INTERNATIONAL
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School of Economics & Business
Department of Organisation Management,
Marketing and Tourism

Volume 8, Issue 1, 2022

Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing

Editor-in-Chief:
Evangelos Christou

Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing (JTHSM) is an international, open-access, multi-disciplinary, refereed (double blind peer-reviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in tourism, heritage and services marketing, both at macro-economic and at micro-economic level.

ISSN: 2529-1947

www.jthsm.gr

Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing
Volume 8, Issue 1, 2022

Published by International Hellenic University
ISSN: 2529-1947
UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
Published online: 30 May 2022
Free full-text access available at: www.jthsm.gr

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Editorial

Evangelos Christou, Editor-in-Chief
International Hellenic University, Greece

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

Biographical note: Evangelos Christou is Professor of Tourism Marketing and Dean of the School of Economics & Business at the International Hellenic University, Greece (echristou@ihu.gr).

1 INTRODUCTION

I am pleased to present the fifteenth publication of JTHSM (volume 8, issue 1), the first issue in its eighth year of publication. This issue focus on furthering the journal's scope and consolidating its position in both conceptual developments and practical applications in tourism, heritage, and services through publication of six quality manuscripts: five full papers that underwent rigorous double-blind reviewing, and a research note.

2 PRESENTATION OF THE FIRST ISSUE FOR 2022

The present issue of JTHSM contains five full paperes written by twelve authors located in seven different countries and affiliated with eight different universities.

The first full paper is written by Charalampos Giousmpasoglou and Dzung Dinh from Bournemouth University in the United Kingdom. This study develops a critical understanding of Contactless Mobile Payment (CMP) in the context of consumer behaviour and explores its use in the Vietnamese restaurant industry. CMP is a technological innovation that shapes the future of service-related industries. An online survey was used to collect the data (n=153) from Vietnamese consumers. Data analysis was conducted with the use of SPSS and AMOS software. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in conjunction with Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) were employed to explore consumer perceptions regarding the use of CMP. The findings indicate that consumers find CMP a fast and convenient way to make transactions in Vietnamese restaurants. The findings also indicate the importance of ease of use and security. The study contributes to the understanding of consumer behaviour in regard to technology in the service industries context focused on the restaurant industry. The managerial implications of this study highlight a number of benefits for both consumers and businesses, such as efficiency, speed, and improved customer service; on the other hand, the potential of fraud poses a serious threat for both sides.

Despite second homes having been extensively studied in the tourism area during the last two decades, there is a lack of updated review. The main purpose of the second paper, written by Maria José Alonsopérez and Juan Gabriel Brida from the Universidad de la República in Uruguay and Mara Leticia Rojas from the Universidad Nacional del Sur in Argentina, is to present a systematic literature review and a revision of the main issues studied. The article begins with a discussion about different concepts and definitions. It highlights the lack of an internationally accepted definition of second home tourism and proposed one. Then, our literature review in second homes shows the growth of publications, country specification, the affiliation of lead authors and the leading serial source titles. The review is based on a comprehensive search in Scopus through keywords. Additionally, the main topics and issues related to second homes are summarised. Results show that the number of publications has grown almost steadily, with a maximum in 2018. American, Nordics and South African authors dominate second homes research. Publications have been shifted from Tourism Geographies journals to Tourism journals showing a greater specification in the area. Finally, based on our review on topics, we conclude that there is still more to study, most of all in the field of theoretical work, the analysis of economic, environmental, and social impacts and the role of unexpected events, such as Covid 19, that has changed the use of second homes.

In the third full paper, Yenal Yağmur from Siirt University in Turkey and Akın Aksu from Akdeniz University in Turkey, aim to establish a model for the risk assessments of tourists and to determine whether destination image has a mediating effect in the relationship between perceived risk, behavioural intentions, and satisfaction. The study has a quantitative research design in which data were collected through questionnaires. To ensure the construct validity of the proposed model, first, confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses were performed, and then the structural equation modelling technique was used. Amos 22 and SPSS 22.0 programs were used for the analysis of the data. As a result of research analysis, it has been found that cognitive image had a partial mediating role between the behavioural intentions and satisfaction the tourists (between perceived risk and satisfaction) whereas affective image had no mediating impact between the tourists' perceived risks, behavioural intentions, and satisfaction. This study has some theoretical and practical contributions. Considering that the halal tourism literature is a very new concept, it is thought

ISSN: 2529-1947. UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6587176
Published online: 30 May 2022
www.jthsm.gr

that a model proposal for the field will contribute to the deepening and development of the literature on the one hand and will provide important concrete data to hotel managers and destination policy makers on the other hand.

The fourth full paper is written by Noela Michael and Anestis Fotiadis from Zayed University in the United Arab Emirates. This study analyzes employee turnover in the under-researched context of the Gulf Cooperation Council. The study uses a qualitative approach to examine the reasons for turnover and strategies adopted within the hotel sector to reduce this turnover. The findings reveal that turnover reasons are organization- and employee-specific. Strategies to reduce turnover include promoting a good work environment, providing transfer opportunities, talent and development planning, and implementing exit strategies to find out employees' reasons for leaving. These findings will benefit the hotel industry's human resource planning, as most employees are expatriates, and will reduce costs in terms of new recruitment. From a context based perspective cultural differences between employees' nationalities are a reason for turnover linked to differences in salary and benefits. "Social" and "economic" value are key elements for human resource professionals to consider when developing employee benefits.

The fifth paper comes from two authors: Hugues Séraphin from the University of Winchester Business School in the United Kingdom and Nathalie Jarraud from University of Pau in France. Taking Lourdes as an en example, this paper aims at understanding the relationship amongst the main tourism and events industry stakeholders. To achieve the objective of the study, data were collected through interviews of key players. The results where then filtered through the 'Alpha' framework to theorise the interactions amongst stakeholders. The study also provides a (1) typology of the ultimate alpha syndrome in the context of destination management; (2) typology of the delta syndrome. (3) Finally, the study argues that in destinations where there is an ultimate alpha hallmark event, or an ultimate alpha stakeholder, a situation quite similar to an anti-competitive market can arise. This situation is referred as 'ultimate alpha tourism monopoly'. Based on the findings of this study, Destination Marketing Organisations need to ensure that there is a suitable synergy amongst all stakeholders involved in the tourism industry (and related sector), to avoid anti-competitive market 'ultimate alpha tourism monopoly' to arise.

Vineet Chouhan from Sir Padampat Singhania University in India, through a research note discuss the development of a sustainable tribal tourism model vis-a-vis the tribal region of Rajasthan. The tourism industry in India is rising and has excellent potential to create jobs and produce a large amount of foreign capital, thereby promoting the region's overall economic and social growth. The inviting customs of tribal India, the diverse community and native culture are always drawing the attention of tourists. Sustainable tourism is an enterprise that aims to get a minimal effect on the atmosphere and native customs while helping to generate revenue, employment, and conserve local environments. Tribal tourism will promote the development of locally generated goods, apart from direct and indirect jobs, and have essential multiplier effects as money is recycled into communities. Also, the sector offers substantial improvements in the tribal region development with provincial taxes and encourages local and national infrastructure growth for India. This paper describes tribal tourism, sustainable tribal tourism, and its significance in the Indian scenario. Responses of 213 tribes were analysed with multiple regression to build a model for sustainable tribal tourism's success in Rajasthan. Social, economic, environmental sustainability, facility and problems dimensions are found to have a positive impact on the sustainability in tribal tourism. This study has been conducted to acquaint the growth prospects in the form of social, economic, environmental and facility aspects and challenges of sustainable tribal tourism in India.

Based on the above, I trust that you will enjoy reading this new issue of JTHSM, the second one indexed in Scopus!

Evangelos Christou
International Hellenic University
Editor-in-Chief

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Using contactless mobile payment in the Vietnamese restaurant industry

Charalampos Giousmpasoglou
Bournemouth University, United Kingdom

Dzung Dinh
Bournemouth University, United Kingdom

Abstract:

Purpose: *Contactless Mobile Payment (CMP) is a technological innovation that shapes the future of service-related industries. This study develops a critical understanding of CMP in the context of consumer behaviour and explores its use in the Vietnamese restaurant industry.*
Methods: *An online survey was used to collect the data (n=153) from Vietnamese consumers. Data analysis was conducted with the use of SPSS and AMOS software. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in conjunction with Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) were employed to explore consumer perceptions regarding the use of CMP.*
Results: *The findings indicate that consumers find CMP a fast and convenient way to make transactions in Vietnamese restaurants. The findings also indicate the importance of ease of use and security.*
Implications: *The study contributes to the understanding of consumer behaviour in regard to technology in the service industries context focused on the restaurant industry. The managerial implications of this study highlight a number of benefits for both consumers and businesses, such as efficiency, speed, and improved customer service; on the other hand, the potential of fraud poses a serious threat for both sides.*

Keywords: *Consumer Behaviour, Contactless Mobile Payment, Restaurant Industry, Vietnam*

JEL Classification: *L83, N35, N7*

Biographical note: Charalampos Giousmpasoglou (cgiousmpasoglou@bournemouth.ac.uk) is a Principal Academic in Human Resources Management and Programme Leader for MSc International Hospitality & Tourism Management at Bournemouth University Business School. Dzung Dinh is a postgraduate student in MSc International Hospitality & Tourism Management at Bournemouth University Business School. Corresponding author: Charalampos Giousmpasoglou (cgiousmpasoglou@bournemouth.ac.uk).

1 INTRODUCTION

The restaurant industry has long recognised service quality and customer satisfaction as key values for business survival (Hu et al., 2009). Aiming to stay competitive, companies in this sector try to minimise (human) errors, gain better customer insights and enhance their financial efficiency. To do this, restaurant operators have integrated technology into almost every step of their customer journey, from pre-purchase marketing to post-purchase customer review (Bilgihan and Wang, 2016). Emerging technologies, accepted by customers and adopted by restaurants, lead to such benefits as deeper engagement, more convenience, and enhanced restaurant experiences (Kabadayi et al., 2019). Traditionally, customer engagement in restaurants focused on the interactions between a host and the customer during a visit. With the spread of internet and mobile technology, the contact between restaurant owners and consumers has been extends much further and begins even before their demand for a restaurant meal is formed (EuroMonitor, 2018).

The rapid technological advancements have transformed consumer behaviour in the restaurant industry. Customers demand more control over their dining experience and want convenience, transparency and enjoyment. They can achieve these through use of advanced technologies (Saxena, 2021), which allow them to explore a wide range of choices through electronic menus, automated table service, small meals placed on rotating conveyor belts, and 'build-yourself' dishes. In addition, many restaurant chains today use food delivery mobile applications along with interactive Customer Relationship Management (CRM) systems (Kapoor and Vij, 2018). The result is that control of the conventional restaurant process is shifted to the customers' side, while restaurant owners are enabled to focus more on diversifying and improving service and food quality.
The role and importance of Contactless Mobile Payment (CMP) has received much attention from science in recent years (i.e., Dorcic et al. 2018; Susskind and Curry 2018). Kasavana (2006) predicted the widespread of CMP use in restaurants, as it could benefit all parties in the payment process: consumers gain more secure and expedient payment

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ISSN: 2529-1947. UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6581331
Published online: 30 May 2022
www.jthsm.gr

experiences; restaurant operators gain customer satisfaction and trust; and banks strengthen their relationships with cardholders. However, despite the advantages of CMP over traditional payment methods, the use of CMP in the restaurant industry has not received appropriate attention from researchers, and restaurant consumers' acceptance of this new payment method is not sufficiently understood. Previous studies have mainly focused on the hotel industry (Morosan and Bowen, 2018), followed by studies on intermediation activities (Ruiz-Molina et al., 2010; Chatzigeorgiou et al., 2019), leaving the restaurant industry under-represented in academic research (DiPietro, 2017; Spyridou, 2017). In addition, other studies explored the implementation of CMP systems in particular countries (i.e., Lu et al. 2011; Schierz et al., 2010; Tan et al., 2014), with no existing research on CMP adoption in Vietnamese context, particularly in the restaurant sector. As such, this study's findings address the current literature gap and contribute to understanding this emerging payment system.

This study aims to understand how CMP is deployed in restaurants and the underlying motivations of Vietnamese customers' use of it. The paper first explores existing studies of CMP, then explains the research approach and methodology, next, presents the statistical analysis of the data collected, and, finally, discusses the study's conclusions and implications.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Consumer behaviour and CMP

The study of consumer behaviour investigates the decision-making process in regards to the purchase of products or services (Stankevich, 2017). This process includes the personal payment preferences for conducting transactions (Blythe, 2013). A consumer's decision to try and adopt a new technology is driven by the technology's usefulness, simplicity, associated risk, perceived cost, and consumer self-efficacy (Chandra et al., 2010). Jonker (2007) assumes that consumers typically prefer payment methods that bring pleasant and familiar experiences regardless of the cost of payment process, while Pollai et al. (2010) stated that consumers' preferences would be decided by their anticipations and feelings of the way that payment method addresses their demands for service satisfaction. In an effort to discover how consumers' perception leading to their decision to choose their payment instruments, Khan and Craig-Lees (2009) point out that people opinions towards electronic payments are much different compared to conventional money transactions. A technology that combines the use of smartphones and the benefits of credit card purchases has raised concerns for users, such as trust (Tobbin, 2010), security problems (Wang et al., 2016; Eze et al., 2008), accessibility (Wurster, 2014) and national legislation (Au and Kauffman, 2008).

It is not surprising that, the topic received much attention from scholars and researchers is the consumer's perceived security of this payment method (Wang et al., 2016). The increased likelihood of security breaches and payment fraud in mobile devices and applications, creates fear and loss of confidence for both consumers and businesses in these payment systems (Hampshire, 2017; Story et al., 2020). In addition, consumers do not fully acknowledge the use of mobile wallet as a secure alternative to existing payment methods, or even fear that the government is monitoring and recording their transactions (Murdoch and Anderson, 2014; Zhou, 2015). As a result, the lack of awareness and education about mobile payment security, might ultimately delay the wider application of this payment method (Stiakakis et al., 2016). On the other hand, it can be argued that post COVID-19 studies regarding the application of CMP in the hospitality and tourism industry (i.e. Rahimizhian and Irani, 2021; Gursoy and Chi, 2020) indicate the wide spread of this payment method in global scale due to its unique characteristics, discussed in the following section.

2.2 CMP definition and characteristics

Contactless mobile payment (CMP) is currently recognised as the most popular medium for electronic payment across service industry sectors. CMP is defined by Gannamaneni et al. (2015) as a fast transaction that occurs between users' mobile devices and the merchant's point of sales (POS) devices through contactless technology. Contactless payment systems often rely on near-field communication (NFC). This is a new technology that falls under the radio-frequency identification (RFID) umbrella. Unlike RFID, which functions at a distance of many meters, NFC only works between objects separated by a short distance. Practically, this means there is no danger that a customer accidentally pays for somebody else's purchases (Walden, 2020). In general, CMP is easily accessible, convenient, effective, with secure mechanisms, backed by consistent standards and operational structures (Ruijun et al., 2010). In addition, it offers transparent communication configuration, mobility and consumes low-power energy (Egger, 2013; Teh et al., 2014). As a result, it lowers the operating costs of merchants and financial institutions while increasing business marketing capabilities and consumer expenditure (Olsen, 2008).

The proliferation of smartphones, sufficient infrastructure, increasing demand, and advanced security systems have driven the success of CMP around the globe. However, it can be argued that the rising trend is unequally distributed between markets and found primarily in pioneering and mature economies. Previous studies recognise inadequate adoption of CMP and expect adoption to match the availability of smart phones (Chandra et al., 2010; Rolfe, 2018; Zhou, 2013). Bourreau and Verdier (2010) argue that the uneven level of success of CMP is explained by the fact that developed countries possess well-built payment infrastructure and a high rate of consumers' (credit or debit) card ownership, while developing nations have limited and insufficient banking systems.

From a technical perspective, CMP implementation does not require sophisticated infrastructure to operate, suggesting that the key determinants of adoption of CMP in developing countries like Vietnam, are consumer's preferences, motivation, and behaviour. Egger (2013) states that, for any emerging technology, the critical concerns for all stakeholders are customer usage and acceptance, indicating that it is consumer demand significantly drives businesses' adoption of technology. This statement is aligned with the conclusion of Burgelman et al. (2004), as a service technology innovation could be successful only if accepted by the market. The adoption of CMP depends on whether customer needs are generated, fully recognised, and successfully fulfilled; when this happens, it would be possible for CMP to replace existing payment instruments in consumer transactions (Viehland and Leong 2007).

2.3 CMP application in the restaurant sector

In the past decade, restaurants increasingly use CMP. US restaurants have rapidly adopted CMP, with year-over-year payment growth averaging 74 percent since 2013 (EuroMonitor, 2018; Del Chiappa et al., 2021). Restaurant and café multinational chains such as KFC, Chilli's and Starbucks accept Apple Pay, a mobile payment system available for iPhone users (Benner, 2015). The food and beverage sector in the UK is another example of CMP acceptance, with increased use in catering businesses (90 percent) and pubs and restaurants (79 percent and 90 percent, respectively) (Gerrard, 2016). In Mainland China, mobile payment transactions passed the US in early 2018 (Shen, 2018) with customers using Alipay and WeChat to purchase everything from street food to fine dining (Nielsen, 2018).

2.4 Research model and hypotheses development

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), introduced by Davis et al. (1989), is one of the most influential theories in Information Technology-related studies. Davis et al. (1989) suggested that an individual's attitude towards the application of a specific technology is decided by its perceived ease of use and usefulness and that, in turn, affects the actual use of the technology. The TAM is considered as a reliable theory in studying technology acceptance (Wu et al., 2011), and has been utilised in various fields, such as mobile payments and banking (Liébana-Cabanillas et al., 2017; Mehrad and Mohammadi, 2017; Ramos de Luna et al., 2016; Daskalaki et al., 2020). Considering its popularity and effectiveness, the TAM is used in our study. The original model includes two key constructs, namely, perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use, to explain the behaviour of customers. The original TAM has been criticised for focusing only on the technology itself, excluding other important psychological constructs that result in technology acceptance (Matemba, 2018). Therefore, in order to examine restaurant customers adoption of CMP adoption in Vietnam, this study uses TAM but also factors such as subjective norms and perceived security and compatibility.

Perceived Usefulness (PU)

Perceived usefulness is defined as the extent to which an individual assumes that using an identified technology improves efficiency and performance in daily work and life (Davis et al., 1989). A consumer is likely to utilise a particular technology if s/he perceives it as useful. In the case of CMP, despite its being faster and more accurate in processing transactions, a key reason for its slow and fragmented diffusion could be the failure of explaining those advantages to potential users. Previous studies confirmed the positive relationship of perceived usefulness on consumers' intention to use the technology (Leong et al., 2011; Ooi and Tan, 2016). In addition, Pham and Ho (2015), in their study of NFC mobile payments, found perceived usefulness to be the strongest predictor of customer acceptance. Thus, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H1: Perceived usefulness has a positive impact on consumers' intention to use CMP in restaurants

Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU)

In the original TAM, the Perceived Ease of Use indicates "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be free of effort" (Davis et al. 1989, p.?). As such, a new technology is likely to be adopted if consumers perceive it as easy to use or user-friendly and PEOU is a significant determinant of customers' acceptance of an innovative technology (Kim et al., 2010; Liébana-Cabanillas et al., 2015). However, PEOU's direct effect on intention to use has been debated with several scholars (Liébana-Cabanillas et al. 2017; Ooi and Tan 2016; Pham and Ho, 2015; Wu and Wang, 2005) finding an insignificant relationship between perceived ease of use and customers' intention to adopt a technology, supporting the view of Venkatesh (2000) that, as consumers become more proficient in using a certain technology over time, the importance of perceived ease of use is reduced or overshadowed by other factors.

Nevertheless, Davis et al.'s (1989) viewpoint has been supported by a number of studies arguing that most people assume an easy-to-use product is a useful product, and, in turn, are likely to utilise it (Chen and Chen 2011; Liébana-Cabanillas et al. 2017; Ramos de Luna et al. 2016;). Therefore, regarding perceived ease of use, this study suggests the following hypotheses:

H2: Perceived ease of use has a positive impact on perceived usefulness of CMP in restaurants

H3: Perceived ease of use has a positive impact on consumers' intention to use CMP in restaurants

Perceived Security (PS)

Perceived security describes the degree to which individuals consider a novel technology system secure for processing personal information and sensitive data (Chang and Chen, 2009). Security issues require more attention in the early stage of technology diffusion because people do not have sufficient understanding of the security features of the new system (Baker et al., 2002). It is essential to control the perceived security of the technology in order to address customers' concerns. For example, Shin's (2009) study of mobile wallet service revealed perceived security to be the most influential indicator of consumers' intention to use. Likewise, Oliveira et al. (2016) discovered its substantial impact on users' decision to use mobile payment instruments, second only to the impact of perceived compatibility. In addition, perceived security has been found to have a strong impact on the main constructs of the TAM, namely, perceived usefulness and ease of use (Khalilzadeh, 2016). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4: Perceived security has a positive impact on the intention to use CMP in restaurants

H5: Perceived security has a positive impact on perceived usefulness of CMP in restaurants

H6: Perceived security has a positive impact on perceived ease of use of CMP in restaurants

Subjective Norms (SN)

Subjective norms, also known as social influence (Venkatesh and Davis, 2000), are among the most commonly studied factors in information technology research (Dahlberg et al., 2015). Subjective norms refer to the extent to which persons appreciate the opinion of people who are important to them, on whether they should perform a particular action, or, in this case, use a technological system (Venkatesh and Bala, 2008). Similar to perceived security, the term is especially relevant during the initial stage of technology deployment, as customers in this period usually lack detailed and trustworthy information about the system. As a result, they have the tendency to rely strongly on their communication with peers to shape their decisions about use (Schierz et al., 2010). Furthermore, in a collectivist culture like Vietnam's, it is expected that peers' opinions would have greater impact on individuals (Hofstede, 2011), suggesting that subjective norms are even more important to this particular study. Thus, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H7: Subjective norms have a positive impact on perceived usefulness of CMP in restaurants

H8: Subjective norms have a positive impact on perceived ease of use of CMP in restaurants

Perceived Compatibility (PC)

Another factor in the original TAM is the consumers' lifestyle compatibility, which has been described as a crucial driver of people's adoption of new technologies (Wang and Liao, 2008). In this study's context, the perceived compatibility can be defined as the degree to which payment systems are consistent with consumers' existing beliefs, knowledge, skills and (behavioural) habits (Lu et al., 2011). As one of the key success factors in technology deployment, a strong compatibility with consumers' lifestyles would significantly stimulate the mass diffusion of a technology (Pham and Ho, 2015). Moreover, a number of CMP-related studies (i.e., Pham and Ho, 2015; Ramos de Luna et al., 2016; Schierz et al. 2010) suggest perceived compatibility, compared to other factors, is the most powerful indicator of customers' intention to use a technology. These findings imply that restaurant customers might use CMP as their payment method if they believe that it fits into their lifestyle. Therefore, we suggest the following hypothesis:

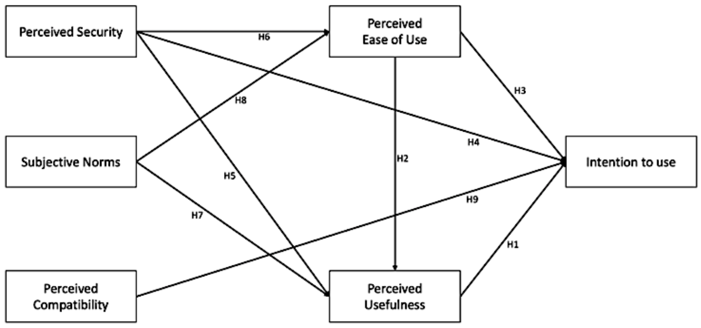
H9: Perceived compatibility has a positive impact on consumers' intention to use CMP in restaurants

Intention to use (ITU)

Defined as the psychological indicator of consumers' readiness to perform an action, intention to use is adopted by most TAM-based studies as the dependent variable of the conceptual model to predict consumer's actual use of the technology system (Liébana-Cabanillas et al., 2017). Therefore, this study adopts intention to use as a representation for customers' acceptance of CMP and assumes the construct to be a sufficient predictor of consumers' potential usage.

Based on the above discussion regarding the different dimensions of the TAM model and applying it to CMP in the Vietnamese restaurant industry context, the conceptual model of this study is presented in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Survey Questionnaire Design

To test the conceptual model presented above, a quantitative research approach was employed. Due to COVID19 restrictions and the geographical spread of the sample, an online survey was used to collect the data. Wilson (2010) suggests an online questionnaire is an effective tool for reaching a wide range of participants. The study's questionnaire has three sections: the first asks participants to answer brief questions regarding the use of CMP in the restaurant industry; the second asks question about consumer behavioural intentions toward CMP and covers factors such as perceived usefulness (Bhattacherjee, 2001), ease of use (Davis et al., 1989), security (Parasuraman et al., 2005), compatibility (Christou et al., 2008; Plouffe et al., 2001), subjective norms (Venkatesh and Davis, 2000) and intention to use the technology (Schierz et al., 2010); the third section collects basic demographic data (age, gender, occupation, income) about participants. The questionnaire was initially designed in English and, then, translated into Vietnamese. Once the questionnaire was created in GoogleForms (a free online survey platform), a pilot study was conducted and all necessary adjustments made (Saunders et al., 2012); the pilot study was followed by the primary data collection phase. The study received approval from Bournemouth University's research ethics committee prior to the data collection stage, ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants' responses.

3.2 Sampling

Based on time and resource limitations, this study utilised the convenience sampling method, a non-probability technique. According to Saunders et al. (2012), a non-probability sampling technique does not clarify the research population, and the targeted sample must be administered by different criteria. A snowball sampling approach was adopted for the data collection. Snowball sampling refers to the technique in which each participant / individual would refer other relevant individuals to join the study and so on (Babbie 2010). According to Brickman-Bhutta (2012), the snowball sampling method is considered to be a timesaving, inexpensive way to collect survey data. In this study, the targeted sample was Vietnamese consumers who could independently choose their payment method when using restaurant services. The survey questionnaire was created online and distributed through social media platforms like Facebook and LINE.

In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the collected data, a quantitative study requires a considerable sample size. Ghauri and Grohauug (2005) confirm this idea, while Bryman and Bell (2011) prove the benefit of a large research sample size in reducing the sampling error rate. Saunders et al. (2012) encourage the sample size to be above 50. For this study, the targeted sample size was 150 responses. 162 responses were received in total and checked for invalid or missing data; 9 responses were rejected, and 153 valid responses were utilised for the data analysis. The sample size (n=153) in this study meets the requirement of Hair et al. (2010) for a minimum sufficient size between 100 and 200 for the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique and maximum likelihood estimation methods (Sigala and Christou, 2014). The demographic characteristics of the participants varied in terms of age, gender, income and occupation.

3.3 Data analysis

The data analysis was conducted in two parts, namely, descriptive and inferential statistics, with the use of SPSS and AMOS software, respectively. The descriptive analysis is considered to be capable of generating numerical interpretation and comparison between items and constructs (Saunders et al., 2012). In this study, the demographic profile section is illustrated by using frequency tables. In addition, mean value and standard deviation were utilised to interpret the constructs, as measured by the Likert scale. Moreover, statistical techniques for comparison, including t-test and one-way ANOVA (Ross and Willson, 2017), were adopted to examine whether or not there is any difference between social groups in their intention to use CMP.

