tourism is the tourist's quest for culture and tradition (UNWTO, 2012). A further study undertaken by the UNWTO (2016b) revealed the relationship between food and culture as being a major motivation for travellers, making it a great catalyst for sustainable tourism, as gastronomy tourism brings out the most authentic features of destinations. The relationship between food and culture is paramount because by exploring new food, tourists can explore new cultures and lifestyles (Chang and Hsieh, 2006). Food entwines with the social, natural and cultural characteristics of a specific place and is firmly connected to the location, making it play a crucial role in a destinations identity, (Lin *et al*., 2011). These findings offer a new dimension to examine the ‘new’ tourism landscape, responding to Jamal and Kim’s (2005:60) plea that new perspectives, new understandings and new definitions are required to address the increase in cultural consumption and mobility of tourists. According to the new Cultural and Creative Cities Monitor (European Union, 2017), Cork was placed first across 155 European ranked cities for ‘cultural vibrancy’ - the cultural ‘pulse’ which measures cities regarding cultural infrastructure and participation in culture. Cork is a multicultural city that was also the European Capital of Culture in 2005, attracting over one million people, seven times the city’s population, to official events (European Union, 2017).

Tourism is complicated in the fact that it comprises a diverse range of stakeholders; all of whom have different individual aspirations of what they hope to achieve from it (Holden, 2016). However, Eriksen and Sundbo (2015) maintain that a critical success factor for local food and tourism innovation is the development, co-ordination and collaboration of entrepreneurial networks by using common strategies. The Irish Academy of Hospitality and Tourism concurs that optimally performing food tourism networks play a critical role in establishing popular food tourism destinations which, in turn, attract increasing numbers of food tourists (thea.ie). Wheeler *et al*., (2010) suggests that sustainable brands are those that develop organically, driven by the values of local communities and networks, rather than externally being imposed upon a destination. In this regard, **Mirna and Igor (2016) caution that** destination branding requires long-term engagement, and it needs to synergise with major stakeholders.

Methodology

As the purpose of the study was to assess if Cork has the capability to develop and harness a collaborative food tourism branding proposition, supported by the fragmented local tourism stakeholders, this study applied a post-positivistic qualitative research approach to assess the food tourism concept and to answer the main research question: Is Cork capable of developing and harnessing a collective food tourism branding proposition, supported by the existing local tourism stakeholders? The rationale behind selecting this research approach was to ensure a level of objectivity in the researcher’s interpretation and use of the data that was acquired. By applying this inductive approach, the researchers required extensive use of quotes, presentation of themes, and interpretive representation from the contributors' perspectives. Furthermore, this enabled the researchers to assemble common elements and be able to create thematic analysis to frame the study.

The primary effort consisted of undertaking twelve in-depth interviews - eleven of these were face to face interviews together with one telephone interview due to the location of this particular participant. Contributors in this study were stakeholders and all were well placed to provide valuable contributions on the regional food tourism concept for Cork. The rationale for taking this perspective from such a diverse audience of stakeholders (from producer to government body) was due to the relevance of the views of each of the participants towards the overall objective of the study. The researchers could potentially evaluate the current level of unity/disunity between the stakeholders that are positioned to deliver an overall food destination experience.

The interviews were semi-structured in nature, as the researchers held this to be the most appropriate means to capture data from the contributors, thus enabling the gathering of in-depth quality data. Interesting and relevant themes emerged from the wealth of data gathered from the interview schedule. This data was carefully coded and this helped to develop four meta themes which were organised and categorised into related themes and sub-themes. The meta themes that emerged from the empirical data were analysed and discussed while being cognisant of existing literature on Irish tourism, tourist motivations, culture, food tourism, food tourism networks and branding.

Main Research Findings

A key element of the approach taken in theory building within this study was to evaluate the level of collaboration and unity of purpose amongst each participant. The results from this study identified four themes from the stakeholders' perspective; 'successful food destination brands', 'food tourism as a competitive space', 'Cork as a food tourism destination' and 'food tourism networks in Cork'. Subsequently, nine themes and twelve sub-themes emerged for the researchers from these four meta themes. Results from each of these meta themes are presented here.

Successful Food Destination Brands

The results from the findings in this study identified the food destination brands that stood out for the interviewees both domestically and worldwide using the dimensions of high visibility and profile, from a food tourism perspective. This research found that 66% of the interviewees selected destinations within Cork as successful food destination brands. "Everywhere we go, when people talk about Cork, the English Market is always mentioned". This research further identified successful food destinations internationally with 33% of the interviewees highlighting destinations such as Spain and New Zealand. One interviewee maintained that New Zealand has had tremendous success becoming a food tourism destination through the implementation of PR strategies around their food sector. "They spent five years flying in journalists and showing off their food sector, what they could make of it, and that started to take effect, and within ten years, they were the number one food tourism destination in the world”. Spain was selected by 16% of the 12 participants as being a successful food tourism destination internationally. Notably, San Sebastián, located on the Bay of Biscay in northern Spain’s Basque Country. One of the interviewees articulated that Spain has recently increased its appeal to visitors by the way they market their culinary offerings. “Spain in recent years has very much upped its culinary game, and so, places like San Sebastián, did a superb job of marketing itself as a food destination”.

Furthermore, this study found that the image projected of Cork will be a defining factor on the acceptance of the brand by potential culinary tourists. “We need to change the image of Cork. We know that we are great in our food production and our pastures, but we need to paint the picture for other people to come who don’t know this”. Pursuant to this finding the researchers identified culture as a paramount differentiating factor that influences successful destination brands, both domestically and internationally with 33% of the participants noting its importance. “... Paris was just the experience you have. Then you have the café bars, the crepes. It was a real part of the culture there”.

In relation to food brands offering synergies with food destination branding, 25% of the contributors maintained that food brands and industries could help to enhance and develop the branding of Cork as a food tourism destination. One of the participants of the study endorsed this view citing the example of West Cork, where food brands have been the foundation of developing the region from a food perspective. “I think West Cork was very key initially, and I think what they did very well, was firstly get the food brands all working together”. However, in relation to this form of synergy, regional disparities also emerged from this research. One participant, in contrast to the other interviewees, revealed that he would not be as convinced about the interior of Cork. There are international food brands located in North Cork, however food tourism is not pushed there aligning it with other areas in the region. “I drive through places like Mitchelstown regularly, and you wouldn’t get a sense of high food being pushed hard in that sense. Even, though there are strong brands there”.

Food Tourism as a Competitive Space

The findings from this study show that 83% of the interviewees maintain that domestically in Ireland, food tourism is a competitive space. However, the research exposed a potential space for Cork in the food tourism sector, due to it having a unique offering. The researchers categorised the findings from this section of the research into four different themes; ‘price’, ‘quality of product’, ‘authenticity’ and ‘ancillary offerings’. In this regard one interviewee maintained that for the Cork region to remain competitive, the food tourism experience needs to be unique and authentic for visitors. “You need to catch tourists when they are here; you need to create something that is unique to the location, to Cork”. Another participant highlighted that the tourist offering is more complex in Ireland because of the climate. He further suggested that food can successfully be part of the tourist offering as it aligns with the other ancillary offerings. “Take a country like Ireland, for example, where you are never going to have a sun, sea and sangria holiday. The tourist offering is more complex. Its activity based, it's heritage based, it's culture based, and food is becoming seen more and more as part of that". This study found that, in total, 25% of the 12 interviewees viewed beverages, as an important additional complementary food tourism offering. "It's not just about the farm to fork piece. There is a need to look at food and beverages together, as they are just such vast areas of growth for the region".

Cork: A Food Tourism Destination

The study shows that Cork is viewed by the interviewees as a beautiful location with great natural resources, a diversity of products and strong food brands and it is a region that has a great tradition of innovative hospitality. One of the contributors informed the study that from a food tourism perspective, Cork as a region offers a winning combination in terms of its landscape. "In North Cork, you are stretching right across the Golden Vale. You have that richness of pasture land whether it's cattle grazing, sheep grazing, goats grazing, whether it's breeding deer to provide venison on the table. We also have an abundance of great seafood coming to shore in our harbours".

