Russian tourists’ perceptions of authenticity of food based on trust

Särkkä-Tirkkonen, Anne Marjo Kaarina

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Contents

Designing a portfolio of major events in Auckland: Key dimensions ........................................3
Vladimir Antchak ................................................................................................................................3

Quality analysis of accommodation rating portals – theoretical and empirical evidence for
Switzerland .........................................................................................................................................9
Monika Bandi, Sarah Hämmerli .........................................................................................................9

The Identification of Perceived Risks in Tourism Research: Scale development ..................13
Laura Perpiña Blanch, Lluis Prats Planagumà, Raquel Camprubi Ciurana ..................................13

The Subway in Samambaia: A reflection on the integration of the subway systems and the
social-economical and leisure spaces in the region .........................................................................17
Camila Aparecida de Carvalho, José Augusto Abreu Sá Fortes ..................................................17

Brazilian women’s perceptions of risk when travelling alone .....................................................22
Gisele Carvalho, Maria Manuel Baptista, Carlos Costa .................................................................22

Travelling the world sharing your home .......................................................................................26
Roberta Garibaldi, Roberta Garibaldi .............................................................................................26

The perception of risk as a determinant of destination choice processes ................................30
Marion Karl ..........................................................................................................................................30

Antecedents of Brazilian Students’ travel: Are they ready to adventure New Zealand? ........34
Asad Mohsin, Jorge Lengler .............................................................................................................34

A cidade pela arte: construções de moradores e visitantes ..........................................................41
Ana Carolina Mendonça Oliveira ..................................................................................................41

The outdoor experience, place meanings and the volcanoes risk perception: the case of
Villarrica National Park, Araucanía Region, Chile. .....................................................................45
Andrés Ried Lucy ............................................................................................................................45

Russian tourists’ perceptions of authenticity of food based on trust ........................................47
Marjo Särkkä-Tirkkonen, Sinikka Mynttinen, J. Logrén, T. Rautiainen .......................................47

Smart Specialization ($S^3$): The new frontier in tourism research... and funding ...................51
Antonis L. Theocharous, Spyros Avdimiotis, Constantinos Papadopoulos, ............................51
Anastasios Zopiatis ........................................................................................................................51
Designing a portfolio of major events in Auckland: Key dimensions

Vladimir Antchak  
Auckland University of Technology  
New Zealand  
vladimir.antchak@aut.ac.nz

Introduction

One of the strategies, which is increasingly applied by cities across the world in an ever-lasting desire to promote and capitalise on their competitive identity (Anholt, 2007), is the hosting of large-scale sporting and cultural events. In the attempt to become an ‘eventful city’ (Richards & Palmer, 2010), many destinations have progressed from a random and eclectic choice of events toward the development of portfolios of events. A well-planned event portfolio can be viewed as a strategic tool to deliver a range of benefits to the host city. These include economic and social-cultural positive outcomes as well as an array of different leveraging opportunities (Chalip, 2004; Getz, 2013; Ziakas, 2014).

Despite the increasing popularity of an event portfolio strategy among city event planners, a lack of developed theoretical concepts and empirical research into the nature of portfolio design exists. To address this knowledge gap, a qualitative case study has been conducted in the city of Auckland, New Zealand. The primary aim of the research has been to explore the way in which the city context and objectives shape the strategic nature of a portfolio of major events in a large urban area. The research methods encompassed semi-structured interviews with event planners from Auckland city council and relevant council controlled organisations and the analysis of event-related city documentation.

This paper provides an overview of the preliminary findings of the research. In order to clarify and describe the complexity of the city of Auckland’s portfolio of major events, a strategic portfolio design framework has been proposed. The paper outlines and discusses the key dimensions in regard to this framework. In particular, it will address specific aspects related to the strategic nature of the event portfolio in the city, including identifying its structure, objectives, event roles, as well as the key factors that influence portfolio planning in Auckland.

Literature review

Over the past two decades, major events have become an integrated part of economic, socio-cultural and tourism agendas in destinations across the globe (Getz, 2013). Cities increasingly compete on the international event market for the right to host large-scale events of international significance in their quest for global relevance (Johnson, 2008). Nevertheless, as recent research suggests, hosting discrete events with the aim to anchor market attention is not sufficient. Although separate events can create international news, they are hardly capable of affecting, for example, people’s beliefs and clichés about the host city (Anholt, 2007). The key solution in this case is to learn how to use events proactively and synergise them with the wider city objectives (Richards, 2015).

Literature suggests that the development of ‘goal-driven’ and ‘value-based’ (Getz, 2008) event portfolios, which have the capacity to reach a wide range of audiences (Chalip, 2004; Getz, 2008), serve multiple purposes (Ziakas, 2013) and deliver on the strategic objectives of the key stakeholders (O’Toole, 2011) constitute a beneficial approach to achieve and sustain the positive impacts of events and optimally use available destination resources. The critical inquiry into the design of event portfolios can substantially extend the scope and focus of event studies and event management (Ziakas, 2014). Although nowadays, cities across the world have been actively planning and implementing an event portfolio approach in their events strategies, there is little theory and scant systematic empirical research into this phenomenon. As Ziakas (2014, p.183) argues, event portfolios are currently “at an early, or even an embryotic stage of development”. This sets forth a number of questions regarding event portfolio’s rationale, planning, and
management in different national and urban contexts. Hence, the aim of this study is to address this gap and explore the complexity of the event portfolio design framework in Auckland, a large urban area by New Zealand standards.

**Methodology**

The research has adopted a qualitative case study methodology. The strategy of information-oriented selection (Flyvbjerg, 2011) whereby cases are selected on the basis of expectation in terms of their information content, has been utilised. Auckland has been chosen as a geographic location due to its ‘core’ national status (Ministry of Business Innovation and Employment of New Zealand, 2012). The research methods include semi-structured interviews with event planners from the city council and a relevant council controlled organisation, ATEED (Auckland Tourism, Events and Economic Development), which has responsibility for the planning and delivery of major events in the city. Event-related city documents have also been analysed in order to complement the insights from the interviews. Applied thematic analysis (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012) of the collected data was carried out. The coding process entailed two circles of data explorations, namely, initial and pattern coding (Saldaña, 2013). This report presents the preliminary findings of the research.

**Figure 1:** Key dimensions of the major events portfolio design in Auckland.

- **Portfolio Objectives**
  - Internal objectives (foster synergy, leveraging, market relevance, anchor events)
  - External objectives (city prosperity, visitor economy, city status)

- **Portfolio Composition Strategies**
  - Owning of events
  - Sponsoring of events
  - Bidding for events
  - Building new events
  - Growing existing events

- **Event Roles within Portfolio**
  - Providing liveability
  - Promoting destination’s image
  - Providing economic benefits
  - Catalysing urban renovation and business development

- **Portfolio Design Factors**
  - Seasonality
  - Geographical location
  - Local resources
  - Market demand
  - Industry capability
Findings

The successful realisation of the current major events strategy in Auckland during the last five years resulted in that Auckland has placed itself on the world map as one of the leading major event destinations in Australasia capable of hosting events of large scale, particularly ones requiring significant investment. Data analysis indicated that the development of a portfolio of major events in Auckland involves five key dimensions (Figure 1).

Outcomes-driven portfolio approach

The construction of the events portfolio in Auckland is shaped by an outcomes-driven approach and an agnostic attitude to events’ genres. The Auckland’s Major Events Strategy (ATEED, 2011) does not specify the content of the portfolio. The specifications include only a set of expected outcomes, including (1) bringing new money into the economy; (2) growing visitor nights; 3) increasing liveability, and 3) increasing international exposure. Events would be sponsored notwithstanding their thematic nature, if they can potentially guarantee the achievement of at least one of these outcomes. The value of the event portfolio estimates on the base of “ticking all the boxes” at the programme level, rather than requiring each event to “tick all the boxes” on a stand-alone basis (ATEED, 2011, p. 14).

Portfolio objectives

The data allows to emphasise a number of external and internal objectives with regard to portfolio design in Auckland. External objectives of an event portfolio may vary due to the current city’s vision and targets. Recently, a set of the city’s strategies and policies, including events, has been clustered around the construction of the Auckland’s image as the world’s most liveable city. This presupposes and signifies the achievement of ongoing city prosperity, the growth of the visitor economy, the enhancement of the city’s status as a major event and tourist destination, as well as the development of a creative, vibrant international city.

Internal portfolio objectives are relatively permanent and intend to:

- **Foster synergy between events.** The synergy in the portfolio of Auckland refers to the correlation between selected events and associated outcomes. For example, the decisions regarding the extent of sponsorship/investment usually depend on the estimated performance indicators and specified conditions, which are derived from the feasibility study of a particular event.

- **Leveraging of events.** Auckland has employed major events as a catalyst for city re-development and revitalisation. Special legacy and leverage programmes have been developed in the city to capitalise on events and their potential to deliver benefits to the city and the host community (for example, the 2017 Masters Games Legacy Plan).

- **Market relevance.** Auckland has implemented a flexible approach in terms of the compositional structure of the portfolio where a significant assortment of events is supported on a contestable one-off basis. While, on the one hand, this guarantees the annual re-fresh of the portfolio offer, it also inevitably leads to the compositional instability of the portfolio and dependence on the external agencies (event promoters and owners).

- **Development and enhancement of anchor events in a destination.** In Auckland, one of the strategic goals of ATEED is to build and/or grow at least four economic and four social anchors. The city event planners clearly understand the strategic value of the large-scale home-grown events, as well as their embeddedness in the local cultural and historical environment.

Portfolio composition strategies

This dimension involves the tactics that city event planners in Auckland use to construct the portfolio of major events. Five key methods emerged from the data analysis. These include 1) owning of events; 2) sponsoring of events, 3) bidding for new events; 4) building new events; 5) growing local and regional events that demonstrate the potential to become major events. Auckland owns a number of events that receive multi-year financial support. Every year around 10-15 events are granted sponsorship through a contestable selection process. The predominantly economic slant of the utilised outcomes-driven approach in the city prioritises the bidding
component in order to secure those international events that are capable to deliver strategic outcomes. Building of new and growing existing events is viewed as valuable but expensive strategy that require a lot of additional funding but cannot guarantee an immediate return on investment.

**Event roles within a portfolio**

The outcomes-driven approach determines the roles events can play within the portfolio. The city supports some of the events, such as Pasifika, Lantern Festival or Diwali Festival primarily because they are able to secure the liveability outcome in terms of large visitation, entertainment and cultural celebrations. Other events have been included into the portfolio because of their high international profile in the market (for example, ITU World Triathlon Series). Certain events, such as the Auckland Marathon or the World Table Tennis Veteran Championship, drive visitation, highlight the attractive parts of the city, guarantee a significant measure of visitor nights during the shoulder and low seasons. In addition to the outcomes’ rationale, some events also carry a so-called image status. There are types of events that a modern international city simply should have in its portfolio. These include New Zealand International Film Festival, the Auckland Seafood Festival, and New Zealand Fashion Week.

**Portfolio design factors**

The analysis of interviews and key documents emphasises the interplay of the following key factors that have an influence on the portfolio design in Auckland: 1) seasonality, 2) geographic location, 2) industry capability, 3) market demand and 5) local resources.

**Seasonality.** Many events require open space and are dependent on the weather conditions. To avoid the issue of seasonality, city event planners tend to secure and host large business events during the low season and bid for events that are traditionally held during summer in the North Hemisphere (for example, the 2015 FIFA U-20 World Cup).

**Geographical location.** The geographical remoteness of New Zealand has certain implications on the ‘assortment’ of events and the audience numbers. Geography can become a positive point of difference, for example, when hosting such sporting events as the 2014-2015 Volvo Race Stopover, where Auckland played a role of a ‘natural’ host destination for the racing teams sailing the Pacific Ocean.

**Local resources (infrastructure, funding).** Event planners in Auckland emphasised the importance of the city infrastructure for the success in bidding strategy and hosting large-scale events. The legacy of the 2011 Rugby World Cup worked out in the construction of a series of new venues (Wynyard Quarter, Viaduct Event Centre) as well as in the renovation of the existing facilities (Eden Stadium). These development projects, as well as the upcoming opening of the national convention centre, provide Auckland with assets to showcase the city as a desirable host event city. The availability/unavailability of sufficient funds affects the decision-making and event selection processes and determines the number and scale of events in the portfolio.

**Demand (internal and external).** The internal demand demonstrates the availability of an internal market and audience for a particular event, which is to be held in the city. In Auckland, the common strategy of ATEED is to conduct market research and surveys as a part of the feasibility study to evaluate the perspectives of the proposed event projects. Whereas, external demand occurs if an external market player, for example, an international sporting federation is interested in hosting an event in New Zealand and in Auckland in particular, to increase awareness and to retain its position in this geographic region.

**Industry capability.** The growing experience of the city in the planning and management of large-scale events increases the level of managers’ and the entire community’s capability to organise and host events of international and national significance. This also refers to the strategic use of the volunteers’ pools and sharing of knowledge among the local and regional event sectors. In order to maintain and enhance the level of industry capability so-called ‘observers programmes’
are organised. Event organisers from around the county are invited to ‘get behind the scenes’, explore the volunteer management, discover media and operation centres, meet the city events team and discuss their current challenges.