Following this, an inferential analysis was conducted; this is described as the statistical method for processing quantitative data in order to generate conclusions on a random sample population (Collis and Hussey, 2014). The stage begins with an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to clarify and optimise the underlying structure of the data. Next, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted to evaluate the composite reliability for each factor, as well as the convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010) of the measurement model. Then, the structural equation modelling (SEM) is performed to assess the relationships between conceptual variables, including perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, subjective norms, perceived security, perceived compatibility and customers' intention to use. The SEM technique is well-known for its ability to examine the inter-related and dependent relationship between latent variables (Tarka, 2018). A test of overall fit of the structural model was conducted prior to the hypotheses testing step (Byrne, 2010), and, in turn, comprehensive discussion and sophisticated implications were derived from the results.

4 FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Demographic profile

The sample in this study was dominated by females (71.2%), with males constituting 28.8%. In terms of age, the largest proportion belongs to Generation Z, followed by Millennials (75.8% and 20.9%, respectively). This was not a surprise, as the survey was conducted online, and Vietnamese young people are technically savvy and among the most active people in social media (Nguyen, 2015). In addition, almost half of the participants were part-time employees (47.1%), while students account for an approximately equal percentage (45.1%). Full-time workers comprise only 5.2% of total respondents, and the number of unemployed and retired people was insignificant.

The educational profile revealed that more than half of the participants (58.8%) were holders of a university degree or postgraduates (39.9%). This suggests that the educational proficiency of respondents was relatively high, and, thus, it should be expected that they are fully capable of judging and making logical decisions in using technology systems. Lastly, in terms of income, the majority of participants' monthly salary at the 3-10 million VND range (30.7%), and two groups at 23.5%, namely below-3-million-VND and 10-to-20-million-VND people. In addition, the highest income class constitutes the smallest percentage of the whole, at only 2.6%. The income profile in this study suggests that almost 75% of the respondents are above the average level, as Vietnamese GDP per capita is 2,700 USD per year (Worldbank, 2020). Also, these salary levels are considered to provide enough income stability for the potential consumer to purchase restaurant services.

Table 1: Familiarity with CMP

Frequencies of CMP experience

Having acknowledged of the term CMP	Count	Percent (%)	Cumulative (%)
No	28	18.3	18.3
Yes	125	81.7	100.0
Total	153	100.0	

Used CMP generally	Count	Percent (%)	Cumulative (%)
No	9	5.9	5.9
Yes	144	94.1	100.0
Total	153	100.0	

Experienced CMP in restaurants	Count	Percent (%)	Cumulative (%)
No	26	17.0	17.0
Yes	127	83.0	100.0
Total	153	100.0	

Cross relations

Valid N: 153	Frequency	Percent (of total)
Having acknowledged but never used before	3	1.96
Used without acknowledgement of CMP	22	14.38
Used CMP generally but not in restaurants	17	11.11

Popular types of CMP in Vietnamese restaurant market

Valid N: 153	Frequency	Percent (of total)
Mobile wallet	124	81.0
Smart card and phone	90	58.8
Wearables	34	22.2
No use	9	5.9

The sample population generally had experience using CMP, although there are some slight, yet insignificant gaps regarding people who used CMP who had never heard of the technology or consumers who used the payment system but not in restaurants (Table 1). Vietnamese customers seem to be most familiar with mobile wallet (81% of total participants used the application), followed by smart cards and phones at 58.8% and wearables at 22.2%.

4.2 Factors influencing customers' intention to use CMP

This section demonstrates the factors affecting customers' intention to adopt and interpret their overall acceptance of CMP by looking at the mean and standard deviation of each item in Tables 2 and 3. The findings suggest that participants mostly agree with statements that CMP is useful and easy to use, with all mean values above 4, meaning that the customers recognise the practical benefits and advantages of the new payment system. In addition, features related to perceived security and perceived compatibility recorded their mean values above 3, suggesting that the respondents generally perceive CMP as secure and that it fitted with their lifestyle, to a moderate extent. As this technology is still in its infancy in the Vietnamese market, it should be expected that customers' perceived security and compatibility will positively improve over time as consumers become more proficient and familiar with it.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of measurement items

	Content	Mean	SD
PU1	Contactless mobile payment system is useful mode of payment	**4.32**	.749
PU2	Using contactless mobile payment makes the handling of payments easier	**4.27**	.778
PU3	Contactless mobile payment system allows quick use of mobile applications (for example, ticket purchases, and use of mobile coupons, etc.)	**4.25**	.839
PEOU1	It is easy to proficiently master how to use contactless mobile payment system	**4.12**	.743
PEOU2	Interactions with contactless mobile payment system are clear and understandable	**4.01**	.811
PEOU3	It is easy to follow all the steps to use contactless mobile payment system	**4.08**	.794
PEOU4	It is easy to interact contactless mobile payment system	**4.04**	.794
SN1	People who are important to me think it is a good idea to use contactless mobile payment systems	3.65	.772
SN2	People who are important to me would recommend using contactless mobile payment system	3.41	.815
SN3	People who are important to me view contactless mobile payment system as beneficial	3.65	.748
PS1	The risk of an unauthorised party intervening in the payment process is low	3.22	.926
PS2	The risk of abuse of usage information (e.g., names of business partners, payment amount) is low when using contactless mobile payment system	3.20	1.002
PS3	The risk of abuse of billing information (e.g., credit card number, bank account data) is low when using contactless mobile payment	3.15	.972
PC1	I would appreciate using contactless mobile payment services in restaurant/cafe/bar instead of alternative modes of payment (e.g., credit card, cash)	3.89	.847
PC2	I think contactless mobile payment system is compatible with my lifestyle	3.93	.859
PC3	Using contactless mobile payment at a restaurant/cafe/bar fits well with the way I like to purchase products and services	3.90	.879
ITU1	Given the opportunity, I will use contactless mobile payment system	**4.27**	.728
ITU2	I am likely to use contactless mobile payment system in the near future	**4.21**	.749
ITU3	I am open to using contactless mobile payment system in the near future	**4.30**	.717
ITU4	I intend to use contactless mobile payment system when the opportunity arises	**4.22**	.842
Valid N (listwise): 153			

On the other hand, subjective norms recorded a mean value between 3 and 4, indicating that consumers' choice are, indeed, affected by peers' opinions, but the effect is not strong, which could be because the sample contains mostly young and well-educated people, and they are likely to be highly deliberate and possess sufficient knowledge to make decisions about CMP adoption by themselves. Lastly, the intention to use construct and its items recorded their mean values above 4, demonstrating a Vietnamese consumers' positive acceptance and strong willingness to utilise CMP. This finding can be linked to Gincel's (2010) argument that young consumers are generally more responsive to the introduction of new technology, particularly payment systems

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of constructs

* =MEAN (items)	N of items	CR Alpha	Mean	SD
Perceived usefulness*	3	0.922	**4.28**	.735
Perceived ease of use*	4	0.961	**4.06**	.744
Subjective norms*	3	0.832	3.57	.674
Perceived security*	3	0.861	3.19	.856
Perceived compatibility*	3	0.847	3.91	.755
Intention to use*	4	0.938	**4.25**	.698
Valid N (listwise): 153				

For comparison purposes, two types of statistical techniques were employed, independent t-test for examining the differences between males and females and one-way ANOVA for age, income, education background and occupation groups (Table 4). To be more specific, an independent samples t-test is adopted for groups containing only two components (like male and female in this study) to assess whether or not those two have equal means. Meanwhile, one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) is a statistical technique designed for a similar purpose but used when there are three or more sub-groups within the larger group. As the results in table 4.7 show, overall, there was no observable difference between males and females (t=0.00, p-value=1.00), age (F=1.115, p-value=0.352), income (F=1.023, p-value=0.406), education (F=0.851, p-value=0.429) or occupation (F=0.576, p-value=0.680) within this study's sample population. Combined with the results of the previous section, it can be suggested that Vietnamese consumers generally accept CMP adoption and demonstrate a favourable attitude towards it.

Table 4: 'Intention to use' comparison between groups

T-test Results (on intention to use)			
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Result
Gender	.000	1.000	No significant difference

One-way ANOVA Results (between groups – on intention to use)			
	F	Sig.	Result
Age group	1.115	.352	No significant difference
Income	1.023	.406	No significant difference
Educational level	.851	.429	No significant difference
Occupation	.576	.680	No significant difference

4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

As a preliminary step to explore the underlying structure of the data, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted, using Principle axis factoring technique and Promax rotation, combined with the parallel analysis technique to precisely determine the number of factors to load into further analysis.

As shown in Table 5, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy scored 0.879, which could be considered an excellent statistic, as it surpassed the recommended level of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010) and indicates that the items' score for any extracted factor was adequate. In addition, the Bartlett's Test result was significant ($\chi2$ = 2626.688; df = 190), with its p-value (= 0.000) less than 0.05, demonstrating solid correlations between items within a factor and ensuring the input data to be appropriate for EFA. The results indicated that six factors were retained in the measurement model, which matches the number of factors from this study's conceptual model. Then, a second EFA was conducted, with the results displayed in Table 7. Twenty measurement variables were reduced into six factors, explaining 76.08% of total data variance. Also, factor loadings spread between 0.663 and 1.009, which are relatively high and satisfied the given requirement of above 0.50 from Hair et al. (2010); therefore, no item was removed.

Table 5: KMO and Bartlett's Test from EFA

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.879
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2626.688
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

Table 6: Eigenvalue results to determine factors retained

Factor	Initial EFA Eigenvalues		Parallel random results*	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	Cumulative %	Random eigenvalues	Total	Cumulative %
1	8.540	42.700	1.2734	8.290	41.451
2	2.655	55.977	1.1391	2.404	53.471
3	2.054	66.248	1.0383	1.773	62.336
4	1.543	73.965	0.9472	1.210	68.388
5	1.025	79.090	0.8548	.791	72.345
6	0.869	83.436	0.7471		
7	0.486	85.867	0.7321		

*generated by software designed from Watkins (2008)

Table 7: Second EFA results (total variance explained and factor loadings)

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.540	42.700	42.700	8.329	41.643	41.643
2	2.655	13.277	55.977	2.452	12.258	53.901
3	2.054	10.272	66.248	1.781	8.904	62.805
4	1.543	7.716	73.965	1.216	6.079	68.884
5	1.025	5.125	79.090	.810	4.052	72.936
6	.869	4.346	83.436	.629	3.145	76.080
7	.486	2.431	85.867			

Pattern Matrix

	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6
ITU3	1.009					
ITU1	.934					
ITU2	.855					
ITU4	.663					
PEOU3		.954				
PEOU4		.898				
PEOU1		.893				
PEOU2		.890				
PU2			.927			
PU1			.836			
PU3			.799			
PS2				.904		
PS1				.795		
PS3				.757		
SN3					.804	
SN1					.770	
SN2					.768	
PC2						.802
PC3						.728
PC1						.715

Table 8: Measurement model fits

Indicator	Threshold	Result	Indicator	Threshold	Result
$\chi2$/df	=< 2	1.544	CFI	>= 0.90	0.967
GFI	>= 0.80	0.87	TLI	>= 0.90	0.96
SRMR	=< 0.05	0.045	RMSEA	=< 0.06	0.06

Note: Normed Chi-square to Degree-of-freedom = $\chi2$/df; GFI = Goodness of Ft Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis Index; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean square Residual and RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.
Source: Hair et al. (2010); Hu and Bentler (1999); Baumgartner and Homburg (1996)

4.4 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

The psychometric properties of the measurement model, regarding its reliability and convergent and discriminant validity, were also assessed. The calculated results are shown in Tables 9 and 10. Firstly, in terms of reliability and convergence validity, composite reliability (CR) values for all factors were higher than 0.70, while average variance extracted (AVE) of all were higher than the 0.50 level suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Additionally, all measurement items' loadings, ranging from 0.745 to 0.953, above the minimum threshold of 0.50, were highly significant. Besides, the value of Cronbach's Alpha, to assess the internal consistency of all constructs, ranged from 0.832 to 0.961 and surpassed the recommended level of 0.70. Therefore, the measurement model is considered to be reliable and its convergent validity ensured.

Table 9: Measurement model reliability and validity indices

Construct	Item	Loading	P	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	MSV
Intention to use	ITU3	.953		0.938	0.942	0.803	0.507
	ITU1	.912	***				
	ITU2	.866	***				
	ITU4	.848	***				
Perceived ease of use	PEOU3	.942		0.961	0.961	0.862	0.521
	PEOU4	.926	***				
	PEOU1	.898	***				
	PEOU2	.947	***				
Perceived usefulness	PU2	.917		0.922	0.925	0.803	0.521
	PU1	.905	***				
	PU3	.866	***				
Perceived security	PS2	.885		0.861	0.863	0.679	0.134
	PS1	.816	***				
	PS3	.768	***				
Subjective norms	SN3	.797		0.832	0.833	0.625	0.248
	SN1	.825	***				
	SN2	.748	***				
Perceived compatibility	PC2	.822		0.847	0.849	0.653	0.507
	PC3	.745	***				
	PC1	.853	***				

Next, to assess the model's discriminant validity, this study compared the square root of AVE value with the between-construct correlation coefficients. As Table 10 demonstrates, the square root of AVE of all values was greater than the correlation coefficients between any two constructs. Also, the results that AVE values surpassed the maximum shared variance (MSV) also give support to the discriminant validity of this study's measurement model.

Table 10: Square root of the AVE and construct correlations

	Intention to use	Perceived ease of use	Perceived usefulness	Perceived security	Subjective norms	Perceived compatibility
Intention to use	**0.896**					
Perceived ease of use	0.406***	**0.928**				
Perceived usefulness	0.438***	0.722***	**0.896**			
Perceived security	0.192*	0.354***	0.294**	**0.824**		
Subjective norms	0.347***	0.498***	0.394***	0.366***	**0.791**	
Perceived compatibility	0.712***	0.512***	0.464***	0.344***	0.449***	**0.808**

5 DISCUSSION AND HYPOTHESIS TESTING

To test the hypotheses of the conceptual model, this study adopted Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) with maximum likelihood estimation. After reorganising the CFA model to form the structural model containing nine hypotheses, the research team first assessed the fit measures of this model. Using the similar set of indices, this study concluded that the structural model demonstrated an acceptable fit, with the results adequately meeting the suggested cut-off (Hair et al. 2010; Hu and Bentler 1999; Baumgartner and Homburg 1995): $\chi 2/df = 1.524$, GFI = 0.868, CFI = 0.968, TLI = 0.961 and RMSEA= 0.059. The hypotheses testing results are displayed in Table 11. Out of nine proposed hypotheses, five hypotheses were supported, namely H1, H2, H6, H8 and H9, and other hypotheses were rejected.

Table 11: Hypotheses testing results

Hypotheses		Standardised Coefficient	P	Result
H1	Usefulness => Intention	.198	.044	Support
H2	Ease of use => Usefulness	.668	***	Support
H3	Ease of use => Intention	-.010	.916	Not Support
H4	Security => Intention	-.093	.237	Not Support
H5	Security => Usefulness	.045	.539	Not Support
H6	Security => Ease of use	.200	.019	Support
H7	Subjective norms => Usefulness	.054	.517	Not Support
H8	Subjective norms => Ease of use	.442	***	Support
H9	Compatibility => Intention	.679	***	Support

H1: Perceived usefulness has a positive impact on consumer's intention to use CMP in restaurants

The results for H1 from calculation of the structural model recorded $\beta = 0.198$ and p-value = 0.044 (<0.05). Therefore, H1 is supported, and it could be concluded that the more consumers consider CMP as useful and beneficial, the more likely and frequently they will use it. Consistent with previous literature (i.e. Morosan and DeFranco, 2016; Tan et al., 2014), this study emphasises the relevance of perceived usefulness in influencing customers' intention to adopt the system, implying that to improve consumers' acceptance and behavioural intentions towards CMP, the functional aspect of the system should be enhanced, and that appropriate marketing strategies are needed to raise consumers' understanding of CMP.

H2: Perceived ease of use has a positive impact on perceived usefulness of CMP in restaurants

H3: Perceived ease of use has a positive impact on consumers' intention to use CMP in restaurants

From the calculated results of two hypotheses related to perceived ease of use, it could be seen that H2 ($\beta = 0.668$, p-value = 0.000) was supported, while H3 ($\beta = -0.010$, p-value = 0.916) was rejected. Therefore, it could be concluded that perceived ease of use has a positive and significant impact on Vietnamese customers' perceived usefulness, but no significant effect on their intention to use CMP in restaurants. These findings mean that, although consumers recognise the new payment form to be simple and easy to use, it is not guaranteed that they will use CMP as their payment method; however, they are likely to consider it as useful to them compared to other systems that are more difficult to adopt. As such, the result of insignificant relationship between perceived ease of use and the intention to use is aligned with the studies of Pham and Ho (2015) and Liébana-Cabanillas et al. (2017). In addition to the increasing popularity of mobile and digital payments, this finding might be explained by this study's participants being younger Vietnamese who are technologically savvy, knowledgeable about and well-experienced with mobile devices, and, consequently, whose perception of ease of use is not a key factor in determining their behavioural intentions towards CMP. On the other hand, the finding of the significant effect of perceived ease of use to perceived usefulness is aligned with the existing literature (i.e., Chen and Chen 2011; Liébana-Cabanillas et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2010), confirming that customers' perception of CMP ease of use is an important predictor for usefulness in restaurant services.

H4: Perceived security has a positive impact on the intention to use CMP in restaurants

H5: Perceived security has a positive impact on perceived usefulness of CMP in restaurants

H6: Perceived security has a positive impact on perceived ease of use of CMP in restaurants

The results for three hypotheses related to perceived security were mixed, with H6 ($\beta = 0.200$ and p-value = 0.019) being supported, while H4 ($\beta = -0.093$, p-value = 0.237) and hypothesis 5 ($\beta = 0.045$, p-value = 0.539) being rejected. Surprisingly, these findings are, to some extent, in contrast with previous studies from Shin (2009) and Oliveira et al. (2016), suggesting that restaurant consumers in Vietnam are unaware of possible threats in digital payment systems. Some explanations for this include (1) the information security infrastructure in Vietnam is still under-developed; (2) Vietnamese customers have not been well-educated about security concerns in information technology and rarely experience or acknowledge those situations; and (3) current users might expect that banks would be in charge of addressing any issues regarding digital payments. With that being said, this construct is still valuable and worth considering in information technology research, as its effect on perceived ease of use was confirmed, supporting its importance as established by various scholars (i.e., Kim et al., 2010; Oliveira et al., 2016; Shin, 2009). The Vietnamese market is increasingly mature, and it should be expected that perceived security will gain more attention over time.

H7: Subjective norms have a positive impact on perceived usefulness of CMP in restaurants

H8: Subjective norms have a positive impact on perceived ease of use of CMP in restaurants

The results for two hypotheses related to subjective norms were also mixed, with H7 ($\beta = 0.054$, p-value = 0.517) being rejected and H8 ($\beta = 0.442$, p-value = 0.000) being supported, indicating that subjective norms would enable Vietnamese customers to perceive CMP as easy and simple to use, but not ensure whether they consider the new payment system as useful or not. To be more specific, there was no direct and significant impact of subjective norms on perceived usefulness, a finding which disagrees with Willis (2008) and Liébana-Cabanillas et al. (2017). This might, again, be explained by this study's youthful sample population, as Generation Z and Millennials are highly determined and have the tendency to make their decisions independently. The high educational attainment of these participants also indicates that they are capable of evaluating the usefulness of CMP by themselves, unaffected by peer opinions.

Meanwhile, that subjective norms demonstrated a positive and significant impact on perceived ease of use is aligned with the findings of Yang et al. (2012) and Ramos de Luna et al. (2016). Mao et al. (2005) pointed out that perceived ease of use was more important than perceived usefulness in non-Western countries. Still, considering this mixed result, it would require more in-depth research on the Vietnamese CMP market to confirm the impact of subjective norms on others.

H9: Perceived compatibility has a positive impact on consumers' intention to use CMP in restaurants.

H9 recorded its $\beta = 0.679$ and p-value = 0.000, indicating that perceived compatibility had the most significant and positive impact on Vietnamese consumers' intention to use CMP in restaurant services. In other words, the more Vietnamese consumers regard CMP as compatible and matched with their lifestyle, belief and experiences, the more favourable is their intention to use the technology in restaurants. This finding provides support to the studies of Schierz et al. (2010) and Pham and Ho (2015) in recognising the greatest impacts of perceived compatibility to the intention to use compared to that of other constructs, and, in turn, reminds restaurant operators and other industry players to emphasise this factor in CMP deployment.

6 CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study are aligned with the existing CMP research in the context of consumer behaviour literature and reveals that the Vietnamese customers' recent perception has been favourable towards the use of CMP in the restaurant sector. No difference was identified between users with diverse demographic characteristics in their intention to adopt this payment technology. In other words, the Vietnamese consumers generally accept the CMP application in restaurants. The results demonstrate the significance of customers' perceived compatibility and their perception of usefulness on the intention to use CMP in restaurants, while preserving indirect importance of other factors, namely, perceived ease of use, subjective norms and perceived security. From that basis, different implications are provided below.

This study contributes to the area of consumer behaviour in conjunction with the use of information technology in the service industries context. The study provides insights into how customer acceptance of contactless payment is shaped by different factors, and it is the first of its kind in the Vietnamese restaurant industry. The results demonstrate the significance of customers' perceived compatibility and their perception of usefulness on the intention to use CMP in restaurants, while preserving indirect importance of other factors, namely perceived ease of use, subjective norms and perceived security.

The managerial implications of this study highlight a number of benefits for both consumers and businesses, such as efficiency, speed, and improved customer service; on the other hand, the potential of fraud poses a serious threat for both sides. It is essential for business owners, service operators and other players in the restaurant industry to distribute scarce resources and invest in available touchpoints to appropriately integrate one of the fastest emerging technology systems, the CMP, into their existing infrastructure. This study highlights the strong impact of the compatibility construct on shaping customer intention to use CMP as their payment method. Restaurant marketers and CMP providers should conduct applied market research to understand their target customer segment, their core values, habits and beliefs, and, in turn, design appropriate promotion and marketing strategies that match their preferences. As modern consumers are becoming busier with a dynamic lifestyle, the system should be marketed as a lifestyle product, with focus on its advantage of being able to help consumers to complete tasks with minimum time spent. In addition, based on the fact that young consumer groups such as Millennials and Generation Z are among the earliest and most enthusiastic CMP users, marketing promotion campaigns should portray it as a flexible, unique, trendy and frequently used payment method. These consumers should also be encouraged to interact and share their experiences and understanding of using CMP through social media channels, for commercial operators to utilise the network effect.

The limited sample size, due to time and resources restrictions, is recognised as the key limitation of this study. Future studies should be conducted with a broader methodology in mind (i.e mixed methods) applied in different sectors of the Vietnamese service industry, such as hospitality, transportation, banking, retail, etc. In addition, comparative studies between different countries would also contribute to our understanding of consumer preferences in different sociocultural contexts.

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SUBMITTED: OCT 2021
REVISION SUBMITTED: JAN 2022
ACCEPTED: MAR 2022
REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

PUBLISHED ONLINE: 30 MAY 2022

Second homes: A bibliometric analysis and systematic literature review

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Abstract:

Purpose: *Despite second homes having been extensively studied in the tourism area during the last two decades, there is a lack of updated review. This work presents a systematic literature review and a revision of the main issues studied.*
Methods: *The document begins with a discussion about different concepts and definitions. It highlights the lack of an internationally accepted definition of second home tourism and proposed one. Then, our literature review in second homes shows the growth of publications, country specification, the affiliation of lead authors and the leading serial source titles. The review is based on a comprehensive search in Scopus through keywords. Additionally, the main topics and issues related to second homes are summarised.*
Results: *Results show that the number of publications has grown almost steadily, with a maximum in 2018. American, Nordics and South African authors dominate second homes research. Publications have been shifted from Tourism Geographies journals to Tourism journals showing a greater specification in the area.*
Implications: *Finally, based on our review on topics, we conclude that there is still more to study, most of all in the field of theoretical work, the analysis of economic, environmental, and social impacts and the role of unexpected events, such as Covid 19, that has changed the use of second homes.*

Keywords: *Literature review, Second homes tourism, Second homes impacts, Bibliometric Analysis*

JEL Classification: *Z00, Z11, Z32*

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1 INTRODUCTION

The interest in second homes on tourism, growth and local development has been increasing during the last decades. Second homes are related to mobility, housing and circulation. The number of second homes has increased and the academic interest in this topic too, which mainly has its origins in the Nordic countries and Canada (Hall & Müller, 2018). Tourism is a cultural, political and economic force that moves people in time and space, shaping society and the environment at local and global levels (Edelheim & Ilola, 2017). Both terms, second homes and tourism, have been analysed by their effects in the destination, such as the increase in the number of visitors and the generation of new development opportunities due to the migration of retired and active people who seek a new place and way of life.
Although several studies have been developed internationally on second homes, the topic is still new and many questions remain without answered regarding the effect of second homes on tourist areas development. Questions and inconclusive issues in the field are growing as we observe new effects of second homes in other aspects such as cultural, economic, social, fiscal, institutional, environmental, governance, landscape, production system, planning and long-term effects. A bibliometric analysis is developed to

ISSN: 2529-1947. UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6581499
Published online: 30 May 2022
www.jthsm.gr

contribute to the knowledge of the state of second residencies as a research topic, identifying authors, universities, their relationships and trends. So, this study is motivated by the necessity of a systematic and updated review in order to understand the state of the art in second home research. We hope the work can help us and other researchers to organise and outline future investigations in second homes.

Coppock's research was the first second homes review, published in 1977. In the early literature, a common factor was the negative effect of second homes in rural environments. In the 1990s, interest in research on the subject resurfaced, led by Nordic researchers who highlighted the benefits of second-home tourism for rural economies and communities.

The number of publications has increased since 2004 (Hall, 2014), with geographic expansion with countries such as China, Iran, Latin America, Malaysia, South Africa. Müller (2021), found four clusters of second homes research, the first and major is made up of Nordic countries (with the exception of Denmark), New Zealand, and South Africa, the second one by Spain, France, Italy and Denmark, the third by North America, and the last one by the United Kingdom and Australia.

While early and Nordic studies often referred to cottage-type accommodation in a rural context, recent studies tend to contextualise second houses within the tourism industry in relation to urban areas, including the idea of residential tourism, addressing urbanised forms of second homes tourism (Hall & Müller, 2018). Location and other aspects, such as motivations of tourists and impacts of second houses, make it extremely hard to generalise and to give a unique definition of second home.

The aim and contribution of the study is to update the latest available international review Hall (2014) on second homes tourism. This allows us to know the growth of second homes publications from 1974 to 2020, considering countries of authors, leading journals, and number of publications. Finally, the paper analyses the main issues that have been studied on second homes and their impacts, taking into account the fact that the Covid 19 pandemic has impacted on the use of this type of accommodation and its role in the development of tourist destinations.

The following section introduces a brief discussion about possible definitions of second homes. Authors used to define second homes based on the scope of these studies and the absence of a unique meaning is remarkable. Then, we analyse the growth of the number of publications in second home research, updating the Hall (2014) investigation, and showing the country specification, the affiliation of lead author and leading serial source titles.

This review is based on a comprehensive search in Scopus through keywords. The main topics and issues related to second homes are also summarised, with a revision about in which countries certain issues are more explored. Finally, conclusions are introduced with the aim of enriching the debate without closing it.

2 SECOND HOMES, SECOND HOMES TOURISM AND RESIDENTIAL TOURISM DEFINITIONS

There is no internationally accepted definition of a second home and the term acts as an umbrella expression for a variety of terms (Hall, 2014). There are different terms to refer to second homes such as "second homes", "alternate home", "recreational home", "holiday homes", "vacation homes", "summer home", "summer house", "cottage" and mobile homes, Back & Marjavaara (2017) and Zogal (2020) referred to second homes as recreational homes, holiday/vacation homes, summer homes, cottages or weekend homes used for a limited time period and for recreational purposes. Yan (2018) defines second homes as certain types of property which homeowners use as an alternative destination away from their primary homes, primarily used for holiday and leisure purposes.