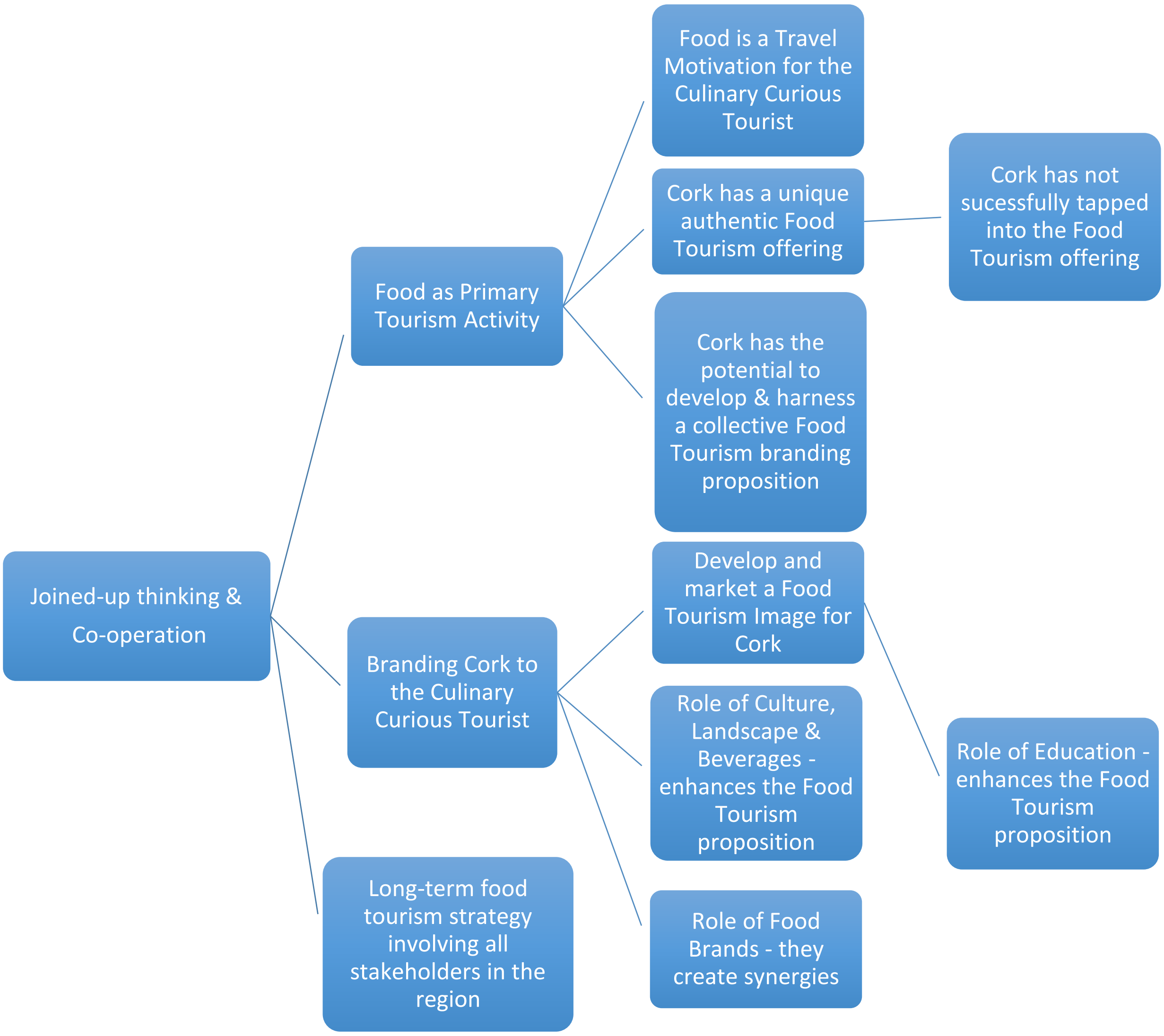
The interviewees identified various special and unique factors that affect food tourism success in Cork. The researchers classed these unique regional factors into the following sub-themes; 'raw materials', 'landscape', 'stakeholder networks' and 'Irish hospitality'. According to the contributors to the study these factors influence success from a food tourism perspective in their respective regions. The landscape of Cork was viewed by 25% of the interviewees as a unique factor. "We are quite fortunate in Cork to have such a huge coastline but also to have very vast rich green pastures as well, so it gives us a real suite of things to choose from". A further 25% of the interviewees selected stakeholder networks as a factor that influences tourism success in the Cork region. "Visit Cork' is a relatively new organisation. We have been tasked with developing a sales and marketing plan for Cork and to encourage people to work collectively together".

The findings from the interviews show that all of the interviewees of this study help to promote food tourism within their regions in Cork. They achieve this in various ways and at different capacities. Four key sub-themes emerged from the findings in the interviews in relation to improvement areas for the future success of Cork food tourism; 'image', 'marketing & branding', 'education' and 'collaboration'. The research found that 41% of the 12 participants believe that collectively working together and creating a long-term view would aid promoting food tourism in Cork. "I like the idea of identifying that we are here to do this, to agree on its method, and then start trying to develop the infrastructure around that". In the areas of marketing and branding 25% of the interviewees expressed the view that these are important factors that would aid the future success of food tourism in the Cork region.

Food Tourism Networks in Cork

The findings in this section show the extent to which the contributors co-operate and interact with each other in the region. The findings indicate that 83% of the interviewees maintained that co-operation and interaction existed to some extent but a lot more could be done relating to this area of food tourism, in the Cork region. “There is probably a lot more we can do. Again, I think a lot of the time food producers are so focused on producing their food and getting it to market, and that’s what their priority should be. But the tourism piece comes as secondary”.

Figure 1: Summary Framework of the Main Research Findings



Furthermore, the research found that 25% of the interviewees, believed that the level of co-operation and interaction varied depending on the different geographic regions in the county. “I think businesses are very good at co-operating on an immediate locality level if that makes sense. They are very good at engaging with their own town but there is probably a bit of a disconnect between West Cork to

North Cork and East Cork, so, it is trying to bridge that gap a little and develop more of a network across the county". One interviewee highlighted the importance of the introduction of the Taste Cork initiative and how it has helped benefit collaboration in Cork since its inception. "... look at initiatives like Taste Cork and see the benefits of collaboration and coming in under a strong brand identity". These findings expose the need for additional interaction and learning in food tourism across the region, through further collaboration on events and bringing businesses together in the industry.

Discussion and recommendations

Supporting Long (2014), this research observes that food is a valuable attraction and tourism resource for exploration. This new research reveals that Cork has not fully capitalised on the opportunity to brand the regions complete food offering when one compares Cork to some of the other destinations mentioned in the literature review. Despite the protestations as to the importance of branding from many of the interviewees, the study shows that 75% do not believe that Cork has successfully tapped into the food tourism product offering. This finding is a high percentage and is a cause for concern, due to the immense current expenditure in the food tourism sector in Ireland (Fáilte Ireland, 2010) and, moreover, it highlights the potential of branding the region collectively to culinary tourists.

Culture and Ancillary Offerings

According to Wilson (2013), Cork revels in its reputation as a champion of fine food and drink and regards itself as the nation's only guardian of Celtic culture. In line with Sengal *et al*., (2015), this current study notes that culture is an important aspect that supports destinations to become unique in their tourist offerings. Pursuant to this finding from the interviews, the researchers identified culture as a paramount differentiating factor that will influence the successful destination branding of Cork, both domestically and internationally. This finding highlights the significant role that culture, and other ancillary offerings will play in the development of Cork, as a new choice of food tourism destination. The current research discloses that these ancillary tourism offerings have developed due to global megatrends across the food tourism sector. Food is now a motivation for travel and is also an expression of the culture of a place. This is further testament to the compelling and distinctive new opportunities that now exist for the food tourism industry. This research has exposed the importance of focusing on these key differentiating factors that will enable Cork to develop a food destination brand that can help the region strengthen and sustain regional competitiveness, making it more recognised as an international food tourism destination. The study has found that 33% of the interviewees believed that food should come as a suite of tourist offerings, and not just as an isolated product.

Collective and Joined-up thinking

The current research has found that Cork has the capability to effectively develop and harness a collective food tourism proposition. The research recommends further strategic co-operation, interaction and joined-up thinking between the food tourism stakeholders in the region. The interview findings and their subsequent analysis in this study identified that there is no collective primary focus on food being an attraction for exploration in Cork, by the key tourism stakeholders in the region. This research disconfirms that there is currently adequate joined-up thinking between the food and tourism stakeholders in Cork. Supporting Eriksen and Sundbo (2015), this finding emphasises the need for all food tourism stakeholders in the region to work more as a 'collective' unit, in the co-ordination and collaboration of their efforts, as it is a critical success factor for food and tourism innovation in a wider regional context. Pursuant to this finding, the research further revealed that circa 41% of the interviewees posited that collaboration with a long-term view would aid the promotion of food tourism in Cork. The findings disconfirm that the regional food and tourism stakeholders in Cork view food as a primary tourism activity. In contrast to this finding, food is perceived as an essential part of travel experience by established commentators (Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán, 2012). Culinary curious tourists exist, and various countries and regions worldwide brand themselves successfully to this tourist demographic. Therefore, the evidence does support the effectiveness of a collective approach on this matter.

The case does exist to successfully brand Cork as a food tourism destination, as the region possesses all the right ingredients to attract culinary curious tourists. The research proposes that this tourism brand is supported and sustained by both the Wild Atlantic Way and the Ancient East international Irish tourism offerings. The Cork food tourism proposition can be leveraged by the fact that the region is a gateway to these two international tourist offerings, both of which are heavily marketed by Fáilte Ireland. The research advises that the current Cork tourism proposition ‘Maritime Paradise’ will not be an effective long-term destination brand that will lure culinary curious tourists as it does not fully embody the whole region, in relation to the geographical diversity of its tourism offerings. Therefore, from a food tourism perspective, the food tourism stakeholders in Cork should endeavour to further co-operate to further brand and position the region as a united food centre of excellence, under the ‘Taste Cork’ brand, thus enabling culinary tourists to be more exposed to the food destination offering in the region. This will involve working together to implement a collective food tourism proposition strategy for Cork[19].

Food Brand Image Strategy for Cork

This research recommends that the image projected of Cork in relation to its food tourism offering needs to be unique to the region. This will involve changing the way the region is currently promoted and ultimately perceived by current and potential tourists. The researchers maintain that this can be achieved by food being viewed by the key tourism stakeholders, as a primary tourism activity that can support other ancillary tourism offerings; rather than retaining its status as a secondary tourism activity. The researchers believe that more effort needs to be placed in positioning the Cork food destination branding to the culinary curious tourist, due to the importance of this special interest tourism, as highlighted in this study.