Conclusion

The study of the major events portfolio design in Auckland clearly demonstrates the domination of the ‘return-on-investment’ ideology, wherein major events are treated as investment assets. Outcomes-driven approach and agnostic attitude to the genre variety guide the formation of the compositional structure of the portfolio. The approach determines the roles of separate events within the portfolio as well as current portfolio objectives. The employed outcomes-driven portfolio approach in Auckland can be compared with a portfolio model for immediate and maximum tourism/economic gain suggested by Getz (2013). Although, this type of strategy does not meet the requirement for sustainable destination development, it can be administered, engaged or implemented by cities which are entering the international event market, or if a re-branding of the host city is required (Getz, 2013). Overall, the analysis of the Auckland portfolio design patterns serves as a good starting point in revealing the key aspects of applied event portfolio strategies in large urban areas, portfolio planning and its role in relation to the development of the competitive identity of event destinations.

References


Quality analysis of accommodation rating portals – theoretical and empirical evidence for Switzerland

Monika Bandi, Sarah Hämmerli
University of Bern
Switzerland
monika.bandi@cred.unibe.ch

Introduction and aim of the paper

The increased travel experience and facilitated communication possibilities lead to more independent travel behaviour: Independent travellers increasingly choose long-haul and culturally very different destinations. When staying at remote places, it is particularly important for them to find an accommodation where they feel safe and comfortable. However, prior to having experienced it, they can hardly evaluate the nature and quality of an offer. Travel decisions are therefore generally characterised by a relatively high degree of perceived uncertainty. Before taking their travel decision, independent travellers are therefore likely to intensely inform themselves. According to the travel analysis of 2013, more than 50% of tourists consult a travel provider’s online rating prior to booking a trip on the internet. Accommodation rating portals like HolidayCheck or Booking have thereby become increasingly important information sources. The great significance of online reviews for independent travellers lies in their perceived authenticity or independence from the service providers. By sharing their experiences, travellers can help others to select an accommodation which meets their expectations. Thus, online reviews can help to reduce the information asymmetry with respect to the offer in favour of the guest side. Nevertheless, doubts about the authenticity of all reviews are often reported. Due to these concerns and the great variety of travel portals, it has become difficult for independent travellers to decide which portal is credible and can potentially best meet their informational needs.

The focus of previous research in the context of online rating portals has to a large extent been on analysing the importance of online reviews with respect to the travel decision and their potential impact on the travellers’ booking intention, rather than on comparatively examining their quality. The aim of the presented paper is therefore to discuss a first approach for a conceptual instrument to assess the quality of accommodation rating portals. The developed instrument is then exemplarily applied to ten relevant portals. This empirical application aims at compiling a first overview of the quality of these portals. This quality overview should support independent travellers during the phase of information gathering for a specific journey by facilitating their decision on which information sources best to consider.

Scientific background – information adoption

The individual process of the travel decision is a helpful point of departure when looking for a theoretical concept to assess the quality of accommodation rating portals. Its different phases are often discussed with reference to the well-known AIDA model (attention, interest, desire, action). A new aspect with regard to online reviews is that some kind of feedback mechanism from the action to the interest phase takes place. Guests who have newly experienced an accommodation’s quality of service can write a subjective online review themselves and

provide others with new information on it.

When looking at the process of a travel decision, it becomes clear that information adoption is a crucial prerequisite for online reviews to influence the traveller’s final decision in any way. This concept can be defined as accepting a piece of information as true, either consciously or subconsciously and applying it to a travel decision. Only when information adoption is fulfilled, online reviews are likely to reduce traveller’s uncertainties. Online rating portals and their contents should therefore optimally be set up such that the probability of information adoption of recipients is maximized. It can therefore be seen as a useful concept for measuring the quality of online rating portals.

Information processing

The scientific literature dealing with information adoption is mostly based on theories regarding information processing. The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) of persuasion usually builds the starting point of the theoretical discussion. The model describes how individuals process information facing time and resource constraints. It is a dual process theory, suggesting two major routes for information processing. Under the central route, the individual’s cognitive effort is high and therefore convincing arguments are crucial for persuasion. Under the peripheral route, on the other hand, individuals primarily rely on peripheral cues, while the true merits of the information are secondary. Which route is used for information processing highly depends on the motivation and ability of an individual to critically deal with the contents. With respect to motivation, the individual’s involvement is a central determining factor. In the context of travelling, it seems obvious that involvement is high when travel decisions are perceived to be personally important and relevant to the individual’s budget. When involvement is low, individuals’ decisions only depend on parts of the information which can rapidly be captured. Ability for its part can be grasped by means of personal travel expertise. Especially as regards independent travellers, travel expertise generally seems to be high nowadays. Involvement therefore seems to be more crucial in determining the route of information processing. However, in reality the two routes of information processing are not considered mutually exclusive. It is rather plausible that individuals process pieces of information via a mixture of both routes.

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Theoretical determinants of information adoption and requirements for accommodation rating portals

Different authors have worked on a theoretical model for information adoption which is based on the Elaboration Likelihood Model described above.\(^\text{11,12,13}\) In the presented paper, the model first developed by Watts Sussman and Schneier Siegal (2003) (see figure 1) has been refined, relying on empirical evidence found by more recent studies with respect to determinant factors of information adoption.

**Figure 1: Model of information adoption by Watts Sussman and Schneier Siegal (2003)**\(^\text{11}\)

The original model suggests that information adoption is directly influenced by the perceived *information usefulness*. Which factors (namely source credibility or argument quality) determine whether perceived information usefulness is high or low, depends on the route of information processing. Source credibility is seen as a peripheral cue and should therefore be important for the perceived usefulness of recipients with low involvement and expertise, while argument quality is important for highly experienced and involved recipients.

From the empirical validation of the model by different authors, an important conclusion can be drawn: Source credibility is no longer seen as a peripheral cue which leads to higher information usefulness for people with low involvement and expertise only. It rather appears to influence information adoption universally and directly, but in a presumably complex way.\(^\text{12,13}\) Thus, with respect to the original model, source credibility doesn’t seem to capture the nature of peripheral cues very well. It is therefore useful to replace it with a third, new criterion of information adoption. This criterion should encompass the presence of contents which can rapidly be captured by recipients. These two aspects led us to propose a refined model of information adoption which postulates the following relationships:

- “Source credibility” directly influences information adoption.
- “Argument quality” and the new criterion “fast decision aids” indirectly influence information adoption by affecting information usefulness. The exerted influence of each of the two criteria depends on the route of information processing.

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Methodological Approach

In this study, the refined theoretical model of information adoption is used to develop a conceptual analysis instrument to assess the quality of accommodation rating portals. The elaboration of the analysis instrument is done in two steps. Firstly, for each of the three criteria (source credibility, fast decision aids, argument quality) different indicators are derived from the relevant literature and the object of inquiry itself. This means that deductive and inductive research methods are used. Secondly, the different indicators are operationalized with several single variables. The latter have mostly binary codes and relate to the question whether a specific function or piece of information exists on a portal or not. A degree of fulfilment can then be calculated for every criterion, capturing how many of the single variables are fulfilled out of the total of variables. The analysis instrument is then exemplarily applied to ten accommodation rating portals which are relevant in the Swiss context. Data is primarily collected by means of a content analysis of the portals’ websites, based on a predefined codebook. The content analysis includes the submission of a truthful online review whenever possible. In case of missing information, attempts to contact the operators of the portals are made. An aggregated quality index for each portal is then calculated by adding up the degrees of fulfilment per criterion.

Analysing the quality of accommodation rating portals – empirical concept

The final version of the developed analysis instrument consists of 9 indicators and 36 single variables in total. A concrete example for an indicator specifying source credibility is for example “reviewer identification”. This indicator is among others operationalized with a single variable measuring whether the author of an online review is asked to indicate his travel experience on the portal. The indicator “accessibility of information” of the criterion “fast decision aids” includes variables for example such as the provision of specific filter functions. Lastly, “breadth of information” as an indicator of “argument quality” is for example measured with a variable capturing how many different quality aspects of an accommodation the reviewers are asked to assess. The sample of portals to which the analysis instrument is exemplarily applied consists of TripAdvisor, Holidaycheck, Booking, HRS, Expedia, hotel.de, hotels.com, Venere, Zoover and Ebookers.

Preliminary discussion and conclusions

Accommodation rating portals have become important players in tourism and are especially a relevant information source for independent travellers. From the theoretical discussion it can be drawn that in order to support all individuals optimally with their travel decision - whether the travellers' involvement and expertise are high or low - portals should try to maximise their credibility, the provision of fast decision aids as well as the argument quality of their contents. The empirical results indicate that the greatest differences between portals lie in their investments to increase “source credibility” and “argument quality”, while “fast decision aids” seem to be their core competence. The overview of their quality profiles can help independent travellers to decide which portal could best support them with travel planning. Travellers who are willing to invest a great amount of time to inform themselves about accommodation options are probably best supported by portals providing reviews characterised by a high argument quality.

Introduction

The topic of risk perception has been the subject of considerable research over the last five decades. The concept was first introduced by Bauer in 1960 (Dolnicar, 2005; Dowling & Staelin, 1994) and since then, consumer behaviour literature has dealt with risk perception and it has identified these dimensions: physical, financial, performance, social, psychological and time risks (Conchar, Zinkhan, Peters & Olavarrieta, 2004; Dowling & Staelin, 1994; Roselius, 1971). In the tourism literature, the concept of perceived risk was pioneered by Rohel and Fesenmaier (1992), who identified three main risks, being physical-equipment, vacation and destination risks. Since then, numerous authors have examined perceived risks in tourism studies by using different scales with diverse typologies and variables in various contexts resulting in a lack of consensus.

There are several typology approximations and some are mentioned below. The study of Tsaur et al. (1997) covered two categories of risks while international travelling, being physical and equipment. Then, Sönmez and Graefe (1998) identified ten types of perceived risks when travelling, being financial, functional-equipment, physical, psychological, social, satisfaction, time, health, political instability and terrorism whereas Maser and Weiermair (1998), divided travel risks into cultural and language barriers, natural disasters, hygiene and diseases, crime and accidents as well as transportation problems and uncertainty with destination specific regulations and laws. Lepp and Gibson (2003) identified seven perceived risk factors, being health, war and political instability, terrorism, strange food, cultural barriers, political and religious dogma and petty crime. Particularly, Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) identified three major groups of travel risks, being terrorism, health-financial and sociocultural risks. Law (2006) comprised three types of perceived risk, being infectious disease, terrorist attack and natural disaster. Fuchs and Reichel (2006) measured risk perception of Israel and their factor analysis revealed six perceived risk typologies, being human induced, financial, service quality, socio-psychological, natural disaster and car accidents as well as food safety and weather problems. Simpson and Siguaw (2008) developed a typology of ten risks specific to travel, being health and well-being, criminal harm, transportation performance, travel service performance, travel and destination environment, generalized fears, monetary concerns, property crime, concern for others and concern about others. Gray and Wilson (2009) identified political, social and physical hazards. Fuchs (2013) identified eight specific risk typologies when backpack-travelling, being site-related physical, socio-psychological, physical, and expectation, socio-political, financial, mass and behavioural. Finally, Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013) examined tourists’ perception of risk travelling in Thailand with two dangers, SARS and tsunami incidents and in the case of study of Japan, Chew and Jahari (2014) measured the perceptions of physical, socio-psychological and financial risks.

There is no agreement on risk perception operationalization as some authors consider variables what others consider typologies and vice versa. For instance, some authors consider terrorism as a variable as part of the political perceived risk typology (Dolnicar, 2005; Gray & Wilson, 2009; Saddighi, Nuttall, & Theocharous, 2001) or as part of the physical perceived risk typology (Fuchs, 2013; Reichel, Fuchs, & Uriely, 2007) while some other authors labelled it as a type of perceived risk (Fuchs, Uriely, Reichel & Maoz, 2012; He et al., 2013; Law, 2006; Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Furthermore, an analysis of its scales reveals a lack of homogeneity among the typologies and variables defining risk perception in tourism studies. Therefore, the absence of an accepted reliable and valid scale has led to the proposition of including all possible aspects of risk that are susceptible to use in an instrument to measure perceived travel risks. After the review of the perceived risks included in
different scales developed in the literature, a number of typologies and items were identified. The variables are detailed in the methodology.

As a result, there is still the need to develop a more comprehensive typology of perceived risks related to the tourism experience. Given that, the main goal of this study is to identify perceived risks specific to travel by empirical determination. Then, the travel perceived risks identified in this research will configure the scale’s content for risk perception measurement. Accordingly, the academic contribution of this study is to propose a comprehensive scientific framework to assess the concept of risk perception in tourism research.

Methodology

The survey was designed according to accumulated literature on travel perceived risks. The structured questionnaire was used to collect primary data and it required approximately 10 minutes to complete. It was self-administered to university members using online versions and in order to try to increase the response rate, an incentive was offered to all participants by having the chance to win a prize.