Tran & Weaver (2019) argued that "defining home has become a complex matter in a mobile world, with many people now able to move fairly freely and having a number of options with respect to where they can reside, the conventional concept of home that links it to one particular place is no longer as useful". Pontes et al. (2020) defines second homes as a property which homeowners use as an alternative destination away from their primary homes, mostly used for holiday or weekends and leisure purposes. Some authors think that it is necessary to follow the terminologies and definitions and several of them argue for viewing it as a comprehensive concept for different terms. In addition, differences in available data make this kind of concept necessary (Back & Marjavaara, 2017; Hall, 2014; Hall & Müller, 2018; Müller, 2002, Müller, 2004; Schegg & Stangl, 2017). Otherwise, second homes are often analysed as a unique category and it makes it difficult to understand the heterogeneity within second homes definition and their impacts in a tourism destination. Therefore, the lack of an internationally accepted definition of second homes has its correlation in the difficulty of measuring and having internationally comparable statistics.

Due to different aspects of the subject, researchers have created additional terms such as lifestyle mobility, hetero-local lifestyle, multi-local living, multiple dwelling and residential tourism. In the earlier studies, researchers have discussed about what physical forms of property would be considered as second homes (Hall, 2014; Yang, 2018). For instance, Hall & Müller (2004) classified second homes according to the mobility, structure, and architectural forms in the following categories: Houses and apartments, Camping, Boats and Recreational Vehicles and Non-mobile, semi-mobile and mobile ones.

This category is focused on physical aspects of second homes tourism. Nevertheless, recently works have recognized second homes with focus on its usage rather than its physical form. Other authors take an anthropologist approach studying the reason why visitors travel to seek a 'home away from home'. Also, the term second should be analysed because second homes owners often own multiple properties, so the notion of 'second' might lead to misunderstandings of the topic. The nature of home is changing and an identification based on the physical form could not be accurate. Second homes from the usage of the property can be better, even when it is not easy to distinguish second homes from primary ones as the usage of property is entirely up to the home owners (Yang, 2018). Furthermore, a second home could be classified considering the frequency of usage as a function of distance to the user's primary home and the condition of whether it was converted or a purpose-built second home. Second homes used during the weekends are near the principal residence and holiday homes are far from them (Back & Marjavaara, 2017). Using these categories, authors classified second homes in four groups: a) converted weekend; b) converted holiday; c) purpose-built weekend and c) purpose- built vacation.

On the other hand, the concept of residential tourism is which was defined in the 1970s in Spain, and is considered as "the economic activity dedicated to the development, construction and sale of dwellings that make up the extra-hotel sector, whose users use them as accommodation for summer holidays or permanent or semi-permanent residence, away from their usual places of residence" (Mazón & Aledo, 2005 page 10). The most recent definition is "residential tourism can be understood as the set of social practices that revolve around the social production of second homes, production of infrastructures, services and nearby spaces, and whose use is mostly linked to the sphere of leisure and not to reproduction and production" (Aledo, 2016 page 41). Pontes et al. (2020) argued that in spite of disagreements about the residential tourism concept, real estate production is associated with tourism expansion and the main objective of residential tourism is to buy land, build residences and sell them.

Hence, there are different concepts and classifications of second homes, second homes tourism, and residential tourism, among government, industry and the research community. It is important to consider that while second homes tourism is defined by the demand side; residential tourism is defined by the supply side. It is also relevant, to take into account this difference in definitions, when making economic policy on tourism, as promoting second homes tourism will not have the same implications as promoting residential tourism.

In conclusion, we remark the need for an academic discussion on the second homes definition. Different concepts are used and this fact makes it difficult to produce internationally comparable statistics, and therefore limits research on this topic.

Based on the review we carried out, we propose to take as a definition of the second residence the following: a property which homeowners use as an alternative destination away from their primary homes, mostly used for leisure purposes, or/and tourist accommodation rental purposes. The dwellings can be classified into the following categories: Non mobile, purpose built or convert; semi mobile and mobile.

This definition involves the particularities of the evolving phenomena, due to evident difference in the understanding between second homes tourism and residential tourism.

3 THE GROWTH OF SECOND HOMES RESEARCH

This paper studies the growth of second homes publications, considering countries of authors, leading journals, and number of publications and finally examined the major themes in second homes research.

In this section we update Hall (2014), thus we obtain the number of publications from 1974 to 2020 in the Scopus database, searching by the following words: "second homes," "holiday home," "vacation home," "summer house," or "summer cottage" in publication title, abstract or keyword. As pointed above, the data to perform the analysis were obtained from the Scopus database. Scopus is one of the most important databases in scientific literature, based on peer-reviewed literature. Both, the search words and the source of information, were the same as those used by Hall (2014), which allows us to analyse the results comparatively.

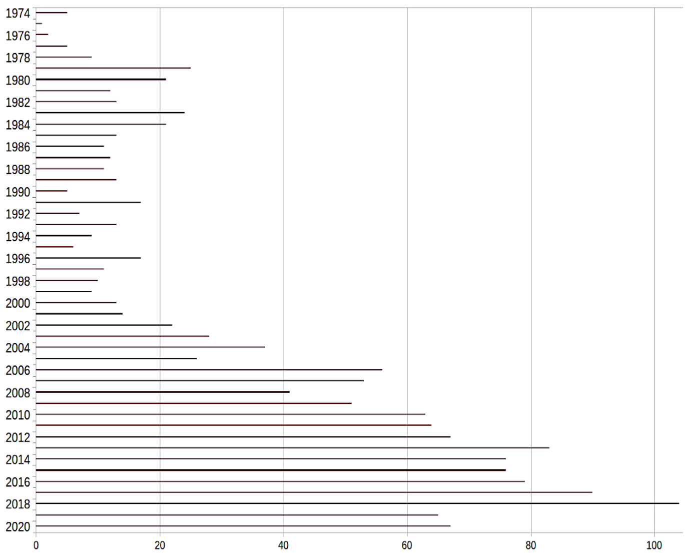
As was pointed out by (Donyhu et al, 2021), bibliometric analysis is a common and severe method for analyzing a large quantity of academic studies. In our case, it enables us to unpack the evolutionary nuances of the academic research in second homes, allowing us to explore the emerging areas in this topic.

Figure 1: Word cloud with the most used words related with second home

Scopus currently has in its records approximately 80 million articles, more than 27,000 scientific journals, more than 1,500 books and more than 700 conference proceedings in different disciplines. At the same time, it provides reliable and consistent metadata, with relevant information about the publications, as well as about the authors and references of the articles. To justify the choice of Scopus, (Ahmad et al., 2020) proposes some advantages of using Scopus compared to other databases. In particular, the authors state that Scopus has a very wide coverage of academic journals, thus the coverage of citations is also very wide. On the other hand, it is important to consider that Scopus database discriminates against other languages than English and against many scientific sources, so the number of publications could be higher. Also, one of the disadvantages of bibliometric approaches is the inclusion of a lot of literature that mentions the term second home, but does not actually deal with second home tourism, but with other aspects of destination development.

As it is shown in Figure 2, second homes publications continued the increasing trend found by Hall (2014) until 2013. From 2014 to 2018 the growth has been steady, peaking in the last year. In 2019 there was a decrease, with a slight year-on-year increase in 2020. It means that interest and research in second homes has been growing. But it must be considered that this growth accompanies the overall growth of the academic literature on tourism and the scientific literature in general. The lower number of publications observed before 2004 may also be due to the fact that articles were not always published in scientific journals or in English and not only due to a limited interest in the topic (Hall & Müller, 2018).

Figure 2: Scopus search for second homes and synonyms in Title, Abstract and Keywords (1974-2020)



Source: own elaboration based on Scopus and Hall (2014).

Furthermore, we analyse the country of the lead author with two or more publications.

Table 1: Country of Lead Author in Scopus Second Homer Search 1974-2020 (greater than or equal to 2)

Country	No. of Publications
United States	280
United Kingdom	136
Sweden	90
Finland	90
Spain	83
Canada	81
Norway	78
France	59
Germany	44
South Africa	41

Source: own elaboration based on Scopus and Hall (2014).

Table 1 shows that the first place is still held by the United States and second place by the United Kingdom; Sweden moves from 6th to 3rd place, whereas Finland, Spain and Canada remain in 4th, 5th and 6th place and Norway moves from 3rd to 7th place

Table 2: Affiliation of Lead Author in Scopus second homes Search 1974–2020 (greater than or equal to 3 Publications)

Umeå Universitet	Sweden	54
Itä-Suomen yliopisto	Finland	27
University of Canterbury	New Zeland	19
Norges Teknisk-Naturvitenskapelige Universitet	Norway	18
Universitat d'Alacant	Spain	16
University of the Free State	South Africa	14
University of Otago	New Zealand	14
Oulun Yliopisto	Finland	13
University of Witwatersrand	South Africa	13
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona	Spain	13
Finnish Environment Institute	Finland	13
Natural Resources Institute Finland Luke	Finland	12
University College London	United Kingdom	12
University of Johannesburg	South Africa	11
Charles University	Czech Republic	11

Source: own elaboration based on Scopus and Hall (2014)

As in Hall (2014), we found that American authors and European, especially Nordic ones and South Africa dominate second homes research. A cluster analysis showed Nordic (without Finland) second homes research in the centre, a Finnish cluster and a Mediterranean cluster.

Nordic community dominates second homes cited articles with European and South African researchers (Hall & Müller, 2018). An interpretation of why the Scandinavian countries are pioneers in this subject is probably because second homes tourism is very important. However, Spain and the Mediterranean cities started to analyse second homes effects. Also, it would seem that the phenomenon in the Scandinavian countries is essentially national, while in the Mediterranean is international.

In comparison with Hall (2014), the institution of lead author in the Scopus second homes publication search shows that Umeå Universitet - Sweden remains in first place, while Itä-Suomen yliopisto –Finland moves from sixth to second place. University of Canterbury - New Zealand is in third place, while it does not appear in Hall's work. The same goes for Finnish Environment Institute, Natural Resources Institute - Finland and University of Johannesburg in South Africa. The fact that two institutions study of environmental issues marks that this topic has gained relevance in recent years, which is confirmed by (Müller, 2021) and can be appreciated in the results shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Leading Serial Source Title in Scopus second homes Search 1974–2020 (greater than or equal to 3 Citations)

Scandinavian Journal Of Hospitality And Tourism	27
Tourism Geographies	17
Current Issues In Tourism	15
Revue De Géographie Alpine	13
Journal Of Wildlife Management	13
Norsk Geografisk Tidsskrift	12
Journal Of Rural Studies	11
Tourism Management	10
Tijdschrift Voor Economische En Sociale Geografie	10
Tourism	9

Source: own elaboration based on Scopus and Hall (2014)

Finally, we analyse the Leading Serial Source Title and compare the results found by Hall's. We do this in order to find out if new journals have been incorporated in the publication of research on second homes and to be able to compare the results with those obtained by Hall (2014). While in Hall's work the first place is for Tourism Geographies, followed by Norsk Geografisk Tidsskrift and Scandinavian Journal Of Hospitality And Tourism, our results show in the top of the references Scandinavian Journal Of Hospitality And Tourism, followed by Tourism Geographies and Current Issues In Tourism. .

4 THEMES AND ISSUES IN SECOND HOMES RESEARCH

The following are the main themes analysed by the academic literature on second homes in recent years. This includes both articles citing Hall (2014) and complementary literature that we have considered on the study of second homes. Looking at a sub-sample, consisting of the articles mentioned above, we find that certain countries are more interested in certain topics, for example Russia in urban planning and landscape, New Zealand in definitions of home and the relationship between second homes and Brexit, Turkey in second homes and COVID 19, second homes and quality of life, and motivations, Poland in second homes and protected areas and development, Iceland on tourist perceptions, Spain on regional development and second homes, urban planning and landscape South America on urban planning and social impacts, China on housing market, Switzerland on regional development and second homes, Finland on key concepts in tourism research and second homes and population redistribution, UK on climate exchange, Australia on sharing economy housing, Romania on socio-cultural impact and Sweden on geography.

4.1 Motivations

The driving factors that motivate people to buy second homes are diverse, such as wanting to be in a natural environment, looking for an authentic lifestyle, rest by the sea/lake far from stress, and tension. Other factors can be related to culture and family traditions. On the other hand, second homes have other users not only their own: many visitors rent this type of accommodation, so the demand for second homes has increased for speculation processes, not only for holiday purposes, lifestyle and retirement migration (Cengizci et al., 2020; Zoğal et al., 2020).

4.2 Planning and Policy Issues

Invisible population of second-home owners generates an impact that is necessary to take into account from a planning perspective (Back & Marjavaara, 2017). Some examples are the Swiss Alps, where more than 50% of residences are second homes. In the area took place the popular initiative of “Stop the endless construction of second homes” to limit the share of second homes in a municipality (Gerber & Tanner, 2018). In the Nature Reserve “Deliblato Sands”, Serbia, the unplanned construction of weekend homes generated problems, showing that spatial reconstructions and protection concepts should be considered (Vesić, 2017). Overcrowding tourist destinations in Iceland is another example about how the development of infrastructure and services need to be better managed (Sæþórsdóttir et al., 2019). The diverse natural area occupied with second homes in Poland illustrates the needed of a complete planning process (Soszyński et al., 2017). In San Carlos de Bariloche, Argentina, some characteristics of this tourist city were identified and could inspire the construction of an urban model for Latin American tourist cities (Medina & Niembro, 2020). In Europe, second homes tourism has been in discussion by tourist experts, real estate agents and politicians in both Mediterranean countries and Alpine destinations, where policy measures on land use, coordination at multi-level governance and cross-sectorial interrelations are necessary to have sustainable development (Brida et al., 2009). In Turkey during the 2000s, legal obstacles for foreign investment were eradicated raising the demand for second homes. The criteria for the locational choices of construction were studied ranking them according to their importance. (Öztürk, C. Ü., & Türk, E., 2021). Finally, the impacts on local housing markets and the management efforts by local planning authorities depend on context when it comes to growth, housing demand and effects for locals' access to housing (Back, 2021).

4.3 Housing and Building Impacts

Considering the building and housing effect, some literature found second homes with high financial margins are creating problems of inequality, limiting access to housing for locals, and generating different real estate markets. On the other hand, the settlement system in Finland was transformed; the average population has been concentrating while the seasonal population has been dispersed due to the growing number of second homes (Adamiak et al., 2017). In the Bory Tucholskie area, Poland, expansion of second homes contributes to the creation of a disorganised, discontinuous and increasingly dispersed pattern in the vicinity of natural areas (Adamiak, 2016). Second homes in Mediterranean cities consider natural, cultural attractions, and built environment as important factors for location selection (Ghabouli-Mankalpa, 2018; Schegg & Stangl, 2017).

China is a very different ownership society, where many homeowners do not live in their houses but live in rental ones, explained by temporal, spatial and functional mismatches between housing needs. Institutional barriers in the housing market, housing purchase limit policy, and subsidised housing encourage owner-renting, are additional items to be considered (Huang et al., 2020). In Colombia, the cultural landscape of Sierra Nevada in Santa Marta was studied evaluating tourism effects and reflecting the opportunities and decisions made by local actors regarding productive activities and available sources of income. The control exercised by governmental entities in the purchase of land, was studied from the point of view of the local inhabitants (Rodríguez García, s. f.).

4.4 Community and social dimensions

Second homes have diverse socio-cultural effects on destinations, impact on the local community can be analysed from a spatial perspective and the evidence suggests that the socio-cultural impacts of second homes tourism are significantly influenced by the spatial context (Babeş & Ciupe, 2019). Urban research in Latin America has incorporated the subjectivity and intersubjectivity to understand how some aspects, such as imaginaries have promoted a process of urbanisation without a city extending urban life along the coastline of the V Region of Valparaíso in Chile (Hiernaux et al., 2015).

Back & Marjavaara (2017) argue that there are differences within the category of second homes, and these differences can be analysed from a geographical point of view. Besides, it allows us to answer an important question of where impacts of second-home tourism might happen. Such as, public services demand, new local businesses opportunities, or in what places are second homes owners likely to be frequent or infrequent visitors. They consider that it is easier to resolve such questions connecting the invisible population with second-home landscapes.

In some places, second homes owners can be considered a threat, such as the case of Russian owners in Savonlinna, Eastern Finland. A study examined the attitudes of permanent and second homes residents and found that local residents and the Finnish second homes owners were on average of the same negative opinion. Nevertheless, a closer examination shows three separate groups: the first group mentioned the effect in raising property prices, the second perceived Russian second homes owners as an opportunity for the area and for the third group the perceptions were of threats and nothing positive (Honkanen et al., 2016) .

A qualitative study explored the social connections of international second homes owners in the city of Merida, Mexico placing emphasis on the concept of social capital. Three main themes emerged during the data analysis: 1. connecting with others, encountering challenges related to communication in Spanish; 2. cultural differences, and tensions among groups of foreigners hindered social interactions and 3. Creation of social ties and accumulating social capital in a collective sense (Aguilar Mendez, 2017).

Another study in Alanya, Turkey, about the perception of quality of life of residential tourists, shows that demographic factors, years of living in Alanya and nationality are important. Proficiency level in Turkish Language, type of accommodation and interaction with both locals and other foreigners are also relevant. In addition, the level of happiness of living in Alanya lowers to a neutral view when residential tourists stay more than ten years (Özyurt et al., 2018).

About rural tourism and the opportunities to improve the process of rural abandonment, a study was carried out in two depopulated villages in Serbia, Gostuša (Pirot) and Poganovo (Dimitrovgrad). The authors identified the perspective and perception of residents in rural areas with respect to second homes tourism development and assessing rural capital. The conclusion points that is not realistic to expect fast and sustainable tourism development (Terzić et al., 2020). Two similar studies were carried out in Iran, one in Alamut rural areas, Central Alborz (Kheyroddin, R. et al 2021) and the other in Rudbar-e Qasran District of Shemiranat Township (Najafikani, A., & Isanejad, N. 2022).

Kauppila (2020) shows that second homes promote the local community's social life. Besides, homeowners are part-time residents and are potential future migrants. In many Finnish municipalities new leisure residents affect the quality of public services and access to public services.

In Croatia, second homes development is associated with increased dynamism of the local economy, particularly with higher local budget income per capita and positively connected to the local educational structure and the population index change (Miletić et al., 2018).

4.5 Environmental dimensions

The impact of second homes on the environment has also been extensively studied (Hall & Müller, 2018). In Finland, a survey showed that local residents think that second homes tourism poses a harmful environmental impact and second homes owners are not so worried about these environmental impacts (Hiltunen et al., 2016).

A study about consumer behaviors and the accommodation supply in relation to sustainability, show that there is a dearth of longitudinal studies, limitations in geographical coverage and methods, and it represents a challenge to reducing emissions, energy and water use and waste production (Hall et al., 2016; Gill et al., 2010).

Another study showed that owners of second homes produce more CO_2 by their leisure mobility than non-owners, so this accommodation does not seem to be a substitute for high emission long travels (Adamiak et al., 2016). Coles (2020) show that in the United Kingdom where much of tourism activity takes place in coastal and natural areas little is known about the impacts of climate change on environment Three knowledge gaps were identified visitor preferences, vulnerability of coastal destinations, and the magnitude and timing of climate change impacts.

4.6 Economic impacts

Muller, 2020 says “economic aspects of second-home tourism have not been properly scrutinised for quite a while, and the impact of second-home tourism on property markets and national economies are poorly understood. Similar claims can be made regarding the nexus of demographic development and second homes. Big data covering second-home owner’s mobilities, expenses, and experiences further opens up for new, exciting research opportunities. Furthermore, commercial uses of second homes and new forms of second-home tourism, such as home exchange, have not been sufficiently addressed”.

Second homes are often considered as a significant contributor to local economies. However, they also generate negative impacts in different aspects, such as restrictions on the availability of the housing stock and in the price of houses (Adamiak et al., 2015).

The economic impact of holiday tourism with residential tourism has been compared in Spain. The research found that there is no difference among both tourism models contradicting the assumptions of holiday destinations performing economically better than residential ones (Perles Ribes et al., 2018). Other research in Turkey has shown that buying property could be considered as a result of satisfaction of visitors staying in the country. And that the most significant economic impacts of residential tourism on the destination are buying or renting property, spending on renovation and maintenance and paying taxes (Özyurt et al., 2018). In Sweden, there has been developed geographical mapping of second homes and some authors suggest that it would be very interesting to study socio-economic differences between second homes owners using second-home landscapes. They also suggest different questions: does income inequality transfer over to the second home's landscapes? And how does this affect the destinations for second homes tourism? (Back & Marjavaara, 2017). Kauppila (2020) studied the regional economic impact of tourism leisure activities in Hyrynsalmo, Kuhmo, Sotkamo and Suomussalmi, Finland. Defining regional economic outputs as: - direct tourism income, - intermediate tourism income and expenditure, - direct tourism employment, - direct wage income and direct wage tax income. Results showed that with the exception of property management and maintenance, leisure accommodation provides few opportunities for new business activities. Instead, leisure residents used long term services, which in turn strengthens local industries and sustains the local economy, generating cash flows to local businesses, employment and tax revenues. (Czarnecki, A. et al 2021) studied the economic impact of second-home owners’ consumption of local food in the Nordic countries. They showed that the availability and accessibility of local food, as well as the activities of second-home owners shape their consumption patterns.

Another study in Spain, estimated a hedonic prices model that was applied to apartments for rent in the coastline. The results confirm the relevance of the determinants, such as tourism competitiveness and online reputation, as future drivers of prices (Perles Ribes et al., 2018). In Croatia, second homes development and local socio-economic development relation, was studied by a linear regression analysis. The findings suggest that density of second homes is positively associated with several local socio-economic development indicators and with local economy dynamism. (Miletić et al., 2018). A study in Switzerland, about the dynamics of the formation and the evolution of property prices in the Alps destinations, showed that foreign customers and the increase in prices are linked. As a result, the local people segment is obliged to move assets in order to find a primary house (Scaglione, 2008).

On the other hand, some papers study the economic impact of second homes with a theoretical approach. For instance, Brida & Boffa (2010) analysed the decision problem of constructing second homes or hotels, introducing a two period game with two players representing a developer of buildings in a tourism destination D and a tourist T. They showed the persistence of sub-optimal equilibria in the game, in which the land is allocated in second homes rather than hotels, conducting a socially inefficient use. Furthermore, another paper set up a theoretical model, in which the government of a tourism destination has to choose how to allocate the land between second homes or hotels. The government minimises a loss function measuring the loss of political consensus and the final decision was made by assessing the welfare consequences of the policy implications (Candela et al., 2007). Another paper studied the impact of a correct valuation of the opportunity costs in individual decisions and social welfare. Using a partial equilibrium model, the study shows that the valuation of social welfare depends on the definition of individual opportunity costs and suggests that a free market of vacation homes is the best mechanism to obtain the maximum social welfare (Brida et al., 2007).

4.7 Unexpected events impacts: earthquakes, Brexit, Share economy and Covid 19

Some unexpected events, such as natural disasters, new regulations, new business models or Covid 19 pandemic, impact significantly second homes. These issues have also been addressed by the existing literature on second homes. In 2016, a study on a relevant second homes tourist destination in central Italy suffering an earthquake, focused on the discussion about disaster management policies (Mugnano et al., 2019). Migration and second homes also was studied, especially taking into account the Brexit decision. Reactions and intentions of a sample of United Kingdom owners' second homes in Spain were analysed, revealing how these intentions have potential economic and social consequences for the economy in Spain (Sedgley et al., 2017).

New business models have an impact in the second homes market. Digital platforms operating in the sharing economy are disrupting tourism accommodation. The lack of understanding how shared economy and second homes are linked could be yet a significant knowledge gap. A qualitative study explores three Australian regions. Findings uncover share economy second-home engagement is growing with platform providers, but at the expense of local destinations management organisations, so it must be under the policy makers microscope (Keogh et al., 2020).

Finally and most importantly, COVID-19 pandemic has led to changes in the pattern of second homes use, and several studies have been carried out on this issue. Zoğal et al. (2020), based on media sources related to second homes role in Turkey, found that second homes owners migrated from crowded cities to low density areas, putting second homes at the centre of tourist activity. In Portugal people were asked not to move out of their homes and in Norway they were asked to return from their second homes to their first ones. In both cases, the future challenge will be to create conditions for people to live and work in the first or the second home. Oliveira, J. (2021). So, the role of second homes after the pandemic is expected to have effects on tourism and housing markets.

Table 4: Main contributions of the identified papers

Theme and Issues	Author	Contribution
Motivation	Cengizci et al., 2020; Zoğal et al., 2020	Factors that motivate people to buy second homes diverse, including speculation processes, holiday purpo lifestyle and retirement migration
Planning and Policy	Back & Marjavaara, 2017; Gerber & Tanner, 2018; Vesić, 2017; Sæþórsdóttir et al., 2019; Soszyński et al., 2017; Medina & Niembro, 2020; Brida et al., 2009; Back, 2021; Öztürk, C. Ü., & Türk, E. (2021).	Invisible population of second-home owners generates impact that is necessary to take into account fror planning perspective. Evidence from Swiss Alps, Ser Iceland, Poland, Mediterranean countries, Argentina sh that the unplanned construction generated problems policy measures on land use, coordination at multi-l governance and cross-sectorial interrelations necessary to have sustainable development
Housing and Building Impacts	Adamiak et al., 2017; Adamiak, 2016; Ghabouli-Mankalpa, 2018; Schegg & Stangl, 2017; Rodríguez García, s. f; Huang et al., 2020	Second homes with high financial margins are crea problems of inequality, limiting access to housing for loc and generating different real estate markets Instituti barriers in housing markets and temporal, spatial functional mismatches in housing needs are espec relevant in China.
Community and social dimensions	Babeş & Ciupe, 2019; Hiernaux et al., 2015; Back & Marjavaara (2017); Honkanen et al., 2016; Aguilar Mendez, 2017; Özyurt et al., 2018; Terzić et al., 2020; Kauppila (2020); Miletić et al., 2018, Kheyroddin, R. et al, 2021; Najafikani, A., & Isanejad, N. 2022.	Second homes have diverse socio-cultural effects destinations, which are significantly influenced by spatial context. They impact on public services dema new local businesses opportunities, or in what places second homes owners likely to be frequent or infrequ visitors. Many studies had been carried out in Finla Mexico, Turkey, Serbia and Croatia.
Environmental dimensions	Hiltunen et al., 2016; Hall et al., 2016; Gill et al., 2010; Adamiak et al., 2016; Coles (2020)	The environmental impacts of second homes had b analysed in many countries. Results showed that owne second homes produce more CO2 by their leisure mob than non-owners. In Finland, local residents think second homes tourism poses a harmful environme impact. In the United Kingdom a knowledge gap identified the magnitude and timing of climate cha impacts.
Economic impacts	Muller, 2020; Adamiak et al., 2015; Perles Ribes et al., 2018; Özyurt et al., 2018; Back & Marjavaara, 2017; Kauppila (2020); Perles Ribes et al., 2018; Miletić et al., 2018; Scaglione, 2008, Czarnecki, A. et al 2021	Economic aspects of second-home tourism have not b properly scrutinised and the impact, positive and nega of second-home tourism on property markets and nati or regional economies are poorly understood. . Some empirical studies were carried out in Spain, Cro Switzerland, However, only few of them used a theore approach to study the investment process includin second homes markets.
Unexpected events impacts: earthquakes, Brexit, Share economy and COVID 19	Mugnano et al., 2019; Sedgley et al., 2017; Keogh et al., 2020; Zoğal et al. (2020); Zenker & Kock, 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021; Vaishar & Šťastná, 2020, Oliveira, J. (2021).	Some authors have analysed unexpected events and t relation with second homes, such as, disaster managem policies, Brexit decision; New business models and di platforms in tourism accommodation and the pande effects on tourism and housing markets.