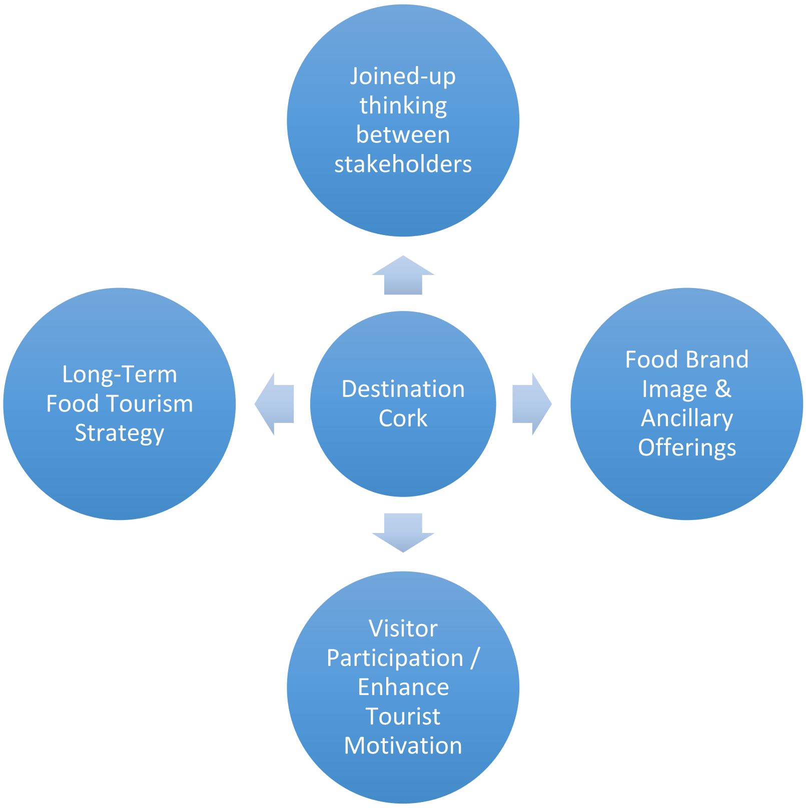
[19] Supported by the Failte Ireland Food and Drink Development Strategy 2018 – 2023.

This research recommends that the multitude of internationally recognised Cork food brands and industries could aid a successful unified food tourism brand strategy for Cork. This approach would help to integrate Cork's food tourism offerings into a cohesive regional food tourism experience package. This strategy would help Cork to capitalise on regional strengths and capabilities, thus helping to leverage and further enhance the food tourism offering. Furthermore, the findings from the study reveal that the image projected of Cork will be a defining factor on the acceptance of the brand by potential culinary tourists.

Culinary Curious Tourist

This research identified further research opportunities from the consumer-tourist perspective, with a specific focus on the food travel trends of the millennial generation. This new generation of worldwide tourists is fully immersed in new cultures, and they like to feast on local cuisine. As discovered in the research, this new travel demographic generation will be central to the future foundation of any food tourism strategy for Cork.

Figure 2: Model for Branding Cork as a Food Tourism Destination



Destination Cork

The researchers identified key areas that need to be strategically developed to provide a clear branding strategy for Destination Cork. Figure 2, presents a model for developing a brand strategy for Cork as a food tourism destination. These key areas are derived from the findings in this research from the interviewees. This model emphasises the research findings and adds to the existing literature on destination branding in the context of Cork.

Conclusions

This research expands existing literature and represents an in-depth study focusing on Cork and the opportunities that a collective food tourism branding presents for this region. This research has helped to determine the current role of food in tourism in the Cork region. It has also identified Cork's unique regional factors that would help influence its success, from a food tourism perspective, and further highlights how culture, landscape, education and other ancillary offerings - teamed with a new food branding strategy - can lead to a new culinary frontier for the region. This branding strategy can support the creation of a food tourism proposition for Cork that can help attract tourists that are culinary curious by nature.

Finally, conclusions from this research study confirm that the Cork region has not yet maximised its potential in branding the region as a food centre of excellence. This research study has further observed that culinary tourist motivations are different to mainstream tourists and the Cork region needs to further tap into this food tourism offering using a collaborative approach. This study can conclusively state that a further synergistic approach between all the food and tourism stakeholders in the region would help enhance a food tourism proposition that would contribute to strengthening and sustaining regional competitiveness for Cork.

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Strategic Management for Community-Based Tourism Development in Northeastern Thailand: From Theory to Practice

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Abstract

Strategic Management (SM) had its roots in the military arena and later became popular in commercial transactions. Its concepts are interesting in business academic circles and hence taught as a core subject in postgraduate business schools as well as tourism-related courses. However, SM's concepts are abstract in nature and are most obviously suitable to be applied in manufacturing-related industry rather than in tourism and service industries, let alone the development of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) which is small scale in the service context. It can be difficult for students to understand how SM's concepts can be applied in tourism development. This paper bridges the gap by providing guidance of its practical application of SM in developing CBT in a rural area of northeastern Thailand. Through a case study of an early destination development at Ban Leam Sawan, Ubonratchathani province, Participatory Action Research (PAR) approach is utilized aiming at building villagers' capacity in order to strengthen sustainable development at the grass roots level. The researcher argues that the combination of SM and the PAR process in CBT development can not only be advocated in tourism education but can also facilitate an effective enhancement and empowerment of local residents to achieve economic, social, environmental, and political development.

Introduction

Historically, Strategic Management (SM) had its roots in the military arena where commanders employ "strategy" in fighting with their opponents in order to defeat them (see Keegan, 1988). Since the mid-1960s its overt use has become popular in commercial transactions wherein business organizations strive to out-manoeuvre their competitors (David and David, 2015: 39). Later, it has been of interest to business academics and hence has been taught in business schools. Much of the SM literature is associated with strategy in the business world and its concepts are applicable primarily to large scale manufacturing businesses. Perhaps surprisingly, the tourism sector is one of the most important economic sectors in the world, contributing to 10.4% of global GDP in 2017 (WTTC, 2018). However, there is only limited literature that applies SM to tourism (Okumus, et al, 2017), let alone to such small scale tourism as Community Based Tourism (CBT). This is probably because tourism is characterised by its fragmented networks of various small and medium sized businesses (e.g. accommodation, travel agency, tour operator, and catering business) that implies adaptation and application of generic theory to the requirement of a particular business. As argued by Evans, et al (2003: viii), SM principles can be applied to both profit and non-profit organizations, but they need to be adapted in different ways to be specifically applicable. Theoretically, SM is about identifying and analyzing both predicable and unpredictable contingencies, aimed at formulating, implementing, and evaluating strategies that enable firms to meet their goals and to achieve competitive advantage over competitors. It is a process-based concept used to create and exploit opportunities for the future; thus, it can be viewed as a form of long-term planning for improving firms' performances. In the manufacturing-related sector, an application of the SM concept is following mainstream of theoretical perspectives (Harrington, et al., 2014). However, in the tourism sector, it is perceived as rather abstract making it difficult not only for students but also for teaching staff to understand and apply (Dale, 2005).

Tourism plays a role in terms of competitiveness in which the government in each country, particularly the Thai government, tries to draw tourists to the destination. By doing so, tourism expenditure increases that enhances the well-being of residents in a region where natural and cultural resources imbedded are used productively as attractions, supported by marketing strategies, to be sold to tourists nationally and internationally. For this reason, the development of tourism in any form is supported because tourism is regarded as a development tool to stimulate regional economies (Jackson & Murphy, 2006; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997: 22). According to Ritchie and Crouch (2000), destination competitiveness is not only to increase expenditures of tourists and satisfy them with memorable experiences but also to preserve natural and cultural resources to strengthen the well-being of both present and future residents in the destination. That is, competitiveness of a destination where one competes with others to attract tourists and to generate tourism income is crucial; and, at the same time, minimizing negatively ecological and socio-cultural impacts must be taken into consideration to make tourism more sustainable (Swarbrooke, 1999; Andereck et al, 2005; Tolkach & King, 2015). Based on the sustainable competitiveness notion, SM can practically contribute to the sustainability of tourism development because of its long-term planning and process-based approach. Nevertheless, applying SM to make a region more sustainably competitive is hardly seen in the tourism development context. Besides, there is little literature that explains the process of tourism development, particularly through local communities (Aref, et al, 2010). This study, thus, formulates a research question as how SM is practically applied in the process of CBT development, using the case of Baan Leam Sawan as an exemplar. The study result will broaden people's outlook by putting a management model into the CBT development process that can advocate for tourism and business education. This paper starts with a review of literature on SM and CBT, followed by a theoretical framework and the research methods adopted. An adoption of SM in the tourism development process, by drawing from the case study, is illustrated to provide potential implementation in CBT development practically and academically. In the discussion and conclusion part, the merits of SM to advance tourism development and its role to facilitate enhancement and empowerment of local residents to achieve sustainable development at the grass root level are discussed.

Concepts of SM

Historically, SM is seen by some to have been grounded in the ancient Chinese military thinking, from the 6th century BC when the Chinese strategist Sun Tzu wrote the Art of War, the most influential strategy book in East Asian warfare (Smith, 1999: 216). The Art of War provides military thinking - how to outsmart opponents without necessarily engaging in physical battle. In other words, this military thinking referred to the art of planning which is a quick response to changing conditions to gain competitive advantage even though one has less resources than the rivals (see also Giles, 2005; Jofre, 2011: 3). This implies that strategy is a proactive approach when competing. Sun Tsu's thoughts about strategy have been influenced and applied outside the military such as in politics (Steiss, 2003), education (Jeffrey, 2010), and management (Michaelson, 2001; McNeilly, 1996; Krause, 1995). In the realm of management, entrepreneurs and corporate executives have adapted the Art of War concepts to their management practices, which is termed "strategic planning", on how to use their strengths to compete with competitors to gain a higher competitive position since the mid-1960s (David and David, 2017: 33)[20]. The term strategic planning has been used interchangeably with SM. While strategic planning is well known in business circles, SM is pervasively used by business academics. Presently, SM is used as a management technique utilized to plan for achieving organizational success in both profit and nonprofit organizations (see Steiss, 2003). It is an ongoing process in which what an organization should do in advance to attain its goals and objectives, how it is analysed, how it will be done, who must do it, and how to monitor and enhance organizational activities to go on (David, 2011: 21; Steiss, 2003: 8). In the process, attention is critically given to both the changing external environment and an organization's internal capabilities to determine a long-term direction for the organization where goals and objectives are the ends and strategies are the means. In so doing, resource allocation is matched to the changing environment to exploit and create new opportunities for the future in order to improve performance in comparison to competitors. The SM process has three steps, which interact with each other in chorus, as follows: strategy formulation, strategy implementation, and strategy evaluation and control (David, 2011: 6):

1) Strategy formulation is the process of deciding strategy to implement for achieving organizational goals and objectives. In the process three main questions need to be answered in chronological order starting from a) where are we now?, b) where do we want to go?, and c) how will we get there? Each question provides steps to carry out as follow:

a) Where are we now?: the process of environmental scanning to identify and determine an organization's internal strengths and weaknesses and external opportunities and threats that influence such organization. This process is called SWOT analysis and it must be taking into account for management that SWOT analysis should be conducted on a continuous basis due to changes of external conditions.