The survey instrument comprised three sections. The first section collected the socio-demographic data as well as the respondents’ past travel experience information. The second section of the survey comprised 50 perceived risks previously identified in the tourism literature: accidents, criminal attacks, murders, robberies, muggings, kidnappings, natural disasters, adverse weather, terrorist attacks, sickness, contagious diseases, lack of access to healthcare, political instability, war, strikes, increase of travel costs, extra expenses, racism, hostile attitude of locals towards tourists, harassment by locals, sexual harassment, cultural barrier, language barrier, inability to adjust to a foreign way of life, trip not compatible with self-image and personality, trip disapproval by relatives, getting lost, loss of items, dissatisfaction, poor experiences, waste of time, bad value for money, accommodation problems, lack of access to clean food and water, dislike food taste, lack of hygiene, transportation problems, bad roads, chaotic traffic, pollution, commercialized tourist attractions, fraud, mechanical/equipment/organizational problems, telecommunication problems, electrical power outage, police and legal issues, being arrested, drug problems, long waiting times and delays. Respondents were requested to rate their level of perceived risk for each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale, which ranged from 1 = “no risk” to 7 = “very high risk”. Finally, respondents were asked to indicate the main risk that would actually deter them from travelling.

Results

The results presented in this paper are preliminary as the data is still being collected. The results are based on a sample of 161 participants.

Descriptive statistics were analysed using SPSS 19 for Windows statistical software. Of the 161 respondents, 51 were male and 110 were female, representing the 31.7% and the 68.3% accordingly. Most of the respondents were Spanish (97%) and as expected in a university environment, 37% of them were between the ages of 18 and 22 and 26% between the ages of 23 and 27, accounting for the 63% of the sample. Concerning the highest level of education, 57.8% had a bachelor’s degree, 11.8% had a master’s degree and 10.6% had a doctoral degree. In regard with past tourism experience, 69% of the sample has travelled up to 5 times during the last five years. The most common visited continent was Europe (92.5%), followed by America (31.7%), Africa (21.7%) and Asia (17.4%). Only 2 participants have been in Oceania and 2 more have never travelled internationally. Finally, the chief deterrence for travelling was reported for war and military conflicts (44.7%) followed by terrorist attacks (18%), results which are in line with the findings of Gray and Wilson (2009) and Sönmez and Graefe (1998).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with principle component and varimax rotation was undertaken for the risk perception variables with the aim of reducing its dimensions and identifying the determinant factors. The Kyser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure and Bartlett’s test were used to ensure that the data had sufficient inherent correlations to perform EFA. The KMO index was 0.914 and
Table 1: Exploratory factor analysis (N = 161)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Variance (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1: Physical risks</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Accidents</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kidnappings</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.926</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural disasters</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.809</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist attacks</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diseases</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of health care</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Instability</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.654</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>War/Military Conflict</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racism</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.542</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostile attitude to tourists</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.398</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment by locals</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual harassment</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraud</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.482</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police and legal issues</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being arrested</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug problems</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2: Destination difficulties and time risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14.444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strikes</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.537</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting lost</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disappointing experiences</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste of time</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dislike food</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of hygiene</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation problems</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.640</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad roads</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad driving</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.773</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.548</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical/Equipment/Organizational Problems</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.702</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunication problems</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical power outage</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.553</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time consuming</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delays</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3: Value risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sickness</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of costs</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra expenses</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of items/luggage</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad value for money</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.531</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowded attractions</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.472</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 4: Social concerns</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability adjust way of life</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip not compatible self-image/personality</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip disapproval</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfaction</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.496</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 5: Hospitality deficiencies</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation problems</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of clean food and water</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 6: Social barriers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural barrier</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.630</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language barrier</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.572</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bartlett’s was significant at the level of 0.001, which justified the use of EFA. A total of 64.64% of variance among the variables were explained by the factors. It has to be pointed out that the variable “adverse weather” was deleted from the analysis as it showed to be independent from the other variables. Then and as the table below shows, EFA revealed the evidence of 6 factors from risk perception variables, named (1) physical risks, (2) destination difficulties and time risks, (3) value risks, (4) social concerns, (5) hospitality deficiencies and (6) social barriers.

Therefore, the 49 out of the 50 variables measuring the risks associated with international tourism were grouped into 6 specific factors. The physical factor derived from the literature review (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Fuchs, 2013; Gray & Wilson, 2009; Reichel et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Sharifpour, Walters, & Ritchie, 2014; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Tsaur, Tzeng, & Wang, 1997) and the other five factors were specifically designated to best describe its content for the current study. These preliminary findings have shown the factors and the variables that would configure the scale’s content for risk perception measurement in tourism studies. Final results still need to be demonstrated with a larger sample, which might differ from the results presented in this report.

Conclusions

These conclusions are also preliminary. This research used a quantitative approach to develop a scale measuring the perceived travel risks in tourism experiences. Principally, the scale was proven to have good reliability. The items were mined from an extensive literature review and a wide range of variables were included in the list, which were proven to be all significant as well as to fit in six determinant factors, with the exception of adverse weather. The results are aligned with the aforesaid main goal, which is the identification of perceived risks specific to travel by empirical determination. Thus, this study contributes to the existing body of tourism knowledge with the identification of perceived risks. Due to the wide and varied content, different versions of the scale might be possible as the criteria may be customized in order to make the most efficient use of it according to the purpose, objective and domain of future studies, supporting Moreira (2008) further research. This can be an adaptive assessment system to evaluate risk perception in several study contexts. Thus, future research is encouraged to use the measurement scale developed in this study.

In regard with the limitations, the data was collected in Spain by using a sample of university students. Therefore, caution must be taken with the generalization of the results. This sample concentration might be a possible source of bias and future studies in the same line might contribute to confirm the presented results for a wider validity, with other nationalities or social cohorts.
The Subway in Samambaia: A reflection on the integration of the subway systems and the social-economical and leisure spaces in the region

Camila Aparecida de Carvalho, José Augusto Abreu Sá Fortes
Universidade Católica de Brasília
Brasil
camilaufop@gmail.com

The disordered urbanization processes in the Brazilian cities has caused several issues of land use and occupation, environmental deterioration, decreased quality of life and frequent difficulties in transport and traffic. (Gonçalves e Portugal, 2007). These problems affect the displacement of the autochthonous population and also visitors (tourists and travellers). In this context, MCIDADES (2008) states that a trunking transport system, such as the subway or the Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) may be some of the solutions to minimize the urban mobility matters, as well as the land use and occupation issues.

Correia e Goldner (2009) highlights that the trunking system not only articulates all the city transport but also modifies the urban space in its surrounding. Also, Gonçalves et all (2003) defends that the subway - railway system’s features is to aggregate activities in its surroundings and as a result, reinforce the centrality, incentive new ventures and increase the number of trips. Therefore, the subway might have direct reflexes in the urban mobility, enhancing the life quality of the served population, besides the economical and environmental favorable impacts, generated on all influence area, allowing the users a higher dedication in activities like work, leisure, sports and culture.(COMPANHIA DO METROPOLITANO DE SÃO PAULO, 2014).

In particular, regarding to the leisure and tourism activities that can be developed within the subway influence area it is important to stress the Trip Generator Poles (Polos Geradores de Viagens – PGVs) with their nature turned to these activities. In this sense, Portugal e Goldner (2003) point out one of the most significant examples in the increasing of passengers flow are the shopping malls, mainly when it has a direct connection to the station. Ettema e Schwanen (2012) highlight that the leisure places can enable correlated activities, but this depends on its accessibility as well as its functionalities and environmental characteristics, in addition to an adequate planning of the transport system aligned to the land use planning. It is thus, the objective of this paper to verify how the subway system of the Administrative Region (Região Administrativa – RA) of Samambaia has affected the urban mobility, as well as the land use issues, in particular the land use for the purpose of tourism and leisure.

The theoretical reference of this paper was based on the bibliography that approaches the relations in between the dynamics of land use, transport planning and development. Hence, Image 1 shows a transport cycle that served as base to the development of the theoretical part of this conducted study.
Image 1 also helps to evaluate the relations among transport, leisure and tourism, which are the objects of analyses of this article.

In the case of this paper the analyses will be done specifically from the subway – railway mode and the surveying for the tourism and leisure options in the RA of Samambaia. The image presented shows that the changes of the land use and occupation generate movements and the increase for the transport demand, thus boosting, the accessibility and modifying the land value.

In this way, Cervero e Radish (1996) concluded that people who live in more compacted regions, with a mixed land use and pedestrian facilities, in an average they carry out trips with a higher frequency (which are not related to work), using non – motorized modes of transportation or public transportation for tourism and leisure activities. In that way, the development of the social-economical, cultural and leisure spaces in the subway influence area in regions in which there are few attractions, such as in the RA of Samambaia, it is an option to decentralize the activities, making the region more dynamic, boost the local touristic potential, allow the access to the leisure and culture areas, in addition to improving the life quality of the autochthonous population.

The methodology of this study conducted in the RA of Samambaia covered many phases: (I) Contextualization of the study area and surveying of the social-economical spaces, (II) Description of the current system of Urban Public Transport, (III) characterization of the demand, (IV) analyses. Due to the range of the developed work and to this extend of the treated variants, the results of this article are going to cover essentially: (I) the surveying of the most important touristic attractions and potential (II) description of the current urban public transport system, specially the subway – railway mode. Applying this technology it was possible to understand the impacts on the land use and occupation issues for the purpose of tourism and leisure in the bordering areas to the subway in the region of Samambaia. It was also possible to comprehend the current configuration of the subway – railway system and its influence on the access of both population and visitors to the main touristic attractions and potential in the region.

As a result of this work, regarding to the characterization of the study field and the attractions surveying, it has been perceived the need of these spaces in the bordering areas to the subway in the region of Samambaia. Also, this transport system is not working as a development inductor, for there are few commerce and leisure activities in the subway proximities.

Regarding to the land occupation for the purpose of leisure and tourism, it has been noticed that although this region presents few spaces and activities of this kind, in this region is pointed out permanent and street markets, squares and parks, aside from some culture, sports and night
entertainment options. However, from the surveying made, it has also been noticed that, great part of these touristic attractions or potential are not located within the subway influence area. The most part is located in more than 2km of distance, which does not incentives the use of subway to the development of the leisure and tourism activities, for according to the area literature the maximum distance for the walking displacement is 500 meters. The leisure attractions and the average distances until the nearest subway station are demonstrated on the table 1.

Table 1: Sociocultural and leisure spaces in the region of Samambaia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOCIOCULTURAL AND LEISURE SPACES</th>
<th>LOCATION</th>
<th>SUBWAY (D)*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent Market (Feira Permanente)</td>
<td>QN 402</td>
<td>1,7 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Market 510</td>
<td>QN 510</td>
<td>2,1 Km (SUL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Market 311/313</td>
<td>QN 311/313</td>
<td>4,3 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Market 210</td>
<td>QN 210</td>
<td>3,0 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeiCenter</td>
<td>QS 412</td>
<td>2,4 Km (FUR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producer Market (Feira do Produtor)</td>
<td>QR 614 – Special Area</td>
<td>3,00 Km (FUR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizen Square (Praca do Cidadao)</td>
<td>QN 519/521</td>
<td>4,3 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Girls Park (Parque Três Meninas)</td>
<td>QR 609</td>
<td>4,9 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boca da Mata Park</td>
<td>In between Samambaia and Taguatinga</td>
<td>3,1 Km (FUR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Rink (Pistão de Lazer)</td>
<td>South Avenue (Avenida Sul)</td>
<td>4,7 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santa Luzia Parish</td>
<td>QS 304 – Suite. B</td>
<td>1,8 (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture House (Casa de Cultura)</td>
<td>EQR 609/611 – P. Três Meninas.</td>
<td>4,9 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sombra e Água Paid Fishpond</td>
<td>In between QR 425 and QR 427</td>
<td>6,0 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer Stadium Rorizão</td>
<td>QN 301 – Urban Center</td>
<td>1,4 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gatuné Station</td>
<td>QS 102</td>
<td>6,0 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rei Pelé Olympic Village</td>
<td>QS 119</td>
<td>2,4 KM (FUR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forró Dance Mansion</td>
<td>QR 104 – Suite. 05 – Batch 02</td>
<td>120 m (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forró Renascer Dance House</td>
<td>QS 401 – Suite. G – Batch 08</td>
<td>1,3 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subway Bar and Station</td>
<td>QR 112</td>
<td>150m m (SUL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forró do Liso Bar Dance House</td>
<td>QN 508</td>
<td>2,6 Km (SAM)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Elaborated by the author

It is highlighted on D*'s adopted methodology, is referring to the approximated distance between the subway station and the attraction. Thus, it was verified that the distance to the nearest subway station to each attraction. There are three subway stations in the Administrative Region of Samambaia. Given the initials (SAM) referring to the subway station

Terminal Samambaia, the initials (SUL) to the station Samambaia Sul and the initials FUR to the Furnas station. Regarding to the urban public transport it was observed that it is yet very precarious and poorly efficient in relation to both the terminal infrastructure and the stations as well as the transport operations. It was also verified that there is a lack of adequate integration between the subway and other transport modes. The subway is not very used in this region, for its influence area covers few houses and commercial and leisure areas. For this, it was possible to identify that the subway is used for only 5% of the population displacements.

However, when it is about leisure trips this number drops even more, for the subway does not have an adequate integration to the other transportation modes, besides, according to the previously demonstrated the majority of the cultural and leisure spaces are located outside the subway influence area.

From the analyses of the Image 2, elaborated from a Geographical Information System (SIG), specifically TransCAD, it was possible to detect that only a small portion of the RA of Samambaia is considered by the subway-railway system. By doing the expansion of the subway covered area, it was noticed that a significant part of the subway influence area does not present any kind of land
use (residential, commercial or leisure) due to the existing high – voltage wiring system near Furnas station. In the areas presenting occupation, it is verified that there is hardly any touristic attractions or potential.