Source: own elaboration based on literature review

The demand for tourism services has changed since COVID 19 and will never be the same again. In spite of vaccines, the impacts of the pandemic on the tourism psyche could not ensure the return to the pre-COVID-19 conditions. Furthermore, with no economic growth, exacerbated by COVID-19, the tourism demand will be reduced (Zenker & Kock, 2020) The magnitude of the pandemic will reshape existing patterns of tourism demand and supply which need to be understood and researched for designing appropriate policy interventions (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). Also, rural tourism destinations had a positive impact from the pandemic, while urban destinations had a decline. This new demand behaviour has created an opportunity for the development of rural tourism, which need infrastructure, marketing and regional cooperation in order to increase the supply (Vaishar & Šťastná, 2020).

Critical reflections include the fact that interest in second homes research has been growing during the analyzed period.

However, some issues are not resolved, for example, there are not deep studies on the economic and environmental impact of second home tourism. In addition, when assessing the impact of international tourism on a destination, it is rare to include second homes. Also, the lack of data on second homes is an important limitation for the development of quality research, so it is a priority to start collecting them.
Finally, although there are still many open research topics, bibliometric analysis has revelaed that research on second home tourism has evolved rapidly in the last decade, accompanying the development of tourism general research.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Second homes and their impacts have been widely studied in the academic literature. The number of publications has been growing systematically. Our search confirms the maintenance of an increasing trend from 2014 to 2018, with annual increases in the number of publications until 2018, a decrease in 2019 and a subsequent slight year-on-year growth in 2020. The number of publications has a maximum in 2018 with 104 articles. The observation reflects the fact that interest and research in second homes have been rising. But it must be considered that this growth accompanies the overall growth of the academic literature on tourism and the scientific literature in general.
About the country of the lead author with two or more publications, the United States has the first place followed by the United Kingdom, Sweden is in the third, while Finland, Spain and Canada remain in the following places. So, American authors and Europeans, especially Nordic ones and South Africa dominate second homes research. Regarding the institution of lead authors, Umeå Universitet in Sweden remains in first place, Itä-Suomen yliopisto in Finland has the second place and University of Canterbury - New Zealand is in the third place. Lastly, considering the main journal sources, while in Hall's work the first places were for journals related to Tourism Geographies, we found these positions are occupied by tourism journals. In relation to the previous point, as was mentioned by Yang, 2018, the literature comes mainly from the United States and Europe. It is needed to promote research in developing countries, where second homes are growing and their impacts could be very different from Anglo-America research.
Another relevant aspect found in the literature review is the agreement among researchers, on the lack of an internationally accepted definition of second homes. Different concepts are used for second homes, second homes tourism and residential tourism. This fact makes it difficult to produce internationally comparable statistics, and therefore limits research on this topic. Most countries use the statistical information provided by the censuses of the National Statistical Institutes, but sometimes the classifications of dwellings and their use varies from country to country. Based on the review of the literature that we have carried out in this study, we propose to take as a definition of the second residence the following: a property which homeowners use as an alternative destination away from their primary homes, mostly used for leisure purposes, or/and tourist accommodation rental purposes. The dwellings can be classified into the following categories: Non mobile, purpose built or convert; semi mobile and mobile.
On the other hand, different aspects have been studied in relation to second homes. Issues such as the motivations for people to look for a home away from home, as well as the definition of public policy and planning in relation to land use, the impact on construction and access to housing for the local population. The impact on community and social sustainability has been studied, especially the generation of social capital and possible conflicts of interest between the community and second homes owners. The environmental dimension has also been studied, especially in recent years.
On the economic impacts of second homes, the existing literature mostly uses an empirical approach, where several countries have studied the issue by implementing different methodologies, such as econometric methods or models based on national accounting, with applications at national and local level. There are very few theoretical studies. In general, these approaches are related to the analysis of the behavior of agents using the game theory and general equilibrium frameworks. The aim of these kinds of studies is to analyse by using analytical tools the best available alternatives for the development of tourist destinations where second homes have an important role.
Literature on unexpected events and their effects on second homes destinations has taken a significant role during recent years. Natural disasters, tsunamis, earthquakes, floods, etc. can cause major complications for the owners, the homes and the destination. Legal aspects such as Brexit, which affect the mobility of people, also have an impact on this type of destination. Finally, and more recently, the covid-19 pandemic has prompted several investigations into changes in visitor habits, teleworking policies, preference for less inhabited locations, and how these have had an effect on the use of second homes.
In conclusion, from the literature review, it emerges that what is known about second homes are a complex form of tourist accommodation, with diverse effects on society, the environment, public policies, territorial planning and the economy of the destination. It is known that there are various motives leading owners to acquire a property in a given location, the effects on the local community are varied (including positive and negative consequences), and the development of second homes tourism require specific public policies. The same is true for the effects on land use, access to housing for the local population and the environmental effects caused, as second homes are often located in places where landscapes and natural environments are very important.
Investigations need to be carried out in order to show the link between second homes tourism specialisation and sustainability Thus can give adequate indications to policy-makers who have to generate development without compromising future growth.
Tourist destinations with a strong presence of second homes seem to have different economic impacts compared to resorts and hotel destinations. Second homes can mainly change the economic and social base of communities as a result of new consumer practices (Mottiar & Quinn, 2003). The results can be positive or negative. Such as, rural communities wherethe population decrease, second homes can become an important

economic contributor. A non-exhaustive list of these impacts includes:

- The local government revenue, where tourists who own second homes pay their taxes annually, but also where governments face higher costs by providing services to a larger number of homes.
- In terms of job creation, second homes require certain maintenance and property management services that are demanded throughout the year, unlike hotels, and also require certain additional services during their stay.
- Second homes also tend to generate new business opportunities for micro and small businesses, both in the sale of goods and certain associated services.
- Likewise, studies how areas with high concentrations of second homes can also become retirement centres over time, which has Long-term planning implications for housing (Hoggart & Buller, 1995). In this case, owner's characteristics could be elements with positive impacts on the local economy.

This study shows us that future research remains open on the impacts of second homes in tourist destinations. In relation to the economic impacts, is necessary to study the convenience or not of a an economic development based on second homes, analyse the characteristics of employment generated by second homes, study the tourist owner behaviour of as a consumer comparing to tourists who use other types of accommodation. In addition, analyse the social impacts generated by visitors who own second homes with prolonged stays. Also is essential to study the environmental impact of buildings and second home tourism.

Some limitations of the study include that the Scopus database discriminates against other languages than English and against many scientific sources, so the number of publications could be higher. Also, one of the disadvantages of bibliometric approaches is the inclusion of literature mentioning the term second home and not dealing actually with second home tourism, but with other aspects of destination development.

Summarising, we critically analyse the results, considering both theoretical and practical implications. The number of publications has been growing systematically, reflecting the fact that interest and research in second homes has been rising. American authors and Europeans, especially Nordic ones and South Africa dominate second homes research. So, it is needed to promote research in developing countries.

Another relevant aspect found is the lack of a second home internationally accepted definition. We propose to take the following definition: a property which homeowners use as an alternative destination away from their primary homes, mostly used for leisure purposes, or/and tourist accommodation rental purposes. The dwellings can be classified into the following categories: Non mobile, purpose built or convert; semi mobile and mobile.

On the other hand, different aspects have been studied in relation to second homes, such as motivations, public policy and planning, social impact on community, environmental dimension, and the economic impact. In the last issue, existing literature mostly uses an empirical approach, while theoretical studies are very scarce. So, it is needed to promote research from a theoretical point of view, especially considering that investment is the most volatile variable of an economy's aggregate demand. Unexpected events and their effects on second homes destinations has taken a significant role during recent years. Covid-19 pandemic has changed the use of second homes. There are various effects on the local community, so second homes tourism development requires specific public policies.

6 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Earlier versions of this article were presented at the GIDE seminar (https://fcea.udelar.edu.uy/eventos/seminarios-del-gide.html) organized by the Research Group in Economic Dynamics (GIDE) – UdelaR and at the GAET seminar (http://fcea.edu.uy/seminarios-gaet.html) organized by the Research Group in Tourism Economics and Management (GAET) – UdelaR. The authors wish to thank the participants of the GIDE and GAET seminars for providing helpful and constructive comments on earlier versions of this article. Financial support by CSIC – UdelaR.

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SUBMITTED: AUG 2021
REVISION SUBMITTED: NOV 2021
2nd REVISION SUBMITTED: JAN 2022
ACCEPTED: FEB 2022
REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

PUBLISHED ONLINE: 30 MAY 2022

Investigation of destination image mediating effect on tourists' risk assessment, behavioural intentions and satisfaction

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Abstract:

Purpose: *The purpose of the present study is to establish a model for the risk assessments of tourists and to determine whether destination image has a mediating effect in the relationship between perceived risk, behavioural intentions, and satisfaction.*
Methods: *The study has a quantitative research design in which data were collected through questionnaires. To ensure the construct validity of the proposed model, first, confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses were performed, and then the structural equation modelling technique was used. Amos 22 and SPSS 22.0 programs were used for the analysis of the data.*
Results: *As a result of research analysis, it has been found that cognitive image had a partial mediating role between the behavioural intentions and satisfaction the tourists (between perceived risk and satisfaction) whereas affective image had no mediating impact between the tourists' perceived risks, behavioural intentions, and satisfaction.*
Implications: *This study has some theoretical and practical contributions. Considering that the halal tourism literature is a very new concept, it is thought that a model proposal for the field will contribute to the deepening and development of the literature on the one hand and will provide important concrete data to hotel managers and destination policy makers on the other hand.*

Keywords: *Halal tourism, perceived risk, destination image, metacognition, Antalya*

JEL Classification: *L83, C91, M3*

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1 INTRODUCTION

Halal tourism represents a huge market with approximately 1.6 billion Muslims in 100 countries as of 2017. It is estimated that the foreign tourism expenditures of Muslim tourists increased from USD 144 billion in 2014 to USD 151 billion in 2015 and it is expected to reach USD 243 billion in 2021 with an 8.2% change (İsedak, 2017). It is also estimated that the market capacity of Muslim travelers will reach 230 million tourists by 2026, and these tourists will spend USD 180 billion on online travel purchases (Yagmur and Aksu, 2022).

Halal tourism is a new and infancy concept in the tourism sector (Küçüktopuzlu et al., 2019). The widely accepted definition of halal tourism in the literature is "any tourist action or activity that is allowed for Muslims and, therefore, can be carried out by respecting the Islamic teachings" by Battour and Ismail (2016).

© 2022 Authors. Published by International Hellenic University
ISSN: 2529-1947. UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6583467
Published online: 30 May 2022
www.jthsm.gr

The fact that halal products (goods and services) have many risks by nature causes these products to face a wide variety of risks. For instance, direct contact between halal and non-halal products is a major trouble for tourists considering this concept and thus carries a potential contamination risk that should be avoided. (Olya and Al-ansi, 2018). All these risks can have a significant impact on a Muslim tourist choosing a destination, hotel or recommending it to friends (behavioral intentions). Likewise, the image of a place, which is an important factor in mitigating or eliminating these risks, has some possible effects on behavioral intentions. The fact that the halal tourism literature is still in the development stage brings many opportunities, but also has great difficulties in terms of resources that can be benefited and compared. In this respect, on the one hand, this study presents important data in terms of filling the gap in the field by revealing the relationships between risk perception, destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intention variables, on the other hand, it has some limitations in terms of comparison. Also, identifying the perceptions and evaluations of tourists is of vital importance in terms of revealing important concrete evidence for hotel managers who offer this concept and for local policymakers. In this context, the purpose of the research is to establish a model for the risk assessments of tourists and to reveal whether destination image has a mediating effect between perceived risk, behavioural intentions and satisfaction.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.Perceived Risk

Beginning with Bauer (1960), risk perceptions have been widely studied (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012) and have been demonstrated to affect diverse aspects of people's decisions and behaviors (Yi et al., 2020). The term "perceived risk" was introduced into the marketing domain by Bauer (1967); and it emphasizes that consumer behaviour involves risks in the sense that any action of a consumer leads to unpredictable results (Chahal & Devi, 2015). Perceived risk has been broadly expanded to initially emphasize the nature and amount of risk perceived by a consumer when considering a particular decision (Yi et al., 2020), then later to refer to awareness and assessment of the uncertainty and negative consequences that arise from individuals' decision making (Chatzigeorgiou & Christou, 2016; Joo et al., 2021), and even to a consumer's adoption of innovations (Yi et al., 2020). Indeed, Matiza and Slabbert (2021) demonstrate perceived risk as a subjective construct that can be heterogeneous in influencing the tourist's decision-making and adaptive behavior.

Halal products (goods and services) inherently involve many risks. In general, the risks of halal items can be handled under the headings of psychological, health, quality, environmental, social, financial and time risks (Yağmur and Aksu, 2021). Health risks may develop depending on the place or the setting in which the hotel is located. The fact that Muslims prefer products that take halal principles into account causes consumers/tourists to prioritize this risk factor over other risk factors. This group also has a high-risk aversion tendency (Akın and Okumuş, 2021). Quality risk refers to the possibility of purchasing low quality products that do not meet the expected or declared standard. While environmental risk is defined as the possibility of contamination or deterioration in a product from the production stage to final consumption, social risk means the risk of disapproval of a destination (Dickson and Dolnicar, 2004) or a different concept choice from others. Financial risk means possible financial losses from a purchase or consumption transaction (Yağmur and Aksu, 2021) or refers to the situation of not giving value for money as a result of the tourist experience (Dickson and Dolnicar, 2004). Time risk means that planning and preparation to purchase halal products will take a long time, and at the same time, the purchasing/consumption processes will waste a lot of time for consumers/tourists (Yağmur and Aksu, 2021).

2.2.Destination Image

Destination image is a well-studied term in the tourism domain (Stylidis, 2022). This is because destination image stands out as a key vital factor in influencing purchasing behavior, increasing the tendency to revisit destinations, and embodying destination characteristics, influencing behavioral intentions, creating tourist loyalty, improving expectations, differentiating destinations, creating strong brands, and increasing competitiveness (Yağmur and Aksu, 2020). Tasci et al. (2007) defined destination image as "an interactive system of thoughts, ideas, emotions, visualizations and intentions towards a destination". This definition includes the cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions of image, which reflect thoughts and views that activate feelings and emotions about a place and thus lead to behavioral intentions towards that place. However, in studies where behavioral concepts (such as destination loyalty or dimensions, intention to recommend) are used, using the conative dimension of the image may be seen as unnecessary (Tascı et al., 2022). In this respect, in this study, the image is designed as two-dimensional: cognitive and affective.

2.3.Cognitive Image

Cognitive image represents the traveller's ideas and beliefs about the attributes of a destination (Atadil, Sirakaya-Turk & Altintas, 2017) and is described as the belief and knowledge about the objective attributes of a place (Xia, Zhang & Zhang, 2018). Cognitive image refers to the mental concept that the tourist perceives about the destination by visiting the destination or evaluating the physical characteristics of the destination through the information gathered about the destination (Jose at al., 2022). The cognitive dimension exhibits the tourist experiences, knowledge, recognition, beliefs, thoughts, and consciousness of the entire feature of a touristic destination (Carvache-Franco et al., 2022).

2.4.Affective Image

Affective image expresses the emotional reactions and feelings of the tourist towards the destination. It is constantly evolving during the evaluation phase of destination selection or during a travel period (Jose et al., 2022). The affective component of the image expresses feelings, moods, emotions or directions.

2.5.Interaction of the Dimensions of Destination Image

Although there are many debates on the structure of the destination image in the body of knowledge of tourism, the consensus is that the concept consists of at least two different dimensions: cognitive and affective (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). In the cognitive component, tourists evaluates on the basis of the objective features of the destination, while in the affective component, they performs all the features of the destination based on their emotional characteristics.

2.6.Interaction Between Perceived Risk and Destination Image

Although risk is inherent in every decision-making process, it has much greater importance and effects in terms of tourism. Due to the experiential nature of tourism, tourists have to pay with less concrete information about the products they will buy, which increases the tourism risk for tourists. Because the experience only takes place at the destination after purchasing, it makes it not possible to return the product (Joo et al., 2021). In this regard, the crucial factor in mitigating or eliminating the high risk for a destination, hotel business or a concept is the destination image. This importance stems from the fact that the destination image can make great changes in the minds or emotions of tourists. Meanwhile, in term of tourism, Nugraha (2014) specified that perceived risk refers to one aspect of destination image. Thus, the literature on image reflects the positive aspect of tourism destinations whereas the literature on risk tends to focus on negative connotations (Chew & Jahari, 2014).

2.7.Tourist Satisfaction

Research on visitor satisfaction has been the centre of attention for researchers and marketers in the past forty years (Albayrak & Caber, 2011) and the satisfaction variable has also been greatly studied in the tourism domain (Genc & Genc, 2022). Satisfaction is defined as a measure of tourists' cognitive or emotional responses to the products they buy or consume. tourist satisfaction has important effects on the supply and demand sides of tourism. Tourist satisfaction, on the one hand, increases tourist loyalty, cross-buying and positive word-of-mouth, and decreases price sensitivity (Deng et al., 2008), on the other hand, it plays a key role in tourists' evaluation of their travel experience and decision-making on a destination, consumption of products, and revisit intentions (Genc & Genc, 2022).

2.8.Behavioural Intentions

The tendency of individuals to exhibit certain behaviors is defined as behavioral intention, and behavioral intention represents an individual's mental circumstance or personal tendencies before revealing future behavior (Christou, 2002; Piramanayagam and Seal, 2020). Behavioural intentions can be defined as a type of behavioural tendency (advice, purchase, travel, visit and return). Intentions and current behaviours are regarded as closely related, so this concept is generally used as a tool to measure the effects of certain variables such as attitude, cultural distance etc. Chen and Tsai (2007) point out that behavioral intention in the tourism context includes a tourist's post-purchase behavior, revisit intention, and communicating positive thoughts about the destination to others.

2.9.Relationship Among Study Variables and Hypotheses

The reason why the destination image is considered as an extremely substantial tool for a destination, business or a new concept is that it directly affects both the decision-making process of the tourists and the sale of the offered products. In this respect, an in-depth examination of the destination image, which is an important element, contributes to the determination and success of marketing strategies in terms of managers and policy makers who present a destination, business, and a new concept. Thereby, the image of the offered product can also be improved (Tavitiyaman & Qu, 2013).

Perceived risk in terms of tourism represents an aspect of the destination image (Nugraha, 2014). This is because the image literature reflects the positive aspect of tourism destinations, while the risk literature tends to focus on negative connotations (Chew and Jahari, 2014). Visiting a destination, hotel establishment, or a new concept (purchase) or avoiding (staying away from) a destination is strongly related to the mental image that tourists have of the destination. In this respect, while tourists have a safe/positive image for some destinations, they may have risky/negative images for other destinations (Perpina et al., 2017).

Associating perceived risk with some forms of destination image has been addressed in several studies (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Lepp et al., 2011; Lehto et al., 2008; Kani et al., 2017). In many studies (Moon & Han, 2019; Chua et al., 2019; Jani & Han, 2014) in tourism domain, the moderator effect of the destination image among various variables (e.g., satisfaction, trust, loyalty) has been investigated. For instance, Chew and Jahari (2014) found that perceived socio-psychological and financial risks affect both cognitive and emotional destination images in their study by specifying perceived risk and destination image as different constructs empirically. However, it has been determined that while the perceived physical risk directly affects the intention to revisit, it does not have a significant effect on the destination image. Also, it has been stated in past studies (Gracia et al., 2011; Dedeoğlu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2017: Yağmur & Aksu, 2020) that cognitive and emotional evaluations have significant effects on behavioral intentions. Thus, the following hypothesis has been developed:

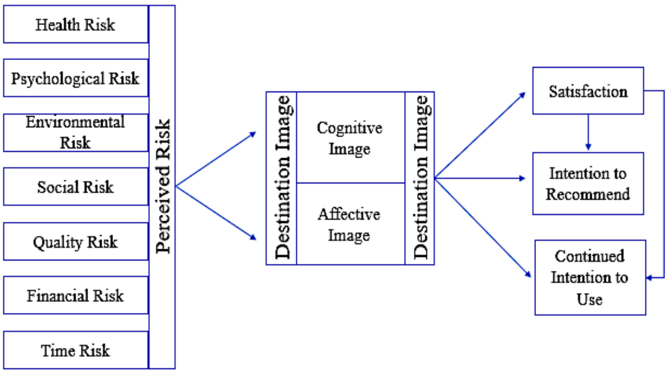
H1. *Between the risk perception and the three outputs, the image of the destination has a mediating effect.*

Tourist satisfaction is also shown as one of the important tools in terms of gaining competitive advantage in the field of tourism and is an important variable for managers to make strategic decisions (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). The effects of tourist satisfaction on behavioral intentions have been studied extensively in the literature (Huang et al., 2015; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Bosque & Martin, 2008). Likewise, the body of knowledge of tourism generally supports the view that both cognitive and emotional structures will cause to satisfaction and at the same time, satisfaction will positively affect behavioural intentions (Yağmur & Aksu, 2020; Huang & Hsu 2009; Bosque & Martin 2008). In this respect, the following hypothesis has been developed:

H2. *Satisfaction of tourists positively affects their behavioural intentions.*

Finally, the visual related to the proposed model is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Proposed Model



Note: The relationships between perceived risk and the cognitive and affective image dimensions and between the cognitive and affective image dimensions and three outputs were examined.

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data Collection

Various websites (e.g., halalboking.com, islamitatilyerler.net, muhafazakarotelim.com, halaltrip.com) were investigated in order to communicate with the hotels that see themselves as halal/Islamic/Muslim-friendly and to determine the research universe. Afterwards, the number of hotels on these websites and the regions they are located in were determined. In the context of the information obtained, it was learned that a total of 42 hotels throughout Antalya have adopted this concept. The managers of 20 hotels were contacted through simple random sampling method. There were feedbacks from the managers of 4 five-star and 1 four-star hotels in Alanya and 1 five-star hotel in Kaş, and the necessary permissions were obtained, and surveys were conducted in these hotels by interviewers and reception staff.

3.2 Measurement

The questionnaire was designed in two parts. The first part consists of the halal items scale developed by Olya and Al-ainsi (2018) and the destination image scale developed by Baloğlu and Mangaloğlu (2001) and largely used in the field (Yağmur and Aksu, 2020, Stylidis et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2005). While the scale developed by Olya & Al-ainsi (2018) is a five-point Likert type (1=strongly disagree - 5=strongly agree) scale with 32 items, the destination image scale consisting of a total of 18 statements includes 14 statements (Cognitive image) that are five-point Likert type and 4 statements (Affective image) that are bipolar. The second part consists of demographic variables.

In order to evaluate the reliability of the scale and the intelligibility-clarity of items, a pre-plot test was carried out on 60 people. It was finalized after necessary arrangements were made within the scope of feedback obtained from the participants. Between 1 July and 30 August 2018, the surveys were carried out by the interviewers and reception staff, and a total of 700 surveys were obtained. As a result of the controls, it was decided that 40 questionnaires were not suitable for analysis, and they were excluded from the scope of the research and analyzes were carried out on 660 questionnaires in total.

3.3 Data Analysis

A total of 660 participants were reached in the study, and SPSS 22.0 was used for descriptive analysis and Amos 22 programs were used to reveal causal relationships between variables. This sample size is sufficient for the structural equation modelling technique. Within the scope of analyses made in the context of the reliability of the scales, the Cronbach Alpha value of the halal items scale is 0.932, while the value of the destination image scale is 0.881.

4 FINDINGS

The characteristics of the demographic variables that make up the second part of the research questionnaire are as follows: While 50.9% (n=336) of the tourists participating in the research are women, the majority of the participants in this study (60.3% - n=398) were married. Considering the age ranges of the tourists participating in the study, the age range of 28 - 37 was the highest age range with 38.6% (n=255). When the educational background of the participants were examined, it was seen that the majority had a high school with 41.5% (n = 274) while 35.9% (n = 237) were university graduates.

The values of the halal items scale and its sub-dimensions are displayed in Table 1. The fact that the items and sub-dimensions of the scale have a normal distribution (the skewness values are between -1.03 and -0.03) (Karagöz, 2017) means that the prerequisite for the realization of the structural equation model is met. The values of the scale are as follows:

Table 1: Values for halal items scale

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness
Intention to Recommend	**3.93**	**0.93**	**-0.80**
INR1	3.88	1.07	-0.78
INR2	3.97	0.99	-0.88
INR3	3.95	1.02	-0.83
Continued Intention to Use	**4.00**	**0.93**	**-0.88**
CINU1	4.00	1.04	-0.90
CINU2	4.05	1.01	-0.97
CINU3	3.96	1.01	-0.87
Satisfaction	**4.03**	**0.93**	**-0.94**
STF1	4.03	1.03	-1.03
STF2	4.03	1.01	-1.02
STF3	4.04	1.00	-0.98
Health Risk	**3.72**	**0.99**	**-0.85**
HR1	3.63	1.13	-0.63
HR2	3.68	1.13	-0.76
HR3	3.77	1.09	-0.85
HR4	3.78	1.18	-0.81
Psychological Risk	**3.67**	**0.93**	**-0.69**
PR1	3.80	1.09	-0.68
PR2	3.68	1.04	-0.54
PR3	3.52	1.13	-0.43
Environmental Risk	**3.37**	**1.05**	**-0.42**
ER1	3.47	1.13	-0.40
ER2	3.35	1.19	-0.29
ER3	3.28	1.19	-0.28
Social Risk	**3.05**	**1.18**	**-0.31**
SR1	3.11	1.29	-0.19
SR2	3.04	1.32	-0.15
SR3	3.00	1.31	-0.12
Quality Risk	**3.25**	**1.00**	**-0.43**
QR1	3.20	1.16	-0.24
QR2	3.27	1.14	-0.24
QR3	3.29	1.18	-0.28
QR4	3.22	1.17	-0.27
Financial Risk	**3.06**	**1.11**	**-0.26**
FR1	3.06	1.23	-0.09
FR2	3.08	1.22	-0.11
FR3	3.06	1.29	-0.05
Time Risk	**2.99**	**1.23**	**-0.18**
TR1	3.00	1.32	-0.09
TR2	2.98	1.29	-0.09
TR3	2.97	1.35	-0.09

The skewness coefficients of the items and sub-dimensions in the destination image scale are between -0.40 and -0.84, indicating that the scale has a normal distribution. The values of the destination image scale items are as follows:

Table 2: Values for destination image items

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness
Cognitive	**3.74**	**0.63**	**-0.67**
COG1	3.80	1.04	-0.84
COG2	3.70	0.92	-0.48
COG3	3.84	0.89	-0.62
COG4	3.83	0.95	-0.48
COG5	3.89	0.95	-0.55
COG6	3.71	1.05	-0.55
COG7	3.80	1.00	-0.70
COG8	3.65	1.01	-0.45
COG9	3.73	1.03	-0.53
COG10	3.71	1.01	-0.54
COG11	3.80	1.01	-0.67
COG12	3.44	1.13	-0.40
COG13	3.73	1.04	-0.72
COG14	3.74	1.08	-0.71
Affective	**3.79**	**0.90**	**-0.81**
AFE1	3.80	1.12	-0.72
AFE2	3.84	1.07	-0.74
AFE3	3.80	1.12	-0.67
AFE4	3.72	1.13	-0.67

n = 660; All items in the scale, including bipolar questions, are rated as 1 strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree.

