



---

**JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH**

**V. 18**

**November 2017**

**Published by:**



Activities for the Development of Tourism and Tourism Education



Tourism Research Institute

13 Kydonion, 11144 Athens, Greece

Tel: + 30 210 3806877

Fax: + 30 211 7407688

URL: [www.iotr.eu](http://www.iotr.eu) [www.dratte.gr](http://www.dratte.gr)

Email: [info@dratte.gr](mailto:info@dratte.gr), [tri@dratte.gr](mailto:tri@dratte.gr)

**Editor:** *Laloumis Dimitris*

**SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE**

**Dimitrios Buhalis** Bournemouth University, UK  
**Paris Tsartas** University of Aegean, Greece  
**Andreas Papatheodorou** University of Aegean, Greece  
**Stavrinoudis Theodoros** University of Aegean, Greece  
**Judit Grotte** Budapest Metropolitan University, Budapest  
**Célio Gonçalo Marques** Polytechnic Institute of Tomar, Portugal  
**Eunice Ramos Lopes** Polytechnic Institute of Tomar, Portugal  
**Peter Yannopoulos** Goodman School of Business, Brock University, Canada  
**Cleopatra Veloutsou** University of Glasgow, UK  
**Alexandru Nedelea Stefan cel Mare** University of Glasgow, UK  
**Axel Schnell** University of Applied Sciences of Dusseldorf, Germany  
**Gregory Papanikos** University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland  
**Stefanos Karagiannis** University of Central Greece  
**Pericles Lytras** Technological Education Institute of Athens, Greece  
**Stelios Varvaresos** Technological Education Institute of Athens, Greece  
**Dimitrios Stergiou** Hellenic Open University  
**Sandeep Kulshreshtha** Indian Institute of Tourism & Travel Management, Greece  
**Zoe Georgiadou** Technological Education Institute of Athens, Greece  
**Nicolas Mainetti** Llut Aurillac Crcgm University of Auvergne, France  
**Christos Ladias** University of Central Greece  
**Valia Kasimati** Department of Economics, University of Bath, U.K.  
**Dimitrios Laloumis** Technological Education Institute of Athens, Greece  
**Laurent Meriade** University of Auvergne-CUFR Champollion ALBI, France  
**Lambros Sdrolas** Technological Education Institute of Thesaly, Greece  
**George Boskou** Harokopeion University, Greece  
**Dionisia Frangou** Technological Education Institute of Athens, Greece  
**Dimitris Marnellos** Technological Education Institute of Athens, Greece

## **Table of Contents**

---

Travel Warnings Versus Actual Travel Danger; An Analysis Of U.S. Department Of State Travel Warnings To Egypt And Other Countries AMANY N. BESHAY	5
--	---

---

Critical Tourism: Assessing Snow-based Practice in Finnish Lapland AYONGHE AKONWI NEBASIFU & FRANCISCO CUOGO	21
---	----

---

Assessing the Use of Communications Networks in Public Relations Field in Governmental Tourism Organizations in Egypt KAMEL NOHA, ATTIA ABEER, ELASSAR HANAN & SAID HEBA	29
---	----

---

The Influence of Physical Work Environment on Hotel Back-of-the-House Employees' Satisfaction and Productivity: A Case Study on Hilton Hotels MOHAMED DARDEER, ASHRAF TAG-ELDEEN & ISLAM SALEM	43
---	----

---

Knowledge Sharing and Service Innovation Performance in Egyptian Hotels: The Moderating Role of Team Culture LAMIAA MOUSTAFA MOHAMED	66
---	----

---

Knowledge Sharing and Service Innovation Performance in Egyptian Hotels: The Moderating Role of Team Culture LAMIAA MOUSTAFA MOHAMED	86
---	----

---

Impact of Sport Tourism on the Host Community: A Case Study of Nigerian Universities' Games YUSUF T.G.	108
---	-----

---

Porter's Competitive Forces in the Modern Globalized Hospitality Sector - The case of a Greek Tourism Destination SOTIRIOS VARELAS & NIKOLAOS GEORGOPOULOS	126
---	-----

---

International tourism and long-term economic growth: Analysis by heterogeneous dynamic panel data YOUNESSE EL MENYARI	138
--	-----

---

---

The Impact of Strategic Planning on Crisis Management Styles in the 5-star Hotels

KARAM M. GHAZI

148

Storytelling as a Tool for Safeguarding and Marketing The Intangible Cultural Heritage (Ich): The Case of Nubia City, Egypt

REHAB EL GAMIL

165

The tourism education and its role in upgrading of the hotel services: The case of boutique hotels

MARINAKOS KONSTANTINOS

186

## **Travel Warnings Versus Actual Travel Danger; An Analysis Of U.S. Department Of State Travel Warnings To Egypt And Other Countries**

**AMANY N. BESHAY**

Tourism Studies Department, Faculty of Tourism & Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt,

### **ABSTRACT**

Security and safety concerns are becoming significant factors affecting tourism and travel worldwide with escalating terrorist attacks and threats all around the globe. No country nowadays can claim to be absolutely safe in spite of diligent security measures. Travel warnings issued by a number of major countries are increasingly affecting numerous destinations worldwide and impacting tourist flows to a growing number of destinations.

This paper analyses the U.S. department of State Travel warnings to Egypt and other countries over an eight-year period from 2009 to 2016. The paper aims to identify whether travel warnings are proportionate with actual travel danger. The impact on tourist flows to warned-against destinations is also studied. The effects of the U.S. travel warnings to Egypt are compared to the effects resulting from U.S. travel warnings to other countries in the same period. Results show that there is a significant association between the number of American deaths abroad and the number of travel warnings a country receives. However, the correlation between both variables is weak in some countries. Fluctuations in tourist flows after the issuance of a travel warning are also detected, although in variable inconsistent patterns through different destinations.

**Key Words:** Travel Warning - Travel Advisories - American Travellers - U.S. Department of State.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Tourism is profoundly attached with the concept of security. Tourist behaviour on one hand, and destination economies on the other hand are intensely affected by the management of safety, security and risk (Beirman, 2003). A lack of security can manipulate the tourist's trust in the destination, particularly when personal threats are perceived. The connection of a destination with a lack of safety has been the center of concern for many tourism industries (Avraham, 2016).

In this context, the right to travel and the freedom of mobility are becoming increasingly vulnerable by an elevated concern over risk (Bianchi, 2007). In this global risk environment, the cautious traveller is the informed traveler. A central aspect of this information process is the issuing of a particular type of risk communication report to travelers, known as travel advisories or travel warnings (Firkins & Candlin, 2016). Consequently, an increasing number of Foreign offices are routinely issuing public travel warnings to their citizens who travel internationally for personal, educational, business, or pleasure purposes. Sometimes the warnings relate to concrete and immediate threats, but more often they are general, referring to a broad range of potential risks (Lowenheim, 2007).

Travel warnings are thus becoming an important phenomenon affecting tourist flows to many destinations. A phenomenon whose impacts and patterns remain understudied to a great extent. In this context, this paper tries to answer a number of key questions; do travel warnings reflect actual travel danger in warned-against destinations; Can U.S Department of State travel warnings be politically bias; Can travel warnings be used as a sanctioning tool for specific destinations rather than a protective tool to travelers; Are tourist flows directly affected by travel warnings to a specific destination.

This paper aims to analyze the U.S. Department of State travel warnings to Egypt and other countries over an eight-year period, from 2009 to 2016. The choice of analyzing the US Department of State travel warnings was due to their influential impacts not only on U.S. travellers, but on travellers worldwide in general, being globally disseminated on a large scale. The purpose of this study is to assess the extent to which travel warnings are actually proportionate to real travel danger in destination countries. The impact of travel warnings on changes in tourist flows to warned-against destinations is also investigated.

## **U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATE TRAVEL WARNINGS**

Governments generate travel warnings to raise their citizens' awareness of any safety issues that may affect their travel to a specific country or region. In the United States, travel warnings are always issued by the State Department (Combs, 2009).

Lowenheim (2007) has argued the boundaries between personal risk-management and governmental responsibility toward citizens. He emphasized that governments in neoliberal societies increasingly recognize their responsibility to help citizens make informed choices in order to minimize or avoid risk.

Travel warnings are issued by governments for diversified reasons, including terrorism, natural disasters, wars, political unrest, health emergencies, and elevated levels of criminal activities.

Warnings sometimes also cover areas of the world where a government does not have the ability to react to the problems of citizens traveling there – for example, if the government does not have an embassy in a particular country, or if the operation of its embassy is endangered by local violence (Combs, 2009).

Travel warnings are defined by foreign offices as non-obligatory recommendations where citizens are advised to postpone or cancel travel to certain countries (or specific regions within these countries) that are believed to be risky by the issuing foreign office (Lowenheim, 2007). The warning might be related to security, political, social, environmental, or health reasons. Sometimes the warnings relate to solid and instant threats, but more often they are general, referring to a wide range of potential risks.

There are twenty four countries issuing warnings worldwide, of which the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and Australia have the longest history in travel warning policy practice. The earliest travel warnings were issued by the United States in 1914, while their first travel warnings issued on the internet were in 1996 (Lowenheim, 2007).

The U.S. State Department is the responsible entity for issuing all travel advisories in the United States. In general, many governments including the U.S. make a distinction between long-term and short-term travel advisories. The U.S. State Department issues two kinds of travel advisories; travel warnings and travel alerts. Travel warnings are usually issued for long-term, prolonged conditions that make a country dangerous or unstable, while travel alerts cover temporary problems such as natural disasters or election-related demonstrations (Combs, 2009).

The U.S. State Department lists the following simplified distinction between travel warnings and travel alerts on its official website:

*"We issue a Travel Warning when we want you to consider very carefully whether you should go to a country at all. Examples of reasons for issuing a Travel Warning might include unstable government, civil war, ongoing intense crime or violence, or frequent terrorist attacks. We want you to know the risks of traveling to these places and to strongly consider not going to them at all. Travel Warnings remain in place until the situation changes; some have been in effect for years."*

*"We issue a Travel Alert for short-term events we think you should know about when planning travel to a country. Examples of reasons for issuing a Travel Alert might include an election season that is bound to have many strikes, demonstrations, or disturbances; a health alert like an outbreak of H1N1; or evidence of an elevated risk of terrorist attacks. When these short-term events are over, we cancel the Travel Alert."* (U.S. Department of State, 2017a).

From the above-mentioned definitions of travel warnings and travel alerts, we can deduce that travel alerts are issued by the U.S. Department of State for short-term events. Alerts don't necessarily mean "don't travel," but rather contain information that is worth knowing about so travelers can be prepared. Travel warnings, on the other hand, are much stronger as they reflect a long-term issue in a country or an area inside a country and they advise travelers to re-think, postpone or cancel their travel decisions. Accordingly, if we can rephrase it in a simple way, travel alerts would rather mean 'travel with caution' while travel warnings would mean 'reconsider travelling'. In general, the State Department revisits Travel Warnings every six months (Hartman, 2009). Warnings stay in effect until further notice.

The U.S. Department of State issues tens of travel warnings and travel alerts every year. In the last eight years, from 2009 to 2016, eleven travel warnings were issued against Egypt. In 2017, one more warning was issued on July 17th and it is still in effect. (U.S. Department of State, 2017a).

The importance of analysing and studying the U.S. Travel Warnings and its impacts, lies in the fact that its actual on-ground effects are understudied despite being one of the most powerful travel warnings and a vast number of travelers worldwide are affected by those warnings, not only American citizens.

## **IMPACTS & CRITICISM OF TRAVEL WARNINGS**

It is essential to emphasize that a travel warning – no matter how strongly worded – cannot legally prevent a person from traveling to a particular place. After evaluating a warning, it is still up to the traveler to decide whether to abide by the advice or ignore it completely, unless the warning is issued for government employees, such as diplomats and foreign embassy workers (Combs, 2009). In spite of being non-obligatory, travel warnings can have great impacts on tourists' travel decisions, thus affecting tourist flows to certain countries or regions. One of its direct impacts in many Western countries, is that life insurance policies are in many cases cancelled for travelers who go to warned-against countries (Avari, 2004; Tunnah, 2005) which applies a further pressure on travelers.

A recent study which investigates the impact of terrorism and travel advice on global tourism has indicated that casualties or fatalities from terrorism, in the absence of travel warnings, significantly reduce tourism demand. However, fatalities combined with travel warnings have a relatively larger adverse impact on tourism demand (Buigut et al., 2017). This result indicates how the impacts of travel warnings can sometimes be devastating to destination economies due to the decline in tourism demand.

A lot of criticism has been directed to the travel warning system. A possible bias in travel warnings is widely considered to be an issue among scholars and researchers. Critics argue that often travel warnings are confusing, exaggerated, or politically biased (Freedman, 2005). They are often seen as an attempt to politically and/or economically destabilize the developing-nation destination through disruption of tourism (Deep & Johnston, 2017).

Travel warnings, such as those linked to terror threats, commonly raise more questions than answers. Instead of being regarded as a measure to prevent people from being harmed by the real possibility of a forthcoming terror attack, travel warnings are commonly met with suspicion and resentment in addition to a dominant perception that the warnings are almost entirely reserved for developing countries (Botha, 2008). This is mostly because of the inconsistencies in the issuance of travel warnings and the consequences they may have, particularly for developing countries. Travel warnings, especially when issued by powerful countries like the United States and the United Kingdom, can have devastating impacts on countries that depend heavily on tourism revenues (Botha 2008; Freedman 2005; Sharpley, et al., 1996). It was estimated that income from tourism-related industries dropped by at least 70 per cent whenever such warnings are issued against countries that are dependent on revenue from tourism (Okumu, 2007).

Numerous cases have indicated that travel warnings usually treat the non-Western world differently than the West. For instance, in the aftermath of the 2005 London bombing, the United States did not issue a travel warning for Britain. Kenya, however, is still being reminded of the 1998 U.S. Embassy bombing and travel warnings to Kenya are issued on a regular basis by US Department of State (Botha 2008).



A similar attitude was observed after the September 11th attacks on the U.S. in 2001. Instead of issuing travel warnings to the U.S., the world was encouraged to visit New York City to send a strong message to the terrorists that they cannot change or interfere with the Western way of life and also to help the city recover the economic loss suffered in the aftermath of the attack (Okumu, 2007). This attitude has never been adopted with developing countries that suffer from similar terrorist attacks.

Sharpley, Sharpley, & Adams (1996) have also argued that the real intention for issuing travel warnings is to impose “soft sanctions” on warned-against states through their citizens who intend to travel to these countries. They conducted a case study of Gambia, concluding that the detail and accuracy of travel advice issued by government agencies may be influenced by broader political objectives.

Freedman (2005) also emphasized the fact that there were no travel warnings for Spain, where Basque terrorists staged attacks. On the other hand, Indonesia, Burma, and Thailand, had travel warnings issued at the same time despite being considered among the safest places in the world for tourists then (Henderson, 2004; Freedman, 2005).

Löwenheim (2007) analyzed travel warnings from the political sociology perspective. He concluded that governments use this authoritative advice to their citizens by helping them in responsible decision-making regarding traveling abroad to dangerous destinations. However, the issuance of travel warnings may enable governments “to use these warnings as a means either of disciplining the warned-against states or of practically decreasing their states’ commitment to the development of third world states” (p.218).

In addition to that, the Swiss Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA) notes that it does not produce travel advice for Western European countries because detailed media reports are available for these countries and travelers can make their own judgment of the security situation in the country concerned. However, the Swiss media publishes detailed reports on other regions of the world, such as the Middle East, that are nonetheless included in the travel advice of the Swiss DFA. (Lowenheim, 2007).

In May 2003, the U.S. and Britain placed a ‘non-essential travel ban’ on Kenya after intelligence sources had picked up information about an ‘imminent threat’ on a British-registered aircraft. British Airways swiftly suspended its flights to Kenya for almost a month while Germany, France, Belgium, Hungary and Australia also imposed bans on Kenya. These bans had devastating impacts on the country (Okumu, 2007).

Finally, it could be argued that governments issue travel warnings because they fear being sued for negligence or because failure to warn might result in political costs to those in power, especially if a large number of citizens are harmed (Lowenheim, 2007).

In addition, these warnings might be informed by cultural, political, and racial biases. Dunn (2004), for example, shows how postcolonial images and narratives significantly influence the US State Department’s perception of Africa as a dangerous space

Due to these huge effects, the World Tourism Organization has dealt with the issue of travel warning in its global code of ethics for tourism. Article six of which discusses the obligations of stakeholders in tourism development. It states that “governments have the right – and the duty - especially in a crisis, to inform their nationals of the difficult circumstances, or even the dangers they may encounter during their travels abroad; it is their responsibility however to issue such information without prejudicing in an unjustified or exaggerated manner the tourism industry of the host countries and the interests of their own operators; the contents of travel advisories should therefore be discussed beforehand with the

authorities of the host countries and the professionals concerned; recommendations formulated should be strictly proportionate to the gravity of the situations encountered and confined to the geographical areas where the insecurity has arisen; such advisories should be qualified or cancelled as soon as a return to normality permits" (UNWTO, 2001, p.6).

From the above-mentioned incidents, it is obvious that there exists many forms of prejudices, partialities and unfairness in the issuance of travel warnings. The empirical study will further investigate this issue by analysing the consistency, the patterns and the effects of the U.S. Department of State travel warnings to Egypt and other countries in an eight-year period.

## **METHODOLOGY**

The empirical study tries to answer a number of important questions; do travel warnings reflect actual travel danger in warned-against destinations; Can U.S. Department of State travel warnings be politically bias; Can travel warnings be used as a sanctioning tool for specific destinations rather than a protective tool to U.S. citizens and other travelers; Are tourist flows directly affected by travel warnings to a specific destination.

In order to analyze the U.S. travel warnings, the empirical study will use secondary data to track the U.S. department travel warnings to Egypt and other countries, through the actual warning numbers over an eight-year period from 2009 to 2016. The choice of this period was due to the worldwide rise of terrorist attacks, in addition to the so-called Arab Spring and its consequences on the Middle East and other countries which led to an increase in travel warnings in the region in recent years.

In order to evaluate whether the warnings issued by the U.S. Department of state were actually based on probable likelihood of crime abroad or not, the researcher discovered the need to compare the number of warnings issued with another variable that might indicate a possible danger to American Tourists in destinations abroad apart from natural disasters. However, reliable data on crime worldwide is very difficult to obtain. On the other hand, the State Department tracks the numbers and causes of American deaths abroad on its official website as part of its published reports and statistics, which could be used as the second variable as it highlights actual possibilities of life-threatening events in destination countries.

In this context, the researcher utilizes two different sets of secondary data, namely numbers of travel warnings and numbers of American deaths abroad. Statistical Analysis of the secondary data using SPSS is employed to discover the correlation between the two variables in order to conclude whether the U.S travel warnings were based on objective causes or were politically bias and whether they reflect actual travel danger to American travelers or not. Later, the impact of U.S. warnings on the fluctuations in tourist flows to Egypt and other warned-against countries is also studied.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The empirical study focuses only on Travel Warnings rather than travel alerts. This is due to the fact that travel warnings are stronger, long-term and have powerful impacts on U.S. citizens and other travelers to reconsider their travel decisions due to expected danger in warned-against destinations.

First, we identify the countries that are most often targeted by U.S. State Department travel warnings. The researcher filtered out warnings that had been issued for natural disasters, then ranked countries based on the number of Travel Warnings issued against them in an 8-year period between 2009 and 2016. Table 1 displays the top 30 countries receiving travel warnings.

Table 1: Top 30 Countries by U.S. Travel Warnings Issued from 2009-2016

Rank	Country	Region	Number of Travel Warnings
1	Mexico	Americas	28
2	Mali	Africa	26
3	Israel	Asia	25
4	Pakistan	Asia	25
5	Iraq	Asia	24
6	Afghanistan	Asia	23
7	Nigeria	Africa	23
8	Syria	Asia	23
9	Algeria	Africa	22
10	Iran	Asia	22
11	Yemen	Asia	22
12	Burundi	Africa	21
13	Central African Republic	Africa	21
14	Kenya	Africa	20
15	Lebanon	Asia	20
16	Philippines	Asia	20
17	Chad	Africa	19
18	Libya	Africa	19
19	Sudan	Africa	19

20	Colombia	Americas	18
21	Congo	Africa	18
22	Eritrea	Africa	18
23	Mauritania	Africa	17
24	Niger	Africa	16
25	North Korea	Asia	16
26	Saudi Arabia	Asia	16
27	Somalia	Africa	16
28	South Sudan	Africa	15
29	Ukraine	Europe	15
30	Egypt	Africa	11

Source: U.S. Department of State, 2017a

Mexico comes on the top of the list with 28 travel warnings issued in the 8-year period, while Egypt comes at the end of the list with 11 warnings in the same period. It is worth noting here that one warning could stay in effect for months (Hartman, 2009). The last travel warning for Egypt was issued on July 19th 2017 and it is still in effect a few months later (U.S. Department of State, 2017a).

From the previous table, we can observe that only one European country is present in the top thirty list, which is Ukraine. This comes in line with the literature review which indicated that most travel warnings are directed to developing countries mostly in Africa & Asia, which represent 90% of the travel warnings issued by U.S. Department of State.

The important issue that needs to be addressed here is whether the U.S. Department of State warnings reflect an actual travel danger and a high probability of crime against Americans abroad or not. Reliable worldwide data on crime is very difficult to obtain. However, the State Department tracks the numbers and causes of American deaths abroad on its official website as part of the reports and statistics provided to the public. The researcher used these datasets to identify countries where Americans are most likely to experience life-threatening danger while traveling.

In table 2, the researcher ranked the foreign countries in which the most Americans were killed, in the same period of the study between 2009 and 2016. Before ranking, the data was filtered to include only homicides, executions and deaths in terrorist attacks.

Table 2: Top 30 Countries by Americans Killed from 2009-2016

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Country</b>	<b>Americans Killed</b>
1	Mexico	598
2	Afghanistan	84
3	Philippines	74
4	Haiti	65
5	Honduras	46
6	Dominican Republic	45
7	Jamaica	39
8	El Salvador	34
9	Costa Rica	27
10	Guatemala	26
11	Colombia	25
12	Belize	16
13	Ecuador	12
14	Thailand	11
15	Nigeria	10
16	Bahamas	9
17	Iraq	9
18	Panama	9
19	Yemen	9
20	Brazil	8
21	Pakistan	8
22	Turkey	8
23	Guyana	7
24	Israel	7
25	Nicaragua	7
26	Trinidad and Tobago	7
27	Kenya	6

28	Netherlands	6
29	Belgium	5
30	Egypt	5

Source: U.S. Department of State, 2017b

With careful observation and comparison between table 1 and 2, it was noted that there is only a slight overlap between this ranking of American deaths and the set of countries receiving the most travel warnings.

Of the top 30 countries ranked in table 2, only 12 were among the top 30 countries targeted by travel warnings. This in turn, raises more questions than answers on whether travel warnings were based on actual danger or not.

In order to find out the connection between State Department warnings and American deaths abroad and whether more travel warnings were issued for a country if Americans are more likely to be killed there, the researcher performed a correlation test to find out if there is a significant relationship between the number of Travel Warnings issued for each country and the number of Americans killed there in the same period. Table 3 and Figure 1 illustrate the correlation between both variables.

Table 3: Correlation between Americans Killed abroad and Number of Travel Warnings 2009-2016

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Country</b>	<b>Americans Killed</b>	<b>Travel Warnings</b>
1	Mexico	598	28
2	Afghanistan	84	23
3	Philippines	74	20
4	Haiti	65	10
5	Honduras	46	9
6	Dominican Republic	45	0
7	Jamaica	39	0
8	El Salvador	34	9
9	Costa Rica	27	0
10	Guatemala	26	0
11	Colombia	25	18
12	Belize	16	0

13	Ecuador	12	0
14	Thailand	11	4
15	Nigeria	10	23
16	Bahamas	9	0
17	Iraq	9	24
18	Panama	9	0
19	Yemen	9	22
20	Brazil	8	0
21	Pakistan	8	25
22	Turkey	8	11
23	Guyana	7	0
24	Israel	7	25
25	Nicaragua	7	0
26	Trinidad and Tobago	7	0
27	Kenya	6	20
28	Netherlands	6	0
29	Belgium	5	0
30	Egypt	5	11

Source: U.S. Department of State, 2017a, U.S. Department of State, 2017b.

The value of R is 0.3641. Although technically a positive correlation, the relationship between the variables is weak (due to the fact that the nearer the value is to zero, the weaker the relationship). The P-Value is 0.047928. The result is significant at  $p < 0.05$ . This indicates that there is a weak positive correlation between the number of warnings and the number of American deaths.

Within this chart, some remarkable patterns could be traced. In some countries, the number of Travel Warnings a country receives does balance with the number of deaths. In others, no warnings are issued even when the risk of death is relatively high. In other countries, many warnings are issued by the U.S. Department of State despite the fact that Americans are rarely harmed in these countries.

Thus, in some countries travel warnings are well correlated with the risk of death. In other countries there is a very low or no correlation at all between both variables. In figure 2, the researcher identifies three categories of correlation between the two variables. Four countries are chosen as examples in each category to represent each of the above-mentioned patterns.

In the countries on the left of figure 2, a relatively high number of American travelers die. Accordingly, these nations are often targeted by many State Department travel warnings. This is the first category which shows a high correlation between the two variables.

The center part of figure 2 features a relatively high risk of death for Americans, but no warnings were issued at all in the 8-year period examined by the study. This category consists mainly of Central and South American countries. This is the second category, and it shows no correlation between the two variables.

Finally, the countries on the right are often targeted by Travel warnings, but Americans have a low risk of facing life-threatening danger while visiting them. In this case there is a low correlation between the two variables.

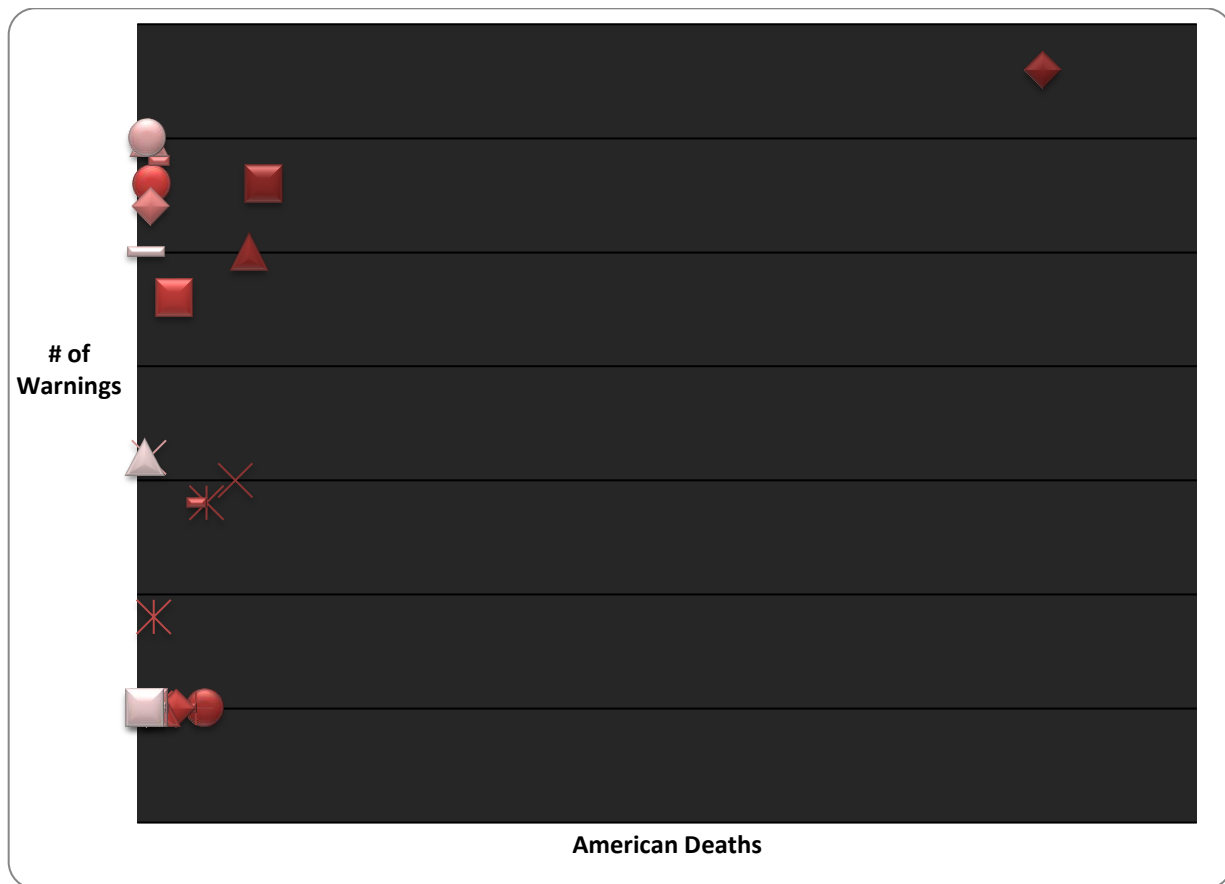


Figure 1: Correlation between Number of Warnings and American Deaths

This result is aligned with the literature review that indicates that some travel warnings are politically biased with or against some countries. This is illustrated clearly with countries that represent a high risk of actual danger on American travelers, nevertheless, they receive no or very few travel warnings. These include almost all European countries and many Central and South American countries.



This result raises an important question of how travel warnings actually impact tourist behavior. Does traveling to a country decline in reality after the State Department targets it with a Travel Warning or not?

Priceonomics (2017) has used Statistics from the American Bureau of Transportation to detect percentage change in American travelers to warned-against countries. Table 4 compares travel numbers in the 6-month periods immediately preceding and immediately following the issuance of a Travel Warning in 2016.

It is evident from table 4 that Egypt witnesses the most significant drop-off in travel after a travel warning is issued with a 34% decrease in travel by Americans. This might be due to extensive coverage of events in Egypt by American and International Media. Many of which are politically bias.

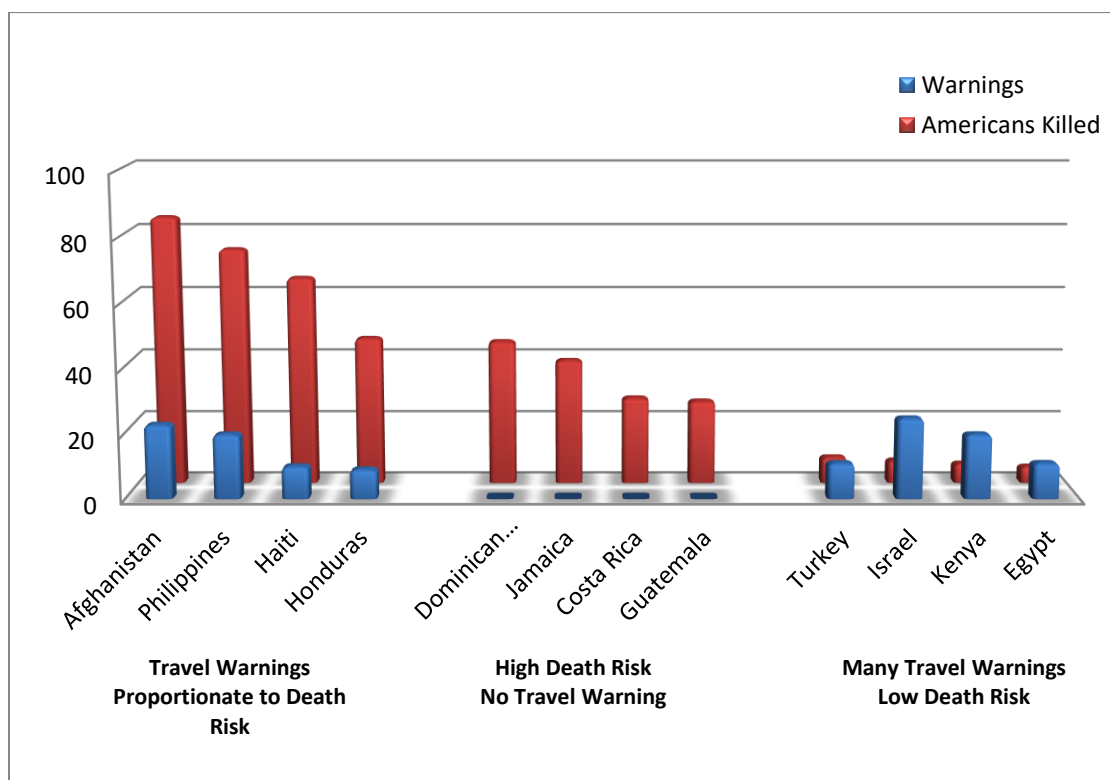


Figure 2: Categories of Correlation between Travel Warnings and Actual Death Risk

Thailand also follows a similar trend where American travel to Thailand drops by 15% after a travel warning is issued.

Travel declines slightly in Israel and Venezuela after the issuance of a warning, and oddly, travel to Ukraine, Nigeria, and Saudi Arabia rises by more than 10% after a warning is issued.

Table 4: Percentage Change in American Travelers after Warning Issued 2016

Country	% Change in Travel
Egypt	-34.09
Thailand	-15.00
Pakistan	-3.00
Philippines	-2.34
Venezuela	-1.41
Honduras	-1.18
Israel	-0.06
Mexico	0.52
Haiti	0.53
El Salvador	1.76
Russia	4.03
Colombia	5.97
Bahrain	6.55
Nigeria	10.99
Ukraine	11.37
Saudi Arabia	11.98

Source: Priceconomics (2017).

The reasons behind such variance in the percentage change of travel by Americans after travel warnings could be a target for future research in order to further investigate the factors affecting such variance.

## **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Travel warnings can be very destructive to fragile economies when they are unjustly applied. Travel advisories on African countries usually exaggerate the security threat with no actual danger detected in many cases. Moreover, in many incidents, travel warnings are politically bias and are used as a means of disciplining the warned-against countries.

In general, there is a significant relationship between the number of American deaths abroad and the number of travel warnings a country receives. However, the correlation between both variables is weak in some countries.

Several countries with relatively high risk of American deaths have not been issued a single travel warning in the eight-year period covered in the study, including Costa Rica, Jamaica and Guatemala.

Several countries with relatively low risk of American deaths have been issued a relatively high number of travel warnings in the eight-year period covered in the study, including Egypt, Turkey, and Israel.

Egypt witnesses the most significant drop-off in travel after a travel warning is issued with a 34% decrease in travel by Americans. Thailand follows the same pattern as well. However, the rest of the countries targeted by travel warnings do not see outstanding declines in American visitors in the six months after a travel warning is issued.

The reason why travel warnings are impacting tourist flows to one country more than the others is yet to be considered for future research. Other factors apart from travel warnings, including media coverage, media bias & political inclinations should be profoundly considered.

Finally, it is every tourist's right to receive an impartial and current advice that is adequate, detailed and objective enough to allow careful and informed travel decisions. Ideally, the responsibility for the provision of such travel advice should not lie solely in the hands of national governments due to the occurrence of political, cultural or racial bias. Rather, the presence of an independent, international organization set up with the exclusive purpose of collecting, updating and disseminating travel information could be a solution to possible partiality.

In addition to that, governments should abide by the global code of ethics for tourism which indicates in article six that travel warnings should be issued without prejudicing in an unjustified or exaggerated manner the tourism industry of the destination countries and the interests of their own operators. The contents of travel advisories should also be discussed in advance with the authorities of the destination countries and the professionals concerned. Moreover, travel warnings should be proportionate to the magnitude of the situations encountered and should be cancelled as soon as the situation changes.

## REFERENCES

- Avari, S. (2004). 'Travel Advisory'. *Advisor's Edge* 7(6), pp.29–32.
- Avraham, E. (2016). 'Destination Marketing & Image Repair during tourism Crises: The Case of Egypt'. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management* 28, pp. 41-48.
- Beirman, D. (2003). *Restoring Tourism Destinations in Crisis*. Cambridge, UK: CABI.
- Bianchi, R. (2007). 'Tourism and the Globalisation of Fear: Analysing the Politics of Risk and (in)Security in Global Travel'. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*. 7, pp.64–74.
- Botha, A. (2008). 'The Real Impact of Travel Warnings'. Institute for Security Studies. Retrieved August 2017 from ([http://www.issafrica.org/index.php?link\\_id=32&slink\\_id=7101&link\\_type=12&slink\\_type=12&tmpl\\_id=3](http://www.issafrica.org/index.php?link_id=32&slink_id=7101&link_type=12&slink_type=12&tmpl_id=3).)
- Buigut, S., Braendle, U. & Sajeewani, D. (2017). 'Terrorism and Travel Advisory Effects on International Tourism'. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research* 22:10, pp. 991-1004.

- Combs, B. (2009). A Multivariate Analysis of State Department Travel Warnings. Arkansas State University. UMI Dissertation Publishing.
- Deep, A. & Johnston, C. (2017). 'Travel Advisories – Destabilising Diplomacy in Disguise'. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*. Vol 9:1, pages 82-99.
- Dunn, K. (2004). 'Fear of a Black Planet: Anarchy Anxieties and Postcolonial Travel to Africa'. *Third World Quarterly* 25:483–499.
- Firkins, A. & Candlin, C. (2016). 'Projecting a Definition of Risk Situation: Travel Advice and the Prudential Traveller'. J. Crichton et al. (eds.) *Communicating Risk* (pp.323-339), © The Editor(s).
- Freedman, L. (2005). 'The Politics of Warning: Terrorism and Risk Communication'. *Intelligence and National Security*, 20, pp.379–418.
- Hartman, D. (2009). 'State Department Travel Warnings Explained'. Retrieved May 2017, from *Travel & Leisure Magazine* <http://www.travelandleisure.com/articles/statedepartment-travel-warnings-explained/1>.
- Henderson, J. (2004). 'Managing the Aftermath of Terrorism'. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*. Vol. 4 (2), pp. 17-31.
- Lowenheim, O. (2007). 'The Responsibility to Responsibilize: Foreign Offices and the Issuing of Travel Warnings'. *International Political Sociology* 1, pp.203–221.
- Okumu, W. (2007). 'Security Alerts and their Impacts on Africa'. *African Security Review*, Vol. 16 ,(3), pp. 42-48.
- Priceonomics. (2017). Ranking the Most Dangerous Countries for American Tourists. Priceonomics Data Studio. Retrieved on May 20th 2017 at (<https://priceonomics.com/ranking-the-most-dangerous-countries-for-american/>).
- Sharpley, R., Sharpley, J. & Adams, J. (1996). 'Travel Advice or Trade Embargo? The Impacts and Implications of Official Travel Advice'. *Tourism Management* pp.17:1–7.
- Tunnah, H. (2005). 'Insurer Says No to Bali Terror Cover'. *The New Zealand Herald*, October 8.
- U.S. Department of State. (2017a). Travel Warnings. U.S. Department of State. Retrieved on July 23rd 2017 (<https://travel.state.gov/content/passports/en/alertswarnings/egypt-travel-warning.html>)
- U.S. Department of State. (2017b). Travel statistics. U.S. Department of State. Retrieved on July 23rd 2017 (<https://travel.state.gov/content/travel/en/statistics/deaths.html>)
- UNWTO. (2001). Global Code of Ethics for Tourism. Madrid: UNWTO.

## **Critical Tourism: Assessing Snow-based Practice in Finnish Lapland**

**AYONGHE AKONWI NEBASIFU**

Doctor of Social Science Candidate and Researcher (Environmental Sociology)

Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Lapland

**FRANCISCO CUOGO**

PhD Candidate (Political Science and International Relations)

Member of Center for Research in Political Science

School of Economics and Management, University of Minho

### **ABSTRACT**

Touring, traveling, or moving from one place to another for purpose of business, leisure, either locally or internationally, is known as tourism. In many countries, tourism forms an integral part of economic development through job creation, infrastructural investments, and income provision. One of the root causes for global tourism growth has been the industrial revolution in Great Britain around the 19<sup>th</sup> century. This was characterized by a transition from hand production to use of machinery, including improved steam and water power, emergence of textile industry, new modes of iron production, which all became known as factory system. Entrepreneurship and consumerism served as driving forces for the industrial revolution which then expanded around the world. By the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the movement of people across regions enhanced following improvements in transportation. However, the revolution also meant an increase demand for workers in factories.

Apart from industrial work, leisure accounted for movement of people during breaks from work. Although mass movement may result to income growth, it equally raises pertinent questions of how environments are constructed to suit the needs of people arriving, what kind of threats emerge from such destinations and perhaps what can be done to address such problems? Thus, this paper uses a review of web-based texts and critical tourism approach to seek an understanding of tourism from different perspectives which address the potentials and threats in tourism. Using the case of Finnish Lapland, our observations show that snow is essential to boosting tourism. However, habits towards climate change are a threat to sustaining snow tourism in the region. The paper then proposes economic diversification as a way forward.

**Key words:** Snow tourism, Finnish Lapland, Economic diversification

## 1.0. INTRODUCTION

Generally thinking, tourism is one of those economic practices which serve as a developmental tool in many nation states around the globe. This phenomenon can be supported based on infrastructural investment, job creation, income provision, and marketing. Back in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century with the growth of the Industrial revolution in Great Britain, improvements in the modes of production from hand-use to machine-centered approaches became more prominent. As a result, the factory system rose with improvements in use of steam power, water power, and emergence of textile industry. In addition, the means of transportation of both people and goods improved. In essence, this meant an enhancement of trade, increase in movement of people across regions, increase in demand for workers, increasing demand for goods and services, and literally an increase in population growth.

Thus, destinations are either filled with attractive opportunities for work, business, trade, or accommodation. In some cases, leisure becomes embedded in such destinations with workers needing work-free time for relaxation and other activities. These practices are synonymous to what is known today as tourism. An increase in mass movement could have both positive and negative implications depending on a context. For instance, where in coming visitors bring money into a destination, and on the other hand where natural systems are damaged by profit-centered incentives as highlighted in past publications (See: Krippendorf, 2009). There is therefore a need to address tourism in a critical way finding new possibilities to sustain destinations without jeopardizing the host culture and natural systems. Both Richards and Wilson (2007) suggest *creative tourism* as a suitable option that targets sustainability through diversified strategies.

In this paper, we use the concept of *critical tourism* as a method for addressing tourism practice from several dimensions while taking into consideration strengths, setbacks, and possible solutions. We seek to answer the questions of: what potential tourism offers to a destination; what kind of threats tourism faces; and what ideas could be considered for a way forward. These questions are addressed using the case of snow-based tourism in Finnish Lapland, where creativity in snow and the use of *strategic policy* are crucial to tourism growth. However, habits towards climate change pose future possibilities for hindering tourism growth. Our conclusive suggestion highlights applicable ways of economic diversification as a possible remedy to this problem, as will be discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

## 2.0. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: INDUSTRIALIZED INFLUENCE ON MASS TOURISM

The rise of industrialization in the 18th century brought about changes in various spheres of the society, affecting political, economic, social and cultural structures. Tourism, for instance, suffered from consequences of production and consumption in society. Human beings abandoned subsistence agriculture in rural areas in favor of migration to cities in response to industrial demand. New dynamics to daily life gradually emerged in cities such as the determination of work time and free time (Gee and Fayos-Solá, 2003). Given that free time was the time not worked for, there was thus a mass movement of workers who sought leisure activities. The tourist activity then arose as workers seek refuge from their work routines in other places that gave them possibility to rest or to know new places and regions. This period led to profound economic and social changes in society with structural transformations in urban planning. For instance, easing of human displacement and increasing supply of raw materials for industries through faster means of transportation.

By the 20<sup>th</sup> century, living conditions and lifestyles of people did improve economically and socially, while posing problems to the environment. For example the opening of new roads, consumption of natural resources, emission of gaseous pollutants, and exploitation of wood for steam engines in factories. Consequently, environmental damages became prominent. Also, practices to maximize exploitation of resources, maximizing profits, large-scale production, marketing with the masses, standardizing schedules, and customs, which were embedded in the production and style of the industrial era, became part of mass tourism. According to Krippendorf (2009: 26), the effect of mass tourism involves a cyclical condition that repeats in an endless and clearly linked to the context of the industrial age. This implied a growth cycle: from more production which provides more labor; more labor which provides more revenue; more revenue that allows for more consumption; and more consumption that needs more production.

Due to environmental problems emerging from mass tourism, ideas gradually built up to awaken humanity on the need for sustainable behavior in society, which greatly impacted on tourism activity. This has led to development of *creative tourism*, which emphasizes on the proximity of tourism with local culture and the valorization of tourism sustainability. For Richards and Wilson (2007: 1) tourism destinations try to distinguish themselves from their increasingly numerous competitors who then turn to culture as a means of distinction, and culture being linked to tourism. This condition has contributed to a more segmented tourism practice that attempts, in essence, to develop a tourism activity with quality and sustainability, and not with a view to the unbridled amount through mass exploration. Richards and Wilson (2007: 110) point out that the sustainability of tourism "could thus be seen in this light as a coordination game played by actors with different strategic horizons". Therefore, strategies to sustainability in the field of cultural tourism will depend on two key points;

- Creating emotive links between local products and visitors, so that cultural empathy is established, leading to higher resilience level of the tourism development process amidst external shocks and internal market transformations.
- And maintaining variety and diversity within a destination in the face of the standardizing pressure of the global tourist market.

### 3.0. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND STUDY AIM

A review of web-based texts and critical tourism approach is applied to assess snow-based practices of tourism in Finnish Lapland. The chosen site represents an example of creative tourism which focuses on product quality, promoting sustainable practices, while maintaining local culture. For several decades, snow has been an inherent part of local culture manifested through practices of traditional ice fishing, and modes of transportation such as; snowmobiling, dog-sledding, snow-shoeing, traditional cross-country skiing, reindeer sleigh rides, and tobogganing. These have gradually been incorporated into the tourism sector. Using snow as essential material in tourism, promotes environmental sustainability due to its ecological value of solidifying and melting without causing pollution to the environment. Therefore, our study aims to understand what policy is used for tourism in the region, how the site is constructed to suit visitors, what kinds of threats affect tourism, and what can be done to address related problems.

### 4.0. CASE STUDY: SNOW TOURISM IN FINNISH LAPLAND

Finnish Lapland experiences a winter season filled with snowfall and accumulation lasting 5-7 months annually. About half of annual precipitation 600 millimeters (mm), falls as snow in Lapland (Finnish Meteorological Institute, 2017) making the local culture snow-oriented seasonally. This provides an opportunity for creative tourism in the region. Since the 1990s, tourism has arguably been the major income contributor to Finnish Lapland (Osmund & Sunday, 2010). It accounts for an estimated annual tourism income of 600 million Euros and an annual regional employment of up to 5000 jobs (Rahman, 2014). Following this potential, the Finnish Ministry of Employment and the Economy then established the policy of *Strategic Planning* by the early 21<sup>st</sup> century with one of its aims at internationalizing trade in tourism, attracting foreign investments, while promoting local culture, product quality, and sustainability at regional level. Thus, the *Regional Council of Lapland* then operated regionally based on strategic planning of tourism activities by various stakeholders in Finnish Lapland. So far, three sub strategies have been implemented based on joined agreement, implementation, and revision over time (Luiro, 2015; Lapland-Vitality for Life, 2013). These include: tourism strategy 2003-2006 which targeted internationalizing tourism trade; tourism strategy 2007-2010 promoting infrastructure, research, image marketing, and sustainability in tourism; and tourism strategy 2020 enhancing quality of winter and snow packages.

#### 4.1. Potential trends

So far, reports have shown that, snow is an attractive component of tourism in Finnish Lapland. This is supported by the increasing number of visitors in the region during the winter season where snow is available. For instance, in 2006, the region recorded 5% average annual increase in overnight stay of visitors; including 2.1 million overnights of which 40% were foreign visitors. Most foreign visitors came from France, UK, Germany, Netherlands, and Russia. Other reported markets included Norway, Italy, and Switzerland. In terms of international air passenger visitors by month, December remained considerably highest as a result of the popularity of Christmas, with cities like Kittila and Rovaniemi representing remarkably high visits (Lapland-Vitality for Life, 2013). Furthermore, between the years 2000 and 2014, a significant increase in overnight stay by visitors was recorded. In general, up to 2.3



million stays in 2014 compared to around 1.6 million stays in 2000 (Luiro, 2015). These observations illustrate a great potential for tourism growth in the region.

#### **4.2. Site construct: snow products**

One crucial aspect of creative tourism is to promote local culture by enhancing product quality and sustainability. One example is in Finnish Lapland where snow is a core material to building infrastructure, promoting qualities of ecology and sustainability, while maintaining local culture. This is observed in touristic attractions like hotels and sport facilities. Snow in particular is depicted as ecological and sustainable due to its ability to solidify in low winter temperatures of below 0 degree Celsius, while allowed to freely melt in warmer temperatures without any fundamental damage to the environment. Three example sites include; the Arctic Snow Hotel, Levi Ski Resort, and Kemi Snow Castle.

##### **4.2.1. Arctic Snow Hotel Rovaniemi**

Created in 2008, the 74-bed hospitality complex was entirely built with snow. Annually, a new Arctic Snow Hotel is built starting in late October or early November with ice collected from Lehtojarvi Lake and runs till March or April when the snow is left to melt onto the ground, making it of ecological quality (Finland Times, 2016). Other materials were later incorporated to the structure. The temperature within the hotel remains between 0 and -5 degrees Celsius, with the walls helping to insulate the temperature during extremely cold weather conditions of up to -30 degrees Celsius. The hotel is said to receive foreign guests who make up more than 95% of total visitors (Finland Times, 2016) . Services incorporated to its snow package include; snowshoe hiking, snow sauna, hot tub, and ice fishing at Lake Lehtojarvi.



Figure 1: Ice bar, Ice Chapel, and family room (Arctic Snow Hotel, 2017)

##### **4.2.2. Levi Ski Resort**

Created in 1964, Levi Ski Resort gradually became known as Finland's fastest growing ski area in the country. Skiing season lasts October to May as the longest in the country. The upper slopes contain accumulated snow of 85 cm deep and 80 cm for lower slopes (Snow Magazine, 2016). Nearly 50 slopes consisting of more than 25 lifts (operating 10 am to 8 pm) with a capacity to uplift more than 27,000

people per hour; cross-country tracks of 230km of which 28km are illuminated for night skiing; a snow park which constitutes jumps, boxes, rails, and hits. In 2004, the first ever Ladies World Cup event in Finland was hosted by the Levi Ski Resort and followed by the 2006 hosting of the Men's World Cup which upgraded the resort's status to World Cup standards.

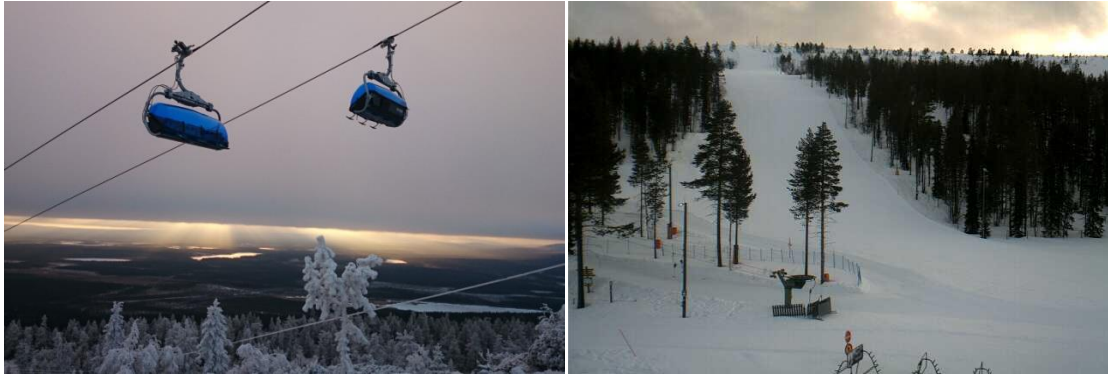


Figure 2: Ski lifts and Pistes (Levi Ski Resort, 2017)

#### **4.2.3. Kemi Snow Castle**

The Castle was created in 1995 as a gift from the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF). Since then, a new Castle is built in the winter month of January and left to melt away in the spring of every year. The castle is between 13,000-20,000 square meters high structure to look as a majestic fairytale world during the winter. The Castle walls are over 12 feet high, made of ice, and lit with colourful lights. Kemi Snow Castle consists of a chapel, an art gallery, and hotel which offer a chill experience, wedding opportunities, and sculpturing experiences for many visiting artists and tourists around the globe each year. Additional features include a restaurant, a themed room, and slippery slides (Atlas Obscura, 2017).



Figure 3: Snow Castle, Kemi (Atlas Obscura, 2017)

### **5.0. A MAJOR CHALLENGE FACING SNOW TOURISM IN FINNISH LAPLAND**

Apart from competition arising from other destinations of Christmas tourism such as Iceland, Norway, and Sweden, at the detriment of Finnish Lapland, one widely discussed problem is the threat posed by

climate change and the challenge of ensuring supply of snow every winter season. Thus, raising fears about a *no-snow scenario* in future. A table by Tervo-Kankare *et al* (2012) illustrate the habits of foreign tourists in the regional capital of Finnish Lapland, Rovaniemi, towards climate change and its impact on snow availability. This is based on a survey research conducted in December 2007 at Rovaniemi airport.

Table 1: Respondent's opinions about the attractiveness of Rovaniemi's in response to changing conditions (Tervo-Kankare et al, 2012: 18).

Questions	Yes	No
If the snow season did not start until January would you visit Rovaniemi at that time? ( <i>N</i> = 236)	42%	58%
If the snow reliability was secured would you be willing to pay more? ( <i>N</i> = 236)	58%	42%
<i>Would you have decided to travel to Rovaniemi</i>		
if there was no snow? ( <i>N</i> = 236)	23%	77%
if snow reliability was poor? ( <i>N</i> = 238)	37%	63%
if rather than any natural snow most snow was produced with snowmaking facilities? ( <i>N</i> = 239)	41%	59%
if there were more people? ( <i>N</i> = 235)	47%	53%
if there were less people? ( <i>N</i> = 232)	79%	21%

The table above represents opinions of 246 tourists including British, Irish, French, Spanish, Cypriot, Swiss, and other Europeans in Rovaniemi, with the aim to assess human respond habits to a possible "No-Snow Scenario" in future. Findings showed that Christmas tourists in Rovaniemi react negatively to the estimated changes and various adaptation mechanisms planned for the tourism industry.

Furthermore, Rovaniemi has been predicted to have a snowless Christmas with less than 10 mm snow cover becoming more frequent in every fourth Christmas by the late 20<sup>th</sup> century. There are fears among tourists that by the year 2100, winters in Finnish Lapland will be just about 5 °C when compared to baseline climatic conditions in 1961-1990. It's expected that the snow season will shorten by a week every 15 years (Tervo-Kankare *et al*, 2012).

## 6.0. CONCLUSIVE REMARKS AND PROPOSALS FOR PROGRESS

Amidst the difficulty of fears of climate change facing snow tourism in Finnish Lapland, other aspects in the region that attract tourists include silence, nature, and Northern lights. Therefore, one possible way for progress is through economic diversification in tourism. This entails including other economic versions of attractive products and services. In addition, image marketing of tourism could also target the summer season which offers opportunities for many local and cultural events in the region. Possible ways of achieving economic diversification include; adaptation and re-branding.

SantaPark in Rovaniemi for instance indicated that 50,000 snowballs are being stored in reserve for a snowless winter in future (Tervo-Kankare *et al*, 2012). Both the Levi Ski Resort and Snow Castle Kemi have incorporated snow cannons to ensure continues supply of abundant snow for infrastructure. In terms of re-branding, the Inclusion of non-snow products in branding is worth considering. For instance, Arctic Snow Hotel in 2014 integrated the *glass igloos* to its snow packages. Materials like

wood, plastic and metals have been added in the construction process, with over 10,000 lead lamps that light up the hotel giving it a luxurious service quality.

## **REFERENCES**

- Arctic Snow Hotel (2017) Image Gallery: Arctic Snow Hotel and Glass Igloos. Available: <http://arcticsnowhotel.fi/photo-gallery/>
- Atlas Obscura (2017) Kemi Snow Castle. Available: <http://www.atlasobscura.com/places/kemi-snowcastle>
- Finnish Meteorological Institute (2017) Climate Elements. Available: <http://en.ilmatieteenlaitos.fi/climate-elements>
- Gee, C.Y., Fayos-Solá, E. (2003) International tourism: a global perspective. 2. Ed. Porto Alegre, RS: Bookman. *World Tourism Organization, Madrid, Spain, pp. 1-7.*
- Krippendorf, J. (2009) Sociology of Tourism: for a new understanding of leisure and travel. ed. São Paulo, SP: Aleph. Available: <http://revistas.uexternado.edu.co/index.php/tursoc/article/view/3720/4071>
- Lapland-Vitality for Life (2013) An Abstract of Lapland Tourism Strategy 2007-2010. Available: [http://www.lapinliitto.fi/c/document\\_library/get\\_file?folderId=21330&name=DLFE-677.pdf](http://www.lapinliitto.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=21330&name=DLFE-677.pdf)
- Levi Ski Resort (2017) Skiing Pistes, Lifts and Tracks of Levi. Available: <http://www.levi.fi/en/enjoy-levi/skiing-snowboarding/pistes-tracks.html>
- Luiro, S. (2015) Lapland Tourism Strategy 2015-2018. *Regional Council of Lapland*. Available: [www.lapinliitto.fi/matkailu](http://www.lapinliitto.fi/matkailu)
- Osmund, H.A., and Sunday, J. (2010) Winter Tourism Product Development in Rovaniemi for Lapland Safaris. *Thesis, School of Tourism and Hospitality, Rovaniemi University of Applied Sciences, Finland.*
- Rahman, M.H. (2014) Tourism Development in Finland. Case Study -Tourism Development in Lapland and its Socio-economic Impacts. *Thesis, Centria University of Applied Sciences, Finland.*
- Richards, G., Wilson, J. (2007) Tourism, Creativity and Development. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Snow Magazine (2017) Levi Finland. Available: <http://www.snowmagazine.com/ski-resort-guide/1010-finland/levi>

## **Assessing the Use of Communications Networks in Public Relations Field in Governmental Tourism Organizations in Egypt**

**KAMEL NOHA**

Tourism Studies, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt

**ATTIA ABEER**

Tourism Studies, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt

**ELASSAR HANAN**

Tourism Studies, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt

**SAID HEBA**

Tourism Studies, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt

### **ABSTRACT:**

The digital revolution has provided public relations in the tourism organizations with innovative communication channels. Communication Networks: "Internet, Intranet , Extranet " became the most important communication tools to achieve numerous functions in public relations .It improves the way public relations distribute information, interact with public ,and manage inside and outside organizational communications . It also enables the shifting towards *Electronic Public Relations*. The aim of this study is to assess how far the Governmental Tourism Organizations in Egypt use communication networks in performing public relations functions. The findings of the study showed that the use of communication networks in performing public relations functions is limited; the current methods of communications used in public relations are not appropriate to the ongoing progress in communication and information technology.

**Key words:** Communication Networks, Public Relations, Electronic Public Relations Governmental Tourism Organizations in Egypt .

## **INTRODUCTION :**

The public relations is defined as an administrative job with communicational nature devoted to establish mutual understanding and good relationships between the organization and different kinds of audiences. Public relations perform numerous promotional and communicational functions inside and outside the tourist organization. Therefore, many tourist organizations have specialized department for public relations (Avidar, 2011; Morrison, 1996; Deuschl, 2006).

Nowadays, with the rapid pace of information and communication technology, it became necessary to move from traditional work methods to electronic ones. Communication networks influence the way public relations communicate and do its multiple functions inside and outside tourist organizations instead of traditional ways of communication that have been used before (Balandin and Laizane, 2013; Nejadirani, et al., 2011; Sheil & Violanti, 2013).