[20] Although, frankly speaking, many of the early proponents of a formal Sun approach may have had little or no knowledge of Sun Tsu's ancient treatise.

b) Where do we want to go?: the process of developing a vision and mission as well as establishing goals and objectives.

c) How do we get there?: the process of generating corporate, business, and functional strategies to pursue, which will be deliver the newly formed goals.

2) Strategy implementation is the process of putting chosen strategies, at each level, into action. It requires an organization to design an effective organizational structure, manage human resources, allocate resources and budgets, and develop decision making process. This "action" stage needs all staff in an organization to commit to goals and objectives that can be executed through job motivation, linking staff compensation to organizational performance.

3) Strategy evaluation and control is the process of measuring whether the formulated strategy and implementation of the organization work well and meet the organizational goals and objectives. This is because present success of the organizational is no guarantee of its future success, with regard to rapid changing environments. Three key strategy evaluation activities are 1) appraising changing forces from both internal and external environments that are the bases for present strategies, 2) measuring the organizational performance, and 3) taking corrective actions, if required.

Concept of CBT

CBT is regarded as one of the alternative forms of tourism development. Its concepts aim to maximize local benefits, build capacity of locals, and minimize negative environmental impacts (Tolkach & King, 2015). It also emphasizes a participatory approach in which community residents manage their own resources as tourism supply and offer it to tourists (Polnyotee & Thadaniti, 2015). In so doing, community residents can earn and learn to protect and preserve the quality of tourism resources and that finally benefits to the community as a whole. Based on literature (see also Yang, Ryan, & Zhang, 2013; Murphy & Murphy, 2004; Tolkach & King, 2015; Reed, 1997; Timothy, 1999; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Harwood, 2010; Mintzberg, 2009; Johnson, 2010; Moscardo, 2008; Rocharungsat, 2008; Trejos & Chiang, 2009; Zapata, Hall, Lindo, & Vanderschaeghe, 2011), CBT has been supported as part of community development for over 30 years because it is perceived as a holistic development process for community in 5 features. Firstly, it enhances economic development of community residents by allowing them to generate income through diversified local economy (e.g. selling local products and services to tourists). Secondly, it strengthens their social cohesion through a human-centered development in which education and community pride are promoted. Thirdly, it boosts political development in terms of community participation in which community residents are involved in the development process and the decision making process. Fourthly, it raises awareness of locally cultural preservation and finally, it empowers community residents to be responsible to environment and natural resources protection. Therefore, CBT plays a role as a means to achieve community development goals.

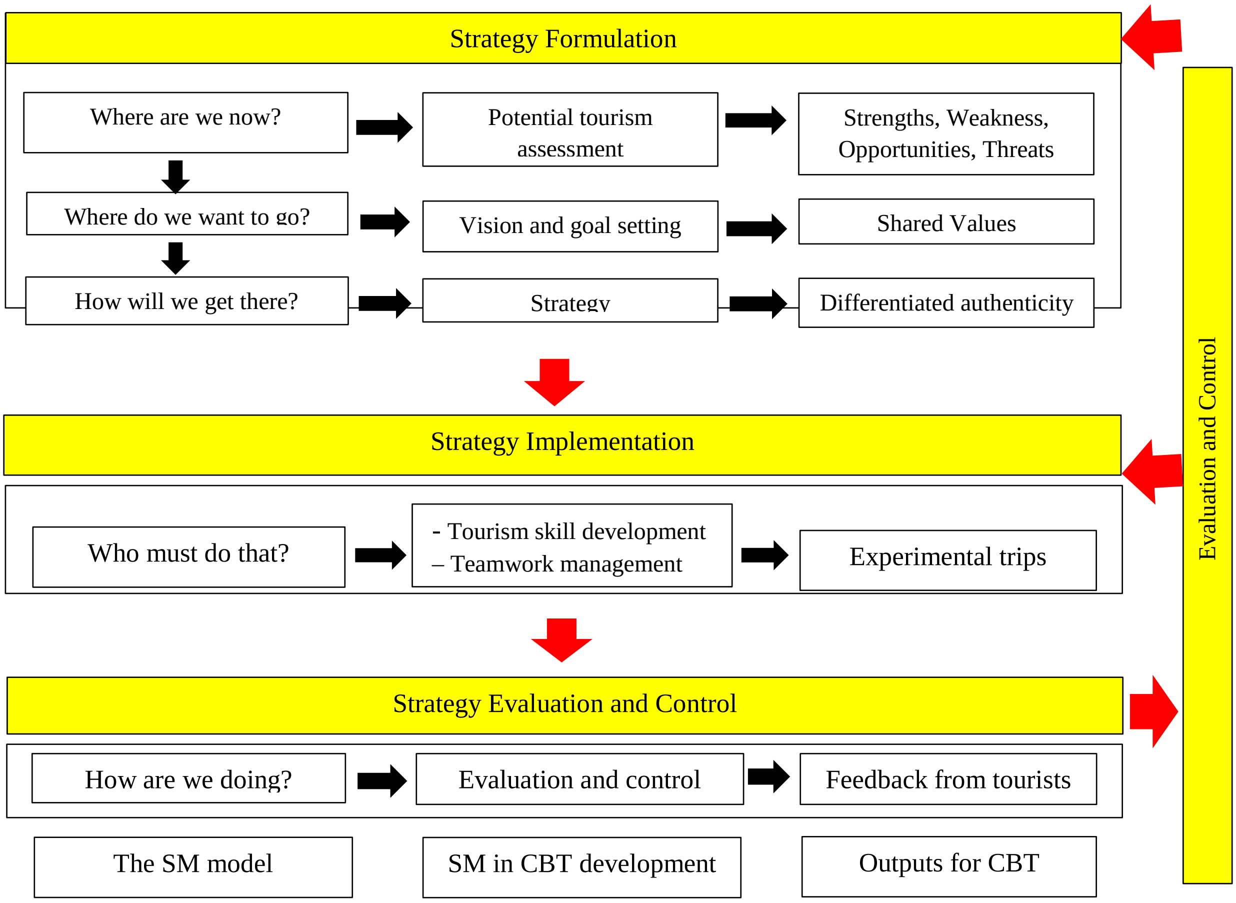
Theoretical Framework

By integrating the aforementioned approaches, the SM model for CBT development is proposed as shown in Figure 1. The model follows the SM concept in which three components including strategy formulation, strategy implementation, and strategy evaluation and control are sequentially placed based on the process of tourism development that comprises:

- Strategy formulation concerns with tourism planning which embraces 1) data collection and analysis of potential tourism resources assessment, giving outputs such as strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, 2) vision and goals creation for CBT development, carrying out an output as shared value on a direction of tourism based upon collective decision making of community residents involved, and 3) a strategy development, providing the yeild of the designed tourism program aimed to be differentiated authencity as a strategy to accomplish vision and goals.
- Strategy implementation encompasses human resource development in terms of tourism skills and teamwork management that can be viewed from experimental trips arranged by involved community residents.
- Strategy evaluation and control include ongoing monitoring of the designed tourism program as a result of strategy formulation and strategy implementation. The output of this stage is experimental tourists' feedback, regarded also as feedback loops, to improve the performance of experimental trip arrangement to achieve the vision.

There is a possible problem with the model. However, it might be argued that at least some outline goal setting or vision development is required before getting into the detailed analysis of the SM. An initial point of departure is required, so to speak. This is not altogether at odds with the model à al David above, because SM is an interactive process at the end of the day (see eg. Dyson and Foster, 1983).

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework of SM for CBT development



Source: Adapted from David, 2011

Methodology

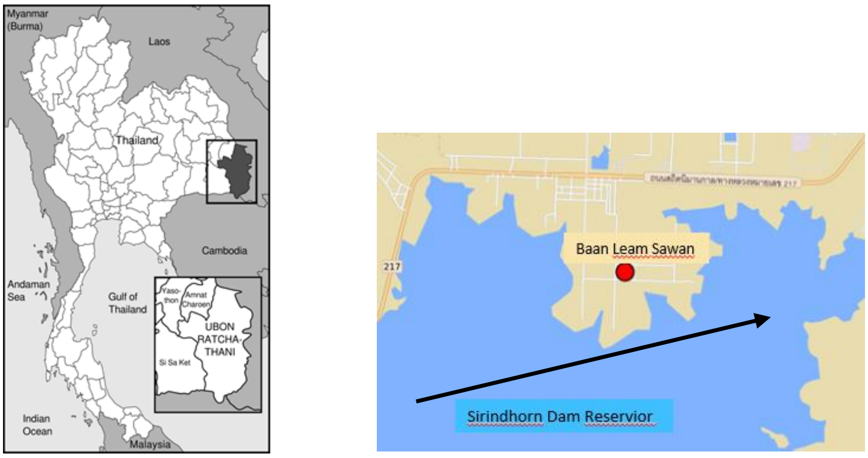
This research was conducted during 2015 - 2017 by employing Participatory Action Research (PAR) (MacDonald, 2012). Through the PAR, preliminary meeting, observation, in-depth interviews, focus groups, site visits, and workshops were utilized as tools and techniques, over a period of three years, to involve villagers in the CBT development process which included four sequential phases: preliminary, preparation, experiment, and evaluation. The preliminary phase was about a meeting with villagers to introduce and involve them in the project in which 10 villagers raised their hands to participate. The preparation phase involved training all participating villagers to collect data considered necessary for tourism development and to analyze them with help of the author. Then, the role of tourist experiences was given by taking ten participating villagers to visit a site which deemed the best CBT development in Ubon Ratchathani Province by the Tourism Development Department, Ministry of Tourism and Sport, aiming at inspiring and stimulating them to learn by heart on tourism practices. The experimental phase incorporated having the participating villagers train tourism practice skills and teamwork management to be able to handle the experimental trips. The evaluation phase comprised assessments of experimental trips arranged by the participating villagers for two occasions to monitor whether the designed tour packages were potentially met tourist preferences. Experimental trips, regarded as the workshops, were the pilot trips that had 21 participants who paid no fee but at the end were asked what their satisfaction level with the trip's quality was and what fee they felt would have been appropriate to pay for the trip, had payment been required. The first pilot study trip was done in November 2016: the trip participants included 1 university lecturer and 10 bachelor degree students amongst its members. Main methods used to collect data were in-depth, semi-structured interviews with trip participants and participant observation to check the potential of the designed package. This means that no prior hypotheses for testing and open-ended questions were suitable for the study. Evaluation criteria were formulated to take feedback from these trip participants to improve the quality of future organized trips. The second trip was held in March 2017, in which 9 city-dwellers and 1 reporter were invited to experience the trip as participants, with an anticipation of market development for CBT at Baan Leam Sawan. Through the workshop, by means of "learning by doing", from their pilot trip arrangements and feedback from trip participants, the participating villagers were empowered to raise self-esteem and community pride. This might be a showcase for an early stage of tourism development in which the community decides to become a tourist destination. In this process data collection steps were the same in pilot 2 as in pilot 1.