Explanatory (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) of halal items and destination image scales were performed to test the hypotheses, and the EFA and CFA results for the halal items scale are as follows:

Table 3. Explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses for the halal items

Items	Factor Loadings	Eigen Value	Explained Variance	Cronbach Alpha
Intention to Recommend		**0.716**	**4.661**	**0.887**
INR1	0.618			
INR2	0.678			
INR3	0.558			
Continued Intention to Use		**5.289**	**9.572**	**0.891**
CINU1	0.766			
CINU2	0.798			
CINU3	0.855			
Satisfaction		**5.758**	**10.421**	**0.906**
STF1	0.890			
STF2	0.900			
STF3	0.844			
Health Risk		**1.515**	**8.950**	**0.894**
HR1	0.771			
HR2	0.844			
HR3	0.792			
HR4	0.690			
Psychological Risk		**0.937**	**6.793**	**0.810**
PR1	0.831			
PR2	0.868			
PR3	0.535			
Environmental Risk		**1.187**	**8.145**	**0.876**
ER1	0.725			
ER2	0.799			
ER3	0.755			
Social Risk		**1.063**	**7.580**	**0.892**
SR1	0.695			
SR2	0.766			
SR3	0.746			
Quality Risk		**2.099**	**9.303**	**0.888**
QR1	0.654			
QR2	0.809			
QR3	0.756			
QR4	0.694			
Financial Risk		**0.558**	**3.779**	**0.867**
FR1	0.597			
FR2	0.636			
FR3	0.668			
Time Risk		**7.153**	**12.593**	**0.906**
TR1	0.854			
TR2	0.882			
TR3	0.884			
Total Variance (%): 81.797 KMO:0.932				
Bartlett Sphericity Test: 17126.277 p: 0.000				
χ^2/df=2.92; RMSA=0.05; RMR=0.05; SRMR=0.04; CFI=0.95; GFI=0.90				

In order to analyse whether the sample size reached a sufficient number, the value was found as 0.932 as a result of the KMO analysis. This value shows that the sample size is sufficient and indicates the perfection of my measurement (Sharma, 1996). The fact that the values obtained by the tests are too much above the acceptance limit indicates the suitability of the scale. Since the values of all items in the scale were above the acceptance point (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009; Daskalaki et al., 2020), no statement was left out of the analysis. In addition, 10 factors were determined in total, and the variance explanation rate of these ten factors was 81.797% (Nakip, 2003). The Cronbach Alpha values vary between 0.810 and 0.906, indicating that the scale is reliable (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009). After the exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was performed and all fit index are within acceptable values (Hair et al., 2014; Ho, 2014). Secondly, explanatory and confirmatory factor analyzes of the destination image scale were performed.

Table 4: Explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis for the destination image scale

Items	Factor Loadings	Eigen Value	Explained Variance	Cronbach Alpha
Cognitive		**5.584**	**32.877**	**0.806**
COG4	0.527			
COG5	0.669			
COG6	0.672			
COG7	0.741			
COG8	0.728			
COG9	0.771			
COG10	0.747			
COG11	0.723			
COG12	0.490			
COG13	0.631			
COG14	0.544			
Affective		**2.242**	**19.290**	**0.746**
AFE1	0.748			
AFE2	0.843			
AFE3	0.844			
AFE4	0.757			
Total Variance (%): 52.167 KMO: 0.873				
Bartlett Sphericity Test: 4333.383 p: 0.000				
χ^2/df=3.96; RMSA=0.05; RMR=0.06; SRMR=0.04; CFI=0.94; GFI=0.94; NFI=0.93				

Table 5: Correlation analysis for perceived risk and its sub-dimensions

	Health Risk	Psychological Risk	Environmental Risk	Social Risk	Quality Risk	Financial Risk	Time Risk	Overall Perceived Risk
Health Risk	1	0.496**	0.274**	0.168**	0.305**	0.138**	0.047	0.485**
Psychological Risk		1	0.519**	0.370**	0.429**	0.384**	0.297**	0.661**
Environmental Risk			1	0.651**	0.665**	0.539**	0.459**	0.794**
Social Risk				1	0.663**	0.612**	0.628**	0.803**
Quality Risk					1	0.659**	0.523**	0.841**
Financial Risk						1	0.750**	0.798**
Time Risk							1	0.728**
Overall Perceived Risk								1

$^{**}p<0,01$

As the values of the scale were suitable for factor analysis, the 18-item scale was subjected to factor analysis using the Varimax rotation technique. The three items were omitted from the analysis due to the items 'COG1, COG2 and COG' are smaller than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2009). The variance explanation rate is 52,167% over acceptable rate (Nakip, 2003). Cronbach Alpha values are between 0.806 and 0.746 (Hair et al., 2009). As a result of CFA, all fit indices were determined to be in the acceptable range.

Thirdly, in order to test the hypothesis related to perceived risk, correlation analysis related to perceived risk and its sub-dimensions was carried out.

The results of the Pearson's correlation analysis conducted for the relationship between perceived risk and its sub-dimensions are presented in Table 5. Durmuş, Yurtkoru & Çinko, 2011) state that the correlation coefficient indicates a low-level relationship when 0.50 < r, a moderate level relationship when 0.50 ≤ r <0.70, and a high-level relationship when r ≥ 0.70.

According to the findings obtained in the analysis, all the correlation coefficients between perceived risk and its sub-dimensions were determined to be positive and significant (p <0.01). When the Pearson correlation coefficients between the sub-dimensions were examined, a high relationship was detected between 'Overall Perceived Risk' and the sub-dimensions 'Environmental risk (r= 0.794; p <0.01), Social risk (r= 0.803; p <0.01), Quality risk (r= 0.841; p <0.01), Financial risk (r= 0.798; p <0.01) and Time risk (r= 0.728; p <0.01)'. On the other hand, overall perceived risk was found to have a moderate relationship with psychological risk (r= 0.661; p <0.01) and a low relationship with Health risk (r= 0.485; p <0.01).

Lastly, the proposed structural model was tested, and values obtained are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Confirmatory factor and path analyses results

Path	Standardized Regression Coefficients	Standard Error	t	p
Perceived Risk=>Cognitive Image	0.113	0.028	2.484	*
Perceived Risk=>Affective Image	-0.050	0,040	-1.109	0.267
Perceived Risk=>Intention to Recommend	-0.045	0.041	-1.310	0.190
Perceived Risk =>Continued Intention to Use	0.017	0.032	0.590	0.555
Perceived Risk=>Satisfaction	0.127	0.049	2.868	*
Cognitive Image =>Satisfaction	0.423	0.101	7.608	**
Cognitive Image =>Continued Intention to Use	-0.107	0.067	-3.049	*
Cognitive Image =>Intention to Recommend	-0.182	0.087	-4.414	**
Affective Image =>Intention to Recommend	0.087	0.052	2.315	*
Affective Image =>Continued Intention to Use	0.032	0.040	1.061	0.289
Affective Image=>Satisfaction	0.033	0.055	0.756	0.449
Satisfaction =>Continued Intention to Use	1.033	0.048	19.302	**
Satisfaction=>Intention to Recommend	0.900	0.051	22.426	**
χ^2/df=3.33; RMSA=0.06; RMR=0.07; SRMR=0.07; CFI=0.92; GFI=0.90; NFI=0.90				

*p<0.05 **p<0.01 χ^2= 1345.919 (df=404 p<0.01)

As a result of the path analysis, all index values are in acceptable range. Perceived risk significantly affected cognitive image (β = 0.113, t = 2.484, p <0.05) and satisfaction (β = 0.127, t = 2.868, p <0.05). Cognitive image was the path that affected satisfaction (β = 0.423, t = 7.608, p <0.01), continued intention to use (β = -0.107, t = -3.049, p <0.05) and intention to recommend (β = -0.182, t = -4.414, p <0.01). Affective image was the path that significantly affected intention to recommend (β = 0.087, t = 2.315, p <0.05). Additionally, satisfaction was the path that significantly influenced continued intention to use (β = 1.033, t = 19.302, p <0.01) and intention to recommend (β = 0.900, t = 22.426, p <0.01). In this context, it was determined by the research findings that the H2 hypothesis was supported.

Within the scope of determining the mediation effect, standardized direct, indirect and total effects are demonstrated in Table 7. In the table, the total effect consists of the sum of the direct and indirect effects. Likewise, this table gives more detailed and explanatory results regarding the structural equation modelling.

Table 7. Standardized direct, indirect and total effects

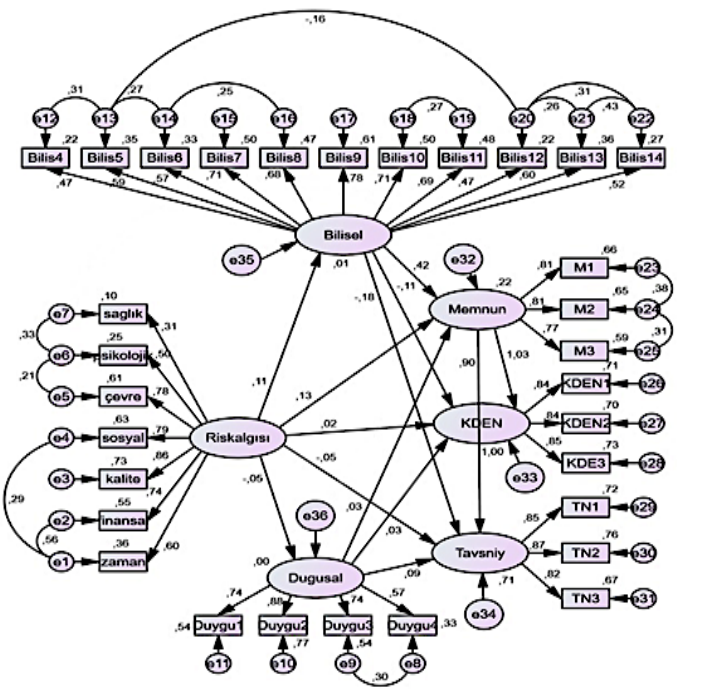
	Perceived Risk	Cognitive Image	Affective Image	Satisfaction
Standardized Direct Effect				
Cognitive Image	0.113	0	0	0
Affective Image	-0.050	0	0	0
Satisfaction	0.127	0.423	0.033	0
Intention to Recommend	-0.045	-0.182	0.087	0.900
Continued Intention to Use	0.017	-0.107	0.037	0.033
Standardized Indirect Effect				
Cognitive Image	0	0	0	0
Affective Image	0	0	0	0
Satisfaction	0.046	0	0	0
Intention to Recommend	0.131	0.381	0.030	0
Continued Intention to Use	0.166	0.437	0.034	0
Standardized Total Effect				
Cognitive Image	0.133	0	0	0
Affective Image	-0.050	0	0	0
Satisfaction	0.173	0.423	0.033	0
Intention to Recommend	0.086	0.199	0.117	0.900
Continued Intention to Use	0.182	0.330	0.067	0.033

When standardized values of total effects were analyzed, it was seen that the predictive power of perceived risk was found as 0.133 for cognitive image and as 0.173 for satisfaction. The predictive power of cognitive image was determined as 0.423 for satisfaction, as 0.199 for intention to recommend and as 0.330 for continued intention to use. In addition, the predictive power of affective image was detected to be 0.117 for intention to recommend.

The analysis of the standardized values of direct effects indicated that the predictive power of perceived risk was stated to be 0.113 for cognitive image and 0.127 for satisfaction. In addition, the predictive power of cognitive image was reported as 0.423 for satisfaction, as 0.182 for intention to recommend and as -0.107 for continued intention to use. Finally, the predictive power of affective image was found to be 0.087 for intention to recommend.

When the standardized values of indirect effects were analyzed, it was observed that the indirect predictive power of perceived risk was 0.046 for satisfaction. This shows that perceived risk had a direct impact on satisfaction in addition to its indirect effect on satisfaction through cognitive image. In other words, cognitive image had a mediating effect in the effect of perceived risk on satisfaction. Therefore, the H1 hypothesis is partially supported. Finally, the path analysis diagram of the model is given in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Path analysis diagram of the proposed model



Note: saglık: *health risk*, psikoloji: *psychological risk*, çevre: *environmental risk*, sosyal: *social risk*, kalite: *quality risk*, finansal: *financial risk*, zaman: *time risk*, risk algısı: perceived risk, bilisel: *cognitive image*, dugusal: *affective image*, memnun: *satisfaction*, tavsniy: *intention to recommend*, kden: continued intention to use.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

It has been determined that the tourists staying in the halal concept have a high tendency to revisit and recommend them to their surroundings when they are satisfied with the service provided by the hotel businesses (H2). Many previous studies (Xu, Zhang, Zhang, Xu & Dong, 2019; Loi, So, Lo & Fong, 2017; Stylidis, Shani & Belhassen, 2017; Assaker & Hallak 2013; Prayag & Ryan 2012; Wang & Hsu 2010; Rittichainuwat, Qu & Mongknonvanit, 2002; Lee, Yoon & Lee, 2007; Kozak & Rimmington 2000) that determine that tourist satisfaction significantly affects behavioral intentions support the research findings.

According to research findings, it was determined that the cognitive image had partially mediating effect between perceived risk (Risk factors) and the attitudes and behaviours of the tourists (between perceived risk and satisfaction) while affective image had no mediating impact between perceived risk (Risk factors) and the attitudes and behaviours of the tourists (H1 hypothesis). Kani, Aziz, Sambasivan & Bojei, (2017) concluded that perceived risk significantly mediated the relationship between destination image and revisit intention. Chahal & Devi (2015) reported that there was a negative relationship between destination image and overall perceived risk and that the five risk dimensions (financial, human-induced, service quality/facility, food-related risk and physical health risks) had a mediating effect between destination image and destination attributes. The study conducted by Chew & Jahari (2014) investigated whether the cognitive and affective images mediated the relationship between intention to visit and the three risk dimensions including physical risk, socio-psychological risk, and financial risk. According to the results of the study, it was indicated that cognitive and affective images had a mediating role between the risk dimensions and intention to visit.

According to research findings, it was concluded that cognitive image has a partial mediating effect, while affective image has no mediating effect (H1 hypothesis). Since it is accepted in the body of knowledge of tourism that the cognitive image positively affects the affective image, it is expected that the affective image will also have a mediating effect. However, the research results do not confirm such an inference. There may be many reasons for this situation. First of all, Antalya has a lot of superiority in terms of historical, cultural and natural attractions, but the cognitive image of tourists may not turn into affective image and thus there may be no mediating effect because its infrastructure is inadequate, it has unplanned urbanization, it is a cosmopolitan destination as a result of allowing too many immigrants, some problems have arisen with respect to personal security in the past few years, and most importantly, it is a relatively young brand. In the body of knowledge of tourism, the fact that destination image is considered to have a vital role in effective branding and tourism destination marketing (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou & Kaplanidou, 2015; Beerli & Martin, 2004) supports this view.

Metacognition is defined by Flavel (1979) as "all conscious, cognitive and affective experiences that accompany any intellectual enterprise" (Sengul & Katranci, 2015). Wilson (1999) defines metacognitive awareness as individuals' awareness in the learning process, and their knowledge about their own personal learning strategies, their knowledge about content knowledge, and knowledge about what has been done and what has not been done yet (Bozkurt & Memiş, 2013; Vlasic et al., 2019). Hartman (2002) maintains that metacognition involves knowing what we already know or thinking about our own thoughts, thinking about our own thought processes and the products of our thinking whereas Sengul & Katranci (2015) argue that it refers to awareness of one's own learning process, planning, choosing the strategy, monitoring the learning process, correcting your own mistakes, checking whether the strategies you use are useful, and changing your learning method or strategy when necessary.

Metacognition has two components, which are "knowledge about cognition" and "regulation of cognition". "Knowledge about cognition" refers to what individuals know about their own cognition or about cognition in general. Metacognitive awareness consists of three different types: declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge (Schraw, 1998). Declarative knowledge means knowledge about 'things'. Procedural knowledge is defined as knowing 'how' to perform a task. Conditional knowledge refers to knowledge about the 'why' and 'when' aspects of cognition (Schraw, 2002). Conditional knowledge helps students use strategies more efficiently and allocate learners' resources selectively. Conditional learning also allows learners to adapt to changing situational demands of each learning task. Regulation of cognition includes three basic skills, which are planning, monitoring and evaluation (Schraw, 1998). Hartman (2002) proposes two basic types of metacognitions in general. The first is executive management strategies that help learners plan, monitor, evaluate and revise their thinking processes. The second one is strategic knowledge, which involves knowing what information/strategies/skills you have, when and why to use them and how to use them (Sengul & Katranci, 2015). Mindfulness, on the other hand, means intentionally paying attention to something in a certain way in the present moment and without judgment. This type of mindfulness increases the clarity of higher awareness of the current reality and fosters acceptance of reality by the individual (Wells, 2002). These concepts are extremely important in terms of showing how much tourists are aware of this concept by businesses that adopt the halal concept. It has been revealed by the research findings that tourists who stay in halal concept hotels have low metacognitive awareness and mindfulness for this concept. It can be argued that tourists do not have enough information about the questions why, when, how and what to do related to the sub-dimension of metacognition called 'knowledge about cognition' and that their planning, monitoring and evaluation skills related to the 'regulation of cognition' are superficial and insufficient in terms of their knowledge about the halal concept.

4.1.Implications

The study has some theoretical and practical implications. For destination policy makers and managers of hotel establishments, it is important that emotional decision making takes precedence over logical decision making. This is because the emotional commitment of tourists to the destination or their emotionally close feelings can provide an advantage to the destination over its competitors. In this context, the fact that cognitive image has a mediating effect between the perceived risk of tourists staying in establishments with halal tourism concept in Antalya province and their satisfaction and that affective image does not have is essential in terms of making long-term policies for destinations, establishing tourist loyalty, increasing hotel occupancy rates and spreading tourism throughout the four seasons. Creating tourist loyalty is more important than other parameters because perceived risk and destination image are important variables that affect tourist loyalty. For this reason, suggestions for hotel managers and destination policy makers to meaningfully create the affective images of tourists staying in halal concept hotels as well as their cognitive images can be listed as follows:

- The importance of destination image on the assessment of the perceived risk of tourists staying in the halal system should be understood by destination policy makers and hotel managers, and multiple information sources should be used for strategic image management and development and especially for increasing tourists' affective evaluation of images.
- Hotel managers and destination policy makers should be made aware of the essential role of affective image in influencing tourist behaviour (recommendation and revisit) and the intense effect of tourist behaviour on issues such as loyalty, hotel occupancy, profit and cost, and the key role of affective image especially in Turkish tourism, which is exposed to more crises than its competitors.
- In order to increase the metacognitive awareness and mindfulness of the tourist accommodating in hotels with the concept of halal tourism, it should be ensured that halal standard certificate is awarded to hotel establishments by an institution accredited by international organizations, that standards are set in hotel establishments in the country, and that hotel establishments do not use the expression 'halal concept hotel' without this document or that they are supervised regularly.
- Activities should be organized to increase the interaction of tourists with the hotel management and the destination after their visit and their familiarity (awareness) with the hotel management and the destination before their visit, and to enhance their socio-psychological motivations.

As for the theoretical implications, since the standards of the concept of halal tourism vary from country to country, business to business and one organization to another, which can have some effects on the potential tourist who will choose this concept. Lack of globally accepted standards not only creates confusion for the tourist, but also has a prominent impact on the level of familiarity or awareness of standards. The main study problem is whether those who prefer halal tourism concept standards have sufficient awareness of these standards. Based on this, it was concluded that the tourists do not have enough awareness or familiarity about the standards. In this respect, it can be said that while the research contributes significantly to the literature, it has opened a new area of discussion and analysis for the concept.

4.3.Limitations and Future Research

The main and most important limitation of the research is that it was performed on domestic and foreign tourists in six hotel businesses in Antalya that adopt the halal system. In future studies, the size of the sample could be conducted more heterogeneously by including the tourists staying in halal concept in different destinations and without choosing any destination on all the tourists staying in the study. Another limitation of the study is due to the nature of quantitative research. Further research can be conducted to reveal whether the reason why affective image does not have a mediating impact on the relationship between perceived risk and satisfaction despite the fact that cognitive image mediates the relationship between these two concept, which is one of the most important results of the study, stems from metacognitive awareness, in other words, it can be recommended for future studies to determine the metacognitive awareness level of the tourists staying in hotels with halal concept.

6 NOTE

This article was produced from a doctoral thesis. The thesis was defended in the tourism faculty of Akdeniz University in Antalya-Turkey in 2019.

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SUBMITTED: NOV 2021
REVISION SUBMITTED: FEB 2022
ACCEPTED: APR 2022
REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

PUBLISHED ONLINE: 30 MAY 2022

Employee turnover: The hotel industry perspective

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Abstract:

Purpose: *This study analyzes employee turnover in the under-researched context of the Gulf Cooperation Council.*
Methods: *This study uses a qualitative approach to examine the reasons for turnover and strategies adopted within the hotel sector to reduce this turnover*
Results: *The findings reveal that turnover reasons are organization- and employee-specific. Strategies to reduce turnover include promoting a good work environment, providing transfer opportunities, talent and development planning, and implementing exit strategies to find out employees' reasons for leaving. These findings will benefit the hotel industry's human resource planning, as most employees are expatriates, and will reduce costs in terms of new recruitmentThis study examines the effect of market sensing and interaction orientation capabilities on the marketing performance of service based firms in Ghana. The study particularly explored the moderation effect of interaction orientation capability on the relationship between market sensing and firm performance of the service firms.*
Implications: *From a context based perspective cultural differences between employees' nationalities are a reason for turnover linked to differences in salary and benefits. "Social" and "economic" value are key elements for human resource professionals to consider when developing employee benefits.*

Keywords: *Employee Turnover, Hospitality Industry, Hotels, Human Resource Management, United Arab Emirates*

JEL Classification: *E24, L83, J63*

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1 INTRODUCTION

The human element is crucial for the service industry, especially the hospitality industry. Employees and their skills, attitudes, knowledge, personality, and behaviors play essential roles in organizational outcomes, such as service quality, customer loyalty, and satisfaction (Kusluvan et al., 2010). Employees play a prominent role in achieving organizational goals because the hospitality industry has unique human-centric characteristics, especially the high degree of human interactions between customers and service providers (Hartline & Jones, 1996; Kusluvan et al., 2010; Parasuraman et al., 1985).
The importance of the human element was recognized during the industrial revolution resulting in the formation of a set of formal systems to effectively and efficiently use human assets within organizations (Delery & Doty, 1996; Mathis & Jackson, 2000; Schneider, 1994). Today, it is widely accepted that the policies and practices of human resources management (HRM), as well as organizational culture and climate, can directly influence employees' attitudes and performance (Barney & Wright 1998; Mueller, 1996; Wright et al., 2001). HRM activities and initiatives range from career planning and design, recruitment and terminations, training and devel¬opment, promotion and motivation, employee involvement and participation, compensation and benefits, to legal issues, performance appraisals, job security, employee relations, and health and safety (Mathis & Jackson, 2000; Tanke, 2001; Fu & Kapiki, 2016).
HRM practices were initially designed to create competitive advantages for a firm by leveraging human capital to

ISSN: 2529-1947. UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6583698
Published online: 30 May 2022
www.jthsm.gr

optimally contribute to its business objectives (Delery & Doty, 1996). Contemporary HRM models are based on an organization providing highly specialized services to its employees. In current models, employees are identified as humans first before being resources, and some organizations title their Human Resources (HR) department as the "talent management" office (Boella & Goss-Turner, 2019; Thunnissen, 2016).

The hotel industry is competitive and labor-intensive, and thus depends heavily on human capital (Haldorai et al., 2019; Michael, Reisinger, Hayes, 2019). Despite the many efforts to keep employees happy and retain them satisfactorily, employee turnover within the hospitality industry remains widespread. Employee turnover affects business performance, causes overworked and stressed employees (Buchman et al., 2020), and negatively impacts their attitude (Dickerson, 2009). Given these outcomes, it remains relevant to explore the intentions related to employee turnover and determine what strategies are adopted to retain employees.

In recent years, studies have investigated employee turnover in China (Huang et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2020), China and the US (Chen et al. 2018), Malaysia (e.g., Abo-Murad & Al-Khrabsheh, 2019; Haldorai et al., 2019), Mexico (Dominguez Aguirre, 2018), South Africa (e.g., Ezeuduji & Mbane, 2017), and Turkey (e.g., Akgunduz et al., 2020). However, no study to date has investigated employee turnover within the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries, in particular the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Employee turnover is critical to the hotel sector in the UAE because 95% of hotel employees are expatriates (Elbanna & Elsharnouby, 2018) with different cultural backgrounds and variations in language, communication, and work skills. Therefore, it is extremely important for HR departments within the hotel industry to manage their human capital with the knowledge, skills, and uniform standard of performance that meets international standards, provides high standards of service delivery, and shows respect towards the countries' Arab values and traditions (Elsharnouby & Elbanna, 2021).

For the purpose of this study the researchers selected Dubai as it is the most visited city in the UAE. Dubai is one of seven emirates of the UAE, and expatriates comprise 85% of its population (worldpopulationreview, 2021). In Dubai, many Emiratis choose to work in the government due to its significant benefits (Toledo, 2013), resulting in the private sector's, including the hotel industry's, heavy dependence on the expatriate population described above due to Emiratis not working in the tourism and hospitality sector (Haq et al.,, 2021).

The city ranks in the top five cities for hotel development worldwide, with 154 hotels and 48,365 rooms to be built. There is an even share between four- and five-star properties, around 49% and 51%, respectively (Hahn, 2020). Reisinger et al. (2019) noted that there is a need for human resources in the hotel sector to improve employee competency, attitude, service provided, and skills through training. The role of human resources is critical to the recruitment and retention of employees (Mejla et al., 2015). It is known that the hotel industry offers low salaries and conditions (Bresciani et al., 2012); therefore, human resource management must develop strategies that create an attractive and positive work environment that reduces employee turnover and enhances retention.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the concept of employee turnover within the hotel sector in Dubai, which attracts an expatriate workforce. The aims of this study are as follows:

- to determine the turnover rate of employees within four- and five-star hotels;
- to identify the main reasons for employee turnover; and
- to analyze the strategies adopted by HR to reduce employee turnover.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 HRM strategies in hospitality

HR practices are often referred to as high-performance or high-commitment work systems because they are associated with overall organizational performance and other outcomes, such as lower turnover and higher productivity (Chuang & Liao, 2010; Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010; Takeuchi, Chen, & Lepak, 2009). Hospitality research has revealed common high-performance work practices including decentralized decision-making; transparency and open communication; employee empowerment through training and education; flexible work assignments; attitude assessment; performance appraisal; selection, recruitment, and grievance procedures; rewards and incentives; and engagement programs (Sharma & Gursoy, 2018). HR managers may also improve employee performance through approaches unique to their organizations and employees.

On the other hand, Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012) highlighted that employee job satisfaction is not linked to employee turnover, management, and salary. For instance, employee engagement, which is the extent to which individuals are focused, absorbed, and attentive in performing their tasks, has been found to be dependent on individuals' demographics, such as age, with older employees usually being more engaged than younger ones (Rigg et al., 2014). In addition, Karatepe and Olugbade (2009) found that some personal characteristics of hotel frontline employees, such as trait competitiveness, are better predictors of work engagement than others, such as self-efficacy. Hotel employees' self-evaluation and organizational psychological climate can influence work engagement (Lee, 2012). Presbitero (2017) also explored the relationship between organizational characteristics and work engagement and found that positive changes in reward management systems, training, and development can significantly improve employee engagement. Furthermore, in Marinakou's and Giousmpasoglou's (2019) investigation of talent retention strategies in luxury hotels across the US, the UK, Australia, and Greece, they confirmed a correlation between employee engagement and retention. They found that employees showed more commitment to their organizations when they were encouraged to participate in decision-making and recruitment processes and team building and social activities because they felt that they were part of a family.