Finally, it is clear that the subway in the city of Samambaia is not working as an inductor of the tourism and leisure spaces development. It is understood that the lack of transport planning coupled to the land use and occupation issues, are one of the elements that outburst this scenario. Hence, the current study, supplies important subsidies for the transport planning in the region tied to the land use and occupation issues. For it is believed that the investment in social and leisure spaces in the subway surroundings may generate a better life quality to this people, and incentive this kind of activity in a region where these spaces are needed.

Besides, it is important to stress that the methodology of this study can be used in other regions and cities with a bigger touristic potential, even generating a rate capable to evaluate the efficacy of the subway – railway system in the terms of integration with the tourism and leisure options in the big urban centers. Thereby, it is possible to outline political strategies to improve the region regarding to the leisure options not only for the tourism, but also for the autochthonous population, thus improving the life quality of this population.

References


Introduction

The aim of this paper is to carry out a study of a group of fifteen Brazilian women and how they react in situations of risk when travelling alone. Reflecting upon this subject is no easy task due to the fact that it involves a certain level of subjectivity with regard to human behaviour. In addition, there are particular aspects of these women’s experiences which merit attention because they raise gender issues which go beyond their everyday lives and which may be exacerbated when they are travelling alone.

In the face of the growing demand for these types of trips, it is important to create a profile of these travellers, not only with a view to preventing the risks they face on these journeys, but also to offer a safer and more appropriate range of services to these increasingly demanding customers.

Methodology

This study comprised in-depth interviews carried out with fifteen Brazilian women who reported a range of perceptions of imminent danger which they were subjected to when travelling abroad for leisure on their own. The research carried out is qualitative in nature, focusing on the extensive reports provided by the interviewees, and parallels are drawn with a critical review of the theory of gender studies and travelling. The methodology used to select the participants was a non-probability, or “snowball” technique, with semi-guided interviews and content analysis carried out as the theoretical approach. The interviews took place between January and December, 2014, with six face-to-face interviews and the remaining nine using Skype. The participant profile showed women who are highly qualified, ranging from First Cycle Degrees to PhDs. The majority are single and childless and work predominantly in the area of the Human and Social Sciences. The risks these women experienced and the resulting behaviour, real or otherwise, will be analysed taking into consideration age, qualifications, marital status, family structure (if they have children or not), profession and lastly, the number of countries visited.

Results

It is important in this study to focus on the experiences of the participants, the strategies they developed in their quest for emancipation and autonomy, their struggle against prejudice and the inevitable moments of loneliness, insecurity and fear which in one way or another characterise these unaccompanied leisure trips.

Within the scope of this study, risk is understood to mean the implicit and explicit threats the women were exposed to during their journeys, either of a physical or emotional nature. In this context, the dangers felt by the women were analysed from different perspectives, including gender and national identity of the “unaccompanied Brazilian woman” and we ascertained that they are closely linked to the culture of the host country, the culture of the traveller and various types of prejudice (gender, colour, race, religion, etc.).

From the experiences reported regarding male harassment, it is clear that although Adult (31 – 40 years old) and Mature (over 40 years of age) women suffer harassment, it is in fact the Younger women (18 – 30 years old) who are most affected. However, Young and Adult women also state that they are often perceived as being sexually available simply because they are alone, which they find particularly offensive. The Adult women deal with both the restrictions imposed by social norms which limit their freedom of movement, as well as potential dangers, by developing preventive
strategies which protect them from certain situations, such as wearing discreet clothing and understated makeup, while Young women do not. With respect to those differences, all the age groups experienced situations of prejudice with regard to colour and/or nationality and stated that they felt a sense of vulnerability and insecurity during their travels alone, particularly in situations which threatened their physical integrity.

In relation to the academic level of the participants, the women with Ph.Ds state that in strongly patriarchal cultures, where women have a restricted social status compared to men, travelling alone can be challenging, and that sometimes they feel fear because they are single and alone. In this study, the majority of women interviewed are Ph.D students and when they become aware of the risks and dangers that they are exposed to, they create defence mechanisms to deal with the situations of vulnerability that they face. These include daytime activities, avoiding going out in the evening and/or drinking alcohol, giving preference to collective rooms and informing their family about their travel plans. They add that it is important to be constantly alert about what is going on around them, as well as developing a sense of “constant heightened awareness” (A.S.J., 51 years old – My translation). It is important to note that some of these measures have also been adopted by the group of undergraduate students. In turn, women who are either attending or have concluded Masters Degrees, state that the mere fact that they are Brazilian means they are a target of extreme sexual harassment and are constantly approached by men and perceived as being sexually available. The result is that many women develop self-protection strategies, which they find emotionally draining. The women who have First Cycle Degrees state that the fact that they are travelling alone exposes them to various forms of harassment.

With regard to the marital status of the women interviewed who travel alone, we noted that the majority are single and during their unaccompanied journeys, they experienced various situations where they were harassed by men and the authorities in an incisive and often aggressive way. Making the choice of going on holiday and taking responsibility for that choice may result in having to face a variety of setbacks, which require some self-reflection, as well as having to be prepared to get out of situations of danger. Single women in particular know that travelling alone requires them to constantly question themselves, as well as their fears and limitations, but they also acknowledge that these experiences can help them to learn how to defend themselves better and not allow themselves to be dominated by situations of danger and/or conflict.

The majority of single travellers have already had issues with Immigration Authorities. Some of them attribute the embarrassment they feel to the fact that they have racially mixed facial characteristics, which is typical of the Brazilian population, and their single status. Married women give concrete examples of occasions where they felt fear because they were culturally different and focus on the importance of the precautions they need to take to protect themselves from confidence tricksters. The majority of women interviewed do not have children and of those who do, most have teenage or adult children, with only one being a recent mother. Among the mothers who are travelling, there is a feeling of self-protection associated with the journeys, which led one interviewee to book through a travel agency to feel safer and more protected. Mothers who travel alone are also more discreet in the way they dress and behave, which clearly distinguishes them from those who do not have any children. Their sense of fear and danger is associated with their first unaccompanied travel experiences, which make them develop the necessary skills to circumvent situations of danger and take appropriate measures to protect themselves, such as not going out at night to places they do not know so that they are not exposed to those dangers.

Regarding the qualifications and characteristics of the women interviewed, they are quite diverse. The women from the area of Humanities perceive the risks to be a result of cultural perceptions, such as the role of women in essentially patriarchal countries like Thailand, Morocco and Istanbul, or linked to the stereotypical image of Brazilian women: “Unfortunately, the stereotype of the Brazilian woman is not so much that she is a prostitute, but that she is a cheerful, beautiful and fiery woman” (T.G. 33 years old – My translation). This statement reflects a common feeling among the women interviewed: being Brazilian and travelling alone are factors which contribute to harassment.
The differences are exacerbated when we analyse the interviews carried out with the women from the areas of Technical and Social Sciences and Health Sciences. The former give preference to daytime activities and avoid going out at night, perhaps in view of the fact that they understand the potential risks in a more practical and objective way as a result of their professional activity. The latter, from the Health Sciences, are almost always aware that there is a level of vulnerability to which they are exposed, especially when they have to deal with the Immigration Authorities, who as a rule intimidate and morally harass them simply because they are Brazilian and travelling alone.

On the other hand, it is possible to identify a particular characteristic in women from the area of Arts who are travelling alone. They report physical and sensory perceptions when they are harassed, as is clear from the following statement: “in Florence…in a store selling leather items…looking at some of the products… I feel a hand on my waist…it was the salesman…I can’t stand people touching me…my body being invaded…but there’s a problem, you have to protect yourself, you are in a foreign place, it is not worth it, I won’t change someone’s mentality…it matters only to me, my body, my journey has to continue”. (A.F., 26 years old – My translation).

The women who travelled to between one and five countries share a set of precautions which they adopt in order to protect themselves. These include not going out at night so as not to suffer harassment with sexual intent and they agree that the fact that they are Brazilian and travelling alone draws a lot of attention, so they prefer to choose tourist destinations which offer them more security. The women who visited between six and ten countries state that they feel shrewder and that they have overcome many of the fears they experienced during their first trips. This means that travelling abroad alone makes women more aware, observant and competent to fully enjoy the place they are visiting. It is also important to draw attention to the women who have had the opportunity to visit over twenty countries alone. These are just a small sample of women who have had the privilege of experiencing many diverse cultures yet do not underestimate the dangers which are inherent in trips they go on alone. Due to their previous experiences, they have learnt to find a balance between real and imaginary dangers, which allows them to assuage their feels and find creative mechanisms of self-defence in order to take full advantage of their trip.

Conclusion

The study showed that there are different ways of identifying and dealing with the dangers that the women who were interviewed are exposed to during their journeys. It also highlights the collective situations of vulnerability, fear and insecurity which these women suffer in the face of unexpected events which threaten their physical and/or emotional integrity. It is interesting to note that the majority of these women deal with these dangers in a creative way, transforming their experiences into tangible learning opportunities for their everyday lives.

It is clear from the interviews that the women are of the opinion that European destinations offer more security when compared to Latin American countries, yet they are of the opinion that generally there are three unfavourable factors which put them at risk when they travel alone: being a woman, travelling alone and being Brazilian. Despite this, these Brazilian women are increasingly overcoming the challenges they face and breaking down prejudice in order to obtain the freedom to manage their own lives.

References


Travelling the world sharing your home

Roberta Garibaldi, Roberta Garibaldi
University of Bergamo
Italy
roberta.garibaldi@unibg.it

Means of acquisition and consumption alternative to ownership, in which access is enabled through the sharing or pooling of resources, products and services redefined via the use of technology and peer communities, is increasing. The number of people involved in the so-called sharing economy is growing steadily, and will only continue to increase. The travel industry is the sector most affected by the meteoric growth of sharing and collaborative consumption, with peer-to-peer travel sites like Airbnb and CouchSurfing literally booming. More and more frequently contemporary tourists go beyond the conventional filters and service intermediaries. In fact, thanks to the rapid expansion of information technology, nowadays tourists do not need the intermediation of conventional operators to find what they want and choose between different options. However, the lack of traditional intermediaries increases the real and perceived risk of travelling for tourists, and raises the need to find ways to lower such risk. This article will present a study on the phenomenon of home-swatting, one of the collaborative trends born as a consequence of the spread of new forms of tourism, that we will introduce and examine in detail. It will investigate how trust is built between people engaging in this form of tourism, the so-called home-swappers, and how security is provided in such a system. Moreover, given the lack of empirical studies analyzing the characteristics of the home-swappers this article will contribute to define what their socio-economic profiles, motivations and lifestyles are.

Over the last decades, tourists have greatly refined their tasted and expectations, and their reasons for travelling have changed accordingly. Several studies have talked about a ‘new’ type of tourist, an empowered tourist, who is becoming knowledgeable and who is increasingly seeking exceptional value for money and time, always looking out for unique, high-quality solutions and for a meaningful personal experience and striving to be engrossed by his/her trip and to feel completely engaged. ‘New’ tourists want to be more than spectators; they want to be more active and creative (Richards, 2011). They show great appreciation for what seems authentic and not contrived and for places said to preserve local cultural heritage.

The make-up and motivations of contemporary tourists have contributed to create a very favorable context for the development of forms of tourism alternative to the type of tourism often described as the archetype of Fordist tourism, a system of (mass) tourism (Pollock 2012) built on the industrial model of production and consumption, which turned places into products, guests into customers and market segments and experiences into packages. This has led to an increase in the demand for alternative forms of travel, that go beyond the conventional filters and intermediaries that used to characterize the tourist industry, and that place the tourists in direct contact with the local environment, giving value to all that which seems genuine and non-contrived. In economic terms, the “post-Fordist tourism” is based on the idea of relational goods, i.e. goods that cannot be enjoyed alone (Zamagni, 2007; Ruisi, 2004); in other words it is a type of tourism that is created and enjoyed through the establishment of interpersonal relationships in which organizers are not just profit-driven, but strive to establish an atmosphere of honest and shared hospitality.

Home-swapping is one of the new collaborative trends born as a consequence of the spread of this new form of tourism. By literally consisting in the mutual exchange of homes over varying periods of time for the purpose of holiday-making, work or study and by occurring directly between house owners from all parts of the world (and thus not envisaging the use of intermediaries), it perfectly seems to constitute an answer to tourists’ growing need to enjoy new experiences while abandoning the traditional mass-tourism holidays as mentioned above (Arente & Kiiski, 2006; Grit & Lynch, 2011). It is a new and different way of travelling, that allows tourists to get in touch with local residents and to establish relationships with home owners as well as their neighbourhood.

Surely, the success of non-conventional travel options such as home-swapping has been largely due to the recent advances in information technology. In fact, as often highlighted, the development
brought about by allowing for the constitution of new forms of social interaction and Web 2.0 has had a strong impact on the current commercial environment (O’Brien 2011) including the tourist sector. Digital platforms make it easier for people (in this case tourists) to self-organize, and are therefore essential to enable new forms of collaboration and exchange.