Therefore, public relations has to pay more attention to communication networks which is considered the base for successful public relations that should be applied to achieve more progress in public relation performance in the Governmental Tourist Organizations in Egypt (Mousavi, *et al.*, 2013).

So, this research sheds the light on the importance of communication networks in the field of public relations through the discussion of its concept and role proposed by previous researchers. It also investigates whether communication networks are effectively applied in public relation departments in the Governmental Tourism Organizations in Egypt. The findings of this study are aimed to contribute to the theoretical knowledge on public relations in tourism organizations.

Generally, there are three major networks are used in organizations. Some or all of these networks may be available depending on the possibilities of each organization.

## **INTERNET:**

The internet has changed the world especially the communicational practices. It has become a very important way of communication to a majority of tourist organizations. Also, it has a multiple- uses in different areas which led to the existence of new forms of work (Standing, 2014), such as E-Management, E-Marketing, E- Business, E-Human Resource, E-Learning, E-Tourism, E-government, and many other titles (Jusufi 0.2013). Petrovici, 2014 stated that this development is also reflected in the field of public relations which led to the emergence of **Electronic Public Relations** EPR.

## **INTRANET:**

With the growth of information and communication technology, there has been a significant growth in the intra-organizational communications through Intranets (Scheepers and Damsgaard, 2001). Averweg, (2007,p.2) described intranet or internal web as "a private network designed to serve the internal informational needs of an organisation, using Internet concepts and tools". The difference between the internet and intranet is while the internet generally allows everyone to access all network resources; the intranet allows limited employees who have username and password to access the internal LAN of the organization.



## **EXTRANET:**

Many organizations used the term "Extranet" to describe a secure sharing of selective information outside the organization. Cartwright, 2005 demonstrated that Extranet is a combination of both Intranet and Internet, in order to share a part of organization's data safely with other institutions and bodies. This network allows a new relationship and new methods of communicational practices between the organization and its partners abroad.

## **THE EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION NETWORKS ON PUBLIC RELATIONS PERFORMANCE:**

Nowadays, in the era of communication and information technology, Communication networks are playing an important role in the field of public relations. These networks are increasingly changing the way public relations practitioners communicate and do their tasks. Scholars noted that communication networks affect public relations practice especially in the age of digital revolution (Mitrofan and Bulborea, 2013; Johnson, 1997).

They can easily remove barriers in time and place, increase communication between individuals and organizations and facilitate the way of collecting and exchanging information, data and files with a non-costly way attracting a lot of tourist organizations. They also have a positive impact not only on the performance of public relations but also on the organizational performance in general. (Mousavi and Badrabad, 2008; Zlatko, 2013; Wilson and Supa, 2013).

Firstly, Intranet can be applied in the field of PR to enhance its communicational role inside the organization. It provides public relations practitioners with a secure and speedy connection allowing them managing and distributing information through a few mouse clicks (Ramashilabele, 2010). Within intranet public relations employees can also access information, collect data and share documents which are important for their work (Bezos, 2014; Buhalis, 2011, Chen *et al.*, 2004; Netanda, 2013).

By applying Intranet technology, public relations employees can also effectively follow-up and coordinate tasks and missions not only between them but also with other administrative departments inside the organization (Naqvi, 2008; Hustada & Vikstøl, 2014). This network enables them achieving compatibility in implementing various burdens and responsibilities avoiding duplication of work. In addition, intranet helps public relations managers to obtain a clear picture of what is really going inside their management or whole organization in order to monitor and evaluate performance continuously (Masrek *et al.*, 2007; Poore *et al.*, 2002). Turban *et al.* (2004) illustrated that the Intranet has the power to change decision-making process. Consequently, it can be said that intranet is a fundamental network which serves the internal communicational needs of any organization (Netanda, 2013; Lai, 2001).

On the other hand the internet has a major influence on public relations practice, which has changed the role of the PR employees in the tourism sector (Avidar, 2011). Lindic, (2006) demonstrated that the internet is a powerful tool that offers millions of opportunities for public relations practitioners to perform research and spread their message. Moreover, it has given them the ability to know the opinions and attitudes of different audiences towards the tourist organization (Holtz, 2002). Online PR has changed the PR industry and it's not going back. So, the dynamic nature of the internet requires that public relations practitioners should benefit from the advantages of the various applications and

services offered by the internet. Through internet they can do several tasks in a record time, as well as, they can integrate audio, visual and print messages, which contributes in developing their performance ,in particular, and the performance of their organizations in general(Aghaei,*et al.*, 2012; Archer,2012).

Currently, public relations uses many Internet applications such as: Online Surveys, Website, Online Database, E-mail ,Newsgroup ,Video Conferencing and Social media in order to contact directly to its audience (Gaddis, 2001; Vajpayee& Sharma,2012; Cho *et al*, 2002; Brown, 2014 Hoyle&Jr,2002). Therefore, it is hard to imagine public relations profession with its communicational nature without the Internet.

Third, many organizations have benefitted from extranet in different aspects. This network is considered the most suitable network for the communicational operations that have been done outside the tourist organization. It can be considered as Extended Intranet (Fitch , 2010; Kallioranta& Vlosky,2004) .There are many benefits of this network as a new technology in the field of public relations, these benefits are: sharing more accurate information, achieving coordination among business units, obtaining rapid feedback from other partners, publishing corporate documents (Laudon, K. C. and Laudon, J. P. 2002).

Additionally, this external communicational system can supports the business process and builds better relationships with other institutions reducing costs and decreasing service times. It makes public relations more efficient and effective than what it was before (Bidgoli, 2013).

In short, extranet enables public relations practitioners achieving integrated cooperative performance between these organizations to each other, providing them the flexibility in various dealings, which couldn't be achieved through by traditional means of communication.

As a result, it's clear that communication networks give the opportunity to public relations to be more creative and communicative in today's dynamic environment characterized by digital revolution. Moreover, these networks provide a chance to improve the communicational skills of public relations staff through depending on modern technological methods in their work (Dutton, 2013).

## **ELECTRONIC PUBLIC RELATIONS VERSUS TRADITIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS:**

E-PR is about effective application of information and communication technology in public relations to improve the efficiency of public relations functions. It intended to achieve the flexibility and effectiveness of communication with the staff and other administrative departments inside the organization, and increased interaction with other external audiences and organizations that are related to the tourist organization; which lead to a benefit for all parties.

Based on the above distinction between traditional public relations and electronic public relations can be made and summarized in the following table.

Table 1: comparison between traditional public relations and electronic public relations

Comparisons	Traditional PR	Electronic PR
The nature of communication	- One-way communication - Confused information	-Two way communication - Accurate information



		- openness, transparency
Interaction	Inefficient due to its limited reach to different audiences	-Open. -long-term relationships between an organization and target groups
Types of communicational tools	Traditional tools such as (television,radio,newsletters ,meetings,advertisements , board,letters ,telephone,fax...etc)	Modern technological means (such as communication networks) , which kept the rapid pace of the era of digital revolution and information technology.
Saving data	Paperwork is exposed to loss and damage over time	Electronic practices can be protected and saved.
Information sources	The audience get the information from only one source	The audience has multiple channels to get the required information
Speed	A slow pace in performing tasks as a result of overlapping procedures.	-Performing tasks rapidly -Saving time
Public relations practitioners	-Negative attitudes prevail among employees towards the organization as they do not have the opportunity to discuss their problems or express their opinions. -The difficulty to access the required information.	-Positive attitudes prevail among employees towards the organization due to their access to the required information and easily communicate with each other. -They can also express their problems and suggestions to the senior management.
Public relations goals	-Low and traditional.	-Clear and targeted.
Monitoring and control	Not achieved, due to the lack of mechanisms or means that can be used by public relations managers to achieve effective control over all processes and organizational communications.	-Be able to achieve effective control over all activities and transactions that have taken place whether inside or outside the organization through communication networks. - Public relations managers can easily evaluate and assess performance.

Decision making process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-The inability to provide a clear vision for the senior management about the views and orientations of the audiences towards the organization's process.</li> <li>-Public relation's employees aren't participating in the decision-making process.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Receive immediate response</li> <li>- Public relation's officials can provide advice to senior management and the transfer of the perceptions and opinions of different audiences</li> <li>- Public relation's employees participate fruitfully in the decision-making process.</li> </ul>
Organization's goals	Public relations employees only establish the goals of the public relations department and don't have the efficiency to participate in developing the organization's goals.	-Public relations employees participate in setting realistic goals for the organization as they successfully communicate with internal and external public.
Success factors	<p>Doesn't have these factors because of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Its limited relations.</li> <li>-Low interaction between the organization and its audience.</li> <li>-Requires more time, effort and cost.</li> </ul>	<p>It has the success factors, which include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Long-term relationships</li> <li>- Achieve a High interaction</li> <li>- The use of new and innovative ways of communication</li> <li>-Ability to reduce time, effort and cost</li> </ul>

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

The study analyses the current situation of public relations in three of the Governmental Tourist Organizations in Egypt: Ministry of Tourism, Tourism Promotion Authority and Tourism Development Authority, to discover how far these organizations use communication networks in public relations practice.

The field study was conducted on two parts: **First** personal interviews with (10) of public relations practitioners (4) of them are responsible for information and communication technology. These interviews intend to evaluate whether communication networks are effectively applied in public relation departments and whether they have an effect on the performance of public relations in those organizations.

**Second:** questionnaires that have been distributed on a group of managers in these organizations in order to analyze and evaluate the fact of communication networks in these organizations as a whole. The questionnaire was distributed to (127) managers. The sample used in this stage was the simple random sample. The total number of collected questionnaires which is valid to be analyzed was (94) questionnaires with (74%) response rate representing (54%) from the total population in those

organizations (174 managers). The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyze the questionnaire results. The reliability and internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured. The scale was found to be internally reliable, ( $\alpha = 0.878$ ).

At the end of the study practical suggestions are presented based on research findings for effective application of communication networks in the field of public relations in Egyptian Governmental Tourist Organizations to develop the performance of public relations.

## **RESULTS:**

The outcome of this study can be divided into two parts. The first part disclosed an assessment of the current status of the public relations practice via personal interviews. The second part presented the findings concerning the questionnaires of the tourism organizations' managers.

### **Interviews Results:**

The interview conducted by the researcher has proved that the surveyed organizations have an **intranet network**. On the other hand, more than a half of interviewed employees illustrated that there is no effective application for this network. All of public relations employees still depend on traditional communicational tools for internal communication such as: telephone, reports, official letters, electronic mail, which indicates the ineffective application of intranet network in the field of public relations.

The majority of interviewed employees (79%) noted that this deficiency is due to the absence of a clear policy to enable the use of intranet, along with the presence of some administrative leaders that have a psychological barrier in dealing with the modern technology, especially in the governmental sector. Consequently, this caused a weakness in the mechanism of internal communication in the surveyed organizations either among public relations employees or other departments inside the organizations.

Also, (93%) public relations employees agreed that the internet plays an important role in their daily work. It is already used and activated by public relations practitioners. They also noted that internet enhances the way they do their tasks.

Furthermore, (64%) of interviewed employees mentioned that in the case of some technical or managerial problems, they face difficulty in relying entirely on the traditional methods of communication that also used in their work. As a result, it is clear that internet affects, to a great extent, public relations performance.

On the other hand, when asked about the **extranet network**, most of the interviewed employees (71%) demonstrated that till now there is no serious decision concerning this network in both Tourism Promotion Authority and Tourism Development Authority. On the contrary, the remaining employees (29%) in the Ministry of Tourism stated that despite of having an extranet network, they still wholly depend on other traditional tools of communication.

So, until now there are no extranet network dedicated to connect the three surveyed organizations to each other, despite the large number of businesses and tourism projects which have been carried out in collaboration between them.

Subsequently, coordinating tasks and businesses among these organizations was done through relying on traditional methods of external communication such as: fax, sending a delegate person from the organization, phone, e-mail and personal interviews. Moreover, the interviews also showed that there are no electronic means of communication with other ministries such as the Ministry of planning, the Ministry of Civil Aviation and Ministry of environment which are significantly associated with the tourism sector. Undoubtedly, this situation affects negatively the performance of public relations .

From the above it can be claimed that there are some limitation that hinder the use of communication networks in the field of public relations in the governmental tourist organizations in Egypt, especially both intranet and extranet. **These barriers can be summarized as follow:**

- The senior management is not convinced concerning the use of communication networks, or any other technological techniques.
- Fear of using technology and unwillingness to change among some of employees.
- Lack of technological skills, as well as, there is no benefit from the training sessions which have been held by those organizations. This is due to the absence of a specific training plan organized according to employees training needs.

#### **Questionnaire results:**

The level of using intranet network, is demonstrated as follows by Table 1:

Table (2) Assessing the use of intranet

<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>(%)</b>
<b>Intranet connection</b>		
Yes	63	67.0%
No	31	33.0%
<b>If yes , the extent of using Intranet</b>		
High	0	0.0
Medium	0	0.0
Low	13	20.6
Limited	14	22.2
None	36	57.1
<b>Communicational tools used to exchange information and coordinate work between the different departments and sections inside the tourist organizations</b>		
Telephone	46	48.9
Reports	36	38.3
Formal letters	29	30.9

Meetings	19	20.2
E mail	17	18.1
Advertisements board	21	22.3
Intranet	13	13.8
<b>The simplicity of internal communication through current communicational tools</b>		
High	12	12.8
Medium	20	21.3
Low	22	23.4
Limited	26	27.7
None	14	14.9

1. It was illustrated that a high percentage of the sample (67.02%) confirmed the existence of the intranet network inside the organizations. Conversely, the remaining percentage (33.9%) negated that.
2. The high percentage (57.1%) of those who having an intranet network ,showed that there is no effective use of the intranet in their organizations.
3. Approximately half of the sample (48.9%) are used Telephone in coordinating tasks and exchanging data inside the organization, followed by Reports at (38.3%), then Letters (30.9%) and finally only (13.8%) who used the intranet network.
4. The results shown that there is a limited coordination between the different departments inside the organizations at a rate (27.7%) of the sample. This is due to the traditional communicational tools which are still widely used in the surveyed organizations.

**The above results supported what public relations employees mentioned through interviews concerning the low level of intranet usage, which indicates the ineffective application of this network.**

The use of Internet network (external communication):

Table (3) Assessing the use of internet network

Indicator	Frequency	(%)
<b>Internet connection</b>		
Yes	65	69.1
No	29	10.7
Only in some departments	14	14.9
<b>If yes , the extent of using Internet</b>		
High	15	23.1

Medium	24	36.9
Low	13	20
Limited	4	6.2
None	9	13.8
<b>The different internet applications used in organizations</b>		
E mail	45	47.9
Website	42	44.7
Blogs	17	18.1
Database	34	36.3
Social media	29	30.9
Video-conferencing	0	0.0

- The results shown in the above table illustrated that a high level (69.1%) of respondents using Internet network.
- Only (36.9%) of the sample indicated the effectiveness of the organization's website.
- It was demonstrated that there are many Internet applications used in the organizations. The answers showed that the most Internet application used by respondents is the e-mail at a high percentage (47.9%), followed by the organization's web site (44.7%), then databases (36.2%) . On the other hand, a low average percentage of the sample (30.9%) used social media, while the blogs are the least percentage of use (18.1%).

The use of extranet network (external communication):

Table (4) Assessing the use of Extranet network

<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>(%)</b>
<b>The extranet connection</b>		
Yes	8	8.5
No	86	91.5
<b>If yes , the extent of using Extranet</b>		
High	0	0
Medium	1	12.5
Low	1	12.5
Limited	6	75.0

None	0	0
<b>Communicational tools used to manage work with other organizations and institutions</b>		
Fax	70	74.5
Telephone	32	34
A representative from the organization	41	43.6
E mail	19	20.2
Letters	32	34
Extranet	0	0
<b>The easiness of external communication and coordinating tasks between the organization and other institutions</b>		
High	6	6.4
Medium	10	10.6
Low	33	35.1
Limited	42	44.7
None	3	3.2

- The table indicates that The majority (91.5%) of the sample stated that there is no extranet network in their organizations, which is reflected in a limited average percentage (75.0%) of its usage.
- On the other hand, the absence of extranet network undoubtedly affects negatively the ease of communication and the exchange of information among the surveyed organizations. This is due to the traditional methods of communication which used by surveyed organizations.
- The results illustrated that fax is the most communicational tool (74.4%) which used to follow-up and organize work with other institutions and bodies , while there is no use of extranet in the surveyed organizations. Accordingly, this result consistent dramatically with what was mentioned through interviews concerning the absence of this network in Tourism Promotion Authority and Tourism Development Authority and it isn't effectively applied in the Ministry of Tourism. Consequently, there is a limited connection (44.7%) between the organization and other institutions.

## CONCLUSION

Communication networks can increasingly change the way public relations communicate and perform in and out the tourism organizations. They give the opportunity to public relations to be more creative and communicative in today's dynamic environment.

The research's results have revealed that despite the majority of public relation managers in the governmental tourism organizations in Egypt are convinced of the importance of the use of communications networks in easing and improving the effectiveness of public relations, these networks suffers from many obstacles that hinder its use on a wide range such as the lack of finances, the lack of equipments and the lack of coordination between the departments.

The research also showed that the current methods of communications used in public relations are not appropriate to the ongoing progress in information and communication technology which negatively affected the way public relations performed its tasks.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the outcome of this research the researchers recommend that Governmental tourism leaders have to make a changes to keep up with the rapid growth in technology, strengthen positive points, and determine problems that face public relations in these organizations, in order to achieve maximum benefit from communication networks. The culture of Electronic Public Relations must be spread in all the government tourist organizations in Egypt encourage employees to use technology by providing incentives and appropriate training.

The need to modernize and develop the IT infrastructure in governmental tourist organizations through clear and specific plan and attention to its maintenance and strengthening continuously.

## **REFERENCES:**

- Aghaei, S., Nematbakhsh, A., Farsani, H. (2012) , ' Evolution Of The World Wide Web: From Web1.0 To Web 4.0', *International Journal of Web & Semantic Technology (IJWesT)* Vol.3, No.1, pp. 1-10.
- Averweg, u. (2005), Impact Of Intranets On Executive Information Systems Implementation In Organisations In Kwazulu-Natal, Proceedings of the 35<sup>th</sup> Conference of SACLA – July 3<sup>rd</sup> – 6<sup>th</sup> , 2005, Kasane, Botswana , pp. 28-42
- Avidar ,R.(2011), Israeli public relations and the Internet , *Israel Affairs*, Vol. 17, No. 3, Routledge, pp.401-421.
- Balandin, S., Laizane, S. (2013), e-Tourism: The Role of ICT in Tourism Industry, proceeding of the 13th conference of Fruct association, pp.184,185.
- Bezos, J. (2014) Enabling Business-To-Consumer Electronic Commerce, Pearson Education, <http://community.mis.temple.edu/mis2101sec4sp2015/files/2015/01/Week-04>
- Brown ,k. (2014) Internet society, Global Internet Report .pp. 6-13
- Buhalis, D ., Jun, S.(2011) 'E Tourism', *Contemporary Tourism Reviews*, Good Fellow Publishers Lt, pp. 1-38.
- Cartwright, R.(2005), ' Key Concepts in Information and Communication Technology', Palgrave Macmillan Hampshire, Amazon, UK.



- Chen, J., Zhang, R., Nerur, S. (1998) Intranet And Extranet: Implications For Corporate Information Management, Proceedings of the 1998 Academy of International Business Southwest Chapter Meeting, pp. 288-293.
- Cho ,Y., Hiltz ,R., Fjermestad,J (2002),' An Analysis of Online Customer Complaints: Implications for Web Complaint Management', Proceedings of the 35th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, pp.1-10.
- Damsgaard ,J., Scheepers, R.(2001),'Using Intranet Technology To Foster Organizational Knowledge Creation ,Global Co-Operation In The New Millennium' The 9th European Conference On Information Systems Bled, June 27-29Slovenia, pp. 674-686.
- Deuschl, D.(2006), Travel and Tourism Public Relations (An Introductory guide for hospitality manages), Elsevier Butterworth – Heinemann, Oxford, pp. 5-9.
- Dutton, W., Blank ,G., Groselj ,D . (2013) Cultures Of The Internet: The Internet In Britain, *Oxford Internet Survey 2013 Report*, United Kingdom .
- Fitch, K.(2010),' The New Frontier: Singaporean And Malaysian Public Relations Practitioners' Perceptions Of New Media', *Asia Pacific Public Relations Journal*, Vol. 10, pp.17-33.
- Gaddis, S. (2001) On-Line Research Technique For The Public Relations Practitioner, Handbook Of Public Relations, Sage Publications, pp. 591-602.
- Hoyle,L. ,Jr ,Cae, Cmp.(2002),'Event Marketing ,How To Successfully Promote Events, Festivals ,Conventions And Expositions, Canada, John Wiley & Sons ,Inc, pp.29-52.
- Hustad ,E. ,Vikstøl ,T .(2014),' Implementing Intranet 2.0: A Study Of Knowledge Requirements For External Consultants In Enterprise Systems, *Procedia Technology*, p-p 694 – 703
- Johnson, M. (1997),' Public Relations and Technology, Practitioner Perspective', *Journal Of Public Relations Research*, Vol 9, No .3, pp. 213-236.
- Jusufi, L.(2013),' Information Technology As Factor In Development Of Contemporary Business', *Iliria International Review*, pp. 135-154.
- Kallioranta, S., Vlosky, R.(2004),' A Model Of Extranet Implementation Success Effects On Business Performance', Louisiana Forest Products Development Center working paper 66, pp. 1-20.
- Lai,V.(2001), 'Intraorganizational Communication With Intranets' , *Communications Of The Acm* Vol. 44, No. 7, pp. 95-100.
- Laudon, K. C. and Laudon, J. P. (2002), Management Information Systems, Sixth edition, Upper Saddle River:Prentice-Hall.
- Masrek, M., M., Karim, N., Hussein, M. (2007),' Antecedents And Impact Of Intranet Utilization: A Conceptual Framework', *Journal Of Information Technology Impact*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp.213-226.
- Morrison, A.(1996) Hospitality and Travel marketing, Delmar Publisher, , Second edition, Albany, New York ,pp.458-478.
- Mousavi ,S., Badrabad, M., Mohammadi ,M. (2013),' The Role Of Public Relations In Organization', *Arabian Journal Of Business And Management Review*, Vol. 1, No. 10, p-p. 47-51.
- Netanda,R.(2013) "Effectiveness Of The Extranet As A Communication Tool In Higher Education: A Case Study Of University Of South Africa", Master Thesis , University Of Zululand.
- Petrovici, M. (2014).' E – Public Relations, Impacts And Efficiency, A Case Study', *Procedia Social And Behavioral Science*, pp. 79-84.
- Poore, M., Pilt, L., Ewing, M.(2002),' Intranet Effectiveness: a public relations paper and pencil checklist', *Public Relations Review*,p-p.

- Ramashilabele, M.(2010),' Effective Internal Communication Methods And Media For Knowledge Transfer In The Manufacturing Industry', Doctoral thesis, Gordon Institute Of Business Science, University Of Pretoria .
- Sheil, A., Violanti, M.(2013), Dynamic Public relations "The 24/7 PR cycle", 11<sup>th</sup> edition, Peach pit Press, Pearson.
- Turban, E., McLean E. and Wetherbe, J. (2004). Information Technology for Management. Transforming Organizations in the Digital Economy. Fourth Edition. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Vajpayee, A. & Sharma, B. (2012),' Usenet MHT: Usenet with Deletion, *International Journal of Computer Trends and Technology*, Vol3, Issue3, pp. 369-371.
- Wilson, D., Supa, D. (2013), Examining Modern Media Relations: An Exploratory Study Of The Effect Of Twitter On The Public Relations Journalist Relationship, *Public Relations Journal*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 1-20.
- Nedelko, Z. (2013),'The Role Of Information And Communication Technology In Supply Chain', *Logistics & Sustainable Transport* Vol.1, Issue3, p-p. 1-13.

# **The Influence of Physical Work Environment on Hotel Back-of-the-House Employees' Satisfaction and Productivity: A Case Study on Hilton Hotels**

**MOHAMED DARDEER**

Human Resources Department, Hilton King's Ranch, Egypt

**ASHRAF TAG-ELDEEN**

Hotel Management Department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt

**ISLAM SALEM**

Hotel Management Department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt

## **ABSTRACT**

The workplace environment is the most critical factor in keeping an employee satisfied in today's business world. Today's workplace is different, diverse, and constantly changing. Therefore, physical environment affects how employees in an organization interact, perform tasks, and be lead. Physical environment as an aspect of the work environment has directly affected the human sense and subtly changed interpersonal interactions and thus productivity. Ambient features in office environments, such as lighting, temperature, existence of windows, free air movement suggest that these elements of the physical environment influence employees' attitude, behaviours, satisfaction, performance and productivity.

Therefore, the main purpose of this research is to study the two constructs and study the effect of physical work environment on employees' satisfaction and productivity in five-star hotels in Egypt, Hilton Hotels and Resorts. The target respondents of this study include back-of-the-house departments in Hilton hotels in Egypt as less care is given to them and more attention is given to front-of-the-house departments. A structured survey was distributed among twelve Hilton hotels in five main tourist areas; Cairo, Alexandria, South Sinai, Red Sea and Upper Egypt.

The results of this study provide important evidence of the impact of the physical work environment on employees' satisfaction and productivity. This study links the physical work environment such as sound, lighting, colour, temperature, workspace, design, layout of equipment and tools with employees' satisfaction and productivity. The findings also revealed that the most satisfied and most productive employees at Hilton Hotels in Egypt are those who have the highest level of convenient physical work environment.

**Key Words:** Physical Work Environment, Satisfaction, Productivity, Hilton

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Many work environment studies have shown that workers are satisfied with reference to specific workspace features. These features are highly significant to their productivity and workspace satisfaction (Veitch, Charles, Newsham, Marquardt and Geerts, 2002 a; Humphries, 2005). They are lighting, ventilation rates, access to natural light and acoustic environment (Veitch et al. 2002).

Hence, productivity is defined as, the system's success in using resources to achieve their goals (Konrad and Mengel, 2000). An efficient physical office environment result in a number of benefits to the organization, since it affects how much satisfaction employees derive from their jobs, affects the impression individuals get out of the organization's work areas, provides effective allocation and use of the building's floor space, provides employees with efficient, productive work areas, facilitates the expansion and rearrangement of work areas when the need arises, and facilitates employees supervision (McCoy and Evans, 2005).

The workplace entails an environment in which the worker performs his work consequently; an effective workplace is an environment where results can be achieved as expected by management (Shikdar, 2004). Hotel workers have higher rates of occupational injury and illness compared to workers in the service sector at large in 2002, hotel workers had 6.7% occupational injuries and illnesses among full-time workers, compared to 4.6% in the service sector as a whole. Hotel workers also have higher rates for occupational injuries and illness resulting in lost workdays 1.8% vs. 1.3% in the service sector among full-time workers (Statistics, 2003), room cleaners are especially at elevated risk for musculoskeletal disorders (Bernhardt, 2003).

There are several factors that are being described by (Horrigan and Herz, 2003) towards the success of the employees' productivity. The factors are physical work environment, equipment, meaningful work, performance expectation, feedback on performance, reward for good or bad system, standard operating procedures, knowledge, skills and attitudes. McCoy and Evans (2005) stated that the elements of physical work environment need to be proper so that the employees would not be stressed while getting their job done. In their article, they also stated that the physical element plays an important role in developing the network and relationship at workplace. Companies regularly invest in technology and employees' development programs in the implicit belief that some of this investment will be translated into a competitive advantage. Similarly, the facility and workplace are an additional 'lever' that management can pull to enhance performance (Humphries, 2005).

The workplace environment is the most critical factor in keeping an employee satisfied in today's business world. Today's workplace is different, diverse, and constantly changing. Therefore, physical environment affects how employees in an organization interact, perform tasks, and are led. Physical environment as an aspect of the work environment has directly affected the human sense and subtly changed interpersonal interactions and thus productivity. This is because the characteristics of a room or a place of meeting for a group have consequences regarding productivity and satisfaction level (Ajala, 2012).

The physical environment at work is crucial to employees' productivity, satisfaction, social relations and health. An office is often referred to as a room or an area where people conduct clerical, professional or business activities. Offices can be either traditional that are enclosed with walls and occupied by one or a small number of people (also called enclosed or cellular offices), or open plan offices that lack interior walls and are occupied by a comparatively large number of people in a large, open space (Ahmed and Zulquernain, 2012).

The ultimate purpose of this study is to develop policies, processes, and practices concerning physical work environment to increase employees' satisfaction and productivity. *Therefore, the problem of the study can be formulated in the following questions: Does physical work environment affect employees' satisfaction and productivity?*

## **2 LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Physical work environment**

Work environment comprises the totality of forces, actions and other influential factors that are currently and/or potentially contending with the employees' activities and productivity. It shows the interrelationship that exists within the employees' in persons and their working environment (O'Neill, 2010).

The environmental comfort at a workplace can be physical, functional, and psychological. Physical comfort is related to basic human needs such as safety, hygiene, and accessibility, comfort combines such aspects of the physical work environment as appropriate lighting, ergonomic furniture and rooms designed for meetings and collaborative work (Leather, Zarola and Santos, 2010).

However, it is better to start with work environment in general (there are many studies on work environment) and then stress on physical work environment like as in the current study. The physical work environment will be examined well as to our knowledge. There are few studies that explained its importance in the field of hospitality industry (O'Neill, 2010).

Hence, there are many important factors in the work environment that should be considered such as noise, lighting, building color, temperature design, workplace layout, workstation set-up, furniture and equipment design, quality and space (Vischer, 2007).

As for **sound**, Sound can be regarded as noise or euphony that depends on the individual employee and also the employee's situation. Not all noise at a workplace can be regarded as unpleasant as well as euphonic to certain employees. Noise, on the other hand, is a psychological concept involving more than perception of sound loudness or sound intensity which is measured in decibels (Schlittmeier, Hellbruck, Thaden and Vorlander, 2008). Unfortunately, sound or noise problems in an office are

something that could not be avoided. When sound is turned off, errors in work are reduced and productivity increases (Bruce, 2008).

Noise is one of the leading causes of employees' distraction, leading to reduced productivity, serious inaccuracies, and increased job-related stress; workplace distractions cut employees' productivity by as much as 40%, and increase errors by 27 % (Dobrucki, zoltogorski, Pruchnicki and Bolejko, 2010).

To sum up, Noise in the work environment has a great influence on the employees' behaviour. Loud voice leads to employees' being tension, followed by dissatisfaction from the work environment. Consequently, it will lead to low productivity. Noise comes from some equipment such as heaters, hoods, ACs, printers and photocopiers. Ringing phones can be considered one of the main factors that affect the employees' performance, especially if more than one telephone exists in the same place (Amato, Rivas, Viana, Moreno, Bouso and Reche, 2014).

As for **lighting**, Humans are affected both psychologically and physiologically by the different spectrums provided by the various types of light. These effects are the less quantifiable and easily overlooked. The benefits of day lighting have been associated with improved mood, enhanced morale, lower fatigue, and reduced eyestrain. One of the important psychological aspects from day lighting is meeting the need for contact with the outside living environment (Winterbottom and Wilkins, 2009).

Lighting condition is very important; the total luminous environment usually varies with the type of lighting sources and location of the sources. Poorly designed and maintained lighting can result in glare and flicker that may cause vision problems (Pulay, 2010). Natural lighting is one of the most important sources of light that gives the employees the relief to see the sun shine. White lighting lamps are the best artificial lighting sources that give the employees the feeling of satisfaction (Hawes, Brunye, Mahoney, Sullivan and Aall, 2012).

Additionally, **Colour** is one of many ambient stressors or inherent aspects of the environment that place demands upon us to adapt or change. As an ambient stressor, colour may have the potential to affect an individual's functioning at nearly all levels: physiology, motivation, behavior, and cognitive and social interactions (Bleicher, 2005).

Colour may also be used to help people feel physically and emotionally more comfortable in their surroundings, and that it may even have the potential to enhance a person's mood and productivity within his work environment by inducing feelings of comfort, good will, arousal and overall favourable attitudes (Hill and Barton, 2005).

Some equipment is painted in certain colour as a coding device, such as fire equipment are red, danger areas are yellow, and first aid stations are green. The colour itself differs in its reflective properties. However, this claim has no empirical evidence and no validity. Colour is a visual phenomenon triggered by the response to the stimulation of light. It pervades every aspect of our lives, embellishes the ordinary and gives beauty and drama to everyday objects (Garris and Monroe, 2005).

Schloss and Palmer (2011) stated that colour influences not only the mood but also wellness and productivity. Colour has been suggested to increase productivity and performance, reduce accidents, and raise employees' morale and yet to play roles in the workplace by simply providing a more pleasant working environment and at the same time it can be an aid in safety practices.

Moreover, **temperature** of the workplace is greatly dependent on the work nature. If you work in a workshop, then the employees have the natural air. But if the employees work in an office, then the temperature depends on several factors. 35% of employees responded instantly that the lack of windows was their biggest difficulty with their office space. The specific reasons given for the dislike of the windowless offices were no daylight, poor ventilation, inability to know about the weather, inability to see out and have a view, feelings of being cooped up, feelings of isolation and claustrophobia, and feelings of depression and tension (Seppanen, 2006).

Berry, Bowen and Kjellstrom (2010) confirmed that temperature plays a significant role in workplace environment, especially how the human body tries to maintain an ideal temperature. A theory of effective temperature proposed four components; namely, air temperature, humidity, airflow and temperature of objects. However, temperature is also considered one of the most important factors of the work environment. The moderate temperature leads to an increase in productivity while high or low temperature leads to the discomfort of the employees and a decrease in productivity (Jaakola, 2012).

With reference to **work space, design and layout**, Vischer (2008) clarified that individuals have their own personal space when violated; lead them to feel crowded and uncomfortable. Thus, when infringements on personal space intrinsic to the open-plan design exceed employees' comfort levels, feelings of crowdedness and loss of privacy are likely to emerge. These feelings of crowdedness and loss of privacy then result in the dissatisfaction and negative reactions displayed by employees working in open plan workspaces. Keller (2008) argues that increasingly, an organization's physical layout is designed around employees' needs in order to maximize productivity and satisfaction. An organization's physical environment and its design and layout can affect employees' behaviour in the workplace.

Brown (2013) clarified that work space design and the spaces between equipment and furniture have a direct impact on the employees' satisfaction. The existence of many employees in a small space with office furniture and equipment leads to discomfort. Additionally, there is an advantage of the open space offices as they lead to the ease of information transformation among the employees and give the space for organizing offices and equipment relatively.

## ***2.2 Employee's satisfaction and productivity***

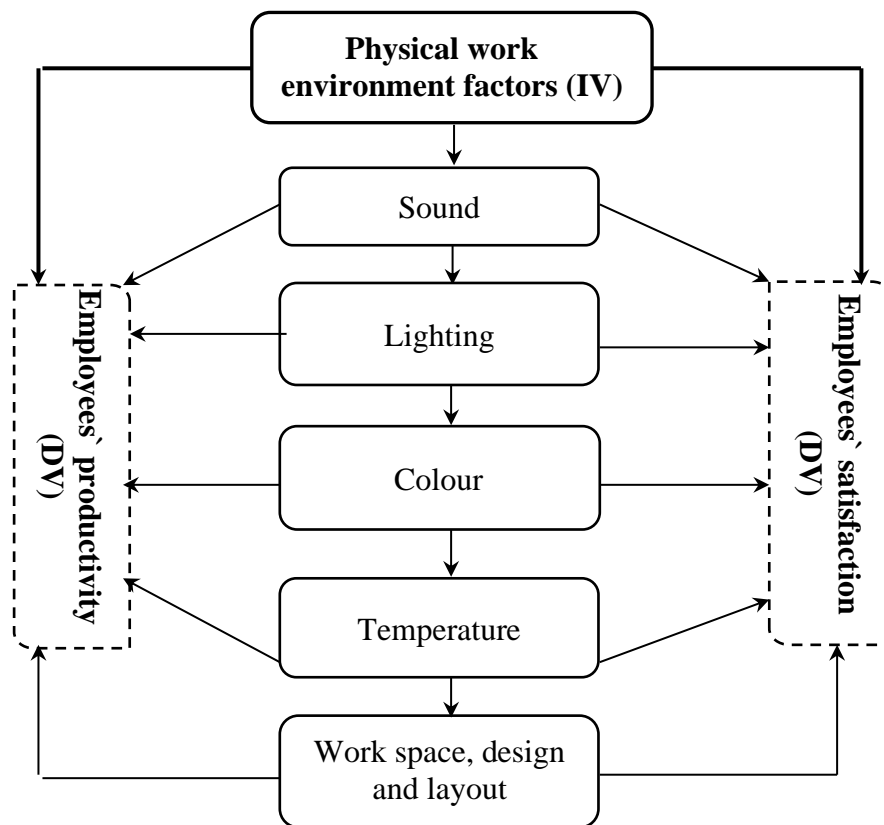
Employees' job satisfaction is directly associated with customer loyalty. Customer loyalty is unequivocally related to profitability. Therefore, maintaining quality employees would be the ideal method to sustain a solid reputation and build a repeat customer base (Christina and Dogan, 2009). Newsham, Brand, Donnelly, Veitch, Aries, and Charles (2009) declared that workers who are more comfortable with their work environments demonstrate more satisfaction with their jobs, but that satisfaction is differed by individual characteristics. Employees who experience job satisfaction are likely to be more productive and stay on the job. Job satisfaction is so important that its absence often leads to lethargy and reduced organizational commitment (Sitzman and Leiss, 2009).

According to McGuire and McLarin (2009) job satisfaction is often determined by how well the outcome meet or exceed expectations and it represents several related attitudes such as work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and coworkers which are most important characteristics of a job to which people have effective response.

Dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs or be absent than satisfied employees (Giannikis and Mihail, 2011). On other hand, Employees' satisfaction is extremely important in the work place as it influences an organization's success and performance by improving morale. This, in turn, reduces staff turnover (Thompson and Phua, 2012).

The interior design of the workspace affects directly the distribution of the offices and equipment that leads to the employees' satisfaction. This also affect the absent days count and positively leads employees to stay stable at their work positions without resignation due to their job satisfaction and hence their productivity will increase (Ruchi and Surindr, 2014).

Employees' productivity and their satisfaction from their work environment are positively related. The higher the employees' satisfaction is, the more productive they will be. Equipment organization, proper lighting, cheerful colors and proper temperature level are all essential factors that improve productivity (Edmans, Alex, Lucius, and Chendi, 2014).



IV= Independent variable

DV= Dependent variable

Figure 1. The conceptual model of research



The workers indicated that freedom from auditory distractions was the most important feature to efficiently and effectively accomplish their work tasks. Eighty percent of workers believed that they would be more productive if their workspace provided more acoustical privacy and if 25 percent of the noise was reduced. This will increase the perceived quality of the work environment and reduce stress by 27 percent and consequently form a 20 percent increase in productivity (Smith, 2011).

Office environment can be described in terms of physical and behavioural components. These components can further be divided in the form of different independent variables an organization's physical environment, its design and layout can affect employees' behaviour in the workplace (Savin, 2013). Stress, whilst being a psychological condition can, if prolonged, cause physiological effects, which include headaches and nausea and, in the long-term conditions such as diabetes and elevated blood pressure, all of which can lead to loss of productivity and absenteeism (Aisha, Hardjomidjojo and Yassierli, 2013).

To sum up, employees' productivity is the main concern of any organization that should be focused on. Through employees' productivity, the targets of organizations will be reached and hence their success will show off among their competitors or sister organizations. One of the targets to measure the success of any organization is the employees' productivity (Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford, 2014).

Bases on the above mentioned, the hypotheses can be stated as the following (*figure 1*);

The following research hypotheses will be tested:

- *H1: There is a positive relationship between the physical work environment and employees' satisfaction.*
- *H2: There is a positive relationship between the physical work environment and employees' productivity.*

### **3. METHOD**

#### ***3.1.1 Nature of the study***

The overall objective of this study is to examine the importance of physical work environment and its effect on employees' satisfaction and productivity in the hospitality industry in Hilton hotels in Egypt. So, this study can be classified as a case study research. The reason behind choosing case study is that it is the method that enables the researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context. In most cases, a case study method selects a small geographical area or a very limited number of individuals as the subjects of study (Yin, 2013).

Another reason for the recognition of case study as a research method is that researchers were becoming more concerned about the limitations of quantitative methods in providing holistic and in-depth explanations of the social and behavioural problems in question. Through case study methods, a researcher is able to go beyond the quantitative statistical results and understand the behavioural conditions through the actor's perspective (Baskarada, 2014).

### **3.2 Data collection**

The target respondents of this study included back-of-the-house departments in Hilton hotels in Egypt as less care is given to them and more attention is given to the front of house departments. Additionally, those back-of-the-house departments have most of the work pressure in hotel operations.

The study is conducted on back-of-the-house staff (Kitchen, Stewarding, Engineering, Housekeeping, Laundry and management offices).

The sample of the current study was assembled in such a way as to be a representative of the population from which it was taken (Jennings, 2001). Increasing the size increases the sampling likely precision of a sample; this means that, as the sample size increases, the sampling error decreases. In addition, Gay and Diehl (1992) stated that the minimum acceptable sample size of the descriptive study is (10%).

The survey is distributed among twelve Hilton hotels, in five main tourist areas; Cairo, Alexandria, South Sinai, Red Sea and Upper Egypt. The total number of Hilton Hotels in Egypt is 4960 employees. The researcher has chosen seven employees from the following departments; Kitchen, Stewarding, Engineering, Housekeeping, Laundry and management offices. SO, 42-survey is distributed to each hotel, representing a total number of 504 survey in all Hilton hotels in Egypt. All survey returned back with a response rate 100% because all surveys was distributed by the human resources manager in one branch of Hilton hotels.

### **3.3 Survey Development**

A structured survey directed to hotel employees is distributed in order to collect the required information about physical environment and employees' satisfaction and productivity. At the primary stage of the survey development, an extensive literature review was performed to gather questions relevant to the variables selected in the study framework to ensure all relevant issues are included in the survey. The basic procedures employed in developing the scale for measuring the perception of physical work environment in Hilton hotels for the purposes of this study followed the procedures recommended by (Norman, 2010). Four main steps were taken in developing the instrument. **The first step** was to identify and generate the required study variables in order to test the study variables outlined earlier. It was accomplished through a review of physical environment and employees' satisfaction and productivity used in previous studies, such as sound, lighting, colour, temperature, and workspace, design and layout. **The second step** was the item generation stage. The ultimate purpose of the item generation stage was to ensure that survey items have content validity and that they capture the specific domain of interest yet contain no extraneous content (Carifio, 2007). A clear linkage to the theoretical literature was considered in this stage through beginning with a strong theoretical framework and employing a rigorous sorting process that matches items to construct definitions. The survey included a cover letter on the first page, which describes the purpose of the study, and a request for their participation in the study. The questions were formulated to answer the study hypotheses. Employees' were asked to rate items on an ordinal scale of 1-5. Part one of the survey was concerned with general information. Part two of the survey was concerned with gathering the required data for physical work conditions. Part three of the survey was concerned with gathering the required data for employees' satisfaction. Employees were asked to what extent the work environment represented a vital role in their job satisfaction. Part four of the survey was concerned with gathering the required data concerning employees' productivity. **The third step** in the survey development was the pilot stage.

The first pre-test employed a sample of thirty management staff. The emphasis at this early stage was to enhance readability and clarity of the questions as well as to enhance the items' and emerging scales' content validity. Based on their comments, items were modified to improve both reliability and their parsimony by deleting troublesome and confusing items, respondents, and adding new items to support scales. **The fourth step** ensured that the survey instrument was modified on the basis of comments and suggestions made by the pre-test subjects. A Likert scale survey was developed for the purposes of this study to test the hypotheses. The study variables were measured on a 5-point Likert type scale.

## 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Reliability test

All values of Cronbach's alpha for constructs were considerably indicating that the reliability of all constructs used in this study was supported as shown in table 1. Cronbach's alpha was applied to measure reliability which ranged from 0.799 to 0.822. Total questionnaire Cronbach alpha was 0.806, and the reliability alpha for all studied items indicated a satisfactory level as they were well above the expected level of 0.70.

Table 1. Reliability and validity statistics for all study variables

<i>Item</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
<i>The physical work environment</i>	<i>0.815</i>
<i>Employees` satisfaction</i>	<i>0.822</i>
<i>Employees` productivity</i>	<i>0.799</i>
<i>Total questionnaire</i>	<i>0.806</i>

### 4.2 Respondents` profiles and hotel characteristics

The respondents` profile is shown in table 2 which contains the different characteristics of the sample. It includes respondent age, department, gender, work experience and finally marital status.

Table 2. Respondents` profiles and hotel characteristics

<i><b>Item</b></i>	<i><b>Number “n=495”</b></i>	<i><b>Percent</b></i>
<i><b>Age</b></i>		
<i>Less than 25</i>	81	16.4
<i>25 to 35</i>	212	42.8
<i>36 to 45</i>	169	34.1
<i>46 to 55</i>	33	6.7
<i>56 to 60</i>	0	0
<i><b>Department</b></i>		
<i>Offices</i>	76	15.4
<i>Engineering</i>	84	17
<i>Housekeeping</i>	84	17
<i>Kitchen</i>	84	17
<i>Laundry</i>	94	19
<i>Stewarding</i>	73	14.6
<i><b>Gender</b></i>		
<i>Male</i>	385	77.8
<i>Female</i>	110	22.2
<i><b>Work Experience</b></i>		
<i>&lt; 1 year</i>	75	15.2
<i>1-5</i>	210	42.4
<i>5-10</i>	145	29.3
<i>10+</i>	65	13.1
<i><b>Marital Status</b></i>		
<i>Single</i>	255	51.5
<i>Married</i>	230	35.2
<i>Divorced</i>	10	13.3

### **4.3 Data analysis and discussion of physical work environment**

The main objective of this part is to illustrate results of employees' responses regarding the physical work environment components. Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage of responses.

Regarding the analysis of findings, it was shown that the general attitude for respondents to evaluate physical work environment was "agree" with a frequency of 248 with a percentage of 50.1% for equipment and tools followed by a frequency of 247 with a percentage of 49.9% for design and layout, followed by a frequency of 234 with a percentage of 47.3% for lighting, followed by a frequency of 223 with a percentage of 45.1% for color, followed by a frequency of 216 with a percentage of 43.6% for sound, and finally a frequency of 212 with a percentage of 42.8% for temperature.

The second attitude for respondents to evaluate physical work environment was "strongly agree" with a frequency of 138 with a percentage of 27.9 % for colour, followed by a frequency of 121 with a percentage of 24.4% for temperature, followed by a frequency of 117 with a percentage of 23.6% for equipment and tools, followed by a frequency of 115 with a percentage of 23.2% for lighting, followed by a frequency of 112 with a percentage of 22.7% for sound, and finally a frequency of 81 with a percentage of 16.4 % for design and layout.

The third attitude for respondents to evaluate physical work environment was partially agree with a frequency of 165 with a percentage of 33.3 % for design and layout, followed by a frequency of 118 with a percentage of 23.8% for sound, followed by a frequency of 113 with a percentage of 22.8% for temperature, followed by a frequency of 104 with a percentage of 21.0% for lighting, followed by a frequency of 96 with a percentage of 19.4% for equipment, tools, and finally a frequency of 91 with a percentage of 18.4 % for colour.

The fourth attitude for respondents to evaluate physical work environment was "disagree" with a frequency of 41 with a percentage of 8.3 % for temperature, followed by a frequency of 38 with a percentage of 7.7% for sound, followed by a frequency of 31 with a percentage of 6.3% for equipment and tools, followed by a frequency of 29 with a percentage of 5.9% for colour, followed by a frequency of 26 with a percentage of 5.3% for lighting, and finally the frequency of 1 with a percentage 0.2 % for design and layout.

The final attitude for respondents to evaluate physical work environment was "strongly disagree" with a frequency of 16 with a percentage of 3.2 % for lighting, followed by a frequency of 14 with a percentage of 2.8% for colour, followed by a frequency of 11 with a percentage of 2.2% for sound, followed by a frequency of 8 with a percentage of 1.6% for temperature, followed by a frequency of 3 with a percentage of 0.6% for equipment and tools, and finally a frequency of 1 with a percentage of 0.2 % for design and layout.

The results showed that, the most of employees are agreed with the important of the physical work environment factors such as sound, lighting, colour, temperature, workspace design and layout.

After evaluating these answers also, we can have assured that the most of Hilton hotels are followed the same standard and they give a big attention for physical work environment and by evaluating this answer we also found that this answer are rational because the average of the answers (strongly agree, agree and partially agree) was about 470 frequencies.

table 4.3 physical work environment components

Statement Scale	Sound		lighting		Color		Temperature		Work space, design and layout		Equipment and tools	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	11	2.2	16	3.2	14	2.8	8	1.6	1	0.2	3	0.6
<b>Disagree</b>	38	7.7	26	5.3	29	5.9	41	8.3	1	0.2	31	6.3
<b>Partially Agree</b>	118	23.8	104	21.0	91	18.4	113	22.8	165	33.3	96	19.4
<b>Agree</b>	216	43.6	234	47.3	223	45.1	212	42.8	247	49.9	248	50.1
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	112	22.7	115	23.2	138	27.9	121	24.4	81	16.4	117	23.6
<b>Total</b>	495	100	495	100	495	100	495	100	495	100	495	100

In addition, these results match with the previous result of Ansiau and other they said that, the physical environment of work affects both job performance and job satisfaction. The employee who experiences discomfort in the work environment will be more stressed. This relates to mismatch or misfit between the demands of the situation and the resources the individual has, environmental comfort as an opposite to misfit (Ansiau, Wild, and Marquie, 2008).

On the other hand, the employees reported that working conditions changed over the last two years the majority of the respondents with the answer "no change happened" represented (98.5%), followed by the respondents were replacing the damaged equipment. In addition, this means there is a strong system to avoid any problem and there is a strong maintenance schedule.

Otherwise, the majority of the respondents with no injury represented (98 %), followed by the respondents with injury represented (2%). The answer was divided between two departments the first one is stewarding department with the percentage of (1.5%), the second one was housekeeping department, and the percentage was (5%). Which means also the hotels follows strong industrial safety procedures. In addition, this result is inconsistent with (Bernhardt, 2003). Who said that, Hotel workers have higher rates of occupational injury and illness compared to workers in the service sector at large in 2002, hotel workers had 6.7% occupational injuries and illnesses among full-time workers, compared to 4.6% in the service sector as a whole. Hotel workers also have higher rates for occupational injuries and illness resulting in lost workdays 1.8% vs. 1.3% in the service sector among full-time workers (Horrigan and Herz, 2003). room cleaners are especially at elevated risk for musculoskeletal disorders (Bernhardt, 2003).

Finally, regarding the company's safety meetings all the respondents answered, "Very useful, an opportunity to learn new information and give input" and the percentage was (100 %). Which assured all the previous results.

#### *4.4 Data analysis and discussion of employees' satisfaction*

The objective of this part was to illustrate the result of employees' responses regarding satisfaction. 44.8 % of the employees showed that they are somewhat satisfied with their physical work environment elements and this percentage represents 222 employees, followed by 29.3% of the employees are extremely satisfied and this percentage represents 145 employees, followed by 18% of employees are neutral and this percentage represents 89 employees, followed by 7.9% of employees are extremely dissatisfied and this percentage represents 39 employees and finally 0.0% of employees are very dissatisfied.

After evaluating these answers also, we have assured that the most of Hilton hotels are followed the same standard, they give a big attention for employee satisfaction, and by evaluating these results we found that the results are rational because the average of the answers (neutral, somewhat satisfied, extremely satisfied) was 456 frequencies with percentage of 92.1%.

**For examining hypothesis H1**, there is a positive relationship between the physical work environment and employees' satisfaction.

In order to determine the relationships among study variables, the correlation coefficient was interpreted in terms of its statistical significance to p-values (probabilities of relationships). When the p-value is ( $< 0.05$ ), a significance variance exists, as if the p-value gets close to 0 the significance variance becomes stronger, but when the p-value is ( $> 0.05$ ) this means that no significance variances exist (Gall and Borg. 2003). So, each hypothesis may be supported or not supported according to the overall significance of the variables in general.

By evaluating physical work environment components (sound, lighting, colour, temperature, workspace, design and layout, equipment and tools) the result will be as follows:

First, regarding sound there is a positive relationship between the sound and employees' satisfaction. In addition to what's shown in table 4.5, there is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a

record of 0.661  $P=.001$  that makes *the first hypothesis (H1) is accepted*. Which is agreed with another publisher and they said that. Unfortunately, sound or noise problems in an office are something that could not be avoided. When sound is turned off, errors in work are reduced and productivity increases. (Bruce, 2008) identified noise as an ambient stressor relating to job satisfaction in the work environment.

In addition, noise from heating, ventilating, and air-conditioning (HVAC) systems is typically a major source of background noise in buildings. In offices HVAC noise can potentially cause annoyance and concentration problems for workers, this has led many in the acoustics community to question how much noise distraction contributes to decreased productivity, and also if the effect changes over time (Tajik and Ghomri, 2009).

Second, regarding lighting, there is a positive relationship between lighting and employees' satisfaction. There is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .426  $P=.001$  that makes *the first hypothesis (H1) is accepted*. In addition, these results are match with the previews literature review, which assured that, there is a positive relationship between the two variables.

Third, regarding colour, there is a positive relationship between color and employees' satisfaction. There is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .653  $P=.001$  that makes *the first hypothesis (H1) is accepted*. Which led to there is no conflict between the research and the literature review which assured the hypothesis.

Fourth, regarding temperature, there is a positive relationship between temperature and employees' satisfaction. There is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .639  $P=.001$  that makes *the first hypothesis (H1) is accepted*. Moreover, this will appear in the incoming opinions.

Fifth, regarding workspace, design and layout, there is a positive relationship between the workspace, design and layout and employees' satisfaction. There is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .342  $P=.001$  that makes *the first hypothesis (H1) is accepted*. It has already been supported by the literature review, as (Vischer, 2008), individuals have their own personal space when violated; lead them to feel crowded and uncomfortable. Thus, when infringements on personal space intrinsic to the open-plan design exceed employees' comfort levels, feelings of crowdedness and loss of privacy are likely to emerge. These feelings of crowdedness and loss of privacy then result in the dissatisfaction and negative reactions displayed by employees working in open plan workspaces.

Sixth, regarding equipment and tools, there is a positive relationship between the equipment and tools and employees' satisfaction. There is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .754  $P=.001$  that makes *the first hypothesis (H1) is accepted*. It has already been supported by the literature review, as (Bhatti, and Qureshi, 2007) Gaining the employees' satisfaction is a critical aspect of any organization. Once it is obtained, it can be an asset that can easily impact the productivity positively. The physical layout and equipment present in the working environment have strong effects on employees' satisfaction (Bhatti, and Qureshi, 2007). Job satisfaction has a relationship and that relationship is primarily focused on customer satisfaction, which is heavily emphasized in service-oriented business (Wright, Cropanzano and Bonett, 2007).

Table 4. Correlation between physical work environment and employees' satisfaction

	(D.V) physical work environment	(I.V) Employees' satisfaction
Sound	Pearson Correlation	.661**



**(D.V) physical work environment****(I.V) Employees' satisfaction**

	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
<b>Lighting</b>	Pearson	.426**
<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	Correlation	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
<b>Color</b>	Pearson	.653**
<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	Correlation	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
<b>Temperature.</b>	Pearson	.639**
	Correlation	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
<b>Work space, design and layout</b>	Pearson	.342**
	Correlation	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
<b>Equipment and tools</b>	Pearson	.754**
	Correlation	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
	Pearson	.605**
	Correlation	
<b>Total score</b>	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001

**4.5. Data analysis and discussion of employees' productivity**

The objective of this section is to discuss the results of employees' responses regarding productivity. Regarding the analysis of findings, it was shown that the general attitude for respondents to evaluate employees' productivity was high productivity with frequency of 261 with a percentage of 52.7%, followed by a frequency of 131 with a percentage of 26. % (too high productivity) followed by a frequency of 82 with a percentage of 16.6% (moderate). Followed by a frequency of 21 with a percentage of 4.2% (low productivity) and finally a frequency of 0 with a percentage of 0.0% (low productivity). The previous results shown that there is a strict standard, which lead employees to be more productive, and there is a tool which measure employees' productivity like productivity indicator report.

**For examining H2**, table 5 shows the correlation between physical work environment and employees' productivity.

Regarding the second hypothesis which aimed to test the impact of physical work environment on employees' productivity, it was also supported by the review of literature, as O'Neill (2010) stated that there is a significant positive impact of physical work environment on employees' productivity. Referring to table 5 it was noted that by evaluating physical work environment components (sound, lighting, colour, temperature, workspace, design and layout, equipment and tools) the results were as follows.

First, regarding sound, there is a positive relationship between the sound and employees' productivity. In addition, there is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of

.617  $P=.001$  that makes *the second hypothesis (H2) is accepted*. This result is in line with other authors and they said that: noise is the most disturbing factor of indoor environment in open offices (Haapakan, 2008). According to the model of Hongisto (2008) task performance reduces with increasing speech intelligibility. The room acoustic design of open offices should, therefore, aim at the reduction of speech intelligibility between workstations. This can be mainly achieved by three factors: increasing room absorption, increasing screen height and increasing masking sound level. The relationship between a telephone ringing and mental tasks, which would typically be undertaken in an office environment, is reciprocal in the sense that mental tasks are performed at a higher standard when the phone isn't ringing (Kaarlela, Helenius, Keskinen and Hongisto, 2009).

Second, regarding lighting, there is a positive relationship between lighting and employees' productivity. The results shown that, there is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .369  $P=.001$  that makes *the second hypothesis (H2) is accepted*. In addition, these results are match with the previews literature review, which assured that, there is a positive relationship between the two variables. Lighting is the amount of light needed in the workplace. It depends mainly on the nature of the tasks being performed, either outdoor at the field or indoor in the building itself, or even in the day, or at night. Thus, it might increase or decrease the performance. Inadequate lighting is a source of distress, thus leading to poor job performance when the employees are exposed to uncomfortable working environment in which, there are too high glare, or dim bulk, or a lack of natural light in the office (Knisley, 2005).

Third, regarding colour, there is a positive relationship between colour and employees' productivity. The results shown that, there is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .594  $P=.001$  that makes *the second hypothesis (H2) is accepted*. Which led to there is no conflict between the research and the literature review which assured the hypothesis. Blue office is ideal for someone who must focus and concentrate on numbers, green is a great choice for a management office as it has a balancing effect, and yellow is suitable for sales offices. Therefore, the colour scheme chosen for a workplace or an office must be made with proper consideration to produce better quality of work (Boss, 2006).

Fourth, regarding temperature, there is a positive relationship between temperature and employees' productivity. The results shown that, there is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .594  $P=.001$  that makes *the second hypothesis (H2) is accepted*. Moreover, this will appear in the incoming opinions. Productivity decreases by 2% per each degree over 25°C and presented the link between a decrement in productivity and high indoor temperature. Heat can cause lethargy which not only increases the rate of accidents but can also seriously affect productivity (Gonzalez, Eiken and Mekjavic, 2008).