Performance appraisal (PA) is another common HR practice that formally assesses employee performance and shares feedback with the individual or team (Shen, 2004). PA systems essentially determine punishments and rewards, as well as training and discipline (Sudin, 2011). Kondrasuk (2012) asserted that, although essential, PA activities are the most disliked HR practices and suggested that PA plans should have clearer goals, focus on both results and behavior appraisals, and have appropriate timing to avoid bias. A fair PA system can benefit both competent employees with the opportunity to be recognized and ascend the career ladder and managers to align the organization's ability and goals (Kondrasuk, 2012; Nassar & Zaitouni, 2015). Nassar and Zaitouni (2015) also suggested that organizations should develop policies in which managers foster support and transparency among their employees because PA systems that are perceived as just are better able to achieve their goals. Their findings indicated that employees who perceive their managers as supportive and their organizations as fair also believe their supervisors are more competent.

2.2 Turnover in the hospitality industry

High turnover is another major challenge in the hospitality industry, and innovative HR strategies are required to retain employees (Cheng & Brown, 1998; Karatepe & Kilic, 2007). Current statistics show that the employee turnover rate in the hospitality industry ranges from 30% to 73% worldwide (Malyarov, 2020). The average turnover rate in the hospitality industry is extremely higher than in other sectors (Cicerale, 2020). Prior research (see Abdien 2019; Dusek et al. 2014; Mohsin et al. 2015) has documented many drivers related to high employee turnover in the hospitality industry. Recent work has confirmed these findings and suggested new directions. For example, Qui et al. (2015) documented the antecedents of employee turnover intention in China and reconfirmed common themes, such as promotional and advancement opportunities, work-life balance, work-group cohesion, leadership factors, and wages. They also found that employees' fit in the community and with their city's lifestyle were important reasons for employee retention.

Chen and Wu (2017) also found a correlation between transformational leadership behaviors, leader-member exchange, and psychological breach in the Taiwanese hotel context. They suggested that if hospitality organizations recruit managers with better transformational leadership skills, they can formulate more beneficial relationships with their team members, which is reflected in greater trust, commitment, and respect. As employees' psychological bonds with their leaders are enhanced, turnover intention decreases. Gordon, Tang et al. (2019) similarly revealed the relationship between supervisor support and turnover intention, which is mediated by subjective well-being, and found that perceived higher levels of support from supervisors result in higher subjective well-being, thus reducing turnover intention.

Dusek et al. (2014) divided the drivers of turnover intention into two categories: personal and organizational characteristics. They found that service orientation as a personal characteristic directly influenced job satisfaction and organizational commitment, through which service orientation indirectly impacted employee turnover intention. Service orientation is a set of personality traits such as being kind, helpful, sociable, and cooperative that make some people more successful in their customer interactions (Hogan et al., 1984). Finally, Mohsin et al. (2015) considered why employees leave despite all retention strategies in luxury hotels in India. Although they found common themes, such as job security and stimulation, earnings, organizational loyalty, and enthusiasm, they proposed that the problem might be in considering the turnover factors as linear rather than quadratic and that managers should be aware of the optimal level of each variable.

2.3 Recommendations for employee retention strategies in hotels

Knowledge about turnover predictors has led to hospitality literature identifying effective strategies for employee retention. Some of these strategies are general, such as training and development, improved compensation, and effective recruitment (Lee & Way, 2010; Moncarz et al., 2009; Pizam & Shani, 2009), while others are specific to particular groups of employees or organizations. For example, younger employees, or Generation Y, tend to demand career progression opportunities more than older staff or baby boomers (Meyers & van Woerkom, 2014; Terjesen et al., 2007); are technologically savvy and goal-oriented (Terjesen et al., 2007); and place greater importance on the attractiveness of their organization's social environment (Josiam et al., 2008; Scoot & Revis, 2008), work-life balance, enjoyable and fair work and express ideas (Qui et al. 2015; Nassar & Zaitouni, 2015). Therefore, HR managers should develop strategies that incorporate supporting employees (Gordon, Adler et al., 2019), staff attitude, and background knowledge into HR practices to manage employees' expectations efficiently (Fok & Yeung, 2016).

Other trends, such as job specialization and increased use of information communication technologies, are changing the competencies and skills required for hotel professionals (Silva & Martins, 2016). Therefore, current studies have emphasized several innovative and classic HRM practices. Four main HRM practices that should be fostered are information technology (IT) training and development to save time on administrative tasks and facilitate effective coordination and communication systems (Nieves & Quintana, 2018; Silva & Martins, 2016); virtual teamwork, which is a new, common practice affecting both organizations' business objectives and individuals' professional development, training and development programs (Wickramasinghe & Dolamulla, 2017); recruitment and selection practices, which have traditionally been and remain one of the most important human resource practices (Nieves & Quintana, 2018); and employee value propositions (EVPs). EVP refers to a set of values and benefits that an organization offers in return for employees' services and has gained prominence as organizations are increasingly competing for skilled workers. EVP also represents an organization's brand among potential employees. Raj's (2021, p. 203) empirical results revealed that "*employees have greater intention to stay when their organizations deliver an EVP including development value, social value and economic value*." Therefore, the hospitality industry should further develop EVP from other employee-centered sectors to create an attractive workplace and retain staff.

Taking this information on employee turnover into consideration, this study first identifies the rates and reasons for job turnover. Second, the study then provides the strategies adopted by four- and five-star hotels to retain employees in an expatriate work environment.

3 METHODOLOGY

This study employed a qualitative research design to determine the turnover rate of employees within four- and five-star hotels in Dubai, the main reasons for employee turnover, and the strategies organizations adopted to retain employees. Since this study aims to gain an understanding of human resource managers' perspectives on concepts related to strategy and formulation, the managers were first contacted by phone or email before scheduling the interview, which lasted for 60–90 minutes and was audio-recorded.

3.1 Participants

The participants were chosen based on expert sampling on two criteria: a) they were currently working in a four- or five-star hotel in Dubai, and b) they held managerial positions (e.g., assistant managers, managers, directors, or general managers) within the categories of human resources, training, or learning and development. We employed a professional referral sampling technique in which participants were selected via reference provided by an intermediary (Department of Tourism and Commerce Marketing: DTCM) (Hogan et al., 2009).

Qualitative studies include smaller sample sizes than quantitative studies (Song & Hsu, 201). The sample size is determined by the researchers and depends on the information to be gathered (De Gagne & Walters, 2010). A total of 12–40 participants is considered an ideal sample size (Koseoglu et al., 2016) but is dependent on data saturation. In the context of this study, 14 in-depth interviews were conducted with 17 participants as data saturation was achieved; the last few interviews did not provide any new information (Christou et al., 2008; Mason, 2010). In the case of the two interviews (participants 5 and 6 and participants 13 and 14) where the respondents were interviewed together, the respondents were from the same hotel or chain and they requested that the interview be done together. All participants provided informed consent also the study was approved by the authors university ethics committee.

3.2 Method

In phase one, all interviews were transcribed, and the transcripts were read and re-read. In phase two, the data were organized systematically by coding them based on the research aim. In phase three, the researchers developed newly "constructed" codes via open coding to elucidate interviewee experiences (Saldaña, 2013). The constructed codes are labels assigned to the dialogue (Xiao & Mair, 2006). In the final phase, the codes were reviewed, checked, and modified appropriately by the researchers to ensure that the meaning and context of the words or phrases used by the interviewees were correctly translated (Saldaña, 2016).

4 FINDINGS

The study's findings established the turnover rate in the context of the hotel industry in Dubai. In establishing the main reasons for turnover, two main categories emerged with subsequent sub-categories. This study then uses that information to outline the retention strategies adopted by the hotel industry to retain employees.

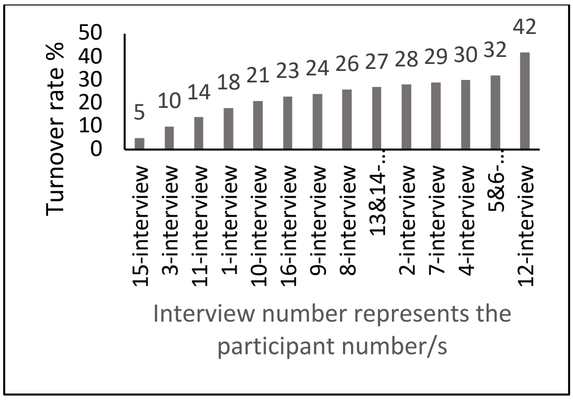
4.1 Turnover rate

Interviewees reported a turnover rate that ranged between 5% and 42% (Figure 1). These findings are consistent with global statistics, with hospitality turnover ranging between 30% and 73% (Malyarov, 2020), which is much higher than other sectors (Cicerale, 2020), as previously stated. However, the turnover within the hotel sector in Dubai appears to average around 20%, which is typically consistent with industry statistics. Furthermore, in Dubai, the turnovers appear to be more frequent among the line staff than the managerial staff because some managers receive more or better benefits than they would receive in their home countries.

> *Turnover, you find the turnover more in the line staff. It is not in management because actually, management are getting things they would not get in their own countries. The lifestyle we have here is, I find, luxurious, even for Europeans; they will never be able to live in those areas, get this kind of medical insurance, be paid for those kinds of schools for their children. They will have to put their children in public schools; they will have to take the metro. (Participant 11)*

The reasons for staff turnover based on the findings of the in-depth interviews are outlined in the following section.

Figure 1: Reported overall annual turnover rate by the participants



4.2 Main reasons for turnover

The respondents' reasons for quitting the job were classified into two categories: a) organizational reasons and b) personal reasons.

Organizational reasons:

(A) Low salary. Respondents confirmed that employees mainly leave their hotels because of low salaries, although they receive additional benefits such as meals, transportation to work, and paid accommodation. Furthermore, small salary advancements ranging from as low as 200 to 500 Dirhams, which is approximately 50–130 US dollars, motivate these employees to leave. The offer of better benefits elsewhere also provides a motivation to leave, whether it is another job within the hotel sector or other hospitality sectors such as restaurants, or a move to a totally different sector, such as construction or security companies. If employees decide to change to a job outside the hospitality sector, the reason is mainly due to much higher salaries and benefits, such as better accommodations.

> *A lot of it is money….The main reason for this is that people find better opportunities and higher salaries. If you see staff from the kitchen or from housekeeping and F&B [food & beverage] if they go on to a standalone property like a hotel or a restaurant, they get almost double the salary. (Participant 9)*

The hotel industry employees in Dubai are mainly expatriates from India and the Philippines (Brien et al., 2019); therefore, every additional US dollar earned makes a big difference to their earnings in their home countries, as they typically support not only their immediate family but also their extended families back home (Gorney, 2014).

(B) Career progression is lacking. The second important and common sub-category leading to employee turnover was the lack of opportunity for career growth. The human resource executives highlighted that there are no opportunities for promotion or career advancement and thus employees sought higher aspirations and better career progression and positions elsewhere.

> *I know that people sometimes leave their companies because they will say, yeah, I am, let us say, a supervisor for the past three years and whenever I am asking my manager about what my next step is, nobody has an answer. Yes, I am happy there; my salary is really good, and it is enough, but okay I need to be something. I have a vision I have a goal in my life that in five years I would like to be like a restaurant manager, let us say, but I do not see it happening. (Participant 13 and 14)*

The hotel industry in Dubai is mainly composed of employees between the ages of 26 and 30 within the food, beverage, and room divisions (Haldorai et al., 2019). Younger employees desire better opportunities to improve their career growth (Meyers and van Woerkom, 2014), and in order to retain employees and save costs in terms of training and investments in hiring employees from overseas, career progression is a critical factor for the hotel industry.

(C) Unhappiness. Employee unhappiness was typically related to their relationships with managers or supervisors and management style within the hotel. It may also be related to salary; however, if the manager is good, salary is not a major criterion.

> *People leave because of two reasons, right? It is either that they are not happy with the management or, sorry, they are not happy with the overall hotel or they are not happy with managers. (Participants 5 and 6)*

> *Not always happy with the salary (Participant 11)*

> *If I have a great manager, great boss, great department, and great work, then money is not first on my mind for sure. I don't want to leave. I do not leave my place so that is absolutely key if I could pick one thing that I will focus on its leadership for sure. (Participant 2)*

Dimitrov (2012) highlighted that employees who are kept happy increase their commitment and retention. In the case of the hotel employees in Dubai, unhappiness appears to be directly related to employees' treatment by management.

(D) Cultural differences. The respondents highlighted that as employees come from different parts of the world, cultural differences tend to exist. Additionally, employees find it difficult to adjust to the country's culture, strict rules, and restrictions that may pose a threat to their lifestyle. In addition, differences in salaries and benefits exist between Arab, Western, and Asian expatriates (Emirates Woman, 2016).

> *Some of them, may be Dubai was a little bit different for them; some of them of course compared the pay in Euros with the pay in UAE, the restrictions, so even though I personally find that Dubai is very open, but for them the whole setup of a housing and you are not allowed to drink in the housing, and all of this for some people who are already 24 and 25, that is too restrictive. (Participant 12)*

(E) Involuntary termination. The employer's termination of employment is beyond employee control. In the hotel sector within Dubai, the respondents stated that employees lose their jobs due to redundancy or if they have failed the probation period because they lack the necessary skills for the job.

> *Usually termination, redundancy, does not pass probation or things like that. That is involuntary when the company is letting them go, so that anything when the company is letting you go that is involuntary. (Participants 5 and 6)*

> *The visa expired… their contract ends … they do not necessarily have the skill sets to be promoted so we lose them as a result of that. (Participant 1)*

4.3 Employee related reasons

The hotel industry in general attracts a transient population, and Dubai, in particular, fails to attract the local workforce (Brien et al., 2019). In the case of hotel employees in Dubai, they find other opportunities, experience family-related issues, or undergo career changes.

(A) Better opportunities. These opportunities are centered on personal reasons or opportunities in competing hotels within a city or country.

I would say mainly better job opportunities and personal reasons that I personally believe once again are better job opportunities, but people do not want to clearly communicate. (Participants 13 and 14)

New properties come up so that people want to go and join those properties, and those properties sometimes offer something better. (Participant 8)

(B) Personal reasons. Personal reasons vary from employees returning to their home country, to getting married, to looking for a lifestyle change. Several studies have found that personal reasons centered around family relationships and distance from them are a cause of turnover intention (Abdien, 2019; Ohunakin et al., 2018) .

Relocation, many people decide to go back home once they finish their contract, or, you know, even some of our older staff, you know they have been with the company for quite some time, they decide, you know, they earned some money, they decide to go back home and open their business or something, you know, to manage themselves. (Participant 4)

They get married. (Participant 10)

They leave because of … the lifestyle. (Participant 12)

(C) Career change. Employees seek something different.

Some people leave the industry; they do not like hospitality, so it could be career change; it could be wanting a more administrative type of job. (Participant 7)

McGinley (2012) pointed out that employees' skills acquired in the hotel industry are transferable across a variety of professions, and thus better opportunities, whether better wages or career progression, may be more attractive than staying.

4.4 Strategies by four- and five-star hotels to retain employees

(A) Promote a positive environment and company culture. The human resource executives highlighted that through good leadership, providing personal touches, speaking and listening to people, offering a people-oriented agenda, and creating an atmosphere of trust are key retention strategies.

Coming back to the environment, leadership and personal touch, honestly, are a pivotal part of retaining our talent. Strategic people's agenda ensures that we create that environment and trust with our leaders, with our employees (Participant 2)

Speak to the person and assure them that something is going to happen. (Participant 1)

Instill that feeling of being part of the team of being valued as a team member. (Participants 13 and 14)

We are trying to make our work and life balance also on a high level to bring better benefits to the company, to the team members' life; so it is all about employees' life; it is all about employees' willingness, all about employees' team members' way of living. (Participant 11)

(B) Transfer opportunities. This includes transfers within the same hotel, among hotel properties domestically, or international transfers within the brand.

Allow people to go and explore different areas of the business, so I think that helps. (Participant 1)

Apply within the same company. (Participant 12)

Mobility internationally, they move across…. That helps retain them within [the brand], within the family so that a flexible approach to receiving and transferring talent within [the brand] globally, not only the United Emirates, plays a key part. (Participant 2)

If at all possible, we try and transfer people to other hotels if they are not happy in the environment. This is something that we do; we try to keep them within the company because once you are [in Hotel A] so to speak, you know the company culture, our strategies…. our engagement activities that we do for the team members, the recognition programs we do; it all fall hand-in-hand with retention. (Participant 7)

Retention is mainly trying to accommodate the person or look for something internally within the [X] properties. (Participant 2)

(C) Talent and development planning. The human resource executives highlighted the strategies to retain employees that identify key players and provide them with a plan to help them grow within the hotel through training and career development.

[Hotel A] is one of the unique companies that believes in growth, and they assist, and they shape people to understand that [Hotel A] is a people's brand. We have a people's philosophy, which is called we care for people so they can be their best and so in that pipeline they also look after developments of people and where they want to go. (Participant 15)

> *General talent and development and succession planning…. You know who the key players are; you need to ensure they are our top priority in ensuring they have a development plan in place that has a clear path to what they need…. Training and development and career and succession planning. (Participant 2)*
>
> *Top talent, we pay more attention to that team member, and we see like what their plans for the future are. (Participant 9)*
>
> *Cross training (Participant 5 and 6)*
>
> *Talent management, learning opportunities. We are looking into growing our internal talents. (Participant 11)*

These findings highlight that the hotel sector in Dubai is people focused, employees are seen as their brand representatives, and there appears to be a culture of empowering and nurturing employees through training, development, and growth. Previous research has recognized the role of empowerment in increasing positive behavior among employees in the hospitality sector (Afsar et al, 2018; Lashley, 1995). Glaveli et al. (2019) identified that empowerment serves as the foundation for job satisfaction, which in turn is closely related to retention rates (Glaveli et al., 2019). Therefore, employee empowerment is vital for the career progression of employees in the hospitality industry.

(D) Exit interviews strategies. These are also in place to investigate why people are leaving the hotel through exit "interview analysis" which help identify the "reason why they are resigning" and determine if these reasons relate to "their managers, because of the salary, because of the service charge, from that we are creating a strategy" (Participant 3). Other retention strategies implemented based on exit interviews with employees include regular salary reviews, benefits review, annual salary increases, internal promotions, engagement activities, recognition programs, gratuity system, open-door policy, evaluations, and monthly gatherings and outings.

5 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

For this study, in-depth interviews were conducted with four - and 5- star hotel senior management. This study's findings contribute to understanding employee turnover rate, the main reasons for this turnover, and the retention strategies adopted by the hotel sector to retain employees. The findings reveal that the challenges of the hotel sector in Dubai in terms of turnover rate tend to be in line with other countries around the world.

Some of the findings align with prior research, and some differ. This study found that the reasons for turnover are linked to both the organization and the employee. The organizational reasons that lead to employees leaving the hotel include low salaries, which appears to be a global challenge facing the hotel industry (Haldorai et al., 2019; Qui et al., 2015); career progression opportunities within the hotel, which was also been found in other studies (e.g., Meyers & van Woerkom, 2014; Scott & Revis, 2008); and involuntary termination, which was agreed with previous studies (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017). The present study found that employees' unhappiness is linked to a lack of proper management and salary, but Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012) claimed that employee satisfaction is negatively related to employee turnover, management, and salary. Chen and Wu (2017) highlighted the importance of recruiting managers with good leadership skills to reduce turnover intention and improve employee well-being. Lastly, cultural differences between employees' nationalities are another reason for turnover and was linked to differences in salary and benefits. This finding could be more context-based, and it would be interesting to investigate if it is also a reason for turnover in other contexts.

The factors that relate to the employee linked to turnover intention include better opportunities, personal reasons, and career changes. These findings align with previous studies (e.g., Meyers & van Woerkom, 2014; Ohunakin et al., 2018). Respondents' solutions for reducing staff turnover revealed the importance of promoting a positive environment and company culture, transfer opportunities, talent and development planning, and exit interview strategies. Overall, these retention strategies were expressed as offering better conditions that included interacting with staff and providing fun days, prioritizing work-life balance, promoting employees, creating a better work environment, keeping employees happy, providing them with new opportunities, renewing contracts, and managing talent by assigning employees to a department and position matching their abilities, talents, passions, and personalities.

Talking with employees to learn the main issues and problems they encounter, enhance a culture of understanding among employees, and review and change employees' responsibilities. Internal promotion is a key retention strategy, especially for retaining valuable employees of an organization (Akrivos et al., 2007; Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2019). Similarly, these findings highlight the crucial role of internal employability in retention strategies employed by human resource professionals in the hotel industry. Internal employability contributes to active employees' participation in their organization's learning processes and has a direct positive effect on long-term organizational commitment, thus reducing the intention to quit and saving costs for the organization (Sánchez-Manjavacas et al. 2014).

Leadership and management were other factors that led to employees leaving the job. The hotel sector demands great levels of collaboration between leaders and subordinates, which in turn is tied to both job satisfaction and performance (Lee et al., 2015). Servant leadership is a form of leadership that is oriented towards others within the organization and community and prioritizes the requirements and interests of others rather than oneself (Eva et al., 2019). Within the hotel sector, servant leadership results in customer-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and encourages excellent customer service among employees (Çizel et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2013). In addition, this form of leadership has a substantial effect on producing a trustworthy climate and increasing staff's organizational commitment and work engagement (Valahis et al, 2008, 2009; Ling et al., 2016). This study also affirms that leadership and leadership styles play a major role in shaping the social environment of hotels and in success.

The findings of this study highlight that the "social" and "economic" value are the key elements for human resource professionals to consider when developing employee benefits. These include, but are not limited to, discounts at facilities within the hotel and sister properties, special rates for friends and family on hotel bookings, and providing accommodation and meals to employees. These strategies are crucial, considering that family-work supportive policies boost job satisfaction (Kong et al., 2018).

This study makes a valuable contribution to scholarship on the hotel industry in Dubai. It is worth noting that, in order to retain employees, it is important that the sector pays attention to factors such as leadership, cultural differences, career progression, training and development, and social and economic benefits of employees. This will assist these hotels in reducing costs, attracting good talent, and retaining good employees. Furthermore, after the COVID-19 pandemic it is important for hospitality businesses to start focusing more inward (Fusté-Forné & Michael, 2021). Future studies should be conducted within the context of other countries in the region to explore whether similar issues exist and also across other sectors of the tourism industry, as the region attracts a great number of expatriate employees. One of the limitations of the study not considered was to examine turnover from the perspective of
employees.

6 AKNOWLEGMENT

This paper was supported by the Office of Research, Zayed University (Cluster Fund R18035).

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SUBMITTED: SEP 2021
1st REVISION SUBMITTED: DEC 2021
2nd REVISION SUBMITTED: FEB 2022
ACCEPTED: MAR 2022
REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

PUBLISHED ONLINE: 30 MAY 2022

Developing a sustainable tribal tourism model vis-a-vis the tribal region of Rajasthan

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Abstract:

Purpose: *The tourism industry in India is rising and has excellent potential to create jobs and produce a large amount of foreign capital, thereby promoting the region's overall economic and social growth. The inviting customs of tribal India, the diverse community and native culture are always drawing the attention of tourists. Sustainable tourism is an enterprise that aims to get a minimal effect on the atmosphere and native customs while helping to generate revenue, employment, and conserve local environments. Tribal tourism will promote the development of locally generated goods, apart from direct and indirect jobs, and have essential multiplier effects as money is recycled into communities. Also, the sector offers substantial improvements in the tribal region development with provincial taxes and encourages local and national infrastructure growth for India. This paper describes tribal tourism, sustainable tribal tourism, and its significance in the Indian scenario.*
Methods: *Responses of 213 tribes were analysed with multiple regression to build a model for sustainable tribal tourism's success in Rajasthan.*
Results: *Social, economic, environmental sustainability, facility and problems dimensions are found to have a positive impact on the sustainability in tribal tourism.*
Implications: *This study has been conducted to acquaint the growth prospects in the form of social, economic, environmental and facility aspects and challenges of sustainable tribal tourism in India.*

Keywords: *Tribal tourism, sustainable tourism, sustainable tribal tourism, cultural heritage, cultural sensitivity*

JEL Classification: *Q01, Q56, M14*

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1 INTRODUCTION

World Tourism Organization (WTO) describes sustainable tourism as tourism in which social and economic aspect comes together. The appealing needs of sustainable tourism are maintained by cultural credibility, ecology, variation, and biological processes. Today sustainability in tourism is the need of the environment and people (May 1991; Mkono & Tribe, 2017). With a well-marked visit to one of these places, we should discover the origins of a diverse, multicultural India (Godsmark, 2018), in which harmony of plurality will be the core of the spirit (Marx & Dhoest, 2016). Sustainable Tribal Tourism (STT) is the application of sustainable tourism with the tribal community. Under STT, the tourists are exposed to the tribe's culture and customs for dual benefits; tourists can learn about them. On the other hand, the tribal community will get income; on the other hand, their living standards can also be affected by the entry of tourist's finance availability. The STT can be successful if only the tourism activity cannot affect their original position regarding their culture and customs. On the other hand, the tourists demand can also be at the same or improved level. Facts and Figures of the WTO are suggesting that tourism is going to be a growing industry worldwide, especially in Asia and the Pacific (+28%), the Middle East (+18%), and Africa (+8%) (Ala'a & Albattat, 2019; Saner et al., 2019). Economically, one of the global economy's most significant industries in the travel and tourism business (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2020). The sector's annual GDP growth was 10.5 percent for the year 2019, and the tourism industry remained the world's fastest developing sectors for the coming decades (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2019). The tourism sector generated 334 million workers worldwide in 2019. It is expected to contribute to local economic effects by adding to around 19 percent of the global workforce more within a year (Hassan, 2008).
In the Indian economy, travel and tourism play an essential part. India stands 14th in the world as opposed to other countries in terms of its tourism sector contribution to GDP. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) forecasts India's fifth-largest tourism sector growth. Tourism will give

© 2022 Authors. Published by International Hellenic University
ISSN: 2529-1947. UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6594696
Published online: 30 May 2022
www.jthsm.gr

a nation's economy direct and indirect assistance. The primary benefits include financial funding for restaurants, grocery shops, travel, fun and attractions, while indirect services include public expenditure on associated facilities and household Indians spending on tourism. Apart from the economic effect, a stable tourism industry may have a far-reaching impact that influences the infrastructure and climate of a region. The tourism industry encourages the government to invest in national parks and reserves; the environment can benefit. The eco-tourism or tourism trend focused on respecting and protecting the natural ecosystem increases environmental advantages on a small and broad scale. Eco-tourism communities in India include eco-tourism leaders in Kerala (tourindiakerala.com) and Forest Lodges and Resorts in Southern India (junglelodges.com).