SM in CBT development at Baan Leam Sawan

The setting

Baan Leam Sawan is, geographically, a small village occupying an area of 0.96 square kilometers, with 154 households. At 80 kilometres, it is quite a distance from the city of Ubon Ratchathani located in the province of the same name, and is accessible by car and motorcycle by a link of 1.7 kilometres from National Motorway Number 217. The village is in the vicinity of the Sirindhorn dam's reservoir, with a surrounding land area approximately 5 kilometres radius (see Figure 2). Historically, the villagers lived at another settlement, called Baan Phang Lum where they primarily supported themselves by rice farming but their farms were flooded as a result of th Sirindhorn Dam's construction in 1968. This resulted in the resettlement of villagers from Baan Phang Lum to Baan Leam Sawan. Although the Thai government compensated them with this new land (approx.5.9 acres) for a household, it was unable to support rice growing, so they sold off the land, leaving them without jobs where they live. Presently, only 30% of the households own the land, resulting in the majority of the villagers working outside the village and thus leaving behind the young and the old. Only a few of the villagers who still work in the village have adapted their work practices to working with water- related activities, instead of farming.

Figure 2: Map of Thailand, Ubon Ratchathani province, and Baan Leam Sawan



Source: Adapted from https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ubon_Ratchathani_Province, retrieved on 15 Aug, 2018

Strategy formulation

To answer the question “Where are we now?”, the role of data is considered crucial in tourism assessment resources and tourism storytelling creation. Thus, the participating villagers were trained as to where the sources of data are and how to gather data including: in-depth interviews, focus groups, surveys, and observation. All of the community data sets of Baan Leam Sawan were used to assess whether resources available in the village are potential for tourism development. It is interesting that this process strengthened the participating villagers’ knowledge development regarding a story-line for their village, as one of the villagers expressed herself:

> *“This data collection gives me knowledge about the village. It is good to know not only about the history of the village but about the stories of various islands in the Sirindhorn Dam too.” (Ms. Joy Yaowabudth)*

Once the data were completely collected and SWOT analysis of Baan Leam Sawan had been done (Table 1), Mr. Wannapa Nakoon, a head of the village organized a meeting with his 30 village members, aimed at searching for an answer to “Where do we want to go?” for tourism development. It is part of involving as many villagers as possible in the decision making process to mutually set vision and goals. Although the villagers have no idea about CBT, all of them supported the development of tourism in the village. They expected that tourism could create jobs and might bring their family members back to the village. However, they were not quite sure what might be interesting things about their village which might draw tourists to visit:

> *“It is good to develop our village to be a destination so my family members and other villagers will have a job here and I can sell my products” (Ms. Wanya Nakoon)*
> *“I like the development idea because villagers will come back to the village…What I am concerned about is attractions...Maybe we should just*

> *try first so that villagers will be proud that our village is one of the destinations in Ubon Ratchathani" (Mr. Den Thongnum)*

The overall support of villagers made it easy to pave a way to create a set of values among villagers in order to guide how they should behave to welcome tourists. At this stage, the villagers had no clear picture in their mind as to what their village tourism might look like. Nevertheless, the process of PAR later gave them a shared value of CBT with locally authentic experiences. Once the SWOT analysis of the village was completed, a TOWS matrix was used as a tool to compare and select strategies as illustrated in Table 2. This process seeks to give an answer to "How will we get there?" The analytical results from the TOWS Matrix indicate differentiated authenticity as a strategy to attract tourists. The idea of a unique boat trip, with indigenous gastronomy included, is set to provide interest for tourists. Authentic local lifestyle and local activities in which tourists will be encouraged to be involved and storytelling texts invented based upon factual stories of local people who suffered from the construction of the dam will be presented. The differentiated authenticity strategy through both the special storyline of village history and unexplored attractions in the dam have the potential to make the trip at Baan Leam Sawan interesting.

Table 1: SWOT analysis of Baan Leam Sawan

Set of data	Strength	Weak-ness	Oppor-tunity	Threat
Geographical data				
Location: 80 km. (perceived) distant from the Ubonratchathani city				√
Accessibility: by car and motorcycle by a link of 1.7 km. bumpy road from National Motorway Number 217				√
Physical attribute: geographically surrounded by Sirindhorn Dam, a forest Buddhist temple, natural islands and rock cliffs available			√	
Environment: Buffalos were allowed to roam freely causing unhygienic conditions in terms of scent and scene.		√		
Infrastructure: water supply, electricity, phone signal available			√	
Facilities: 2 small groceries, 1 resort, and 1 restaurant available		√		
History				
History of the village: The resettlement of the villagers due to the effect of the construction of Sirindhorn Dam in 1968.	√			
Economic data				
Career: processing freshwater fish, traditional diving underwater logs fishing, making wooden pestles, cattle and buffalo raising	√			
Organized housewife association: a group of fish processing	√			
Income: avg. 10,000 – 15,000 baht/household/year (1 US$ = 33 baht)		√		
Local product: fermented fish and dried fish, wooden pestles	√			
Socio-cultural data				
Demography: 154 households, a few young men left in the village, majority of the elderly and children available		√		
Religion: Buddhism	√			
Cultural event: Songkran festival, ancestor respect ceremony	√			
Dressing style: contemporary		√		
Education: low (implying manner and gesture)		√		
Language: dialect (called Isan, which is perceived low social status)				√
Additional data*:* the Thai government promotes CBT as a mechanism to reduce poverty[21]			√	

[21] The Thai government, by the Ministry of Tourism and Sports, has put CBT development as a national agenda, during 2017 – 2020, to drive community sustainability through employment, income generation, a sense of pride and ownership creation and shared responsibility. (see also

Table 2 The TOWS Matrix of CBT development at Baan Leam Sawan

External/Internal environment	**Strengths:** 1. Local cultural resources available 2. Various water-related activities and fish products available 3. The unique history of the village	**Weaknesses:** 1. Unhygienic conditions of the village 2. Lack of tourism facilities 3. Few young adults with low education
Opportunities: 1. Promotion of CBT by the Thai gov. 2. Growth of tourism 3. Beautiful scenery around the dam	**SO strategy** - Developing CBT through the unique characteristics of the village (e.g. Dam's reservoir, local lifestyle, local products, and attractive surroundings).	**WO strategy** - Developing water- route tour program in a form of efficient uses of existing local resources (e.g. boats and rafts) that requires few young adults each trip.
Threats: 1. Perceived distant village 2. Perceived low social status of the dialect 3. Low quality of road accessible	**ST strategy** - Creating interesting narratives based on the history of the village to draw tourists to experience its uniqueness (storytelling about the effect of the Dam construction).	**WT strategy** - Training the participating villagers to improve their tourism skills and practices to meet tourist tastes and preferences for CBT tourists.

Source: The author

Strategy Implementation

For the differentiated authenticity of CBT at Baan Leam Sawan strategy to be implemented, organization structure and human resource management are required. The organization structure was developed based on the participating villagers' aptitudes and skills to strengthen coordination mechanisms. It was done after the participating villagers had already visited, observed, as well as learned about tourism practices from Sasom Homestay, which was the first successful CBT village in Ubonratchathani province, during June 2016. Sasom had already developed a programme initiated in part of an NGO. This site visit took 1 night and 2 days to let them learn through observation and informal interviews with the head

https://secretary.mots.go.th/ewtadmin/ewt/policy/download/TourismEconomicReview/1CBTByPotjana03042560.pdf, Retrieved on 21st, August 2018) of Sasom's CBT team. This process helps the participating villagers to gains insight into what and how to do with their village tourism. What they learnt were not only adapting observed tourism practices from their experiential trip to their own context in order to deliver satisfying experiences to tourists, but also value added tourism resources through Sasom's storytelling. Some of the participating villagers said:

> *"Compared to Sasom village, our village [Baan Leam Sawan] has more tourism resources. Sasom has only stones but they can sell stones through storytelling. I think we have to create our own stories to tell tourists too." (Ms. Wanna Nakoon)*
>
> *"Sasom is even worse off than us [in terms of young adult labour force], they have only the elderly to serve and take care of us but they can do it. This is so great. I like the way they embed their local lifestyle in tourism activities." (Ms. Joy Yaowabudth).*

Lessons learnt from the site visit brought the participating villagers to a draft boat trip design and division of labour which was matched with their designed CBT tasks. Each team (with the number of members in brackets) were suggested or trained by the author and professionals (e.g. a hotel manager, a restaurant supervisor, etc.) to make tourism activities at Baan Leam Sawan as good as possible. These activities include:

- Food and drink provision (3 persons): local food/drink set; flavour; food styling; and serving skills development.
- Presentation of storytelling (2 persons): story invention; presentation skills development (pattern, volume, pronunciation, verbal presentation); and microphone usage.
- Physical arrangement (2 persons): long-tailed boat/raft availability; cleanliness of attractions and surroundings as well as public toilets; and safety concerns regarding water-travel (e.g. availability of life jackets).
- Tourism activity arrangement (3 persons): preparation of materials for each tourism activity (fishing, processing fish, making pestles, paying respect Buddha images at the forest temple, feeding animals, diving show, etc.).