Although home-swapping originated prior to the Web 2.0 era, the Internet has been essential to trigger the recent rapid development of this collaborative form of holiday. The internet, and in detail advanced communication protocol technology, has played such a role mainly by allowing tourists to establish digital connections, thus making it easier to create a relationship of mutual trust among strangers (Arente & Kliski, 2006; Mosedale, 2011). This has clearly helped to assuage fears, to lower the swappers’ perceived risk and it has contributed to foster the reaching of agreements between them. While when first born, in the Fifties, the practice of home-swapping was used to exchange home between networks of people that were not very ample, thanks to IT, swappers from all over the world can nowadays easily communicate on many interactive platforms. Before reaching an agreement swappers often meet each other via Skype and exchange many information or photographs via email, etc., and it is only after having sized each other up that the two parties choose whether to undertake the exchange or not. Furthermore, home-swapping networks and many other online social networking platforms have implemented reputation systems which are becoming an increasingly important component of online communities (Masum, Tovey & Newmark, 2012), based on members’ digital footprints and feedback received, which encourage good behaviour, collaboration and new mechanisms for trust between individuals anywhere in the world.

Other means of enhancing trust between swappers and reduce the risks due to the elimination of conventional filters and service intermediaries are the possibility that swappers have to transmit and control information by means of “digital word-of-mouth” (O’Brien 2011), through websites that process offers and requests for home swapping throughout the world. In fact, when registering with such sites or preparing their home before an exchange, members put lots of effort into formulating their profile and setting out their home. Swappers are aware that reputation matters in the online community world, especially if they want to be able to repeat the experience in the future. Finally, in peer-to-peer collaborative tourism, reciprocity is the most important principle: you are entrusting your belongings to a person who will do the same to you. This principle as well greatly encourages trust between peers and fosters security within the system.

Given the recent rapid growth of the home-exchange phenomenon and its ever-increasing popularity, it comes as a surprise how hardly it has been covered academically (Grit, 2008, p.1). Because of the lack of empirical research, in 2013 a structured questionnaire was designed to carry out an in-depth study of the characteristics of the tourists who have embraced home-exchange for their holidays. The self-administered survey of about 50 questions was launched online on 20th April 2013 with a message sent to all members of Homeexchange.com network, one of the most popular home-swap organisations, by the network’s central office. The survey covered many issues, and aimed at investigating home-swappers’ socio-economic status (level of education, work, type of family), motivations behind the decision to exchange homes for holiday purposes, travelling and consumption habits and satisfaction levels with the services provided by their network.

A very important result of the survey on which this article focuses is the one concerning home-swappers’ level of trust. Not surprisingly, given that one must possess a high level of generalised trust in order to exchange his/her home with a stranger, it was found that one significant common feature of home-swappers is their rather high level of generalised trust, i.e. trust towards strangers. In fact, as discussed above, trust plays an important role in the home-swap phenomenon, that was found to be generally more widespread in countries traditionally showing a higher generalized level of trust. Particularly interesting in this respect is the Italian case, as in comparison with other countries, Italians usually score very low with regards to their level of trust towards people they do not know, and as they also have a high sense of home ownership, which makes it hard to lower the risk perceived in entering a home-swapping practice. The data collected in Italy show that Italian swappers present way higher levels of ‘generalized trust’ than Italian non-swappers. Furthermore, the survey reveals that Italian swappers are highly satisfied with their home-swapping experiences. Similar results were obtained at an international level. These results indicate that home-swapping
might be set to increase. Furthermore, being home swapping intrinsically a phenomenon that entails
the creation of a relation with another, unknown person, as we have previously said, and being
these relationships the conditio sine qua non for the exchange to occur, the results obtained also
demonstrate that the trust-building process as well as the risk-reducing factors that we have
discussed above, have clearly obtained the desired effect on the home-swappers.

In conclusion, it has to be said that even though the number of people undertaking home swapping
has considerably increased over the last few years, home-swapping is still a form of alternative
travel which falls within the 'niche market' category. Among the many other results, the survey
conveyed revealed that current house-swappers do not perceive high levels of risk associated to the
practice of house-swapping. Thus, the future challenge for these networks will be to reach an ever
wider audience and to convey the idea that swapping homes is not only a cheap and implicitly
sustainable way of travelling but also, and perhaps even more importantly, a safe way to visit places
and travel around the world.

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The perception of risk as a determinant of destination choice processes

Marion Karl
University of Munich
Germany
Marion.Karl@geographie.uni-muenchen.de

Introduction

Destination choice processes are influenced by a variety of factors, among them risk. Risk-related factors influence the rejection of a holiday destination at a certain stage of the destination choice process. Fuchs and Reichel (2006) for example state that risk perceptions are, in many cases, stronger determinants in destination choice than actual risk levels at the destination. Sönmez and Graefe’s (1998a,b) studies on risk perception and international travelling underline the importance of these subjective perceptions of risks in travel decision-making. Studies on risk and travel decision-making (e.g. Floyd, Gibson, Pennington-Gray, & Thapa, 2004; Fuchs & Reichel, 2006; Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007) agree that risk influences destination choice but not on the strength or the manner of the influence. Whereas a study of Floyd et al. (2004) in the aftermath of the September 11th terrorist attacks shows that tourists avoid international travelling if the level of perceived risk is too high, other research, for example from Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009), indicates that high levels of risk or perceived risk only lead to a substitution of travel destinations but not to a cancelling of all (international) travel plans.

In this study, set theory was applied as it allows identifying reasons for the rejection of destinations at certain stages in order to clarify when and how risk (perception) affects the destination choice process. The highly complex destination choice process is simplified in set theory by grouping alternative destinations into hierarchical ordered sets and choosing a final destination from a smaller subset (Crompton, 1992). An advantage of set approaches is that they concentrate on the multistage process rather than on the outcome of the destination choice.

The aim of this study is to better understand the role of risk and in particular of risk perception in the destination choice process. One aspect is to discover differences in the assessment of travel risk categories and in the perception of these factors as deterrents of destination choice. Another objective is to develop a tourist typology based on travel risk perception and destination choice to explain variances in the importance of risk in destination choices.

Methodology

Two quantitative surveys were conducted in Munich, Germany in 2013 (n = 835) and 2014 (n = 402) on German tourists’ risk perceptions and destination choice behaviour. A screening question was asked at the beginning of the personal interviews to ensure that only potential tourists (plan to travel within the next twelve months) who are actively involved in the destination choice (14 years and older) are participating in the survey. This study focuses on destination choice sets with a particular position in the destination choice process (future/initial consideration set, relevant set and past destination choice) to examine the discrepancy between would be, planned and effective destination choice behaviour. The future and initial consideration sets represent would be choices and are built from destinations that respondents would like to visit in the future. Similar to Crompton’s (1992) initial set, they are created before the destination choice for an actual trip is activated. In contrast to this, the relevant set refers to planned choices concerning a specific holiday. It contains all alternative destinations which are considered for this trip. The relevant set is based on the late consideration set (Ankomah, Crompton, & Baker, 1996; Crompton, 1992) as a limited time frame between the choice and the start of the holiday is included in this study (maximum twelve months). Moreover, past destination choices (i.e. main holidays of the last three years) were included in the survey to represent actually finalised destination choices. Risk perception was analysed with items on risk-taking propensity, risk affinity, risk valuation and risk attribution to holiday destinations.
Information on social demographics, past travel behaviour or travel preferences and risk experience was gathered to obtain tourist profiles and to better estimate travel behaviour.

Two cluster analyses were conducted to investigate the influence of risk on destination choice. The first cluster analysis aimed to differentiate tourists according to their handling of risk and uncertainty while travelling. The second cluster analysis focuses on the respondents’ perceived influence of different travel risk categories on destination choice to reveal a tourist typology in regard to risk in destination choice. In order to test the validity of the cluster analyses, multiple discriminant analyses were carried out, resulting in a high percentage of correctly classified cases for both cluster analyses. The resulting tourist typologies were subsequently tested for significant influencing factors from the tourist perspective and the actual destinations that are considered throughout the tourists’ destination choice processes.

Results & Discussion

The first cluster analysis reveals five types of tourists with varying risk-taking propensities and uncertainty avoidance. These tourist types differ significantly in regard to sociodemographic (i.e. age, education, profession) and travel-related (e.g. past travel experience) aspects. For example, the variable age is negatively correlated to risk-taking propensity. Furthermore, the kinds of destinations which are considered during the destination choice process vary significantly between the tourist types. One type of tourist, for example, is characterised by a discrepancy between the actual rather risk-avoiding travel behaviour and the desire to visit rather risky destinations in the future. Since these tourists are still relatively young and at the beginning of their travel career, it is possible that they will implement their travel wishes with an increase in travel experience. All in all, the first tourist typology is able to show that a relation between handling and perception of travel risk and destination choice exists, which is further investigated using the second cluster analysis on risk and destination choice.

The second cluster analysis results in four tourist types who rate risk categories differently in regard to the perceived influence on their destination choice. The following five travel risk categories, which are investigated in many studies on risk and tourism, were selected since risk that could cause physical injuries is proven to strongly affect tourist decision-making (Gray & Wilson, 2009): natural disasters (e.g. Park & Reisinger, 2010); health risks (e.g. Jonas, Mansfeld, Paz, & Potasman, 2011); crime (e.g. Ryan, 1993); political instability (e.g. Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008); terrorism (e.g. Saha & Yap, 2014). This cluster analysis reveals tourist types with high or low perceived influence of all risk categories and types who perceive the category natural risks differently from the other risk categories. The analysis of decisive determinants of the tourist typology indicates that differences in the assessment of travel risks as influencing factors of destination choice can be related to tourist characteristics and attributes of the considered destinations in the destination choice process. Significant differences in tourist characteristics are socio-demographic variables such as age or gender as well as travel-related variables such as travel organisation preference. For example, tourists with a low perceived influence of risk on the destination choice prefer well-known destinations with package tours, whereas tourists with a high perceived influence are more likely to travel independently to more unknown destinations. This could indicate that tourists who are less interested in unknown destinations (often associated with a higher degree of risk and uncertainty) are not as concerned about risk, probably because it does not affect their travel decisions. The study furthermore reveals that tourists who do not perceive risk as an influencing factor of their destination choices tend to have a higher tendency to avoid risk and are more averse towards risk while travelling. However, these tourists state that risk is an important factor of their destination choice and do not include destinations with a high level of risk in the late stages of the destination choice process. This indicates that this tourist type dismisses all destinations associated with a higher level of risk before the actual destination choice process is started, while tourists with a lower perceived influence of risk still consider such destinations towards the end of the destination choice process (i.e. relevant set or past destination choice).
Conclusion

This study emphasises that research on risk as an influencing factor of destination choice should include destination as well as tourist attributes since destination choice is also a combination of both factors. A combination of tourist- and destination-related factors leads to the rejection of a destination at a certain stage of the destination choice process or even the selection as a final destination. A limitation of this study is the transferability and generalisability of the results. It is an explorative study focusing on the German tourism market which impedes the application to other markets with different cultural characteristics. For example, uncertainty avoidance is an important factor in this study and the results should therefore be interpreted considering the generally high uncertainty avoidance of Germans (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Moreover, the judgement of destinations in regard to risk is often highly influenced by current events and especially by the media representation of these events (Hall & O’Sullivan, 1996). While some areas of the multidimensional concept of risk perception are linked to the personality of the tourist and will probably not change or only change over a longer period of time, some dimensions of risk perception are changing due to recent events, at least in regards to holiday destinations. A temporal dimension might help to investigate this aspect more closely.

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Antecedents of Brazilian Students’ travel: Are they ready to adventure New Zealand?

Asad Mohsin, Jorge Lengler
University of Waikato
New Zealand
amohsin@mngt.waikato.ac.nz

Introduction

Youth travel is emerging to be an important segment for tourist destinations, not only in terms of their current interest but also as future tourists with potential for a repeat visit. In trying to assess the inner drive of young students as travellers, Chhabra (2012) finds that for the majority of students, super ego was in harmony with their inner drive to travel. Youth travel behavior continues to be an area of research interest as it is noted that young university student travel behavior is different from that of the general population (Chen, 2012). As a young university student even a short-term study related travel has shown to impact on their attitude, awareness and cross-cultural perceptions (Peggy, 2011; Bywater, 1993). Such experience is seen to be beneficial to young students as it influences their longer travel plan (Ballantyne et al 2012). The change in travel attitude is also evident from the fact that young Americans now think beyond Europe and head towards China, India, Kenya, Peru, Nicaragua etc. (Deresiewicz 2009, Field, 1999). Youth travel research further explores and compares travel behavior from a cross-cultural perspective as well. Xu et al. (2009), in comparing young student travel behavior from the UK and China, note some similarities between the two groups. Both groups enjoyed beach holidays and placed importance on having fun, preferred to eat local food and were motivated to discover somewhere new. There were some differences also that were evident for example Chinese students were keen to see famous sights and learn about other cultures and history. On the other hand British students were keener to have fun, to socialise and enjoy the challenges of outdoor adventure (Xu et al., 2009).

Considering the rapid growth of outbound travel market from Brazil which records that outbound trips grew by 62% between 2000 and 2010 (European Travel Commission, 2013), the country is one of the new emerging travel markets in Europe, scarce research with regard to Brazilian students' travel behavior specifically in relation to New Zealand prompted the current research. In recent years, over 11,500 Brazilians visited New Zealand annually, with numbers increasing by more than 10% annually over the past four years (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2013). It partly may be because Brazilians travelling to New Zealand for less than three months do not need to apply for a visa beforehand. In addition, the Brazilian education market is estimated to be worth at least NZ$57million per year to New Zealand (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2013).