Tribal Tourism will promote the development of locally generated goods, apart from the development of direct and indirect jobs, and have essential multiplier effects as money is recycled into communities. Also, the sector offers substantial improvements in the tribal region development with provincial taxes and encourages local and national infrastructure growth for India (Chinomona, 2019; Sangwan & Bhatia, 2020). Against this backdrop, this study has been conducted to get acquainted with India's growth prospects and challenges of sustainable tribal tourism. The subsequent sections present the overview of sustainable tribal tourism in India. The paper deals with the significance of sustainable tourism with the growth prospects of tribal sustainable tourism.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

There are downsides of tourism, including economic abuse, cultural destruction, and environmental damage (Singh, 2005). The expected increased number of visitors could significantly escalate these issues (Hassan, 2008). The three main ecological consequences of unsustainable tourism included rising environmental pressure (e.g. erosion, soil degradation); contamination (e.g. unmanaged waste management, high-energy use of materials, water and earth contamination); and biodiversity depletion (e.g. wildlife and devastation of ecosystems and indiscriminate clearing, coral harm). Socially, mass tourism has contributed, sometimes, to corruption, aboriginal community migration, local erosion in traditions and identity losses, growing income disparities, crime and property disputes, the decay of cultural practices and tradition. These violations are often encouraged by states, tourism firms, and organisations, and some categories of visitors who conspire involuntarily to commit these transgressions (Choibamroong, 2006).

India has great cultural diversity and having around 577 tribes in the region (Prasad & Sengupta 2019; Nautiyal et al., 2020; Dalal, 2019). These tribes also must abandon their conventional way of living. The India tourism industry has grown and is centered on all these tribes in various parts of India. These tribes are a significant part of Indian culture and dominate uncertain horizons with history and practice that is markedly separate from the others (Witzel, 2019). Thus, cultural and tribal tourism would be one of the best choices for visitors in India, which is conducted by several tour operators and travel agencies (Nautiyal et al., 2019). The Indian tribes are unique in their way. All tribes have customs, values, and practices of their own, which are classified into significant classes, including Cultural & Tribal Tourism (Morin & Morin, 2019).

India is also home to many tribes and several indigenous groups who retain their original traditions until today and have a direct link with their natural world (Lauderdale, 2019). Tribes in India are environmentally friendly communities that struggle to protect the rivers, land, and forests that enable them to live. The congruence between local tribes and nature makes tribal areas full of exotic biodiversity. Rajasthan and Gujarat in the west observe a colourful way of life, and the craftsmanship of the Nilgiri Hills is fascinating in southern India. This pastoral lifestyle emphasises attractiveness with simplicity. In Jharkhand, Santhals and the Bastar tribe add charm to the central part of the country. The Santhal are the oldest tribes in India. Their traditional songs and dances, colourful hand-worked clothes and finely crafted bamboo designs highlight North-eastern India.

In response, attempts have been made to prevent the detrimental consequences of this avalanche of tourists on the economy, culture, and the climate. The critical factor contributing to the growth of sustainable tourism might lead to a different quest for tourism and might hinder the sustainable development trend. Tribal tourism can reduce substantial leakage from communities of capital and wealth, the destruction of local trades, rising land prices. It can also limit local employment access in industry and reduce unemployment.

The WTO describes Sustainable tourism as tourisms that fulfil the basic requirements of current tourism development in regions while protecting and improving future opportunities (Institute for Tourism, 2010). It incorporates highlighting the individual's role to make rational and productive choices (Haanpaa, 2005; Edgell, 2019). This prevailing paradigm encompasses all sustainable tourism practices and seems to be central to all facets of the planning and integration of the sector. The debate on sustainable travel has been entirely driven by sustainable tourism (Tribe, 2006). Most conceptions of sustainable tourism answer environmental challenges, interacting with three dimensions of economic, social, and ecological sustainability (Butler, 1999).

The irrevocable effects on the atmosphere, society and cultural compositions of host communities have shifted the world's attention from counting the goodness of tourism on economy, income, and employment towards environmental and social sustainability issues. This has led to the introduction of many buzzwords, such as natural-based tourism, green tourism, eco-tourism, and sustainable tourism. Community participation is considered a vital agenda in any future tourism development and a significant concern of many international bodies, such as those under the United Nations (e.g. WTO, UNESCO, SESCO, etc.).

From a socio-economic and cultural point of view, tribal tourism offers a variety of opportunities. It will raise educational opportunities, protect local communities, strengthen identity, and promote human rights (Mapp & Rice, 2019). Tribal tourism will contribute to an expanded understanding of the value of the ecosystem and local biodiversity and emissions control initiatives (Conley et al., 2020). In Rajasthan, tourism has encouraged some government bodies to devise and enforce biodiversity protection and sustainability policies.

3 METHODOLOGY

This research studied the tribal tourism sector in India's territory of the rural area of the Mewar Region of Rajasthan state. Tribes of Rajasthan constitute approximately 13.5% of Rajasthan's population. Each of these tribes can be identified by their own culture, customs, trades, fairs & festivals. Bhils & Minas constitute the majority of the population of the tribes of the Mewar region of Rajasthan. Minas are claimed to be the descendants of the Matsya avatar of Vishnu and the ancient Matsya Kingdom. Drums and dances are typical at weddings and other festivals. The men's corpse is covered in a white cloth and the women in a piece of coloured fabric.
Meena believes in life after death and rebirth. Various beliefs and superstitions govern the Meenas. They celebrate different festivals and create their unique living style and traditions that attract the tourists who wish to capture the tribal life. The two other places from the Udaipur district called 'Beneshwar Mela' and 'Shilpgram Mahotsav' are charged for the current research project.
The two events represent the Meena culture, tradition, folklore, and the Meena that live in this region. The schedule has been modified and shortened for a more effective interview. The program used for this survey consists of two sections. The first section of the schedule covers demographic details. In contrast, the second part of the schedule comprises close-ended questions aimed at assessing the responses of the local Meena community and their activities. Attributes were calculated on a five-point Likert style scale varying from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Interviews were conducted within the limit of municipalities of Udaipur-Rajasthan, including Tiddi and Akhoda Village, district Udaipur. There were 300 schedules, but only 213 (71%) reliable and complete responses were used for analysis.

4 FINDINGS

Based on the objectives of the research work, the data is gathered from the 213 respondents, including tribal people engaged in the tribal tourism-related activities at the geographical location of Udaipur district at Rajasthan state. The respondent's profile is presented as under:

Table 1: Respondents' demographic profile

Age (in Years)	Frequency	Percentage	**Gender**	Frequency	Percentage
≤20	140	65.7	Male	107	50.2
21–35	46	21.6	Female	106	49.8
36–50	18	8.5	**Occupation**	Frequency	Percentage
50≥	9	4.2	Farmer	98	46.0
Education	Frequency	Percentage	Student	59	27.7
Primary education	54	25.4	Employed	34	16.0
Secondary	69	32.4	Unemployed	22	10.3
Graduation	69	32.4			
Master's degree	21	9.9			

Source: self-compiled (Respondent's profile)

For this study, firstly an in-depth interview was conducted with 25 major operators who is currently working for the STT at Rajasthan. Based on that interview data, themes were generated, and items were written. Initial questionnaire consisted of total of 48 items with reliability of 97.1%. The initial data was collected from a sample of 213 tribes residing in Udaipur city, on the 48 items, and were executed with an exploratory factor analysis.

Table 2: Respondents' descriptive statistics

Variable	SPSS Code	Mean	Std. Deviation
Do you agree that Tribal tourism is sustainable?	D_V	3.3850	1.19043
Better availability of basic needs (food, water and shelter)	SS_1	3.7981	1.12501
Understanding of Educational importance	SS_2	3.7981	1.18226
Improvement in sanitation facility	SS_3	3.5305	1.06632
Authentic historical and cultural traditions have been shown them properly	SS_4	3.1878	1.13372
Creating good relationships with host tribes	SS_5	3.3333	1.12714
Contribution to sustainable development is the responsibility of the Tourists also	SS_6	3.1268	1.15247
It helps the local community to maintain adequate tourism development	SS_7	3.2066	1.17944
The local community must benefit directly from the flourishing tourism	SS_8	3.4977	1.07556
Fair codes, ethics and some guidelines need to be established	SS_9	3.4977	1.19994
It enhances unique relationships among tourists, business, environment, and local communities	SS_10	2.9108	1.18422
Relationship with tourism is very positive for sustainable development	SS_11	3.6244	1.03694
Improves interaction amongst visitors, host communities and local environments	SS_12	3.5869	1.11093
Interaction and clean environments	SS_13	2.6901	1.29867
Increase informal use of Medical facility	SS_14	3.5399	1.02080
Provide financial stability to the tribal community	FS_1	2.9624	1.15272
Increase the household income of the family host tourists	FS_2	3.1455	1.19844
Reduce dependency on communal money lenders	FS_3	2.8638	1.15956
Importance of cultural heritage and natural resources need to be increased	FS_4	3.1221	1.24163
Training and education program should be established to better manage tribal tourism	FS_5	2.7465	1.19415
Growing opportunities for entrepreneurship and job creation	FS_6	3.5822	1.18523
Tribal tourism must be well planned and managed suitably	FS_7	3.0563	1.12712
Contribution to the generation of employment in society	FS_8	3.1080	1.23723
Increase visitor's direct income for conservation	FS_9	3.1033	1.19695
Stimulating investment and local resources for rural areas	ED_1	3.0141	1.26446
Sustainable tourism guidelines and principles are followed	ED_2	3.1268	1.17276
The link between local businesses and tourism is required.	ED_3	3.0751	1.14677
Help in animal husbandry, dairying and poultry	ED_4	3.6667	1.08882
Irrigation and power facilities for agriculture	ED_5	2.8779	1.23400
Assist in Credit and marketing facilities for agriculture	ED_6	3.2347	1.25942
Contribution to the economy of tribes must be well informed to them	ED_7	3.1925	1.24216
It will add real economic benefit to natural and cultural capital	ED_8	3.2911	1.14091
Increased funding for local communities' conservation	ED_9	3.1268	1.25438
Tribal Tourism should be kept at a parking space venue	FAC_1	3.1643	1.13114
Tribal Tourism should have no harmful ecological impact	FAC_2	3.2394	1.23775
Visitor protection during Tribal Tourism is high	FAC_3	2.9906	1.20920
Product and service rates are manageable (food, drinks, souvenirs)	FAC_4	3.1080	1.15030
Exceptional product and service quality (food, drink, souvenirs)	FAC_5	3.5728	1.12460
Tribal Tourism should be organised by or with the help of a local authority	FAC_6	3.4038	1.10590
Tribal Tourism is promoted among different structures of potential visitors	FAC_7	3.2113	1.17661
Developed without concern for sustainability	Prob_1	3.1408	1.22431
Tribal tourism can not only damage societies but the environment	Prob_2	3.2864	1.16459
It may even produce its death seeds	Prob_3	3.2347	1.12490

The 17 items in five factors were further analysed through factor analysis using Principal Component Extraction method and varimax with Kaiser Normalization rotation. A total of 05 factors emerged from the analysis as with 74.182 percent of variance and individually for Social Sustainability(18.106), Financial Sustainability(17.349), Economic Development (16.065), Facility (13.014), and Problems (9.647).
In the second stage the perception of the tribes is analysed to find out the social, economic, environmental sustainability with facility and problems factors and hypotheses are developed as follows:

H1: The variable configuring social sustainability dimension has a significant influence on the sustainability of tribal tourism.

H2: The variable configuring the Financial sustainability dimension has a significant influence on the sustainability of tribal tourism.

H3: The variable configuring the Economic Development sustainability dimension has a significant influence on the sustainability of tribal tourism.

H4: The variable configuring facility dimension has a significant influence on the sustainability of tribal tourism.

H5: The variable configuring problems dimension have a significant influence on the sustainability of tribal tourism.

To define core variables in the sustainability of tribal tourism, multivariate regression analysis was used with SPSS-19 software and findings are shown in Table 2 and Table 3 below.:

Table 3: Multiple Regression Analysis Result

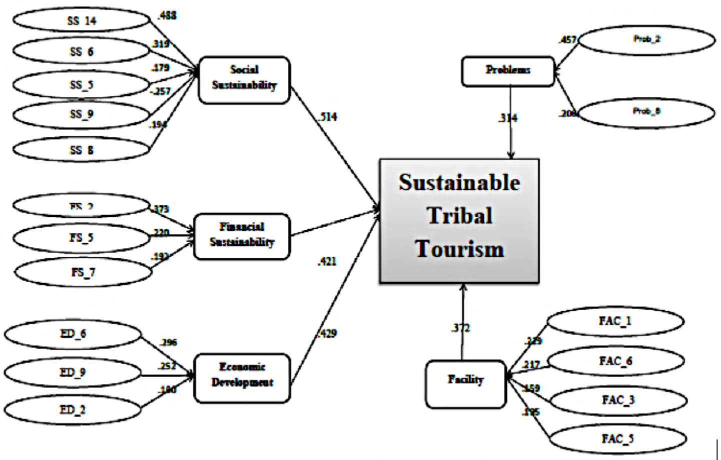
(N=213)

Variables	Variable name	Adj. R2	Beta	ANOVA	Sig.
Social Sustainability	SS_14	.514	.488	45.842	$.000^{f}$
	SS_6		.319		
	SS_5		.179		
	SS_9		-.257		
	SS_8		.194		
Financial Sustainability	FS_2	.421	.373	52.436	$.000^{d}$
	FS_5		.220		
	FS_7		.192		
Economic Development	ED_6	.429	.296	54.102	$.000^{d}$
	ED_9		.252		
	ED_2		.180		
Facility	FAC_1	.372	.229	32.343	$.000^{e}$
	FAC_6		.217		
	FAC_3		.159		
	FAC_5		.195		
Problems	Prob_2	.314	.457	49.564	$.000^{c}$
	Prob_8		.206		

The results of stepwise regression (Table 3) show that social, economic, environmental sustainability, facility and problems dimension have a positive impact on the sustainability in tribal tourism. Specifically, if social, Financial, Economic sustainability and facility dimensions are used, it improves the sustainability of tribal tourism. These will improve ST with .514, .421, .429, .372 and .314 with statistical significance of 5%. Meanwhile, variables Creating good relationships with hosts tribes (SS_5), contribution for sustainable development is responsibility of Tourists also (SS_6), The local community must benefit directly from the flourishing tourism (SS_8), Fair codes, ethics and some guidelines need to be established (SS_9), Increase in formal use of Medical facility (SS_14), Increase household income of the family host tourists (FS_2), training and education program should be established to better manage tribal tourism (FS_5), Tribal tourism must be well planned and managed suitably (FS_7), Sustainable tourism guidelines and principles are followed (ED_2), Assist in Credit and marketing facilities for agriculture (ED_6), Increase in support for conservation from local communities (ED_9), Tribal Tourisms should be held at a location with secured parking space (FAC_1), Safety of visitors during the Tribal Tourisms is on high level (FAC_3), quality of products and services is exceptional (food, beverages, souvenirs)(FAC_5), Tribal Tourisms should be organised by or with the help of local authority(FAC_6) positively impact and with Tribal tourism can not only damage societies but the environment (Prob_2) and Damage the natural, social or cultural environment of tribal community (Prob_8) negatively impacts on sustainability of tribal tourism.

The signs of coefficient β1 (β1>0) imply the relationship between individual variables with social sustainability, economic sustainability, environmental sustainability and facility to tourists and problems dimensions. It does mean that when the above variables are used, it will increase tribal tourism sustainability. Further, all the selected variables in the model are fit to predict the sustainability of tribal tourism as proven by the ANOVA analysis, which provides the statistical test for overall model fit in terms of F Ratio. Using the values of the predictor in the model, these errors can be reduced significantly, and they explain the sustainability of tribal tourism.

Figure 1: Sustainable Tribal Tourism Model



Source: SPSS-AMOS software, complied based upon the data analysis.

5 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The trible community of Rajasthan still do not represent an exception community-based tourism development because of their strong sovereignty, appropriate institutions, and self-determination, which also attract the Tourists more. STT will place direct strain on cultural habitats, triggering physical habitat degradation and biodiversity destruction. It will also put tremendous pressure on tribal cultures and split up traditional structures. It is a fragile, insecure source of income since tourism is also very susceptible to actual or perceived shifts in travel destinations' environmental and social conditions. However, we are all familiar with tourism's downsides, including economic exploitation, cultural degradation and, most notably, environmental degradation, particularly in mass tourism destinations (Singh, 2005). The predicted increased number of tourists could greatly exacerbate these problems (Hassan, 2008).

The Economic Development sustainability dimension will be increased funding for local communities' conservation and requested guidelines and principles with help and assistance in marketing facilities for agriculture. The facility dimension requires the parking facilities and service quality (food, drink, souvenirs) and demand the local authority's involvement. On the problem side, it is believed that it can damage societies environment with a chance to damage the natural, social, or cultural environment of the tribal community.

This study summarized five recommendations for its growth with Social Sustainability, Financial Sustainability, Economic Development and facility part from the government side and reduction of the problems faced by both tribles and the tourists, than only the tribal tourism become the STT. Furthermore, in reaction to the study, efforts should be made to avoid this avalanche of travellers' devastating economic, social, and environmental impacts. Most importantly, the quest for tourism that retains rather than destroys, along with the campaign for sustainable growth, has contributed to sustainable tribal tourism.

5.1 Implication to theory and practice

The STT improvement will be useful for the economic and social growth of the tribles with the overall increase in the balance of payment of the country. It is a mode of the trible's contribution in the cultural hertage as theory. Further, it practically has raised the question of mixing and loosing up the rich culture of the tribles who are moving form the histry and making them the uniques. The STT will be a base for the economic activities and mixing up the culture and cultural exchange between the traditional and modern community. For the practice it will be hard to merge the culture but providing facilities to the foreign tourists but taking them to come and see the trible's life will be a new experience. The practice must be in the direction of making the sucess of STT covering all the aspects of the STT, is major limitations and is not an easy task.

5.2 Social Implication

The STT will be a new revolution and a power to raise the social improvement of the tribles, no only with the income growth but also by increasing their contribution in national income. Although there is a danger of mixing up and losing their cultural hertage yet they can make a boarder to adopt the social changes that brings in with the STT. On the financial side, it will increase the income of the tribes that also demand their own willingness to adopt it with good planning and proper management. Further, It can create and build relationships in the cultures and demand fair codes, ethics, and some guidelines that need to be established.

5.3 Recommendation

The study's recoomendations for the host community is the way they can improve their income with STT and the help needed for the agricultural activities. It further presented the facts that tribal tourism will be only sustainable if social, financial, and economic development is reached. For the authority part, the study unravelled the facts that the facilities for the same needs to be rethink as legal framework, medical facilities, tourist-related facilities (parking, road etc.) that needs to be improved with the involvement of the local authorities. On the other hand, tourist protection is also a significant concern for both authority and operator. For the critical operator, the implication is a requirement of training needs to be fulfilled.

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SUBMITTED: DEC 2021
REVISION SUBMITTED: MAR 2022
ACCEPTED: APR 2022
REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

PUBLISHED ONLINE: 30 MAY 2022

Check for updates

Interactions between stakeholders in Lourdes: An 'Alpha' framework approach

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Abstract:

Purpose: *Taking Lourdes as an en example, this paper aims at understanding the relationship amongst the main tourism and events industry stakeholders.*
Methods: *To achieve the objective of the study, data were collected through interviews of key players. The results where then filtered through the 'Alpha' framework to theorise the interactions amongst stakeholders.*
Results: *The study also provides a (1) typology of the ultimate alpha syndrome in the context of destination management; (2) typology of the delta syndrome. (3) Finally, the study argues that in destinations where there is an ultimate alpha hallmark event, or an ultimate alpha stakeholder, a situation quite similar to an anti-competitive market can arise. This situation is referred as 'ultimate alpha tourism monopoly'.*
Implications: *Based on the findings of this study, Destination Marketing Organisations need to ensure that there is a suitable synergy amongst all stakeholders involved in the tourism industry (and related sector), to avoid anti-competitive market 'ultimate alpha tourism monopoly' to arise.*

Keywords: *Lourdes, Alpha framework, Hallmark, Destination management, Performance*

JEL Classification: *O52, Z3, L1*

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1 INTRODUCTION

Existing research has already pointed out the lack or ineffective collaboration amongst stakeholders as a factor at the origin of failure of the sustainability in the tourism industry and cognate sectors (Séraphin et al, 2018; Sun, Rodriguez, Wu & Chuang, 2013). As for Todd, Leask and Ensor (2017), they have established a hierarchy (primary and secondary stakeholders) amongst stakeholders in the event industry. Other academics such as Cayla and Peyrache-Gadeau (2019); Kirschner (2019); Reid and Accordia (2002); Rouard and Schegg (2019), suggested a typology of stakeholders, with an emphasis on comparing and/or contrasting roles and importance. This study is in line with of all these preceded mentioned research as introducing a new typology of event coined as 'ultimate alpha', while theorising the interactions between these stakeholders using a framework which has never been used yet in event management academic research. In a nutshell, this study is offering a different perspective of religious tourism, which is an important segment of the tourism industry (Chantziantoniou & Dionysopoulou, 2017), and an important element of some destination branding (Zouni & Digkas, 2019).

The purpose of this paper is to develop a research agenda to better understand the interaction between stakeholders in a destination. So doing, the study is using the 'Alpha' framework. This framework has previously been used in tourism academic research to discuss gender as a variable when it comes to of career achievement as tourism academics (Ek & Larson, 2017). Using a science or zoology framework in a management research paper is part of the authors critical approach, and part of their will to explore the topic of stakeholder interaction from a different perspective. Indeed, Lugosi (2016) explains that multi-disciplinary approach helps to find inspiration, new ideas, and equally important, to go beyond our normal areas of interests.

Like Getz (2012), who formulated seven future research propositions in the field of events management, this introduction using the 'Alpha' framework is formulating three propositions specific to the interaction amongst stakeholders involved in destination management. As for the body of the study, it is offering a background to understand where these three propositions are coming from.

ISSN: 2529-1947. UDC: 658.8+338.48+339.1+640(05)
http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6583743
Published online: 30 May 2022
www.jthsm.gr

Proposition 1 (P1): The lack of cooperation amongst stakeholders of a destination triggers a certain number of syndromes, amongst these are the ‘Alpha Syndrome’, and the ‘Delta Syndrome’.
Proposition 2 (P2): Despite the fact the involvement of all stakeholders is important in the success of an event (and destination), this does not stop the fact that a hierarchy amongst them remains.
Proposition 3 (P3): In destinations where there is an ultimate alpha hallmark event, or an ultimate alpha stakeholder, a situation quite like an anti-competitive market can arise (an ‘ultimate Alpha tourism oligopoly’).
At this stage, it is worth mentioning the fact this study is a collaboration between an academic and a practitioner, who also happens to be working at a senior management level for the tourist office in Lourdes. It is not uncommon that research is informed by the position of their authors (Hammond & Wellington, 2013). It is also important to mention the fact that the role of the second author at the tourist information centre has no known competing financial interest or personal and professional relationships that could have appeared to influence the information reported in this study. The involvement of the second author in this study has to do with the fact she is a PhD candidate.

2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. The alpha

Taking the example of a wolf pack, the ‘alpha’ is the dominant member of a group, in other words, the one at the top of the hierarchy (Mech, 1999). The posture of the ‘alpha’ is what distinguishes it from others during social interactions (Mech, 1999), and its role is to make a decision for the entire pack. Having said that, the ‘alpha’ is not necessarily the strongest member of the pack, but certainly the most capable to lead (Mirjalili, Mirjalili & Lewis, 2014). The alpha does not command on its own, it is helped by the ‘beta’, which role is to advise the alpha; discipline members of the pack; reinforce orders given by the alpha; and give feedback to the alpha. It is also worth mentioning that it (beta) is the next one in line, if something was to happen to the alpha (Mirjalili et al., 2014). Just below the beta is the ‘omega’, which is the lowest level in the pack. It has to obey to all other dominant wolves. Its scapegoating role within the pack contributes to vent frustrations, and therefore tension with the pack. All the other wolves are subordinates, also called ‘delta’ (Mirjalili et al., 2014).
Applied to mankind, Ludeman and Erlandson (2006) explained that human history is full of alpha males, whom he presents as being authoritative and powerful individuals males who have done and achieved exceptional matters, such as: discovering new places; inventing new products and services; being in winning teams; heading big businesses; etc. Ludeman and Erlandson (2006), also added that they are individuals who are either feared and/or admired. They are also deemed to be very important for a society because of their leadership skills. Despite the positive depiction of alphas, it is also important to mention that they may have negative impacts on their organisations and/or surrounding, as all the elements that contribute to their strengths, are also their weaknesses, and as a result, have negative impacts (Ludeman & Erlandson, 2006).
The concept of alpha is therefore to be related to the concepts of scapegoat and villain, who are considered simultaneously as harmful individuals/organisations but also as heroes (Mirjalili et al., 2014; Mkono, Hughes & Echentille, 2020). This ambidextrous or Janusian nature of the alpha (Ludeman & Erlandson, 2006) described in table 1 below, is to be related to the ambidextrous or Janusian nature of the tourism industry (Sanchez & Adams, 2008).

Table 1: The alpha syndrome: When strengths become liabilities

Alpha attitude	Value to organisation	Risk to organisation
Dominant, confident, take charge	Decisive, courageous leader, get people to take action and move forward	Does not develop strong leaders, intimidating, create fear, stifle disagreement
Charismatic, magnetic leader who leads the way	Brings out the best in others	Manipulates to get his way
Aggressive, competitive	Determined to win, and turn others into winners	Competes with peers
High achiever	Produces results	Takes strong performance for granted
Bold, innovative, creative thinker	Solves problems, see further than others	Imposes own views
Persistent	Has courageous convictions	Drives others to exhaustion, thinks rules do not apply to him
Strong appetite for newness and change	Drives people and organisations to change and growth	Overzealous
Sees what is possible	Can see gaps and potentials	Focuses on the future
Sees what is missing	Spots problems and prevents them for getting worse	Fails to recognise others’ contributions

Source: The author (Adapted from: Ludeman & Erlandson, 2006)

Apart from this paper, the concept of alpha has been used in tourism academic research only once. Indeed, in order to highlight the consequences of the glass ceiling phenomenon on women career and image in academia, Ek and Larson (2017) explain that the most celebrated academics in tourism are males, whom he calls the ‘alpha male’. Those males, presented as pioneers, conductors, and acting as mentors, are often journal editors invited at conferences, etc... (Ek & Larson, 2017). Out of all the 54 leading academics in tourism identified by the study, only 7% (4) are women (Ek & Larson, 2017).

2.2. Hallmark events (as alpha events)

Hallmark events, also referred as mega event or special events, are those with international status, which contribute

to give competitive advantage to destinations in terms of image within the tourism industry, while addressing the issue of seasonality (Getz, Svensson, Peterssen & Gunnervall, 2012; Hall, 1989), and more generally speaking, local development issues (Chirieleison & Scrucca, 2017). Hallmark events support the development of social capital amongst members of a community, while also giving them opportunities for self-expression (Getz et al., 2012). Additionally, they are either totally or partially financed by public money and are expected to generate large benefits for all stakeholders, particularly the hospitality, transport and entertainment sectors, however, the positive impacts of hallmark events are short term (Hall, 1989). Hallmark events (alphas) by definition place themselves at the top of the hierarchy of other events, and/or stakeholders of the industry. As far as long-term sustainability in the tourism industry is concerned, the role and involvement of all stakeholders have been identified as key. A good organisation and interaction amongst them is also required (Todd, Leask & Ensor, 2017). This is all the more important amongst primary stakeholders, as they are involved at all stages of the planning and delivering of the event (Todd et al, 2017).
According to the stakeholder theory, a good interaction and organisation implies clear roles for each stakeholder; ethical, equitable, successful relationship; and risk sharing (Sun, Rodriguez, Wu & Chuang, 2013; Todd et al, 2017). The stakeholder theory is therefore calling for a context where alpha, beta, omega, and delta would be working hand in hand, as opposed to how a wolf pack is currently organised. As a matter of fact, the failure of the 2009 World Game in Taiwan (considered as a hallmark event), was partly attributed to an ineffective collaboration amongst stakeholders (Sun et al, 2013). Tension within any group where there is a hierarchy (Mech, 1999; Mirjalili et al, 2014) could be addressed using Consensus Problem- Solving Model (CPSM).