Table 5. Correlation between physical work environment and employees' productivity

<i>(D.V) physical work environment</i>		<i>(I.V) Employees' productivity</i>
<i>Sound</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>.61 7**</i>
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>0.0 01</i>
<i>Lighting</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>.36 9**</i>
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>0.0 01</i>
<i>Color</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>.59 4**</i>
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>0.0 01</i>
<i>Temp.</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>.59 4**</i>
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>0.0 01</i>
<i>Work space, design and layout</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>.29 5**</i>
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>0.0 01</i>
<i>Equipment and tools</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>.67 6**</i>
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>0.0 01</i>
<i>Total score</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>.50 9**</i>
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>0.0 01</i>

Today most office buildings are designed with air conditioning systems, so the temperature level in one room can remain constant all the time. However, certain factors should come into thought in establishing proper temperature level; for instance, obese workers will work best with lower temperature levels, whereas the reverse is true for thin workers. The air quality contains four factors that are: temperature, humidity, ventilation, and cleanliness. A comfortable office environment is a building or room in which workers can generate their work properly if it is clean, with proper range of temperature, enough

ventilation, and a sufficient humidity after the temperature level in an office has been setup properly within the favorable level of humidity (Taylor and Kenny 2008).

Fifth, regarding workspace, design and layout, there is a positive relationship between the workspace, design and layout and employees' productivity. The results shown that, there is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .295  $P=.001$  that makes *the second hypothesis (H2) is accepted*. It has already been supported by the literature review, as Bright (2009) estimates that improvements in the physical design of the workplace may result in a 5-10 percent increase in employees' productivity. For their part, (Gutman and Glazer, 2009) argue that increasingly an organization's physical layout is designed around employees' needs in order to maximize productivity and satisfaction.

Sixth, regarding equipment and tools, there is a positive relationship between the equipment and tools and employees' productivity. The results shown that, there is a significant correlation between the two variables based on a record of .676  $P=.001$  that makes *the second hypothesis (H2) is accepted*.

## 5. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The physical work environment can play an important role in employees' satisfaction and productivity within the workplace. Based on the perceptions of the physical work environment elements (sound, lighting, colour, temperature, work space, design and layout, equipment and tools) physical work environment may have positive or negative effects on employees' satisfaction and productivity. A positive effect has useful results to both hotel and employees. If employees' satisfaction increased, productivity would increase, and if work environment has a negative effect it would affect the employees' satisfaction negatively, which leads to lower the productivity. If there is dysfunction in one of environment element for one of management, it will affect the rest of management negatively. Poor physical work environment will have negative influence on organizational outcomes. These outcomes include employees' satisfaction and employees' productivity. Hence, the purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of physical work environment on employees' satisfaction and productivity.

With regard to the fact that all employees expect suitable environment in their workplace, hotel and poor work environment will have negative influence on establishment outcome. These outcomes include employee's satisfaction and productivity which lead to high rate of employees turn over, increasing work injury and the previous results lead to loss profit and increasing training budget for both existing employees and new hiring.

This guide proposed how to improve and develop the workplace in three steps as follows:

*First*, identifying the physical workplace obstacles through many steps, such as seeking feedback when workers leave the business, for example holding exist interviews, and seeking feedback from managers, supervisors or other internal and external auditors, besides monitoring incident reports, productivity reports, sick leave examination, work injuries and records of work injuries causes.

*Secondly*, controlling the risk and hazards of physical work environment to be eliminated or minimized hence creating a positive work environment.

*Finally*, monitoring and reviewing the risk, as once control measures have been implemented. They should be monitored and reviewed to ensure that they are effective in managing the risk of physical work environment.

The results of this study have significant improvement and developing physical work environment in the hospitality sector in Egypt. *These implications* can be introduced to the academe, hospitality managers, and to further researching efforts.

This study adds to the organization's effort to understand the relationship among physical work environment and employees' satisfaction and productivity. The study has contributed to the research pool of management by conferring attention to the importance of physical work environment and show to which extent it can affect employees' and organizations. The fact, which was statistically recognized, is that physical work environment has an impact on the dependent variables of morale and turnover.

These findings also suggested that management might be able to redesign workspace between offices or equipment and redistribute equipment to create sufficient spaces to increase employees' satisfaction and productivity. This research also sheds light on how physical work environment can affect both employees' satisfaction and productivity. Even though, there is a strong correlation between physical work environment and employees' satisfaction and there is a strong correlation between physical work environment and employees' productivity, there are few recommendations that the management should consider physical work environment.

Hotel management and engineering regional office must proactively work to establish a healthy workplace. The specific action plan must be prepared to issue guidelines to be implemented in new and the existing hotel operations. On the other hand, employees should report any inappropriate or insufficient element in workplace environment to their direct managers. Regarding employees' satisfaction and productivity, hotel management must build good relationships with employees by taking a proactive approach, beginning with listening to employees and their concerns. Managers must acknowledge employees' issues and be motivated to make improvements. Furthermore, managers should seek a feedback from their employees by making surveys and focus group discussions. This will help employees to gain trust and report any element, which hinders their productivity.

## **6. LIMITATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The present study was conducted using survey research only in Hilton five-star hotels in five tourist areas in Egypt. Further research can enlarge the sample size to investigate the impact of physical work environment on employees' satisfaction and productivity on other hotel categories like Hilton four-star hotels or make comparison between Hilton five-star hotels and four-star hotels. Also, the comparison may be conducted between Hilton chain and other hotel chains or it can be done in other sectors like restaurants and Nile cruises.

Furthermore, this study can be the starting point to other research for investigating the impact of physical work environment on other sectors especially in Egypt, like nursing, construction, mining, shipping, and teaching. In addition, further research can use other variables rather than employees' satisfaction, and productivity like employees' turnover, morale, engagement, trust and health to understand the effects of physical work environment on other factors, which can affect the work environment.

## **REFERENCES**

- Ahmed, H. and Zulquernain, M., 2012. Noise and Its Effects on Industrial/Cognitive Task Performance. *International Journal of Management*, Vol. 49, No.1, pp. 112-124.
- Aisha, A., Hardjomidjojo, P. and Yassierli, A., 2013. Effects of working ability, working condition, motivation and incentive on employee's multi-dimensional productivity. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 4(6), pp.1-5.
- Ajala, E.M., 2012, June. The influence of workplace environment on workers' welfare, performance and productivity. In *the African Symposium* (Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 141-149).

- Amato, F., Rivas, I., Viana, M., Moreno, T., Bouso, L., Reche, C., Álvarez-Pedrerol, M., Alastuey, A., Sunyer, J. and Querol, X., 2014. Sources of indoor and outdoor PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in primary schools. *Science of the Total Environment*, 490, pp.757-765.
- Ansiau, D., Wild, P., Niezborala, M., Rouch, I. and Marquie, J.C., 2008. Effects of working conditions and sleep of the previous day on cognitive performance. *Applied ergonomics*, 39(1), pp.99-106.
- Baskarada, S. (2014). *Qualitative Case Study Guidelines: Practical Guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. (5th ed.). Palgrave Macmillan publisher Ltd., UK.
- Bernhardt, A., Dresser, L. and Hatton, E., 2003. The coffee pot wars: Unions and firm restructuring in the hotel industry. *Low-wage America: How employers are reshaping opportunity in the workplace*, pp.33-76.
- Berry, H.L., Bowen, K. and Kjellstrom, T., 2010. Climate change and mental health: a causal pathways framework. *International Journal of Public Health*, 55(2), pp.123-132.
- Bhatti, K.K. and Qureshi, T.M., 2007. Impact of employee participation on job satisfaction, employee commitment and employee productivity. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 3(2), pp.54-68.
- Bleicher, S. 2005. Contemporary Colour: Theory and Use. *Journal of Applied Social Research*, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 19-33.
- Boss, D. 2006. Cafe 37 at One South Dearborn in Chicago. *Foodservice Equipment and Supplies* Vol. 59, No. 8, pp. 37-42.
- Bright, k. 2009. Making buildings inclusive and accessible. *International Journal of Conoid Management*, Vol. 9, No.3, pp. 234-257.
- Brown, J.2013. Open-plan offices affect employees' ability to concentrate; new study finds Online. Available from: [www.independent.co.uk/news/world.Americas/openplan-offices-affect-employees-ability-to-concentrate-new-studyfinds-8675425.html](http://www.independent.co.uk/news/world.Americas/openplan-offices-affect-employees-ability-to-concentrate-new-studyfinds-8675425.html) Accessed on 09/02/2014
- Bruce. 2008. How much can noise affect your worker's productivity? *International Journal of Management and Technology*, Vol. 4, No. 5, pp. 165-169.
- Carifio, J. and Perla, R.J., 2007. Ten common misunderstandings, misconceptions, persistent myths and urban legends about Likert scales and Likert response formats and their antidotes. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3), pp.106-116.
- Cerasoli, C.P., Nicklin, J.M. and Ford, M.T., 2014. Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic incentives jointly predict performance: A 40-year meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140(4), p.980.
- Christina G. Chi and Dogan Gursoy 2009. Employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction, and financial performance: An empirical examination. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 28, No. 2, pp. 245-253.
- Dobrucki, A., Żółtogórski, B., Pruchnicki, P. and Bolejko, R., 2010. Sound-absorbing and insulating enclosures for ultrasonic range. *Archives of Acoustics*, 35(2), pp.157-164.
- Edmans, A., Li, L. and Zhang, C., 2014. *Employee satisfaction, labour market flexibility, and stock returns around the world* (No. w20300). National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Gall, M.D., Borg, W.R. and Gall, J.P., 2003. Case study research. *Educational research: An introduction*, pp.123-163.
- Garris, L.B. and Monroe, L.K., 2005. The Color Factor. *Journal of Buildings*, Vol. 99, No.10, pp. 72- 73.
- Gay, L.R. and Diehl, P.L., 1992. Research Methods for Business and Management. *International Journal of Research in Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 12-23.

- Giannikis, S.K. and Mihail, D.M., 2011. Modelling job satisfaction in low-level jobs: Differences between full-time and part-time employees in the Greek retail sector. *European Management Journal*, 29(2), pp.129-143.
- Gonzalez-Alonso, J., Eiken, O. and Mekjavić, I.B., 2008. *A critical core temperature and the significance of absolute work rate*.
- Gutman, R. and Glazer, N., 2009 People and buildings. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 20, No. 4, pp. 285-303.
- Haapakan, D. and Hongisto, G. 2008. Effects of sound masking on workers a case study in a landscaped office. *Journal of Management and Organization*, Vol. 12, No. 3, pp. 244-266.
- Hawes, B.K., Brunye, T.T., Mahoney, C.R., Sullivan, J.M. and Aall, C.D., 2012. Effects of four workplace lighting technologies on perception, cognition and affective state. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics*, 42(1), pp.122-128.
- Hill, R.A. and Barton, R.A., 2005. Psychology: red enhances human performance in contests. *Nature*, 435(7040), pp.293-293.
- Horrigan, M. and Herz, D., 2003. *Bureau of Labor Statistics*.
- Hongisto, V., 2008, July. Effects of sound masking on workers—a case study in a landscaped office. In *9th International Congress on noise as a Public Health Problem (ICBEN), Mashantucket, Connecticut, USA* (pp. 21-25).
- Humphries, M.A., 2005. Quantifying occupant comfort: are combined indices of the indoor environment practicable?. *Building Research & Information*, 33(4), pp.317-325.
- Jaakola, J., 2012. The office environment model: a conceptual analysis of the sick building syndrome. *Indoor Air Journal*, Vol. 22, No. 4, pp. 808-818.
- Jennings, D. 2001. Planning and strategic change. *Strategic Change Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 7, pp. 391-401.
- Kaarlela-Tuomaala, A., Helenius, R., Keskinen, E. and Hongisto, V., 2009. Effects of acoustic environment on work in private office rooms and open-plan offices—longitudinal study during relocation. *Ergonomics*, 52(11), pp.1423-1444.
- Keller, M., 2008. Satisfaction from job facilities. *Journal of International management system group*, Vol.5, No. 1, pp. 333-337.
- Knisley, J., 2005. Improve employee productivity with custom lighting. *Electro. Constr. Maintenance*, 104, pp.34-40.
- Konrad, A.M. and Mangel, R., 2000. Research notes and commentaries the impact of work-life programs on firm productivity. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(12), pp.1225-1237.
- Leather, P., Zarola, T. and Santos, A. 2010. The physical workspace. *International Journal of Trends in Economics Management and Technology*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 225-249.
- McCoy, J.M. and Evans, G.W., 2005. Physical work environment. *Handbook of work stress*, pp.219-245.
- McGuire, D. and McLaren, L., 2009. The impact of physical environment on employee commitment in call centres: The mediating role of employee well-being. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 15(1/2), pp.35-48.
- Newsham, G., Brand, J., Donnelly, C., Veitch, J., Aries, M. and Charles, K., 2009. Linking indoor environment conditions to job satisfaction: a field study. *Building Research & Information*, 37(2), pp.129-147.

- Norman, G., 2010. Likert scales, levels of measurement and the “laws” of statistics. *Advances in health sciences education*, 15(5), pp.625-632.
- O'Neill, M.J., 2010. A model of environmental control and effective work. *Facilities*, 28(3/4), pp.118-136.
- Pulay, A.S., 2010. Awareness of daylighting on student learning in an educational facility.
- Ruchi, K. and Surindr 2014. Impact of Work Environment on Job Satisfaction. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*. Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 1-8.
- Savin-Baden, M. and Major, C.H., 2013. Qualitative research: The essential guide to theory and practice.
- Schlittmeier, S.J., Hellbrück, J., Thaden, R. and Vorländer, M., 2008. The impact of background speech varying in intelligibility: Effects on cognitive performance and perceived disturbance. *Ergonomics*, 51(5), pp.719-736.
- Schloss, K.B. and Palmer, S.E., 2011. Aesthetic response to color combinations: preference, harmony, and similarity. *Attention, Perception, & Psychophysics*, 73(2), pp.551-571.
- Seppanen, O., Fisk, W.J. and Lei, Q.H., 2006. Effect of temperature on task performance in office environment. *Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory*.
- Shikdar, A.A., 2004. Identification of ergonomic issues that affect workers in oilrigs in desert environments. *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics*, 10(2), pp.169-177.
- Smith, D.G., 2011. Work environment more important to employees. *Retrieved November 25*, p.2011.
- Statistics, U. (2003). Bureau of Labor Statistics. *URL (Retrieved August 2011)*.
- Tajik, R. and Ghomri, F., 2009. Effects of noise on hearing systems of metal industry workers in Arak. *Journal of environmental Psychology*, Vol. 1, No. 4, pp. 291–8.
- Taylor, N., Kondo, N. and Kenney, W.L., 2008. The physiology of acute heat exposure, with implications for human performance in the heat.
- Thompson, E.R. and Phua F.T.T., 2012. A Brief Index of Affective Job Satisfaction. *Group and Organization Management*, Vol. 37, No. 3, pp. 275 - 307.
- Veitch, J.A., Charles, K.E., Newsham, G.R., Marquardt, C.J.G., and Geerts., 2002. Workstation characteristics and environmental satisfaction in open-plan offices. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 36(3), 33-51.
- Vischer, J.C., 2007. The effects of the physical environment on job performance: towards a theoretical model of workspace stress. *Stress and Health*, 23(3), pp.175-184.
- Vischer, J.C., 2008. Towards an environmental psychology of workspace: How people are affected by environments for work. *Architectural science review*, 51(2), pp.97-108.
- Winterbottom, M. and Wilkins, A., 2009. Lighting and discomfort in the classroom. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 29(1), pp.63-75.
- Wright, T.A., Cropanzano, R. and Bonett, D.G., 2007. The moderating role of employee positive wellbeing on the relation between job satisfaction and job performance. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 12(2), p.93.
- Yin, R.K., 2013. *Case study research: Design and methods*. Sage publications.





# **Knowledge Sharing and Service Innovation Performance in Egyptian Hotels: The Moderating Role of Team Culture**

**LAMIAA MOUSTAFA MOHAMED**

The High Institute for Tourism, Hotel Management and Restoration, Abo Keir, Alexandria, Egypt

## **ABSTRACT**

The sharing of knowledge and team culture have been found to importantly affect the service innovation performance of employees and became an imperative approach to attract customers and increasing their satisfaction. The speedy increment in the scope of service providers within various facets of Egyptian tourism and hospitality sector has not only limited the process of innovation performance but also the commitment of the managements' general practices to manage service innovation. Focusing on the hotel industry in Egypt, the objective of this study is to examine the influence of team culture and knowledge sharing behaviour on service innovation performance.

The current study framework included 400 front-line employees working in 5-star hotels in Egypt. The findings indicated that the relationships among knowledge sharing, team culture and service innovation performance are significant and strong. The results support team culture's role in moderating the relationship between knowledge sharing and service innovation performance. Therefore, the most important implication depends on building healthy human relations in any organization as a corner stone for any advancement.

**Keywords:** Service innovation performance; team culture; knowledge sharing; Five -star hotels; front-line employees; Egypt.

## **1.INTRODUCTION**

The hospitality industry which includes the restaurant, accommodation, entertainment and transportation businesses (Brotherton, 1999; Kim & Lee ,2013; Monica-Hu, Horng & Christine-Sun, 2009) faces increasing competition. Therefore, hospitality employees need to be able to keep and attract new customers by satisfying their increasingly sophisticated demands. Customers turned out to be like never searching for new and extraordinary service (Ali & Omar, 2014). In this way, to address this new difficulty, more emphasis has been directed to "knowledge sharing" in the hospitality business, and even on the organization soft elements such as the idea of "teamwork.". Along these lines, we are currently observing increasingly "authoritative groups" inside the business. Thus, we are now seeing more and more "organizational teams" within the industry (Monica Hu et al., 2009; Yu, Yu-Fang & Yu-Cheh, 2013, Tajeddini, Altinay & Ratten, 2017).

However, despite the increasing research on product and service innovation, most of the focus has been on manufacturing industries (Matthing, Sanden, & Edvardsson, 2004; Monica-Hu et al., 2009; Yam, Lo, Tang & Lau, 2010; Lau, Yam & Tang, 2010; Aas, Breunig, Hydle & Pedersen, 2015). In contrast, innovation in the hospitality industry such as hotels is rarely studied (Farsani et al., 2016; Randhawa et al., 2015). Only few studies have addressed the implications of service innovation performance in the hospitality sector (Aune, 2002; Enz & Siguaw, 2003; Matear, Gray, & Garrett, 2004; Orfila-Sintes, Crespi-Cladera, & Martı́nez-Ros, 2005; Ottenbacher, 2007; Ottenbacher, Gnoth, & Jones, 2006). Furthermore, To date, there has also been little experimental investigation of the perspective of knowledge sharing and team-culture (Hussain, Konar, & Ali , 2016 ;Kim & Lee, 2006; Wang & Yang, 2007; Karlsen & Gottschalk, 2004; Chen & Cheng, 2012; Monica Hu et al., 2009).

Although these studies have addressed different issues in different contexts, no relevant studies have been found in the Egyptian context addressing service innovation performance measurement in hotels through knowledge sharing and team-culture.

Consequently, this study will add to the existing literature and managerial practices in several ways. First, the main contribution of the present research is investigating the applicability of the Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) and teamwork within the Egyptian hotels. Second, this research introduces a positive expectancy of the knowledge sharing and teamwork on the service innovation performance of employees. The findings of the study will guide to the managers who were constantly devoting their managerial and financial resources in promoting innovation among their employees. The next sections present theoretical support to build up the hypotheses followed by research method, data analysis and results.

The current study seeks to contribute to the literature of service innovation performance in hospitality business from four aspects of purposes:

- (1) To assess the application of the knowledge sharing in Egyptian five-star hotels;
- (2) To assess the application of team culture in Egyptian five-star hotels;
- (3) To test the effect of team culture on service innovation performance;
- (4) To discover the effect of knowledge sharing on service innovation performance and
- (5) To examine the moderating role of team culture between knowledge sharing and service innovation performance.

## **2. Theoretical Foundation and Hypotheses Formulation**

### ***2.1 Innovation of Hotel Business***

The products of hotel enterprises can be classified into tangible goods which includes guest rooms and diverse hardware equipment, dining facilities, and interior design and decoration and intangible goods that contains services, which are further divided into material and personnel. Material services cover the contents offered by interior hardware equipment, such as accommodation services of beds and air-conditioning systems. Personnel services require the practice of service personnel, including accommodation registration, reservation, check-ins &outs, and room services (Wu, 2010). Innovativeness in the service industry embraces a wide spectrum of multiple activities that include supportive leadership, improved services and safety, new technologies, new strategy development, communication technologies interaction and a new friendly environment.

Moreover, the factors in the innovation of hotel enterprises contained (1) the star-grading system, (2) the management of hotel shareholders, including consultant firms in charge of hotel

management, employment of professional managers, or renting out the hotel, (3) the organization of chained hotels, as various groups present different attributes and vertical integration levels (Orfila-Sintesa, Crespi- Cladera, & Martinez-Ros, 2005).

Since hotel front-line staff directly deal with customers, hotels often precede innovation according to the guest requirement gathered by the staff; and new services can be delivered by considering the consumers' perception and the collaboration of front-line staff in the design and tests (Jones, 1996). The success factors of the hotel enterprise's innovation have been summarized by Ottenbacher (2007) as Service Advantage and Quality Characteristics in Service-oriented, Market Selection and Market Response in Market-oriented, Staff Commitment in Procedure oriented, and Strategic Human Resource Management, Staff Training, Empowerment, Behaviour-based Assessment, and Marketing Synergy in Organization-oriented .

## ***2.2. Service Innovation Performance(SIP)***

Innovation behaviour refers to individual behaviours that introduce new and beneficial ideas, problem solving in the workplace, tasks or organizations (Orfila-Sintes and Mattsson, 2009). Innovation in a hospitality organization is a multifaceted process that includes knowledge and information searching, idea generation, and the selection and application of new ideas to improve organizational performance (Ottenbacher&Gnoth,2005). Therefore, a firm whose employees have innovation behaviour would help their organization to attain greater economic benefits comparative to other competitors and also meeting customer needs and satisfaction (Scott and Bruce, 1994), which means that high quality human resources such as human capital would be an organization's unseen asset.

Unquestionably, Innovation can have a positive influence on hotels' sales and value (Nicolau and Santa-María, 2013) and competitive advantage (Jacob, Florido & Aguiló, 2010). In addition, hotel service innovation can have wide implications for the economy as the global hospitality industry generated more than 266 million jobs worldwide (Roth & Fishbin, 2015). Service innovation is a fundamentally or incrementally changed service concept and service delivery system to increase value creation for both internal and external customer; and requires the application of specialized competencies (i.e. knowledge and skills) and management.

Service innovation performance is gradually measured with a set of criteria to improve the competitive advantage of any organization. Berry, Shankar, Parish, Cadwallader & Dotzel (2006) identified two distinctive service innovation approaches: (1) innovation in service delivery process (2) innovation of new service offerings that satisfy the customers' needs. These approaches depend on employees' knowledge sharing behaviour and team culture for achieving service innovation (Monica-Hu et al., 2009).

Based on the above, the participation of customers and employees could help in innovation performance which is advantageous to an organization's service performance. Thus, empirical studies need to offer practical implications on effective ways to innovate service performance in hospitality sector.

## ***2.3. Knowledge Sharing Behaviour(KSB)***

Knowledge sharing refers to "how an organization's employees share their work-related experience, expertise, know-how, and related information with other colleagues" (Lin, 2007). Another definition that it is a kind of personal aptitude that can improve the performance (Kim and Lee, 2006). Therefore, it could be a competitive advantage that enhances an organization's ability to meet customers' diverse and rapidly changing demands (Kim and Lee, 2006).

However, employees often refuse to share knowledge because they worry that doing so may reduce their opportunities for promotion or because doing so requires uncompensated time and energy (Bock, Zmud, Kim & Lee, 2005). Moreover, there are other different problems because knowledge is power, employees may hoard knowledge: for example, restaurant chefs may face strong competition and start keeping 'secret recipes' to themselves. Thus, stimulating employees to share their knowledge has become crucial, and organizations need to create a positive team culture that supports good relationships and active, healthy collaboration.

There are many ways in which knowledge sharing may take place through employee–customer and employee–employee interactions in hotels. For example, employees' direct interactions with customers by telephone and e-mail limit knowledge transmission to explicit items of information (Monica-Hu, 2009).

Apparently, Hotels can improve the quality of their service, for example, by enhancing employees' knowledge of customers preferences and improving their service accordingly.

Furthermore, previous studies showed a need for knowledge sharing to create innovation possibilities in the hospitality industry (Al-Refaie, 2015; Goh, 2002; Chen & Cheng, 2012; Grisseemann, Plank & Brunner-Sperdin, 2013 ; Hussain et al., 2016; Kim & Lee, 2006; Liu, 2017; Monica-Hu, 2009).

#### **2.4. Team Culture**

Team culture can be defined as "shared values, beliefs and practices of people in the organisation" (McDermott & O'Dell, 2001: 77). In addition, team culture may be also defined in terms of an "emergent and simplified set of rules, standards, prospects and roles that team members share" (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000; Monica-Hu et al., 2009:42), while organisation culture refers to shared assumptions, values and norms (Zheng, Yang & McLean, 2010). Team culture thus provides a basis for smoothing team interaction and performance (Earley & Mosakowski).

An innovative team has a strong team culture because shared member expectations ease the innovative performance both of individuals and of the team. Successful implementation of new services depends on a person's or team's having a smart thought and building -up that idea beyond its initial state (Chen & Cheng, 2012; Liu, 2017; López-Fernández, Serrano-Bedia & Gómez-López, 2011).

#### **2.5 Team Culture and Service Innovation Performance**

Through an association with knowledge sharing-culture, individuals would share thoughts and bits of knowledge since they consider it as normal, as opposed to something they are obliged to do. The literature suggesting that service innovation can be upgraded through sharing of knowledge among colleagues (Lopez Fernandez et al., 2011). Moreover, Stacey (2001) affirmed that when workers offer such knowledge, there is awesome capability of growing new thoughts and service innovation that could be of an incentive to the business. Former studies (Chen & Cheng, 2012; Earley & Mosakowski, 2000; Kim & Lee, 2013; López-Fernández et al., 2011) reported the connection between KSB, teamwork and the improvement of service performance. Within the literature, it has become clear that human networks are one crucial vehicle for sharing knowledge. Nevertheless, it should also be noted that organisations cannot expect employees to share their ideas and insights simply because it is the right thing to do, but should appeal to something deeper like linking knowledge sharing to the core values of the organisation. This is because teams are increasingly responsible for organisation's service innovations (Monica-Hu et al., 2009).

Team culture creates a strategic commitment of the team members to improve teamwork with a better communication and motivate others which results in better service innovation performance (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen & Rosen, 2007; Gaziulusoy, 2015; Goh, 2002; Monica-Hu et al., 2009). This study linked the team culture to the service innovation

performance and proposed that team culture is positively related to service innovation performance of hotel employees. Therefore, the following hypothesis is propositioned.

**Hypothesis 1:** Team work is positively related to service innovation performance of the hotel employees.

## **2.6. Knowledge Sharing Behaviour and Service Innovation Performance**

knowledge management can be summarized as the process of (1) knowledge gaining (collecting and identifying useful information), (2) organizing knowledge (enabling employees to regain organizational knowledge), (3) knowledge leverage (i.e., exploiting and usefully applying knowledge), (4) knowledge sharing (i.e., circulating knowledge through the whole organization), and (5) organizational memory (i.e., storing the knowledge in the repository) (Rowley, 2000). Specifically, knowledge sharing is a prerequisite for innovation (Kim & Lee, 2010), organizational learning (Senge, 2006) and the development of capabilities and best practices (Kim and Lee, 2010). Basically, Knowledge sharing occurs when an individual is willing both to learn (i.e., knowledge collecting) and assist (i.e., knowledge donating) others in developing new capabilities (Bock and Kim, 2002). Knowledge sharing is thus “the process where individuals mutually exchange their knowledge and jointly create new knowledge” (Van den Hooff & De Ridder, 2004). It could be concluded that knowledge sharing is a competitive advantage as through it, the organization could improve its creativity, innovation and productivity to ultimately boost the profits (Wang and Noe, 2010). The literature revealed that sharing of knowledge through teams have showed that well-developed “team processes” do result in better coordinated and higher team performance (Bank & Millward, 2000; Monica Hu, Horng & Sun ,2009).Therefore, this study assumes the positive relationship between knowledge sharing and service innovation performance of hotel employees. Accordingly, the researcher proposes Hypothesis 2.

**Hypothesis 2.** knowledge sharing positively relates to service innovation performance of hotel employees.

Slight previous studies dealt with the moderating influence of team culture (Chen et al., 2007, Monica-Hu et al. 2009). For new product development teams, a moderate occurrence of communication was best for creativity. This allows team members to share their ideas, while still maintaining a degree of the ‘private space’ that is also necessary to creativity results. (Leenders, van Engelen & Kratzer ,2003)

Therefore, this study supposed that the influence of the individual KSB and SIP of team units is moderated by the team culture through the strong effect on KSB. The author expects that the relationship between KSB and SIP is moderated by team culture in five-star hotels in Egypt. Thus, the researcher put forward the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 3.** Team culture moderates the relationship between the knowledge sharing and service innovation performance of hotel employees.

Based on the abovementioned, this study proposes three hypotheses (see Fig. 1):

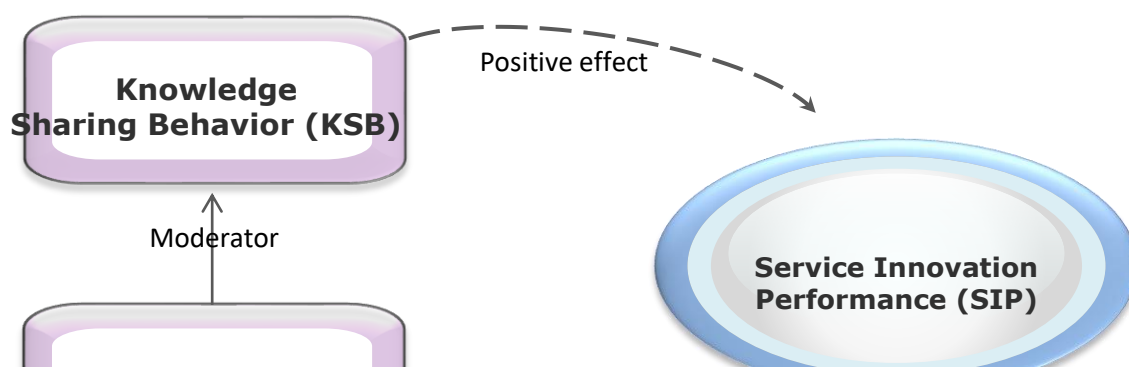


Fig.1 The hypothesized Model

### **3.RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This study conducted a questionnaire form to collect data from employees of five-star hotels in Egypt, which located in Cairo and Alexandria Cities. Five-star hotels were chosen because those hotels contained a high number of hotel employees ; considered to be city center category; provide important insight for studies of hotels' human resource (HR) management and reflect the phenomena of hospitality industry development , offer an extensive services, invest in people by considering the vital role of internal customers in providing customer excellence service; consider the skilled workforce as the greatest asset ;they have the ability to apply modern management approaches and trends and also they are more interested in service innovation.

The target population for this study was limited to front-line employees working in five-star hotels in Egypt. Front-line employees were chosen due to their performing in daily contact with guests during guest–employee encounters for delivering services, they are most visible to guests and play a key role in providing excellent and innovative service.

Moreover, Cairo and Alexandria were chosen as they host numerous Egyptian tourist attractions, they are the most civilized downtown areas with the largest number of five-star hotels and have the same socio-economic background.

The data was collected from different sources: employees and their supervisors. Human resource managers in 42 five-star hotels were thus contacted in order to ascertain their willingness for the study participation. The HR managers of 33 hotels agreed to participate and provide lists of their front-employees. The questionnaire was distributed during regular working shifts in each hotel .

Based on the data delivered by the hotel managements, the total number of front-line employees was 5600. A simple random sample was used for the participants as the population is homogeneous, with everyone having the same probability of being selected. A sample of (560 )individuals with a percentage of (10) is acceptable (Gay & Diehl, 1992).

A total of (400) questionnaires were retrieved from the employees, after excluding the invalid ones, yielding a response rate of (71.4%). Then, the questionnaires given to employees included items for knowledge sharing behaviour, team culture and innovation service performance.

The questionnaire battery-operated included respondents' profile, knowledge sharing Behaviour (KSB), team culture, and service innovation performance (SIP) items. The questionnaire items were derived from previous studies. KSB items were drawn from the studies of Monica-Hu et al., 2009; Hussain, et al.,2016, Walz & Niehoff, 2000) in which a total of 11 KSB item measures

were employed. The 16 items of team culture were taken from the studies of Monica-Hu et al., 2009; Hussain, et al., 2016; Stashevsky & Koslowsky, 2006). The third measurement scale items related to service innovation performance used 11 attributes that was showed by the previous researchers (Monica-Hu et al., 2009; Hussain, et al., 2016).

Statistical analysis was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS/version 20) software. Arithmetic mean, standard deviation, multi variant analysis was done to improve the hypothesis, spearman correlation coefficient test was used the level of significant was 0.05. All items were operationalized by using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

## 4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Table (1) depicts the demographic information for the (400) front-line employees. It is revealed that (62.5%) of respondents were males, (42.5%) of respondents were between 25 and 34 years old, (27.5%) were 35-44 years old, (45.75%) of respondents were university college graduates, (25.25%) were technical institute graduates, It could be noted that many respondents had a technical college education. This finding is supported by the study of López-Fernández et al. (2011) that there is a lack of qualified personnel working in the hospitality sector. A percentage of 70 were non-hospitality and tourism major, (31.25%) had 1-3 years of experience in the field of tourism and hospitality, (27.5%) had 3-5 years.

**Table 1. Demographic information of respondents**

N= 400 respondents		Frequency		Percent
Gender	Male	250		62.5
	Female	150		37.5
Age	Less than 25 years	60		15
	25 – 34	170		42.5
	35 – 44	110		27.5
	45 – 54	35		8.75
	55 or older	25		6.25
Education	Masters / Doctorate	18		4.5
	University College	183		45.75
	Technical institute	101		25.25
	High school or less	85		21.25
	Other	13		3.25
Major	Hospitality and Tourism major	120		30
	Non-hospitality and tourism major	280		70



Years of experience in the field	Less than 1 year	55		13.75
	1 – 3 years	125		31.25
	3 – 5 years	110		27.5
	5 – 7 years	45		11.25
	Above 7 years	65		16.25

As for the descriptive statistics of this study's constructs, table (2) shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each construct, corrected item-total correlation, mean values and standard deviations

Table (2) Descriptive statistics of the study's constructs

Constructs	Mean	Std. dev.	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha
Knowledge Sharing Behaviour(KSB)	4.27	0.311		
KSB1 I am pleased to learn and share knowledge among different teams	4.38	0.313	0.368	
KSB2 I believe that members should help each other through teamwork to foster knowledge sharing	4.17	0.298	0.401	
KSB3 In a team setting, I would share knowledge with colleagues who had assisted me in the past	4.31	0.359	0.368	
KSB4 I want to become a person with professional knowledge in the eyes of my colleagues	4.37	0.336	0.441	
KSB5 I believe that knowledge sharing among teams can help establish my image as an expert	4.01	0.342	0.439	
KSB6 I respect others' impression that I am willing to assist people	4.41	0.339	0.387	
KSB7 Helping my team address work problems would make me feel happy and satisfied	4.35	0.335	0.311	
KSB8 I enjoy exchanging knowledge and I don't ask for anything in return	4.29	0.330	0.374	
KSB9 I am willing to use my spare time to help other team members	3.64	0.280	0.368	
KSB10 I am willing to help other team members	4.36	0.511	0.455	
KSB11 I would personally help other team members regardless of asking for my help	3.87	0.298	0.397	
Reliability Statistics, Cronbach's Alpha = .765, No. of Items = 11, N=400 Scale: 1(strongly disagree); 2(agree); 3(neutral); 4(agree); 5(strongly agree)				
Team Culture(TC)	4.10	0.315		0.858
TC1 My team supports knowledge and technical information sharing	4.31	0.359	0.601	
TC2 My direct supervisor supports knowledge and technical information sharing	3.98	0.306	0.600	
TC3 My unit supervisor supports knowledge and technical information sharing	3.98	0.284	0.411	
TC4 My department supervisor supports knowledge and technical information sharing	4.13	0.295	0.316	

TC5 In my organization, there is always someone to address work problems	3.99	0.285	0.627	<div>0.806</div>
TC6 This hotel coordinates teamwork through formal rules and procedures	4.1	0.315	0.522	
TC7 This hotel coordinates teamwork through pre-designed work plans and processes	3.91	0.326	0.698	
TC8 This hotel coordinates teamwork through leaders or their assistants	3.89	0.465	0.602	
TC9 This hotel assigns coordinators to coordinate teamwork	4.26	0.421	0.714	
TC10 This hotel coordinates work by directly communicating with knowledgeable team members	4.05	0.462	0.611	
TC11 This hotel’s members hold regular meetings to coordinate teamwork	3.98	0.401	0.582	
TC12 This hotel’s members meet freely to discuss the coordination of teamwork	3.89	0.278	0.671	
TC13 During our spare time, team members of this hotel socialize and hold various social activities	3.52	0.280	0.704	
TC14 Each member of this team contributes equally to our hotel’s service innovation	3.74	0.267	0.811	
TC15 This service team possesses a fine spirit	4.30	0.358	0.506	
TC16 Members of this team have a strong sense of participation	3.97	0.284	0.512	
<b>Reliability Statistics, Cronbach's Alpha = .858, No. of Items = 16, N=400</b> <b>Scale: 1(strongly disagree); 2(agree); 3(neutral); 4(agree); 5(strongly agree)</b>				
<b>Service Innovation Performance (SIP)</b>	<b>4.04</b>	0.311		
SIP1 At work, I seek new service techniques and methods	3.91	0.326	0.640	
SIP2 At work, I sometimes come up with innovative and creative notions	3.74	0.288	0.522	
SIP3 At work, I sometimes propose my creative ideas and try to convince others	4.10	0.315	0.638	
SIP4 At work, I try to secure the funding and resources needed to implement innovations	4.03	0.398	0.465	
SIP5 At work, I provide a suitable plan and workable process for developing new ideas	3.38	0.256	0.621	
SIP6 Overall, I consider myself a creative member of my team	4.11	0.511	0.522	
SIP7 This hotel provides a suitable environment for developing new services	4.23	0.68	0.452	

SIP8 All departments and units interact well to develop new businesses	3.77	0.314	0.442
SIP9 When developing and executing new service projects, managers and front-line service personal collaborate closely	3.92	0.411	0.389
SIP10 This hotel will offer incentives or promotions to members involved in the development of new businesses upon the success of their project	4.1	0.315	0.621
SIP11 This hotel will dedicate some resources to developing new services	4.10	0.343	0.529
<b>Reliability Statistics, Cronbach's Alpha = .806, No. of Items = 11, N=400</b>			
<b>Scale: 1(strongly disagree); 2(agree); 3(neutral); 4(agree); 5(strongly agree)</b>			

The three constructs (Knowledge sharing behaviour ,team culture and service innovation performance ) were reliable exceeding 0.75 of Cronbach's alpha (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson 2010) and corrected item-total correlations reflect the construct validity of items where values exceed 0.30 (Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma 2003). As for mean values respondents tend to agree on all constructs with a value of 4 (agree) or very close, and data normality assumption was not violated with standard deviation values within target limit.

The first aim of this study was to assess the practicing of knowledge sharing in Egyptian five-star hotels, the study revealed that Egyptian front-line employees in such hotels extensively practiced the knowledge sharing with a total mean score of (4.27). The KS variables showed a high Cronbach Alpha of 0.765, showing internal consistency of these items to explain knowledge sharing behaviour. This is not surprising as most of the five-star hotels are chain managed and they accomplish most of functions on a central basis where they act as a unit among hundreds of units around world. Furthermore, the particular size of an organization determines their readiness for KS behaviour as supported by Morsy &El Demerdash (2017).

Add to this, knowledge need to be shared to innovate and meet the growing needs of customers nowadays (Chen & Cheng, 2012; Liu ,2017; Monica-Hu et al., 2009; Molose and Ezeuduji ,2015 and Zheng et al., 2010).

Regarding the second aim of the study, respondents highly experienced team culture within their hotels with a total mean score of (4.10). The highest mean score related to "My team supports knowledge and technical information sharing", with a mean score of (4.31). It is assumed that organization culture has a crucial role in this domain. While the least mean score of "During our spare time, team members of this hotel socialize and hold various social activities ". This result urges the need of Egyptian hotel organizations to consider encouraging a relaxed atmosphere through group social activities such as birthday celebrations, sport days, recognition parties and celebrate work anniversaries. This human side is very important as individuals experience higher morale when employers appreciate them as people first and employees second. As for employees spend more time with co-workers than they do with family, a supportive community will go a long way to fostering happiness.

In addition, "Each member of this team contributes equally to our hotel's service innovation" rated a moderate mean score of (3.74). This finding could be justified as team members needs to feel a sense of ownership in its success or failure. This could be promoted when managers adopt some practices such as: communicate openly and honestly about the service innovation needed; avoid holding back information about expected difficulties or any other aspect of the task; give them the freedom to experiment with different solutions and give them a chance to display their talents and ideas

Items in the team culture showed a very high Cronbach Alpha of 0.858., showing internal consistency of these items to explain team culture. Knowledge sharing will not be possible if there is no quality relationship among team members (Hussain et al., 2012; Renzl, 2008).

With regard to service innovation performance, hotel employees perceived a total mean score of (M=4.04) The attribute of “This hotel provides a suitable environment for developing new services”, perceived a high mean score of (4.23). This could reflect the efforts paid by different hotels to create a competitive advantage and enlarging markets especially after the negative shock on the Egyptian hotel industry since 2011. Meanwhile, the item statement of “At work, I provide a suitable plan and workable process for developing new ideas ” perceived the least mean score of (3.38).

This raises a demand for fostering a culture that makes hotel management encourage front-line employees to communicate any new service idea and follow it up with their supervisors to implement new ideas (Chen & Cheng,2012; Monica-Hu et al., 2012; Molose and Ezeuduji,2015; Tajeddini et al., 2017). This could be indorsed through broadening people’s experiences to spark ideas. Encourage people to look at how other businesses do things, even those in other sectors, and consider how they can be adapted or improved.

Items in SIP dimension were exposed to reliability statistics and showed a high Cronbach Alpha of 0.806, showing internal consistency of these items to explain SIP.

#### **4.2. Hypothesis Testing**

Regarding the correlation between the study variables, it depicted from table (3) that team culture has a positive relation on service innovation performance ( $r= 0.589$ ), which supports hypothesis 1. It was also found that knowledge sharing behaviour is positively correlated ( $r =0.682$ ) with service innovation performance; thus hypothesis 2 is also maintained.

**Table (3): Correlation between knowledge sharing, team culture and service innovation performance.**

Independent Variables	Service innovation		Knowledge sharing	
	r	p	r	p
Knowledge sharing	0.682	0.001*		
Team culture	0.589	0.001*	0.608	0.001*

Table 4 contains the results of the hypothesized relationships. Linear regression model was used to measure the relationship between team culture and service innovation performance of employees(H1), to test the relation between knowledge sharing and service innovation performance (H2) and to test the moderating role of team culture between the knowledge sharing and service innovation performance (H3).

**Table (4) Linear regression model for the hypotheses of the study**

Mode l	Variables	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	R <sup>2</sup>	Hypothesi s
1	(Constant)	2.182	.514	5.105	.0001 *	0.325	H1 supported
	Team culture	.1256	.164	5.06	.0001 *		
2	(Constant)	4.01	.625	5.113	.0001 *	0.307	H2 supported
	knowledge sharing	.107	.234	2.528	.021*		
3	(Constant)	2.352	.611	3.892	.0001 *	0.615	H3 supported
	Team culture	.608	.152	3.258	.0001 *		
	knowledge sharing	.612	.142	2.36	.001*		

1. Dependent Variable: Service innovation performance

### **Hypothesis 1: Team work is positively related to service innovation performance of the hotel employees.**

This hypothesis is developed to determine whether team culture could have a progressive effect on service innovation performance of employees. To test the hypothesis, linear regression model, beta values, R<sup>2</sup> were used to measure the relation and effect of team culture on the service innovation. Table 4 showed that team culture practices in Egyptian hotels has a positive effect on the innovation performance of service. ( $\beta=.1256$  and  $p<0.01$ ). Therefore, this first hypothesis is supported, and the third objective of the current study is attained. This result reflects the famous proverb “of “TEAM =Together Everyone Achieve More”. It is important to take advantage of all the skills and expertise of individuals working in the organization, not individually but collectively, to coordinate these skills and capacities to enhance the organization's ability to meet the challenges and customers' need and ultimately innovative service.

Similar results were obtained by Hussain et al. (2015); Kim &Lee (2013); Monica Hu et al. (2009) in their different studies about the relationship between team culture and service innovation performance.

**Hypothesis 2. knowledge sharing positively relates to service innovation performance of hotel employees.**

This hypothesis is developed to determine whether sharing the knowledge could have a progressive effect on the service innovation performances. As shown in table 4, knowledge sharing behaviour in Egyptian hotels has a positive impact on innovation performance of service. ( $\beta=.107$  and  $p<0.01$ ). Therefore, this hypothesis is supported, and the fourth objective of the current study is attained. This finding emphasizes that sharing of knowledge is a focal point through which the organizations' advancement and efficiency can be achieved. Similar results were obtained by Chen & Cheng (2012); Ho & Chang (2013) ; Molose & Ezeuduji (2015) who reported that knowledge sharing as one of the key success factor in the organization service innovation.

**Hypothesis 3. Team culture moderates the relationship between knowledge sharing and service innovation performance of hotel employees.**

As shown in table 4, the moderating role of team culture was significant in the relationship between KS–SIP through its effect on KS ( $\beta=.608$  and  $p<0.01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is supported and the fifth objective is attained.

Not surprisingly, the KS–SIP connection cannot be built unless there is a team culture among work groups in hotels and any other organizations. Contemporary human resource management reached the conclusion that building healthy human relations in any organization is the corner stone for any advancement. Past studies of Kim & Lee (2013); Monica-Hu et al. (2009) reinforced the norm of team culture moderating importance.

The direction and strength of the relationship between variables of study is illustrated in figure 2. It indicated also the results of the hypothesis test.

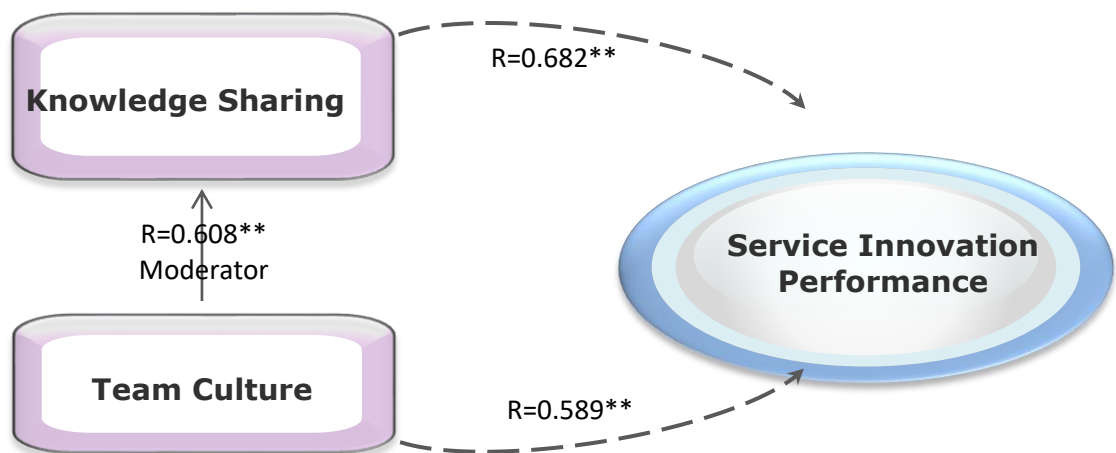


Fig. 2. Hypotheses testing.

## **5. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

This study is the first to investigate the issue of SIP as perceived by front-line employees in Egyptian five-star hotels by testing the relationships between knowledge sharing behaviour, team culture and service innovation performance. These relationships were tested in the context of Egyptian hotel industry sector and it has been found to be positively significant with each other. Findings indicated that Egyptian hotel managers need to foster stronger team members' relationship through social activities bearing in mind that building healthy human relations in any organization is the corner stone for any advancement. and celebrate work anniversaries. This human side is very important as individuals experience higher morale when employers appreciate them as people first and employees second. As for employees spend more time with co-workers than they do with family, a supportive community will go a long way to fostering happiness.

The moderate perception of "Each member of this team contributes equally to our hotel's service innovation" could help managers to adopt some practices such as: communicate openly and honestly about the service innovation needed; avoid holding back information about expected difficulties or any other aspect of the task; give them the freedom to experiment with different solutions and give them a chance to display their talents and ideas.

The findings of this study can also help managers to raises a demand for encouraging front-line employees to communicate any new service idea and follow it up through broadening people's experiences to spark ideas. Encourage people to look at how other businesses do things, even those in other sectors, and consider how they can be adapted or improved.

This study therefore suggests that to enhance SIP in the Egyptian hospitality sector, strong team culture need to be maintained to encourage KS among colleagues and ultimately achieve SIP.

Based on the study findings, when a good relationship exists within a team this helps encourage the willingness of its members to share their experiences, knowledge and new ideas at work, particularly among front-line employees, furthermore, when these employees openly share their knowledge, the entire hotel becomes more powerful.

With the industry depression after 2011 revolution in mind, it is necessary for managers to stimulate communicating, as well as, completing new service ideas and follow it up. This encouragement can be supported by a good relationship existing within a team, resulting in increased readiness of team members to share their practises and new ideas at work with other members, especially their bosses.

It is suggested for hotel management to adopt certain practices to foster team culture such as building team relationship outside offices to discuss the work issues in a more casual setting; ensure clear communication; foster a creative atmosphere; build cohesion and ensure the fairness among the subordinates.

knowledge sharing can also be promoted through promoting conditions for an open exchange of ideas and information, by creating time and space for exchanging stories and expertise, and by supporting innovative thinking; setting a clearly communicated norms and standards for sharing knowledge to diminish the unease related to the ambiguity about insecurity and to supports good relationships and active, healthy collaboration.

## **6. LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Firstly, this study focused on Alexandria and Cairo cities, for the reason of being the most civilized downtown areas along with the largest number of five-star hotels, further research is recommended for other Egyptian cities to obtain more generalized data.



Secondly, five-star hotel employees only were chosen as a study sample, which might seem to raise the issue of generalizability. Further research is recommended to test this same hypothesized model within other hotel categories.

Thirdly, Future research can also focus on back of house employees for exploring the relationship between the knowledge sharing, team culture and service innovation performance.

Lastly, other approaches could be used to collect data such as behavioural observation and interviews in further follow-up studies.

## REFERENCES

- Aas, T.H., Breunig, K.J., Hydle, K.M., Pedersen, P.E. (2015). Innovation management practices in production-intensive service firms. *Int. J. Innov. Manage*, 19 (5),1–27.
- Ali, F., & Omar, R. (2014). Determinants of customer experience and resulting customer satisfaction and word-of-mouth in Malaysian resort hotels. *Asia Pacific Journal of Innovation in Hospitality and Tourism Research*. 3(2), 175-193.
- Al-Refaie, A. (2015). Effects of human resource management on hotel performance using structural equation modeling. *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 43, 293–303.
- Aune, L. (2002). The use of enchantment in wine and dining. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(1), 34–37.
- Bank, A. P., & Millward, L. J. (2000). Running shared mental models as a distributed cognitive process. *British Journal of Psychology*. 91(4), 513-523.
- Berry, L. L., Shankar, V., Parish, J. T., Cadwallader, S., & Dotzel, T. (2006). Creating new markets through service innovation. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 42 (2), 56-63.
- Bock, G.W., Kim, Y.G. (2002). Breaking the myths of rewards: an exploratory study of attitudes about knowledge sharing. *Information Resources Management Journal*, 15 (2), 14–21.
- Bock, G.W., Zmud, R.W., Kim, Y.G., Lee, J.N.(2005.) . Behaviour intention formation in knowledge sharing: examining the roles of extrinsic motivators, social–psychological forces, and organizational climate. *MIS Quarterly* ,29 (1),87–111.
- Brotherton,B. (1999). "Towards a definitive view of the nature of hospitality and hospitality management", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11 (4) 165-173.
- Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kanfer, R., Allen, D., & Rosen, B. (2007). A multilevel study of leadership, empowerment, and performance in teams. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(2), 331-346.
- Chen, W. J., & Cheng, H. Y. (2012). Factors affecting the knowledge sharing attitude of hotel service personnel. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 468-476.
- Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2000). Creating hybrid team cultures: An empirical test of transnational team functioning. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(1), 26-49.
- Enz, C. A., & Siguaw, J. A. (2003). Revisiting the best of the best: Innovations in hotel practice. *Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 44(5/6), 115-123.
- Farsani, N.T., Sadeghi, R., Shafiei, Z., Shahzamani Sichani, A.(2016). Measurement of satisfaction with ICT services implementation and innovation in restaurants (Case study: isfahan, Iran). *J. Travel Tourism Mar* 33 (2), 250–262.

- Gay, L. R., & Diehl, P. L. (1992). *Research Methods for Business and Management*. New York: Maxwell Macmillan International.
- Gaziulusoy, A. I. (2015). A critical review of approaches available for design and innovation teams through the perspective of sustainability science and system innovation theories. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 107 (November), 366-377.
- Goh, S. C. (2002). Managing effective knowledge transfer: An integrative framework and some practice implications. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 6(1), 23-30.
- Grissmann, U., Plank, A., & Brunner-Sperdin, A. (2013). Enhancing business performance of hotels: The role of innovation and customer orientation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33(1), 347-356.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: a global perspective*. 7th ed., USA: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Ho, C. H., & Chang, W. Y. (2013). Key Success Factors in Service Innovation of Hotel Enterprises in Taiwan. *Pakistan journal of statistics*, 29 (5).
- Hussain, K., Konar, R., & Ali, F. (2016). Measuring Service Innovation Performance through Team Culture and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour in Hotel Services: A PLS Approach. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 224, 35-43.
- Jacob, M., Florido, C., Aguiló, E. (2010). Environmental innovation as a competitiveness 207 factor in the Balearic Islands. *Tourism Econ.* 16 (3), 755–764.
- Jones, P. (1996). Managing hospitality innovation. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant. Admin. Quar.*, 37(5), 86-95.
- Karlsen, J. T., & Gottschalk, P. (2004). Factors affecting knowledge transfer in IT projects. *Engineering Management Journal*, 16(1), 3-10.
- Kim, C., Mirusmonov, M., & Lee, I. (2010). An empirical examination of factors influencing the intention to use mobile payment. *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 26(3), 310-322.
- Kim, S., Lee, H. (2006). The impact of organizational context and information technology on employee knowledge-sharing capabilities. *Public Administration Review*, 66 (3), 370–384.
- Kim, T. T., & Lee, G. (2013). Hospitality employee knowledge-sharing behaviours in the relationship between goal orientations and service innovative behaviour. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 324-337.
- Lau, A. K. W., Yam, R. C. M., & Tang, E. P. Y. (2010). The impact of technological innovation capabilities on innovation performance: An empirical study in Hong Kong. *Journal of Science and Technology Policy in China*, 1(2), 163-186.
- Leenders, R., Th, A. J., van Engelen, J. M. L., & Kratzer, J. (2003). Virtuality, communication, and new product team creativity: a social network perspective. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management*, 20(1–2), 69–92.
- Lin, H.F. (2007). Knowledge sharing and firm innovation capability: an empirical study. *International Journal of Manpower*, 28 (3/4), 315-332.
- Liu, C. (2017). Creating competitive advantage: Linking perspectives of organization learning, innovation behaviour and intellectual capital. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 66 , 13–23.

- López-Fernández, M.C., Serrano-Bedia, A. M. & Gómez-López, R. (2011). Factors encouraging innovation in Spanish hospitality firms, *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly* ,52(2), 144–152.
- Matear, S., Gray, B. J., & Garrett, T. (2004). Market orientation, brand investment new service development, market position and performance for service organizations. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 15(3/4), 284–301.
- Matthing, J., Sandén, B., Edvardsson, B. (2004). "New service development: learning from and with customers". *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 15 (5) ,479-498.
- McDermott, R. & O' Dell, C. (2001). Overcoming cultural barriers to sharing knowledge. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 5 (1), 76-85.
- Molose, T. & Ezeuduji, I. (2015). Knowledge sharing, team culture, and service innovation in the hospitality sector: the case of South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure* ,4 (1).
- Monica Hu, M. L., Horng, J. S., & Christine Sun, Y. H. (2009). Hospitality teams: Knowledge sharing and service innovation performance. *Tourism Management*, 30(1), 41-50.
- Morsy, N., Eldemerdash, J. (2017). Investigating the potential use of E-HRM: the Context of Egyptian Hotels and Travel Agents. *Journal of Tourism Research* ,16 (1), 81-86.
- Netemeyer, R., Bearden W, Sharma S. (2003). *Scaling procedures: issues and applications*, London: Sage Publications.
- Nicolau, J.L., Santa-María, M.J. (2013). The effect of innovation on hotel market value. *Int. J. Hosp. Manage.*, 32, 71–79.
- Orfila-Sintes, F. Crespi-Cladera, & Martinez-Ros, E. (2005). Innovation activity in the hotel industry: evidence from Balearic hotels. *Tourism Management*, 26(6), 851-865.
- Orfila-Sintes, F., Mattsson, J. (2009). Innovation behaviour in the hotel industry. *Omega* ,37 (2), 380–394.
- Ottensbacher, M. (2007). Innovation management in the hospitality industry: Different strategies for achieving success. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31 (4), 431-454.
- Ottensbacher, M. and Gnoth, J. (2005). How to develop successful hospitality innovation. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Admin. Quar.*, 46(2), 205-222.
- Ottensbacher, M., Gnoth, J., & Jones, P. (2006). Identifying determinants of success in development of new high-contact services: insights from the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 17(4), 344–363.
- Randhawa, P., Kim, M., Voorhees, C.M., Cichy, R.F., Koenigsfeld, J.P., Perdue, J. (2015). Hospitality service innovations in private clubs. *Cornell Hosp. Q.* 57 (1), 93–110.
- Renzl, B. (2008). Trust in management and knowledge sharing: The mediating effects of fear and knowledge documentation. *Omega*, 36, 206-220.
- Roth, H., Fishbin, M. (2015). *Global Hospitality Insights*. Ernst & Young, Available at: [http://www.ey.com/Publication/vwLUAssets/ey-global-hospitality-insights-2015/\\$File/ey-global-hospitality-insights-2015.pdf](http://www.ey.com/Publication/vwLUAssets/ey-global-hospitality-insights-2015/$File/ey-global-hospitality-insights-2015.pdf) (Accessed 10 April 2017).
- Rowley, J. (2000). From learning organisation to knowledge entrepreneur. *Journal of Knowledge Management* ,4 (1), 7–15.

- Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behaviour: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of management journal*, 37(3), 580-607.
- Senge, P.M. (2006). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. Currency, New York, NY.
- Stacey, R. (2001). *Complex responsive processes in organizations: Learning and knowledge creation*. London: Routledge.
- Stashevsky, S., & Koslowsky, M. (2006). Leadership team cohesiveness and team performance. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27(1), 63-74.
- Tajeddini, K., Altinay, L., & Ratten, V. (2017). Service innovativeness and the structuring of organizations: The moderating roles of learning orientation and inter-functional coordination. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 65, 100-114.
- Van den Hooff, B., Hendrix, L. (2004). Eagerness and willingness to share: The relevance of different attitudes towards knowledge sharing. In: Paper presented at the Fifth European Conference on Organizational Knowledge, *Learning and Capabilities*, Innsbruck, Austria.
- Walz, S. M., & Niehoff, B. P. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviours: Their relationship to organizational effectiveness. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 24(3), 301-319.
- Wang, C. C., & Yang, Y. J. (2007). Personality and intention to share knowledge: An empirical study of scientists in an R&D laboratory. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal*, 35(10), 1427-1436.
- Wang, S., Noe, R.A.(2010). Knowledge sharing: a review and directions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20 (2), 115–131.
- Wu, Mien-chin (2010). *Theory and Practice of Hotel Management*. Taipei: Huali.
- Yam, R. C. M., Lo, W., Tang, E. P. Y., & Lau, A. K. W. (2010). Technological innovation capabilities and firm performance. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, 40(3), 1023-1031.
- Yang, J. T. (2007). Knowledge sharing: Investigating appropriate leadership roles and collaborative culture. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 530-543.
- Yu, C., Yu-Fang, T., & Yu-Cheh, C. (2013). Knowledge sharing, organizational climate, and innovative behaviour: A cross-level analysis of effects. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal*, 41(1), 143-156.
- Zheng, W., Yang, B. & McLean, G.N. (2010). Linking organizational culture, structure, strategy, and organizational effectiveness: Mediating role of knowledge management. *Journal of Business Research*, 63, 763–771.

## **Assessing the Effect of Customer Relationship Management on Hotels' Marketing Performance: The Mediating Role of Marketing Capabilities – Evidence from Sharm El-Sheikh, Egypt**

**MOHAMMAD NABIL SHAABAN**

Hotel Studies Department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt

**SOHA ASHRAF GHONEIM**

<sup>2</sup>Hotel Studies Department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt

### **ABSTRACT**

Since customers are today's business' main component, Customer Relationship Management (CRM) plays a crucial role for creating valid, sustainable base of profitable customers, providing them with customized products and services, and increasing their spending, thus improving the overall hotel's Marketing Capabilities (MC) and Marketing Performance (MP). The current research aims at studying and investigating the objectives, characteristics, dimensions, and the interchangeable correlations among CRM, MC, MP, and relevant business-related concerns. Survey questionnaire have been addressed to marketing and front office managers working in five- and four-star hotels in Sharm El-Sheikh in Egypt.

Descriptively, all the research variables were reported to be significantly above moderate, indicating that all their procedures and practices are almost always applied. Inferentially, CRM positively and significantly affected hotels' MC and MP. In addition, MC mediated and strengthened the effect of CRM on MP. Thus, in order to maximize hotels' MP, thorough awareness and interest should be devoted to ensuring the best utilization of their CRM practices and M. Finally, best CRM and MC practices are identified within the study's proposed practical implications.

**Key Words:** Customer Relationship Management, Marketing Performance, Marketing Capabilities, Hotels in Egypt

### **3 INTRODUCTION**

Marketing's basic function is to integrate customers into the design of the products and services to create affluence and add value in relationships (Zineldin, 2006). Customers are today's business' main component, thus, many organizations recently begin to adopt Customer Relationship Management (CRM). CRM is the most innovative method for creating valid, sustainable customer base, and has been even ranked as the second most effective management tool after strategic planning (Madhovi, 2014). CRM involves two chief roles; recognizing and acquiring profitable customers, and increasing existing customers' spending through providing them with customized products and services, thus improving the overall customer experience, creating a competitive advantage, and enhancing the overall organizational performance (Malik and Harper, 2009; Sadek and Tantawi, 2011).

### **4 REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **4.1 The Concept of CRM**

Customer-based relationships have been thoroughly studied (Crosby et al., 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Berry, 1995; Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995; Sin et al., 2005). CRM has several definitions (Ngai, 2005; Sin et al., 2005; Hamid, 2009; Abdullateef et al., 2010), it was regarded from different viewpoints, and it means different things to different people based on the context (Piskar and Faganel, 2009; Mohammad et al., 2013).

CRM is a customer-oriented process that enables organizations to forecast and meet customers' requirements (Petrisson et al., 1993; Beckett-Camarata et al., 1998), avoid wasting money on useless marketing programs (Kim et al., 2010), acquire new, profitable customers, and to retain old customers; through maintaining a long-term relationship with them, creating value for the organization and customers (Parvatiyar and Sheth, 2001; Dyche, 2002; Rigby et al., 2002; Gummesson, 2004; Sin et al., 2005; Richard and Jones, 2008; Wang and Feng, 2012; Saarijärvi et al., 2013; Ehsani and Hashim, 2014), gathering all due customers' information (Rigby et al., 2002; Abele, 2008; Richard and Jones, 2008; Kotler and Keller, 2012; Luck and Lancaster, 2013; Saarijärvi et al., 2013; Ehsani and Hashim, 2014). From a different perspective, CRM was approached as a technology application that brings together, processes customers' information (Luck and Lancaster, 2013), retains and captures customers by using technology, integrated systems and human interaction skills (Bosse, 2006).

Historically, the hospitality industry used different techniques to store customer data before implementing CRM program, such as index cards, property management systems, customer history, and customer information databases, as the beginning of using marketing intelligence in the hospitality industry (Newham, 2008). CRM in hotels now utilizes internet and information technology, allowing better, easier access and retainment of customers (Haley and Watson, 2003; Green, 2006; Deighton and Kornfeld, 2007; Newham, 2008; Luck and Lancaster, 2013).

CRM thus represents natural development of marketing orientation and relationship marketing, originating from the need to effectively manage customer relationships, utilizing human actions and technology (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Narver and Slater, 1990; Galbreath and Rogers, 1999; Boulding et al., 2005; Ehsani and Hashim, 2014; Juuso, 2014).

#### **4.2 Benefits of CRM**

In this regard, and assuring CRM as a must-be-investigated topic, numerous researchers and practitioners have determined the main benefits of CRM including the improved ability to target, acquire, and retain profitable customers (Parvatiyar and Sheth, 2000, 2001; Winer, 2001; Rigby et al., 2002; Chen and Popovich, 2003; Croteau and Li, 2003; Thomas et al., 2004; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004; Jones et al., 2005; Maklan et

al., 2005; Pan, 2005; Richards and Jones, 2008; Wang et al., 2009; Amoako et al., 2012; Vazifehdust et al., 2012; Anbuoli and Thiruvengatraj, 2013), retrieving lost customers (Thomas et al., 2004; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004), augmenting customer-related information sharing, knowledge and feedback (Chen and Popovich, 2003; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004; Maklan et al., 2005; Pan, 2005), motivating employees to foster customer relationships (Rigby et al., 2002; Popli and Rao, 2009), reducing cost-to-serve and improving customer service efficiency (Sheth et al., 2000; Chen and Popovich, 2003; Park and Kim, 2003; Richards and Jones, 2008; Amoako et al., 2012), enhancing customer satisfaction, loyalty, and commitment (Parvatiyar and Sheth, 2000, 2001; Verhoef, 2003; Popli and Rao, 2009), and product development enhancement, better allocation of resources across the customer portfolio, and enhancing supply-chain planning and integration (Eggert et al., 2006).

Moreover, CRM enables customizing marketing plans and products and services to customers (Sheth et al., 2000; Chen and Popovich, 2003; Croteau and Li, 2003; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004; Pan, 2005; Richards and Jones, 2008; Popli and Rao, 2009; Wang et al., 2009; Amoako et al., 2012; Vazifehdust et al., 2012; Anbuoli and Thiruvengatraj, 2013), improved efficiency and effectiveness of sales and marketing (Rivers and Dart, 1999; Croteau and Li, 2003; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004; Jones et al., 2005; Richards and Jones, 2008; Amoako et al., 2012), improved pricing (Rivers and Dart, 1999; Park and Kim, 2003; Thomas et al., 2004; Richards and Jones, 2008; Amoako et al., 2012), improving cross-selling and up-selling (Parvatiyar and Sheth, 2000, 2001; Chen and Popovich, 2003; Anbuoli and Thiruvengatraj, 2013), and enhancing communication across multiple channels (Wilson et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2009).

### **4.3 CRM Components**

Several components have been determined to constitute the successful application of CRM, including customer strategy, organizational strategy, value creation, business culture and relationships, human factor, process, technology, organizational structure, knowledge management (KM), and leadership (Ali et al., 2006; Melendez and Moreno, 2011; Mohebi et al., 2012; Kamalian et al., 2013). Meanwhile, several researchers have summed up all those elements into three main components; process, people, and technology (Chen and Popovich, 2003; Ali et al., 2006; Mendoza et al., 2007; Almotairi, 2008, 2010; Pedron and Saccol, 2009; Arab et al., 2010; Dhman, 2011; Mohammad and Bin Rashid, 2012).

### **4.4 CRM Models**

Several models are presented for CRM application. The applied CRM in this research is the *CRM Scale Model*, developed by Sin et al. (2005), involving four *dimensions*; that is, customer orientation (CO); CRM organization (CRMO); KM; and technology-based CRM (TCRM).

The current study is based upon this multi-dimension CRM approach, since it conforms with the structured belief that successful CRM application is based upon the components of people, technology, and process (Chen and Popovich, 2003; Ali et al., 2006; Mendoza et al., 2007; Almotairi, 2008, 2010; Pedron and Saccol, 2009; Arab et al., 2010; Dhman, 2011; Mohammad and Bin Rashid, 2012), and that these dimensions must interact to improve organizational performance (Crosby and Johnson, 2001; Ryals and Knox, 2001; Sin et al., 2005; Yim et al., 2005; Sadek and Tantawi, 2011; Yueh et al., 2010; Abdullateef et al., 2014).

Moreover, those CRM dimensions are recent, with limited investigation endeavors in service industries (Sin et al., 2005; Yim et al., 2005; Hallin and Marnburg, 2008; Shaw and William, 2009; Abdullateef et al., 2010; Lo et al., 2010; Akroush et al., 2011; Sadek et al., 2011). In addition, many studies asserted the significance of investigating CRM dimensions in the hospitality industry (Sin et al., 2005; Tajeddini, 2010; Akroush et al., 2011; Sadek et al., 2011; Mohammad and Bin Rashid, 2012).

**CO** focuses on customer-centric marketing, personalization and communication, leading to positive influence and continued improvement in service experience and overall performance (Piercy, 2002; Kennedy et al.,

2002; Liu et al., 2003; Sin et al., 2005; Yilmaz et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2009; Asikhia, 2010; Fan and Ku, 2010; Mohammad and Bin Rashid, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013).

**CRMO** concentrates on organizational structure, commitment of resources, and human resource management, thereby providing the proper service climate (Boulding et al., 2005; Sin et al., 2005; Yim et al., 2005; Payne, 2006; Ku, 2010; Mechinda and Patterson, 2011; Mohammad and Bin Rashid, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013).

**KM** converts customer information into customer knowledge, thus building more sustainable relationships with them (Croteau and Li, 2003; Plessis and Boon, 2004; Stringfellow et al., 2004; Zahay and Griffin, 2004; Sin et al., 2005; Sigala, 2005; Sadek and Tantawi, 2011). Hence, hotels can better implement marketing activities and satisfy customers' needs through building and disseminating customer knowledge (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Mohammad et al., 2013), such as quoting room prices based on customer knowledge generated from customers' data (Nunes and Dréze, 2006).

Finally, **TCRM** emphasizes utilizing technological tools in customer-centric activities (Sin et al., 2005, Dutu and Halmajan, 2011), to help provide greater and profitable personalization of products and services with better quality at lower cost, and enhance overall organizational performance (Hart, 1995; Roberts et al., 2005; Sin et al., 2005; Ozgener and Iraz, 2006; Eid, 2007; Abdullateef et al., 2011; Akroush et al., 2011; Sadek and Tantawi, 2011; Mohammad et al., 2013). Specifically, utilizing marketing-related technology is essential to the hospitality industry (Moriarty et al., 2008; Kasim and Minai, 2009; Mohammad et al., 2013).

#### **4.5 CRM in the Hospitality Industry**

Several studies investigated CRM implementation in the hospitality industry (Olsen and Connolly, 2000; Sigala, 2005; Luck and Lancaster, 2013), particularly due to its high rate of customer turnover (Sigala, 2005), increased competition (Sigala, 2005; Luck and Lancaster, 2013), rising customer expectations, increasing the costs of customer acquisition (Olsen and Connolly, 2005), and deceleration in economy and consequently in the rate of room sales (Newham, 2008). The hospitality industry is convenient for implementing CRM (Piccoli et al., 2003), since customers' relationship continues since the early trip planning and lasts a lifetime, not just when customers check-out (Schweisberger and Chatterjee, 2001). Chen and Popovich (2003) reported a successful CRM implementation case in Ritz-Carlton, where customer preferences were collected and recorded during their stay, to provide them with the required services on their next visit to all hotels affiliated in the same chain.

More particularly pertaining to the aim of the current paper, several studies have ascertained the significant positive effect of CRM on *hotels' organizational performance*. It was proved in Malaysian hotels that the aforementioned CRM dimensions impact hotels' performance, including financial, customer-related, internal process, and learning and growth (Alshourah, 2012; Wu and Lu, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013; Mohammed et al., 2014). Alshourah (2012) stated that CRMO and TCRM influenced CRM performance such as top management, customer data, customer information processing and CRM systems' functionality.

A key indicator of hotels' organizational performance is *marketing performance* (MP) (Morgan et al., 2002; O'Sullivan et al., 2009), which involves effectiveness, efficiency, and adaptability of marketing efforts (Morgan et al., 2002; Sirbel, 2012). Several metrics have been determined for measuring MP (Kokkinaki and Ambler, 1999; Bigne' et al., 2001; Eusebio et al., 2006; Wu and Lu, 2012; Frösén et al., 2013), including turnover, contribution margin, profit, market share, advertising and promotional share, customer penetration, loyalty, and satisfaction, brand recognition and satisfaction, purchase intention, distribution level, profitability of intermediaries, service quality, and innovativeness. The first research hypothesis can thus be phrased as follows:

**Research-Hypothesis 1:** The higher the *CRM Application*, the higher will be the level of the hotel's *MP*.



Moreover, CRM has been associated with **marketing capabilities** (MC). MC represents organizations' ability to utilize resources to perform marketing activities, satisfy customers' needs (Day, 1994; Chang, 1996; Mohammed et al., 2014), simplify learning about customers, develop and adjust products and services, and manipulate marketing tactics to target new customers (Blesa and Ripollés, 2008). Mohammed et al. (2014) pointed out that MC have two types: planning and implementation. **Marketing planning capabilities** (MPC) enables anticipating and responding to the business environment, direct resources and efforts to cope with environmental needs, boost organizational performance, and achieve financial goals (Reed and Defillipi, 1990; Slotegraaf and Dickson, 2004; Vorhies and Morgan, 2005; Morgan et al., 2009; Chang et al., 2010). **Marketing implementation capabilities** (MIC) employ due resources and processes to transform marketing plans into actions that mutually enhance the organizational performance (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; White et al., 2003; Vorhies and Morgan, 2005; Kotler and Keller, 2012; Slater et al., 2010), thus increasing overall marketing effectiveness, especially in hotels (Cizmar and Weber, 2000). In light of this rationalization, the second research hypothesis is:

**Research-Hypothesis 2:** The higher the *CRM Application*, the higher will be the level of the hotel's *MC*.

In addition, MC, either MPC or MIC, mediated the effect of CRM dimensions on organizational performance in Malaysian hotels (Mohammad, 2014). More particularly, TCRM dimension has been associated with hotel organizational performance (Kasim and Minai, 2009; Mohammed et al., 2014); also mediated by MC, either MPC or MIC (Mohammed et al., 2014). Also, Neil (2010) pointed out that MIC mediated the relationship between CO, procedures, and expertise; and marketing effectiveness. Similarly, MIC mediated the relationship between customer knowledge (Lee et al., 2011), and marketing strategic development (White et al., 2003); and organizational performance. Hence the third research hypothesis involves the following correlation:

**Research-Hypothesis 3:** The hotel's *Marketing Capabilities*, as a moderator, increases the size of *CRM Application's* causal effect on the hotel's *MP*.

## 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

After reviewing the relevant CRM, it is essential to supplement the theoretical part by conducting the field study.

### 5.1 Identifying Population

The target population for this study consisted of marketing managers and front office managers working in five- and four-star hotels in Sharm El-Sheikh in Egypt. This destination has been chosen to represent resort hotels, which have a distinguished guests' profile, representing both vacation and business travellers, relative guests' loyalty, and leisure-related guests' needs and wants. It will thus be a suitable context to examine practices of CRM. Marketing and front office managers were chosen since they are directly involved in and related to detailed sales, marketing, and CRM-related activities. In addition, choosing four-star and five-star hotels provides for a homogeneous-based field study, thus guaranteeing consistent results, since those hotels are mostly uniform in their unique needs, operational circumstances, and capabilities. Also, four-star and five-star hotel are the most expected to possess the technical and managerial know-how as a basis for applying effective, sound CRM practices.

The population frame was adopted from the Egyptian Hotel Association website (<http://www.egyptianhotels.org>, Accessed on April 2, 2017). As the population of this study is not vast, data was collected using the census method, involving the investigation of the entire population, where the data

are collected from each and every unit of the population (Saunders et al. 2016). Data have been collected in April 2017. The researcher prepared a list of 43 five-star and 61 four-star hotels in Sharm El-Sheikh, totaling 104 hotels. Among which, 49 hotels responded (19 four-star and 30 five-star), 21 hotels refused to respond, and 34 hotels were closed. The response rate is thus 70% of operating hotels at the time the study was conducted (April, 2017), which is considered a representative percentage as required for the sake of further reasonable, reliable generalization attempts, as determined by Gay & Diehl (1992) not be less than 30%. Response rate even represents 47.11% of total hotels, including closed operations.

## **5.2 Scale Development, Validity, Pilot Study, and Reliability**

The research's survey, face-to-face researcher-administered, questionnaire involved sections on the level of application of CRM dimensions, MP, MPC and MIC; and managers' and hotels' profiles. Statements were derived as follows; CRM dimension of CO from Mohammed et al (2014), CRM dimensions of CRMO, KM, and TCRM from Sin et al. (2005), MP from Wu and Lu (2012), and MPC and MIC from Mohammed et al (2014). Respondents have been asked to rate each statement using a 5-point Likert scale, where "1" indicates not applied; and 5 indicates always applied.

Questionnaire's clarity and content have been assessed through both academic experts, and then through a pilot study; through surveying managers from two five-star hotels, and one 4-star hotel in the city of Alexandria. This resulted in ensuring face and content validity, clarity of questionnaire items, rephrasing enhancements, merging similar statements, and estimating time needed to fill in each questionnaire. Moreover, after distributing the questionnaire and before analyzing data, reliability has been checked. Cronbach's Alpha, the reliability coefficient and the most used internal consistency measure, was calculated, and it was 0.904; that is, satisfactorily higher than the typical cut point 0.70.

## **6 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS**

Managers' and hotels' profile characteristics is first demonstrated, followed by comprehensive descriptive and inferential analyses of research hypotheses and related variables, along with due discussion and interpretation of results.

### **6.1 Managers' and Hotels' Profile Characteristics**

A descriptive analysis of managers' and hotels' profile characteristics is provided in Table 1, indicating the number and percentage of respondent managers according to age, years of experience in the hospitality industry, tenure in the current hotel, and education. Surveyed hotels' data are classified as per years in operation, number of rooms, average annual occupancy percentage, number of employees, grade, and affiliation.

Table 1 Title of Example Table

Variable	Managers' Profile Characteristics			Hotels' Profile Characteristics				
	Age	Years in Hospitality Industry	Years in Current Hotel	Years in Operation	No. of Rooms	Average Annual Occupancy Percentage	Average Annual Occupied Rooms	No. of Employees
Min.	25	3	Less than 1	3	38	20	17	70
Max.	47	24	14	35	912	85	442	800
Mean	35.27	12.89	5.68	15.58	346	48.47	163	309
Variable		No.	%	Variable		No.	%	
Education	Hospitality	35	71.4	Hotel Grade	4-star	19	38.8	
	Non-Hospitality	14	28.6		5-star	30	61.2	
				Hotel Affiliation	Chain	29	59.2	
					Independent	20	40.8	

## 6.2 Descriptive Analysis of Research Variables

A descriptive analysis of research variables is provided in Table 2, based on the scores reported by managers. Means of scores of all variables; either dependent or independent, were noted to be significantly above moderate, ranging between 4:5, indicating that all the procedures and practices of CRM dimensions, MP, and MC, either MPC or MIC, are almost always applied.

Table 2: Summary of Descriptive Analysis Results of Research Variables

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.	Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
The business objectives are directed towards customer satisfaction	4.90	0.31	The hotel has CRM-related sales and marketing expertise, and resources	4.63	0.70
The level of commitment to customer needs is closely monitored and assessed	4.92	0.28	Employees' training develops the skills for acquiring and deepening customer relationships	4.69	0.55
Understanding customer needs is the base of the hotel's competitive advantage	4.82	0.39	Managers' and employees' attitudes are directed towards customer satisfaction	4.88	0.44
Increasing value for customers is the base for the hotel's business strategy	4.71	0.54	Employees' performance is measured and rewarded based on serving and meeting customer needs	4.71	0.65
The hotel frequently measures customer satisfaction	4.90	0.31	The hotel structure is designed around our customers	4.98	0.14
The hotel pays great attention to after-sales service	4.65	0.63	Customer-focused performance standards are established and monitored at all guest-contact points	4.78	0.47
The hotel offers personalized products and services for key customers	4.90	0.31	The hotel commits time and resources to manage customer relationship	4.84	0.37
<b><u>Customer Orientation Application Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.83</u></b>	<b><u>0.25</u></b>	<b><u>CRM Organization Application Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.79</u></b>	<b><u>0.24</u></b>
The hotel fully understands the needs of its key customers through accumulating and learning from guest history information.	4.84	0.37	The hotel employs technical staff to provide technical support for use of CRM technology in building customer relationships	4.73	0.70
Management provides channels to enable ongoing and two-way communication with key customers	4.65	0.56	The hotel utilizes adequate hardware to better implement CRM	4.55	0.74
Employees are willing to provide customers with prompt service	4.82	0.44	The hotel installs needed software to better implement CRM	4.43	0.96
<b><u>Knowledge Management Application Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.77</u></b>	<b><u>0.31</u></b>	Hotel's information systems are integrated across the different functional areas	4.69	0.62
<b><u>CRM Application Overall Mean</u></b>			<b><u>TCRM Application Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.60</u></b>	<b><u>0.41</u></b>
Satisfying needs of various types of customers	4.69	0.58	Developing superior marketing planning skills	4.59	0.73
Increasing customer intention to purchase	4.76	0.52	Setting clear marketing goals	4.73	0.49
Increasing customer satisfaction	4.82	0.39	Developing creative marketing strategies	4.73	0.49
Reducing customer complaints	4.84	0.43	Segmenting and targeting market effectively	4.76	0.48
Improving the ability to retain old customers	4.90	0.31	<b><u>Marketing Planning Capabilities Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.70</u></b>	<b><u>0.48</u></b>
Improving the ability to confirm target customers	4.80	0.50	Allocating marketing resources to implement marketing strategies effectively	4.69	0.51
Increasing market share	4.76	0.69	Delivering marketing programs effectively	4.69	0.51
Reducing total marketing cost of the hotel	4.73	0.49	Translating general marketing strategies into detailed, specific actions and tasks	4.67	0.55
Reducing unexpected losses	4.80	0.46	Simple implementation of marketing strategies	4.61	0.61
Increasing sales growth rate	4.88	0.39	Monitoring and evaluating the outcomes of marketing strategies	4.65	0.56
Increasing guests' spending	4.76	0.52	<b><u>Marketing Implementation Capabilities Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.67</u></b>	<b><u>0.51</u></b>
<b><u>Marketing Performance Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.79</u></b>	<b><u>0.30</u></b>	<b><u>Marketing Capabilities Overall Mean</u></b>	<b><u>4.68</u></b>	<b><u>0.48</u></b>

This indicates that hotels' policies and managers enjoy an elevated degree of awareness of CRM importance. This is basically attributable to the inherent necessity of the application of those procedures and practices in hotels, and managers' elevated awareness of their importance to business survival and prosperity. This has been noticeable regardless hotels' grade, affiliation, size, or occupancy percentage, neither managers' personal and job-related characteristics.

Consequently, at least in this primary phase of descriptively discussing results, and according to previous studies, those hotels are most probably expected to experience CRM-related benefits, including, for instance, better customers' retrieving, targeting and retention (Parvatiyar and Sheth, 2000, 2001; Winer, 2001; Rigby et al., 2002; Chen and Popovich, 2003; Croteau and Li, 2003; Thomas et al., 2004; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004; Thomas et al., 2004; Jones et al., 2005; Maklan et al., 2005; Pan, 2005; Richards and Jones, 2008; Wang et al., 2009; Amoako et al., 2012; Vazifehdust et al., 2012; Anbuoli and Thiruvengkataj, 2013), enhancing customer-related knowledge and feedback (Chen and Popovich, 2003; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004; Maklan et al., 2005; Pan, 2005), improving customer satisfaction, loyalty, and commitment (Parvatiyar and Sheth, 2000, 2001; Verhoef, 2003; Popli and Rao, 2009), and product development enhancement, better allocation of resources across the customer portfolio, and enhancing supply-chain planning and integration (Eggert et al., 2006), to name but a few. CRM also facilitates tailoring marketing plans and products and services to customers (Sheth et al., 2000; Chen and Popovich, 2003; Croteau and Li, 2003; Rigby and Ledingham, 2004; Pan, 2005; Richards and Jones, 2008; Popli and Rao, 2009; Wang et al., 2009; Amoako et al., 2012; Vazifehdust et al., 2012; Anbuoli and Thiruvengkataj, 2013).

In addition, descriptively as well, such spotted CRM elevated application level would raise *hotels' organizational performance*, including *MP*; and *MC*, including both *MPC* and *MIC* (Alshourah, 2012; Wu and Lu, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013; Mohammed et al, 2014). More meaningful, significant results would of course be proven in the subsequent inferential analysis.

### 6.3 Inferential Analysis of Research Hypotheses

Inferential analysis results of research variables are provided in Tables 3 through 5. Results for hypotheses 1 and 2 have been obtained through multiple and simple linear regression, while hypothesis 3 has been tested utilizing Process, by Andrew F. Hayes; Model 1, Simple Moderation Model. Analysis and further discussion of results are provided according to hypotheses.

*Research-Hypothesis 1:* The higher the *CRM Application*, the higher will be the level of the hotel's *MP*.

Table 3: Summary of the Inferential Analysis of Research-Hypothesis 1

Independent Variables Dependent Variable		CRM Application	Customer Orientation Application	CRM Organization Application	Knowledge Management Application	TCRM Application
Marketing Performance	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.634	0.554	.0218	0.392	0.173
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.003

CRM application is positively correlated with hotels' MP. The first hypothesis was supported (Sig. < 0.01, R<sup>2</sup> = 0.634), indicating that the higher the level of *CRM Application*, the higher will be the level of the hotel's *MP*.

This result typically conforms to previous relevant literature that stated that CRM dimensions' significant positive effect on MP, as a main indicator of hotels' organizational performance (Alshourah, 2012; Wu and Lu, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013; Mohammed et al, 2014).

And proving further support for Research-Hypothesis 1, even all individual CRM dimensions were evidenced to significantly and positively affect MP. These results also conformed to previous results, where analyses showed that CRMO and TCRM are positively correlated with hotels' MP (Sig. < 0.01), indicating that the higher the level of *CRMO* and *TCRM Application*, the higher will be the level of the hotel's *MP*. Alshourah (2012) affirmed that CRMO and TCRM positively affect CRM performance and subsequent benefits

involving top management, customer data, customer information processing and CRM systems' functionality. Moreover, TCRM dimension has been associated with hotel organizational performance (Abu-Kasim and Minai, 2009; Mohammed et al., 2014).

Most important is the CRM dimension of CO, which recorded the highest effect on MP (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.554$ ) among all other dimension. This is due to that CO represents the core and main focus of CRM; that is, customer. This inference confirmed the results of many studies (Piercy, 2002; Kennedy et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2003; Sin et al., 2005; Yilmaz et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2009; Asikhia, 2010; Fan and Ku, 2010; Mohammad and Bin Rashid, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013), which determined CO's main emphasis as being customer-centric marketing, personalization and communication, thus promoting positive influence and continued improvement in service experience and overall performance.

Therefore, and as a rational consequence of elevated hotels' MP, hotels would enjoy enhanced effectiveness, efficiency, and adaptability of marketing efforts (Morgan et al., 2002; Sirbel, 2012), and increased rate of relevant marketing metrics, such as including turnover, contribution margin, profit, market share, advertising and promotional share, customer penetration, loyalty, and satisfaction, brand recognition and satisfaction, purchase intention, distribution level, profitability of intermediaries, service quality, and innovativeness (Kokkinaki and Ambler, 1999; Bigne' et al., 2001; Eusebio et al., 2006; Wu and Lu, 2012; Frösén et al., 2013). Moreover, improved MP is a major stimulus of overall hotels' organizational performance (Morgan et al., 2002; O'Sullivan et al., 2009; Alshourah, 2012; Wu and Lu, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013; Mohammed et al., 2014).

*Research-Hypothesis 2:* The higher the *CRM Application*, the higher will be the level of the hotel's *MC*.

Table 4: Summary of the Inferential Analysis of Research-Hypothesis 2

Independent Variables Dependent Variable		CRM Application	Customer Orientation Application	CRM Organization Application	Knowledge Management Application	TCRM Application
Marketing Capabilities	Adjusted $R^2$	0.360	0.296	0.164	0.083	0.106
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.044	0.022
Marketing Planning Capabilities	Adjusted $R^2$	0.387	0.324	0.143	0.049	0.058
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.007	0.128	0.096
Marketing Implementation Capabilities	Adjusted $R^2$	0.314	0.238	0.160	0.103	0.137
	Sig.	0.002	0.000	0.004	0.024	0.009

CRM application is positively correlated with hotels' MC, either MPC or MIC. The second hypothesis was supported (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.360$ ), indicating that the higher the level of *CRM Application*, the higher will be the level of the hotels' *MC*, *MPC*, and *MIC*. Further support for the second hypothesis is the positive and significant effect of CRM individual dimensions on MC, MPC, and MIC.

Again, and further reassuring the crucial role of the CO, it contributed to the strongest effect of CRM dimensions on MC (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.296$ ), MPC (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.324$ ), and MIC (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.238$ ), indicating hotels' policies and managers due duty to enhance and improve CO-related practices.

These inferences go in line with previous studies that stated that successful CRM application is associated with MC, which in turn indicates hotels' ability to employ resources to accomplish marketing tasks, satisfy



customers (Day, 1994; Chang, 1996; Mohammed et al., 2014), streamline learning about customers, design and accustom products and services, and adapt marketing tactics to target new customers (Blesa and Ripollés, 2008). Moreover, enhancing MPC facilitates forecasting and reacting to the business environment, manage resources and efforts to tackle environmental needs, raise organizational performance, and achieve financial goals (Reed and Defillipi, 1990; Slotegraaf and Dickson, 2004; Vorhies and Morgan, 2005; Morgan et al., 2009; Chang et al., 2010). In addition, MIC improvements due to better CRM application enable to better convert marketing plans into concrete measures to develop organizational performance (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; White et al., 2003; Vorhies and Morgan, 2005; Kotler and Keller, 2012; Slater et al., 2010), thus increasing overall marketing effectiveness (Cizmar and Weber, 2000).

*Research-Hypothesis 3: The hotel's MC, as a moderator, significantly increases the size of CRM Application's causal effect on the hotel's MP.*

Table 5: Summary of the Inferential Analysis of Research-Hypothesis 3

Marketing Capabilities moderation between CRM Application and Marketing Performance			
Model Summary	R-sq	F	P
	0.6631	29.5253	0.0000
R-square increase due to interaction	R <sup>2</sup> -chng	F	P
	0.0923	12.3315	0.0010
Marketing Planning Capabilities moderation between CRM Application and Marketing Performance			
Model Summary	R-sq	F	P
	.6545	28.4188	0.0000
R-square increase due to interaction	R <sup>2</sup> -chng	F	P
	0.0913	11.8954	0.0012
Marketing Implementation Capabilities moderation between CRM Application and Marketing Performance			
Model Summary	R-sq	F	P
	.6568	28.7054	0.0000
R-square increase due to interaction	R <sup>2</sup> -chng	F	P
	0.0872	11.4359	.0015

MC significantly and positively mediated the causal effect of CRM application on the hotels' MP. The third hypothesis was supported (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.6631$ ). More specifically, interaction of MC increased that causal effect (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2$  change = 0.0923).

This inference has been further supported through statistically proving that the causal effect of CRM application on the hotels' MP has been mediated by MC components; that is, MPC (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.6545$ ) and MIC (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.6568$ ). That causal effect was as well increased by MPC (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2$  change = 0.0913) and MIC (Sig. < 0.01,  $R^2$  change = 0.0872).

These results coincide with previous relevant studies that reported the significant mediation of MC, either MPC or MIC to CRM dimensions' effect on hotels' organizational performance (Mohammad, 2014). More specifically, MIC mediated the relationship between CO, procedures, and expertise; and marketing effectiveness (Neil, 2010). Similarly, MIC mediated the relationship between customer knowledge (Lee et al., 2011), and marketing strategic development (White et al., 2003); and organizational performance.

These results imply several inferences. First, the causal effect of CRM on MP and MC are further emphasized, as supported in the first hypothesis and second hypotheses, respectively. Second, codependent and interrelating correlations and causal effects among CRM, MP, and MC are confirmed and rationalized.

Third, and most important, the essential role of MC, MPC, and MIC in hotels is endorsed, since their interaction not only significantly and positively mediated the causal effect of CRM application on the hotels' MP, but also significantly increased that causal effect.

Thus, launching from hotels' need not to lose CRM development and maintaining efforts in vain, to increase CRM positive effect on MC, and eventually to maximize their MP, MC should be then carefully established and maintained, both MPC and MIC. Accordingly, hotels can best acquire the previously stated MC-related benefits, such as utilizing resources to accomplish marketing tasks, satisfy customers, streamline learning about customers, design and accustom products and services, and adapt marketing tactics to target new customers (Day, 1994; Chang, 1996; Blesa and Ripollés, 2008; Mohammed et al., 2014), forecasting and reacting to business environment, manage resources and efforts to tackle environmental needs, raise organizational performance, and achieve financial goals (Reed and Defillipi, 1990; Slotegraaf and Dickson, 2004; Vorhies and Morgan, 2005; Morgan et al., 2009; Chang et al., 2010), and converting marketing plans into concrete measures to develop organizational performance, thus increasing overall marketing effectiveness (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Cizmar and Weber, 2000; Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; White et al., 2003; Vorhies and Morgan, 2005; Kotler and Keller, 2012; Slater et al., 2010).

In addition, and most important, hotels are better able to enhance their MP, including the enhanced effectiveness, efficiency, and adaptability of marketing efforts (Morgan et al., 2002; Sirbel, 2012), and increased turnover, contribution margin, profit, market share, advertising and promotional share, customer penetration, loyalty, and satisfaction, brand recognition and satisfaction, purchase intention, distribution level, profitability of intermediaries, service quality, and innovativeness (Kokkinaki and Ambler, 1999; Bigne' et al., 2001; Eusebio et al., 2006; Wu and Lu, 2012; Frösén et al., 2013). Moreover, as previously concluded, enhanced MP is a key stimulus of overall hotels' organizational performance (Morgan et al., 2002; O'Sullivan et al., 2009; Alshourah, 2012; Wu and Lu, 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013; Mohammed et al., 2014).



## **7 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

CRM dimensions' application in Egyptian hotels has been investigated concerning its impact on their MP, and MC, both MPC and MIC. MC, MPC, and MIC were also tested for mediating role for strengthening the causal effect of CRM application on MP.

Descriptively, all the research variables were reported to be significantly above moderate, indicating that all the procedures and practices of CRM dimensions including CO, CRMO, KM, and TCRM, in addition to MP, and MC, either MPC or MIC, are almost always applied. This is basically attributable to the inherent necessity of the application of those procedures and practices in hotels, and managers' awareness of their importance to business survival and prosperity. Consequently, those hotels are most probably expected to experience CRM-related benefits. Inferentially, hypothesized causal and mediating effects between CRM dimensions, MC, and MP have been supported, conforming to previous relevant studies, and proving that researchers' choice of CRM dimensions and relevant practices, MP parameters, and MC aspects were the most reliable to be meaningfully correlated together.

Thus, in order to maximize MP, hotels' policies and managers have to ensure the best utilization of their CRM and provide sound MC. For CRM application to be fruitful, managers should first, and most critical, enhance their CO through directing business objectives towards customer satisfaction, understanding, monitoring and assessing the level of commitment to customer needs and their satisfaction, increasing customers' value, personalizing products and services, and providing good after-sales service. CRMO has to be supported through committing CRM-related expertise and resources to manage customer relationship, designing and directing the hotel structure, managers' and employees' attitudes towards acquiring and deepening customer relationships and satisfaction, assessing staff in terms of serving and meeting customer needs.

KM should be developed through accumulating and learning from guest history information, enabling ongoing, two-way communication with key customers through various channels. TCRM should be made effective through employing skillful technical staff to provide technical support for building customer relationships, utilizing adequate hardware and CRM-related software (i.e. Salesforce, Oracle, SAP, Zoho, and Microsoft dynamics 365), and integrating hotel's information systems across different functional areas.

Moreover, MPC should be built up through developing superior marketing planning skills, setting clear marketing goals, developing creative marketing strategies, and segmenting and targeting market effectively. MIC should also be improved through allocating marketing resources to implement marketing strategies effectively, delivering marketing programs effectively, translating general marketing strategies into detailed, specific actions and tasks, and monitoring and evaluating the outcomes of marketing strategies.

Finally, many possible ideas for future researches can be derived, mainly considering the hypothesized correlations in different settings than those of the current research. That is, the current study's limitations are that the field study has been conducted in one city, Sharm El-Sheikh, where the prevailing business type is resort hotels. Thus, future studies should examine CRM in other cities' hotels in order to draw more meaningful generalizations concerning commercial city hotels rather than just vacation resorts. Besides, the current research has drawn responses only from managers. Further research attempts should aim at investigating those variables, and others, using a sample of hotel guests so as to validate current study's results. Additionally, the hospitality establishments are mostly in need to develop standard operating procedures for various strategic and operational areas of interest. Researchers are thus urged to work on developing a standardized instrument for applying CRM, making available MPC and MIC, and measuring MP.

## REFERENCES

- Abdullateef, A. O., Mokhtar, S. S. M., & Yusoff, R. Z. (2011), 'The Strategic Impact of Technology Based CRM on Call Centers' Performance', *Journal of Internet Banking and Commerce*, 16(1), pp. 1-17.
- Abdullateef, A. O., Mokhtar, S., & Yusoff, R. Z. (2010), 'The impact of CRM Dimensions on Call Center Performance', *International Journal of Computer Science and Network Security*, 10(12), pp. 184-195.
- Abdullateef, A. O., Muktar, S. S. M., Yusoff, R. Z., & Ahmad, I. S. B. (2014), 'Effects of Customer Relationship Management Strategy on Call Centre's Employee Intention to Quit: Evidence from Malaysia Call Centers', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences Journal*, 130, pp. 305-315.
- Abele, K. P. N. (2008), *Customer equity: dimensions and realization process*, Doctoral Dissertation, De Montfort University, Leicester: Open Research Arch.
- Akroush, N.M., Dahiyat, E.S., Gharaibeh, S.H., & Abu-Lail, N.B. (2011), 'Customer relationship management implementation. An investigation of a scale's generalizability and its relationship with business performance in a developing country context', *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 21(2), pp. 158-191.
- Ali, M., Brooks, L., Alshaw, S., & Papazafeiropoulou, A. (2006), 'Cultural Dimensions and CRM Systems Implications: A Preliminary Framework', *Proceedings of the Twelfth Americas Conference on Information Systems (AMCIS 06)*.
- Almotairi, M. (2009), 'CRM Success Factors Taxonomy', *Proceedings of the European and Mediterranean Conference on Information Systems, Dubai, UAE (EMCIS2008)*, pp. 29-35.
- Almotairi, M. A. T. (2010), *Evaluation of the Implementation of CRM in Developing countries*, Doctoral dissertation, Brunel University, Brunel Business School PhD Theses.
- Alshourah, S. M. (2012), *The Antecedents of Customer Relationship Management and Impact on Hotels Performance in Jordan*, Doctoral dissertation, Utara University, Malaysia.
- Ambler, T., & Riley, D. (2000), 'Marketing metrics: A review of performance measures in use in the UK and Spain', *Marketing Science Institute*, Draft Report No. H. 00-500.
- Amoako, G. K., Arthur, E., Christiana, B., & Katah, R. K. (2012), 'The impact of effective customer relationship management (CRM) on repurchase: A case study of (GOLDEN TULIP) hotel (ACCRA-GHANA)', *African Journal of Marketing Management*, 4(1), pp. 17-29.
- Anbuoli, P., & Thiruvengkraj, T. R. (2013), 'A study on customer relationship management in banks', *International research journal of business and management*, 5(11), pp. 1-10.
- Arab, F., Selamat, H., Ibrahim, S., & Zamani, M. (2010), 'A Survey of Success Factors for CRM', *Proceedings of the World Congress on Engineering and Computer Science, San Francisco, USA (WCECS 2010)*, 2.
- Asikhia, O. (2010), 'Customer orientation and firm performance among Nigerian small and medium scale businesses', *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 2(1), pp. 197-212.
- Beckett-Camarata, E. J., Camarata, M. R., & Barker, R. T. (1998), 'Integrating internal and external customer relationships through relationship management: A strategic response to a changing global environment', *Journal of Business Research*, 41(1), pp. 71-81.
- Berry, L. L. (1995), 'Relationship marketing of services—growing interest, emerging perspectives', *Journal of the Academy of marketing science*, 23(4), pp. 236-245.
- Bigne, E., Sanchez, M., I., & Sanchez, J. (2001), 'Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: inter-relationship', *Tourism Management*, 22, pp. 607-616.

- Blesa, A., & Ripollés, M. (2008), 'The influence of marketing capabilities on economic international performance', *International Marketing Review*, 25(6), pp. 651-673.
- Bosse, S. (2005), *A systemic perspective of a customer relationship management solution for business*, Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch, Business School, South Africa.
- Boulding, W., Staelin, R., Ehret, M., & Johnston, W., J. (2005), 'A Customer Relationship Management Roadmap: What Is Known, Potential Pitfalls, and Where to Go', *Journal of Marketing*, 69, pp. 155-166.
- Chang, T., L. (1996), 'Cultivating global experience curve advantage on technology and marketing capabilities', *International Marketing Review*, 13(6), pp. 22-42.
- Chang, W., Park, J., E., & Chaib, S. (2010), 'How does CRM technology transform into organizational performance? A mediating role of marketing capability', *Journal of Business Research*, 63, pp. 849-855.
- Chen, I. J., & Popovich, K. (2003), 'Understanding customer relationship management (CRM) People, process and technology', *Business Process Management Journal*, 9(5), pp. 672-688.
- Cizmar, S., & Weber, S. (2000), 'Marketing effectiveness of the hotel industry in Croatia', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 19, pp. 227-240.
- Crosby, L. A., & Johnson, S. L. (2001), 'High performance marketing in the CRM era', *Marketing Management*, 10(3), pp. 10-11.
- Crosby, L. A., Evans, K. R., & Cowles, D. (1990), 'Relationship Quality in Services Selling: An Interpersonal Influence Perspective', *Journal of Marketing*, 54(3), pp. 68-81.
- Croteau, A. M., & Li, P. (2003), 'Critical success factors of CRM technological initiatives', *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 20(1), pp. 21-34.
- Day, G. S. (1994), 'The Capabilities of Market-Driven Organizations', *Journal of Marketing*, 58(4), pp. 37-52.
- Deighton, J., & Kornfeld, L. (2008), 'Digital interactivity: unanticipated consequences for markets, marketing, and consumers', Working Paper, Harvard Business School. Retrieved April 30, 2016 from <http://hbswk.hbs.edu/item/5783.html>.
- Dhman, Z. A. Z. (2011), *The Effect of Customer Relationship Management (CRM) Concept Adoption on Customer Satisfaction - Customers Perspective: The Case of Coastal Municipalities Water Utility CMWU- Rafah Branch*, Master Dissertation, Islamic University of Gaza, Faculty of Commerce.
- Dutu, C., & Halmajan, H. (2011), 'The Effect of Organizational Readiness on CRM and Business Performance', *International Journal of Computers*, 1(2), pp. 106-114.
- Dyche, J. (2002), *The CRM handbook: A business guide to customer relationship management*, Boston: Addison-Wesley Professional.
- Eggert, A., Ulaga, W., & Schultz, F. (2006), 'Value creation in the relationship life cycle: A quasi-longitudinal analysis', *Industrial Marketing Management*, 35(1), pp. 20-27.
- Ehsani, Z., & Hashim, N. H. (2014), 'Incorporated definition of customer relationship management towards successful performance', *International Journal of Service Science, Management and Engineering*, 1(6), pp. 57-62.
- Eid, R. (2007), 'Towards a Successful CRM Implementation in Banks: An Integrated Model', *The Service Industries Journal*, 27(8), pp. 1021-1039.

- Eisenhardt, K., M., & Martin, J., A. (2000), 'Dynamic capabilities: what are they?', *Strategic Management Journal*, 21, pp. 1105-1121.
- Eusebio, R., Llonch Andreu, J., & Pilar López Belbeze, M. (2006), 'Measures of marketing performance: a comparative study from Spain', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(2), pp. 145-155.
- Fan, Y., & Ku, E. (2010), 'Customer focus, service process fit and customer relationship management profitability: the effect of knowledge sharing', *The Service Industries Journal*, 30(2), pp. 203-222.
- Frösén, J., Tikkanen, H., Jaakkola, M., & Vassinen, A. (2013), 'Marketing performance assessment systems and the business context', *European journal of marketing*, 47(5/6), pp. 715-737.
- Galbreath, J., & Rogers, T. (1999), 'Customer relationship leadership: a leadership and motivation model for the twenty first century business', *The TQM Magazine*, 11(3), pp. 161 – 171.
- Garrido-Moreno, A., & Padilla-Meléndez, A. (2011), 'Analyzing the impact of knowledge management on CRM success: The mediating effects of organizational factors', *International Journal of Information Management*, 31(5), pp. 437-444.
- Gay, L., & Diehl, P. (1992), *Research methods for business and management*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Green, C., E. (2006), 'Customer Relationship Management and loyalty for resorts: technology, process and the human touch', *Hospitality Upgrade Magazine*, Issue of June 16, 2006. Retrieved April 30, 2016 from [http://www.hospitalityupgrade.com/\\_magazine/magazine\\_Detail.asp?ID=16](http://www.hospitalityupgrade.com/_magazine/magazine_Detail.asp?ID=16).
- Gummesson, E. (1999), *Total relationship marketing: Rethinking marketing management: From 4 P's to 30 R's*, Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Gummesson, E. (2004), 'Return on relationships (ROR): the value of relationship marketing and CRM in business-to business contexts', *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 19(2), pp. 136-148.
- Haley, M., & Watson, B. (2003, 'The ABCs of CRM - Part 3 of 3', *Hospitality Upgrade Magazine*, Issue of March 01, 2003. Retrieved April 10, 2016 from [http://www.hospitalityupgrade.com/\\_magazine/magazine\\_Detail.asp?ID=468](http://www.hospitalityupgrade.com/_magazine/magazine_Detail.asp?ID=468).
- Hallin, C.A., & Marnburg, E. (2008), 'Knowledge management in the hospitality industry: a review of empirical research', *Tourism Management*, 29(2), pp. 366-81.
- Hamid, H. (2009), 'Toward unfolding CRM implementation in Pakistan: A case study', *Proceedings of the 17th European Conference on Information Systems (ECIS 2009)*. Paper 426. Retrieved December 9, 2014 from <http://aisel.aisnet.org/ecis2009/426>.
- Hart, C. W. (1995), 'Mass customization: conceptual underpinnings, opportunities and limits', *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 6(2), pp. 36-45.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013), *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*, New York: Guilford Press.
- Javalgi, R. G., Martin, C. L., & Young, R. B. (2006), 'Marketing research, market orientation and customer relationship management: a framework and implications for service providers', *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20, pp. 12-23.
- Jones, E., Brown, S., P., Zoltners, A., A., & Weitz, B., A. (2005), 'The changing environment of selling and sales management', *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 25(2), pp. 105-111.
- Juuso, O. J. (2014), *Collaborative Customer Relationship Management in Business-to-Business Firm's Strategy*, Master dissertation, Lappeenranta University of Technology SKEMA Business School.

- Kamalian, A. R., Ya'ghoubi, N., & Baharvand, F. (2013), 'Explaining Critical Success Factors for CRM Strategy (Case Study: SMEs in Zahedan Industrial City)', *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(5), pp. 179-188.
- Kasim, A., & Minai, B. (2009), 'Linking CRM strategy, customer performance measures and performance in the hotel industry', *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 3(2), pp. 297-316.
- Kennedy, K. N., Lassk, F. G., & Goolsby, J. R. (2002), 'Customer mind-set of employees throughout the organization', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30(2), pp. 159-171.
- Kim, H. S., Kim, Y. G., & Park, C. W. (2010), 'Integration of firm's resource and capability to implement enterprise CRM: A case study of a retail bank in Korea', *Decision Support Systems*, 48(2), pp. 313-322.
- Kohli, A. K., & Jaworski, B. J. (1990), 'Market Orientation: The Construct, Research Propositions, and Managerial Implications', *Journal of Marketing*, 54, pp. 1-18.
- Kokkinaki, F., & Ambler, T. (1999), 'Marketing performance assessment: an exploratory investigation into current practice and the role of firm orientation', (Working Paper No. 99-114), Marketing Science Institute.
- Kotler, P., Keller, K. (2012), *Marketing Management* (14<sup>th</sup> edition), New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc
- Ku, E. C. (2010), 'The impact of customer relationship management through implementation of information systems', *Total Quality Management and Business Excellence*, 21(11), pp. 1085-1102.
- Lee, R., P., Naylor, G., & Chen, Q. (2011), 'Linking customer resources to firm success: The role of marketing program implementation', *Journal of Business Research*, 64, pp. 394-400.
- Lee, Y. K., Nam, J. H., Park, D. H., & Ah Lee, K. (2006), 'What factors influence customer-oriented prosocial behavior of customer-contact employees?', *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(4), pp. 251-264.
- Liu, S. S., Luo, X., & Shi, Y. Z. (2003), 'Market-oriented organizations in an emerging economy: A study of missing links', *Journal of Business Research*, 56(6), pp. 481-491.
- Lo, A., S., Stalcup, L., D., and Lee, A. (2010), 'Customer relationship management for hotels in Hong Kong', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(2), pp. 139-159.
- Luck, D., & Lancaster, G., (2013), 'The significance of CRM to the strategies of hotel companies,' *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 5(1), pp. 55-66.
- Madhovi, P. G. (2014), *Assessing the effectiveness of customer relationship management (CRM) in the hotels in Pretoria*, Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa.
- Maklan, S., Knox, S., & Ryals, L. (2005), 'Using real options to help build the business case for CRM investment', *Long Range Planning*, 38(4), pp. 393-410.
- Mechinda, P., & Patterson, P.G. (2011), 'The impact of service climate and service provider personality on employees' customer-oriented behavior in a high-contact setting', *Journal of Services Marketing*, 25(2), pp. 101-113.
- Mendoza, L. E., Marius, A., Perez, M., & Griman, A. C. (2007), 'Critical success factors for a customer strategy', *Information Software Technology*, 49, pp. 913-945.
- Mohammad, A. A. M. (2014), *The mediating effect of marketing capabilities on the relationship between customer relationship management (CRM) dimensions and hotel performance*, Doctoral dissertation, Utara University, Malaysia.

- Mohammad, A., & Bin Rashid, B. (2012), 'Customer relationship management (CRM) in hotel industry: a framework proposal on the relationship among CRM dimensions, marketing capabilities and hotel performance', *International review of management and marketing*, 2(4), pp. 220-230.
- Mohammad, A., Bin Rashid, B., & Bin Tahir, S. (2013), 'Assessing the influence of customer relationship management (CRM) dimensions on organization performance', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 4(3), pp. 228-247.
- Mohammed, A. A., Rashid, B. B., & Tahir, S. B. (2014), 'Customer relationship management (CRM) Technology and organization performance: is marketing capability a missing link? An empirical study in the Malaysian hotel industry', *Asian Social Science*, 10(9), pp. 197-212.
- Mohebbi, N., Hoseini, M. A., & Esfidani, M. R. (2012), 'Identification & prioritization of the affecting factors on CRM implementation in edible oil industry', *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 2(5), pp. 4993-5001.
- Morgan, N., A., Clarkb, B., H., & Goonera, R. (2002), 'Marketing productivity, marketing audits, and systems for marketing performance assessment: Integrating multiple perspectives', *Journal of Business Research*, 55, pp. 363-375.
- Morgan, N., A., Vorhies, D., W., & Mason, C., H. (2009), 'Market orientation, marketing capabilities, and firm performance', *Strategic Management Journal*, 30, pp. 909-920.
- Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994), 'The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing', *Journal of Marketing*, 58, pp. 20-38.
- Moriarty, J., Jones, R., Rowley, J., & Kupiec-Teahan, B. (2008), 'Marketing in small hotels: a qualitative study', *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 26(3), pp. 293-315.
- Narver, J. C., & Slater, S., F. (1990), 'The effect of market orientation on business profitability', *Journal of Marketing*, October, pp. 20-35.
- Neill, S. (2010), 'Decomposing the effects of organizational memory on marketing implementation', *Marketing Letters*, 21(2), pp. 135-147.
- Newham, N. (2008), *Customer relationship management in the hospitality industry: identifying approaches to add stakeholder value*, Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.
- Ngai, E. W. (2005), 'Customer relationship management research (1992-2002) An academic literature review and classification', *Marketing intelligence & planning*, 23(6), pp. 582-605.
- Noble, C., H., & Mokwa, M., P. (1999), 'Implementing Marketing Strategies: Developing and Testing a Managerial Theory', *Journal of Marketing*, 63(4), pp. 57-73.
- Nunes, J., C., Dréze, X. (2006), 'Your loyalty program is betraying you', *Harvard Business Review*, 84(4), pp. 124-131.
- Olsen, M. D., & Connolly, D. J. (2000), 'Experience-based travel: How technology is changing the hospitality industry', *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 41(1), pp. 30-40.
- O'Sullivan, D., Abela, A. V., & Hutchinson, M. (2009), 'Marketing performance measurement and firm performance: Evidence from the European high-technology sector', *European Journal of Marketing*, 43(5/6), pp. 843-862.
- Ozgener, S., & Iraz, R. (2006), 'Customer relationship management in small-medium enterprises: The case of Turkish tourism industry', *Tourism Management*, 27(6), pp. 1356-1363.
- Pan, S. L. (2005), 'Customer perspective of CRM systems: A focus group study', *International Journal of Enterprise Information Systems (IJEIS)*, 1(1), pp. 65-88.

- Park, C. H. & Kim, Y. G. (2003), 'A framework of dynamic CRM: linking marketing with information strategy', *Business Process Management Journal*, 9(5), pp. 652-671.
- Parvatiyar, A., & Sheth, J. N. (2000), 'The domain and conceptual foundations of relationship marketing'. In J. N. Sheth, & A. Parvatiyar (Eds.), *Handbook of relationship marketing* (pp. 3-38), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Parvatiyar, A., & Sheth, J. N. (2001), 'Customer relationship management: emerging practice, process, and discipline', *Journal of Economics and Social Research*, 3(2), pp. 1-34.
- Payne, A. (2006), *Handbook of CRM: achieving excellence in customer management*, Burlington, MA: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Pedron, C. D., & Saccol, A. Z. (2009), 'What Lies behind the Concept of Customer Relationship Management? Discussing the Essence of CRM through a Phenomenological Approach', *Brazilian Administration Review (BAR)*, 6(1), pp. 34-49.
- Peterson, L. A., Blattberg, R. C., & Wang, P. (1993), 'Database marketing. Past, present, and future', *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 7(3), pp. 27-43.
- Piccoli, G., Connor, P., Capaccioli, C., & Alvarez, R. (2003), 'Customer relationship management-A driver for change in the structure of the US lodging industry', *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 44(4), pp. 61-73.
- Piercy, N. (2002), *Market-Led Strategic Change - A Guide to Transforming the Process of Going to Market* (3<sup>rd</sup> edition), London: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Piskar, F., Faganel, A. (2009), 'A Successful CRM Implementation Project in a Service Company: Case Study', *Journal of Management, Informatics and Human Resources*, 42(5), pp. 199-208.
- Plessis, M., & Boon, J. A. (2004), 'Knowledge management in eBusiness and customer relationship management: South African case study findings', *International Journal of Information Management*, 24(1), pp. 73-86.
- Popli, G. S. & Rao, D. N. (2009), 'Customer Relationship Management in Indian Banks', Retrieved December 2, 2015 from SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1373592>.
- Rainer, A., & Puschmann, T. (2004), 'Successful practices in customer relationship management', *Proceedings of the 37th Hawaii International Conference on System Science*.
- Reed, R., & Defillippi, R., J (1990), 'Casual ambiguity, barriers to limitation, and sustainable competitive advantage', *The Academy of Management Review*, 15(1), pp. 88-102.
- Richards, K. A., & Jones, E. (2008), 'Customer relationship management: Finding value drivers', *Industrial Marketing Management Journal*, 37, pp. 120-130.
- Rigby, D. K., & Ledingham, D. (2004), 'CRM done right', *Harvard business review*, 82(11), pp. 118-130.
- Rigby, D. K., Reichheld, F. F., & Schefter, P. (2002), 'Avoid the four perils of CRM', *Harvard Business Review*, 80(2), pp. 101-109.
- Rivers, M., and Dart, J. (1999), 'The Acquisition and Use of Sales Force Automation by Mid-Sized Manufacturers', *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 19(2), pp. 59-73.
- Roberts, M. L., Liu, R. R., & Hazard, K. (2005), 'Strategy, technology and organizational alignment: Key components of CRM success', *Journal of Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management*, 12(4), pp. 315-326.
- Ryals, L., & Knox, S. (2001), 'Cross-functional issues in the implementation of relationship marketing through customer relationship management', *European management journal*, 19(5), pp. 534-542.