The importance of Brazilian as tourists and the scant literature with regard to motives to visit New Zealand as a tourist destination provides the impetus for this study to explore the travel motivations of young Brazilians based on the Leisure Motivation Scale suggested by Beard and Ragheb (1983). The current study analyses the effects of the leisure motivation of young Brazilians on their perceptions of New Zealand as an attractive tourism destination. This emerging Latin American market segment of young university educated students from Brazil are potential travellers expected to subsequently enjoy careers with above average incomes and possess both the means for and interest in vacation travel. Hence, the specific objectives of this research assess:

a. What do young Brazilian search for relaxation on their vacation? and what are their perceptions about New Zealand as a holiday destination?

b. What do young Brazilian search for ‘feel-good’ experience when on vacation? What are their perceptions about the natural tourism features of New Zealand?

c. What do Young Brazilian search for socialization on their vacation? What are their perceptions about New Zealand as a beneficial social connectedness destination?

d. Does the perceived importance of natural experiences and connectedness impact their intention to travel?
Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses Development

Anticipating consumer behavior in the tourism sector is one of the main challenges marketing agents have been faced with (Peter and Olson, 1999). This challenge involves understanding consumers’ attitudes, feelings and behavior regarding the tourism services offered by tour agencies. With that goal in mind, tour agencies use market segmentation tools capable of helping them identify consumer characteristics among groups of individuals (Formica and Uysal, 1998). In the tourism literature, market segmentation has been singled out as a useful tool that helps managers develop more fitting marketing and positioning strategies (Bryant and Morrison, 1980; Cha et al., 1995; Loker and Perdue, 1992; Mo, Havitz and Howard, 1994; Mudambi and Baum, 1997; Cho, 1998, Sung, Morrison and O’Leary, 2000).

The study seeks to explore holiday motives of young Brazilians segment of the tourism market, identify their travel motives and activities that would be of interest. It proposes a theoretical model that adds to the literature on youth travel segment motives by testing importance of constructs such as relaxation, ‘feel-good’ experience and socialisation towards natural experience and beneficial connectedness within the context of young Brazilians.

The following hypotheses have been developed to test and propose implications from this study.

*H1:* the more young Brazilians explore relaxation on their vacations, the higher they perceive the importance of natural experience as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

*H2:* the more young Brazilians explore relaxation on their vacations, the higher they perceive the importance of connectedness as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

*H3:* the more young Brazilians explore ‘feel-good’ experiences on their vacations, the higher they perceive the importance of natural experiences as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

*H4:* the more young Brazilians explore ‘feel-good’ experiences on their vacations, the higher they perceive the importance of connectedness as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

*H5:* the more young Brazilians explore socialisation on their vacations, the higher they perceive the importance of natural experiences as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

*H6:* the more young Brazilians explore socialisation on their vacations, the higher they perceive the importance of connectedness as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

*H7:* the more young Brazilians perceive the importance of natural experiences as an attraction to visit New Zealand, the higher their intention to discover new places and things.

*H8:* the more young Brazilians perceive connectedness as an attraction to visit New Zealand, the higher their intention to discover new places and things.

The theoretical relationships and respective results are presented on Figure 1.
Research Methodology

The study was conducted using a sample of 327 tertiary level students from Brazil. Brazil is now one of the thriving countries in South America and has had an increasing importance as one of the main outbound markets in terms of spending abroad. The South American country presented a stimulating growth last year (52%), outperforming all other developing economies that form the BRIC countries (World Tourism Organization, 2011). We decided to interview Brazilian tertiary level students based on two reasons: 1) Brazil is one of the fastest-growing countries in terms of outbound tourism; 2) tertiary students form a potential youth market for the kind of tourism and attraction that has been analyzed in our study.
We used a structured questionnaire that was developed based on an extensive review of the existing literature in the tourism management area and after interviewing 3 academic experts in the field.

We assessed content validity through the literature review and by consulting experts in the tourism management area. Based on that procedure we can conclude that our measures have content validity. Convergent validity and scale reliability were assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The results obtained from the estimation of the CFA model indicate that the overall chi-square for the measurement model was 204.8 (p<0.001) with 104 degrees of freedom. In addition to the chi-square we examined four other measures of fit: comparative fit index (CFI= 0.946), Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI= 0.929), incremental fit index (IFI=0.945), and RMSEA (0.055). The results of the CFA model also show that the items employed to measure the constructs were both valid (convergent validity) and reliable (composite reliability, variance extracted, and internal consistency – Cronbach’s Alpha). Thus, the measurement model and its variables were deemed acceptable.

Testing of Hypotheses

We used structural equation modeling with maximum likelihood method to test all relationships on the structural model (Amos 20.0). The overall chi-square for the structural model was 237.2 (p<0.001) with 108 degrees of freedom (df). In addition to the chi-square we examined four other fit indices were examined: comparative fit index (CFI=0.931), Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI=0.912), incremental fit index (IFI=0.930), and root means squared error of approximation (RMSEA =0.061). All fit indices were within the recommended thresholds suggested by the literature in the area (Byrne, 2001). Thus, the estimated structural model was deemed acceptable. The path analysis of the structural model and hypotheses results are presented in Table 1 and Figure 1.

Surprisingly, hypothesis 1 was not supported (-0.357; p<0.01). This means that the more Brazilian students explore relaxation on their vacations, the less they perceive the importance of natural experience as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

The results for H2 show that that relationship is significant, but negative (-0.434; p<0.01). This means that young Brazilians who are looking for relaxation on their vacations do not perceive connectedness as an important attraction to visit New Zealand. Thus, hypothesis 2 was also rejected.

We found no support for hypothesis 3 that proposed the more young Brazilians explore feel-good experiences on their vacations, the higher they perceive the importance of natural experiences as an attraction to visit New Zealand (0.189; p>0.10).

The path coefficient for Hypothesis 4 was also non-significant (0.202; p>0.10), indicating that there is no relationship between the feel-good experiences by young Brazilians on their vacations and the perception of importance of connectedness as an attraction to visit New Zealand.

Furthermore, the relationship between the search for socialisation during vacations and the perception of importance of natural experiences as an attraction of visit New Zealand was found significant and positive (0.422; p<0.01). Thus, hypothesis 5 was supported.

In relation to hypothesis 6, the results indicate that the relationship between the search for socialisation during vacations and the perception of importance of connectedness as an attraction to visit New Zealand was found significant and positive (0.567; p<0.01). Hypotheses 6 was also supported.

In the case of H7, the results supported our argument that the more young Brazilians perceive the importance of natural experience as an attractive to visit New Zealand, the higher they intend to discover new places and things (0.150; p<0.05). The path coefficient for H8 was not significant (-0.068; p>0.10). Thus, H8 was not supported.
### Table 1: Path analysis of the Structural Model and Hypotheses Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linkages in the model</th>
<th>Standardized parameter estimates</th>
<th>Hypotheses Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1) Explore relaxation → importance of natural experience</td>
<td>-0.357</td>
<td>4.252*** R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2) Explore relaxation → importance of connectedness</td>
<td>-0.434</td>
<td>4.252*** R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3) Explore ‘feel-good’ experiences → importance of natural experience</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>1.432 NS R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4) Explore ‘feel-good’ experiences → importance of connectedness</td>
<td>0.202</td>
<td>1.350 NS R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5) Explore socialization → importance of natural experience</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>2.796** S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6) Explore socialization → importance of connectedness</td>
<td>0.567</td>
<td>3.177*** S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7) Importance of natural experience → intention to discover</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>2.395** S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8) Importance of connectedness → intention to discover</td>
<td>-0.068</td>
<td>1.006 NS R</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:  
* p<0.10  
** p<0.05  
*** p<0.01  
R – Rejected  
S – Supported  
N - Non significant

### Discussion and managerial implications

The current study analyses the effects of the leisure motivation on young Brazilians and their perceptions of New Zealand as an attractive tourism destination. The study draws upon the Leisure Motivation Scale to construct a theoretical conceptual model (Figure 1) and eight hypotheses are proposed to test whether importance of relaxation, feel-good experience and socialisation also becomes reasons for search for natural experience and beneficial connectedness. In this sense the study contributes to the literature within the context of potential Brazil’s youth outbound tourists, specifically in relation to New Zealand as a tourist destination.

The study is distinctive as it explores motives of young Brazilians towards holidaying. There is no or little evidence in literature of such an attempt being made in the context of New Zealand as a destination for the outbound tourism from Brazil. The outcomes, which involve grouping variables to construct motives and attractions adapting the Leisure Motivation Scale and assess their importance and relationships, have implications for both theory and practice. It is observed that there is a comparative dearth in tourism literature in English language with regard to the Latin America generally, and research with regard to New Zealand as a tourism destination for Brazilians is almost non-existent. In this way the study contributes to the literature by developing and testing relationships (Figure 1) to assess holiday attitudes of young Brazilians towards New Zealand as Tourist destination.

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A cidade pela arte: construções de moradores e visitantes

Ana Carolina Mendonça Oliveira
Universidade Federal Fluminense
Brazil
anacarol.mo@hotmail.com

Introdução

Roland Barthes (1985) entende a cidade como um discurso e, para ele, querer elaborar um léxico de significações para ela é uma tarefa absurda. A um bairro central (zonas exaustivamente estudadas do ponto de vista sociológico) podem-se atribuir diversas funções, em uma lista que deve ser constantemente completada, enriquecida e, ainda assim, esta representará apenas um nível elementar das representações da cidade (BARTHES, 1985). Isso porque, “os significados são como seres míticos, de uma extrema imprecisão, e, num certo momento, tornam-se sempre os significantes de outra coisa: os significados passam, os significantes ficam” (BARTHES, 1985, p.186).

Dentre os diferentes significados e usos da cidade estão os atribuídos por moradores e visitantes. Esses dois grupos distintos e heterogêneos circulam pela cidade e se esbarram enquanto influenciam e são influenciados pela narrativa da cidade. É importante entender o turismo como um fenômeno complexo que, apropriado por determinadas políticas, pode representar instrumento capaz de manter desigualdades e reforçar discursos a despeito da relação da população com sua cidade. “Ele é, a um só tempo, o lugar das estratégias para o capital e das resistências do cotidiano para os habitantes” (CORIOLANO, 2006, p.368).

Nesse contexto, o presente trabalho propõe investigar as diferentes percepções de moradores e visitantes do centro da cidade do Rio de Janeiro a partir das artes. A escolha pelo recorte artístico passa, fundamentalmente, por sua multiplicidade e pela inerente criação de imagens por parte das formas artísticas e outros artefatos culturais identificados por Harvey (1992). De modo complementar Lynch afirma que quando caminhamos pela cidade “quase todos os sentidos estão em operação, e a imagem é uma combinação todos eles” (LYNCH, 1997, p.2). Dessa forma a hipótese é que moradores e visitantes são afetados de forma distinta pelas artes, quando circulam pelo centro da cidade do Rio de Janeiro, e que ela influí na percepção da cidade.

Para tanto foi realizada, primeiramente, uma breve revisão bibliográfica sobre os seguintes referenciais: turismo, cidade, visibilidade, roteiro e o olhar do turista. Dialogando, fundamentalmente, com os seguintes teóricos: Coriolano, Barthes, Gomes, Lynch e Urry. Em um segundo momento, foi realizada uma pesquisa de opinião onde o universo são os transeuntes do centro da cidade do Rio de Janeiro.

Assim, a pesquisa quantitativa consistiu na aplicação de formulários aos passantes em dias e horários alternado, inclusive aos finais de semana. Totalizando 100 formulários com 20 questões. Os dados obtidos foram inseridos e processados pelo software SPSS 20. O tamanho da amostra e a conferência com a curva normal tornaram possível a inferência estatística para as variáveis estudadas, o que permite a consideração do universo de transeuntes do centro da cidade do Rio de Janeiro. Posteriormente, foi realizada uma entrevista qualitativa semiestruturada.

Contextualização bibliográfica

É possível identificar no fenômeno turístico a capacidade de valorizar o diverso, o múltiplo, em lugar da história única (GAGLIARDI, 2012). Para tanto, é fundamental a sensibilização dos habitantes da cidade com o objetivo de que percebam e participem da “produção” dessa cidade múltipla. Uma vez que, de modo antagônico, o processo de turistificação aprisiona os moradores em identidades estáticas, dando força à caracterização de habitantes e cidades como mercadorias. Em relação a esse processo Mascarenhas (2014) identifica que ele opera
“no plano simbólico. E este plano se tornou central para a acumulação capitalista, através do controle hegemônico das imagens e informações, cenário ideal para produzir lucrativas ilusões e camuflar as contradições. Mas a cidade mercadoria, espaço abstrato, império do valor de troca, espaço concebido e globalizado, moldada para consumidores, confronta os conteúdos sociais da cidade concreta.” (MASCARENHAS, 2014, p. 63)

Por ser uma atividade social e econômica dinâmica, diversos teóricos e instituições procuram definir turismo de modo a refletir seu amplo papel na sociedade. A massificação da atividade turística e seus impactos reforçam a importância de se definir parâmetros e conceitos que ajudem estudiosos, sociedade em geral, gestores públicos, profissionais do trade turístico e investidores a compreender as interfaces desse fenômeno. Coriolano (2006, p.368) afirma que o turismo,

“enquanto prática social é também econômica, política, cultural e educativa, envolvendo relações sociais e de poder entre residentes e turistas, produtores e consumidores. O turismo é simultaneamente ócio e trabalho, produto do modo de viver contemporâneo, cujos serviços criam formas confortáveis e prazerosas de viver, restritas a poucos. (...) A riqueza do turismo está na diversidade de caminhos para sua produção e apreensão, nos conflitos e possibilidades de entendimento desse fenômeno. Ele é, a um só tempo, o lugar das estratégias para o capital e das resistências do cotidiano para os habitantes”.