It should be borne in mind that the village has a larger number of elderly people and children than of young adults; so that younger more active people are at a premium. The 10 participating villagers referred to in parentheses above are regarded as being young adults and their ages ranged between 35 – 46 years old. It took some time for them to learn and to develop the tourism skills which were considered completely new. They hardly have interactions with outsiders, particularly tourists, so that new assignments make them rather anxious as to whether they will be able to handle tourists to their satisfaction. To reduce their anxiety, a workshop among the participating villagers themselves was done by arranging experimental one-day boat trips and the author and the professionals acted as tourists. In so doing, the primary benefit is empowering them to increase individual capability of tourism practices in the village and assessing their tourism skill development after being trained.

> *"I know myself that I can talk but this practice to guide tourists I realize that I need to understand the wider world more and more, so that I can learn how to have appropriate interactions with others." (Ms. Wanya Nakoon)*

> *"I hardly speak because I make wooden pestles so previously I would rather talk to wood. From this training, I learned how to smile, serve, and speak with tourists: that gives me proactive interaction with other humans." (Ms. Joy Yaowabudth)*

Results from the internal assessment process indicate an increasing self-respect of the participating villagers, with the result that they are now proud to present information about their beautiful surroundings and local lifestyle. However, although the purpose of this process was successful in terms of raising their self-confidence, the participating villagers still need to add on some tasks (e.g. management and coordination) to improve the quality of the trip by aligning tasks with one another and to transform them to social reality by broadening their perspective of tourism skills and practices, through growing an awareness of the external assessment.

Strategy Evaluation and Control

To stimulate the learning mechanism of the participating villagers to improve the trip quality based on tourist perspectives, pilot experiential one-day trips were arranged twice. The first pilot trip in which the participating villagers used long-tailed boats as vehicles to take tourists to travel along the dam took place in November 2016 (Figure 3). Feedback from tourists indicated that they like the local country atmosphere of the village, beautiful attractions along the Sirindhorn Dam, and delicious fish dishes. However, they remarked that the participating villagers should provide more informative stories about the village and attractions; present the storytelling by using a microphone; involve tourists in the tourism activities; organize a properly sequential trip; introduce tourists to some important information (e.g. where public toilets are, what tourists should do and not do, what are safety precautions when travelling along the dam, etc.); and, manage time properly because tourists may get sick from the strong sunlight. All of these data were used to improve the quality of the second trip's arrangement, held in March 2017 (Figure 4). This is a learning process that the participating villagers have to take into account to improve their hospitality service skills, type of vehicle, and physical environment (Table 3). Based on the author's observation, the second experiential trip impressed tourists who consensually gave a "thumbs-up" to the overall trip quality. The following are some of the trip participants' remarks from the semi-structured interviews asking how much they would prefer to pay for such a one-day trip. The comments are results from the 2nd pilot tour.

> *"This is so great. I like this trip so much. Why? Local tour guides are very professional with humorous character that makes a whole day on the raft not boring at all. Having lunch on the raft – in the middle of water, gave me a wonderful experience that I haven't had before...I am willing to pay a thousand baht for this trip." (Ms. Maliwan Sinnoi)*
>
> *"Being on a raft, at first it really scared me because I was concerned very much about safety. I wore a life vest tight all the time. However, I think I fell in love with a charming character of a local tour guide who is incredibly professional, making folk stories interesting that draw attention of tourists all the time…food [fish dish] are tasty with stories to tell. Also banana leaf they use to wrap sticky rice give use authentic experience and feel good to*

be part of environmental friendly…All activities are very nice…I didn't' even realize myself when I took off my life vest…[laugh]…I also don't know why I bought too many wooden pestles and many bottles of fermented fish from them too…[laugh]." (Asst. Prof. Dr. Chompoonuch Morachart)

Table 3: Changes of the trip quality based on assessment results

Main problem	**1st experiential trip arrangement**	**2nd experiential trip arrangement**
1. Heat from sunlight	Use a long-tailed boat without roof as a vehicle for tourist	Use a raft with roof as a vehicle for tourists
2. Confused sequential trip	Provide both land and off-land tourism activities without storytelling that cause tourists wonder whether the sequential trip is appropriate	Provide selective tourism activities with storytelling themed "the travel of underwater log: from log to pestle" and "the travel of fish: from dam to dish"
3. Inappropriate time management	Lack of time management: spending long times on some activities and too short times on another	Balance tourism demand with tourism activities to manage time appropriately
4. Lack of tourist involvement in activities	Do not involve tourists in activities	Involve tourists in activities (e.g. feeding cage fish and making pestles)
5. Unprofessional hospitality services	- Forget to inform tourists concerning services (toilets, self-service of food and drinks, etc.) - Leave surroundings unhygienic conditions (dirty and smelly environment with garbage)	- Inform tourists about things to do with self-services - Clean public toilets and surroundings
6. Inefficient division of labour	Unclear one's role and a scope of work	Make clear one's role and one's work scope
7. Unprofessional presentation	- Do not use microphone - Nervous and unprepared presentation	- Use portable microphone with moderate volume - Rehearsal of storytelling presentation
8. Lack of signposts	- Did not provide signposts guiding people to the destination	- Have signposts to locate the destination

Source: The author

Figure 3: The 1st experimental trip

Source: The author

Figure 4: The 2nd experimental trip

Source: The author

The assessment results from tourists were excellent and brought a sense of pride and self-respect to the participating villagers. Tourist compliments and later public relations shown on a famous website "GuideUbon" (see http://www.guideubon.com/2.0/go2ubon/baan-lham-sawan-ubon/) in the province of Ubon Ratchathani, confirm their successful learning process that will eventually help them solve their poverty problem.

Discussion

This research presents the application of SM for CBT development on the basis of process development of a village's tourism through the PAR, based on Baan Leam Sawan. SM is a management model that allows an organization to be more active in shaping and steering its own future (David and David, 2017: 33). It provides a clear and practical route map for the organization to follow in chronological order of formulating, implementing, and evaluating and controlling strategies. Thus, through its process-based approach, it helps stakeholders inside the organization (e.g. managers and employees) to understand and commit to achieve the organization's mission and goals, so that productive and effective performance can be expected because the organization staff realize the same direction. Based on its process-based approach, it is typically applied in more large and well-established organizations formally due to complex and rapidly changing environments that they have to adapt to be able to gain a higher competitive position than other competitors. Taking SM in the sphere of tourism development, together with utilizing the PAR, the author argues for its valuable technical assistance to CBT development. This is because it can facilitate enhancement and empowerment of the participating villagers to successfully in their one-day tour package development. Its significant role is providing a learning process mechanism that builds the participating villagers' capacity in terms of social development, such as, enhancing awareness of internal strengths and weaknesses, as well as external opportunities and threats for potential tourism assessment through the SWOT analysis. Besides, it helps strengthening political development through the involvement of village members in vision and goal setting to be a CBT village, so that a shared value of hospitality manners occurs. SM also improves the participating villagers to understand strategies to compete with other CBT villages through TOWS matrix analysis. This results in increasing their knowledge and tourism practice skills through strategy implementation in which a site visit and workshops were used as tools to develop the organization structure and their capability to satisfy tourists. Finally, SM promotes the participating villagers' learning process through strategy evaluation and control of experimental trip arrangement in which tourists' feedback, as well as feedback loops, are exercised to increase the trip quality. Therefore, these merits of SM contribute to CBT and sustainable community development in respect of human-centered development. SM supports new effectiveness of local resource utilization because the participating villagers become aware of how to turn local cultural and natural resources into tourism products to sell to tourists, resulting in appreciation of cultural preservation and natural environment responsibility. Furthermore, it promotes political development at the village level where villagers participate in the decision making process and the development process of CBT. Additionally, it helps strengthening community economic development whereby the one-day tour package is advertised on a website so that they can sell the trip and local products, both fish-related products and pestles, to tourists and thus income can be generated. This advantage of SM highly supports an improvement of community livelihood which is the objective of CBT development. Regarding this discussion, it is argued that SM shares common features with CBT and sustainable development by encouraging a community in this case Baan Leam Sawan, to achieve economic, social, environmental, and political development.

Conclusion and recommendations

This paper has described a practical utilization of the abstract concept of SM in CBT development in the context of the specific village. It takes a closer look at the development process of CBT by using the PAR approach that can enhance villagers' capability for skills and knowledge improvement related to tourism. Practically, although participating villagers were successful in their tour package development, it is in the early stage of tourism development that crucially requires market connection between the village and the outside world (Tolkach and King, 2015; Aret, et al, 2010; Van Der Duim and Caalders, 2008). Further, since CBT development at Baan Leam Sawan, they are now ready to sell to tourists, and the local government should play a role to facilitate by supporting permanent signposts, toilets, and a visitors' centre. This clearly indicates the room for cooperative network and partnership development to be initiated. Another challenging issue is that, when income is generated through the tour package, benefit management among the team members must be seriously taken into account and honesty should be a norm. To put matters plainly, a more even sharing of the net benefits, or earnings, among participants should be organised than might historically be the norm in the administration of collective activities in Thai villages. Such an equitable distribution would give participants the motivation to want to continue to work for the benefit of the village as a whole. One of the potential risks of course is that another nearby village might decide to try to run a copycat enactment of the programme and it is doubtful that there would be a market for every village in the neighbourhood to attempt the same or a very similar project. By way of further research action, if the village goes ahead with a regular programme of tours such as described here, an anthropological style evaluation of the 'regular' product could be undertaken. The key issue to evaluate would be whether the quality of experience was maintained or even improved with time; or would things get slack as the novelty of taking part wore off. This might be done by a student, or over a period of time, students going on the tour unannounced as a project for their academic programme: they would in the words of the marketing world be 'mystery shoppers'.