2.3. Consensus Problem- Solving Model (CPSM)
Consensus Problem- Solving Model (CPSM) is a tool that enables solving problems amongst members of an ecosystem (Harley, 1996). The CPSM is articulated around 11 steps:

- *Step 1.* Transition to team status - which is based on the principle that teamwork as a tool, consists in assisting members to move from taking individual actions to collective actions to deal with an issue. This could be achieved by identifying how each member feel, without censuring any point of view.
- *Step 2.* Identify the problem – Until that step that aims to encourage solution sharing, members of the group were working individually to sort out problems they are facing, without agreeing on a problem to be solved, and how to do it.
- *Step 3.* Agree on the problem – All members need to agree on the problem to address.
- *Step 4.* Identify the facts – Members can voice their opinions on the problem even if they are contradictory.
- *Step 5.* Agree on the facts – At this stage, all disagreements are discussed until a consensus is found.
- *Step 7.* Agree on the principles/values involved – If consensus is still not achieved, objectives are changed until an agreement is reached.
- *Step 8.* Identify the solutions – This step is all about coordinating the efforts of the team.
- *Step 9.* Agree on the solutions - One solution or a bundle of solutions are identified.
- *Step 10 and 11.* Identification and implementation steps – At this stage, the implementation of the strategy is discussed, alongside the assignment of roles to members, and deadlines.

2.4. Hypothesis
Based on information collected in section 2, it seems that there are three main types of alphas:
First, the member who stands out from the crowd thanks to his personal and individual achievement. This alpha does not have to collaborate with others. Actually, collaboration might impact negatively on him (Ek & Larson, 2017; Ludeman & Erlandson, 2006). For those alphas, CPSM does not apply.
The second type of alphas, are alphas leading, but in collaboration with others, without whom they would not succeed (Mech, 1999; Mirjalili et al, 2014). For those alphas CPSM applies.
The third and final group, combines characteristics of the two other types of alphas. That would be the case of alpha hallmark events, which stand out from other type of events as they are iconic by nature (Chirieleison & Scrucca, 2017; Getz et al, 2012; Hall, 1989), but also need to work with other stakeholders for their sustainability (Sun et al., 2013).
This study is arguing (Hypothesis 1) that alpha hallmark events, which are falling in the third category of alphas, are finding themselves in an ambidextrous context, namely a context combining opposites simultaneously (Vo-Thanh, Séraphin, Okumus, & Koseoglu, 2020), which put them in a difficult situation, resulting sometimes in failure (Sun et al., 2013), due to tensions (Mech, 1999). This alpha is what this study is referring to as the ‘ultimate alpha’, namely, a tourism driver within an ecosystem which is more interested with personal performance rather than group performance, and which is subsequently unable to develop large scale projects. The ‘ultimate alpha’ could be assimilated to what Brooker and Joppe (2014, p. 500) called a ‘painter’ (as opposed to ‘artist’ and ‘artisan’) in their tourism innovation typology: ‘The painter’s art is exclusive rather than inclusive, based on personal rather than broader perspectives. In essence, painters anticipate that the past will be replicated in the future such that what worked yesterday will work tomorrow’.
For the ultimate alphas CPSM applies, but need to be adapted. As a result, this study is then arguing (hypothesis 2) that a consensus amongst tourism stakeholders must not be systematically looked for in a context where there is an ultimate alpha hallmark event, in order not to tone down the driving force potential of the event. Indeed, Brooker and Joppe (2014) explain that despite the fact ‘artists’ and ‘artisans’ can be prolific and quite innovative, they are sometimes disconnected from the real world. Instead of a CPSM, a Problem- Solving Intersection Model (PSIM) might be needed., in other words, a model that enables to solve problems amongst members of an ecosystem, while ensuring that the key features and strengths of each stakeholders are maintained and used for the benefits of all.

3 CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK: AN OVERVIEW

Religious tourism (which includes the visit of religious sites) is one of the oldest, and most popular form of tourism in the world, as a matter of fact, more than 50% of individuals visit a religious place when holidaying in France (Grimaud, 2003). Pilgrimages which can be considered as a quest for healing (Winkelman & Dubisch, 2005), are one of the fastest growing motivation for travel (Conigham, 2016). The interaction amongst individuals is the main motivator, (Bajc et al., 2007). For this form of tourism to be sustainable, a strong partnership amongst stakeholders should exist in order to improve the quality of products and services delivered to visitors; share good practices; set up a more effective marketing strategy, etc. (Grimaud, 2003).
As for Lourdes, it attracts a wide range of visitors in terms of age, nationality, length of stay, etc. (Tavares & Thomas, 2007). The main reason for their visit is to see the grotto where Bernadette Soubirous appeared in 1858 (Thomas et al., 2018). Visitors are also motivated by a quest for authenticity (Moufahim & Lichrou, 2019). From 1858 to the early 2000s, the number of pilgrims to Lourdes has been steadily increasing to reach around 790,000 international arrivals in 2019, representing around 2,2 million overnight stays (Insee, 2019). If the COVID-19 pandemics has impacted the number of visitors, Séraphin and Jarraud (2021) are suggesting that the online delivery of some of the main pilgrimages will on the long-term generate even more visitors to the destination. Seasons at Lourdes are determined by pilgrimages, what made Lourdes a tourism destination (Eade, 1992), and place the Lourdes Pilgrimages as 'ultimate alpha' hallmark events. Indeed, every euro invested by the Sanctuary (entity in charge of hosting all the pilgrimages) turns into 12 euros return on investment for the destination (Guénois, 2020). It is not farfetched to assume that the hospitality sector is the main beneficiary of this godsend, as over the years the number of hotels in Lourdes have grown steadily to reach a total of 275 (15,000 rooms) in 1993 (Insee, 1993). However, since the turn of the century, the number of hotels have been dropping steadily to 135 hotels in 2021(Insee, 2021). Having said that, Lourdes remains the second city in France, in terms of hotel capacity right after Paris and just before Nice, Marseille, Bordeaux (Rinschede, 2009), which are rather big cities compared to Lourdes, which only accounts for 13,389 inhabitants (Insee, 2017).
Despite the fact that Lourdes is an established tourist destination (Séraphin & Jarraud, 2021), this study (which is focusing on the working relationship amongst stakeholders), is from now on going to investigate the relationship between the Sanctuary and the hospitality sector as they are the most prominent stakeholders of the event tourism sector at destination level (Séraphin & Jarraud, 2021).

4 METHODOLOGY

4.1. Positionality

In research, 'positionality' is all about how the authors position themselves with regards to the conduct of their study, as their position can affect the entire process (Hammond & Wellington, 2013). Having said that, positionality is presented as a 'double-edged sword' by Hammond and Wellington (2013) on the basis that when practitioners take advantage of their position to inform their research, it leads to sounder research outcomes, and more valid outcomes (Rogelberg, 2008; Warwick, McCray & Palmer, 2021), as their experience is filling gaps in knowledge that other researchers in the team (or not) may have (De Lavergne, 2007). Using a personal position is totally legitimate in research, as this positionality is at the heart of 'action research', a well-established research method, usually applied by practitioners on an attempt to improve practice within an organisation (Hammond & Wellington, 2013; Quinlan, 2011).
This study could be assimilated to some extent to action research, as one of the authors of this study works for the Lourdes DMO. Having said that, the purpose of this research is not to improve any current management approach, but instead, to understand how a theoretical framework (Alpha framework), could be applied to theorise the interaction between stakeholders within the destination. Based on the objective of the study, it is in the best interest of the authors to be as objective and critical as possible. Additionally, whatever the outcome of the study, the authors have no conflict of interest (as already stated in the introduction).
It is also worth mentioning that action research (and more broadly speaking, research requiring authors to take advantage of their position) 'has always been the poor relation in academic research' (Warwick et al, 2021: 388). Equally important, the purpose of results collected from action research does not need to be generalised as the full purpose of the approach is to use the findings at individual or local level (Warwick et al, 2021).

4.2 Qualitative research approach

As often in qualitative research, qualitative interviews have been conducted following an unstructured approach. This method of interviewing implies that the interviewer is not guided by any framework, but instead is led by the participants' narratives (Moyle, 2002). This method of interview has proven to be in some cases more reliable than structured interviews (Axelson, Kreiter, Feguson, Solow & Huebner, 2010), mainly due to the fact that participants are not influenced in any way whatsoever by the interviewer (Moyle, 2002).
When conducting the interviews, the second author introduced herself as working for the tourist information centre, not only to get access to the respondents, but also for credibility reasons. Indeed, De Lavergne (2019) explains that when a practitioner-researcher carries-out research, s/he needs to take full advantage of it position, as not only facilitates access to respondents, but gives the practitioner-researcher more credibility. Additionally, before starting interviewing respondents, the second author highlighted the following to them: (a) She is conducting the interview as a PhD candidate, and not as an employee of the tourist office (b) she then explained the purpose of the study, and how long the interview would take (c) it was also explained to the respondents that their answers will be kept anonymous and confidential (d) respondents were told that they could withdraw from the study at any time (e) last but not least, the second author ensured that her body language was not displaying any kind of judgement. Basically, all interviewing good practices as detailed by Alami et al. (2019) has been

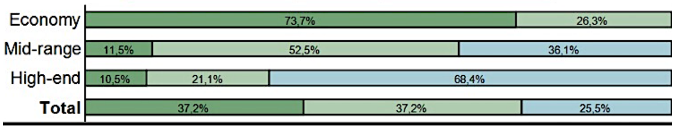
applied. The same impartiality has been applied when analysing and discussing the verbatim.

4.3. Data collection

This empirical study is based on interviews of two of the main stakeholders of the tourism industry in Lourdes, namely the hoteliers (110) and the representatives of the Sanctuary (3). The hospitality sector is not an heterogenous sector, which can be segmented in many ways (Bowie, Buttle, Brookes & Mariussen, 2017; Evans, 2020); Okumus, Altinay, Chathoth & Koseoglu, 2020). Among these are: the type of accommodation (hotels, motels, guest houses, villas, and time-shares, etc); the standard of the hotel (luxury hotels, boutique hotels, midmarket hotels, budget hotels); their purpose and philosophy (boutique hotels, eco hotels and resorts, large convention and gambling centres; extended stay hotels, capsule hotels, etc); the size (small, medium, and large); and the type of customers targeted (corporate, vacationers, etc.). In Lourdes, the hotels can be classified as follow (figure 1).

Figure 1: The hospitality sector in Lourdes

	Small	Medium	Big	Total
Economy	42	15	0	57
Mid-range	7	32	22	61
High-end	2	4	13	19
Total	51	51	35	137



Source: The authors

In order to provide reliable and valid data, every single hotel manager has been considered in this study. Only 10 refused to be involved (for a variety of reasons). This research approach is one of the most commonly used to collect data (Gill et al., 2008). The hoteliers and representatives were interviewed between July and November 2020. The context (COVID-19) was particularly convenient to get hold of the hoteliers, as all the hotels were closed, as the hospitality sector was one the most impacted by the pandemic in the world (Krishnan et al., 2020). It is also worth mentioning the fact that 34% of hotel owners in Lourdes own more than one establishment (Lourdes Tourist Office database).

The data (verbatim) were originally collected in French, the mother language of the respondents, in order to ensure a greater reliability of the data (Brunt, Horner & Semley, 2017; Mkono et al., 2020). The verbatim collected in this study have not been translated and/or edited for grammatical errors to preserve their raw authenticity, and avoid translation issues (Brunt, Horner & Semley, 2017; Mkono et al, 2020). Having said that, the verbatim have been translated into English, for the benefits of the readers of the study.

4.4. Data coding and analysis

Amongst the research strategies suggested by Getz (2012), when planning to suggest a research agenda are: Hermeneutics research (analysis of texts); and phenomenology (in-depth interviews). This is the approach adopted in this study.

A qualitative inductive method has been applied to the coding. Inductive method allows the researcher to start with some theories and apply them to a specific context (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This approach contributes to consistency, clear meaning , and understand of social realities (Boyatzis, 1998; Patton, 2002). In the case of this study, it is the relationship between an 'ultimate alpha' hallmark event and hoteliers. So doing, the coding of the verbatim following the interview of hoteliers is largely influenced by conceptual framework of the study. Indeed, the negative comments regarding the Sanctuary have to be related to table 1 (first and last column). As for the coding of verbatim following the interview of the Sanctuary they have been mainly influenced by the hypothesis (2.1) developed in this study.

The interviews have been coded and analysed using the MAXQDA software, which is part of the Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) package (Baugh et al., 2010; Morison & Moir, 1998). It supports text exploration and analysis (Lejeune, 2019), and proposes graphical representation of findings (Lewins & Silver, 2007). MAXQDA was used due to the fact it is considered to be better suited for text analysis and coding than NVIVO (Saillard, 2011), and even more so when it comes to tourism academic research (Trawoger, 2014).

5 FINDINGS

5.1 Alpha 1 and risks for the destination

Hoteliers in Lourdes are expressing very strong feelings against the Sanctuary, which they argue are leading the town to the wrong direction.

-"The Sanctuary has killed the town"
-"They have stolen our excursions"
-"The Sanctuary does not help us"
-"There is not enough communication"

It appears that the Sanctuary has an influential role:

- "They decide the day and time of the pilgrimage, as a result, they influence the season. Their objective is first and foremost to have all their rooms booked'

A good (tour) guide is supposed to be a good animator, someone who interacts with the people he is leading, while listening and respecting their preferences (Cohen, 1985). The hoteliers are saying that the Sanctuary is doing the opposite.

The Sanctuary can also be perceived as persistent with courageous convictions, driving others to exhaustion. Rules do not seem to apply to them:

- "Oh no, don't even mention the Sanctuary, have you seen what they did to us!" (referring to the virtual pilgrimage)

The Sanctuary is depicted by hoteliers as a scapegoat/villain and a hero at the same time. Criticism towards the Sanctuary are powerful, nevertheless, it is recognised as an alpha. The Sanctuary could therefore be compared to Janus, the Roman god who looked into opposite directions simultaneously, and whom has been pivotal in the creation of the world (Rothenberg, 1996). A Janusian thinking approach, or ambidextrous approach is therefore required to understand the Sanctuary. This is another reference to the ambidextrous or Janusian nature of the tourism industry (Sanchez & Adams, 2008).

5.2 Alpha 2 and value for the destination

Despite the fact hoteliers scapegoat the Sanctuary, they are also aware of its driving tourism potential as hoteliers (9) commented on the fact that the closer an hotel is to the Sanctuary, the more customers it has. "It is in the lower part of the town, near the Sanctuary, that businesses are flourishing" (Laborie, 1981, p. 548).

- "In Lourdes, being nearby the Sanctuary is a competitive advantage".

- "I am 2 minutes away from the Sanctuary! You can tell the difference with other hoteliers".

One hotelier even sold his hotel, and bought one closer to the Sanctuary:

"I have changed to be closer to the Sanctuary".

Despite their criticism, hoteliers are acknowledging the driving role of the Sanctuary, and is expecting a lot from it:

- "If the Sanctuary doesn't help us, we're not going to make it"

- "If there were no Sanctuary, there would be no hotels in Lourdes"

The hoteliers are also acknowledging the importance for all stakeholders to work together:

- "Unless we can get the city council, the Sanctuary, hoteliers, shopkeepers, etc. together, it won't work".

Nevertheless, they are also well aware about the difficulties of putting this collaboration into practice:

- "Each stakeholder has its own agenda"
- "I don't know if we will succeed, but it's our ambition"
- "It takes a real effort to get all stakeholders to work together"

As illustrated by literature and table 2, an effective collaboration amongst stakeholders is required for the sustainable development of a destination.

5.3 Alpha 3 and appetite for newness and changes

The preceded verbatim highlighted the perspectives of hoteliers. The following quotes are from the Sanctuary:

The Sanctuary sheds light on the existing mistrust between them and the hoteliers.

- "Hotels regard the Sanctuary with suspicion. It is because we are also an accommodation provider".

Here, it is worth highlighting the fact that the Sanctuary insisted during the interview on the fact they are not competing against the local hoteliers as they do not offer the same standard of service:

- "Our rooms are falling apart. They are not nice"
- "We do not provide nicely presented soaps in the bathrooms"
- "We do not provide sheets, and customers have to make their own bed"

Sanctuary understands that both its future and the future of local hoteliers are entwined. This is in line with the stakeholders' theory which states that the actions of members of a group impact on the others (Anderson & Getz, 2008).

- "Our future is connected"
- "We can't survive without the hotels and the shopkeepers"

During the interview, the Sanctuary mentioned its will to be more integrative in their management approach:

- "Instead of being a city within a city, we want to be an actor of the territory development"

6 RESEARCH DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Lourdes pilgrimages and the Sanctuary from the perspectives of hoteliers

The verbatim from hoteliers and Sanctuary are actually backing up the fact that Lourdes is a destination spearheaded by an 'ultimate alpha' event with the benefits and limitations already identified by Ludeman and Erlandson (2006). As a result, the first proposition of the study for future research is as follow:

Proposition 1 (P1): The lack of cooperation amongst stakeholders of a destination triggers a certain number of syndromes, amongst these are the 'Alpha Syndrome', and the 'Delta Syndrome'.

Based on the Mirjalili et al (2014) model, the alpha leads with the beta whom role is to help, advise, and give feedback to the alpha; while disciplining other members of the pack; and reinforcing orders given by the alpha. The results of this research are challenging Mirjalili et al (2014), as the Sanctuary which is allegedly the alpha is developing strategies which are not taking into consideration the hoteliers who are not playing the role of beta. Still according to Mirjalili et al (2014), the omega, who is just below the beta (lowest level), only has to obey the alpha and the beta. As the hoteliers in Lourdes do not play this role either, they can't be considered as omega. As delta are mere subordinates (Mirjalili et al, 2014), it appears as the role that suits the most the conditions of hoteliers in Lourdes for the moment. For this reason, this study is referring to the Sanctuary and Lourdes pilgrimages as 'ultimate alpha' hallmark event.

Based on the Ludeman and Erlandson (2006) model, the Sanctuary (ultimate alpha) simultaneously represents a value (alpha hero) and a risk (alpha villain) for the destination. The Hall (1989) model adds more specificity to the risks, by highlighting the fact that the attitude of the Sanctuary might cause a leakage of profits from the destination (alpha villain). Groups or individuals angered by others tend to put forward their positive contributions to the community (hero statements), against less positive contributions (villain statement) on the same community in order to find an agreement (Mkono et al, 2020). The preceded information, has led to the formulation of the second research proposition:

Proposition 2 (P2): Despite the fact the involvement of all stakeholders is important in the success of an event (and destination), this does not stop the fact that a hierarchy amongst them remains.

The preceded information, has also led to the reiteration of the research proposition 1:

Proposition 1 (P1): The lack of cooperation amongst stakeholders of a destination triggers a certain number of syndromes, amongst these are the 'Alpha Syndrome', and the 'Delta Syndrome'.

The reason why the Sanctuary is scapegoated is also due to the dissonance based on the fact that the sanctuary does not live up to the expectations hoteliers have of leaders. The hoteliers are accusing the Sanctuary of Moral double standards which happens 'when people judge the transgressions of others more harshly than their own transgressions' (Mkono, 2020, p. 4). Indeed, it seems that the Sanctuary is putting its own interests first, despite the fact it fully knows its driver role for the destination. Visser (2015) argues that sustainability leaders should focus on the interests of the group before their own.

6.2. Hoteliers in Lourdes from the perspective of the Sanctuary

Based on the Mirjalili et al (2014) model, the Sanctuary perceives itself as an alpha, willing to lead with the hoteliers, whom they would like to view as beta, and / or omega, instead they are perceived as delta. That said, the Sanctuary admits that its working relationship with hoteliers could be better, hence the gap in comprehension. Based on the Ludeman and Erlandson (2006) model, the Sanctuary views itself as bringing value to the destination, which is not fully maximised, due to the fact that hoteliers are taking the current performance of hospitality sector in Lourdes for granted, and drive others (Sanctuary) to exhaustion, by relying too heavily on them (Hall, 1989 model).

Table 2: The ultimate alpha and Delta syndrome in the context of destination management: Values and risks

	Attitude	Value to organisation	Risk to organisation
Ultimate Alpha	Dominant, confident, take charge	Produces results	Does not develop strong leaders, intimidating, create fear, stifle disagreement
	Aggressive, competitive	Has courageous convictions	Takes strong performance for granted and/or leakage of profits from host community
			Imposes its own views
			Drives others to exhaustion, thinks rules do not apply to him
			Overzealous
Delta	Sees what is possible	Can see gaps and potentials	Takes strong performance for granted
	Sees what is missing	Spots problems and prevents them for getting worse	Drives others to exhaustion, thinks rules do not apply to him, and fails to recognise others' contributions

Source: The author (Adapted from: Adapted from: Hall, 1989; Ludeman & Erlandson, 2006)

The Sanctuary is accusing the hoteliers of moral duplicity, which is 'the false appearance of virtue or morality by preaching one thing while doing another, or publicly criticising others for things one actually does oneself' (Mkono, 2020, p 4).

6.3. From the blind spots to the Consensus Problem-Solving Model (CPSM)

The discrepancy between the way the Sanctuary and the hoteliers perceived themselves, and the way they perceive each other, highlights the existence of blind-spots within the destination. Blakeley (2007, p 21) argues that 'blind spots are areas where we resist learning and prevent us from adapting and learning'. (Blakeley, 2007, p 35). Blind spots also have negative impacts on interactions amongst individuals, and on perceptions (Blakeley, 2007). The existence of the blind spots denotes a certain hypocrisy within the destination, which arise when stakeholders are uncomfortable with their actions and the ones of others, but are denying it, and therefore not taking actions to sort out the issue (Mkono, 2020). Tourism hypocrisy could be used as an indicator or barometer for the performance of a destination (Mkono, 2020).

The results of this study (section 3-4) have covered stage 1 to 4 of the Consensus Problem- Solving Model (CPSM), namely the identification of the issues and its sources. Section 5-10 which are basically about finding solutions to the issues is starting from this point (5.3). This study is arguing that it is the role of DMOs to address issues amongst stakeholders in order to ensure a smooth management of the destination, so that the latest can perform to the best of its performance (Gowreesunkar, Séraphin & Morisson, 2017). As part of the CPSM, an anti-competitive situation in the tourism industry needs to be put in place.

In the tourism industry, anti-competitive situations happen when a dominant organisation exert some kind of control over less prominent organisations (Font & Sallows, 2002). In small destinations, and developing destinations, major international tourism organisations (hotel chains, tour operators, etc.) are sometimes engaged in anti-competitive practices at the expense of other tourism organisations which are often smaller (Rodriguez & Murdy, 2006; Valentin & Boghean, 2007). As a result, to protect those smaller and/or local organisations, destinations are enforcing anti-competitive or antitrust measures, but these measures have often proven to be ineffective due to a lack of political will (Rodriguez & Murdy, 2006; Valentin & Boghean, 2007). This situation happens in contexts where there is no legal framework regarding how actors should behave in a specific sector (Valentin & Boghean, 2007). As a result, setting sustainability standards could be a solution (Font & Sallows, 2002).

The Sanctuary is exerting an indirect control over the economic sustainability of the tourism industry in Lourdes, as its driver role puts it in an ultimate alpha position within the tourism ecosystem of the destination. In the case of this destination, anti-competitive situation is not happening out of choice, but by default. On that basis, the third research proposition of the study is:

Proposition 3 (P3): In destinations where there is an ultimate alpha hallmark event, or an ultimate alpha stakeholder, a situation quite like an anti-competitive market can arise (an 'ultimate Alpha tourism oligopoly').

The opposite of an ultimate alpha tourism monopoly would be an inclusive tourism alpha management approach, where the destination would be managed following the model of a wolf pack, as presented in section 2.1. Having said that, for this situation to happen, the following needs to be in place:

1. A relationship based on trust and ethics.
2. DMOs to have a regulatory and mitigating role.
3. Stakeholders to have a broader view of their role (at destination level instead of just for their own business).
4. Individual and destination strategies should cross over.

6.4 Limitations

The positionality of this study could be considered a strength of as highlighted in the preceded sections. However, this advantage can turn into a limitation if a critical distance (thinking and reflecting) is not observed (Quinlan, 2011). These limitations could have been moderated by having the lead author (academic) to conduct the interviews. Because of the pandemic, that was not possible, as travel was limited, and in some cases not allowed (Jamal & Budke, 2020).

Additionally, the conclusions obtained following the analysis of the verbatim are not to be considered as findings, but as a basis for futures research. Indeed, Getz (2012) explained that the design of research agenda needs to be based amongst other things on antecedents and choices (evaluation; decision-making; constraints), and on management strategies analysis.

7 RESEARCH DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Despite the fact that it is well documented that all stakeholders in a destination must be involved in the affairs of the tourism industry, and that a good interaction amongst them is required for a steady and sustainable growth of the industry (Chen et al, 2017; Lim & Cooper, 2008; Mech, 1999; Mirjalili et al, 2014; Parolo et al, 2009), this study highlights the fact that it is not systematically the case. In the case of Lourdes, the lack of quality interaction amongst stakeholders is based on the existence of: (1) blind spots (2) ultimate alpha monopoly (3) moral double standard (4) moral duplicity (5) and self-centered (as opposed to destination interest) attitude of stakeholders. This situation has led to an anti-competitive market or 'ultimate alpha tourism oligopoly'. The three research propositions formulated in this study are strategies suggested by the authors to enable a better understanding of the function and interaction of stakeholders within a destination.

Despite the fact that the purpose of this type of research is not to generalize the findings, as already explained earlier, and as also supported by Warwick et al (2021), the fact remains that the 'Alpha' framework could potentially be applied to other destinations and events, even if these events are not as established and structured as Lourdes Pilgrimages. The main challenge in that case would be to identify all the stakeholders.

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SUBMITTED: JUL 2021
1st REVISION SUBMITTED: OCT 2021
2nd REVISION SUBMITTED: DEC 2021
ACCEPTED: JAN 2022
REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

PUBLISHED ONLINE: 30 MAY 2022

Aims & Scope

AIMS

The *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing* is an open-access, international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (double blind peer-reviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of marketing in tourism, heritage and services management. The journal is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with different marketing sectors, both at macro and at micro level, as well as professionals in the industry. The *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing* provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism, heritage, and services marketing segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries. The *Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing* aims at:

- Disseminating and promoting research, good practice and innovation in all aspects of marketing in tourism, heritage and services to its prime audience including educators, researchers, post-graduate students, policy makers, and industry practitioners.
- Encouraging international scientific cooperation and understanding, and enhancing multi-disciplinary research across various marketing sectors.

SCOPE AND PEER-REVIEW POLICY

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to an initial screening by a member of the journal's Senior Advisory Board, and subsequently by strict blind peer review by 3 anonymous international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers, post-graduate students, policy-makers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within different sectors of marketing and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism, heritage and services in the future. Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketingalso welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism or heritage-related but cover a topic that is of interest to researchers, educators, policy-makers and practitioners in various fields of services marketing.

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For the Research Papers section, the Journal of Tourism, Heritage & Services Marketing invites full-length manuscripts (not longer than 8,000 words and not shorter than 4,500 words) excluding references, from a variety of marketing disciplines; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to strict double blind peer review (by at least two anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editor. The manuscripts submitted should provide original and/or innovative ideas or approaches or findings that eventually push the frontiers of knowledge. Purely descriptive accounts are not considered suitable for this section. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

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