- Saarijärvi, H., Karjaluoto, H., & Kuusela, H., (2013), 'Extending customer relationship management: From empowering firms to empowering customers', *Journal of Systems and Information Technology*, 15(2), pp. 140-158.
- Sadek, H., & Tantawi, P. (2011), 'Measuring customer relationship management (CRM) and its relationship with customer satisfaction in the Egyptian Banking Sector', *Proceedings of the International Trade & Academic Research Conference (ITARC)*, pp. 43-54.
- Sadek, H., Yousef, A., Ghoneim, A., Tantawi, P. (2011), 'Measuring the effect of customer relationship management (CRM) components on the non-financial performance of commercial bank: Egypt case', *Proceedings of the European, Mediterranean and Middle Eastern Conference on Information Systems, Athens, Greece (EMCIS2011)*.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016), *Research Methods for Business Students* (7<sup>th</sup> edition), Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Schweisberger, J., & Chatterjee, A., (2001), 'Effective Customer Relationship Management (CRM) Implementations', *Hospitality Upgrade Magazine, Issue of October 01, 2001*. Retrieved May 7, 2016 from [http://www.hospitalityupgrade.com/\\_magazine/MagazineArticles/Effective-CRM-Implementations.asp](http://www.hospitalityupgrade.com/_magazine/MagazineArticles/Effective-CRM-Implementations.asp).
- Shaw, G., & Williams, A. (2009), 'Knowledge transfer and management in tourism organizations: An emerging research agenda', *Tourism Management*, 30(3), pp. 325-335.
- Sheth, J. N., & Parvatiyar, A. (1995), 'The evolution of relationship marketing', *International Business Review*, 4(4), pp. 397-418.
- Sheth, J., N., Sisodia, R., S., & Sharma, A. (2000), 'The antecedents and consequences of customer-centric marketing', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28(1), pp. 55-66.
- Sigala, M., (2005), 'Integrating customer relationship management in hotel operations: managerial and operational implications', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 24, pp. 391-413.
- Sin, L. Y., Tse, A. C., & Yim, F. H. (2005), 'CRM: conceptualization and scale development', *European Journal of marketing*, 39(11/12), pp. 1264-1290.
- Sirbel, M. (2012), *The Effect of Information Technology (IT) Capabilities and Customer Relationship Management (CRM) on Marketing Performance: An Empirical Study on Commercial Jordanian banks in Amman*, Master Dissertation, Middle East University, Faculty of business.
- Slater, S. F., Hult, G. T. M., & Olson, E. M. (2010), 'Factors influencing the relative importance of marketing strategy creativity and marketing strategy implementation effectiveness', *Industrial Marketing Management*, 39(4), pp. 551-559.
- Slotegraaf, R., J., & Dickson, P., R. (2004), 'The Paradox of a marketing planning capability', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32(4), pp. 371-385.
- Stringfellow, A., Nie, W., & Bowen, D. E. (2004), 'CRM: Profiting from understanding customer needs', *Business Horizons*, 47(5), pp. 45-52.
- Tajeddini, K. (2010), 'Effect of customer orientation and entrepreneurial orientation on innovativeness: Evidence from the hotel industry in Switzerland', *Tourism Management*, 31(2), pp. 221-231.
- Thomas, J. S., Reinartz, W., & Kumar, V. (2004), 'Getting the most out of all your customers', *Harvard Business Review*, 82(July-Augusts), pp. 116-123.
- Thomas, J., Blattberg, R., & Fox, E. (2004), 'Recapturing lost customers', *Journal of Marketing Research*, 41(1), pp. 31-45.



- Vazifehdust, H., Shahnavaizi, A., Jourshari, M., R., T., & Sharifi, F., S. (2012), 'Investigation critical success factors of Customer Relationship Management implementation', *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 18(8), pp. 1052-1064.
- Verhoef, P., C. (2003), 'Understanding the effect of Customer Relationship Management efforts on customer retention and customer share development', *Journal of Marketing*, 67, pp. 30-45.
- Vorhies, D., W., & Morgan, N., A. (2005), 'Benchmarking Marketing Capabilities for Sustainable Competitive Advantage', *Journal of Marketing*, 69, pp. 80-94.
- Wang, W., Darshana, S., & Tan, F., T., C. (2009), 'Measuring CRM and SCM benefits: a preliminary measurement model', *Proceedings of the Pacific Asia Conference on Information Systems, (PACIS 2009)*.
- Wang, Y., & Feng, H. (2012), 'Customer relationship management capabilities', *Management Decision*, 50(1), pp. 115-129.
- White, J. C., Contant, J. S., & Echambadi, R. (2003), 'Marketing Strategy Development Styles, Implementation Capability, and Firm Performance: Investigating the Curvilinear Impact of Multiple Strategy-Making Styles', *Marketing Letters*, 14(2), pp. 111-124.
- Wilson, H., Daniel, E., & McDonald, M. (2002), 'Factors for success in customer relationship management (CRM) systems', *Journal of Marketing Management*, 18(1), pp. 193-219.
- Winer, R., S. (2001), 'A framework for Customer Relationship Management', *California Management Review*, 43(4), pp. 89-105.
- Wu, S. I., & Lu, C. L. (2012), 'The relationship between CRM, RM, and business performance: A study of the hotel industry in Taiwan', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(1), pp. 276-285.
- Yilmaz, C., Alpan, L., & Ergun, E. (2005), 'Cultural determinants of customer-and learning-oriented value systems and their joint effects on firm performance', *Journal of business research*, 58(10), pp. 1340-1352.
- Yim, F. H., Anderson, R. E., & Swaminathan, S. (2005), 'Customer Relationship Management: Its Dimensions and Effect on Customer Outcomes', *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 24(4), pp. 265-280.
- Yueh, C. L., Lee, Y., & Barnes, F. B. (2010), 'The effects of leadership styles on knowledge-based customer relationship management implementation', *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 3(1), pp. 1-19.
- Zahay, D., & Griffin, A. (2004), 'Customer learning processes, strategy selection, and performance in business-to-business service firms', *Decision Sciences*, 35(2), pp. 169-203.
- Zhou, K. Z., Brown, J. R., & Dev, C. S. (2009), 'Market orientation, competitive advantage, and performance: A demand-based perspective', *Journal of business research*, 62(11), pp. 1063-1070.
- Zineldin, M. (2006), 'The royalty of loyalty: CRM, quality and retention', *Journal of consumer marketing*, 23(7), pp. 430-437.

## **Impact of Sport Tourism on the Host Community: A Case Study of Nigerian Universities' Games**

**YUSUF T.G.**

Hospitality and Tourism Management Unit, Department of Family, Nutrition and Consumer Sciences,  
Faculty of Agriculture, Obafemi Awolowo Awolowo University, Ile – Ife, Osun State, Nigeria

### **ABSTRACT**

*The study investigated the tourism impact of NUGA (Nigerian University Games Association) on the host community of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile – Ife, Osun State, Nigeria which hosted the 24<sup>th</sup> edition of the games between 11<sup>th</sup> February and 22<sup>nd</sup> February, 2014. Research methods involved in gathering data were participant observation, interview and questionnaires. The questionnaires were used to elicit information from one hundred and ninety – four respondents who were selected by simple random technique. The event featured fifteen games and more than 7,000 athletes and officials from over 60 universities participated in the biennial games. The study specifically identified the benefits of hosting NUGA games by the University, determined the negative effects of the event and established the residents' perception of sport tourism. The study also identified the motivating factors for hosting sport tourism event and this include: conducive weather condition, support from government and sponsors, economic gains, community prestige, hospitality of residents, security and availability of sporting facilities, fund, accommodation and social infrastructures. Four hypotheses were tested, conclusions were drawn and necessary recommendations towards attaining and sustaining the goals and objectives of NUGA were offered.*

**Key words:** NUGA, Impact, Sport Tourism, Host Community

### **INTRODUCTION**

The first connections between sport and tourism emerged in the early mid – nineteenth century A.D. with English competitive sports as a central pillar of modern western sports (alongside German exercises and Swedish gymnastics). Standeven (1994) dated the first connections between sport and tourism to the year 1827. It is debatable, however, whether this connection can really be attached to a particular year. Pigeassou *et al.* (1998) located the connection between tourism and sport in the emergence of alpine winter – sports in the nineteenth century, but assumes the autonomy of the sport tourism domain to be only since the 1950s. Standeven and De Knop (1999) also provided that forms of sport tourism may be dated back to the times of the ancient Greeks. Weed and Bull (2009) defined sport tourism as a social, economic and cultural phenomenon developed from the unique interaction of people, place and activity. Sport tourism is one of the largest and fastest – growing segments of the travel and tourism industry and one that is receiving increased attention for its social, environmental, and economic development and opportunities (Standeven and De

Knop 1999). It is widely understood that major sporting events contribute significantly to the economic development and tourist traffic in a city or region where the sporting takes place (Higham, 1999, Turco *et al.*, 2003). Sport tourism is a vital component of the marketing mix for tourist destinations (Getz, 1997, Gibson, 1998). Gibson (1998) described sport tourism as leisure-based travel which takes person(s) outside their usual environment for the purpose of watching, participating (in physical activities) or adoring attractions associated with physical activities.

**History of Nigerian University Games Association (NUGA):** The association was founded in 1965 and the first game was held in the following year (1966) at the University of Ibadan (the premier university in Nigeria). The game association was formed by Nigerian first generation universities which are five in number, these are; University of Lagos, Akoka, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, University of Ibadan, and University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University). NUGA has fifteen (15) approved sporting activities. These are; track and field, badminton, basketball, hockey, chess, cricket, judo, soccer, squash, table tennis, tae Kwando, lawn tennis, volley ball, swimming, and hand ball. NUGA has gone beyond bothers. In 1970, NUGA became a member of World Federation of Universities Games Association and has continuously taken part in the World University Games and other activities of the Federation since then. When all African Universities' Games' Association was founded in 1974, NUGA was a founding member. The major objectives of NUGA include; promotion of friendship through participation in sporting activities among University students in Nigeria, development of sports facilities in Nigerian Universities, and enhancing the development of sports in Nigeria through contribution of elite athletes from University sports competitions to the national teams. The main purpose of setting up NUGA was to create an atmosphere of friendly interaction among universities in Nigeria. This highly welcome goal is expected to unite all Nigerian universities for peaceful co – existence. Ojeme (2010) enumerated purpose of sports development in Nigeria as physical fitness for all, self-actualization, improvement of international relations, promotion of friendship, provision of employment, youth mobilization, promotion of recreation and competitive sports, promotion of women sports etc.

**Statement of the Problem:** Various studies have been carried out by different researchers in the area of impact of sport tourism event on the host community. These studies have identified and classified economic impact of sport tourism to include: provision of temporary and permanent jobs, increasing cash flow in the community within and sometimes beyond the period of the event, improving standard of living, attracting new investments to host community and encouraging local entrepreneurship. Social benefits of sport tourism event documented in the literatures includes: sense of pride, entertainment, family and community cohesion, self – actualization and provision/improvement in infrastructural facilities. Environmental benefits pointed out in earlier studies include: the provision of incentives for the conservation of natural resources and provision/maintenance of infrastructures such as recreational parks, sporting facilities, car parks, road etc. However, all these benefits have not come without their costs. From previous studies, negative effects such as forceful relocation of residents to accommodate tourists, crowding, hooliganism, crime, consumption of hard drugs, disruptions of the normal life of the local people, increased rents and tax rate were all identified as negative effects of sport tourism on host communities. A good example is Sydney 2000 Olympics where the cost of living soared immediately it was announced to host the 2000 Olympics. Also, the impact of sport tourism on the environment can be negative as a result of clearing of trees, building ski huts thereby increasing waste and carbon emission, traffic congestion, built-up construction areas, noise pollution, light pollution and overcrowding. However, these previous studies have used mega sport tourism events such as FIFA World Cup and Olympics to examine the impact of sport tourism event on the host community, hence the essence of this study, to ascertain the degree of conformity or otherwise of these previous research findings to what obtains when an event involving a segment of a population of a nation is involved such as the Nigeria University Games (NUGA). It is also significant to study the peculiarities of sport tourism event of this magnitude.

**Objectives of the Study:** Haven hosted the 24<sup>th</sup> edition of NUGA games between 11<sup>th</sup> and 22<sup>nd</sup> of February in 2014; the main objective of this study was to examine the tourism impact of Nigerian University Games on Obafemi Awolowo University. The specific objectives were to:

- i. identify the benefits of hosting sport tourism event by Obafemi Awolowo University,
- ii. identify the negative effects of sport tourism on the host community,
- iii. investigate the residents' perception of sport tourism, and
- iv. identify the motivating factors for hosting sport tourism event.

**Research Questions:** The research questions formulated to guide this study include the following:

- i. What are the benefits of hosting sport tourism event by O.A.U.?
- ii. What are the negative effects of hosting sport tourism event by the university during 2012/2013 academic session?
- iii. How do residents perceive sport tourism?, and
- iv. What are the motivating factors for hosting sport tourism event?

**Methodology:** The research design that was adopted for this study was a descriptive survey which falls within the empirical research methodology and which aims at fact-findings. This approach is appropriate in collecting the necessary information required for this study, which is an in-depth inquiry into the evaluation of the impact of sport tourism on the host community.

**Data Collection, Population and Sampling Techniques:** The target population for the study consists of residents of Obafemi Awolowo University. Among the residents are people of various socio – economic class. These include: lecturers, administrators, technologists, clerical staff, technicians, students, traders, artisans etc. whose offices, residence or businesses are located within the University. A simple random sampling technique was used to select the respondents that were involved in the study. A total number of two hundred questionnaires were administered but one hundred and ninety – four were recovered for analysis. Key informant interview and observation method of data gathering were also employed during the course of this study.

### **Results and Discussion:**

- i. On the arrival of the tourists, there was a chaos due to the refusal of the students of Obafemi Awolowo University to willingly surrender their accommodation for the use of the tourists, and if not for the fact that the students' union was under proscription and that the students were just resuming after a long break due to ASUU (Academic Staff Union of Universities) strike, this problem might be difficult to resolve. This finding is in support of the submissions of Andriotis (2005) who asserted that the hospitality of the local community is vital to the tourism industry and that of Murphy (1985) who stated that 'if the host community is antagonistic to visitors, no amount of attractions will compensate for the rudeness or hostility'.
- ii. *Sport tourism embraces some elements of cultural tourism.* On the day of the opening ceremony, all the contingents (the participating Universities) march past the high table where dignitaries were seated and around the sporting arena to register their presence. Majority of the participating Universities were in traditional attires of their geographical locations and some delegates displayed the dancing steps of their localities. This observation is in consonance with that of Ifeanyichukwu (2013) who stated that "at the opening and closing ceremony of the 17th National Sports Festival held in Rivers State, Nigeria between 3<sup>rd</sup> and 10th July 2011, athletes from different states showcased their popular pattern of dressing.
- iii. There was a period of time when the officials stopped the games and went on strike. Investigation revealed that they were protesting non – payment of their entitlements. This did not go down well with many tourists who had come to relax and enjoy the games.
- iv. Local Organizing Committee allotted spaces to the interested members of the host community at the rate of twenty thousand naira (#20,000) per space in the proposed market for the event. The problems that ensued from this were that; the spaces were small, the market was sighted about 500 metres to 1

kilometers away from the sporting arena and ultimately, the hawkers were getting the market while the accredited sellers witnessed low/no patronage. At the end of it all, the market was relocated close to the sporting arena. Therefore, people who have the experience of organizing event of this nature should make up a larger percentage of the organizing committee.



*Plate 1: Cultural Performance during the event*

- v. **Key Informant Interview** with Agboola (2014), who is a resident of the host community revealed that the legacy of the 2014 NUGA games hosted by Obafemi Awolowo University is not satisfactory when compared with the legacy of the previous editions hosted by the same University. He stated that the legacies of the recent edition include an Olympic size swimming pool and a tartan tract for athletics which are beneficial only to sport loving members of the host community rather than the previous edition that lead to the building of two hostels; Angola Hall and Mozambique Hall that have served and still serving all students. This interviewee's opinion corroborates that of the Andriotis (2005) who stated that destination should be developed according to host community needs. In this case, according to the interviewee, hostel is a more pressing need for the University (above 60% of the students reside outside the school) rather than the capital intensive sporting facilities.
- vi. **Interview** with the foreigner tourists sighted during the event (plate 2 below) revealed that if well panned and organized, NUGA has the potential of attracting international tourists.





Plate 2: foreign tourists sighted during the games. Photograph by the researcher: T.G. Yusuf (2014)

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by Socio – Economic Characteristics

n = 194

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	118	60.8
Female	76	39.2
<b>Age (Years)</b>		
19 – 40	149	76.8
41 and above	45	23.2
<b>Religion</b>		
Islam	90	46.4
Christianity	103	53.1
Others	1	0.52
<b>Tribe</b>		
Yoruba	159	82
Hausa	8	4.1
Igbo	24	12.4
Non – Nigerian	3	1.5
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	142	73.2
Married	47	24.2
Others	5	2.6
<b>Number of Children</b>		
None	144	74.2
1 – 4	41	21.1
5 and above	9	4.6
<b>Level of Education</b>		
None	4	2.1

Primary	9	4.6
Secondary	12	6.2
Tertiary	169	87.1
<b>Type of Work</b>		
Students	119	61.3
Civil Servants	57	29.4
Traders	14	7.2
Artisans	3	1.5
Farmers	1	0.5
<b>Monthly Income</b>		
Less than #20,000	108	55.7
#21,000 - #50,000	38	19.6
#51,000 and above	48	24.7
<b>Social Organization</b>		
Yes	105	54.1
No	85	43.8

---

**Source: Field Survey, 2014**

Data in table 1 showed the socio – economic status of the respondents. The table revealed that 60.8% of the respondents were males and 39.2 % were females, 76.8% aged between 19 – 40 years and 23.2 % aged between 41 years and above. Majority (82%) of the respondents were of Yoruba tribe, 12.4% were Igbo, 4.1% were Hausa while just three (1.5%) were Non – Nigerians, 46.4% were Muslims, 53.1% were Christians while one respondent did not belong to any of the two major religions in Nigeria. Also, 73.2% were single, 24.2% were married, 74.2% had no children, 21.1% had between I – 4 children and just 4.6% had 5 children and above. A survey of the educational background of the respondents revealed that 87.1% had tertiary education, 6.2% had secondary education, 4.6% had primary education and four (2.1%) of the respondents had no formal education. Majority (61.3%) of the respondents were students, 29.4% were civil servants, 7.2% were traders, 1.5% were artisans and just one respondent (0.5%) was a farmer. An inquiry into the monthly income of the interviewees showed that 55.7% earned #20,000 and below, 19.6% earned between #21,000 and #50,000 and 24.7% earned #51, 000 and above. Lastly, while 54.1% of the respondents belonged to social organizations, 43.8% did not belong to such organizations. These findings showed that the respondents randomly selected for this research were of diverse socio – economic status.

**Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Perception of Sport Tourism**

<b>Statements on Perception</b>	<b>Strongly Agree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Agree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Undecided Freq (%)</b>	<b>Disagree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree Freq (%)</b>	<b>Mean</b>
The cost involved in sport tourism does not worth it.	17 (8.8)	18 (9.3)	18 (9.3)	63 (32.5)	78 (40.2)	2.14
Sport tourism increases crime rate.	11 (5.7)	34 (17.5)	19 (9.8)	59 (30.4)	71 (36.6)	2.25
Sport tourism encourage social vices	18 (9.3)	41 (21.1)	26 (13.4)	68 (35.1)	41 (21.1)	2.50
It increases the cost of living.	17 (8.8)	58 (29.9)	40 (20.6)	47 (24.2)	32 (16.5)	2.50
It causes traffic congestion, noise and pollution.	33 (17.0)	72 (37.1)	31 (16.0)	33 (17.0)	25 (12.9)	3.29
It disrupts the normal activity of the host community.	30 (15.5)	65 (33.5)	31 (16.0)	36 (18.6)	32 (16.5)	3.13
Construction of sport tourism facilities destroys the natural environment.	25 (12.9)	40 (20.6)	23 (11.9)	55 (28.4)	51 (26.3)	2.50
Its benefits far outweigh its cost.	55 (28.4)	60 (30.9)	40 (20.6)	21 (10.8)	18 (9.3)	3.78
It improves resident's standard of living.	66 (34.0)	69 (35.6)	33 (17.0)	23 (11.9)	3 (1.5)	3.87
It provides seasonal employment opportunities.	97 (50)	67 (34.5)	19 (9.8)	8 (4.1)	3 (1.5)	4.27
It promotes local entrepreneurship.	92 (47.4)	77 (39.7)	15 (7.7)	7 (3.6)	3 (1.5)	4.44
It is a good opportunity to showcase the culture of the host community.	110(56.7)	62 (32.0)	14 (7.2)	7 (3.6)	1 (0.5)	4.41
It facilitates provision, maintenance and improvement of social infrastructures.	100(51.5)	66 (34.0)	20 (10.3)	4 (2.1)	4 (2.1)	4.31



It stimulates the provision and development of existing sporting facilities.	101(52.1)	63 (32.5)	13 (6.7)	7 (3.6)	10 (5.2)	4.23
Attending sport tourism event is a complete waste of time.	19 (9.8)	19 (9.8)	21 (10.8)	48 (24.7)	87 (44.8)	2.15
It disrupts academic calendar.	35 (18)	64 (33.0)	32 (16.5)	38 (19.6)	25 (12.9)	3.20

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Data in table 2 showed the distribution of respondents on how they perceive sport tourism. Findings showed that majority of the interviewees agreed that: sport tourism promotes local entrepreneurship (mean = 4.44), it is a good opportunity to showcase the culture of the host community (mean = 4.41), it facilitates the provision, maintainance and improvement of social infrastructures (mean = 4.31), it stimulates the provision and development of existing sporting facilities (mean = 4.23), it provides seasonal employment opportunities (mean = 4.27), it improves residents' standard of living (mean = 3.87), its benefits far outweighs its costs (mean = 3.78), it disrupts academic calendar (mean = 3.20), it causes traffic congestion, noise and pollution (mean = 3.29) and that it disrupts the normal activities of the host community (mean = 3.13). While majority of the respondents were neutral about sport tourism increasing the cost of living (mean = 2.50), encouraging social vices (mean = 2.50) and that construction of sport tourism facilities destroys the natural environment (mean = 2.50), majority also disagreed that it increases crime rate (mean = 2.25), attending sport tourism events is a complete waste of time (mean = 2.15) and that the cost involved in sport tourism does not worth it (mean = 2.14). Since the common opinion of the respondents involved in this study were neutral about sport tourism event leading to general increase in prices of commodities and that it causes traffic congestion, noise and pollution. Hence, these results are in line with the findings of Nancy and Craig (2010) who also concluded that sport tourism event does not lead to these problems. However, this could be due to the fact the events involved in both studies were not mega in nature.

**Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Impact of Sport Tourism**

Impact of Sport Tourism	Strongly Agree Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)	Undecided Freq (%)	Disagree Freq (%)	Strongly Disagree Freq (%)	Mean
It distorts the pristine culture of the host community.	27 (13.9)	19 (9.8)	31 (16.0)	75 (38.7)	42 (21.6)	2.50
It promotes host cultural activities.	79 (40.7)	79 (40.7)	21 (10.8)	8 (4.1)	7 (3.6)	4.16
It provides opportunity to attend interesting event.	101(52.1)	71 (36.6)	17 (8.8)	3 (1.5)	2 (1.0)	4.37

It is an opportunity to have fun with family and friends.	102(52.6)	71 (36.6)	14 (7.2)	5 (2.6)	2 (1.0)	4.37
It establishes the host cultural identity.	95 (49.0)	71 (36.6)	17 (8.8)	6 (3.1)	5 (2.6)	4.26
It increases entertainment opportunity for the residents.	106(54.6)	70 (36.1)	12 (6.2)	3 (1.5)	3 (1.5)	4.41
It provides opportunity to meet new people.	124(63.9)	52 (26.8)	13 (6.7)	3 (1.5)	2 (1.0)	4.51
It makes residents feel good about themselves and their community.	96 (49.5)	70 (36.1)	17 (8.8)	8 (4.1)	3 (1.5)	4.28
It showcases the host community in the positive light.	85 (43.8)	66 (34.0)	32 (16.5)	3 (1.5)	8 (4.1)	4.12
It promotes the development and maintainance of public facilities.	98 (50.5)	71 (36.6)	14 (7.2)	6 (3.1)	5 (2.6)	4.57
It creates temporary job opportunities.	104(53.6)	64 (33.0)	13 (6.7)	10 (5.2)	3 (1.5)	4.60
It increases turn over for businesses.	99 (51.0)	68 (35.1)	16 (8.2)	5 (2.6)	6 (3.1)	4.28
It improves the standard of living of residents who engaged in commodities' supply during the games.	86 (44.3)	74 (38.1)	19 (9.8)	9 (4.6)	6 (3.1)	4.16
It provides incentives for the conservation of natural resources.	63 (32.5)	65 (33.5)	43 (22,2)	17 (8.8)	6 (3.1)	3.84
It improves the provision and maintainance of infrastructures.	92 (47.4)	72 (37.1)	19 (9.8)	6 (3.1)	5 (2.6)	4.24

Unlike in a similar study by Vogt and Jun (2004) who discovered that general residents were not as informed about the different types of tourism segments who visited their destination and therefore were not able to offer their opinion on the types of impacts they may have, data in table 4 above presents and summarized the opinions of the respondents on the impact of sport tourism on Obafemi Awolowo University,

Ile – Ife. While majority were neutral (undecided) that sport tourism distorts the pristine culture of the host community (mean = 2.50), majority also agreed that: it promotes host cultural activities (mean = 4.16), it provided opportunity to attend interesting event (mean = 4.37), it was an opportunity to have fun with family and friends (mean = 4.37), it established the host cultural identity (mean = 4.26), it increased entertainment opportunity for the residents (mean = 4.41), it provided opportunity to meet new people (mean = 4.51), it made residents feel good about themselves and their community (mean = 4.28), it showcased the host community in the positive light (mean = 4.12), it promotes the development and maintainance of public facilities (mean = 4.57), it created temporary job opportunities (mean = 4.60), it increased turn over for businesses (mean = 4.28), it improved the standard of living of residents who engaged in commodities' supply during the games (mean = 4.16), it provided incentives for the conservation of natural resources (mean = 3.84) and it improved the provision and maintainance of infrastructures (mean = 4.24). While some of these results agreed with the findings of Nancy and Craig (2010), others supported the earlier work of Ntloko and Swart (2008). Therefore, sport tourism is a veritable tool for opening up, developing, and attracting tourists to a destination considering the fact that the inherent positive impact of such approach far outweighs the negative impact on the host community.



*Plates 3: Family cohesion as a social impact of sport tourism*

**Table 4: Distribution of Respondents by Negative Effects of Sport Tourism on Host Community**

<b>Negative Effects of Sport Tourism</b>	<b>Strongly Agree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Agree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Undecided Freq (%)</b>	<b>Disagree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree Freq (%)</b>	<b>Mean</b>
It increases crime rate.	23 (11.8)	37 (19.1)	35 (18.0)	52 (26.8)	47 (24.2)	2.51
It causes traffic congestion and parking difficulties.	42 (21.6)	79 (40.7)	29 (14.9)	25 (12.9)	19 (9.8)	3.52

Its development cost is too high.	25 (12.9)	62 (32.0)	44 (22.7)	38 (19.6)	25 (12.9)	3.12
It encourages social vices.	22 (11.3)	52 (26.8)	47 (24.2)	40 (20.6)	33 (17.0)	2.50
It denies residents' access to public facilities.	25 (12.9)	61 (31.4)	40 (20.6)	48 (24.7)	20 (10.3)	3.32
Only few members of the host community benefited.	33 (17.0)	46 (23.7)	37 (19.1)	53 (27.3)	25 (12.9)	3.06
It increases general price level of commodities.	34 (17.5)	64 (33.0)	35 (18.0)	43 (22.2)	18 (9.3)	2.50
It disrupts the lifestyle of residents and cause inconvenience.	35 (18.0)	62 (32.0)	30 (15.5)	43 (22.2)	24 (12.4)	3.21
It creates litter, excessive noise and pollution.	43 (22.2)	76 (39.2)	29 (14.9)	27 (13.9)	19 (9.8)	3.50
Construction of sport tourism facilities destroys the natural environment and causes damage to natural areas.	32 (16.5)	51 (26.3)	29 (14.9)	40 (20.6)	42 (21.6)	2.49

**Source: Field Survey, 2014**

Table 4 presents the responses of the interviewees on the negative effects of sport tourism on the host community. Data from the table shows that majority agreed that; sport tourism caused traffic congestion and parking difficulties (mean = 3.52), denied residents' access to public facilities (mean = 3.32), disrupted the lifestyle of residents and caused inconvenience (mean = 3.21), created litters, excessive noise and pollution (mean = 3.50), involved high development cost (mean = 3.12) and that only few members of the host community benefited from the event (mean = 3.06). Other tested negative effects on which respondents were neutral include that; sport tourism increased crime rate (mean = 2.51), encouraging social vices (mean = 2.50), increased general price level of commodities (mean = 2.50) and that construction of sport tourism facilities destroyed the natural environment (mean = 2.49). While some of these findings concurred with the conclusion of earlier researchers in this field of study such as; Ntloko and Swart (2008), Nancy and Craig (2010), others were against them. Thus, it could be said that factors characterizing different sport tourism events such as; its nature, organizers, venue, duration, scope, participants etc. may be responsible for these differences.

**Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by Motivating Factors for Hosting Sport Tourism**

<b>Motivating Factors</b>	<b>Strongly Agree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Agree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Undecided Freq (%)</b>	<b>Disagree Freq(%)</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree Freq (%)</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Conducive weather condition	26 (13.4)	40 (20.6)	116 (59.8)	9 (4.6)	3 (1.5)	3.41

Government support	20 (10.3)	38 (19.6)	124 (63.9)	6 (3.1)	6 (3.1)	3.32
Support from sponsors	33 (17.0)	41 (21.1)	-----	118(60.8)	2 (1.0)	3.54
Economic gains	36 (18.6)	39 (20.1)	116 (69.8)	3 (1.5)	-----	3.56
Community prestige	37 (19.1)	37 (19.1)	116 (69.8)	2 (1.0)	2 (1.0)	3.55
Availability of sporting facilities	48 (24.7)	28 (14.4)	115 (59.3)	3 (1.5)	-----	3.63
Availability of fund	47 (24.2)	24 (12.4)	119 (61.3)	2 (1.0)	2 (1.0)	3.87
Availability of accommodation	48 (24.7)	31 (16.0)	112 (57.7)	3 (1.5)	-----	3.65
Availability of social infrastructures	47 (24.2)	30 (15.5)	114 (58.8)	1 (0.5)	2 (1.0)	3.63
Hospitality of residents	46 (23.7)	27 (13.9)	116 (59.8)	3 (1.5)	2 (1.0)	3.59
Security	55 (28.4)	20 (10.3)	113 (58.2)	3 (1.5)	3 (1.5)	3.64

**Source: Field Survey, 2014**

This study further added a new thing to this field of study by identifying motivating factors for hosting sport tourism. Data in table 5 presents the outcome of this inquiry. Majority of the respondents agreed that the motivating factors for hosting sport tourism event include the following; conducive weather condition (mean = 3.41), government support (mean = 3.32), sponsors' support (mean = 3.54), economic gains (mean = 3.56), community prestige (mean = 3.55), availability of sporting facilities (mean = 3.63), availability of fund (mean = 3.87), availability of accommodation (mean = 3.65), availability of social infrastructures (mean = 3.63), hospitality of residents (mean = 3.59) and security (mean = 3.64).

**Hypothesis One:** There is no significant relationship between the socio – economic characteristics of respondents and perception of sport tourism

**Table 6: Chi – Square Analysis Showing the Relationship between Socio – Economic Characteristics of Respondents and Perception of Sport Tourism**

Variables	$\chi^2$	Df	P – value
Age	165.2	2	0.01
Religion	192.8	2	0.01
Tribe	340.6	3	0.01
Marital status	152.4	2	0.01
Number of children	257.2	3	0.01
Level of education	399.9	3	0.01
Type of work	260.0	4	0.01
Monthly income	443.3	2	0.01
Social organization	585.4	4	0.01

The above chi – square analysis showed a significant relationship between socio – economic characteristics of respondents such as; age ( $\chi^2 = 165.2$ ), religion ( $\chi^2 = 192.8$ ), tribe ( $\chi^2 = 340.6$ ), marital status ( $\chi^2 = 152.4$ ), number of children ( $\chi^2 = 257.2$ ), level of education ( $\chi^2 = 399.9$ ), occupation ( $\chi^2 = 260.0$ ), monthly income ( $\chi^2 = 443.3$ ), participation in social organization ( $\chi^2 = 585.4$ ) and perception of sport tourism. This implies that the various positions occupied by the respondents in the above listed socio – economic status played a significant role in influencing their perception of sport tourism.

**Hypothesis Two:** There is no significant relationship between socio – economic characteristics of respondents and impact of sport tourism

**Table 7: Chi – Square Analysis Showing the Relationship between Socio – Economic Characteristics of Respondents and Impact of Sport Tourism**

Variables	$\chi^2$	Df	P – value
Age	165.2	2	0.01
Religion	192.8	2	0.01
Tribe	340.6	3	0.01
Marital status	152.4	2	0.01
Number of children	257.2	3	0.01
Level of education	399.9	3	0.01
Type of work	260.0	4	0.01
Monthly income	443.3	2	0.01
Social organization	585.4	4	0.01

The chi – square analysis in table 7 above showed a significant relationship between socio – economic features of respondents such as; age ( $\chi^2 = 165.2$ ), religion ( $\chi^2 = 192.8$ ), tribe ( $\chi^2 = 340.6$ ), marital status ( $\chi^2 = 152.4$ ), number of children ( $\chi^2 = 257.2$ ), level of education ( $\chi^2 = 399.9$ ), occupation ( $\chi^2 = 260.0$ ), monthly income ( $\chi^2 = 443.3$ ), participation in social organization ( $\chi^2 = 585.4$ ) and impact of sport tourism on them. This shows that the status of the respondents in relation to their socio – economic features partly dictates the impact of sport tourism on the respondents.

**Hypothesis Three:** There is no significant difference between male and female respondents' perception of sport tourism

**Table 8: Result of t- Test Analysis Showing no significant difference between Male and Female Respondents' Perception of Sport Tourism**

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation	T	Df	Mean Deviation	Standard Error	P – value
Male	54.05	8.081				1.245	

Female	53.20	8.986	0.671	193	0.854	1.273	0.50
--------	-------	-------	-------	-----	-------	-------	------

F = 0.007; Significance = 0.935

Result in table 8 above revealed no significant difference between male (mean = 54.05) and female (mean = 53.20) perception of sport tourism with a t – value of 0.671 at a p – value of 0.05. Thus, it could be generalized that both male and female perceived sport tourism in the same way. However, while Nancy and Craig (2010) reported a noticeable descriptive difference between male and female and support for sport tourism, this study established no significant difference between both male and female perception of sport tourism.

**Hypothesis Four:** There is no significant relationship between respondents' perception and impact of sport tourism.

**Table 9: Pearson Moment Correlation Analysis Showing the Relationship between Respondents' Perception and Impact of Sport Tourism**

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Coefficient of Determinant ( $r^2$ )	P – value
Impact of sport tourism	62.71	10.35			
Perception of sport tourism	53.71	8.44	0.157*	0.025	0.05

The correlation analysis in table 9 above showed a significant relationship between respondents' perception of sport tourism ( $r = 0.157$ ) and the exact impact of such event on the individual at  $p < 0.05$ ). This implies that the way individuals perceive sport tourism determines the impact of the event on the people socially, culturally and economically.

## CONCLUSION

Sport is an important activity within tourism industry and tourism is a fundamental characteristic of sport (Hinch and Higham, 2001). Glasson and Godfrey (1995) noted that tourism has been argued to be the world's largest industry, accounting for about 5.5% of the world's Gross National Product and 6% of the employment. Tourism is a trillion dollar industry. Sport is a multi-billion dollar industry worldwide and has become a dominant and defining force in the lives of millions of people globally (Martin, 2007). Sports and tourism are distinct but interrelated socio-cultural events and experiences of a society. Available in literatures are the different roles that sport tourism can be deployed for in any host community: it can be used to manage social problems such as criminal behavior. Emery (2002) stated that sport tourism is more than just healthy living, physical activity and active lifestyle because it contributes to social, economic and cultural character of host nations. Sport tourism is used as a growth strategy adopted by cities in order to achieve strategic corporate objectives such as urban regeneration (Bruce, 1995; in Emery, 2002). Sport-led regeneration of a host community is the way sport is used in regenerating an area economically, socially, physically, and environmentally (Larissa, 2010). A good example of a city which adopted sport tourism as a strategy for urban regeneration is Sheffield, United Kingdom that hosted the World Students Games in 1991.

However, from this study, top in the perceptions of members of host community on sport tourism include that; it promoted local entrepreneurship, it was a good opportunity to showcase the culture of the host

community, and that it facilitated the provision, maintenance and improvement of social infrastructures among others positive perceptions, majority also concurred that it disrupted the host university's academic calendar. On the impact of sport tourism on the host community, while majority were neutral (undecided) that sport tourism distorts the pristine culture of the host community, top in the list of impact the event had on the host community include the following; it created temporary job opportunities, it increased turn over for businesses, it facilitated the development and maintenance of public facilities, it improved the standard of living of residents who engaged in commodities' supply during the games, it provided incentives for the conservation of natural resources, it was an opportunity to have fun with family and friends, and it promoted host cultural activities.

A probe into the negative effects of hosting sport tourism in Obafemi Awolowo University revealed that it denied residents' access to public facilities, increased crime rate, encouraged social vices, disrupted the lifestyle of residents and caused inconvenience; created litters, excessive noise and pollution, involved high developmental cost and only few members of the host community benefited from the event. This research also identified the motivating factors for hosting sport tourism event to include; conducive climatic condition, government support, sponsors' support, expected economic gains, community prestige, availability of sporting facilities, availability of fund, availability of accommodation, availability of social infrastructures, hospitality of residents and security. The hypotheses tested showed a significant relationship between socio – economic characteristics such as; age, religion, tribe, marital status, number of children, level of education, occupation, monthly income, participation in social organization and perception of sport tourism at  $p < 0.05$ . There was also a significant relationship between the above listed socio – economic characteristics at the same listed chi – square values and the impact of sport tourism at  $p < 0.05$ . A t – test analysis showed no significant difference between male and female respondent's perception of sport tourism with a t – value of 0.671 at a p – value of 0.50. Effort to establish the relationship between respondents' perceptions and impact of sport tourism involved the use of correlation analysis which showed a significant relationship between respondents' perception of sport tourism and impact of the event on the people at  $p < 0.05$ ).

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

The relevance of hosting a sport tourism event in an attempt to develop a destination cannot be over – emphasized. Sport tourism event is a catalyst for urban renewal, which in turn allow for development of both capacity and destination attraction for tourism. A good example of a city that re- emerged from a sporting event is the Barcelona which hosted the Olympic Games of 1992. During the games, there was a decrease in unemployment levels from 18.4% to 9.6% regionally and 20.9% to 15.5% nationally. In the build up to the games, the city increased its hotel bed capacity by 34.9%, which continued many years after the event. However, in an attempt to ensure that NUGA games offer benefits that are in line with the above listed and judging from the findings of this study, the following recommendations could be useful:

- Host University should employ NUGA as a tool for achieving significant goals, rather than mere hosting the games for the fun of it. Such goals should be in line with the pressing needs of the university, goals such as; building students' hostel, constructing or developing sporting facilities, improving social infrastructures among others are worthwhile goals.
- Cultural tourism should be properly integrated into NUGA games. Though it is presently part of the event, but the role it plays is not significant enough. NUGA should be used as another means of promoting culture among the students and other participants.
- This study pointed out that NUGA has the potential of attracting international tourists; hence, the games should be well – promoted towards achieving this objective.
- Federal Government of Nigeria should do the needful to ensure regularity in Nigerian universities' calendar. Incessant strike actions by various unions of university's workers are one of the great



obstacles for organizing a memorable NUGA games. The edition of the games involved in this study came up after a six months strike action by the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU).

- People who have experience in organizing the event of this nature which may include experts in tourism, sport, event management among other relevant disciplines should be given opportunity to make up a significant percentage of the Local Organizing Committee (LOC) of NUGA. The reason for this recommendation boiled down to the fact that some lapses which were observed during the 24<sup>th</sup> edition of NUGA games showed lack of experience on the part of some members of LOC.
- All stakeholders should be properly involved when planning to host NUGA games to avoid any problem that may emanate from neglect of important stakeholders. Students of Obafemi Awolowo University were not properly carried along in planning for NUGA 2014. This led to a problem in which students of the host university did not want to surrender their hostels for the use of the NUGA participants.
- The management of NUGA should strive to always have a smooth and hitch - free event devoid of any challenges. A scene of non – payment of officials’ allowances which lasted for hours and during which the games were stopped was observed during this research.

## REFERENCES

- Andriotis, K. (2005) Community Groups’ Perceptions of and Preferences for Tourism Development: Evidence from Crete. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 29: 67–90.
- Emery, P. R., (2002) ‘Bidding to Host a Major Sports Events: The Local Organization Committee Perspective’, *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 5(4):316 - 335.
- Gibson, H. J., (1998) ‘Sport Tourism: A Critical Analysis of Research’, *Journal of Sport Management Review*, 1: 145-76.
- Glasson, J., Godfrey, K, & Godfrey, B. (1995), *Towards Visitors’ Impact Management: Visitors Impacts, Carrying Capacity and Management Responses in Europe’s Historic Towns and Cities*, England Amesbury.
- Hinch, T. D. and Higham, J. E. S. (2001), Sport Tourism: A framework for research, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3: 45 - 58.
- Higham, J. (1999), "Sport as an Avenue of Tourism Development: An analysis of the Positive and Negative Impacts of Sport Tourism". *Current Issues in Tourism*, 2(1): 82 – 90.
- Ifeanyichuhwu C. E. (2013) Sports Tourism as an Instrument for Nigeria’s Development in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Challenges and Way Forward, *Journal of Education and Practice* 4 (4): 143 – 148.
- Larissa, D., (2010) ‘Sport and Economic Regeneration: A Winning Combination’, *Journal of Sport in Society*, 13 (10): 1438 – 1457.
- Martin, D. S. (2007), *Cognitive Scaling, Emotions, Team Identity and Future Behavioural Intentions: An Examination of Sporting Event Venues*. An Unpublished PhD Thesis of Auburn University.
- Murphy, P.E. (1985). *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York: Methuen.
- Nancy, H. and Craig, R. (2010) The Perceived Impacts of Sport Tourism: An Urban Host Community Perspective, *Journal of Sport Management*, 24: 119 – 138.
- Ntloko, N. J. and Swart, K. (2008) Sport Tourism Event Impact on the Host Community, *South African Journal of Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, 30 (2): 79 – 93.

Ojeme, E.O. (2010). Shouldering the Burden of Sports Development in Nigeria: Is the School Physical Education Curriculum Living up to Expectations? *Inaugural Lecture Series* 110:21, University of Benin, Nigeria.

Pigeassou, C., Bui-Xuan, G. & Gleyse, J. (1998), Epistemological Issues on Sport Tourism: Challenge for a New Scientific Field. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 5 (2): 27 - 34.

Standeven, J. (1994). Sport and Tourism in the South of England in J. Mester (ed.), Second European Forum, *Sport Sciences in Europe: Current and Future Perspectives* (137 - 152), Aachen.

Standeven, J. and De Knop, P. (1999) '*Sport Tourism*', USA: Human Kinetics Publication.

Turco, D.M., Swart, K., Bob, U. and Moodley, V. (2003), Socio-Economic Impacts of Sport Tourism in the Durban Minacity, South Africa. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, 8: 223 - 239.

Vogt, C. A., & Jun, S.H. (2004), Residents' Attitudes toward Tourist Market Segments and Tourism Development in Valdez, Alaska: A Comparison of Residents' Perceptions of Tourist Impact on the Economy and Quality of Life. *Proceedings from the 2004 Northwest Recreation Research Symposium*, Newtown Square, Pennsylvania, 404 - 411

Weed, M. and Bull, C. (2009) '*Sport Tourism: Participants, Policy and Providers*', 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> Editions, UK: Elsevier Limited.

# **Porter's Competitive Forces in the Modern Globalized Hospitality Sector - The case of a Greek Tourism Destination**

**DR. SOTIRIOS VARELAS**

University of Piraeus, Department of Business Administration

**PROF. NIKOLAOS GEORGOPOULOS**

University of Piraeus, Department of Business Administration

## **ABSTRACT**

The challenges which modern hotel businesses are called upon to address within a constantly changing globalized world, with rapid technological developments that dictate new corporate governance models, render the strategic analysis of competition necessary for their growth. This study views competition as one of the fundamental parameters when implementing holistic strategic management in a business, in an effort to give it a competitive edge, with special emphasis on how this is reflected on the business's performance. Our study focuses on tourism businesses where competition and competitive forces attract special interest. Special reference is made to Porter's competitive forces, which are analyzed from the standpoint of tourism businesses.

**Key Word:** Porter's competitive forces, hospitality sector, destination

## **1 METHODOLOGY**

This paper seeks to analyze the intensity of competition and how critical it is in the industry of tourism businesses, and particularly main hotel accommodations. The study included the review of the literature on the forces of competition as regards the analysis of the external micro environment and Porter's five forces. The literature review was mainly focused on the tourism industry, and hotel businesses in particular. Reference is respectively made to Porter's five forces in the globalized environment. In the context of the research, the case study of a tourism destination in Greece, in the area of the Peloponnese, was analyzed. Initially, in order to assist in better understanding the results, the existing hotel businesses were geographically mapped, followed by the analysis of the destination according to Porter's five forces.

## **2 PORTER'S FIVE FORCES IN TOURISM**

The external environment is one of the critical factors as regards the growth and operation of a tourism business. Porter (1980), (as cited in Kim & Oh, 2004; Roney, 2004) provides a model for an industry that is influenced by five market forces (Kim & Oh, 2004). The evaluation of the five forces reveals the intensity of competition in an industry, and as a result, its attractiveness for strategic development (Roney, 2004). Recognition by a tourism business of the attractiveness of the corresponding industry, helps it create the appropriate favorable climate for the smooth operation of the tourism business. Below follows a presentation of Porter's five forces adapted to the tourism industry, based on the existing literature (Kim & Oh, 2004; Roney, 2004).

#### Threat of new entrants in the industry

According to Longenecker, Moore & Petty (1997), all tourism businesses have a negative view of new entrants, their purpose being not to disrupt the status quo they have established. Newly entering businesses, in addition to introducing dynamism to the sector, also want a share of a market that is finite as well as significant resources (Georgopoulos, 2013). For this reason, Bain (1956) cites additional barriers that will obstruct the entry of new businesses in the sector, such as customer loyalty, the absolute advantage as regards cost, and the economies of scale by the large hotel businesses. Also according to Georgopoulos (2013), other barriers to entry that can be applied are demands for funds during entry, access to distribution networks, cost advantages of existing businesses, as well as governmental policy. In particular, when it comes to tourism and the critical industry of hotel businesses an influx of new businesses is capable of harming the destination itself (environmental footprint, oversupply of beds, etc.). For this purpose, in many countries, such as Greece, the infrastructure regions are classified into saturated and non-saturated in terms of hotels, in order to help formulate the country's investment policy (Hatzinikolaou, 2008). Especially as regards the accommodation sector, the threat of new entrants applies to destinations that are in their maturity and regeneration phase, as regards their lifecycle. Respectively, in destination which are in the startup and growth phase, the entry of new businesses in the sector is certainly not a threat, but an imperative need. The limited number of beds does not allow travel agents, airlines, online travel agents (OTAs), etc., to invest in a destination since it cannot support economies of scale. The empirical method used by foreign tour operators, to decide whether to invest in a destination, which is a capacity of at least 15,000 beds, is telling.

#### Threat of substitute products or services

Substitutes meet needs that are similar to those of the other businesses of the tourism industry and belong to different industries. When we encounter a large number of substitute products, the tourism business is not able to increase its prices at the risk of reducing its clientèle (Andriotis, 2004). A good example of substitute products in the hotel industry is the implementation of the sharing economy, by renting apartments for a period shorter than 30 days through web platforms (e.g Airbnb). This substitute, which introduces dramatic changes to the tourism economy will be analyzed more extensively in a subsequent section.

#### Bargaining power of buyers

According to Porter (1980), buyers have a strong bargaining power when the industry consists of many small-scale businesses and many buyers. This applies to the Greek tourism product, which is characterized by a small number of beds and a restriction on the incoming tourism purchases. Respectively, buyers have a low bargaining power when facing oligopoly and monopoly situations, when the cost for switching to substitutes is high and when the product is perceived as important-differentiated (Kiochos & Papanikolaou, 1999). Correspondingly, the profile of the modern consumer-tourist, as analyzed in a previous section, is sufficiently different from the past, with the visitor preferring customized trips, having demands, interacting with the environment, seeking to become acquainted with an area's culture, thus enhancing his bargaining power

compared to the past, when the tour operator would decide on his behalf, offering packages based on the "sun-sea" model. Respectively, the customer-business relations, are open to many differentiations in the tourism industry, where the customer may become a co-owner through time-sharing accommodation and rental pool type contracts, as is the case at the international level in tourism real estate with the condo hotels (Varelas & Georgopoulos, 2011).

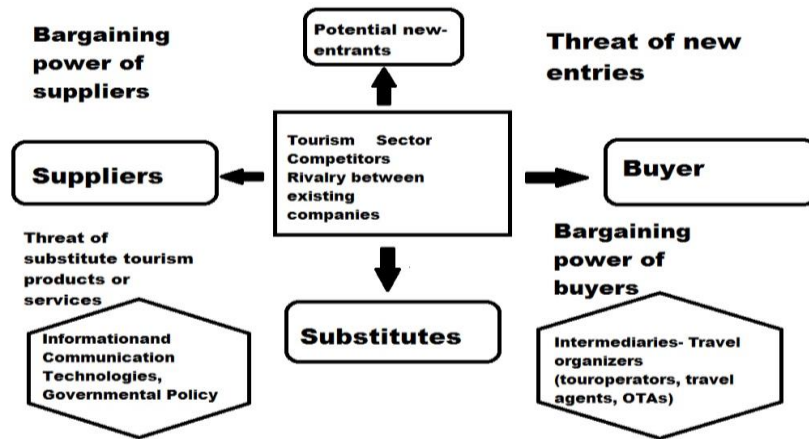
#### Bargaining power of suppliers

As regards the bargaining power of suppliers, Wheelen & Hunger (2014) report that it is strengthened when there are few raw material suppliers, there are no alternative supply sources, their sales do not constitute a high percentage of the sold products, their product constitutes a significant input to the industry, as well as when they have differentiated products and they have the ability to forward vertically integrate. When it comes to the tourism industry, the concept of supplier can mean the supplier of the raw materials for the operation of a tourism unit, as well as suppliers of the workforce (Andriotis, 2004). Several accommodation and food service businesses choose to import products when it comes to the supply of raw materials, thus reducing the bargaining power of buyers, due to the low price and the shortage of raw materials during the high season. The complexity of the tourism product overturns this longstanding view, since according to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), 45% of travelers across the world, consider local products and local food as one of the criteria for choosing the locations they visit, thus reinforcing the bargaining power of suppliers (Greek Tourism Confederation, 2009).

#### Intensity of competition between existing companies of the industry

In cases where the competition between tourism businesses is weak, then each business can increase its prices and profitability, something which competition does not allow at price level. According to Hills & Jones (1995), competition depends on the number and size of the businesses that comprise the industry, the demand trends (e.g. a decrease in the demand for a destination increases competition between existing businesses), as well as the exit barriers (special regulation is required for retiring hotels, the Xenia institution, etc). As regards the tourism industry, and in particular the hotel sector, there is a particularity when it comes to competition. For example, a small number of hotel businesses cannot ensure high competition for the reason that they cannot form a destination and attract tour operators, travel agents, or airline flights, as already analyzed.

Porter's model adopts an 'outside-in' approach, starting from external factors and ending with the performance of the tourism businesses, considering that the competitive edge emerges from these five forces. Therefore, the success of a tourism business depends greatly on the way in which it reacts and responds to the market's signals, as well as the accuracy of the forecasts on the development of the tourism industry structure (Kim & Oh, 2004). Other factors that affect competition according to Hills and Jones (1995), are the degree of differentiation of the service, the level of fixed cost, the switching cost and the industry's growth in general.



**Chart 1. Porter's Tourism five-force model**

Porter argues that management executives have the option of choosing between less competitive sectors or taking steps to reduce competition in the industry (Georgopoulos, 2013). Even though separate analyses have been presented, it is worth giving an overall presentation of the changes caused by the Internet and the new technologies on Porter's five forces of competition.

According to Buhalis and Zoge (2007), the Internet is the technological development that decisively affected the perception in respect of Porter's five forces on tourism, since it redefines competition conditions in the modern marketplace. It initially affects new entrants, since the Internet has an impact on the entrance barrier, due to the changes effected in the economies of scale and the percentage required for competition within the industry. In competition between already existing tourism businesses, the new technologies and the Internet affect product differentiation, the structural cost and the switching cost. Likewise, the bargaining power of buyers, as mentioned above, is enhanced thanks to the greater accessibility to information and the switching cost. The Internet further affects the bargaining power of suppliers by offering access to alternative proposals for new dynamic suppliers. Finally, as regards substitute products, it also affects the price/quality ratio and the cost of switching to substitute products (Buhalis and Zoge, 2007).

Despite Porter's five force model serving as a good start when it comes to understanding the forces that shape competition, in particular when it comes to the industry sector, it nevertheless presents a range of limitations, mainly as regards the tourism industry (Campbell et al., 2003). It initially accepts that suppliers, buyers and competitors are a threat. In several destinations, raw material suppliers, such as local producers, enter into Local Quality Pacts with accommodation and food service businesses, aiming at promoting the authenticity of the destination and securing the best prices for the products for the businesses. The strategy of synergies and co-opetition have emerged as a significant factor of the business landscape as regards the tourism industry, a fact highlighted by a number of researchers (Evans et al. 2005).

A second limitation is the fact that Porter (1980) claims that his model enables the assessment of the potential profitability of the sector under examination, while there are also strong voices, such as Rumelt (1991) claiming that the forces pertaining specifically to each business as regards profitability are more important than those pertaining to the industry. A third limitation is the fact that Porter (1980) accepts that the five forces affect industry competitors to the same degree. In reality, the forces affect each business differently depending on its size, with larger businesses facing the supplier threat to a lesser extent compared to smaller businesses (Campbell et al., 2003).

Also, Porter's model does not consider Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) as a distinct force of the five forces, but a supplementary one. Nevertheless, several authors such as McFarlan (1984), Thurlby (1998), Connolly and Olsen (2000) consider information and communication technologies capable of creating a competitive edge and shape competition (Andriotis, 2004).

Andriotis (2004), in a comprehensive approach of Porter's five force model and its application to tourism in general, introduces new forces, such as that of intermediaries. Travel organizers (tour operators, travel agents, OTAs) in several papers are referred to as customers, or erroneously as suppliers, however, the important role they play in the tourism industry dictates the need to refer to them as a distinct force that affects competition. Travel organizers (tour operators, travel agents, OTAs) who operate as intermediaries between businesses and end customers are in a position of influencing the destination choice, offering a standardized service price list which they can easily adjust. Travel agents can thus manipulate competition between individual hotels as well as entire destinations that belong to the same competitive group. Tour operators also control to a great extent the availability of seats when it comes to a destination's airlines, as well as the setting of the prices that will be offered across the market (Bastakis et al., 2004 as cited in Koutoulas, 2006). The intermediary's role can also cover food service businesses, as well as alternative activities. Nonetheless, the relationships of suppliers with tourism businesses are more complex when it comes to the latter, because they form collaborative schemes with the tour operators undertaking themselves the management of the unit through management contracts.

A factor that negatively affects competition is that of governmental policy, which we have already analyzed as a factor of the wider macro-environment. Nevertheless, the criticality of governmental policies in terms of infrastructures, transportation, safety, international promotion campaigns of countries (Andriotis, 2000, 2002a; Elliot, 1987), have led several researchers to include them either in the new entrant sector especially as regards new infrastructures under development laws (Yarborough and Yarborough, 1990), or as a distinct Porter force, since a change in governmental policy will globally affect the business's overall strategy (Rugman and Verbeke, 2000) as mentioned in Andriotis (2000).

## **2.1 Porter's international strategies**

As already mentioned, Porter (1980) argued that the competitive edge of an organization is based on choosing and adopting one of the three business strategies (differentiation, cost leadership or focus). In 1986, Porter expanded his model as regards strategy in businesses with an international scope, as well as the corresponding business strategy choices. Porter's now five business strategies for the international globalized business are defined according to their position in relation to the degree of the industry it belongs to, as well as the range of the sectors served by competitive products (Porter 1980).

Porter's five strategies of a Global Business Strategy, as listed by Evans et al. (2005) are:

Global cost leadership: where the business seeks to have the lowest service cost of a product at a global level.

Global differentiation: where the business seeks to differentiate the tourism products and its services at a global level.

Global segmentation: this is the global variation of a focus strategy, when a single segment of the market aims at a global base that include either cost leadership or differentiation, e.g. in niche markets which larger competitors have left untapped (benchmark & sidestep strategy).

Protected markets: the business activity of an enterprise is favored or protected by the government of the host country. For example, further to the diplomatic relations of a number of states, e.g. Russia-Turkey in the past, the states have signed agreements to facilitate tourism entrepreneurship between them, such as not requiring visas for traveling between the two countries.

National responsiveness: The business adjusts its strategy to meet the particular needs of markets at local level. This strategy is appropriate for purely domestic businesses (Porter, 1986a).

Porter's model is based on two key dimensions. The degree of harmonization between similar but dispersed activities, and the configuration, coordination of the activities themselves. As regards the harmonization degree, if it is low, the subsidiaries are independent, whereas if it is high, then there is close control by the

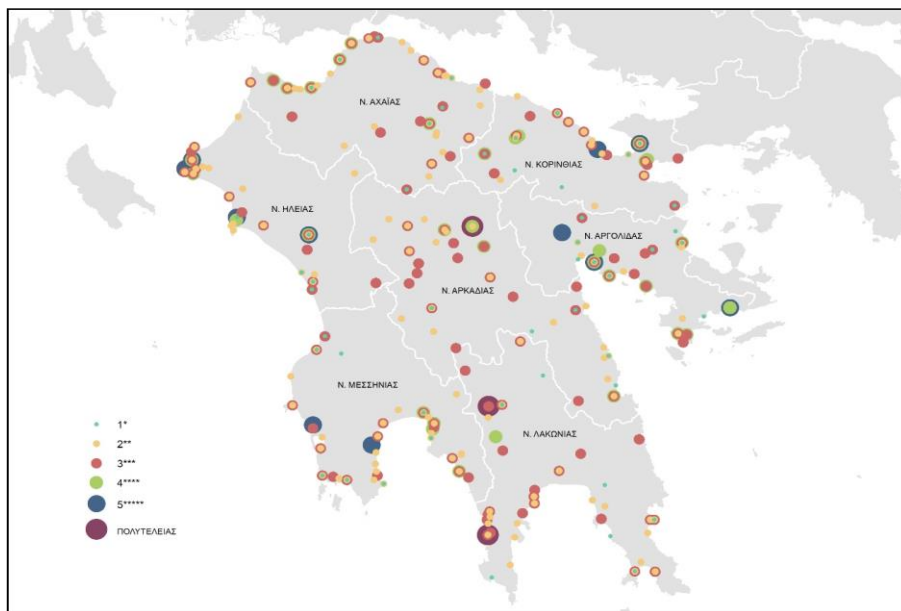
parent company. Correspondingly, as regards the configuration of activities, all the activities of the value chain may be performed by each subsidiary or only by certain ones (Papadakis, 2012).

### 3 CASE STUDY AT A TOURISM DESTINATION

The destination of the Peloponnese, which is one of Greece's 13 regions, was chosen for the field study on hotel businesses, for the reason that we can find the entire range of tourism-hotel units, including integrated destination resorts, such as the Costa Navarino, which we do not find in any other Region of the country. Likewise, the data of the Peloponnese at quota level, as regards the classification of stars, does not vary much from those presented at country level. Below follows the analysis via secondary data and the break-down of the 5 forces of competition for the Peloponnese. According to the most recent data by the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (31/12/2015), the Region of the Peloponnese has 6.9% of the country's total tourism beds. The capacity of the Peloponnese in respect of beds, is 54,143 beds of the country's total 784,315 beds, and they are distributed between 861 units. At camping level, the Peloponnese has 19,010 beds (81 camping sites across the Peloponnese), reaching 23.6% of the country's total (HCH, 2015).