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Towards a Levantine Museum in Izmir, Turkey

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Abstract

The following research was conducted over a period of time and using a combination of questionnaire and interview techniques. A proposal has been prepared for the establishment of a Levantine History Museum in Izmir, Turkey. Consultations have taken place with various interested parties and possible stakeholders in this project, including members of the Levantine community, the Levantine Heritage Foundation, Izmir Municipal offices and the ones interested in the Levantine history of Izmir.

The former Forbes mansion in the Buca district of Izmir, Turkey, has been identified as a prospective museum site. Plans have been outlined and possible projects are being developed.

This proposed project intends to preserve and promote the Levantine history of Izmir which has been part of the city's history for over 400 years as well as providing an educational facility for the generations to come.

Introduction

Izmir is the third largest modern city in Turkey. Historical Levantine Mansions in Buca are still part of the expanding metropolitan area. In the suburbs of Izmir, 9 km to the southeast, Buca is a place where the wealthy foreign businessmen and their families lived in the latter period of the Ottoman Empire.

The city of Izmir (formerly known as Smyrna) was one of the prominent sea port cities of the areas collectively known as the 'Levant' or the Near East. These also included port cities such as Alexandria, Egypt and Beirut, Lebanon. Mansel, P. (2010).These cities were characterized by the cosmopolitan elite drawn from the various communities with origins in Holland, France, Italy, Germany and the United Kingdom. Subsequent generations of families inter- married and were involved in the thriving trade and industry activities of the Levantine ports. Recchi, E., & Favell, A. (Eds.). (2009).

The Levantine community was developed in Izmir with its own particular identity – establishing businesses and trade in sectors such as cotton, figs and grapes, carpet production while also providing transport facilities and infrastructure including postal services and banking to promote the businesses of the port.

Symrnellis,M-C (2006). This resulted in a wealthy non-Turkish merchant class, who were able to indulge their wealth in constructing mansions in the pleasant areas outside the center of the city, such as Bornova, Karşiyaka and Buca. The community also developed its own ‘patois’ – a dialect known as Smyrneika, which combined elements of Greek, Italian and French. Galland, A. (2000).

The society that consisted of the British, French, Dutch, Italian and other Levantine families who came to Izmir, and worked and settled in Izmir, although they belonged to different countries, races and sects, have created a common culture in a foreign environment and they lived a life of their own in this foreign environment. Mansel, P. (2014).

Contribution of the Levantine families to the establishment of commerce in Izmir cannot be underestimated, and additionally, they also contributed to the cultural life of the city.

In Ottoman times Levantines brought the first cinema, theatre, opera, hunting club, beautiful houses and factories to Izmir. Edhem E. (2005: 431-445). The Forbes Mansion in Buca is one of the biggest Levantine buildings remaining in Izmir, it was burnt down a year after its construction in 1908 and was rebuilt again by 1910. Erpi, (1987:149).

The main emphasis of this study is to point out the multicultural expansion and development of Izmir due to the Levantines. In this study, the architectural texture and mansions of Buca were studied in detail. The research argument is that cultural tourism brings increased revenue to the heritage sites, and more broadly, to the community and country that hosts them. It can be an engine of economic growth for the city of Izmir. (Günlü, E., Pırnar, İ., & Yağcı, K. (2009:213-229). Levantine culture is a part of this, and this museum will serve as a bridge to emphasize the importance of multiculturalism in Izmir.

Number of vısıtors ızmır (October)

	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Difference (%) 2018/2019
Foreign	127,756	62,989	62,447	83,301	115,969	39
Turks	43,843	44,156	49,482	45,496	56,035	23
Total	171,599	107,145	111,929	128,797	172,004	34

Source: ETIK (2019).

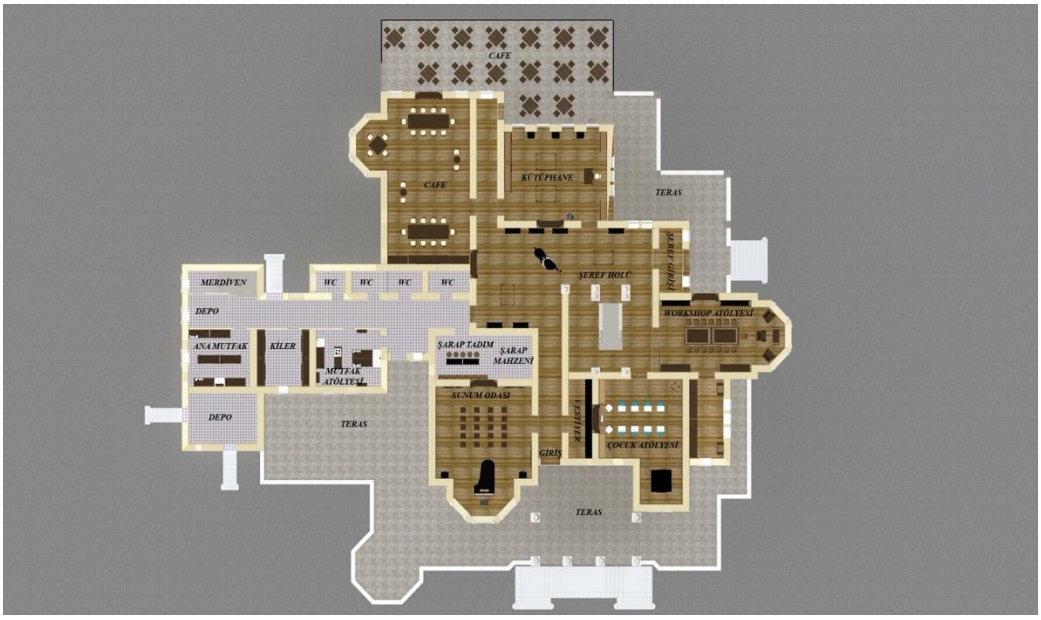
Museum Location and Plan

Since 2000, Buca has been growing rapidly with an increased population and uncontrolled building development. There are now hospitals and universities, modern shopping centers are constantly increasing in number and urban transformation is taking place. Forbes Mansion is located across the Social Security Hospital (SSK), in Buca, Izmir, Turkey. At the moment this great mansion is closed.

Figure 1: Forbes Mansion 2018

There is a small library at the first floor, which serves nurses from the hospital across the garden of the house (March, 2018). The public is not allowed to enter. Forbes Mansion is one of the biggest Levantine buildings in Izmir, it was burnt down a year after its construction in 1908 and it was rebuilt again by 1910 (Erpi, 1987:149). The building consists of two stories and a basement. At the back of the house there is a winter garden. According to Erpi, Forbes Mansion is a great example of the British mansions built in their home country and reflects the economic power and social status of its owner.

Floor Plan



The house will be turned into a heritage tourism attraction point, with the main kitchen, wine tasting area, workshop room for children, workshop room for adults, art room, permanent exhibition hall, restaurant, café and temporary exhibition hall, it will serve as an education center, as well as a museum. Offices and boutique hotel rooms will be featured on the upper floors. After completion of the field trips, and interviews , Miss. İrem Ayan, architect, drew floor plan of the house and installed all the possible sections of the museum. In this floor plan winter garden will be a third-generation coffee shop run by a Coffee Roasting & Barista Academy. The kitchen will become a living museum. The kitchen, the restaurant and the wine tasting area will be operated by Ms. Meri Çevik Simyonadis. She is the author of several Levantine cookbooks and owns a restaurant in Istanbul. She is eager to operate, and manage the kitchen of the Museum. Some of the rooms may be rented out to guests. Villa Levant in Bornova, İzmir is a boutique hotel example in this context. After the long meeting with Mr. Hans Vandame , Museum Manager of Historium Brugge. Akgül U. Kurtural S., (2018).,the entrance hall will have booths of Artificial intelligence and augmented reality.

Dokuz Eylul University, Art educators will run an Art room. Dokuz Eylul University Museology Department may use offices on upper floors.

Children’s room will have many books in many languages and toys from Levantines; the equipment will be obtained from the Italian elementary school in Alsancak.

Mr. Hasan Ozkan, an antique shop owner, declares that,he is willing to donate goods to the Museum. Priest of the Buca Baptist church, states that there are well known Levantine families living in and out of Izmir. They would like to have a Levantine Museum. Izmir Levantine Heritage Foundation, is eager to establish a museum, but according to the President of the foundation, Mr. Papi, they are not sure where the museum will be located.

Methodology

A qualitative study, by means of this short questionnaire, was carried out face-to-face with the following semi-structured open-ended questions;

1. Have you heard of the Levantines?
2. Do you have any information regarding the Levantine mansions in Buca?
3. What do you know about the Levantine Heritage Foundation in Izmir?
4. Would you be in favor of establishing a Levantine historical museum in Izmir?

5. Do you think Buca is a destination that has cultural heritage?
6. Do you think Izmir can benefit from its cultural heritage and make the best use of it by opening a Levantine museum? If not, why?
7. Do you think this museum will preserve the cultural heritage of Izmir and facilitate the development of this destination, and have an effect on sustainable tourism?
8. Would you be in favor of providing sponsorships?

Interviewees are indicated below; 3 of the interviewees are members of governmental bodies in Izmir while 17 of them are working as top-level managers of private companies, 9are in Civil society organizations, 13 are public profiles.