Assim, enquanto por um lado o turismo reforça a dominação e as desigualdades, por outro lado, o mesmo turismo pode promover a revisão de valores históricos e afetivos, inserindo novos sujeitos na história e considerando aspectos subjetivos e identidades marginalizadas.

É importante destacar a característica de fenômeno apropriador presente no turismo, já que o que quer que se venha chamar de turístico será sempre uma invenção e, nesta dinâmica, ele pode assumir tantas conotações quantas sejam as políticas que dele se utilizem. Sua capacidade de apropriar-se dos espaços dando a eles novos e múltiplos significados, o torna um fenômeno do qual o sentido dependerá sempre do ambiente onde ocorre e dos objetivos de quem o promove (GAGLIARDI, 2012).

Quando consideramos essa infinidade de significados é importantes considerar o que Urry (2001) chama de olhar do turista. Ao tecer considerações sobre espacialidade e temporalidade ele afirma que o deslocamento do turista vai muito além do aspecto simplesmente físico, ele implica em uma reeducação do olhar que passa a ser direcionado para aspectos diferentes dos que observamos todos os dias. Assim, quando o visitante percorre a cidade ele se depara com uma infinidade de cenas urbanas, que são fundamentalmente imagens em movimento, experimentadas in loco, em um ambiente urbano carregado sonora e visualmente.

Levando em conta um turista que percorre a cidade espontaneamente, a experiência sensível dessa pessoa certamente incluirá a escolha do percurso onde ela será confrontada com diversos focos potenciais de atenção (comidas, roupas, movimento de veículos, pessoas, sinalizações, sons etc...). Paulo Gomes lembra ainda, que “as coisas terão diferentes importências e chamará a atenção dependendo do tempo disponível e, sobretudo, dos interesses particulares e da sensibilidade de cada um” (2013, p. 203).

Indo além, ele afirma que o deslocamento espaço-temporal realizado pelos turistas e por moradores fazem surgir recortes espaciais distintos que, ao serem analisados conjuntamente, nos possibilitam identificar o espaço de modo mais abrangente. Essa identificação está intimamente ligada ao conceito de visibilidade apresentado por Gomes (2013), onde três elementos são determinantes: local; público e narrativa. Assim, é importante observar que “a visibilidade de um fato ou fenômeno muda segundo as propriedades de sua exposição, segundo a ordem de sua apresentação” (GOMES, 2013 p. 41). Desse modo um percurso seguindo um roteiro pré determinado tem uma narrativa – e consequentemente uma visibilidade – totalmente distinta de um elaborado de forma espontânea pelo caminhante.
Na sociedade contemporânea, produtos tangíveis e intangíveis são revestidos de um simbolismo, que agrega um valor superior ao seu valor de troca. Assim, as pessoas não consomem somente bens e serviços, mas, principalmente, imagens, signos e símbolos. Conforme ressalta Harvey (1992), esse processo, gera em si um fator redutor das possibilidades de análise da realidade, que é sempre mais profunda do que se é apresentado.

“As formas artísticas e artefatos culturais pós-modernos, pela sua própria natureza, têm de encarar autoconscientemente o problema da criação de imagens. Em consequência torna-se difícil escapar a ser o que está sendo retratado na própria forma de arte” (HARVEY, 1992, p.289)


Quando um visitante se insere nesse discurso ele realiza um exercício de olhar,

“Tais práticas envolvem o conceito de “afastamento”, de uma ruptura limitada com rotinas e práticas bem estabelecidas da vida de todos os dias, permitindo que nossos sentidos se abram para um conjunto de estímulos que contrastam com o cotidiano e o mundano” (URRY, 1996, p. 17)

E esse direcionamento do olhar

“implica frequentemente diferentes formas de padrões sociais, com uma sensibilidade voltada para elementos visuais da paisagem do campo e da cidade, muito maior do que aquela que é encontrada normalmente na vida cotidiana” (URRY, 1996, p. 18)

Resultados e Análises

Com base na análise dos dados dos formulários os principais usos do centro da cidade do Rio de Janeiro são trabalho e lazer. Os transeuntes entrevistados que afirmaram frequentar o local a lazer respondem por 68% e 53% usam para fins de trabalho. A faixa etária entre os 25 e os 64 anos responde por 80% dos passantes. Ainda em relação ao perfil médio, 42% afirmaram ter ensino superior completo.

A grande maioria, dos que responderam ao formulário, afirma identificar alguma forma de arte no centro da cidade do Rio de Janeiro, 93%. A probabilidade de isso ocorrer na população é de 63%. Dentre as artes reconhecidas a principal é a arquitetura com 68,8% das respostas, seguida pela música e escultura com 9,6% cada.

Quando perguntados sobre o interesse por arte em uma escala crescente de 1 a 10 a nota mais frequente foi 10 (28%). Já o percentual dos que atribuíram nota 7, 8 e 9 foi, respectivamente, 8%, 22% e 20%. Assim, entre os entrevistados, 78% quantificam seu interesse por arte com uma nota igual ou superior a 7. É importante observar que uma nota média 8 é extremamente elevada e deve considerar que os entrevistados, por status, podem ter aumentado a nota. A análise do status atrelado ao gosto pela arte é mencionado por Bourdieu e Darbel (2007) em seu livro “o amor pela arte”, fruto de pesquisas com frequentadores de diversos museus pelo mundo.

Cabem aqui considerações sobre as circunstâncias em que os passante se depararam com as formas de arte supra citadas no gráfico. A maioria (62%) estava a lazer e/ou turismo no centro da cidade quando reconheceu alguma forma de arte e apenas 23% garantem ter identificado quando circulava pela região a trabalho. O alto percentual associado as atividades de lazer e turismo encontra eco na análise de Urry (1996) sobre o conceito de afastamento, que implica em uma ruptura com a rotina, permitindo que nossos sentidos se abram para um conjunto de estímulos que contrastam com o cotidiano.
Com o intuito de incrementar a análise foi realizada uma entrevista semiestruturada com a Dra Rita Afonso, da UFRJ. Quando questionada sobre de que forma a arte pode influenciar a percepção que se tem das cidades ela ponderou que a resposta está nas inúmeras cidades visitadas por conta de seus artistas ou museus. Avaliou, ainda, que “a cidade pode ter uma narrativa interessante, que pode ser absorvida por moradores e visitantes em contraposição com outras narrativas, como as de violência, por exemplo”.

Em seguida foi inquirida sobre se essa observação muda a forma de se relacionar com a cidade ela respondeu que “qualquer narrativa muda a forma de se relacionar” e depois completou “a gente se redescreve nas narrativas”.

**Conclusão**


**Referências**


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The outdoor experience, place meanings and the volcanoes risk perception: the case of Villarrica National Park, Araucanía Region, Chile.

Andrés Ried Lucy
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile
Chile
ried@uc.cl

This paper refers to some leisure manifestations in which the place is the center of experience, further physical environment is the main object of enjoyment and interest becomes like a question inseparable of leisure behavior (Iso-Ahola, 1980). Leisure Humanist Theory categorizes these manifestations of leisure, in the Ecological Environmental Dimension (Cuenca, 2003), and in the others fields has been conceived as outdoor recreation and / or ecotourism. Such experiences have been described as leisure experiences in wich they are arise and living through physical environment or place. That is, the space is not only necessary element if not becomes a trigger for the experience, becoming from an undifferentiated space to a "place" made sense and meaning to people in their lives (Tuan, 1977; Relph, 1976). What is revealed here is that the environment does matter in experience, but not any environment. In this regard, we can say that there is a substantial difference between urban and nature (Arnould & Price, 1993; Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989; Kellert, 2005; Louv, 2011), in other words, the place is very relevant in leisure practices, some visitors prefer choosing activities in and with nature that in the absence of it.

Along with the widespread evidence collected on the benefits that provides outdoor experience (Driver, PJ, & Peterson, 1991; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1986; H. Tinsley, 2004; Ried, 2012) there is another aspect that stands out from the experience of leisure in nature, which is the generation of deep and permanent links with natural spaces, that give meaning and significance to the life of individuals and groups (Patterson, Watson, Roggenbuck , & Williams, 1998; Eisenhauer, Krannich, & Blahna, 2000; Schroeder, 2000; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006; Roberts, 1999; Ried, 2012) and even the tourist destinations (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006; Campelo, Aitken, Thyne, & Gnoth, 2014). These links have been referred to in the literature generically as "Sense of Place" (Tuan, 1977), and have appeared diverse specifications and models of analysis like as Place Attachment (Altman & Low, 1992; Anderson & Fulton, 2008), Place Meaning (Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992; Wynveen, Kyle, & Sutton, 2010) and Special Places (H. Schroeder, 2000).

This paper shares some preliminary results of an ongoing research that aims to identify, analyze and understand the "place meaning" that visitors (tourists and residents) of protected areas, perceived about these territories. It also seeks to know how volcanic risk perception influences the construction of these meanings.

Using a qualitative methodological approach, diverse and rich information that facilitates understanding of the meanings of place that visitors ascribed to the protected areas and how they perceive the risk by the presence of an active volcano in this natural area is collected. The instruments used were interviews and literature review.

The research is conducted within the range of Villarrica National Park. Located in Chile in the Province of Cautín (Araucanía Region) and the Province of Valdivia (Region of Los Ríos), 12 km southwest of Pucon, in an area of big volcanoes and mountains reaching 3,776 meters. The park area is 63,000 ha. This protected area has some features that make it an ideal space for this research. Presents high rates of visitation (it is considered the 3rd most visited park in Chile), receives a different (foreign, domestic tourists, residents and local fans) public, has exceptional economic conditions such as glaciers, forests and the presence of indigenous communities Mapuche around. Additionally, within their margins the Villarrica volcano, one of the three most active volcanoes in Chile is located. The last eruptive cycle has started March 3, 2015 and the date of submission of this article, activity continues.
The (albeit preliminaries) current results suggest that emerge similar meanings than other studies developed in protected areas in other latitudes like a; contact with nature, exploration / discovery, sense of humility / simplicity, learning and social ties. Nevertheless, are important differences in assignment of meanings of where residents and visitors, especially residents belonging to the Mapuche native people. Preliminarily we can see that the perception of risk is not a factor that restricts or limits the visitation, by contrast, in subjects of this research appears as an element of attraction that even gives a unique character to the Villarrica National Park.
Russian tourists’ perceptions of authenticity of food based on trust

Marjo Särkkä-Tirkkonen, Sinikka Mynttinen, J. Logrén, T. Rautiainen
University of Helsinki, Aalto University School of Economics
Finland
marjo.sarkka-tirkkonen@helsinki.fi, sinikka.mynttinen@aalto.fi

Abstract

This study applies qualitative methods to reach a more in-depth understanding of Russian tourists’ relations to local food during their visit to Finland, especially, their trust in its authenticity. The results show that there is an interaction between the three forms of trust and perceived authenticity of local food among Russian tourists. The perceived authenticity and trust, accordingly, seem to be based on a positive image of Finnish food throughout the post-soviet period, the institutional performance of the Finnish food system as well as one’s own and other’s experiences.

Introduction

Russians are the largest national group among tourists visiting Finland, even after the recent downturn caused by the economic situation/devaluation of the Ruble. Russian tourists in Finland spend money mainly on food, household goods, sweets and children’s clothing (TAK, 2015). Thus, food is a fundamental element of the holiday experience. Finnish food products are highly valued by Russians, and, therefore, Russian tourists are an interesting target group in order to understand the perceptions of authenticity better in relation to local food as a tourism experience. Moreover, the research focused on this topic has been quite scarce so far.

Foods and drinks engage all the senses and have strong connections with place, because we have personal, sensory memories of consuming them in a certain setting. It can be argued that food has an ability to recall emotions and that is why tourists often search for authentic experiences via food products (Sims, 2009). Furthermore, they buy food e.g. as souvenirs in order to relive the holiday events with family and friends at home. Among Russian tourists also cross-border food tourism is common based on perceptions of high-quality foodstuffs and authenticity of the products in their original environment.

The process of forming the perception of an authentic food experience is very sensitive. An essential element in this process is trust, which is founded upon past experiences and knowledge and, at the same time, upon expectations for the future (Rousseau et al.,1998). Further, it is proposed that together with pre-contractual trust based on societal issues, stereotypes and cultural homogeneity, trust in individuals and collective entities plays a role in the process of creating predictability (Ellingsen and Lotherington 2008; Ellingsen 2006). Thus, in this paper tourists’ perceptions of authenticity of local food are studied from the viewpoint of trust based on different elements creating predictability. According to the results of interviews carried out among Russian tourists in the South Savo region in Finland, perceptions of authenticity of local food are argued to relate to trust in the food chain as a whole as well as in its actors: farmers, processors of food, restaurants, retail and the control system.