#### 3.1 Geographical mapping of competition in the Peloponnese

The following chart gives the geographical dispersion of competition of all hotel businesses in the Peloponnese. This mapping of the hotel units of the Peloponnese is based on their star classification, while the ArcMap program was used after geococification. The chart that was created for the needs of the thesis clearly demonstrates the fact that the hotel infrastructure of the Peloponnese developed, precisely as it did at national level, along the Peloponnese shoreline, the important archaeological sites -UNESCO World Heritage Monuments of the Peloponnese, the urban destinations of the capitals, as well as the mountains of Arkadia and Corinthia. The prevalence and concentration of 3-star units across the Peloponnese can be easily seen, as well as the dynamic development of 5-star and boutique hotels in up-and-coming destinations.



**Chart 2. Geographical Mapping of Hotels of the Peloponnese based on stars**

#### 3.2 Analysis of Hotel Industry of the Peloponnese based on Porter's five forces



Below follows the analysis of the external micro environment of a hotel business at the Peloponnese destination according to Porter's five forces. The research was based on secondary data, in line with the literature that has preceded.

#### Threat of new entrants in the industry

The entry of new businesses in the hotel industry of the Peloponnese must not be considered a threat, given the small number of beds of the Peloponnese compared to its size. New development laws and investment programs are expected to reinforce the entry of new businesses in the sector. Despite the Peloponnese being at the epicenter of tourism growth, as analyzed above, the tourism growth period coincided with the financial recession, resulting in a large number of small and medium-sized enterprises that had been included in the development law, not proceeding with the realization of their plans.

A big part of the large tourism high-quality investments is currently being realized. Specifically (Kousounis, 2015):

- the 5 star Grace chain of international reputation will be launched in 2017, with 125 luxury rooms and suites and 40 villas,
- Byzantium S.A. with the creation of a 5-star hotel, with a 332 room and 820 bed capacity,
- the 2nd and biggest investment phase of Costa Navarino is starting, with two integrated tourist accommodations and furnished residences, with a capacity of 900 beds,
- the Mareza - Kokosi island in Corinthia, with the creation of an integrated tourism 5-star unit, with a hotel, bungalows, furnished tourist residences and a spa, with a capacity of 810 beds,
- the mountain resort investment of "Petros Iliopoulos Tourism Enterprises SA" with the creation of a 5-star hotel, holiday residences and a conference center,
- in the Kilada area of the Municipality of Ermionis the "Kilada Hills" is planned for construction, by the Dolphin Capital Investors group, on an area of 2,000,000 square meters,
- the luxury residence Aman Resort and international luxury hotel chain Niki Beach are already operating in Porto Heli.

These investments in the hotel industry are in fact not competitive, and they furthermore upgrade the quality of the destination, significantly increasing the number of beds in the Peloponnese. In fact such types of high-quality large-scale investments serve as a promotion for the destination.

#### Threat of substitute products or services

As already recorded in the technological and cultural environment analysis, the sharing economy in the tourism industry can be applied either to the exchange of hospitality via basic platforms (couch surfing, hospitality club, home exchange), or by leasing residences and apartments without the obligation of a Greek National Tourism Organization (EOT) license, via an application on the web platform (airbnb) (HCH, 2014).

The loan agreement's prerequisites provide for abolishing the 30-day limit with regards to the lease period, causing significant disruption to the existing hotel accommodations that are obliged to have a License from the Greek National Tourism Organization, meeting the requirements of the law, in contrast to the newly entering owners of other accommodations, who through the modern sharing economy tools (airbnb) will deliver a critical blow to competitiveness. The number of beds is expected to dramatically increase, essentially legalizing tax evasion and the provision of services by unlicensed undertakings. According to a study by the Hellenic Chamber of Greece, the offer of accommodation through short-term leases is calculated at nation-wide level at 9,677 hotels, 401,332 rooms and 773,445 beds (HCG, 2014).

Alternative accommodation choices are thus created for visitors, through substitute accommodations for the visitors of the Peloponnese, resulting in the increase of the quantity and a drop in prices, flexibility as well as incomes.

### Bargaining power of buyers

By buyer we mean the incoming visitor of the Peloponnese destination, whether a Greek or a foreigner. As already mentioned in a previous section, the total incoming tourism of the Peloponnese stands at a ratio of 70% Greek visitors and 30% foreigners. The dramatic decrease of Greeks during the years of the financial crisis and the drop in bookings at the destination hotels significantly increased the bargaining power of buyers, leading to a decrease of prices as regards hotels, as well as an enhancement of the amenities offered. Greek tourism, which is so important for the hotel industry of the Peloponnese, is displaying a growing trend for the coming period, according to the Qualitative Characteristics of resident tourists (Vacation Survey), of year 2014, the number of trips is increasing by 15.9% compared to 2013, the total nights spent by +8.8% and the total expenditure by +7.2% (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2014).

The bargaining power of buyers has increased, since the modern visitor's profile has changed significantly compared to the past when they were guided by tour operators and travel agents, their only wish being accommodation and transportation packages.

The profile of modern visitors includes travelers who plan and realize the trip on their own (online search, online booking and payment), interact with the environment (write positive or negative comments on social networking platforms), seek experiences and wish to discover the local culture and the destination's gastronomy. It is apparent that the use of the Internet and ICTs in general has significantly increased the bargaining power of buyers, forcing hotels to adapt to the new competitive environment by improving the price-quality ratio and enhancing the services they offer.

Despite all of the buyers' demands, hotels that rely on the individual visitor who they have attracted on their own (without the intervention of OTAs, TOs) have a higher operating profit of 26.4% compared to 18.5% of the others who rely on suppliers (NBG, 2015).

### Bargaining power of suppliers

By supplier we mainly mean the providers of raw materials to accommodation and food service businesses, with emphasis on local producers. The short tourism period, since 68% of international arrivals in 2014 took place between June and September, in combination with the low cost, traditionally drives accommodation and food service businesses to import products from third countries. Correspondingly, the limited production, but with high-quality products, leads to high-priced basic raw materials. The Region of the Peloponnese has launched an effort to establish a Quality Pact for the Peloponnese, aiming at a win-win relationship between local producers (suppliers) and accommodation and food service businesses.

### Bargaining power of intermediaries

As mentioned during the analysis of Porter's five forces, when it comes to the hotel industry of the Peloponnese in particular, we will analyze Greek or foreign businesses, that organize trips, tour operators, travels agencies or platforms for the electronic planning of trips, Online Travel Agencies (OTAs), from the standpoint of intermediaries. According to a recent study by the National Bank of Greece on the hotel industry, foreign tour operators influence the prices of hotels they cooperate with at a rate of 56%. It is worth noting that the average price given by a hotel to a tour operator is 77 euros, while at the same time the same room reaches 140 euros (NBG, 2015). The significance of the Peloponnese suppliers as regards tour operators is determined from a small number who operate at the destination, as well as the fact that the destination does not depend on a specific market. The modern management trends lead many tour operators to vertically integrate their activity backwards renting existing destination hotels for a long period, thus changing category, and from supplier becoming at the same time a competitive business of the industry.

Respectively, in terms of OTA booking platforms, which are suppliers of customers for hotel businesses (booking.com, expedia, etc.), we also find an oligopoly, as in the case of tour operators, resulting in the platforms themselves setting the commission percentage per booking (at around 15-20% of sales).

Nevertheless the development of the airline flight network in the Peloponnese significantly reduced the bargaining power of the tour operators.

#### Competition intensity between the industry's hotel businesses

Competition intensity remains low as regards the Peloponnese, since the number of units in operation has ranged at the same levels over the past decade, the capacity of the destination is under its potential capacity since it comprises only 7% of the tourist units at nation-wide level, with overnight stays reaching only 3.8% as aforementioned. The Peloponnese had remained in the periphery of the investment explosion for several years, in contrast to other popular destinations, resulting in a limited number of small and medium-sized businesses. The low intensity of competition in certain areas over the previous years had led to an increase of the bargaining power of the existing businesses vis-a-vis the customers and an increase of the prices per overnight stay (Mountainous Corinthia, Arkadia) but in these recent years of the financial crisis prices have adjusted to a very good quality-price ratio. This mild competition between the small and medium-sized units that are typical of the Peloponnese, as well as the dispersion of these units across large areas (as seen in the geographical mapping), are a deterrent for the big foreign tour operators, preventing them from executing itineraries. It is worth noting, that in order for a tour operator to execute an itinerary and include a destination in its portfolio, it must have approximately 15,000 beds at close proximity. We see a lack of uniformity in terms of the offered product, with the Peloponnese covering the entirety of the investments.

## 4 CONCLUSION

The preceded research clarifies the substantial role of the Porter's five competition forces which are dominated theories for the strategic analysis of the enterprises micro environment. In our research we focus on tourism and particularly hospitality enterprises, analyzing a series of former bibliographical studies. Additionally, the determinant factor that the IT and communication technologies play, change radically the competitive potentials of the tourism sector. The theoretical approach of the Porters' competition forces on the tourism field are combined with additional case study of hospitality enterprises from the Region of Peloponnese in Greece.

## REFERENCES

- Andriotis, K. (2004). **Tourism business management**. Athens.
- Bain, J. (1956). **Barriers to new competition**. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Bastakis, C., Buhalis, D., & Butler, R. (2004). **The perception of small and medium sized tourism accommodation providers on the impacts of the tour operators' power in Eastern Mediterranean**. *Tourism Management* 25, 151–170.
- Bennett, M. M. (1997). **Strategic alliances in the world airline industry**. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3, 213-223.
- Buhalis, D., & Zoge, M. (2007). **The strategic impact of the internet on the tourism industry**, in Sigala, M., Mich, L., Murphy, J. (Eds), *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2007* (pp. 481-492). Springer, Wien.
- Campbell, A. J., & Verbeke, A. (1994). **The globalisation of service multinationals**. *Long Range Planning*, 27(2), 95-102.

- Connolly, D. J., & Olsen, M. D. (2000). **An environmental assessment of how technology is reshaping the hospitality industry.** *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(1), 73-93.
- Dev, C. S., & Klein, S. (1993). **Strategic alliances in the hotel industry.** *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 43-45.
- Donne, M. (2000). **The future of international airline alliances,** *Travel and Tourism Analyst*, 6, 3-21.
- Elliott, J. (1987). **Government management of tourism – a Thai case study.** *Tourism Management*, 8(3), 223-232.
- Evans, N. (2005). **Assessing the balanced scorecard as a management tool for hotels.** *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(5), 376-390.
- Evans, N., Campbell, D., & Stonehouse, G. (2005). **Strategic management for travel and tourism** (3rd ed.). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Evans, N., Campbell, D., & Stonehouse, G. (2003). **Strategic management for travel and tourism.** Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Evans, N. (2001a). **Collaborative strategy: an analysis of the changing world of international airlines alliances.** *Tourism Management*, 22, 229-243.
- Evans, N. (2001b). **Alliances in the international travel industry: sustainable travel options?** *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 2(1), 1-26.
- Georgopoulos, N. (2013). **Strategic management.** Athens: Benou Eds.
- Go, F. M., & Pine, R. (1995). **Globalization strategy in the hotel industry.** London: Routledge.
- Greek Tourism Confederation (SETE) (2009). **Gastronomy in the marketing menu of Greek tourism .** Athens.
- Hatzinikolaou, E. (2008). **Legislation for tourism businesses.** Athens: Propompos Eds.
- Hill, J. W., & Jones, G. (1995). **Strategic management theory: an integrated approach** (3rd ed.). Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Kim, B. Y., & Oh, H. (2004). **How do hotel firms obtain a competitive advantage?** *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(1), 65-71.
- Kiochos, P. A., & Papanikolaou, C. (1999). **Scheduling of business actions.** Athens: Stamoulis Eds.
- Koutoulas, D. (2006). **The market influence of tour operators on the hospitality industry.** Research Gate.
- Longenecker, J., Moore, C., & Petty, J. (1997). **Small business management: an entrepreneurial emphasis** (10th ed.). SWC Publishing.
- McFarlan, F. (1984). **IT changes the way you compete.** Harvard Business.
- Okumus, F. and Roper, A. (1999). **A Review of Disparate Approaches to Strategy Implementation in Hospitality Firms,** *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 23 (1), 20–38.
- Okumus, F. (2002). **Can hospitality researchers contribute to the strategic management literature?,** *Hospitality Management*, 21, 105 – 110.
- Okumus, F. (2003). **A Framework to Implement Strategies in Organizations,** *Management Decision*, 41 (9), 871–883.
- Okumus, F. & Wong, K. (2005). **In Pursuit of Contemporary Content for Courses on Strategic Management in Tourism and Hospitality Schools,** *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

- Okumus, F., Altinay, L. & Chathoth, P. (2010). **Strategic Management for Hospitality and Tourism**, Elsevier Ltd., Oxford, UK.
- Olsen, M.D. and DeNoble, A. (1981). **Strategic Planning in Dynamic Times**, Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 21(4), 75–80.
- Olsen, M.D. (1993). **International Growth Strategies of major US Hotel Companies**. Travel and Tourism Analyst, 3, 51-64.
- Olsen, M. D., Tse, E. C. & West, J. J. (1998). **Strategic management in the hospitality industry**, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, John Wiley and Sons, Inc, New York.
- Olsen, M.D. & Roper, A. (1998). **Research in strategic management in the hospitality industry**, Hospitality Management, 17, 111 – 124.
- Olsen, M. (2001). **Hospitality Research and Theories: A Review**. In A. Lockwood and S. Medlik, Tourism and Hospitality in the 21st Century. Oxford: Butter- worth and Heinemann.
- Oosthuizen, H. (2002), **Business strategy and marketing: the positioning versus resource-based dichotomy and the way forward**, South African Journal of Business Management, 33(3), 1 – 16.
- Oum, T. H., & Park, J. H. (1997). **Airline alliances: current status, policy issues, and future directions**. Journal of Air Transport Management, 3(3), 133-144.
- Porter, M. E.(1985). **Competitive advantage: creating and sustaining superior performance**. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Porter, M. E. (1980). **Competitive strategy**. New York: The Free Press.
- Porter, M. E. (1979). **The structure within industries and companies performance**. Review of Economics and Statistics 61(2), 214-27.
- Rhoades, D. L., & Lush, H. (1997). **A typology of strategic alliances in the airline industry: propositions for stability and duration**. Journal of Air Transport Management, 3(3), 109-114.
- Roney, C. W. (2004). **Strategic management methodology: generally accepted principles for practitioners, guidelines for strategists**. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
- Thurlby, B. (1998). **Competitive forces are also subject to change**. Management Decision. 36(1), 19-24.
- Varelas, S., Georgopoulos, N., & Katsanakis, I. (2011). **Greek tourism under crisis-strategies, and the way out**. Proceedings of the International Conference "Rethinking Business and Business Education in the Age of Crisis", Chios.
- Varelas, S., Georgopoulos, N. (2010). **The strategic use of Travel 2.0 and its importance for the tourism sector**. Presented at the 6th National & International HSSS Conference "Systemic Approaches in Social Structures", Mytilene.
- Wheelen, T. L., & Hunger, D. J. (2014). **Strategic management and business policy: toward global sustainability**. Pearson.

## **International tourism and long-term economic growth: Analysis by heterogeneous dynamic panel data**

**YOUNESSE EL MENYARI**

Assistant professor , Polydisciplinary Faculty of El Jadida (FPJ),  
Laboratory for Research in Management, Economics and Social Sciences (largess)  
Chouaib Doukkali University-Morocco

### **ABSTRACT:**

In terms of literature, tourism led growth hypothesis remains unexplored and the empirical results of recent research are controversial. This communication aims to contribute to the debate on the relationship between international tourism and economic development. The objective is to analyze, relationship between international tourism and economic growth in Southern and Eastern Mediterranean Countries (SEMC). using the heterogeneous dynamic panel data, the results show that the impact of international tourism on income per capita is mixed and varies depending on the measurement of tourism used (flow or revenue).

**Keywords:** tourism led growth hypothesis, SEMC, panel data.

**JEL classification:** L83, F43, C23

### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Tourism is often presented as a promising growth area for the economic and social development of developing countries. At the present time, the development of tourism activities in the world varies greatly from one region to another, and even from one country to another in the same region. And the economic gains they generate are uneven: in some developing countries tourism is the bulk of GDP, while in others it is only beginning to grow.

In this context, empirical studies dealing with different aspects of the relationship between tourism and growth have multiplied in the recent period (on the link between tourism and growth only, see Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda, 2002). If This growth originates above all in the gains made by tourism .The emergence of new economic models has also provided new analytical tools for a renewed approach to these questions (the theories of endogenous growth make it possible to establish a link between international tourism and growth for example), while the availability of international databases provided the necessary support for these studies. These international databases include either balance of payments data or data from surveys or censuses of passengers crossing borders and / or staying on the spot.

In this context, our work aims to contribute to the existing debate on the impact of international tourism on short and long term economic growth by applying a heterogeneous dynamic panel analysis. This study aims to draw the necessary lessons for the countries of the south and east of the Mediterranean.

In the panel analysis, we try to test the hypothesis that international tourism has a positive influence on real GDP by inhabitant.

This article is organized as follows. Section 2 presents literature review. Section 3 to 5 presents the empirical specification, methodology and description of data. Section 6 examines the relationship between tourism and growth in the context of data Panel on a sample of southern and eastern Mediterranean countries. Ultimately, the conclusions will be reported in Section 7.

## **2. THE LITERATURE REVIEW**

Over the past decade, a growing number of empirical research has highlighted the relationship between tourism development and economic growth in developed and developing countries.

As in the case of the export-led growth (ELG) hypothesis, a tourism-led growth assumption (TLG) suggests several arguments. It is argued that tourism activity generates currencies that can be used for importing capital goods, in order to produce goods and services in the economy and thus contribute to economic growth. If tourist revenues could be used to import capital goods or basic inputs for the production of goods in all areas of the economy, then it can be said that these revenues play a fundamental role in economic development.

Thus, given the potential of tourism, it becomes clear that non-tourism regions in a country would benefit from this growth, following the distribution of the wealth produced by tourism. However, although more and more work is now being done on this question, the empirical literature does not appear to be homogeneous both in the results, in the methods used, and in the variables used to measure the impact of international tourism. In this section, we present a summary of the main empirical findings on the relationship between international tourism and economic growth.

The first attempt to analyze the long-term empirical relationship between economic growth and international tourism was carried out by Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002). Using Johansen's cointegration method on Spain's quarterly data between 1975 and 1997, these authors found a stable long-term relationship between tourism receipts and economic growth. Moreover, they showed that external competitiveness (measured by the real effective exchange rate) is a fundamental variable of Spanish economic growth in the long term.

Inspired by the Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda model (2002), Dritsakis (2004) analyzed the causal relationship between real GDP tourism receipts and Greece's real effective exchange rate over the quarterly period 1960-2000. And found a cointegration and two-way relationship between tourism receipts and economic growth. However, this study is not immune to certain criticisms that we can address. In particular, the author confines himself to estimates without resorting to robustness tests to validate the relevance of the estimates.

By adopting a different empirical specification, Durbarry (2004), for the case of Mauritius, used a production function linking economic growth with other variables recommended by growth theory; Including physical capital and human capital, as well as the main components of exports, including international tourism. The conclusion to be drawn from this study is that tourism has a positive and statistically significant impact on Mauritian economic development.

Given the contrasting results obtained by analyzing the TLG hypothesis, Nowak and al. (2007), made a first attempt to examine the TKIG (Tourism / Imports of Capital Goods / Growth) mechanism for the Spanish economy (1960-2003). It should be noted that this study departs from the existing literature of

Tourism Led Growth in two ways: First, it includes imports of capital goods as one of the additional factors influencing the analysis of the relationship between tourism International growth and economic growth. Then, it uses a different methodology (Granger causality tests based on the vector model with error correction).

The results are in favor of the TKIG hypothesis, since they show that tourism exports finance imports of capital goods and, in turn, affect Spanish economic growth. They also show that the TLG hypothesis can not be rejected. Consequently, both channels of the impact of tourism exports on growth (improved productive efficiency of resources, that is to say the TLG hypothesis, and the increase in the quantity of productive resources, that is to say the TKIG hypothesis) seem to apply to the Spanish economy.

Concerning Turkey, Zortuk (2009) used the cointegration method of Johansen, for quarterly data (1990T1-2008T3). He found that there is a long-term equilibrium relationship between GDP growth and tourist arrivals. This author also showed that there is a unidirectional causality of tourist arrivals towards economic growth.

For the same problem, Katricioglu (2009) used ARDL modeling to examine the relationship between tourism and the economic growth of the Maltese economy during the annual period from 1960 to 2006. Unlike many works, this study uses The use of tourist establishments as a measure of the volume of international tourism, due to the fact that a problem of multi-collinearity emerges when tourism receipts are used. He showed the existence of a long-term cointegration relationship between tourist arrivals and economic growth. This study also showed the existence of a two-way causality between tourist arrivals and Malta's economic growth. This confirms the validity of the TLG hypothesis for the case of this country.

Similarly, Chen and Chiou-Wei (2009) examined the causal relationship between tourism receipts, real GDP and real exchange rate in the two Asian countries: Taiwan and South Korea during the period 1975T1-2007T1. These two authors have proposed a different econometric approach to arrive at some elements of response to the debate we are dealing with about the nature of the relationship between international tourism and economic growth. The applied model is of the GARCH-M type which relies on a quadratic specification of the conditional variance of the random variables. It thus allows to integrate the factors of uncertainties. The results indicate that the TLG hypothesis is supported for the case of Taiwan, while a reciprocal causal relationship is found for the case of South Korea.

At the same time, other studies using panel data econometrics have shown the positive contribution of tourism to economic growth. Brau, Lanza and Pigliaru (2007) analyzed more empirically the empirical relationship between growth, country size and tourism specialization using a sample of 143 countries, which 29 small countries, during the period 1980-2003. These authors point out that tourism countries are growing faster than other sub-groups considered in the analysis (OECD, oil-exporting countries, developing countries, small countries). They also indicate that small countries are likely to grow faster only if they are highly specialized in tourism. So, unlike some previous studies, The size in itself is not good for growth.

Using a Convergence Approach based on the Barro and Sala-i-Martin model (1992), Proenca and Soukiazis (2008) analyzed the impact of tourism on per capita income growth for the four Southern (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain) between 1990 and 2004. They showed using panel data techniques that a 1% increase in tourism receipts will lead to a 0.026 percentage point increase in per capita income in these countries. In addition, these authors concluded that tourism can be considered as an alternative solution to accelerate growth for these four countries. It can also be seen as a convergence factor, thus reducing asymmetries between countries.

Using a Convergence Approach based on the Barro and Sala-i-Martin model (1992), Proenca and Soukiazis (2008) analyzed the impact of tourism per capita income growth for the four Southern (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain) between 1990 and 2004. They showed using panel data techniques that a 1%



increase in tourism receipts will lead to a 0.026 percentage point increase per capita income in these countries. In addition, these authors concluded that tourism can be considered as an alternative solution to accelerate growth for these four countries. It can also be seen as a convergence factor, thus reducing asymmetries between countries.

Samimi and al. (2011) used the P-VAR approach to examine the TLG hypothesis in 20 developing countries for a period from 1995 to 2009, it was able to establish a two-way relationship between tourist arrivals and growth Long-term economic growth, therefore „ Tourism could be used by developing countries to stimulate economic growth. However, this study is empirically criticized. Indeed, the analysis carried out does not include important control variables that can have a decisive effect on growth.

Similarly, Fayissa, Nsiah and Tadesse (2009) used a panel of 17 Latin American countries for an annual period from 1995 to 2004. They examined the impact of the tourism industry on growth and Economic development in a structure of the conventional neo-classical model. They found that tourism receipts contribute positively to economic growth in the countries of Latin America.

Based on the production function of Feder (1982) and the empirical work of Durbarry (2004), Cortés-Jiménez and Pulina (2010) analyzed the export-led growth (ELG) Tourism (TLG) taking into account other relevant factors, including physical and human capital, for the case of Spain and Italy over the period 1964-2000 and 1954-2000 respectively.

This analysis led them to conclude that in the long term the ELG and TLG assumptions are confirmed for both countries. Indeed, Traditional exports and inbound tourism can be seen as important factors in improving economic growth. Another result of this work reveals the existence of a two-way causal relationship between traditional exports, tourism expansion and economic growth. In addition, physical capital and human capital are also key factors for long-term growth for Spain and Italy .

Despite these series of studies concluding that the Tourism Led Growth hypothesis is valid, other studies have failed to resolve the issue. Thus, Oh (2005) disagreed with the existence of a long-term relationship between tourism receipts and economic growth using an Engle and Granger approach on South Korean data covering the period 1975 To 2001. According to this study, the tourism-driven growth assumption is not verifiable for the Korean economy.

Through a multivariate model, Lee and Chien (2008) studied the stability of long-term relationships between tourism development, real GDP and the real exchange rate in Taiwan for the period 1959-2003. They found that this relationship is not stable over time and that there are structural breaks due to exogenous shocks.

Similarly, Katircioglu (2009) used Johansen's cointegration approach to study the relationship between tourist arrivals, real GDP and the real exchange rate on a sample of Turkey's annual data between 1960 and 2006. It reveals That the TLG hypothesis is not confirmed for Turkey. This result is in contradiction with those obtained by Gunduz and Hatemi-J (2005) and Ongan and Demiroz (2005) and Zortuk (2009).

Using the same methodology as for the case of Spain, Nowak et al. (2011) examined the causal link between tourism exports, imports of capital goods and economic growth in the case of Tunisia over the period 1975-2007.

The results show that there is no TLG mechanism in Tunisia, whereas the TKIG mechanism appears as a short-term phenomenon only .In other words, tourism exports have contributed significantly to the financing of imports of capital goods, but they have not been the main engine of long-term economic growth. In addition, the results support the tourism-led economic growth (GLT) hypothesis in this country. Note that this conclusion is in contradiction with the work of Belloumi (2010).

In a recent work, He and Zheng (2011) used VAR modeling, studying the link between tourism development and economic growth in the case of Sichuan over the period (1990-2009). They showed that

the role of tourism development in promoting economic growth is not obvious, while that of economic growth to promote tourism development is large.

Otherwise, Sequeira and Campos (2007), using panel analysis, examined the relationship between tourism specialization and economic growth for a very large sample of 509 observations covering the period 1980 to 1999. This sample includes small islands, small countries, rich countries, poor countries, African countries, Asian countries, Latin American countries and European countries. They concluded that tourism alone can not explain the higher rates of growth in countries specializing in tourism. The results were the same for all samples, the tourism-related variables did not have a significant impact on economic growth.

In the same framework, Lee and Chang (2008) applied panel cointegration techniques for a broader sample of developed and developing countries between 1990 and 2002. They showed that tourism development has a greater impact on GDP in non-OECD countries than in OECD countries. In addition, the authors have resulted in unidirectional tourism development relationships to economic growth in OECD countries, two-way relationships in non-OECD countries with only weak relationships in Asia. In light of these results, they concluded that, with the exception of Asian countries, other groups of countries can benefit from tourism development.

Chang, Khamkaew and McAleer (2010) studied whether tourism specialization is important for economic development in East Asia and Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Middle East and North Africa, North America, South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, representing a sample of 131 countries over the period 1991-2008. They showed, based on panel data regressions, that tourism growth does not always lead to economic growth. The impact of tourism is significantly positive in the two regimes, the regime with the lower tourism specialization level of 14.97% (regime 1) and the regime with the degree of tourism specialization between 14.97% and 17.50 % (Regime 2). While the relationship is not significant at regime level 3 with a degree of specialization higher than 17.50%. According to these authors, if the economy is too dependent on the tourism sector, the development of this sector can not lead to strong economic growth since the overall contribution of tourism to the economy could be reduced by many factors such as Capital flight, degree of trade openness, investment and public consumption.

Figini and Vici (2009) provided an empirical assessment of the relationship between tourism specialization and economic growth. These two authors used a panel of 150 countries covering the period 1980-2005. They came to a different conclusion than that obtained by Brau, Lanza and Pigliaru, BLP, (2007). They showed that there was no significant relationship between tourism specialization and economic growth during the period 1990-2005. According to these authors, such a discrepancy can be explained by three reasons. First, a data problem related to the way tourism data was collected by BLP. Secondly, an error in specification of the BLP model related to the endogeneity and omission bias of the explanatory variables. Third, this divergence is due to the period of analysis that is different between the two works.

In a more recent study, Tang and Abosedra (2015) examined the link between tourism and economic growth in Morocco and Tunisia over the period 1990-2010 in the context of panel data cointegration. The findings of the study indicate that in both countries economic growth, tourism and the stock of productive capital are cointegrated. In addition, the results show that tourism Granger-causes economic growth, thus supporting the tourism-led growth hypothesis in Morocco and Tunisia.

At the end of this analysis, we will retain that the empirical literature, through the different approaches presented, provides inconclusive results in the analysis of the relationship between international tourism and long-term economic growth. Similarly, the "rigorous" econometric tools used in most studies leave us with the opportunity to continue this research in order to find or give more solid answers in this debate.

The following section proposes an empirical assessment of the link between international tourism and economic growth in a tourism-dependent zone, namely some countries in the southern and eastern Mediterranean.

### 3. Model specification

Our objective in this section is to study the determinants of growth where the emphasis is on the role of tourism development. For this we will adopt the framework set up by Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992), who have shown that the validity of the Solow model can be improved by the inclusion of human capital.

Consider the following Cobb-Douglas production function:

$$Y_t = K_t^\alpha H_t^\beta (A_t L_t)^{1-\alpha-\beta} \quad (1)$$

Where  $\alpha$  et  $\beta$  Represents the elasticity of factors physical capital and human capital..  $(1 - \alpha - \beta)$  Represents the elasticity of a productive unit of labor relative to the level of production  $Y$  is the quantity of production,  $K$  is the stock of physical capital  $H$  the stock of human capital,  $L$  is the supply of labor and  $A$  coefficient reflecting the technological level and the efficiency of the economy and  $t$  Represents the time index .

Either  $s_k$  The share of income invested in capital and  $s_h$  That invested in human capital, the evolution of the economy is defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{k}(t) &= s_k y(t) - (n + g + d)k(t) \\ \dot{h}(t) &= s_h y(t) - (n + g + d)h(t) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Where  $d$  is the depreciation rate. Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992) Poses as hypotheses the decreasing returns for all types of capital ( $\alpha + \beta \leq 1$ ). It is this hypothesis which makes it possible to obtain a stationary state.

In the stationary state,  $\dot{k} = \dot{h} = 0$ . The economy is converging towards :

$$\begin{aligned} k^* &= \left( \frac{s_k^{1-\beta} s_h^\beta}{n + g + d} \right)^{1/(1-\alpha-\beta)} \\ h^* &= \left( \frac{s_k^\alpha s_h^{1-\alpha}}{n + g + d} \right)^{1/(1-\alpha-\beta)} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

By substituting these two expressions in the production equation (1), the income by head can be rewritten as (in log):

$$\ln \left[ \frac{Y(t)}{L(t)} \right] = \ln A(0) + gt - \frac{\alpha + \beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(n + g + d) + \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(s_k) + \frac{\beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(s_h) \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) shows that long-run income by head is a function of population growth and the stock of human capital and physical capital. Therefore, Mankiw, Romer and Weil rely on this specification to show that when human capital is added, the magnitude of the response from the long-term income level to the savings rate and population growth rate is More important. These authors also argue that the increased Solow model explains the large income disparities observed internationally. The analysis of Mankiw and al. Is based on the following "convergence equation":

$$\ln \left[ \frac{y(T)}{y(0)} \right] = a + \theta \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln s_k + \theta \frac{\beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln s_h - \theta \frac{\alpha + \beta}{1 - \alpha - \beta} \ln(n + g + \delta) - \theta \ln y(0) + \varepsilon \quad (5)$$

Where  $y(0)$  is the initial income.

By introducing other explanatory variables, the empirical specification used in this section is as follows:

$$\ln y_{it} = a + \phi \ln y_{it-1} + \phi X_{it} + \psi \text{tourisme}_{it} + u_{it} \quad (6)$$

With  $y_{it}$  The real GDP by head of country  $i$  at time  $t$ ,  $X_{it}$  Is the set of variables usually used in the literature as determinants of economic growth,  $\text{tourisme}_{it}$  Represents the different measures of tourism intensity and  $u_{it}$  is the term of the error .

#### 4. Presentation of the estimation method

The previous empirical specification (Equation 6) requires the use of estimation techniques on panel data or individual-temporal data. The double individual and temporal dimension implies an increase of the available information, this makes it possible to improve the accuracy of the estimated parameters. The panel data has the advantage of taking into account the specifics of each country using observable and individually specific variables. They also distinguish differentiated effects from unobservable variables, time-specific or country-specific effects.

The pooled mean group (PMG) method (Pesaran and al., 1999, Bassanini and al., 2001) avoids having to average the data and thus gives much greater accuracy to the estimates. It nevertheless limits the problems of serial correlation by explicitly modeling the short-term effects (by integrating the first differences of the independent variables), which may vary from one country to another, as well as long-term effects, Equality is imposed. However, the risk of under-modeling remains.

Heterogeneity can be problematic when a relationship is estimated for countries that have been aggregated. The heterogeneity of countries is of particular importance for short-term relationships (to the extent that economic growth can be affected by country-specific determinants), but less so for long-term relationships (which can be assumed That they are more homogeneous from one country to another). The PMG estimator provides a solution to the problem of country heterogeneity while taking into account the distinction between short-term and long-term dynamics. The estimation procedure, referred to as the « Delayed Autoregressive Model » requires: (i) that there is a long-term relationship between the variables considered; And (ii) the dynamic specification of the model is expanded so that the repressors are strictly exogenous and the residues are not serially correlated. An autoregressive model with distributed delays of order  $p = 1$  and  $q = 1$  can be written in terms of an error correction model as follows (Pesaran and al, 1999):

$$\Delta y_{it} = \pi_i (y_{it-1} - \theta_{0i} - \sum_{r=1}^R \theta_{ri} x_{rit}) - \sum_{r=1}^R \vartheta_{r1i} \Delta x_{rit} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (7)$$

Where the term in parentheses refers to the long-term component. If the maximum length of the process is a - hypothesis retained in this thesis - the previous expression is still simplified.

The adjustment coefficient is defined by the formula  $\pi_i = -(1 - \lambda_i)$  And long-term coefficients by:

$$\theta_{0i} = \frac{\mu_i}{1 - \lambda_i}, \quad \theta_{ri} = \frac{\vartheta_{r0i} + \vartheta_{r1i}}{1 - \lambda_i}$$

Where  $r = 1, \dots, R$  denotes the number of explanatory variables.

By making the hypothesis That there is a long-term relationship between  $y_{it}$  (Economic growth) and  $x_{it}$  (Tourism indicator and other variables likely to influence growth), with identical coefficients between groups and perturbations  $\varepsilon_{it}$  Distributed normally and independently between countries,

, The parameters of (A.1) can be estimated by the maximum likelihood method using the Newton-Raphson algorithm (Pesaran and al, 1999, 2001). The PMG estimator requires that the element of  $\theta_r$  be common to all

countries, whereas the estimator based on the Mean Group (MG) method imposes no restriction on the vector parameter.

This MG estimator produces consistent estimates when the group size of the panel tends to infinity (Pesaran and Smith, 1995) - which is not the case for the small sample considered here. Therefore, for the purposes of this analysis, we estimate that the PMG estimator offers the best compromise between consistency and efficiency.

### **5. Choice of variables and description of data**

We perform an econometric analysis on a sample of seven countries in the southern and eastern Mediterranean (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Syrian, Tunisia, Turkey) from 1980 to 2010. The basic variables used in our empirical analysis are derived from the neoclassical growth theory (Barro, 1991, Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 1996, Mankiw, Romer and Weil, 1992). In the following, we present the fundamental variables used in the empirical analysis:

#### **Dependent variable:**

- Economic growth ( $y$ ) is measured by real GDP per capita (in constant USA dollar, 2000). This endogenous variable was extracted from the World Bank (World Development Indicators database, 2012).

#### **Independent variables:**

- Stock of human capital (KH): Measuring human capital is particularly difficult to assess. At the level of the empirical literature, several indicators are used to quantify human capital. This is mainly due to the school enrollment rate (Berthélemy, Dessus and Varoudakis (1997), Bassanini and Scarpetta (2002)) and Barro, 1991, Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992). In our study, we used the average number of years of schooling in the labor force as an approximate variable for the stock of human capital. This variable is assumed to have a positive influence on economic growth. It is extracted from the statistical database of Barro and Lee (2010) on educational attainment.

- Physical capital ( $I/Y$ ): given that the stock of physical capital is not directly available for several countries in our sample, the investment rate or percentage of gross fixed capital formation on GDP ( $I/Y$ ) was used as a proxy to evaluate investment in physical capital. Its sign should be positive. This variable was taken from WDI (2012).

- Population growth rate (Pop): According to Barro (2000), economic growth is negatively related to the fertility rate. Thus, having more children in the same family will generate a higher rate of population growth. An increase in the population growth rate may be responsible for the fall in GDP per capita. This variable was extracted from the World Bank database (WDI [2012]).

- Public expenditure on consumption in relation to GDP ( $DP / GDP$ ): the question of the effect of the size of the State on growth is very discussed in the economic literature. We used this indicator to measure the long-term displacement effect and the possible negative effects of public consumption on long-term income by head. This variable was extracted from the World Bank database (WDI [2012]).

#### **Tourism indicators:**

To capture the effects of tourism on economic growth, we consider variables that make it possible to better estimate the importance of tourism, in particular (Sequeira and Campos, 2007):

- Tourist arrivals relative to the population ( $A / POP$ ): this proportion represents the tourist flow. It is calculated on the basis of the ratio of tourist arrivals to total population (source: UNWTO and WDI).

- Tourism receipts as a percentage of GDP (RT / GDP): this indicator represents an assessment of the direct monetary impact of foreign-sourced tourism expenditure (source: UNWTO and WDI).
- Tourism receipts as a percentage of exports (RT / EXP): this is the expenditure of international tourists, including payments to national transport companies. This share in exports is calculated by reference to a ratio on exports of goods and services (source: UNWTO and WDI).

It should be emphasized that all variables have been stabilized by expressing them in logarithmic form.

## 6. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

### 6.1 Descriptive analysis of data

Table 1 presents, for the period 1980 to 2010, the descriptive statistics of all the variables used in our empirical analysis for the different groups in the sample. Reading these tables shows that the SEMCs have a very low average income by head (1874.9 US \$ 2000) compared to the OECD countries (US \$ 19999.34). In terms of tourism development indicators, the average ratio of international tourist arrivals per capita is higher in OECD countries (81.39869) than in the PSEM group (22.09902), while The average value of the other two variables, in particular, the ratio of tourism receipts as a percentage of GDP is higher for the SEMC than for the OECD.

**Table 1:** Descriptive statistics for the SEMCs

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std, Dev,	Min	Max
<b>Y</b>	180	1874,957	992,7592	856,6008	5323,683
<b>POP</b>	180	2,235463	1,062918	0,5901647	11,18066
<b>KH</b>	180	5,377603	1,573838	1,7926	9,196094
<b>I/Y</b>	180	23,44885	4,756832	14,39531	43,21786
<b>DP/GDP</b>	180	16,19383	4,943885	7,515593	31,06241
<b>A/POP</b>	180	22,09902	19,80277	2,088188	87,93285
<b>RT/EXP</b>	179	18,39675	5,76999	4,61685	37,45578
<b>RT/GDP</b>	179	5,861149	3,087135	0,4753647	13,22535

### 6.2 Heterogeneous dynamic panel analysis

Before proceeding on to model estimation using the PMG and MG methods, stationarity and cointegration tests must be used to avoid spurious regression between different variables to be tested.

#### 6.2.1 The results of unit root panel tests

Taking into account the stationarity of the variables on temporal panel data has become very common in econometric practice today. It thus aims to ensure the stability of the variables studied. As part of our modeling, we will use the first and second-generation unit root tests recommended in the literature, namely Levin, Lin and Chu (2002), Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003), ADF, Philips Perron (Maddala and Wu (1999) and Choi (2001)), Hadri (2000) and Pesaran (2003).

The results of the individual unit root tests for the SEMC sample are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: unit root panel tests**

Variables		unit root panel tests: SEMCs											
		Levin, Lin & Chu		IPS		ADF		Philip Perron		Hadri		Pesaran	
		With Trend	Without trend	With Trend	Without trend	With Trend	Without trend	With Trend	Without trend	With Trend	Without trend	With Trend	Without trend
ln_y	At the level	0.50099	2.85667	0.76842	4.81285	14.0421	2.35072	7.28201	1.09040	5.24158***	8.03236***	-0.97	-0.558
	In first difference	-11.4139***	-11.5308***	-12.1223***	-11.7129***	156.169***	109.602***	180.806***	109.133***	0.92320	1.65901**	3.266***	-3.798***
Ln_I/Y	At the level	-0.56384	-0.95097	-1.77267**	-2.06048**	24.0783**	26.0603**	7.14411	11.7324	2.18553**	2.40449***	-0.419	-1.332*
	In first difference	-5.14204***	-6.45328***	-5.90729***	-7.23270***	52.3154***	69.4801***	58.1375***	66.1573***	0.81580	-0.93072	2.879***	-3.865***
Ln_KH	At the level	5.83781	-2.48990	3.55991	-0.53141***	3.58154	10.3917	208.710***	46.1938***	8.68866***	8.98864***	-2.181**	-3.266***
	In first difference	35.9677	-22.6314***	-3.76180***	-22.9954***	37.1744***	177.380***	330.815***	170.210***	12.2865***	3.92181***	-8.46***	-9.185***
LN_DP/GDP	At the level	-0.06463	0.10129	0.18953	0.96347	9.43240	7.77304	8.39560	8.23792	4.05678***	5.20286***	-0.325	-0.789
	In first difference	-8.70670***	-9.54929***	-9.62645***	-9.84891***	87.3557***	99.1262***	94.6498***	99.7886***	2.52501***	0.75744	3.436***	-3.932***
POP	At the level	3.99835	-6.60458***	0.20221	-4.12338***	22.1723**	44.8293***	17.9442	11.2956	2.57597***	5.81877***	3.631***	-3.707***
	In first difference	-5.93563***	-1.06166	-11.8151***	-8.20203***	147.358***	84.3660***	549.340***	78.9645***	12.0719***	1.59002*	5.694***	-5.787***
ln_A/POP	At the level	-2.84727***	-1.34014*	-1.66766	1.18206	17.6248	15.2719	14.7244	5.70712	5.86193	6.28900	0.927	0.400
	In first difference	-7.01534***	-8.72069***	-9.93832***	-8.68567***	96.5825***	90.2736***	356.074***	124.521***	2.77499***	3.57627***	-1.156	3.496***
ln_RT/EXP	At the level	-4.48157***	-2.46281***	-4.26458***	-1.69325**	40.0456***	19.7736*	15.8923	19.5040*	4.00892***	3.71509**	-0.178	-1.473*
	In first difference	-8.66282***	-11.0629***	-9.48938***	-11.1350***	89.9565***	114.504***	192.333***	141.014***	2.23024***	-0.41236	-0.990	-1.895**
ln_RT/GDP	At the level	-3.58117***	-3.35256***	-2.52751***	-3.01325***	25.1988**	29.7586***	19.1400*	36.8313***	4.81963***	6.22576***	0.207	-0.419
	In first difference	-6.80207***	-8.79066***	-8.74502***	-10.0033***	82.7573**	102.697***	362.518***	150.737***	3.32210***	0.58616	3.824***	-4.258***

\*\*\* Significant at the threshold of 1% \*\* Significant at the threshold of 5% ; \* Significant at the threshold of 10% For the case of our sample, the results of the tests are mixed for the majority of the variables. Indeed, the test Levin, Lin and Chu (2002) indicates that the variables ln\_A/POP, ln\_RT /GDP, POP are stationary in level, whereas the other variables are stationary in first differences.

Then, according to the IPS, ADF and Philips Perron tests, the variable ln\_arriv is non-stationary. Moreover, the Phillips Perron test shows that the hypothesis of the presence of unit root is accepted for the two variables ln\_RT / EXP and POP.

On the other hand, the Hadri test, whose specificity is based on the null hypothesis of stationarity, shows that all variables are stationary in first differences.

Generally, based on the Pesaran test results, which are more robust and allow to take account of possible dependencies between individuals, it can be concluded that the majority of the variables are considered non-stationary and integrated from order 1 to The exception of POP.

The verification of the non-stationarity properties for all the variables of the panel leads us to study the existence of a long-term relation between the integrated variables of order 1.

## 6.2.2 The results of the cointegration tests

The same principle that has just been presented to test the stationarity of variables is used to test the existence of possible cointegration relations for both homogeneous and heterogeneous panels. In order to do so, we adopt two categories of tests: the Pedroni tests (1995, 1997) in order to take into account the heterogeneity using parameters which may differ between the countries and the Kao tests (1999) Homogeneous cointegration vectors between countries.

Table 3 presents the results of the cointegration tests of Pedroni and the Kao test: For the group of PSEM, the ADF statistic leads to reject the null hypothesis of absence of cointegration relation in both specifications

(Model 1 and Model 2). Similarly, the Kao test rejects the null hypothesis at the 1% threshold in model 1 and at the 10% threshold in model 2.

**Table 3 : Cointegration test of panel data**

	Model 1		Model 2	
	(LN_Y LN_KH LN_A/POP)	(LN_I/Y LN_DP/GDP)	(LN_Y LN_I/Y LN_KH LN_DP/GDP LNRT/GDP)	
Test	Test Statistique	Prob.	Test Statistique	Prob.
Pedroni Tests (1999,2004)				
Panel ADF-Statistic	-1.870737	0.03**	-2.258949	0.01***
Group ADF-Statistic	-0.849183	0.19	-1.834376	0.03**
Kao tests (1999)				
ADF-statistic	-2.349848	0.00***	-1.531816	0.06*

Overall, we conclude that there is at least a long-term relationship between real GDP per capita and the explanatory variables in the SEMCs. This suggests the appropriateness of using an error-correction model to highlight the short-term and long-term relationships between economic growth and international tourism.

### 6.2.3 Interpretation of Results

The results of the estimation of the models by the PMG and MG method are presented in Table 4. The fact that the time series are shorter significantly limits the number of variables that could be taken into account in the regressions.

In the light of the results obtained for the SEMCs, it can be seen that the adjustment coefficients are indeed negative and significant, which validates our use of the Error correction Model (ECM). Indeed, the significance of the adjustment coefficients validates the existence of a long-term relationship in the co-integration process, and the movements between the different variables of the model are considered permanent.

In the long run, results from the PMG method show that all explanatory variables have the expected sign and are significant in model 1. Human capital as a factor of production plays a crucial role in long-term economic growth. Indeed, the coefficient relative to the stock of human capital (number of years of study of the active population) appears positive and significant at the 1% threshold. This corroborates the theoretical assertions of Romer (1990) that the stock of human capital contributes to long-term growth because of its use in technological innovation activities. In addition, tourist arrivals relative to the population have a positive and very significant impact (at the 1% threshold). This shows that tourism arrivals have a positive influence on economic growth. This result is robust because it is significant in all estimates. On the other hand, the impact of tourism receipts is insignificant in all estimates.

In conclusion, the regressions including the tourist flow indicator provide an overview of the link between tourism development and economic growth. Table 4 confirms in general that tourism flows, unlike tourism receipts, affect long-term economic growth in the SEMCs.



**Table 4 : Results of estimates (PMG and MG)**

	PMG	MG	PMG	MG
Model	Model1	Model1	Model 2	Model 2
Long term				
ln_I/Y	0.538** (0.2406)	0.643* (0.3664)	2.420 (2.512)	0.359 (0.2378)
Ln_KH	0.543*** (0.1816)	-0.278 (0.2716)	3.857 (3.169)	1.159*** (0.4134)
LN_DP/GDP	- 1.530*** (0.4952)	-1.268** (0.6174)	0.313 (0.8346)	0.422 (0.7650)
Ln_A/POP	0.394*** (0.0833)	0.569** (0.2760)		
Ln_RT/GDP			- 1.154 (1.329)	0.241 (0.1939)
EC	-0.087*** (0.0219)	-0.2760** (0.1140)	-0.0061 (0.0097)	-0.055 (0.0574)
Hausman Test	27.42 [0.0000]		4.84 [0.3041]	
Nombre of countries	6	6	6	6
Nombre of observations	168	168	167	167
Log Likelihood	378.869		371.1901	

Note: Values in parentheses () are standard deviations. \*\*\* significant at the threshold of 1% \*\* significant at the threshold of 5%; \* Significant at the 10% threshold.

## 7. CONCLUSION

In this work, we studied the relationship between tourism and economic growth. In the empirical literature, numerous studies have focused on the relationship between international tourism and economic growth.

Our analysis of the literature review showed that none of the studies in question yielded conclusive results on the impact of international tourism on long-term economic growth. In order to contribute to this economic debate, we analyzed the relationship between international tourism and growth from the analysis of dynamic panel data.

Our objective is to verify the impact of international tourism on real GDP per capita using recent estimation techniques on heterogeneous dynamic panel data for a period from 1980 to 2010. The results of the different econometric approaches reveal that the " Impact of international tourism on the standard of living is mixed and varies according to the measure of tourism used (flow or receipts). Indeed, the indicator of international tourist flows has a positive and very significant impact on real GDP per capita, whatever the estimator. Moreover, the tourist indicator (RT / GDP) does not appear significant for the SEMCs.

Finally, this study showed that there is still a need to assess the empirical relationship between international tourism, growth in SEMCs as well as in other regions. Therefore, a similar study is recommended for other countries and tourism regions around the world for comparison with previous research results.

## REFERENCES

- Balaguer, J. and M. Cantavella-Jordá. (2002) Tourism as a long-run economic growth factor: the Spanish case, *Applied Economics*, 34, pp 877-884.
- Bhagwati, J.N. and T.N. Srinivasan, (1979), Trade policy and development, in: R. Dornbusch and J. Frenkel, eds., *International economic policy* (Johns Hopkins, Baltimore) 1-35.
- Belloumi, M. (2010), The Relationship between Tourism Receipts, Real Effective Exchange Rate and Economic Growth in Tunisia, *International Journal of Tourism Research Int. J. Tourism Res.* 12, 550–560.
- Brau, R., Lanza, A. and Pigliaru, F. (2007), How fast are small tourism countries growing? Evidence from the data for 1980-2003, *Tourism Economics*, 13(4), pp. 603-613.
- Brida, J.G., Pereyra, J.S. & Such, M.J. (2008a). Evaluating the Contribution of Tourism on Economic Growth. *Anatolia: an International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol. 19, No.2 (Winter), pp.351-357.
- Brida, J.G., Pereyra, S.J., Risso, W.A., Such Devesa M.J. & Zapata Aguirre S. (2009), The tourism-led growth hypothesis: empirical evidence from Colombia, *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 4(2) Autumn, pp. 13-27.
- Brida, J.G., Pereyra, J.S., Such, M.J. & Zapata, S. (2008b). La contribución del turismo al crecimiento económico: el caso de España, Francia, Italia, U.K. y Estados Unidos. *Cuadernos de Turismo*, No.22, pp.35-46.
- Chen, L. L. and J Devereux, 1999, "Tourism and welfare in Sub-Saharan Africa: a Theoretical Analysis," *Journal of African Economies*, 8:209-227.
- Chia-Lin, C. Thanchanok, K. and McAleer, M. (2009) A Panel Threshold Model of Tourism Specialization and Economic Development, Faculty of Economics, University of Tokyo.
- Cortés-Jiménez, I. and Pulina, M. (2006) Tourism and growth: Evidence for Spain and Italy. In: 46th Congress of the European Regional Science Association, University of Thessaly (Volos, Greece), 30 August – 3 September 2006.
- Cortes-Jimenez, I. Nowak, J. and Sahli, M. (2011). Mass beach tourism and economic growth: Lessons from Tunisia, *Tourism Economics*, Vol.17, No.3, pp. 531-547.
- Dritsakis, N. (2004), Tourism as a long-run economic growth factor: an empirical investigation for Greece using causality analysis, *Tourism Economics*, 10(3), pp. 305-316.
- Durbarray, R. (2004), Tourism and economic growth: The case of Mauritius, *Tourism Economics*, 10(4), pp. 389-401.
- Granger, C.W.J. (1988), 'Some recent developments in a concept of causality', *Journal of Econometrics*, Vol 39, pp 199–211.
- Hazari, B. R. and P. M. Sgro, 1995, "Tourism and Growth in a Dynamic Model of Trade," *Journal of International Trade and Economic Development*, 4, 243-252.
- Helpman, E. And P. Krugman (1985), *Innovation and growth in the global economy*. MIT Press, Cambridge.
- Ivanov, S. & Webster, C. (2007). Measuring the impacts of tourism on economic growth. *Tourism Economics*, Vol. 13, No.3, pp.379-388.

- Katircioglu, S. (2009), Testing the Tourism-Led Growth Hypothesis: the Case of Malta, *Acta Oeconomica*, 59 (2) Forthcoming.
- Krueger, A. (1980), "Trade policy as an input to development", *American Economic Review*, 70, pp 188-292.
- Figini P. & Vici L. (2009), Tourism and Growth in a Cross-Section of Countries, Working Paper Series 01\_09, Rimini Centre for Economic Analysis.
- Fayissa, B., Nsiah C. And B., Tadesse. (2009), Tourism and Economic Growth in Latin American Countries (LAC): Further Empirical Evidence, Department of Economics and Finance Working Paper Series, March.
- Fayissa, B., Nsiah, C. and B., Tadasse. (2007), The Impact of Tourism on Economic Growth and Development in Africa", Department of Economics and Finance Working Paper Series, August.
- He, L. and Zheng, X. (2011), Empirical Analysis on the Relationship between Tourism Development and Economic Growth in Sichuan *Journal of Agricultural Science* ISSN 1916-9752(Print) ISSN 1916-9760.
- Kreishan, F.M.M. (2010), Tourism and economic growth: The case of Jordan. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 15(2), pp. 63-68.
- Lanza A e Pigliaru F. (1995), Specialization in tourism: the case of a small open economy, in Coccossis H.e Nijkamp P., eds, *Sustainable tourism development*, Aldershot: Avebury.
- Lee, C-C. & Chien, M-S (2008), Structural breaks, tourism development, and growth: Evidence from Taiwan, *Mathematics and Computers in Simulation*, 77, pp. 358-368.
- Lee, C.-C & Chang, C-P. (2008), Tourism development and economic growth: A closer look to panels, *Tourism Management*, 29, pp. 180-192.
- McKinnon, R. (1964), "Foreign exchange constraint in economic development and efficient aid allocation", *Economic Journal*, 74, pp 388-409.
- Nowak, J.-J., Sahli, M., and Cortés-Jiménez, I. (2007), 'Tourism, capital good imports and economic growth, theory and evidence for Spain', *Tourism Economics*, Vol 13, No 4, pp 515–536.
- Oh, C. (2005), The contribution of tourism development to economic growth in the Korean economy, *Tourism Management*, 26 (1), pp 39–44.
- Paolo Figini & Laura Vici, (2009). Tourism and Growth in a Cross-Section of Countries, Working Paper Series 01\_09, Rimini Centre for Economic Analysis.
- Proença, S. ; Soukiazis, E. (2008), Tourism as an economic growth factor: a case study for Southern European countries *Tourism Economics*, Volume 14, Number 4, pp. 791-806(16).
- Sequeira, T.N. and C., Campos. (2005), International Tourism and Economic Growth: A Panel Data Approach, The Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei Note di Lavoro Series Index: [www.feem.it/feem/pub/publication/Wpapers](http://www.feem.it/feem/pub/publication/Wpapers).
- Sinclair, M.T. (1998), Tourism and Economic Development: A Survey, *The Journal of Development Studies*, 34 (5), pp 1-51.
- Tang, C. F. and Abosedra, Salah., (2015), Does tourism expansion effectively spur economic growth in Morocco and Tunisia? Evidence from time series and panel data. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*. DOI: 10.1080/19407963.2015.1113980.
- Zortuk, M. (2009), Economic impact of tourism on Turkey's economy: evidence from cointegration tests, *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*, 25, pp. 231-239.

## **The Impact of Strategic Planning on Crisis Management Styles in the 5-star Hotels**

**KARAM M. GHAZI**

Hotel Studies Lecture – the higher institute of tourism and hotels in Alexandria (EGOTH)

### **Abstract:**

This study investigates crisis management styles (escaping, confrontation, cooperation and containment) and their relationship to strategic planning processes in the 5-star hotels. The study used descriptive analytical method with qualitative and quantitative approaches. 190 self-administered e-mail questionnaires are sent to all the general managers at the Egyptian five-star hotels. The results indicated that there is a statistically significant correlation and effect relationship between strategic planning processes and crisis management styles, which was negative between strategic planning and escape, and is positive between strategic planning, and confrontation, cooperation and containment. The findings implied the significance role of strategic planning in times of crises to improve hotels' ability to survive and thrive in a crisis. Manager who actively exercises strategic planning is less escapable and more able to manage the crisis either by using the style of cooperation, confrontation or containment. Hence, hotels should employ a strategic approach to crisis management by embodying crisis management planning in the strategy process. Hotels should working on making crisis management as an integral and integrated part with strategic planning. Considering and planning for both at the same time help hotels to think and plan strategically during the midst of crisis and increases their ability to manage a crisis successfully.

**Key Words:** strategic planning, crisis, crisis management, crisis management styles.

## **1. Introduction**

The tourism and hospitality industry is especially vulnerable to numerous types of crises including natural disasters, terrorist attacks, political instability, infectious diseases, industrial accidents, wars, economic recession, and so on. The happening of crises is on the rise and destinations will eventually encounter a serious crisis. A serious crisis can instantly harm a destination's image and infrastructure, as well as the country's economy (Pizam, 2010; Israeli *et al.* 2011; Wang, & Ritchie, 2012; Jia *et al.*, 2012; Speakman, & Sharpley, 2012; Rittichainuwat, 2013; de Sausmarez, 2013; Mekinc & Cvikl, 2013; Becken, *et al.*, 2014; Boukas & Ziakas, 2014; Ghaderi, *et al.*, 2012:2014:2015; Purwomarwanto & Ramachandran, 2015; Granville, *et al.*, 2016). Egypt is one of those countries that frequently encounter different crises such as Egyptian revolutions in 2011-2013, terrorist attacks, and political instabilities and wars from adjoining countries (Mohammad *et al.*, 2012; Nassar, 2012).

However the vulnerability of the industry to the impacts of crises, numerous countries and destinations are relying on it for their development and survival (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012; Mair *et al.*, 2016). This creates pressure on business directors to plan and think strategically during a crisis by managing both the positive opportunities and negative threats that crisis consistently presents. Consequently, organizations need to plan for crisis concurrently as strategic planning, which have not yet been incorporated or integrated. Considering and planning for both at the same time increases the organization's ability to prevent, mitigate or manage a crisis successfully. Incorporating crisis management into strategic planning processes and vice versa, improve the ability of organisations to not only survive but also to thrive, both in good and crisis times (Brent, 2004; Vargo, and Seville, 2011; Lalonde, 2011; Pollard, and Hotho, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2009; Groh, 2014).

The general research problem is that strategic planning and crisis management are often separate from each other, if they are already done. However, any crisis generally offer critical threats associated with considerable opportunities, these threats and opportunities are commonly not managed with a single specialty but rather two separate disciplines: crisis management and strategic planning. While, crisis management focuses on opportunities, strategic planning focuses on threats. This can be lead to a misuse of limited resources and create a threat to the organization (Vargo and Seville, 2011; Lalonde, 2011).

The specific problem is that there is a research gap in the literature regarding the connection between strategic planning and crisis management. However, some literature promoted the integration of crisis management with strategic planning (Mitroff, *et al.*, 1992; Boin and Lagadec, 2000; Brent, 2004; McConnell and Drennan, 2006; Pollard, and Hotho, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2009; Vargo, and Seville, 2011; Lalonde, 2011; Wang and Ritchie, 2012; Groh, 2014), there is limited empirical research on the relationship between strategic planning and crisis management. In particular, there is a lack of empirical research that examining the relationship between strategic planning and crisis management in the hotel industry in general and in Egyptian hotels in particular. This study filled this gap by examining crisis management styles and their relationship to strategic planning processes from of hotel managers' viewpoint.