Table 1

Governmental Bodies		Who
Number of People	1	Representative of the Ministry of Tourism and Culture's Izmir Office.
	1	Librarian, who has been working for public universities in Izmir.
	1	Dokuz Eylul University, Museology Department.
Sum	3	

Table 2

Private Sector		Who
Number of People	5	Managers of a 5-4-star hotel in Izmir
	1	Manager of Historium Brugge
	1	Owner of a local Izmir Journal
	3	Professional tour guides
	3	Art Gallery Owners (1 in Istanbul,2 in Izmir)
	1	Antique shop owner
	2	Professional Musicians
	1	Coffee Roasting and Barista Academy
Total	17	

Table 3

Civil Society Organizations		Who
Number of People	3	Izmir Lions Club Presidents
	1	Levantine Heritage Foundation London
	1	Levantine Heritage Foundation Izmir President
	1	Eastern Orthodox Church Representative
	1	Izmir Skal Club President
	1	Private Art Foundation
	1	Buca Baptist Church Priest
Total	9	

Table 4

Public		Who
Number of People	10	Random Students in Buca
3	4	Levantine families living in Turkey and abroad.
Total	14	

Objectives and Outcome

The main objective of this research is introducing the Levantine culture, and sharing their heritage. By reconstructing the targeted mansion and marketing the museum, heritage tourism attraction will lead to an increase on the number of guests visiting Izmir.

By implementing a possible gastronomy sharing heritage of Levantines in the kitchen of the Museum (Levantine and Aegean dishes and Barista Café), Dokuz Eylul University Department of Tourism Management students can obtain practical knowledge in the hospitality industry and gain experience.

With Art education (Piano, painting, sculpture, clay) and sessions (Dokuz Eylul Department of Fine Arts and Museum Studies),the members of the public can experience edutainment. Mr. Cumhur Bakısan, a composer and piano instructor, and Prof. Dr. Aydın Ogut, a music academy owner, are willing to work for the Museum.

If the installation of Virtual Reality and Augmented Reality booths in the museum are completed (like in Historium Brugge) young generations will be eager to experiment the new technologies. Edutainment will be the key to success in this Museum.

All Buca Levantine Mansions and houses were toured during the study. Most of the houses are not in good condition. In fact, many of the houses are for sale. Also, an interview was held with the Priest of Buca Baptist Church, and the locals at the Church. Inside of the graveyards and the graves can be seen in Figure 2. and Figure 3.

Figure 2

Figure 3

Gravestones of Levantine families were found and visited with the Priest of Buca Baptist Church.

As per the interview conducted with the Head of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in Izmir, getting a hold of the mansion is a very difficult task. Tourist guides will offer guided tours to the other regions of Buca resembling Levantine heritage, such as other mansions, and churches.

Limitations & future research

This research as many others do has some limitations. First limitation is that this mansion is the property of a Levantine family, as well as the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, and the Ministry of Health. The residents and officials find the idea of the museum great, however it is somehow impossible for the stakeholders to collaborate and sit around a table. Another limitation was to get the interviewees to answer the questions since they were busy. Conducting the interviews has taken a long time. It was very difficult to get an appointment with the authorities. It was very difficult to obtain a balanced distribution of the authorities in terms of their sector - public and private - and titles.

Conclusion

Ports of trade has always been assigned a special status, and Izmir is a port city.(Keyder, Ç., Adıtatar, F., Castiglione, F., Eser, Ü., Kursar, V., Orlandi, L., ... & Woodall, C).Port cities like Salonica and Izmir have a rich multicultural history. These cities influence the urban development. Emiliano B.(2013).

In Izmir, there are 300 Levantine families remaining. (OncuSehir,23.01.2019).Izmir Levantine Heritage Foundation wishes to pass these documents, and the rich heritage history to next generations.

The analysis of this study conducted are summarized as follows; Buca is a region of architectural aesthetics, and cultural heritage. (Izmir Chamber of Commerce, 2019). Attention was drawn to the negative effects of urbanization and to the protection of these architectural monuments and buildings, as well as the cultural heritage. In the past, Buca was a village, where the foreigners' houses were spacious, surrounded by greenery, with fresh air and vineyards. Mansel, P.(2014)

Exhibition in the museum will reflect the old Buca in pictures. Photographs of families living in these mansions and the furniture they used, engravings,presentations and documentaries will be displayed.Levantine Heritage (2019).

As per the survey results, students and locals are curious but there is no sign explaining why this house is here or what is the history of this house or whom it belongs to. The residents, students, civil society organizations and private companies are eager to turn Forbes Mansion into a museum to serve the society and pass the culture to next generations.
Tourism professionals are all willing to take part in the process. The civil society organization, Pergamon Lions, is willing to donate paintings to the museum. This power of symbol structure represents culture. Museum of Levantines in Buca, Izmir will be an attractive tourist destination, and practice sustainable heritage tourism. It will attract domestic and international tourists. Levantines from other countries visiting this museum will have a great impact on the cultural, social and commercial development of Izmir.This will be a great example of stakeholder collaboration and management roles, heritage tourism development as well as the interdependence of the heritage conversation and tourism relationship. (Aas, C., Ladkin, A. & Fletcher, J. 2005).

As a result, cultural tourism has a major effect on visitors' choice of destination. City of Izmir, will be a more popular tourist destination with the possible addition of a Levantine Museum.

Pırnar İ., & Kurtural S. (2017).Combination of both new and old generations of the Levantine heritage projects will be stored in a Levantine museum. As conclusion, it would be very heartbreaking to see this lovely mansion in Izmir, Turkey left to break apart.

Collectibles from Levantine families and civil organizations can be used to create a Levantine Museum in Buca. Levantine heritage will be maintained and consequently contribute to tourism and future generations. Thus, a bridge between new generations will be built.

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What is ATLAS

The Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research (ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives in tourism and leisure.

ATLAS provides a forum to promote staff and student exchange, transnational research and to facilitate curriculum and professional development. It currently has 175 members in 60 countries worldwide.

What are the objectives of ATLAS?

- To promote the teaching of tourism, leisure and related subjects.
- To encourage academic exchange between member institutions.
- To promote links between professional bodies in tourism, leisure and associated subjects and to liaise on educational issues, curriculum development and professional recognition of courses.
- To promote transnational research which helps to underpin the development of appropriate curricula for transnational education.

What does ATLAS do?

ATLAS promotes links between member institutions through regular meetings, publications and information exchange. The main activities of ATLAS currently are:

- Organising conferences on issues in tourism and leisure education and research. International conferences have been held in Canterbury, UK (September 2016) and in Viana do Castelo, Portugal (2017). The annual conference in 2018 will be organised in Copenhagen, Denmark. Regional conferences are also held in Africa, Latin America and the Asia-Pacific region.
- Information services and publications, including the ATLAS website and members' portal, the annual ATLAS Reflections, Facebook and LinkedIn.
- Running international courses, such as the ATLAS Winter University in Europe and the Summer Course in Asia.
- Organisation of and participation in transnational research projects, for example on cultural tourism, sustainable tourism, and information technology. ATLAS is participating in two major European projects. The Next Tourism Generation Alliance (NTG) for implementing a new strategic blueprint approach to sectoral cooperation on skills and the INCOME Tourism project to develop soft skills into higher education curricula and to strongly cooperate with businesses.
- Research publications and reports.

What are the benefits of the ATLAS membership?

- Regular mailings of information, updates on ATLAS conferences, meetings, projects, publications and other activities.
- Access to the members' portal on Internet with exclusive access code.
- Participation in the ATLAS information lists for everyone within ATLAS member institutions, as well as for the different Special Interest Groups.
- The annual ATLAS international conference, which provides an opportunity to network with other members.
- Conferences organised by regional sections.
- ATLAS members can participate in a wide range of projects run by ATLAS in the areas of tourism and leisure education and research.
- Members have access to research information gathered through ATLAS
- International projects.
- ATLAS members are listed on the ATLAS website, giving teachers and students easy access to information about member institutions via Internet.
- Distribution of information about member events, programmes, projects and products via the ATLAS mailing list and ATLAS website.
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- Contacts and lobbying through ATLAS links with other international organisations.
- Opportunity for students to take part in an established academic and research network.

ATLAS Special Interest Groups

Members of ATLAS can form and join Special Interest Groups related to specific education and research topics or for specific geographical areas. Special Interest Groups run research programmes and can organise special events and publications related to their area of interest. The current Special Interest Groups are:

- Cultural Tourism Research Group
- Gastronomy and Tourism Research Group
- Business Tourism Research Group
- Cities and National Capital Tourism Research Group
- Volunteer Tourism Research Group
- Events Research Group
- Dark Tourism Research Group
- Heritage Tourism and Education Research Group
- Space, place, mobilities in Tourism Research Group

ATLAS Regional Sections
ATLAS is also represented at regional and local level by sections such as ATLAS Europe, ATLAS Asia-Pacific, ATLAS Africa and ATLAS Latin Americas. The regional sections of ATLAS have developed their own programme of activities and publications to respond more closely to the specific needs of members located in these regions and those with related research interests. Membership of ATLAS regional sections and Special Interest Groups of ATLAS is open to all ATLAS members at no extra costs.

The ATLAS publication series
As a networking organisation, one of the main tasks of ATLAS is to disseminate information on developments in tourism and leisure as widely as possible. The ATLAS publication series contains volumes of selected papers from ATLAS conferences and reports from ATLAS research projects. The ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review gives ATLAS members and participants of the ATLAS conferences and meetings a platform to publish the papers they have presented. The editing will be carried out by an editorial board / field editors. All publications can be found and ordered in the online ATLAS bookshop at: shop.atlas-euro.org.

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ATLAS membership is open to bona-fide educational institutions and professional bodies with educational, research or professional interests in tourism, leisure and related areas. If your institution is interested, complete the application form on the ATLAS homepage at www.atlas-euro.org.

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