Methods

A qualitative method was chosen as the main research approach for this study, in order to get more in-depth understanding of Russian tourists’ perceptions of local food. Fourteen semi-structured in-depth interviews were given to a total of 15 interviewees (one married couple was interviewed together). Interview data were analysed using the phenomenographic approach. According to it the research focuses on the different ways in which people perceive, experience and conceptualise various aspects of a phenomenon in a given context. Further, the meanings of the perceptions, the possible similarities and also the differences between the conceptions were analysed. The
interviews were coded using NVivo 7 qualitative data analysis software (QSR NVivo 7.0.281.0 SP4, 2007).

The identification of Russian tourists for the interviews was achieved through cooperation with South Savo region’s tourism businesses after contacting local hotels and holiday cottage leasers, who in turn asked permission from their Russian visitors for their willingness to be interviewed. The interviews took place in the hotel or the holiday cottage the interviewees were residing. The interviews were guided by the following themes: what the overall food motivators for Russians are, how do the Russian tourists perceive local food, what motivates them to buy local food products in Russia and on holidays in the South Savo region in Finland and what are their experiences of local South Savo food products when visiting South Savo. The interviews were conducted in Russian by native Russian speakers, and took about one hour. All interviews were recorded, then transcribed and subsequently translated into Finnish.

Findings and argument

In the minds of the majority of interviewees food played a crucial role not only at home but also while travelling. Thus, Russian tourists typically paid attention to the origin of food products both at home and while in Finland, however, for different reasons. In Russia local food was preferred to Russian food for the sake of the relatively short logistical chain in a big country, which helps ensure the freshness of the products. Moreover, trust in small local producers was particularly high due to better traceability.

“When I buy food in Russia, it is even more important for me that they are local production. Firstly, it supports our local economy and secondly, the products are of higher quality as they are not transported long distances.”

Generally, food on holidays was welcomed among the Russian tourists as a change to the everyday routines and novel authentic food experiences were valued. In Finland, however, the meaning of authentic food appeared to be two-fold: authentic Finnish food and authentic local food. Generally, interviewees’ trust in the high quality of all Finnish food products seemed to be very strong even to the point of mixing the concept of locality in Finland with the Finnish origin of food products: all Finnish food is healthy and of a high standard.

One interviewee (RU11) stated that she believed that all products produced by Finns for their own consumption were of a high quality.

Nevertheless, interviewees perceived local food products provide not only new tastes, but also exciting/novel experiences and a means of getting to know the local culture. Tourists look for the signs of place (Ilbery et al., 2003) and the understanding of authenticity relates to the response that a particular tourism experience, e.g. eating local food, generates (Wang, 1999). Thus, many tourists expressed the desire to enrich their understanding about the South Savo area by trying new things via authentic food experiences.

“The core of the interest is simply to experiment and get to know something new. I am in Finland, so I need to try something Finnish.”

“I like e.g. berries or yogurt with berries. I reckon them as Finnish products”

According to Curral & Inkpen (2006) “trust is a dynamic construct moving or failing to move from one level to another, based on evidence regarding the trustworthiness of a trustee person, group or organisation”. It seemed that the trust of the Russian tourists in the Finnish food is based on structural trust which has transformed to pre-contractual trust in the long run.

” …it’s a kind of stereotypical perception that the Finnish butter which has always been of good quality is always good, I guess. “
Pre-contractual trust can be based on stereotypes (Ellingsen & Lotheringen, 2008; Singh & Sirdeshmukh 2000; Moorman et al.1992). These stereotypes seemed to be enforced by the structural trust that the interviewees have in the Finnish food and food quality control system while appreciating the predictability of the food quality.

“In principle, I think that all food products in Finland are facing very strict and thorough control. That’s why I can buy all food products with trustful mind in Finland.”

On one hand, in Finland the farmers were perceived as a part of the control system. On the other hand, the interviewees seemed to be convinced that in Finland it is not possible to produce food of bad quality based on some kind of a positive collective perception of Finns. Hence, the authenticity of local food in Finland seemed to be based on relational trust, also.

“It is enough that you know that the product is from Finland. That’s it!”

Finally, the Russian interviewees seemed to reckon the Finnish food or local food self-evidently authentic and did not bring out any experiences of inauthenticity. Thus seeking for special signs of authenticity, “authentic-seeking” as described by Yeoman (2006) did not clearly occur. This can be partly explained by Taylor (2001) who stated that authenticity is valuable only where there is perceived inauthenticity.

Conclusions

According to the study the experience of authenticity of the Russian tourists related to their trust in the Finnish food chain as a whole, as well as, in its actors: farmers, processors of food, restaurants, retail and the control system. In the minds of Russian people this structural trust had turned into a very strong stereotype of high quality Finnish food they had either experienced themselves or learned already in Russia. Thus, on the contrary to the situation in Russia, they did not need to know the farmers in Finland to feel secure with their food choices. Also, the relational trust played an important role in the experience of authenticity having its foundation on word-of-mouth in Russia and a kind of collective perception of Finns as trustworthy producers. Consequently, the Russian tourists seemed to be highly interested also in local food products, which they felt to enrich their experience of authenticity via deeper understanding about the South Savo region. However, it appeared to be very difficult for them to identify the labels of origin in Finland, especially, those informing of local origin of food products. This will set a challenge for the whole food chain together with the local tourism marketing in order to ensure the opportunities of Russian tourists experiencing not only authenticity of Finnish food but also the local food in different parts of Finland.

References


Smart Specialization ($S^3$): The new frontier in tourism research... and funding

Antonis L. Theocharous, Spyros Avdimitis, Constantinos Papadopoulos, Anastasios Zopiatis
Cyprus University of Technology / Canterbury Christ Church University
Cyprus and United Kingdom
antonis.theocharous@cut.ac.cy

Abstract

At a time when a significant number of European Union member-states are dealing with the detrimental effects of economic recession, the E.U. has defined, in the Europe 2020 Strategy framework, its vision for a social market economy. This vision is grounded on the establishment of three interconnected priorities, namely, smart development through education, research and innovation, and sustainability and inclusive development (Forey, 2014). In accordance with this new paradigm all member states must undertake an introspective critical view of their own strengths, resources, and potentials in order to determine priorities for innovation, collaboration and development. Towards this initiative, the European Union, in its reformed cohesion policy framework (McCann & Ortega-Argilés, 2013), attributed great importance to smart specialization as an "ex ante conditionality" for EU financial support for regional development, via its structural funds (SFs).

Smart Specialization, an original concept developed in the previous decade (Forey et al., 2009; McCann & Ortega-Argilés, 2013) entails a new approach for increasing the efficiency of European investment in research, innovation and entrepreneurship. According to Forey and Goenega (2013), smart specialization is a regional initiative seeking to explore and discover technological and market opportunities with the aim of establishing a robust competitive advantage, upon which related development policies will be conceptually based and implemented. It is important to clarify that Smart Specialization is not a doctrine that requires a region to specialize in a particular set of industries. Instead, the strategy espouses the element of "vertical and non-neutral" intervention, implying a bottom up, multidimensional and broad development mechanism of economic transformation, able to support the European Commission vision of “smart, sustainable and inclusive growth”.

Following prescribed E.U. guidelines, Cyprus, an E.U. member state since 2004, embarked on a journey to develop its own Smart Specialization Strategy (acronym $S^3$Cy) whose goal was to stimulate medium to long-term ‘smart’, ‘sustainable’ and ‘inclusive’ growth, which will be based on knowledge and innovation, and the rational use of available resources. Moreover, through economic and social development, and cohesion, the strategy aimed to enhance existing employment rates, especially among the youth.

The adapted E.U. guidelines describe a meticulous, six-step approach which necessitated the active involvement of the Cyprus’ primary economic stakeholders$^{16}$. The initial step was to analyze the actual economic structure of the region (for our purposes, Cyprus), thus revealing, via a SWOT analysis, the hierarchical importance and specificities of its economic sectors. The second step focused on governance since the effectiveness of smart specialization to nurture ‘innovation-driven growth’ is severely affected by such capabilities (Muscio et al., 2015), and the engagement of the

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$^{16}$ Ministry of Energy, Commerce, Industry and Tourism (MCIT), the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources and Environment (MoA), the Research Promotion Foundation, the University of Cyprus, the Cyprus University of Technology, the Open University of Cyprus, the Cyprus Scientific Council, the Cyprus Association of Rectors, the Cyprus Productivity Centre, the Human Resource Development Authority, the Cyprus Employers and Industrialists Federation, the Cyprus Chamber of Commerce and Industry, the Cyprus Consumers Association, the Association of Cyprus Banks, and the Technical Chamber of Cyprus.
economic sectors, thus ensuring the synthesis of perspectives, agents and players, whereas in the next step a common-shared vision was developed and declared for all stakeholders. Subsequently, this common vision became more detailed, thus setting the priorities and the mechanisms, both vertical and horizontal, that will enhance the aims and scope of the development. The fifth step entails the construction of an action plan, serving the coherence of players and domains, whereas the final step monitors and evaluates the accuracy of all undertaken policies.

Along with the six methodological steps, three basic principles were outlined and initiated at the beginning of the process. The first principle, ‘Turning Vision into Action’ was concerned with the ‘expansion of design’ from the stage of analysis, and the establishment of the strategy and vision, to the practical application and monitoring of implementation. The second principle was based on the concept of ensuring essential flexibility, while collaborative design was the third and final principle building on the encoded and scientifically classified participation of all representatives of the ‘quadruple helix’.

During the first step of the process, extensive data were collected, recorded and assessed in an analytical and systematic way in relation to the regional assets of Cyprus, its ‘strengths’ and ‘weaknesses’, its positioning in the European and global economy, the dynamics of its business environment, etc. More specifically, the research team analyzed data collected (a) from primary and secondary sources following a review of relevant literature (e.g. Foray, 2014; Landabaso, 2014), (b) analysis of smart specialization case studies (e.g. the Basque case of Valdaliso et al., 2014), (c) mapping and evaluation of the country’s economic environment, (d) evaluation of the existing Research, Technological Development, and Innovation (RTDI) environment, and (e) by conducting a field study investigating local enterprises with both the use of structured quantitative questionnaires and qualitative interviews / focus groups with opinion leaders. In a conscious attempt to provide a multifaceted analysis of all available data, the analytical tools of GAP, VRIO, PEST and Social Network Analysis were utilized (see Figure 1). The first step of analysis was completed with the SWOT analysis, in the framework of which all the findings resulting from the aforementioned tools were taken into consideration.
The extensive analysis of the primary research data, revealed, as exhibited in Figure 2, a network of direct and indirect connections between tourism and a large proportion of other economic sectors. More specifically, findings indicated a direct and strong dependence of tourism on natural and anthropogenic environment, information and communication technologies, health infrastructures, market (retail and wholesale), transportation, shipping, and construction. Using the statistical tool of social network analysis, indirect connections with the sectors of energy, agriculture, food process, business finance and real estate were flagged, thus validating the existence of a potentially strong and extended tourism-related development cluster. Taking, also into account the increasing number of tourist arrivals (compared to the country’s local population) and the abundance of synergies, in connection with our research findings, it was apparent, that the whole economy of Cyprus could benefit immensely from a tourism-specific development model mainly through the enhancement of multiplier effects.
Furthermore, research findings revealed that existing tourism development strategies and policies were not efficient in supporting the scope of sectorial interconnections with other sectors of the economy; thus highlighting the necessity for immediate and fundamental changes. Moreover, findings reaffirmed the fundamental issues confronting the local tourism industry, such as seasonality, low per capita spending rate, suboptimal financial control of tourism related activities, significantly low number of hotels with environmental awards, lack of infrastructures supporting alternative forms of tourism, substantial dependence on domestic and international tour operators, low rates of local product absorption, and spatial concentration of hospitality establishments. Nevertheless, despite the aforementioned deficiencies, our findings were adamant in highlighting the outstanding potential of the industry, especially during the 2014-2020 European Fund period, if a new way of ‘doing and thinking’ is adopted; the ‘Tourism New Deal’.

Cyprus’ ‘Tourism New Deal’ requires the development of a model that will strongly connect agriculture/livestock farming, food processing and commerce, with tourism, thus exploiting, in the most effective manner, the growing market of incoming tourism. The model should lay its foundations on quality, environmental awareness, social entrepreneurship and cooperatives, thereby stimulating hospitality establishments to enforce and preserve a standard of excellence able to meet the expectations of existing and emerging tourist markets. Domestic products and services will take centre stage in the reformed tourism experience, thus increasing both demand and supply, whereas the agricultural sector of the economy must undertake structural changes in order to facilitate more efficient and targeted production. Finally, social entrepreneurship and social cooperatives will be activated in an attempt to regulate the industry’s pricing issues.

Smart specialization may have a profound impact on the European research community in the near future since it will influence the specificities (allocated resources, thematic topics, priorities, etc.) of relevant research funding (Kroll, 2015). Our findings have highlighted both the importance of tourism as a vital economic sector, and its interconnectedness and interdependencies with other sectors of the economy. Knowledge gained from this endeavour suggests that unless hospitality and tourism scholars move away from the era of dependency and self-preservation (Zopiatis et al., 2015), available research funds, whose allocation is based on the newly acquired knowledge through Smart Specialization, might become a rare commodity. A new prudent paradigm, a new
frontier, that will best serve the discipline, must necessitate inter- and cross-disciplinary research collaborations with other economic sectors, as it strives to broaden our conceptual horizons, while simultaneously attracting more European funding.

References