Therefore, the research problem can be formulated through the following main question and its sub-questions: What are the styles of hotel crisis management and their relation to strategic planning?

- What is the usage degree of hotel managers to crisis management styles (cooperation, confrontation, escaping, and containment)?
- What is the usage degree of hotel managers to hotel strategic planning processes?
- Is there statistically significant correlation relationship between the usage degree of both the crises management styles and the strategic planning processes?

- Is there statistically significant effect relationship of the usage degree of strategic planning on the usage degree of the crises management styles?

## 2. Objectives

This study aimed to examine the relationship between strategic planning and crisis management styles as well as the impact of strategic planning on these styles from of hotel managers' viewpoint. The specific objectives are to:

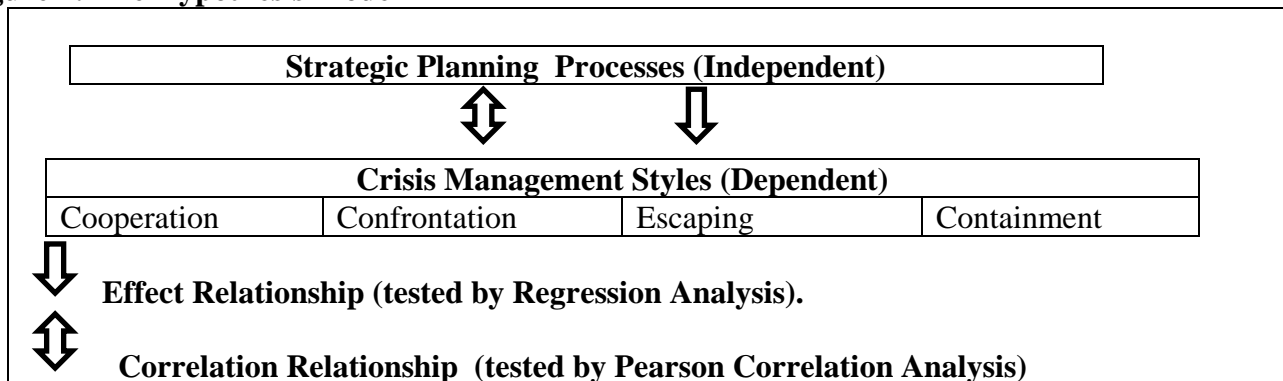
1. Assess the usage degree of crisis management styles (cooperation, confrontation, escaping, and containment) from of hotel managers' viewpoint.
2. Assess the usage degree of strategic planning processes from of hotel managers' viewpoint.
3. Assess the relationship between the usage degree of crisis management styles and strategic planning processes.
4. Assess the influence of strategic planning processes on crisis management styles.

## 3. Hypotheses

As shown in Figure 1, this research has two major assumptions:

1. The first hypothesis has assumed the correlation relationship between strategic planning processes and crisis management styles (cooperation, confrontation, escaping, and containment). **Hence, the null and alternate of Hypothesis 1 are:**
  - ❑ **H<sub>0</sub>**—There is no a statistically significant correlation (at  $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the usage degree of crisis management styles and the strategic planning processes from hotel managers' viewpoint.
  - ❑ **H<sub>1</sub>**—There is a statistically significant correlation (at  $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the usage degree of the styles of crises management and the usage of strategic planning processes from hotel managers' viewpoint.
2. The second hypothesis has assumed the influence of the strategic planning processes on the styles of crisis management (cooperation, confrontation, escaping, and containment). **Hence, the null and alternate of Hypothesis 2 are:**
  - ❑ **H<sub>0</sub>**—There is no a statistically significant effect (at  $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) of strategic planning in the usage degree of the styles of crises management from hotel managers' viewpoint.
  - ❑ **H<sub>2</sub>**—There is a statistically significant effect (at  $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) of strategic planning in the usage degree (utilization) of the styles of crises management from hotel managers' viewpoint.

Figure 1: The Hypothesis Model



Study Variables are:

1. Independent: strategic planning processes
2. Dependent: crisis management styles (escaping, cooperation, confrontation, and containment).

#### **4. Literature review**

##### **Crisis and Crisis Management**

Crisis management is defined as “the process that attempts to identify and predict areas of crises, the development of actions or measures designed to prevent crises from occurring, or from an incident evolving into a crisis, and minimizing the effects of disruption from a crisis that could not be prevented” (Preble, 1997, p. 773). As defined by Mogendorff, (2008), crisis management is a means of proactively preparing a company for a worst-case scenario. It involves the careful planning of approaches that will minimize the effects on its operation in both short- and long terms. According to Vargo, and Seville (2011), crisis management is the discipline of preparing the resources and organizational structures necessary to respond effectively in the face of a crisis and recover effectively in the aftermath. It is about building the capability to identify imminent threats to the organisation and designing a plan for addressing those threats. Crisis management is activities undertaken to plan prior to, manage during, and evaluate following a crisis (Wang & Ritchie, 2012).

However crisis definitions are used in a certain context and explain a particular crisis, it is generally agreed that three elements are common to most crisis definitions: (1) a major threat to the survival of the organisation, (2) the element of surprise and (3) a short decision time to respond (Seeger *et al.* 2003; Faulkner, 2001; Racherla and Hu, 2009). Moreover, there is majority of literature support the view of crisis as a process rather than event, due to the evolving nature of a crisis. Subsequently, most crisis authors viewed crisis management as a process and most crisis management models are shaped around the different stages of a crisis. At least, crisis management can be divided into three phases: (1) Before-crisis (crisis planning), (2) During-crisis (crisis-response), and (3) After-crisis (crisis evaluation and learning). However, some authors further divided the phases into sub phases (Coombs, 2012; Aba-Bulgu, and Islam, 2007; Racherla and Hu, 2009; Wang & Ritchie, 2012; Ghaderi *et al.*, 2012:2014:2015; Jia *et al.*, 2012).

Most of the literature reflects on the threats and negative outcomes of crises. Yet, opportunities exist within any crisis (Burnett, 1998; Faulkner 2001; Mogendorff, 2008; Vargo, and Seville, 2011; Wang and Ritchie, 2012). Burnett (1998) presented seven crisis opportunities: (1) bornning heroes; (2) accelerating changes; (3) facing latent problems; (4) changing people; (5) evolving new strategies; (6) developing early warning systems; and (7) appearing new competitive edges. According to Mogendorff, (2008), examples of positive opportunities include: narrow the service concept to reinvent the product for today's/tomorrow's markets or (re)differentiate your product, refocus market to attract different market segments, resize or reduce your organization to a more manageable size, relocate to a safer environment, simplify processes, combine activities or department for better customer service or cost control, update assets, redefine staff needs and skills, and retrain staff.

Overall, there are a variety of styles in order to deal with crises, including proactive and reactive approaches. In the proactive stance, the planning decisions are takes place before a crisis. Decision makers have already anticipated various forms of crises through vulnerability analyses and have developed plans to deal with its probability. In the reactive stance, the planning decisions are take place during and after the crisis event. The main objective is containing the damage and the swift recovery of the status quo (Pearson & Mitroff, 1993; Hough, and Spillan, 2005). In particular, there are four styles to deal with crises (Pearson & Mitroff, 1993; El-Mehdi and Hiba, 2002; Ahmad, 2002; Hilal, 2004; Abd-Elaal, 2008):

1. The escape style: is a negative style where the manager of the organization leaves the crisis and its impact completely, and recognizes the inability to cope it, claiming that the reason for the weakness in the staff performance.
2. The containing/containment style: where the manager reduces the spread and effect and of a crisis. The crisis is limiting and freezing at the stage reached by it, and work to absorb the pressures generated by it, and then destroyed by its destructive power.
3. The cooperation or teamwork style: where everyone in the crisis team cooperates in the face of the crisis and each member have specific duties.
4. The confronting style: where the organization manager with the help of his staff confronts the crisis in a scientific way based on good prediction and identification of roles and tasks, and move rapidly in all phases of the crisis to reduce the negative effects and return the organization to the state of stability it had.

## **Strategic Planning**

Strategic planning is an essential requirement for the success of an organization by dealing with weaknesses and threats as well as the strengths and opportunities that present themselves to the organization (Preble 1997). Strategic planning is defined as “the process of formulating and implementing decisions about an organization’s future direction. This process is vital to every organization’s survival because it is the process by which the organization adapts to its ever-changing environment, and the process is applicable to all management levels and all types of organizations” (Kerzner, 2001, p. 15). Boyle (2001, p. 23) defined strategic planning as ‘a process that involves a) setting goals or objectives; b) assessing and forecasting the external environment; c) designing and assessing alternative courses of action, including analyzing the potential risks and rewards; d) selecting the best course of action; and e) evaluating results as the course of action is implemented’. Strategic planning is a systematic planning process involving a series of steps to determine the current status of the business, including its mission, vision for the future, needs, objectives, actions and strategies' priorities, action plans and monitoring and evaluation programs. This process is a key component of the Strategic Management (Sotirios, and Nikolaos, 2016).

It should be noted there is a general agreement in the literature on viewing strategic planning as a process, i.e. the process of formulating, implementing, and evaluating strategy. Moreover, in the tourism sector, strategic planning is particularly a crucial process as has been found to be related to the performance of tourism enterprises. Strategic planning enables hotel companies to achieve both economic and non-economic objectives. Strategic planning is a critical factor for the effectiveness of strategic management (Sotirios, and Nikolaos, 2016).

## **The Relationship between Strategic Planning and Crisis Management**

However, strategic planning has developed as a discipline quite separate from crisis management; these two planning processes overlap considerably (Mitroff, *et al.*, 1992; Preble 1997; Burnett, 1998; Pollard, and Hotho, 2006; Vargo, and Seville, 2011):

- They both deal with the organization’s future
- They both deal with the weaknesses (vulnerabilities) and threats (risks)
- They both involve processes to create, implement and evaluate plan.
- They both involve organisational structures and resources to carry out the plan.
- They both require planning and adaptiveness along four enabling dimensions: leadership, culture, decision making and situation awareness. It is clear from literature that organisations wanting to perform well at both crisis management and strategic planning must:



- Be pre-planned to adapt to changing circumstances.
- Have leaders able to inspire their people with a sense of hope and direction.
- Have an organisational culture that values disciplined planning whilst fostering an ability to be creative and innovate.
- Plan and make decisions carefully in a structured way, yet be responsive and able to move quickly and boldly.
- Have teams able to recognise patterns and integrate disparate information in order to make sense of a chaotic situation, while being sensitive and alert to subtle changes to the environment as the situation evolves.

The differences between strategic planning and crisis management are that one focuses on opportunities, while the other focuses on threats. Crisis management tends to focus on threats inherent in rapidly changing environments, while strategic planning focuses on the opportunities inherent in change. Yet both opportunities and threats are included in the uncertain future with which we have to deal (Mitroff, *et al.*, 1992; Burnett, 1998). Crisis management focus on improving the ability of organization to survive, while strategic planning focus on improving the ability to thrive. Survive is the crisis management aspect, while thrive is the strategic planning aspect (Vargo, and Seville, 2011). While, strategic planning is frequently based on the assumption that tomorrow will be like today, crisis management is based on the adversity of tomorrow. In tourism environment, tomorrow is almost certainly not going to be like today. The integration of crisis management and strategic planning offer some considerable challenges as noted by Burnett (1998):

- Time pressure: crises may have to be dealt with immediately, while strategic planning normally would occur in time frames of months or even years.
- Control: strategic planning normally assumes a reasonable control level over organisational processes and relationships while a crisis may significantly inhibit such control.
- Threat magnitude and severity: in a crisis, the magnitude and severity of the threats can overwhelm management to such an extent that it prevents the formulation and implementation of strategy.
- Response options: strategic planning tends to maintain a range of options, the reality in a crisis may be that only one or a few options may be left to the organisation to choose from.

In times of crisis, it is important to integrate crisis management with strategic planning to manage crises effectively. The result of the integration is that the organization is crisis prepared and/or resilience. Resilience is the ability of an organisation not only to survive but also to thrive, both in good times and in the face of adversity. Considering and planning for both at the same time creates more robust planning and increases the organization's ability to mitigate, avoid or manage a crisis successfully. Through incorporating crisis management into an organisation's strategic planning processes and vice versa, strategies can be developed to take advantage of these 'silver lining' opportunities in the midst of crises. Crisis strategic planning is a way of integrating the two into one resilience planning process (Preble, 1997; Vargo, and Seville, 2011; Groh, 2014). Preble (1997) stated that "adding crisis management's defensive preventative capability to strategic management's offensive market positioning orientation can yield a more comprehensive approach to strategic management of organisations".

## **5. Methodology**

### **Research type and approach**

A mixed methods research design incorporating both quantitative and qualitative approaches was used in this study. The study used descriptive analytical approach for its appropriateness to such studies to describe the phenomenon, to analyze data, and to identify the relationship between its components. Particularly, it used correlation method which aims to exploring the relationship between two variables (crisis management styles

and strategic planning processes) or more to determine the correlation between these variables and interpreting it in figures. Furthermore, this study used deductive approach, since it develops a theory and hypotheses and then designs a research strategy to test the validity of hypotheses against the data (this call a top-down approach) (Saunders *et al.*, 2015). This study used two approaches to data collection namely;

1. **Desk Survey (secondary data source).** The desk survey (literature review) forms an essential aspect of the research since it sets the pace for the development of field survey instruments using questionnaires, and interview. Secondary sources of information were identified and collected in books, articles, professional periodicals, and databases on the subject of the study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).
2. **Field Survey (Primary Data Source).** The field survey is involved with the collection of empirical data. Fieldwork can be associated with three practical approaches; the survey approach, the case study approach and the problem-solving approach (action research). This research used the questionnaire technique that belongs to the survey strategy as the primary method of quantitative data collection. A self-administered questionnaire is used in this study. It means that this type of research is completed by respondents. In particular, the on-line e-mail questionnaire method was used to collect data in order to test the hypotheses. The choice of e-mail questionnaire survey is mainly due to numerous benefits such as: obtain relatively highest participation within a limited time frame, high confidence that right person has responded, easy of data coding, reduce geographical limitations, minimum of expenses, and anonymity. By E-mail questionnaire, the researcher has time to reflect on the answers and keep continuous contact when questions arise (Dillman, 2000; Sekaran and Bougie , 2013; Saunders *et al.*, 2015).

## **Data Collection Instrument**

The questionnaire was built based on the conceptual framework drawn from the extant literature (Figure 1). Moreover, it was adapted and modified from previous developed scales to test crisis management styles and strategic planning in the hotel context. In particular, the final data-collection instrument consisted of two-parts:

- The first part measures usability of crisis management styles, consisting of 39 attributes representing 4 styles; (escape, confrontation, cooperation, and containment). The participants were asked to indicate the degree of usability (usage level) of each attribute of crisis management styles, using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1-very low to 5-very high.
- The second part measures usability of the hotel strategic planning processes, consisting of 36 attributes. The participants were asked to indicate the degree of usability (usage level) of each attribute using a Likert scale ranging from 1-very low to 5-very high.

## **Questionnaire Reliability, Validity and Objectivity**

Validity, reliability and objectivity can be seen as three dimensions of a study's credibility. Validity is the extent to which it actually measures what it intended to measure from the beginning. Reliability is the degree of trust and if the result remains the same when being repeated. Objectivity is about the values of a researcher and how much it affects the results (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). The questionnaire were rationing before distribution to the study sample to ensure the validity and reliability of paragraphs:

1. **To Verify Content Validity (Believe arbitrators):** At the early stage of this research, discussions with academic colleague and managers were carried out to collect information on the problem area. After which, the questions and measures of the variables in the questionnaire were drawn from the intensive literature review. In particular, the first version of survey questionnaire was judged by a group of arbitrators through interviewing 5 experienced hotel managers and 5 academic professors in hotel studies. The arbitrators assessed language integrity, the appropriateness of the questionnaire attributes, and the

affiliation of attributes to each of the dimensions of the questionnaire. Revisions to the questionnaire were made based on feedback from the arbitrators. The researcher responded to the views of the jury and performed the necessary delete and modify in. Factors or questions with 80% approval and higher were only considered. The result was a revised version of the questionnaire with a smaller set of items. The changes made the statements more specific and easier to understand.

2. **To Verify Construct Validity:** There are two types of analysis for determining construct validity: (1) Correlational analysis, and (2) Factor analysis (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). This study calculates the construct validity of the attributes of the questionnaire by surveying it to the initial sample size of 15 respondents of the total members of the study population. It calculates the Pearson correlation coefficients between the degree of each dimension of the questionnaire and the total degree for the questionnaire (structure validity). It also calculates the Pearson correlation coefficients between each attribute of the questionnaire and the total degree for the domain dimension that belongs to him that attribute (internal validity). The results indicated that all attributes and dimensions are statistically significant (at  $\alpha \leq 0.01$  and  $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ), which confirm the internal consistency (validity) of the questionnaire.
3. **To Verify Reliability:** The most popular test of inter-item consistency reliability is Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The researcher conducted reliability steps on the same initial sample using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The study calculated alpha coefficient for each dimension of the questionnaire as well as for the total questionnaire. The results indicated that alpha coefficients of all dimensions and total alpha coefficient for questionnaire are above 0.61, which indicating satisfactory internal consistency; give the research the reliability to applying the questionnaire to sample study. The strong internal consistency reliability for the revised scales indicated that the retained items measure the same constructs, suggesting the possibility of the stability of the results that can result from the tool. Thus, the questionnaire became valid and reliable in its final form for application to the basic study sample.

## **Sampling Plan and Procedures**

The target population of this study was the general managers at the Egyptian five-star hotels. Comprehensive sample was chosen as the most appropriate sampling technique to get a big sample and thus ensure that the results are significant and generalizable. The surveys were directed at senior level managers due to the nature of their role as chief executive decision-makers in the event of a hotel crisis incidents and long future strategic plans. Moreover, only 5-star hotels were chosen due to the big hotels have the resources and education to properly implement strategic planning and crisis management process.

The surveyor telephoned each hotel in the sample and requested the e-mail of the general manager or the highest ranking manager in cases where there was no such manager. The surveyor sent him (or her) a self-administrated e-mail questionnaire. To increase response rate, the surveyor sent another two remind e-mail for managers who don't respond the first e-mail. In March 2017, a total of 190 self-administrated e-mail questionnaires were distributed to hotel managers in 190 five-star hotels in Egypt. 138 questionnaires were returned, resulting in a 73 % response rate. 15 were not included because of incompleteness. The valid number of questionnaires for analysis was 123 with response rate was 65%.

For ethical considerations and adequate response rate, the questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter that emphasized the significance of the issue under investigation but also stressed that participation in the study was voluntary. As noted by Dillman (2000) the covering Letter affects the response rate. At the beginning of questionnaire it was briefly explained the purpose of the survey, the importance of the respondent participation and respondent confidentiality. The respondents were advised that the data collected would be used solely for the purpose to address the research topic. There were no anticipated risks to the respondents who participated in the study. The removal of any personal identifying information or data was

the means to maintain confidentiality. At the end of the questionnaire it was explained what the respondent need to do with a completed questionnaire.

### **Data analyses**

Analysis of the gathered data used the software SPSS 19.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) and Microsoft Excel 2010. The principal statistical tool utilized was the non-parametric statistical testing using descriptive statistics, Person correlation and Regression analysis. Objective 1 and 2 were achieved by descriptive statistics. Objective 3 and hypothesis 1 were achieved by Person correlation Analysis. Objective 4 and hypothesis 2 were achieved by Regression analysis. Finally, interpretation of the results was done at 5 %level of significance; where the value of  $p \leq 0.05$  was considered as being significant, and  $p \leq 0.01$  was considered as being highly significant.

### **Operational Definitions of Key Terms**

**Strategic planning:** is the process of formulating, implementing, and evaluating decisions about a hotel's future direction. This process involves a) setting goals or objectives; b) assessing and forecasting the external environment; c) designing and assessing alternative courses of action, including analyzing the potential risks and rewards; d) selecting the best course of action; and e) evaluating results as the course of action is implemented.

**Crisis:** is a low probability, high impact event that threatens the viability of the hotel and is characterized by ambiguity of cause, effects and means of resolution, as well as by a belief that decisions must be made swiftly.

**Crisis Management:** is the process of planning prior to, managing during, and evaluating following a crisis. This process involves identifying and predicting areas of crises, the development of actions or measures designed to prevent crises from occurring, or from an incident evolving into a crisis, and minimizing the effects of disruption from a crisis that could not be prevented.

**Styles of Crisis Management:** The strategies, activities and procedures used by the hotel manager in managing the hotel crisis, namely escape, cooperation, confrontation, containment.

## **6. Results**

### **The Usage Degree of Crisis Management Styles (Objective 1)**

Table (1) indicated that the "Containment" style ranked first with a mean of (3.83) and a relative weight of (76.6). This finding implied that hotel managers perceived this style as the top priority and widely used style in crisis management. The top usage priority of this style can be explained by the fact that the survey was conducted during the significant effects of the Egyptian political instability and the top concern of hotel managers is to contain the crisis from its inception and limit it to a minimum. The highest attribute in this style is "Work on limiting the crisis in a limited scope inside the hotel so as not to spread" with a mean score of (3.91) and relative weight of (78.2%). Meanwhile, the less attribute is "Work on not spreading rumors and exaggerations in talking about the crisis so as not to exacerbate their occurrence" with a mean score (3.77) and relative weight (75.4%).

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Strategic Planning processes & Crisis Management Styles (N = 123)**

Variables	Measures	Mean	Standard Deviation	Relative Mean Weight	Rank
Dependent Variable	Escaping (10 attributes)	3.74	0.596	74.8	2
	Cooperation (10 attributes)	3.54	0.621	70.8	3
	Confrontation (10 attributes)	3.48	0.624	69.6	4
	Containment (9 attributes)	3.83	0.581	76.6	1
Independent Variable	Strategic Planning processes (36 attributes)	4.12	0.547	82.4	-

This is followed by the "Escape" style where it ranked second with a mean of (3.74) and a relative weight of (74.8%). This finding implied that hotel managers perceived this style as the number two of usage priority and second widely used style in crisis management. This indicates that some hotel managers recognize the inability and failure to face the crisis because of the strength of political circumstances and increasing its impact, fear of failure in the face of crisis or lack of resources or the lack of powers granted to face the crisis. Therefore, they resort to escape from the crisis in different forms, such as hide and deny the crisis, leaving the area of the crisis and its impact, put the blame on others, justify the causes of the crisis, focus on other defects and inadequate performance, the media blackout on the crisis, or demonstrate the safety of the position, good performance, and the crisis has been controlled. The highest attribute in this style is "Political circumstances prevent me from the face of the crisis" with a mean score of (3.82) and relative weight of (76.4%). Meanwhile, the less attribute is "Pretend that the hotel controlled the crisis, and the hotel at its best" with a mean score (3.69) and relative weight (73.8%).

Then the "Cooperation" style ranked third with a mean (3.54) and relative weight (70.8 %). This confirms that some managers are aware of the importance of cooperation of all hotel staff in the face of crises, since it is not only the director alone can effectively confront the crisis. The highest attribute in this style is "Consult the people of opinion, knowledge, and experience in dealing with hotel crises" with a mean score of (3.63) and relative weight of (72%). Meanwhile the less attribute is "Coordinate the efforts of the hotel employees and the bodies and authorities outside the hotel which can cooperate with them in controlling the crisis" with a mean score (3.47) and relative weight (69.4%).

Finally, the "confrontation" style ranked fourth with a mean of (3.48) and relative weight (69.6%). This finding implied that hotel managers perceived this style as the less usage priority and rarely used style in crisis management. This indicates that hotel managers' performance in utilizing the confrontation style is low. Hence, hotel managers should concentrate on this style and more resources, effort and attention should be spent on improving this style. It also indicates that hotel managers don not face crises in a scientifically based way. Hotel managers must stay away from random and reaction policies in the face of crises. But they must follow the scientific and proactive planning approach to face crises by predicting and preventing the expected crises, designing advance scenarios and plans of confrontation, finding the priorities agenda, forming crisis team with required resources, designing an effective crisis communications and information system, quickly gathering sufficient and accurate information on the crisis specifying the necessary resources and capabilities to confront the crisis, define the responsibilities of the participants in confronting the crisis, harmony and complementarity between the various efforts exerted to confront the crisis, crisis assessment and follow-up , and leaning lessons from the current crisis to prevent their occurrence in the future. Managers must plan ahead what needs to be done in confronting crises, how to do it, when, who to do, predict events and draw scenarios. The highest attribute in this style is "Put a comprehensive plan to address the crisis" with a mean score of (3.52) and relative weight of (70.4%). Meanwhile, the less attribute is "Specify the necessary resources and capabilities to cope with the crisis" with a mean score (3.46) and relative weight (69.2%). Hotel managers use the style of confrontation in crises management with a mean of (3.48) and a relative weight of (69.6%).

Overall, the rankings in descending order of the usage mean of crisis management styles were as follow: Containment (3.83), Escaping (3.74), Cooperation (3.54), and Confrontation (3.48).

### **The Usage Degree of Strategic Planning Processes (Objective 2)**

It is clear from Table (1) that hotel managers used strategic planning processes with a mean of (4.12) and a relative weight of (82.4%). This finding implied that the overall usage score of the strategic planning processes was relatively high. The researcher attributed this relatively high usage to the fact that hotel managers feel the importance role of strategic planning in business success and ensure the performance and effectiveness of hotel enterprises. It enables hotel companies to achieve both economic and non-economic objectives. It is a critical factor for the effectiveness of Strategic Management. Previous studies confirmed this result (Grant, 2008; Sotirios, and Nikolaos, 2016).

The highest attribute was "the hotel's message shall be clearly and accurately formulated." It was ranked first with a mean of (4.31) and a relative weight of (86.2%). This finding implied that hotel managers understand that the clarity and accuracy of the message helps them achieve the desired goals and objectives, as they reflect the philosophy, ambition and purpose of the hotel. The lowest attribute is "the hotel vision is consistent with the vision of the Ministry of Tourism" with a mean score (3.82) and a relative weight of (76.4%). This finding implied that hotel managers considered that their hotels' vision isn't consistent with the vision of the Egyptian Ministry of Tourism. This indicated the lack of coordination between Egyptian tourist institutions, and the lack of consolidation of future strategic objectives. Hotel managers stay away from the Ministry of Tourism. As the Egyptian Ministry of Tourism is responsible for following up the work in the hotels and tourist destinations, so managers must pay attention and care to ensure that there is no conflict or difference in the two visions, and coordination between them is necessary. Managers must take into account the harmony and consistency of their hotels' vision with the vision of the Egyptian Ministry of Tourism. The coordination between the two visions facilitates the achievement of future goals in an effective manner. Overall, the achievement of the objectives/goals of hotels and tourist institutions lead to the achievement of the objectives of the Egyptian Ministry of Tourism. The vision must be harmonized between the tourism institutions and the tourism ministry to unify efforts and reach the desired future goals. Volgger and Pechlaner (2014) identified collaboration among tourism stakeholders as the key for destination managers to achieve competitiveness.

### **The Relationship between Crisis Management Styles and Strategic Planning Processes (Objective 3 / Hypothesis 1)**

Table (2) shows that there is a statistically significant positive correlation ( at  $\alpha \leq 0.01$ ) between the styles of hotels crisis management (confrontation, cooperation, and containment) and hotel strategic planning where Pearson correlation is (0.62, 0.55, 0.33) respectively. There is also a statistically significant negative correlation ( $\alpha \leq 0.01$ ) between the style of escape and the hotel strategic planning where Pearson correlation is (-0.25). The highest correlation was found with the style of confrontation, then cooperation, followed by containment.

**Testing hypothesis 1:** Since, the correlations are all statistically significant (at  $\alpha \leq 0.01$ ). Hence, the null hypothesis 1 which proposed an absence of relationship was therefore rejected. Meanwhile, the alternate hypothesis 1 which proposed an existence relationship, was therefore accepted. This fining indicated that there is agree between hotel managers on the significance role of strategic planning in crisis management

styles (confrontation, cooperation and containment) in the Egyptian 5-star hotels. There is a certain level of consistency in the behavior of managers.

**Table 2: The correlation and regression between strategic planning and crisis management styles**

Crisis Management Styles	Strategic Planning				
	Pearson Correlation		Regression		
	R	Sig	F	R <sup>2</sup>	Sig
<b>Confrontation</b>	0.62	0.000	18.62	0.188	0.000
<b>Cooperation</b>	0.55	0.000	16.43	0.165	0.000
<b>Escaping</b>	- 0.25	0.01	4.54	0.048	0.01
<b>Containment</b>	0.33	0.002	9.32	0.096	0.002

### **Assess the Effect of Strategic Planning Processes on Crisis Management Styles**

It is clear from Table (2) that the independent variable (strategic planning) has achieved a significant effect relationship with the four dependent variables (confrontation, cooperation, containment, and escape) at the level of significance (at  $\alpha \leq 0.01$ ), where the value of F for each (18.62, 16.43, 9.32, 4.54) respectively, which is more than the spreadsheet value with (0.000), (0.000), (0.002), (0.01) respectively. As well as the value of R<sup>2</sup> reached (0.18) (0.16) (0.096) (0.048), which indicating that independent variable (strategic planning) explains 18% of the changes in the dependent variable (confrontation style), 16% of the changes in the dependent variable (cooperation style), 9% of the changes in the containment style, and 5% of the changes in the escape style . This result implied that strategic planning play a significant role in managing crises. This means that strategic planning contributes to and helps confront the crisis, contain the damage caused by the crisis, and help effective cooperation between participants in the face of crises.

**Testing hypothesis 2:** Since the independent variable (strategic planning processes) significantly effect in four dependent variables (confrontation, cooperation, containment, and escape), therefore the null hypothesis 2 which proposed an absence of effect relationship was therefore rejected. Meanwhile, the alternate hypothesis 2 which proposed an existence effect relationship, was therefore supported. This result implied the existence of a significant effect of the strategic planning processes in the the styles of crisis management, and this is consistent with the relationship achieved in the first hypothesis.

## **7. Conclusion**

The vulnerability of the tourism and hospitality industry to the impacts of crises increases the responsibility of tourism and hotel managers to plan and think strategically in times of a crisis to manage crisis successfully. Therefore, this study investigates crisis management styles and their relationship to strategic planning process in the 5-star hotels. This study used descriptive analytical method with qualitative and quantitative approaches. 190 self-administered e-mail questionnaires are sent to the general managers at the Egyptian five-star hotels. Using Pearson correlation and regression analysis, the results indicated that there is a statistically significant correlation and effect relationship (at  $\alpha \leq 0.01$ ) between the strategic planning processes and crisis management styles, which was negative between strategic planning and escape, and is positive between strategic planning, and confrontation, cooperation and containment. This fining implied the significance role of strategic planning in crisis management styles (confrontation, cooperation and containment) in the Egyptian 5-star hotels.

The study results seems logical since the manager who actively exercises strategic planning is less escapable and more able to manage the crisis either by using the method of cooperation, confrontation or containment.

The clarity of vision and the identification of the hotel's mission and objectives accurately and analyzing the internal environment to know the strengths to strengthen and weaknesses to address them, as well as analysis of the external environment to know the opportunities available to exploit well and identify external threats to overcome them, all helps the hotel manager not to escape the crisis and face them with full force and to benefit from them in the future and to work to avoid recurrence.

This study promotes the relationship between strategic planning and crisis management styles to improve hotels' ability to survive and thrive in a crisis. The study sees strategic planning as the basis for crisis management. It contributes to preventing the crisis and overcoming the element of surprise. It also provides the opportunity for the crisis management team to confront the crisis in a scientific and organized manner away from randomness. Through strategic planning, time and available resources can be effectively exploited and invested to the fullest to deal with the crisis if they occur.

## **8. Recommendations and Implications**

This study is one of the first studies to correlate crises management styles to strategic planning processes not only in the hotel industry but also in the Egyptian five-star hotels. This research contributed to the theoretical and practical approach to the field of tourism strategic crisis management. It provides useful advice to hotel and tourism managers and organizations, hotel associations, and hotel studies researchers. The study recommends the following:

1. The main practical implication for this study is that hotel and tourism managers should consider the significance role of strategic planning in times of crises and its relation to styles of crisis management. Hotels and managers should working on making crisis management as an integral and integrated part with strategic planning. Hotels should employ a strategic approach to crisis management by embodying crisis management processes and planning in the strategy process. The study promotes the incorporation of crisis management processes in a hotel's strategy process. This help increasing the effectiveness of managing crises and improving the strategic performance of hotels. Considering and planning for both at the same time help hotels to think and plan strategically during the midst of crisis and increases their ability to manage a crisis successfully. Promoting the adopt of strategic crisis planning is one methods to integrate the two disciplines because it increases the effectiveness of hotel managers in dealing with crises.
2. Coordinating the efforts of hotels and government agencies and external institutes which can cooperate to manage hotel and tourism crisis. Creating a specialized crisis management department in ministry of tourism and joining it with crisis management team in each hotel and tourism business. Destination managers should enhance collaborative efforts with various tourism stakeholders (public and private sectors, not-for profit organizations, and local communities) as the key to achieve competitiveness. Building and promoting effective communication system between tourism partners that ensure the speed and availability of information to effective dealing with tourism and hotel crises.
3. Tourism ministry, high education ministry, and other scientific research institutions should focus on research and studies related to strategic crisis management in tourism in general and in hotels in particular (more intention and care). Conducting annual conferences about crisis management and its relation to strategic planning. Teaching crisis management and strategic planning courses in faculties of tourism and hotels.
4. It is necessary to hold training courses, workshops, and train-the-trainers programs to hotel managers and employees (the Egyptian hotel union members) on strategic planning and its importance role in improving hotels and crises planning. Qualifying and recruiting efficient human resources leaders to preparing future proactive crisis management plans and preparing crisis scenarios of management.
5. Tourism Ministry and hotel associations should prepare an annual report on the crises that occurred in the hotel to be used in the management of future crises. Tourism Ministry and hotel associations should



provide each hotel manager with a manual that includes some types of hotel crises that occurred before and how they were dealt with effectively.

## **9. Future research**

Additional research may extend knowledge from the findings of this study:

- Studying how crisis management could be integrated into the hotel's strategic planning process to enhance organizational resilience. There is limited empirical research on the way to integrate crisis and strategic planning to build organizational resilience.
- Studying the relationship between hotel leadership styles and crisis management.
- Studying how crisis planning and strategic planning processes differ by organizational and environmental factors, such as organizational culture, regions and types of crises. Examining the organizational and environmental factors that influence crisis planning intentions and behaviors.
- Studying recovering destination image and post-crisis destination marketing strategies.
- Investigating barriers and difficulties of tourism leaders in devising crisis management methods and plans,
- Studying the effect of information, communication, and media relations strategies in crisis management.
- Studying crisis learning feedback as one of the important ways organizations can integrate strategic and crisis planning.
- Studying the relationship between strategic planning, crisis planning and resilience to ensure sustainable competitive advantage in a tourism environment.

## **10. Study Scope and Limitations:**

1. The objective limit: the objective of the study was limited to the four styles of crisis management (cooperation, confrontation, escaping, and containment) and determining the relationship between each style and the usage degree of hotel strategic planning processes (from 5-star hotel managers' viewpoint).
2. The spatial limit (place limitation): the study applied in Egypt region.
3. Institutional limit: this study was limited to only the Egyptian 5 star hotels that are typically members of the Egyptian Hotel Association (EHA) (Egyptian Hotel Guide 2010-2011). Generalizations are limited to only those hotels who decided to participate in this study.
4. The human limit (Respondent limit). The study was limited to the top (general) managers of 5-star hotels.
5. The time limit. The study was conducted during March 2017.

## REFERENCES

- Aba-Bulgu, M., and Islam, S. (2007) *Corporate Crisis and Risk Management: Modeling, Strategies and Sme Application*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier LTD.
- Abd-Elaal, R. (2008) *Methods of Crises Management to Public Schools Principals in Gaza Governorates and their Relationship to Strategic Planning*. Master Thesis, Islamic University, Faculty of Education, Educational Administration Department, Palestine.
- Ahmed, A. (2002) *Educational Crisis Management in Schools: Causes and Treatment*. Cairo: Dar El Fekr El-Araby.
- Becken, S., Mahon, R., Rennie, H., and Shakeela, A. (2014) 'The tourism disaster vulnerability framework: An application to tourism in small island destinations,' *Natural Hazards*, **71** (1), 955–972.
- Boin, A. and P. Lagadec (2000) 'Preparing for the future: critical challenges in crisis management,' *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management*, **8**(4), 185–191.
- Boukas, N., and Ziakas, V. (2014) 'A chaos theory perspective of destination crisis and sustainable tourism development in islands: The case of Cyprus', *Tourism Planning and Development*, **11**(2), 191–209.
- Boyle, P. (2001) 'From strategic planning to visioning: Tools for navigating the future', *Public Management*, **83**(4), 23–28.
- Brent, W (2004) 'Chaos, crises and disasters: A strategic approach to crisis management in the tourism industry', *Tourism Management*, **25**, 669–683.
- Burnett, J. (1998) 'A strategic approach to managing crisis,' *Public Relations Review*, **24** (4), 475–484.
- Coombs, T. (2012) *Ongoing crisis communication* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- de Sausmarez, N. (2013) 'Challenges to Kenyan tourism since 2008: crisis management from the Kenyan tour operator perspective,' *Current Issues in Tourism*, **16** (7/8), 792–809.
- Dillman, D. A. (2000) *Mail and Internet Surveys: The Tailored Design Method* (Vol. 2.). New York: Wiley.
- El-Mahdi, s., and Hiba, H. (2002) 'Behavioral practices of school managers in dealing with crises inside the school,' *Journal of the Faculty of Education and Psychology*, **26** (4), 221–143. (Arabic reference).
- Faulkner, B., (2001) 'Towards a framework for tourism disaster management,' *Tourism Management*, **22** (2), 135–147.
- Ghaderi, Z., Som, A. P. M., and Henderson, J. C. (2015) 'When disaster strikes: The Thai floods of 2011 and tourism industry response and resilience,' *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, **20** (4), 399–415.
- Ghaderi, Z., Som, A. P. M., and Wang, J. (2014) 'Organizational learning in tourism crisis management: An experience from Malaysia,' *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, **31**(5), 627–648.
- Ghaderi, Z., Som, A., and Henderson, J. (2012) 'Tourism crises and island destinations: Experiences in Penang,' *Malaysia Tourism Management Perspectives*, **2–3** (0) 79–84.
- Granville, F., Mehta, A., and Pike, S. (2016) 'Destinations, disasters and public relations: Stakeholder engagement in multi-phase disaster management,' *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, **28**, 73–79.
- Groh, M. (2014) 'Strategic management in times of crisis,' *American Journal of Economics and Business Administration*, **6** (2), 49–57.
- Hilal, M. (2004) *Crisis management skills: the crisis between prevention and control. The Center for the development of performance and development* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Cairo (Arabic reference).
- Hough, M., and Spillan, J. (2005) 'Crisis Planning: Increasing Effectiveness, Decreasing Discomfort,' *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, **3** (4), 19–24.
- Israeli A., Mohsin, A., and Kumar, B. (2011) 'Hospitality crisis management practices: The case of Indian luxury hotels,' *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, **30** (2), 367–374.
- Jia, Z., Shi, Y., Jia, Y., and Li, D. (2012) 'A framework of knowledge management systems for tourism crisis management,' *Procedia Engineering*, **29**, 138–143.

- Kerzner, H. (2001) *Strategic planning for project management using a project Management Maturity Model*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Lalonde, C. (2011) 'Managing crises through organisational development: A conceptual framework,' *Disasters*, **35**(2), 443-464.
- Mair, J., Ritchie, B. W., and Walters, G. (2016) 'Towards a research agenda for post- disaster and post-crisis recovery strategies for tourist destinations: A narrative review,' *Current Issues in Tourism*, **19** (1), 1–26.
- McConnell, A. and L. Drennan (2006) 'Mission impossible? Planning and preparing for crisis,' *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management*, **14** (2), 59–70.
- Mekinc, J., and Cvikl, H. (2013) 'The structure of security and safety crises in tourism,' *Journal of Tourism and Services*, **5**, 38–50.
- Mitroff, I., Pearson, C., and Pauchant, T.C. (1992) 'Crisis management and strategic management: similarities, differences and challenges,' *Advance in Strategic Management*, **8**, 235–260.
- Mogendorff, D. A. (2008) Crisis management. In, Jones, P., and Pizam, A. (edit.), *Handbook of hospitality operations and IT, first edition*, Butter Worth-Heinemann publications, Elsevier LTD.
- Mohammad, A., Jones, E., Dawood, A., and Sayed, H.( 2012) 'The Impact of the Egyptian political events during 2011 on hotel occupancy in Cairo,' *Journal of Tourism Research & Hospitality*, **1** (2), 1-8.
- Nassar, M.A. (2012) 'Political Unrest Costs Egyptian Tourism Dearly: An Ethnographical Study,' *International Business Research*, **5** (10), 166-174.
- Pearson, C., and Mitroff, I. (1993). From crisis prone to crisis prepared: A framework for crisis management,' *Academy of Management*, **7** (1), 48-59.
- Pizam, A., (2010) 'Hotels as tempting targets for terrorism attacks,' *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, **29** (1), 1-196.
- Pollard, D. and Hotho, S., (2006). Crises, scenarios and the strategic management process. *Management Decision*, **44** (6), 721–736.
- Preble, J. (1997) 'Integrating the crisis management perspective into the strategic management process,' *Journal of Management Studies*, **34** (5), 769–791.
- Purwomarwanto, Y. L., and Ramachandran, J. (2015) 'Performance of tourism sector with regard to the global crisis: A comparative study between Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore,' *Journal of Developing Areas*, **49** (4), 325–339.
- Racherla, P. and Hu, C.A. (2009) 'Framework for knowledge-based crisis management in the hospitality and tourism industry. *Cornell hospitality Quarterly*, **50** (4), 1-17.
- Rittichainuwat, B. (2013) 'Tourists' and tourism suppliers' perceptions toward crisis management on tsunami,' *Tourism Management*, **34** (1), 112-121.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2015) *Research Methods for Business Students*. (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Pearson, Inc.
- Seeger, M., Sellnow, T., and Ulmer, R. (2003) *Communication and organizational crisis*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
- Sekaran, U., and Bougie, R. (2013). *Research methods for business: A sill building approach*, UK: John Wiley & sons.
- Sotirios, V., and Nikolaos, G. (2016) 'Measurement of Strategic Management Effectiveness in Tourism Enterprises.' Full Paper Proceeding at International Conference on "Business, Economics, Social Science & Humanities" BESSH-2016, Vol. 146- Issue.3, 41-45.
- Speakman, M., & Sharpley, R. (2012) 'A chaos theory perspective on destination crisis management: Evidence from Mexico,' *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, **1**(1), 67–77.
- Vargo, J., and Seville, E. (2011) 'Crisis strategic planning for SMEs: finding the silver lining,' *International Journal of Production Research*, **49**,(18), 5619–5635.
- Volgger, M. and Pechlaner, H. (2014) 'Requirements for destination management organizations in destination governance: Understanding DMO success,' *Tourism Management*, **41**, 64–75.

- Wang, J. and Ritchie, B. W. (2012) 'Understanding accommodation managers' crisis planning intention: An application of the theory of planned behavior,' *Tourism Management*, **33**, 1057–1067.
- Wang, J., Hutchins, H., and Garavan, T. (2009) 'Exploring the strategic role of human resource development in organizational crisis management,' *Human Resource Development Review*, **8** (1), 22-53.

## **Storytelling as a Tool for Safeguarding and Marketing The Intangible Cultural Heritage (Ich): The Case of Nubia City, Egypt**

**REHAB EL GAMIL**

Tourism Studies Department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University, Egypt

### **ABSTRACT**

Over the past decades, the intangible cultural heritage has been alarmed by an increasing number of challenges such as globalization, modernization, economic booms and finally changes in life styles and cultural contexts. As a result, many forms of intangible cultural heritage are being lost. So, there is an urgent need to safeguard it and ensure its sustainability, as it is considered an important component of tourist attractions in many destinations.

Recently, storytelling has gained much attention as an innovative means of competitive destination marketing, as stories can give emphasis to the unique aspects of a place or a destination that cannot be replicated. Therefore, this paper focuses on exploring how storytelling can be used as a new tool for documenting, safeguarding and marketing the intangible cultural heritage, especially in local communities.

Accordingly, the study is structured as follows; first, it presents the theoretical background; followed by the methodology section. A qualitative approach is employed in this research, based on adapting semi-structured interviews with the local community in Nubia city in 2016. The interviews aim to identify the threats that face the ICH in Nubia as a local community. Then the study applies a modified theoretical model to illustrate how the storytelling can be used as a tool for safeguarding and marketing Nubian ICH. Results show the potential of stories and skillful storytelling practices as an innovative tool for documenting, safeguarding and marketing ICH through events. Finally, the study ends with some implications for the government, local authorities and tourism managers and marketers to take them into consideration.

**Keyword:** Intangible cultural heritage, Safeguarding, Marketing, Storytelling, Nubia City.

## INTRODUCTION

Local communities are considered as the creators of Intangible Cultural heritage as it always related to their setting, their history, and their existence in a specific context. In this respect, ICH gives the local community the feeling of belonging and shapes a part of their identity. So, ICH is considered as "a living form of heritage" which is interpreted by local community and transmitted from generation to generation (UNESCO, 2003c). Intangible cultural heritage has great values, UNESCO has mentioned that ICH has two values firstly, social value which gives communities the feeling of belonging and a sense of identity, secondly, economic value which results from the consumption of its products and its role as a tourist attraction especially for local communities (UNESCO, 2003b).

Furthermore, the ICH has been alarmed by an increasing number of challenges such as globalization, modernization, economic booms and finally changes in life styles. In this context, preserving and documenting intangible cultural heritage became increasingly important and necessary for the sake of sustainability. Efforts to preserve ICH within a community context face many challenges. There is a need to create a balance between collecting, documenting and archiving ICH, and the ability of communities to interpret, use, reshape and share this heritage. But in fact, the local communities are still sharing and passing on their ICH informally by word of mouth (Jarvis, 2012). On the other hand, there is an obvious shortage of literature especially concerning the threats faced by the communities for documenting and preserving their ICH in the globalizing world (Mackinnon, 2012). Since 1990's storytelling has got a wide attention in several fields; management sociology, and marketing. Therefore, many researchers started to explore the role of storytelling in a different context (Akgün et al., 2015). Indeed, storytelling has vital roles for an organization as well as tourism destinations.

In the context of travel and tourism industry storytelling has various positive impacts as the stories are considered as an essential component of the memorable travel experiences e.g. stories about the local cultures and traditions, stories from tourists themselves and stories from native guides about the mysteries of some places (Choi, 2016). Although of this importance but till now the power of storytelling is undervalued in tourism and destination marketing.

This paper focuses on the Egyptian Nubia, the area of southern Egypt extending from the town of Aswan, approximately 560 miles south of Cairo, to the border of Sudan. (Abdel Meguid, 2008). Nubia city is famous for its distinctive culture either tangible or intangible and its unique people. Gradually, Nubian culture became a very important attraction for many visitors, but unfortunately, Nubians were forced to leave their homelands as they have been threatened by the construction of the Aswan High Dam. This shift in place has negative impacts on Nubian intangible heritage. It caused many losses and changes in their traditional practices customs and their economies, which has strong connections to their historical lands. (Elcheikh, 2013).

In this respect, **the research questions can be summarized as follows:**

1. To what extent storytelling can represent a medium and long term solution for safeguarding the Nubian ICH and, re-present and market it as a new tourist attraction?
2. How appropriate storytelling for making travelers excited about experiencing all destination offers?

These questions will be answered based on a qualitative approach.

The paper aims to identify Nubian ICH and stories worthwhile to be told, within a destination. Then the paper highlights the threats that facing the Nubian ICH. Moreover, the objective of this paper is to examine storytelling in detail and how storytelling is used as an innovative marketing tool. Consequently, this paper applies a modified theoretical model to explain the potential of using and applying storytelling in safeguarding and marketing Nubian ICH.

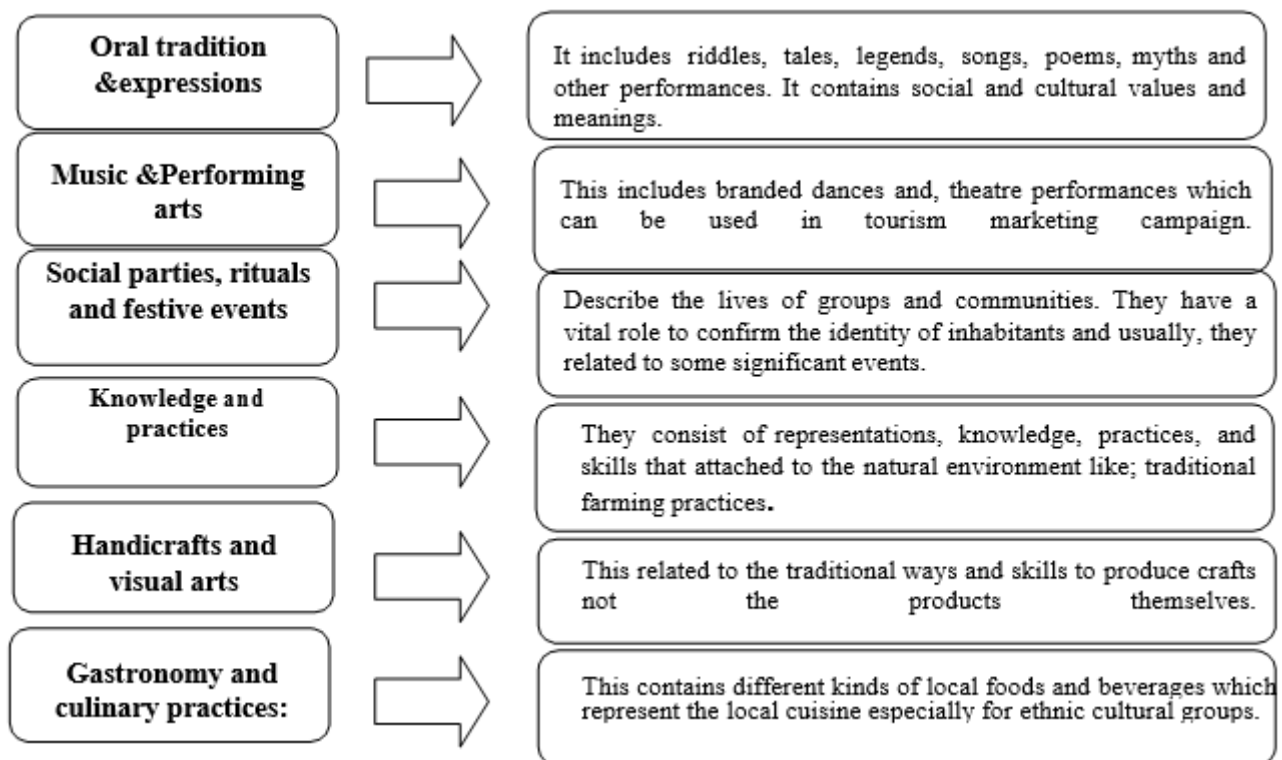
The study is divided into three main sections. The **first one** is concerned with the theoretical background of the topic. In the **second one**, the methodology, results ,and discussion are presented, and **finally**, the third section highlights the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH)

In last decades, the term “cultural heritage” has become different in its content. So it doesn't include just physical elements such as monuments and objects but it also includes intangible elements such as customs, traditions or living expressions which are transmitted from ancestors to descendants (UNESCO, 2003a).

In the 2003 UNESCO convention, which was about safeguarding intangible cultural heritage, it defined (ICH) as “The practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artifacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage”(UNESCO,2003b,p.2) .Intangible cultural heritage takes many forms. Article 2.2 of UNESCO's Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003) defines intangible cultural heritage as it takes five forms (Figure 1)



**Figure 1: Intangible cultural heritage forms**

Source: Researcher adopted from UNESCO, 2003d; UNWTO, 2013

UNESCO is playing a vital role in order to safeguard ICH. Since 1952 UNESCO efforts have begun and they are continuous till now. The role of ICH has increased after realizing that many traditions and customs in several local communities all around the world were lost and disappeared especially in the globalization era (Bakar et al., 2014) .Moreover, The UNESCO convention of safeguarding ICH and its international decree was a fundamental step and many countries signed it, others have not yet; but since then the protection of ICH became extremely important and many researchers and practitioners gave more attention to this topic.)Mackinnon, 2012)

It's very important to preserve and document all forms of ICH, especially for developing countries which are famous for their richness and diversity of ICH that give them a unique identity particularly among tourist destinations. In this context, sustainability should be a vital principle in safeguarding and documenting ICH to make it accessible to present and future generations. (Perera and Chandra, 2014).

Furthermore, The UNESCO convention of 2003 mentioned to the role of indigenous communities and groups in transmitting, safeguarding, maintenance and recreation of ICH, without their support and help nobody can decide the value of this heritage (Cominelli and Greffe, 2012). Thus, UNESCO (2003) confirmed the importance of protecting the practitioners of the ICH as it's so difficult to transmit it without those practitioners. So, safeguarding ICH not requires just attention towards the heritage itself but also the craftsmen and artists (Bakar et al., 2014). Nowadays, documenting ICH is becoming simple and easy due to the technological revolution and multimedia development, so professionals can use digital tools to capture voices or videos of daily life rituals. The digital tools for example, tablets, digital cameras and smart phones became effective tools for recording. On the other hand, community members can make an inventory and make it available online. (Perera and Chandra, 2014; Jarvis, 2012)

## **Storytelling and Tourism**

Since 1990's storytelling has gained much more attention in different sciences and fields, education, psychology, sociology, management and marketing. (Akgün et al., 2015). Storytelling can be defined in many ways, many researchers put different definitions for storytelling in general and in tourism in particular. Storytelling is defined as to “share knowledge or experience through a story and episode to deliver a complicated idea, concept, and casual relation” (Lee and Shin, 2015, p.281). It has been defined as “a narrative about a character overcoming some obstacle to achieve some important goal” (Haven, 2007, p.100). Jim Signorelli explains that he has found over eighty two definitions of the word storytelling; he mentioned that "it's hard to give the exact definition of the word because people have a slightly different understanding of the word". (Signorelli 2014, p.28). The attractive story can draw the attention of the audiences by immersion and they can become a part of it through participation (Ferraro, 2016).

Storytelling as a communication tool has different forms depending on the context, so it doesn't take an oral form only, but it can be in a printed one like a novel and in screen forms such as a movie or a video (Lee and Shin, 2015). In other words, it is a tool for transmitting and interpreting experiences in a way that attracts those you are sharing the story with. As well as, an evolutionary mechanism that helped keep our ancestors alive. Additionally, storytelling has been defined in the context of marketing as a tool of stimulating consumer loyalty through emotional connection or entertainment (Choi, 2016).

Stories have an impressive role in live; they inspire people and creating the human and emotional connection. Stories can transfer the values, the history and the culture to the future generations. They can, further, be utilized to introduce a new topic or a complicated idea and sharing it with different types of audiences (Mossberg, 2008; Geneske and Hattaway, 2014).

On the other hand, there is an international trend in the "experience industry". This trend depends on creating a story related to the business as a whole or a part of it. This may be appropriate for a single product, an organization or a destination. Thus, it was clearly shown that there are several types of stories for example, advertising stories; stories about organizations or products, or destinations such as branding stories; consumer stories and traditional stories which include folktale, legend, and myth (Mossberg, 2008; Miller, 2011).



Furthermore, storytelling in tourism industry was examined from different points of views, ***firstly, storytelling which related to tourism destination***; Chronis mentioned that "the story can transform places into attractive tourism destinations" (Chronis, 2012, p. 445). Therefore, storytelling may offer unique competitive advantages and a tool to create storyscapes in tourism destinations. Moreover, it can create memorable and authentic tourist experiences which concentrated on stimulate visitor's senses such as seeing, smelling, hearing and tasting. In addition, it may create conditions for cooperation among destination stakeholders (Jensen and Prebensen, 2015).

Storytelling can also be used for tourism destination development, Mossberg, Therkelse, Huijbens, Björk and Olssen (2010) developed a theoretical model which shows that stories can form essential elements of destination marketing and development (Lund, 2012). There are many cases which depend on storytelling for developing destinations e.g. organizing events based on stories and myths (Mossberg, 2008). On the other hand, tourism storytelling can reinforce the destination's value through encouraging tourism activities as well as creating new value which depends mainly on the developed individualized experience process concerning a story of a tourist attraction (Choi, 2016).

***Secondly, the storytelling of tourists***; nowadays a lot of attention has been given to the storytelling of tourist. Many tourists became storytellers about the destinations they had visited and the experiences they had lived. Customers started to share their stories and experiences in different forms of travel blogs such as videos, photos, and texts about their travel experiences through social media. Popular websites like Booking.com, Trivago and Trip Advisor started to use storytelling in the form of consumer reviews these reviews can be considered as word of mouth recommendations and always have their influences on perceptions and reputation (Ferraro, 2016; Lund, 2012)

As a result of the technological revolution, digital storytelling became a new form of narratives which depends on multimedia technologies but in a simple way. Digital stories are small scaled, they last between two and five minutes (Alcantud et al., 2014). They are taking various forms such as simple text, virtual and real Guides/storytellers, audio narration, movies and interactive forms (Lee and Shin, 2015).

This kind of stories should consist of some essential elements which are: actors ;place; time ; the objective of the story ; sensory elements : smells, flavors, colors , sounds, emotions of all participants ; objects such as clothing; narrator's point of view (who is telling the story? ; narrator's tone of voice, attitude, style ;quality of the images , video and other multimedia elements; finally, the stories should be short, simple ,unique and clear with easy language (Alcantud et al., 2014 ; Albom ,2016)

Travel, tourism and adventure are the main concerns of digital stories. They can be in several forms such as, stories about cultural events, a personal experience in travel, places, a restaurant, a heritage site and other different forms. Thus, it can be said that digital stories can facilitate the relation between outsiders and local community; they can create a better cross-cultural understanding (Alcantud et al., 2014). Furthermore, many virtual cultural heritage sites depend on digital storytelling which often represents stories about event and characters related to these sites (Lee and Shin, 2015).

### **Storytelling as a Tool for Safeguarding and Marketing the Intangible Cultural heritage**

In recent years, many researchers and academics recognized the significant role of storytelling in marketing and branding either for a product, a service or a destination.

According to its vital role, many researchers mentioned to the necessity of using storytelling as a marketing approach (Akgün et al., 2015). Storytelling is a significant component of modern marketing that can improve the product or service when used effectively (Ferraro, 2016). Furthermore, storytelling can put the information in a new form to be memorable, meaningful and understandable. It is an effective technique to shape brands and to create an emotional investment in a product or service (Aaker and Smith, 2011; Akgüna et al., 2015) Otherwise, storytelling does not only create an emotional response; it also gives the

brand a personality. Baker (2012) claims that storytelling is the new tool of branding because the consumer becomes more attached and connected to various digital platforms. Additionally, storytelling, can be channeled through several communication tools (i.e. stories, social media, videos and films, reviews and word of mouth) that have a vital role in a content marketing strategy which gives life to brands and driving market changes (Fog et al., 2005; Akgüna et al., 2015; Ferraro, 2016).

On the other hand, using stories in branding creates a strong connection which can build a long lasting customer – brand relationship. In other words, stories have the ability to engage people and communicate a message and this is a very important tool for the marketer (Ferraro, 2016).

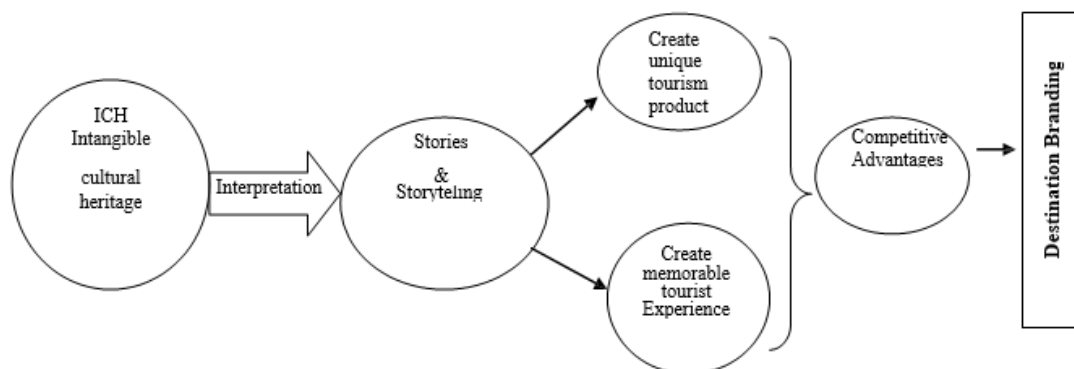
As well as, the importance of storytelling as a branding notion, the attention of storytelling has been increased as its vital role in tourism marketing.

As mentioned in tourism literature, storytelling has two significant functions, firstly, it can create a unique competitive advantage for the destination secondly, it can give the tourist a memorable experience (Mossberg, 2008). In addition, utilizing storytelling approach particularly in tourism has created the ripple effect through social networking technologies (Akgüna et al., 2015).

Preserving and safeguarding intangible cultural heritage has faced many challenges and problems. Accordingly, there is a necessity to balance between collecting, documenting and archiving ICH and the ability of local communities and tradition bearers to use, reshape, share and transmit it. Since several years ago, intangible heritage had been shared within communities at an informal level, passed on by word of mouth. In fact; it summarizes many meanings and concepts of identity, history and culture (Jarvis, 2012).

Therefore, stories have a powerful effect as they can turn the intangible attractions in destinations into tangible tourist experience creators. Nowadays, tourists behaviors have been changed, they are always looking for secret and myths stories to feel immersed within the local culture of the tourism destination. As a result, it becomes very important for any tourism destination to have attractive, positive stories and effective storytelling channels (Yavuz et al., 2016).

Accordingly, developments particularly in place branding clarify that the storytelling and ICH can play an important role for destinations, they can represent a value added which enables the creation of a sense of place and identity for both residents and tourists (Mitsche, 2013). Additionally, storytelling can provide many different ways of seeing the same attractions in several contexts and it can shed light on the hidden and intangible meanings to attract new tourists. In this perspective, effective interpretation through storytelling has an important role in safeguarding and marketing ICH (Figure 2); it should involve the people who use spaces, local communities, tourists and stakeholders (PÎNZARU, 2012; Mitsche, et.al, 2013)



**Figure 2:** Storytelling as a tool for marketing ICH  
**Source:** Researcher

## **METHODOLOGY**

Qualitative analysis is considered as a suitable way in order to understand life styles, stories, people's behaviors, and changes in social life (Yavuz et al., 2016). Thus, a qualitative approach was employed in this research, based on adapting semi-structured interviews to achieve the study objectives and to answer the research questions. The qualitative method was used primarily to gain detailed information from the interviewees. Besides, open-ended questions were used as the nature of open-ended questions enables the interviewees to give answers that are most important to them (Ferraro, 2016). 25 semi-structured interviews were conducted in Nubia city, especially the Nubian village of Gharb Soheil as this area wasn't affected directly by the construction of High Dam in the 1960s. It still remains an authentic Nubian community has its own intangible cultural heritage and it was recently chosen by many travel agencies as an important part within package tours to southern Egypt.

The interviews were carried out by the researcher and trained postgraduate students from January 2016 until October 2016 in Nubia city and in the Nubian club in Alexandria. They were conducted with the local community, as well, as native tour guides and officials in Aswan Governorate. Initially, all interviews were transcribed into written material in order to start the thematic analysis. The researcher used thematic coding as a tool for analyzing and interpreting the interviews.

The interviews revolved around **four main themes**; Firstly, the Nubian ICH as a tourist attraction. Secondly, the challenges and risks that threaten the Nubian ICH. Thirdly, the projects and initiatives that interested in documenting and safeguarding Nubian intangible cultural heritage. Finally, the proposed stories represented the Nubian ICH through storytelling. These stories showed the most important characters, places and objects in Nubia. Moreover, they clarified the meanings and experiences which are transmitted to visitors by Nubia stories. The data reflected other sub-themes under each main theme. Next section will display briefly all these themes.

### **The Nubia City**

Nubia was the region extending from the south of Aswan in Egypt till Dongola in the Northern Sudan. Historically, Nubians - who had lived there for thousands of years-, have long been considered a distinct population especially in their physical features and their culture (Elcheikh, 2013). In the past, the region was famous for its natural resources and moderate weather, these characteristics motivated many people to stay there. Additionally, distinctive early settled cultures flourished in this region (El Aali, 2003).

In Nubia, there are more than fifty Nubian villages, each village marked by their own history. Nubians are speaking two different languages Kenzi and Fadicca and they couldn't understand each other. As a result of the forced displacement that Nubians faced since the early twentieth century due to the construction of dams near Aswan, very few Nubian villages still exist in their original locations. The original villages that do still exist are located near Aswan city and West Aswan (Robinson, 2004 & Nicholas, 2017).

As a result of constructing the High Dam, Nubians today are divided into two groups. Therefore, the research focused on the Nubian communities of Southern Egypt (in Gharb Soheil). These communities are so related to the tourism facilities and activities where Nubian heritage and culture are displayed (Elcheikh, 2013).

Gharb Soheil is situated on the western bank of the Nile, approximately 15 Km south of Aswan. This village is Kenuzi Nubian village; its name due to the island of Soheil opposite to it. Gharb Soheil was not affected by the High Dam as it is situated to its north (Abdel Meguid, 2008).

The culture of the Nubians – as a unique ethnic group - has long been a focal point of scholarly interest to cultural anthropologists, archaeologists, architects and urban planners alike. Although the archaeological sites and artifacts, Nubian culture has become a tourist attraction and it's both tangible and intangible heritage have been increasingly lost (Elcheikh, 2013).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Firstly: The Nubian intangible cultural heritage

Nubians mentioned through interviews that Nubia city is rich of its ICH but majority of them confirmed that many elements of their ICH has been lost due to displacement and they are doing the maximum efforts to safeguard the rest . They classified their ICH into **main three domains**:

- **Nubian language**

The Nubians explained that there are two distinctive dialects in Egypt and the Sudan, which Define two different Nubian groups: Kenzi (Matoki) and Fadija (Mahas). They referred during interviews that the Nubian language is the most intangible element facing threats due to globalization and modernity. They confirmed that the Nubian dialects were mainly spoken but unwritten since the middle Ages.

**Table 1: Classification of intangible cultural heritage in Nubia city**

Language	Customs and traditions	Traditional crafts.	Festivals	Performing arts(dances ,music and songs)	Stories
- El- Kenzya. - El –Fadyga.	-Child christening -Agriculture Practices. <b>- Customary rituals.</b> (Marriage, child Birth, death rituals) <b>- Food rituals</b> (Such : Gakod - alskhanh - Aldokh bread - bread solar - Alkhmarit-yakhny - Alsorad - Aloslaad- poetic milk - aseeda - Akarmdid - Jerasah - Alobray -alcabd- Alobrigg). <b>-Crocodile breeding</b> (to expel Evil spirits)	<b><u>Most of Nubian handicrafts made from reeds and river palm leaves</u></b> -KUTA TABAGA(colorful spread mat) LASHIRA (field mat) -Afro trays , laundry baskets -Tablemate -Silver and Brass Jewelry. -Leather and Bread Jewelry. -Buffalo horn Jewelry. -Precious stone Jewelry. -Colorful Bags. -Wicker making. - Henna drawing -Women cloths (Gegar). - Men cloths (Glabab –Amma)	- Religious' ceremony. -Sibir al-lubiyya (Festival of beans). -Festival of Antelop (At the end of rainy season). -Kambala festival (for harvest season). -Festival of painting (drawing the Nubians houses).	<b>Music instruments</b> -Tar, Kisir, Tanboura and Noggara  <b>Nubian dances</b> interaction with the audience, through singing and clapping .e.g. - Kenoz (Kaff dance)  - Fadyga (Aragee dance)	<b><u>Most of stories related to displacement</u></b> -Alblachon Swarm. -Dongola. -Shamandoura. -Andomando.

**Source:** Researcher depending on the interviews

- **Folklore and Music**

They emphasized that Nubian ceremonies are usually accompanied with music, such as aragid (for weddings) and zikr (religious festivities). They are traditionally based on the performers' interaction with the audience, through singing and clapping e.g. kaff dance), and accompanied by their traditional instruments: tar, kisir ,tanboura and noggara.

- **Handicrafts**

They mentioned that they were famous for their handicrafts (necklaces and accessories), colorful bags and hats. They confirmed that some of these traditional crafts still remain till now and using them in their daily life and in their house. The Nubians explained the diversity of their intangible culture heritage as follows (Table1)

### **Secondly: The Risks and Challenges that Facing the Nubian ICH**

Interviews with Nubians people clarified that they are facing many risks that threaten their culture, customs, traditions and their source of livelihood, the risks include the following:

#### **1- The Forced Nubians Displacement (Relocation Nubian Community)**

The majority of the interviewees mentioned that displacement had the most harmful effects on Nubian life in many aspects. They clarified that during the 1960s, they were forcibly displaced from their homelands as a result of the construction of the Aswan High Dam. According to their point of view this shift in place caused many changes in their traditional practices, their economies, as well as, in their cultural identity and resource of income. It appeared through personal interviews that the majority of them had different point of views towards the displacement. Older people saw this displacement as a reason for losing their language, customs, traditions and ethics, although the younger Nubians found it as a mean for better education. In addition, the interviewees explained that the Egyptian government relocated around 40 Nubians villages in new houses at Kom Ombo 50 km north of Aswan.

#### **The impacts of displacement on the economic activity and the Nubian intangible cultural heritage**

The interviewees explained that they were divided according to the experience of displacement in the 1960s into two groups; some Nubian villages were not affected by this displacement and they remained without any changes and some other Nubian villages were forced to relocate three to ten kilometers from the Nile. According to the Nubians point of view, the Egyptian government didn't respect the Nubian Identity as a distinctive ethnic group. Due to this forced displacement, many changes accrued in their economic activity and in their culture and traditions.

- **Impacts on economic activity:**

All the interviewees confirmed that they are so attached to the River Nile as there are many aspects of their life related to their existence beside the Nile. The Nubians emphasized that the agriculture was the main economic activity and after displacement some changes happened in the economic structure and they moved to work in other jobs. As a result, the traditional practices of agriculture

have been endangered as they no longer practicing them. So, according to their point of view the forced displacement had negative effects on their economic activity.

• **Impacts on Nubian intangible cultural heritage:**

During the interviews, Nubians confirmed that the displacement was the serious risk which affected the extinction of their intangible cultural heritage (ICH). They mentioned that they lost their costumes and traditions due to the displacement as most of their intangible cultural heritage was related to their existence beside the Nile. They said that "The River was an important part of our lives as it was the focal point of many of our daily activities: communication, ceremonies of marriage, death, birth, and many other private and community rituals". They referred to their "sense of loss" especially after this shift.

**2- Internal and external Nubian labor migration**

The majority of the interviewees explained as a result of displacement they decided to leave their city searching for a better job. They divided into groups; some of them stayed in cities, such as Cairo and Alexandria and many of them living outside of Egypt in the Gulf, Europe, and the United States. The interviewees emphasized further that there is a young generation of Nubians who have never even visited "Old Nubia". They confirmed that this migration created a conflict: Nubians searching for urban life, meanwhile they are thinking back to their homeland to save their identity. Finally, they referred that, this movement means less opportunities to transmit the cultural traditions through generations.

**3-Tourism**

Nubians confirmed during the interviews that the tourism industry has caused critical changes in their culture and lifestyle. They referred that the number of tourists has been increased especially when Nubian houses and villages became a part of their program.

Additionally, they mentioned that the construction of the Abu Simbel airport was a reason for many changes in Nubia. Nubians confirmed that they started from several years ago to benefit from their cultural heritage to attract and accommodate tourists. They clarified that tourism has its effects on Nubian economic activity and on Nubian Intangible cultural heritage.

All the interviewees stated that due to the growth of tourism in Gharb Soheil, many Nubians left their traditional sectors such as fishing and agriculture and they depended on tourism as a source of income. They worked in some jobs related to tourism facilities such as souvenirs shops, hotels, café and restaurants, bazaars, camels, feluccas, taxis, brokers, Nubian houses, and folklore dancing performances. Furthermore, they indicated that they used to host researchers and anthropologists in their houses, and gradually they rented rooms for tourists.

Finally, the Nubians confirmed that the tourism has its impact on their intangible cultural heritage especially the traditional practices in building and Nubian handicrafts. For example, they mentioned that they made some changes in Nubian architecture in order to adapt it with the tourist function. They stated that they added various elements and extra shapes in the design. Above of this, they didn't use the traditional symbols in decorating. So, in their views the traditional Nubians decorative arts became more fake and commercial.

On the other hand, the Nubians explained that many handicrafts disappeared as a result of displacement. They added that tourism was a reason for many changes in the traditional shapes and designs of handicrafts, additionally; the shops in Gharb Soheil are selling Chinese-made souvenirs.

### **Thirdly, the projects and initiatives that interested in documenting and safeguarding Nubian intangible cultural heritage**

Through personal interviews, it was clearly shown that Nubians facing difficulties in safeguarding their intangible cultural heritage and identity, especially after the forced displacement. They also mentioned that the government did not help them to survive and recover their rights and their land and heritage lost.

Although, they explained that there are few governmental projects and some individual initiatives for documenting and safeguarding ICH .These initiatives depend mainly on the local community and some nongovernmental associations. These are:

#### **1- Nubian Museum**

The officials in Aswan Governorate stated that the Nubian Museum was opened in 1997; it was built as a powerful presentation of the UNESCO's international campaign in order to safeguard and preserve the Nubian identity. It presents many aspects of daily life in old Nubia. Furthermore, they clarified that the museum includes an area for outdoor exhibits and activities which allow presenting the authentic Nubian performances and sometimes hosting handicraft workshops. In their point of view, the Museum is one of the most important projects for safeguarding and marketing the Nubian culture and makes it sustained.

#### **2- The Public Nubian Club**

It's clearly shown through interviews with the officials of the club that it is a project that aims to gather the Nubian people who became separated after the forced displacement. Its main objective is to train young Nubians in order to collect, document and digitize their heritage especially the intangible heritage. Young Nubians confirmed that the Nubian club helps them to arrange interviews with experts from the older Nubian community to discuss and listen to the old stories about Nubia.

#### **3- Nubia Tube Program and Media**

They mentioned that the Egyptian media has only one Egyptian series called "Bakkar". This is the only series which talked about Nubia and Nubian life, and it had a significant impact upon children and young people.

The Nubians highlighted that they have a creative initiative to document, preserve and market their heritage, this project called "Nuba tube". It started in 2015 aims to empower the Nubian minority to keep their special identity through social media and to improve Nubian kids and new generations to rebuild their own identity and language. The Nubians explained that "Nuba tube" broadcasting daily in Nubian language is translated into

several languages. They added that this channel includes special program (Nubian women, historical shows, cultural, documentary, literary, and heritage arts).

Finally, the Nubians clarified that most of the efforts for documenting all aspects of the intangible heritage depend mainly on Nubians themselves. Additionally, through interviews with officials in the investment authority and tourism promotion in Aswan, it became clear that there are no future projects or initiatives from the Egyptian government to preserve the Nubian ICH.

#### **Fourthly: The proposed stories which can safeguard and market the Nubian intangible cultural heritage through storytelling.**

During the community survey, the Nubians identified the most important stories being told to tourists about Nubia. They are composed of a blend of tangible and intangible aspects of the city. In their point of view, these stories can transmit values and ideas about Nubian's unique identity and can market their intangible cultural heritage. They explained the importance of telling more stories of loss and put them in priority. These stories fall into a number of categories or themes which can be labeled as "historical" , "intangible cultural heritage " , "architecture" , "gastronomy " , "tourism" and "entertainment " ( Jeannotte,2016) as follow :-

- 1-**Historical event stories:** stories about Nubians and displacement Nubians—early civilization. Stories about the life of the Nubians before and after displacement, and how their lives have become after this forced displacement.
- 2-**Cultural group Stories:** stories about who is Nubian? The physical and personal characteristics of Nubians as an ethnic group have its own identity and culture.
- 3- **Nubian handicrafts and craftsmen story**
- 4- **Nubian language and delicates story**
- 5- **Nubian local and traditional food stories**
- 6- **Oral traditions and customs stories** related to wedding, death, birth and other daily lifestyle traditions.
- 7- **Local cultural activity and arts stories:** Stories about Nubian festivals and events, story shows Nubian music songs and Nubian dance.
- 8- **Places and neighborhoods stories:** stories about Gharb Soheil and west of Aswan,story about kom ombo “New Nubia”
- 9- **Story about the Nubia Museum**
- 10- **Story about the traditional ways of construction the Nubian house.**

If these stories are developed and promoted in storytelling context, they will be an effective tool for documenting, safeguarding and marketing Nubian intangible cultural heritage. They will promote the most prominent characters in Nubia stories, also they will mention about the most famous places related to symbolic meaning in Nubian cultural. Furthermore, they can clarify the most important meanings and experiences which will be transmitted to visitors through these stories.



Finally, from the previous results it can be concluded that the Nubia city is famous for its diversity and richness of ICH which can be utilized in innovative ways to attract more tourists. Moreover, the Nubian ICH is facing many threats and risks which are mostly related to tourism, modernization, displacement and labor migration. It was clearly shown that most initiatives of safeguarding the Nubian ICH depend mainly on the Nubian's efforts.

This confirms what UNESCO convention stated in 2003 "the indigenous communities and groups have a vital role in safeguarding and transmitting ICH". Additionally, there is a shortage in government's role to document and safeguard the Nubian ICH and it usually deals with Nubians as a minority group and didn't give them much attention.

On the other hand, there is a great potential to utilize the Nubian ICH and its stories in creating a competitive advantage for Nubia and support the destination branding. This is consistent with the study of Jensen and Prebensen (2015). Also, the community survey clarified the most important stories that help to define Nubian's unique identity and this is consistent with the opinion of (Elcheikh, 2013) who emphasized the importance of the community based stories in destination branding.

### **How to Apply Storytelling as a Tool for Safeguarding and Marketing the Nubian Intangible Cultural Heritage**

The study applies a modified theoretical model adopted by the researcher depending on the theoretical model in (Mossberg, et al., 2010). The model sheds light on the proposed ways in which storytelling activities can be practiced. This can lead to safeguard and market Nubian ICH by organizing an event depending mainly on the storytelling concept. The model clarified how different stakeholders can cooperate together for using storytelling as a tool to make Nubian ICH more sustainable. The authentic story of the Nubian ICH can integrate the storytelling concept in arranging the event as a whole. The arrangements will be planned around one theme for servicescape, so that the tourist experience will include various senses not just seeing and hearing but also smell the place, taste local food and touch handicrafts. The event will be held in Gharb Sohil, South of Aswan and Kom Ombo. The choice of place will depend on the event theme and the ICH that will introduce.

This model focuses on seven main elements in order to prepare and apply storytelling event in Nubia city: objectives of storytelling event, types of stakeholders involved; stages of the storytelling process; outcome of the storytelling process; destination development dimension, tasks before and during storytelling event and finally, evaluation of storytelling event (Table 2). **Table 2: How to Apply Storytelling as a Tool for Safeguarding and Marketing the Nubian**

### Intangible Cultural Heritage

Objectives of storytelling event	Stakeholders Participants (local / non local) (public / private)	Storytelling Process	Outcome of storytelling process (year 1, 2, 3...)	Destination development dimensions	Tasks before and during storytelling event	Evaluation of storytelling event
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To give a feel for a period in Nubian history</li> <li>-To provide added value to Nubian intangible cultural heritage and document it in an innovative way</li> <li>-To provide an entertaining performance for tourist , youth and children</li> <li>-To promote Nubia city as an authentic destination and create new brand</li> <li>-To inspire Nubians and make them proud of their ICH</li> </ul>	<b><u>A. Initiators &amp; Decision Makers</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ministry of culture</li> <li>- Ministry of Tourism</li> <li>- The Egyptian Supreme Council of Antiquities</li> <li>- The Aswan Governorate</li> <li>- Local community (Nubians)</li> <li>- Nubia Museum</li> <li>- Local non- profit Associations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b><u>The duration of the event</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>One off</li> <li>Drop – in</li> <li>Structured</li> </ul> </li> <li>- <b><u>The place of the event</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b><u>Indoors</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(Nubia museum, Aswan cultural center, Nubian house)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b><u>Outdoors</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(Gharb Soheil , west of Aswan )</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> <li>- <b><u>The way of audience participation</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Formal</li> <li>-Relaxed</li> <li>-Large audiences</li> <li>-Small groups (workshops)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b><u>Further concept development</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Revive GharbSohail</li> <li>- Increasing number of visitors to Nubian city</li> <li>- Increasing knowledge and skills in the Nubian community</li> <li>- Native guiding innovation</li> <li>- Nubian artist involvement</li> </ul> </li> <li>- <b><u>Marketing output</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Good media coverage from different channels and press</li> <li>- Promote for Nubia as authentic destination</li> <li>- Financial sustainability for local community</li> </ul> </li> <li>- <b><u>Inter-organization outcome</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cooperation among</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b><u>Economic:</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Increased visitations during summer season.</li> <li>- Extended season.</li> <li>- Destination brand</li> <li>- Theming of the region</li> <li>- Increase the number of work places</li> <li>- Municipal collaboration</li> <li>- Sustainable business</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b><u>The week before</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Confirm booking</li> <li>- Confirm arrangements for payment</li> <li>- Check travel arrangements</li> </ul> </li> <li>- <b><u>During the event</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Welcome and orientate storyteller and tourists</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b><u>After the event</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Give the storyteller feedback</li> <li>- Forward visitor comments</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

	<b><u>B. Steering committee</u></b> - The Aswan Governorate - The Nubia museum - Tourism Board - Private companies	<b><u>The number of audience Participation</u></b> - None - A little - Some - A lot <b><u>Sort of participation</u></b> - Music - Art - Story building <b><u>Kind of stories will be told</u></b> - Folk tales - Legends - Myths - Historical stories	Nubian actors and storytellers - Knowledge and skills transfer - Developing new networks - New ways of using existing local resources and use of new ones	<b><u>Social and culture:</u></b> - Preserve the Nubian identity - Training programs for locals. - Local proud. - Image and regional identity. - Employ locals - Growing awareness of the Nubia's potential as a tourist destination - Community tourism development - Safeguarding the Nubian ICH		
--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Objectives of storytelling event	Stakeholders Participants (local / non local) (public / private)	Storytelling Process	Outcome of storytelling process (year 1, 2, 3...)	Destination development dimensions	Tasks before and during storytelling event	Evaluation of storytelling event
	<b><u>C. Actors</u></b> - Hotels in GharbSoheil and Gharb Aswan - Restaurants - Tourists - Boats & feluccas - Bazars - Folklore dancing performances - Nubian native guides	<b><u>Agenda setting</u></b> - One main theme –e.g. the "displacement story" - Arrangements carefully selected by the event committee. - Stories identified by Nubians - The Stories are selected in terms of relevance to the site using Nubian categories		<b><u>Environmental</u></b> - Sustainable tourism. - Storytelling activities will make the tourists more environmentally aware and change behavior patterns in destination - New facilities and infrastructure will be developed		
	<b><u>Types of Storytellers</u></b> - A local storyteller - A storyteller of traditional tales - A costumed storyteller - An historical storyteller - A performance storyteller (Ex:Nubia Museum, Nubian native guides, Nubian Volunteers, Nubian Musicians, Nubian Lecturers, Elder People , Tourism services providers)	<b><u>Target groups:</u></b> - Tourists (Domestics and foreign) - Nubians of all ages <b><u>Design of storytelling concept</u></b> - One overall storyline - use of the unique Arrangements planned - A logo was designed for the event related to its nature - Nubian Souvenirs - Media contacts - Internal/external Communication				

Objectives of storytelling event	Stakeholders Participants (local / non local) (public / private)	Storytelling Process	Outcome of storytelling Process (year 1, 2, 3...)	Destination development dimensions	Tasks before and during storytelling event	Evaluation of storytelling event
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Web site for the event Servicescape in all Nubia related to the event (in hotels, food , Nubian houses, souvenirs, transportation)</li> <li>- Companies can design their own servicescape</li> <li>- Conceptualize the storytelling approach focus on servicescape design, packaging and market communication</li> </ul>				
		<p><b><u>Implementation</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Individual stories Following the main story</li> <li>- Exhibits</li> <li>- concerts</li> <li>- Workshops</li> <li>- Guided tours</li> <li>- Free walking tours</li> <li>- Theming the city</li> <li>- Implementing the story</li> </ul>				

**Source:** Researcher adopted from (Mossberg, et al., 2010).

With regard to the proposed model, it demonstrates the potential for innovative marketing and safeguarding Nubian ICH through a storytelling approach. Additionally, it clarifies the importance to create a narrative environment where cooperation between the local community, stakeholders and tourists is an important issue to ensure the sustainability of storytelling process.

The model identifies the stakeholders' participants (locals, non -locals, public and private sectors) resources and activities which should be combined and structured in a storytelling process to support the application of the concept and integrate it through decision makers, steering committee and actors.

As storytelling is mostly related to local communities, so Nubians, public tourism organizations and local municipalities are the most important stakeholders in organizing such event. Furthermore, public and private participants (e.g. restaurants, hotels, native guides, attractions, and museums) have an effective role in introducing and marketing the stories. It was clearly shown that the storytelling activities can achieve several goals related to Nubia as a destination and others related to the inter- organizational relationships.

**This event will create several advantages according to the destination and companies' point of view such as:**

- The Nubia city and the themed companies through storytelling can be clearly visible in the destination marketing, this will support the branding.
- Putting local recourses and local industries together and presenting them in a new competitive way.
- This will give Nubia city a unique competitive advantage.
- Folklore, local history, traditions, myths, traditional practices will be a way of framing a destination, or telling its story. So this will strengthen the identity of Nubia as a destination and make it difficult for others to copy.
- It facilities the communication between companies through network established around a storyline. Accordingly they can develop new products.

Finally, the proposed model shows the importance of making this event sustainable to create a sustainable relationship between tourists and the destination not only before or during the event but also after the event to realize tourist's feedback and try to improve the weakness points.

In order to make this event sustainable, the steering committee should collaborate together to create the official event's website and updated it with the event's program, reviews, photos, films, additional information about , the folk museums , experiences, legends, stories., and YouTube sequences of many arrangements during the event period. The event will be considered as a promoting even which will depend mainly on culture, tourism, local trade and business.

From previous results and discussion it is obvious that the research questions have been answered and proven. The application of storytelling practices in Nubia can be considered as an innovative tool for safeguarding and marketing Nubian ICH. These practices can also wrap all the tourism products in Nubia and theme them through servicescape to create a memorable tourist experiences for tourists.

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper has examined the possibility of using storytelling as a tool for safeguarding and marketing the Nubian ICH. The literature reviews identified ICH and storytelling concepts. The Nubia city is rich with its ICH but unfortunately, most of it threatens by many risks especially after displacement. Hence, this paper depends on a modified theoretical model to explain the importance of stories and storytelling practices for safeguarding and marketing the Nubian ICH through organizing storytelling event. This event will create a competitive advantage for Nubia city and will reintroduce it among tourism destinations.

The results of this study have highlighted that storytelling has a great potential to safeguard and market Nubian ICH without freezing as stories can do it successfully and continuously. This can create an extraordinary context for interaction between visitors and storytellers. The results also revealed that the storytelling approach used for safeguarding and marketing Nubian ICH is a long term process. All stakeholders and all activities should be matched with the storyline. Also, the results have shown that stories can act as a visual and verbal symbol for packaging and branding activities, transportation, accommodation and dining. This means that they can transmit the attributes and values of a destination in several ways. So, marketing of Nubia city will become not just selling tourist products but the customers will be so interested to buy the stories behind the product.

This paper can be considered a starting point for further researches on “storytelling in destination branding” topic. Additionally, the study can be found useful for destination developer, destination brand managers, destination marketers, tourist guides and other practitioners. Based on the results obtained, the study raises the following recommendations.

**Firstly recommendations for government and official authorities:** They should take appropriate safeguarding measures through set up Committee which update and publish a List of Nubian ICH in need of urgent safeguarding and insert it in UNISCO safeguarding list. The Egyptian government should open a channel for a dialogue with Nubians and conduct the agreement with UNESCO to relocate Nubians to their lands. Furthermore, the local authorities should develop a variety of training programs and community-based workshops to provide practical training in cultural documentation, technical workshops on audio recording, interviewing techniques, oral history, and folk life festival planning especially for local heritage and non- governmental organizations engaged in ICH initiatives. Besides, they should create guidelines for the community members, conservation organizations and tourism agencies in order to improve the conservation of ICH among them. The government and municipality should provide suitable infrastructure for Nubians and improve the quality of tourism services. Also, there is an urgent need to develop educational programs to raise awareness for the safeguarding of the Nubian ICH and insert the Nubian's language to the school curriculum for Nubian's children.

**Secondly recommendations for destination marketers and destination brand managers:** they should apply storytelling as a new documenting, safeguarding and marketing tool for the Nubian ICH through several methods such as videos, short films, theatrical shows, songs, musicians and using them in promotion campaign. So the destination management organization must establish multidisciplinary group efforts in the tourism industry. Moreover, in order to make the Nubian stories more visualized, they can be used as a framework for organizing destination components like transport, hotels and restaurants. Finally, the marketers and managers should give much attention to develop new types of tourism in Nubia

city and encourage the travel agencies to organize tourism programs which depend mainly on community based tourism and event tourism.

## REFERENCES

- Aaker, J., Smith, A., (2010), *The Dragonfly Effect*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass – A Wiley Imprint, 19-107. [http://www.carlyeadler.com/writing/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/Aaker\\_excerpt.pdf](http://www.carlyeadler.com/writing/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/Aaker_excerpt.pdf)
- Abdel Meguid, O. (2008), The management of digitizing Nubian intangible heritage. Proceedings of the 11th international conference for Meroitic Studies, Vienna, 437-347
- Akgün, A., Halit , K., Ayar, H., &Ebru , E. (2015). 'The Influence of Storytelling Approach in Travel Writings on Readers' Empathy and Travel Intentions' ,*Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 207, 577-586.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.10.129>
- Albom,M., (2016), Telling Your Story, Visually In *a guide to storytelling for non- profits, Stories Worth Telling*, Canada.
- Alcantud ,M., Ricart,V., &Signes, C. (2014),„Share your experience“. Digital storytelling in English for tourism',*Ibérica*, 27 , 185-204
- Bakar, A. A., Mariana, M. O., Syahriah, B., &Mansor, I. (2014),' Analysis on Community Involvement Level in Intangible Cultural Heritage: Malacca cultural community' ,*Procedia-Social Behavioral Sciences* , 286 - 297 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.10.062>
- Baker, E. (2012), Telling a story B&TMagazine.
- Choi, S. S. (2016),' A Study on Effect of Tourism Storytelling of Tourism Destination Brand Value and Tourist Behavioral Intentions', *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 9(46) , 1-6 DOI: [10.17485/ijst/2016/v9i46/107387](https://doi.org/10.17485/ijst/2016/v9i46/107387)
- Chronis, A. (2012b),'Tourists as story-builders: Narrative construction at a heritage museum'. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 29(5), 444–459.
- Cominelli, F., & Greffe, X. (2012), ' Intangible cultural heritage: safeguarding for Creativity'*City, Culture and Society*, 3, 245-250<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ccs.2012.10.003>
- El Aali, S. (2003),The Aswan High Dam Case, (Unpublished T.Scudder Manuscript) Section One
- Elcheikh, Z.(2013). Cultural Tourism Planning Impact on Saving Identity and Economic Development. Master thesis, [https://iusd.asu.edu.eg/wpcontent/uploads/2015/11/1stInt\\_Elcheikh1.pdf](https://iusd.asu.edu.eg/wpcontent/uploads/2015/11/1stInt_Elcheikh1.pdf)
- Ferraro, A. (2016), Storytelling in Marketing Tourism Products. VAASAN AMMATIKORKEAKOULU, University of applied studies, Degree Program in Tourism. <http://urn.fi/URN:NBN:fi:amk-2016121420286>
- Fog,K., Budtz,C., &Yakaboyle, B.(2005),*Storytelling: Branding in Practice*, Springer, Berlin.
- Geneske, J., & Hattaway, D. (2014), Digital storytelling for social impact.Stanford Social InnovationReview<https://assets.rockefellerfoundation.org/app/uploads/20140506171356/Digital-Storytelling-for-Social-Impact.pdf>
- Have, K. (2007),'Story Proof: The Science behind the Startling Power of Story',*Libraries Unlimited*, 99-132. <http://site.ebrary.com/id/10214046?ppg=99>
- Jarvis, D. (2012), Challenges in the community conservation of Intangible Cultural Heritage in Newfoundland and Labrador, Prepared for Documentation of ICH as a tool for community's safeguarding activities. *The First Intensive Researchers Meeting on Communities and the 2003 Convention*, Tokyo Japan. [http://www.mun.ca/ich/ICH\\_hurdles\\_and\\_challenges.pdf](http://www.mun.ca/ich/ICH_hurdles_and_challenges.pdf)
- Jeannotte, M. (2016),' Story-telling about place: Engaging citizens in cultural mapping', *Cit, Culture and Society*, 7, 35-41
- Jensen, Ø.,&Prebensen, N. (2015),'Innovation and Value Creation in Experience-based Tourism',*Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*,(15), 1-8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2015.1066093>



- Lee, Y., & Shin, W. (2015), 'Marketing tradition-bound product through storytelling: a case study of a Japanese sake brewery', *Service Business*, 9(2), 281–295. doi:10.1007/s11628-013-0227-5
- Lund, N.F. (2012), The application of the Hollywood storytelling formula to destination. *The Destination Branding & Marketing IV Conference proceedings*, Cardiff, Wales
- Mackinnon, R. (2012). The UNESCO convention for the safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage and its implications for sustain culture in Nova Scotia In M. L. Stefano, P. Davis and G. Corsane, (ed.) *Safeguarding intangible cultural heritage*, Woodbridge, Boydell Press.
- Mitsche, N., Vogt, F., Knox, D., Cooper, I., Lombardi, P., & Ciaff, D. (2013), 'Intangibles: Enhancing access to cities' cultural heritage through interpretation', *International Journal of Culture, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*, 7(1): 68-77 <https://doi.org/10.1108/17506181311301381>
- Mossberg, L. (2008), 'Extraordinary experiences through storytelling', *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 8 (3), 195–210. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15022250802532443>
- Mossberg, L., Therkelsen, H., Huijbens, E., Björk & Olsson, A. (2010), *Storytelling and Destination Development: Five Nordic case stories*. Nordnordic Innovation Center, [http://www.nordicinnovation.org/Global/Rapporter/2010/201012\\_StorytellingAndDestinationDevelopment\\_report.pdf](http://www.nordicinnovation.org/Global/Rapporter/2010/201012_StorytellingAndDestinationDevelopment_report.pdf)
- Nicholas, C. (2017), Exploring Availability for Contemporary Nubian People to Access their Cultural History and Removed Heritage. Master thesis.
- Perera, K., & Chandra, D. (2014), 'Documenting the intangible cultural heritage for sustainable economic growth in developing countries', *CIDOC International conference*, Dresden, Germany. [https://www.academia.edu/8609162/Documenting the Intangible Cultural Heritage for Sustainable Economic Growth in Developing Countries](https://www.academia.edu/8609162/Documenting_the_Intangible_Cultural_Heritage_for_Sustainable_Economic_Growth_in_Developing_Countries)
- Robinson, K. (2004), Egypt, Music, Dance and the Nubian Connection: Part 1 Ancient Egypt and Nubia Katrina. Raqs Sharqi Society, London UK
- Signorelli, J. (2014), *Story Branding 2.0 (Second Edition): Creating Stand-Out Brands Through the Purpose of Story*. Austin, TX: Greenleaf Book. P:28
- Simone, D., & Costanza, M. (2014), Nubia and Nubians: the „museumization“ of a culture, PHD thesis. Leiden University Centre for the Arts in Society (LUCAS), Faculty of the Humanities, Leiden University.
- UNESCO (2003a), What is intangible cultural heritage? <https://ich.unesco.org/doc/src/01851-EN.pdf>
- UNESCO (2003b), The Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001325/132540e.pdf>
- UNESCO (2003c), Implementing the Convention for the Safeguarding of ICH. <https://ich.unesco.org/doc/src/01853-EN.pdf>
- UNESCO (2003d), Intangible cultural heritage domains <https://ich.unesco.org/doc/src/01857-EN.pdf>
- UNWTO (2013), Tourism and intangible cultural heritage – concepts and definitions
- Yavuz, M. C., Sumbul, M., Ergec, N. E., & Derdiyok, I. C. (2016), 'Storytelling in Destination Brand Communication: A Qualitative Analysis', *IIBA Journal*, 1(2), 63-72.

**THE TOURISM EDUCATION AND ITS ROLE IN UPGRADING OF THE HOTEL SERVICES:**

**THE CASE OF BOUTIQUE HOTELS**

**H.M. SAAD**

Alexandria University, Egypt

**KONSTANTINOS MARINAKOS<sup>2</sup>**

TEI of Athens, Greece

**ABSTRACT**

The analysis of the decisions and choices of tourists has a particular and increased importance throughout the world. Characteristics, determinants and anticipation of tourism demand or consumption attract the interest of academic and scientific circles, tourism professionals and also those responsible for tourism policy.

The aim of this study is to investigate the quality of boutique hotels in Greece and how this quality is linked to the training of human resources. The survey is conducted in hotels in Greece that have the characteristics of the boutique hotel as defined by the international literature. The quality of customer service, particularly functional quality, increases thanks to the trainings. Hotels located in Greece need to continue to improve their quality, especially in tangibles, reliability and confidence areas. The supporting infrastructure in hotels, transportation accessibility of facilities, speed and reliability of customer service should be extended, proper management of relationships in the supply chain services should be ensured and visitors should be provided with a broadly-understood safety. Data was analyzed using SPSS ed. 19.0 and Servqual method.

**Key words:** relationship, servqual, hotel training, consumer research

## **INTRODUCTION**

Quality in the hotel industry has become an essential factor distinguishing hotels among competitors (Pendergast 2006). High quality of service, and particularly maintaining it at a high level is a difficult task, especially in the Polish, dynamically changing market (Mey et al. 2006). The emerging new hotels offer customers a wide range of services. This is the reason that it becomes increasingly difficult for them to gain a competitive advantage in the market by using familiar marketing tools (Hoecht 2006, Petrick 2013). Therefore, it has become necessary to focus on monitoring the level of customer satisfaction, which is the most important link in the process of service provision (Jang et al. 2009). Observation and constant dialogue with customers allows to explore their expectations and fulfill their needs and requirements (Akababa 2006).

## **1 LITERATURE REVIEW**

Quality is a concept of subjective nature, it refers to the characteristics of the object or service that distinguish them and decide on their uniqueness (Spielmann and Larocheb et al. 2012). It is also the degree to which the product is beneficial to the potential buyer (Kimes and Robson 2004). Quality is the ability to meet the external and internal needs and expectations of customers, which should take into account the technical and functional elements (Martin 2006). In the market economy, where supply exceeds demand, the customer always chooses a supplier who offers him a wider range of services and provides greater satisfaction (Brilman 2002).

Technical quality stems from the physical dimension of service and is dependent on the solutions applied in the management of the hotel, both technical and systemic. Functional quality, meanwhile, is based on how the service was provided, which means that it is associated with communicativeness, conduct of employees, willingness and ability to provide the service. Functional quality is more important than technical quality and its level determines whether the tourist company will gain the client permanently or will have contact with him only for a limited time. It is definitely easier to manage tangibles than the sphere of service, i.e. human skills (Davison 1994).

The concept of TQM (total quality management) applies in the hotel industry, and is based on a comprehensive management of quality, the aim of which is its increase, while reducing costs, which in a longer perspective allows to increase competitiveness (Zopiatis and Theocharous 2013). Introducing TQM requires the involvement of all employees (Shani and Uriely et al. 2014), mass trainings in the field of quality and marketing orientation focused on the customer. It is important to introduce appropriate programs, techniques and quality tools, which main objective will be customer satisfaction and improvement of the quality of service (Kachniewska 2002). Quality management in the hotel industry remains the current area of interest of researchers (Ahmad 2013).

The concept of TQM, widely used in business, has been implemented in hotel enterprises as a way of monitoring the quality (Becket and Brookes 2008)]. Such orientation provides systematic feedback from the customer, allowing managers directing the hotel to pay attention to the level of quality of the service offered (Badri et al. 2006, Lam and Chen 2012).

Marketing literature constantly emphasizes the importance of relational aspects in commercial transactions and recommends the continued development of mutually beneficial relationships with customers (Crosby et al. 1990). Such an approach should increase the repeatability of customer purchases and be profitable (Ok et al. 2005). In hotel enterprises, intangibility and inseparability of production from consumption have a unique character, which means that consumer confidence in the company plays a large role (Bendapudi and Berry 1997). It is the basis for long-term relationships between the hotel company and the client (Frederick and Schefter 2000).

Customer orientation implies a strict measurement of customer satisfaction (Ariffin et al. 2011). In the case of any signs of reduced quality, customers start to consider re-signing from the services, and among the first are the best customers (Ariffin 2013). It is of great importance in tourism, because this is about the leisure time, the value of which increases with the income of buyers (Mudie and Cottam 1998).

When it comes to measuring the level of quality, particularly in the service sector, the problem of research objectivity occurs, as a particular service for one person has a high quality, while for another does not meet the assumed standards (Jang-Hyeo and Timothy 2011). Therefore, quality should be defined as meeting the requirements of the client, and not as a definition of technical parameters, which in the case of services is very difficult to separate (Mong-Yuan et al. 2013).

The Servqual method, which is ready and universal standard of service quality (Teas 1993), is a frequently used tool to measure the quality of services (Dagger and Sweeney 2006, Zeithaml et al. 2009). The method allows the evaluation of services, with additional assessment of the quality from the standpoint of the person providing the service (Lee and Hing 1995).

The analysis of the quality of services is intended to identify these elements of the process of providing the services that affect customer dissatisfaction (Badri et al. 2006) and sometimes effectively discourage the purchase of hotel services (Smith 2013). Hotel staff is often not aware of the mistakes they make, and only through research areas can be identified that reduce the level of service provision (Jang et al. 2009).

The aim of the article was to identify the changes that have occurred in the quality of hotel services in the past 10 years in the region of eastern Poland. This is the period between the accession of Poland to the European Union, and the present time. The study also sought to determine the impact of trainings in managing customer satisfaction on the level of satisfaction of hotel visitors. Through the use of the Servqual method it was attempted to assess the relevance of the individual dimensions in the evaluation of service by respondents.

## **2 PRIMARY RESEARCH: EDUCATION AND QUALITY OF SERVICES IN BOUTIQUE HOTELS IN GREECE**

In the present study we investigate the importance of education in the quality of boutique hotels in Greece as they have the characteristics that differentiate it from the other hotels and allow it to be categorized as a boutique. It should be noted at the outset that there is not yet an internationally accepted definition of what is a boutique hotel (as well as all other alternative terms) and therefore the term has some ambiguity. It is essentially a term of marketing, which is

given - on an arbitrary basis - by the hotelier himself, in his attempt to attract the boutique hotels. The common elements that appear in almost all of these definitions (such as the emphasis on small size and on quality and personalized services) reveal its commonly accepted features.

According to a study by Deloitte and Touche (2002), boutique hotels are defined as "targeted lifestyle hotel products based on modern architecture and personal service". Essential prerequisites for creating such a hotel include: the passion, personal taste and leadership of the owner, as well as the emphasis on personalized service and creativity. The term is used to describe usually luxury hotels, differentiated by large chain hotels and independent businesses, thanks to the individualized provision of a wide range of services and quality infrastructure. A survey by GBR Consulting in Greece in 2002 on boutique hotels highlights the following elements: the small size (30-50 rooms for European standards), the top importance of the hotel style (antique furniture, thematic rooms, modern decoration) as well as the provision of a total product that is a combination of materials and intangibles. In an effort to ensure that there are uniform criteria for categorizing in the future, the Boutique and Lifestyle Lodging Association (BLLA) is the first international player to seek to unify all the accommodation under the umbrella of a boutique and to arrive at commonly accepted definitions. So, according to BLLA, boutique hotels are the ones that "offer a high level of environment in an elite clientele, aiming at gaining an unforgettable experience".

## **2.1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

For the needs of the present study, a primary survey was conducted in the Greek market for small hotels with a capacity of up to 50 rooms, with the main aim of improving the quality and development of the existing small and medium-sized hotel business, which is also the vast majority of the hotel's web site. The survey was conducted between January 2012 and March 2012. It attempted to record the key features of boutique hotels and exploit their findings in Greek small and medium-sized hotels. The survey was based on a questionnaire sent to all the above-mentioned hotels through local hotelier associations. Approximately 70 hotels were approached and 300 completed questionnaires were gathered. The hotels covered a wide and representative range of hotels of all levels and categories, in large and small towns, mountain and island, tourist and non-tourist areas. This survey was complemented by a comprehensive international survey that included bibliographic research, interviews with industry experts, and contact with more than 90 boutique hotels in different countries to get insight into their design.

After analyzing the data collected, we have led to the formulation of the logistics specifications and the services that internationally characterize "Boutique Hotels", tailored to the specifics of our country. It was suggested that the "boutique" rating be attributed to hotels of up to 50 rooms, existing or new, regardless of star rating, characterized by a warm family atmosphere, having a special architecture and decoration, providing personal service and high standard food, new technologies, etc. The aim of the above effort was to give the right incentives so that as many of the hotels as possible could be upgraded up to 50 rooms in the country and obtain the qualities of a boutique hotel with the creation of parallel and new similar units. In this way, our country could, to a certain extent, redefine the existing hotel potential in international competition with particular identity and quality. The study was subsequently submitted to the (then) Ministry of Tourism Development, but unfortunately the legislative establishment of boutique hotels did not follow.

The main common characteristics of the sample hotels that emerged from the survey are the following: Boutique hotels are not necessarily subject to classic hotel standards, but they develop innovative solutions and focus on the diversity of hotel experience to maintain their competitive position. They have a small number of rooms (up to 50), and their creation and organization revolve around their owner's "vision" to create a unique hotel. The latter even maintains autonomous control of the unit's operations and expresses the passion for hospitality. From the point of view of administration, they do not belong to hotel chains, although in the last few years there have been boutique phenomena from large chains. They aim at well-informed and "image-conscious" 28-55 year-olds, mainly middle and high income, and therefore pay great weight to the design of an impressive website that captures potential customers for the aesthetics and "character" of the hotel. Finally, they are often shown in the media and take full advantage of the new social media tools and all aspects of internet marketing.

In terms of architecture and decoration, they attach great importance to creating a comfortable atmosphere that is in perfect harmony with the environment where the hotel is located (urban or countryside). The interior and exterior areas of the hotel are carefully decorated and decorated, and very often bear the signature of well-known architects and decorators. The rooms are sometimes larger than conventional ones, they exude a sense of homemade "homemade" environment and are made of high quality materials. Also, the choice of furnishings, colors and lighting throughout the hotel is not left to chance, but it fits the overall aesthetics of the hotel and "illustrates" the owner's vision. Finally, there are often artistic items and art items that blend in with the hotel's atmosphere.

Huge weight is also attributed to the services provided to their demanding clientele. More and more modern travelers are seeking quality experiences and personalized and "exclusive" services. Providing experiences especially on luxury travel is often more important than providing "tangible" privileges. A survey by Pricewaterhouse Coopers<sup>30</sup> shows as incentives for the purchase of luxury products: a) treat factor, b) the perception that luxury products improve the quality of life; c) the image of the brand, which is particularly important for young consumers; and d) self indulgence factor. Boutique hotels take all of the above into account and try to offer an expanded and upgraded range of services. They focus on innovative and personalized services that are not limited to handling customer requests, but they go "one step further" with the aim of maximizing customer satisfaction and turning it into a regular visitor. These Services are provided by helpful and friendly staff.

In Greece, on the basis of the survey, there were about 200 Greek hotels that meet the criteria to become boutique hotels. This is an extremely small figure, considering that it accounts for about 1% -2% of the total hotel capacity in our country.

The survey also highlighted some other interesting facts about these hotels, which confirm their characteristics:

Table 1 Characteristics of sample boutique hotels

68% of boutique hotels have 30 to 50 rooms, 16% from 11 to 20, and the remaining 16% less than 10 rooms.
36% are 5-star hotels, 36% 4-star, 20% 3-star and 8% 2-star.
76% of the owners are also managers of hotels

According to data provided by 15 of these hotels, the renovation costs per room were extremely high (75,000 euros per room and 3,900 euros per sq. M.), Much higher than the cost of classic hotels.

The average room rate achieved was 124 euros, significantly higher than the conventional high-class hotels.

Composition of clients of boutique hotels is illustrated in the following table:

Table 2 Composition of clients of boutique hotels for 2011

Greeks 54%
Aliens 46%
Total 100%

One can observe that the percentage of Greek and foreign customers is similar, but that 73% of the total customers are business travelers and independent travelers. On the contrary, the proportion of customers coming from tour operators or travel agents is extremely small, of the order of 24%. Given the timeless overdependence of the Greek hotel market by the major international tour operators and its tiny desire to be de-motivated by placing high-yield diversified tourism products next to the mass tourism model, boutique hotels appear to be the most suitable for achieving the above goal.

Another statistic that sends optimistic messages to boutique hotels is their impressive levels of occupancy throughout the year, as shown in the following table:

Table 3. Occupancy levels of boutique hotels in the sample for 2011

<b>Month</b>	<b>Occupancy</b>
January	48,0
February	51,0
March	57,0
April	63,0
May	63,0
June	69,0
July	70,0
August	71,0
September	80,0

We observe that boutique hotels have a much greater average occupancy than Greek hotels as a whole (61% vs. 49%). It is also noteworthy that boutique hotels have a higher monthly occupancy in 10 out of 12 months of the year (with the exception of July and August), with their numbers impressing especially during the months when in our country they are considered "dead" tourist (nearly double their occupancy from other hotels in January and February).

It is therefore effortless to conclude that the creation of boutique hotels can make a catalysing contribution to the goal of the much-needed extension of the tourist season, which, of course, requires the enrichment of a country's tourist portfolio with new and quality products. Among these products dominate high-end hotels, including boutique-style high-end infrastructure and services, not just the star rating they belong to. Including the fact that international boutique hotels tend to attract more regular customers than conventional hotels, through the application of member clubs and loyalty programs (but in a more personalized manner than the big chains) it is obvious that the creation of such hotels in our country can have beneficial effects for our tourism.

#### **4. CONCLUSION**

In a difficult juncture for the Greek hotel industry and in an environment of tough international competition, the institutionalization of boutique hotels can provide valuable services to Greek tourism. In order for our country to escape from the one-dimensional model of mass tourism, in which it is locked for years, while attenuating the intense seasonality of incoming tourism, it is obliged to enrich its portfolio with new quality products. Such products are naturally boutique hotels, as has been made clear from the previous analysis. At the same time, promoting the creation of such a hotel can also be given a significant economic and entrepreneurial impetus to many small and medium-sized hotel businesses, which are also the majority of the country's current hotel potential. The results of such an initiative could be beneficial for a number of sizes of the Greek economy.

Their institutionalization is of course purely a matter of political will. The theoretical elaboration of the concept and criteria of boutique hotels that emerged from the research can be a useful tool for Greek political leadership and the upgrading of the Greek tourist product. For this to happen, it is necessary to have:

- legislative establishment of boutique hotels without delay
- setting up a special stage for the Hellenic Tourism Organization that will assess whether old and new accommodation can qualify as a boutique and carry out periodic inspections and inspections on what has already been affiliated with the Greek Boutique Hotel Network
- informing the public about this new initiative through advertising, the GTO website and the exploitation of social media
- integration of investment in boutique hotels (either the construction of new ones or the conversion of existing units into a boutique, regardless of a star rating) in the provisions of the Investment Law. These subsidies should have a "fast track" rationale to make the hotel industry fluid.

In order to be realistic, we must recognize the existence of a series of obstacles that make the success of boutique hotels unsafe:

- The apparent lack of political will due to different priorities.
- The objective difficulty in absorbing Community funds, combined with their imminent future shrinking.
- The long-term inability of co-operation between different ministries in cases where a parallel and complementary action is required to achieve an objective.



- The high renovation costs per room of boutique hotels, which entail high initial investment costs, in a period of loan squeeze.
- The complete lack of know-how of small and medium-sized hotel businesses, which takes time and money to acquire.
- The success of Marketing of individual / independent hotels is far more difficult than that of large chain hotels.
- The difficult and time-consuming process of obtaining a license, the bureaucracy, the complex and unpredictable tax regime.
- Training for unskilled or low-skilled staff also requires time and money.
- The mentality is difficult to change. Even the hotel owners who are unhappy with the odds are "accommodated" with the current situation.

In spite of these obstacles, optimism is imperative, as is the immediate start of the effort. An effort that, at some point in the future, will be able to transform the country's hotel's potential to the best, while enhancing the dynamics of the Greek tourism product in general.

## REFERENCES

- Ariffin, A.A.M., Maghzi, A.A., Aziz, N.A. (2011). Understanding hotel hospitality and differences between local and foreign guests. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 7 (1), 340–349.
- Barbakus, E., Boller, G.W. (1992). An empirical assessment of the Servqual scale. *Journal of Business Research*, 24, 3, 253–268.
- Badri, M.A., Selim, H., Alshare, K., Grandon, E.E., Younis, H., Absulla, M. (2006). The Baldrige Education Criteria for performance excellence framework: Empirical test and validation. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 23 (9), 1118–1157.
- Berry, L.L., Parasuraman, A. (2004). *Marketing services: Competing through quality*. Free Press, New York.
- Boshoff, A., Mels G. (1995). A cause model to evaluate the relationships among supervision, role stress, organizational commitment and internal service quality. *European Journal of Marketing*, 29 (2), 23–42.
- Brilman, J. (2002). *Modern management concepts and methods*. PWE, Warszawa.
- Dagger, T.S., Sweeney, J.C. (2006). The effect of service evaluation on behavioral intentions and quality of life. *Journal of Service Research*, 9 (1), 2–19.
- Fantazy, K.A., Kumar, V., Kumar, U. (2010). Supply management practices and performance in the Canadian hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29 (4), 685–693.
- Frederick, A.F., Mukesh, K. (2001). Service quality between internal customers and internal suppliers in an international airline. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 18 (4), 371–386.

- Frederick, R.F., Schefter, P. (2000). E-loyalty: your secret weapon on the web. *Harvard Business Review*, 78 (4), 105–113.
- Gabbie, D., O'Neill, M. (1997). Servqual and the Northern Ireland hotel sector: a comparative analysis – part 2. *Managing Service Quality*, 17, 1, 43–49.
- Ganesan, S. (1994). Determinants of long-term orientation in buyer–seller relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 58, 1–19.
- Juwaheer, T.D. (2006). Exploring international tourists' perceptions of hotel operations by using a modified Servqual approach: a case study of Mauritius. *Managing Service Quality*, 14 (5), 350–364.
- Kachniewska, M. (2002). *Zarządzanie jakością usług hotelarskich*. Difin, Warszawa.
- Lam, W., Chen, Z. (2012). When I put my service mask: determinants and outcomes of emotional labor among hotel service providers according to effective event theory. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31 (1), 3–11.
- Lee, Y.K., Hing, N. (1995). Measuring quality in restaurant operations: an application of the Servqual instrument. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 14, 3/4, 295–298.
- Mentzer, J.T., Min, S., Zacharia, Z.G. (2000). The nature of inter firm partnering in supply chain management. *Journal of Retailing*, 76 (4), 549–568.
- Mey, L.P., Akbar, A.K., Fie, D.Y.G. (2006). Measuring Service Quality and Customer Satisfaction of the Hotels in Malaysia: Malaysian, Asian and Non-Asian Hotel Guests. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 13, 144–160.
- O'Neill, M., Palmer, A. (2001). Survey timing and consumer perceptions of service quality: an overview of empirical evidence. *Managing Service Quality*, 11, 3, 182–190.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L.L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, 49, 4, 41–50.
- Patiar, A., Mia, L. (2009). Transformational leadership style, market competition and departmental performance: evidence from luxury hotels in Australia. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28, 254–262.
- Pendergast, D., 2006. Tourist gut reactions: food safety and hygiene issues. [In:] J. Wilks, D. Pendergast, P. Leggat (Eds), *Tourism in Turbulent Times: Towards Safe Experiences for Visitors*. Elsevier, Amsterdam, 143–154.
- Phillips, L.W., Chang, R.D., Buzzel, D.R. (1983). Product quality, cost position and business performance: a test of some key hypotheses. *Journal of Marketing* 47, 26–43.
- Pitt, L.F., Watson, R.T., Kavan, C.B. (1997). Measuring information systems service quality: concerns for a complete canvas. *MIS Quarterly*, 21, 2, 209–221.
- Pullman, M., Rodgers S., 2010. Capacity management for hospitality and tourism: a review of current approaches. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29 (1), 177–187.
- Shani, A., Uriely, N., Reichel, A., Ginsburg, L. (2014). Emotional labor in the hospitality industry: The influence of contextual factors. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 37, 150–158.

- Smith, S.L.J., Xiao, H. (2008). Culinary tourism supply chains: a preliminary examination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46 (3), 289–299.
- Song, H. (2011). *Tourism Supply Chain Management*. Routledge, London.
- Spielmann, N., Larocheb, M., Borgesa, A. (2012). How service seasons the experience: Measuring hospitality servicescapes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31, 361–365.
- Teas, R.K., 1993. Consumer expectations and the measurement of perceived service quality. *Journal of Professional Services Marketing*, 8, 33–54.
- Wang, Y.F., Chen, S.P., Lee, Tsai, C.T. (2013). Developing green management standards for restaurants: an application of green supply chain management. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 263–273.
- Weiermair, K. (2000). Tourists' perceptions towards and satisfaction with service quality in the cross-cultural service encounter: implications for hospitality and tourism management. *Managing Service Quality*, 10, 6, 397–409.
- Williams, C. (1998). Is the Servqual model an appropriate management tool for measuring service delivery quality in the UK leisure industry? *Managing Leisure*, 3, 2, 98–110.
- Wuest, B.E.S., Tas, R.F., Emenheiser, D.A. (1996). What do mature travelers perceive as important hotel/motel consumer services? *Hospitality Research Journal*, 20, 2, 77–92.
- Zeithaml, V., Bitner, M.J., Gremler, D.D. (2009). *Services marketing: integrating customer focus across the firm*. (V edn). McGraw Hill, New York.
- Zhang, H., Song, H., Huang, G.Q. (2009). Tourism supply chain management: a new research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 30, 345–358.
- Zopiatis, A., Theocharous, A. (2013). Revisiting hospitality internship practices: A holistic investigation. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 13, 33–46.